# Introduction to Parsing

Lecture 4-5

#### Outline

· Limitations of regular languages

Parser overview

Context-free grammars (CFG's)

Derivations

#### Languages and Automata

- · Formal languages are very important in CS
  - Especially in programming languages
- Regular languages
  - The weakest formal languages widely used
  - Many applications
- · We will also study context-free languages

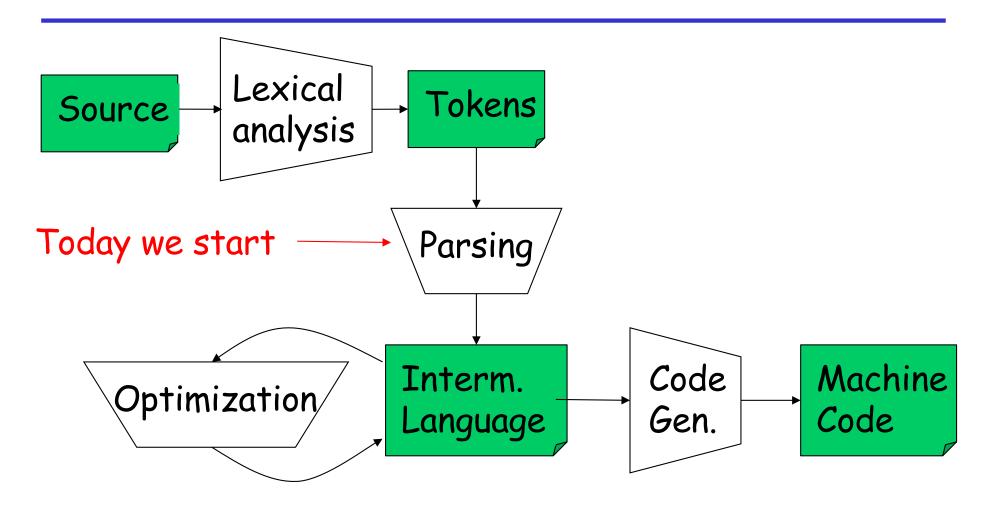
## Limitations of Regular Languages

• Language of balanced parentheses is not regular:  $\{ (i)^i \mid i \geq 0 \}$ 

## Limitations of Regular Languages

- Intuition: A finite automaton that runs long enough must repeat states
- Finite automaton can't remember # of times it has visited a particular state
- Finite automaton has finite memory
  - Only enough to store in which state it is
  - Cannot count, except up to a finite limit
- E.g., language of balanced parentheses is not regular:  $\{ (i)^i \mid i \geq 0 \}$

#### Recall: The Structure of a Compiler



## The Functionality of the Parser

· Input: sequence of tokens from lexer

· Output: parse tree of the program

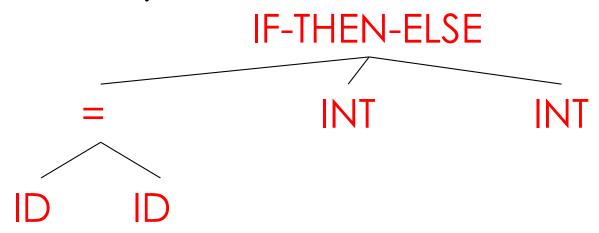
## Example

Example

if 
$$x = y$$
 then 1 else 2 fi

Parser input

Parser output



# Comparison with Lexical Analysis

Phase	Input	Output
Lexer	Sequence of characters	Sequence of tokens
Parser	Sequence of tokens	Parse tree

#### The Role of the Parser

- Not all sequences of tokens are programs . . .
- ... Parser must distinguish between valid and invalid sequences of tokens
- · We need
  - A language for describing valid sequences of tokens
  - A method for distinguishing valid from invalid sequences of tokens

#### Programming Language Structure

- Programming languages have recursive structure
- Consider the language of arithmetic expressions with integers, +, \*, and ()
- An expression is either:

#### Programming Language Structure

- Programming languages have recursive structure
- Consider the language of arithmetic expressions with integers, +, \*, and ()
- An expression is either:
  - an integer
  - an expression followed by "+" followed by expression
  - an expression followed by "\*" followed by expression
  - a '(' followed by an expression followed by ')'
- int , int + int , (int + int) \* int are expressions

#### Notation for Programming Languages

· An alternative notation:

## Notation for Programming Languages

· An alternative notation:

· We can view these rules as rewrite rules

## Notation for Programming Languages

An alternative notation:

$$\mathsf{E} o \mathsf{int}$$
 $\mathsf{E} o \mathsf{E} + \mathsf{E}$ 
 $\mathsf{E} o \mathsf{E} \star \mathsf{E}$ 
 $\mathsf{E} o \mathsf{E} \star \mathsf{E}$ 

- · We can view these rules as rewrite rules
  - We start with E and replace occurrences of E with some right-hand side
- $E \rightarrow E * E \rightarrow (E) * E \rightarrow (E + E) * E$  $\rightarrow$  (int + int) \* int

#### Observation

- All arithmetic expressions can be obtained by a sequence of replacements
- Any sequence of replacements forms a valid arithmetic expression
- This means that we cannot obtain (int))

by any sequence of replacements. Why?

· This notation is a context free grammar

#### Context Free Grammars

• 
$$G = (N, T, R, S)$$

#### Context Free Grammars

- A CFG consists of
  - A set of non-terminals N
    - · By convention, written with capital letter in these notes
  - A set of terminals T
    - · By convention, either lower case names or punctuation
  - A start symbol 5 (a non-terminal)
  - A set of *productions*
- Assuming  $E \in N$

$$E \to \epsilon$$
 , or 
$$E \to Y_1 \; Y_2 \; ... \; Y_n \qquad \qquad \text{where} \quad Y_i \in N \cup T$$

## Examples of CFGs

#### Simple arithmetic expressions:

$$E \rightarrow int$$
 $E \rightarrow E + E$ 
 $E \rightarrow E * E$ 
 $E \rightarrow (E)$ 

## Examples of CFGs

#### Simple arithmetic expressions:

$$\mathsf{E} o \mathsf{int}$$
 $\mathsf{E} o \mathsf{E} + \mathsf{E}$ 
 $\mathsf{E} o \mathsf{E} \star \mathsf{E}$ 
 $\mathsf{E} o \mathsf{E} \star \mathsf{E}$ 

- One non-terminal: E
- Several terminals: int, +, \*, (,)
  - · Called terminals because they are never replaced
- By convention the non-terminal for the first production is the start one

# The Language of a CFG

## The Language of a CFG

#### Read productions as replacement rules:

$$X \rightarrow Y_1 \dots Y_n$$

Means X can be replaced by  $Y_1 \dots Y_n$ 

$$X \rightarrow \epsilon$$

Means X can be erased (replaced with empty string)

## Key Idea

- 1. Begin with a string consisting of the start symbol "5"
- 2. Replace any <u>non-terminal</u> X in the string by a right-hand side of some production

$$X \rightarrow Y_1 ... Y_n$$

3. Repeat (2) until there are only terminals in the string

## The Language of a CFG (Cont.)

## More formally, write

$$X_1 \; ... \; X_{i-1} \; X_i \; X_{i+1} ... \; X_n \; \rightarrow \; X_1 \; ... \; X_{i-1} \; Y_1 \; ... \; Y_m \; X_{i+1} \; ... \; X_n$$

## if there is a production

$$X_i \rightarrow Y_1 \dots Y_m$$

## The Language of a CFG (Cont.)

#### Write

$$X_1 ... X_n \rightarrow^* Y_1 ... Y_m$$

if

$$\mathsf{X}_1 \ldots \mathsf{X}_\mathsf{n} o \ldots o \ldots o \mathsf{Y}_1 \ldots \mathsf{Y}_\mathsf{m}$$

#### in 0 or more steps

## The Language of a CFG

Let G be a context-free grammar with start symbol S. Then the language of G is:

 $\{a_1 \dots a_n \mid S \rightarrow^* a_1 \dots a_n \text{ and every } a_i \text{ is a terminal } \}$ 

#### Examples:

- 5  $\rightarrow$  0 also written as 5  $\rightarrow$  0 | 1 5  $\rightarrow$  1
  - Generates the language { "0", "1" }
- What about  $S \rightarrow 1$  A

$$A \rightarrow 0 \mid 1$$

• What about  $S \rightarrow 1$  A

$$A \rightarrow 0 \mid 1 A$$

• What about  $S \rightarrow \varepsilon$  (S)

## Arithmetic Example

#### Simple arithmetic expressions:

$$E \rightarrow E+E \mid E*E \mid (E) \mid id$$

#### Some elements of the language:

#### Another Example

#### A fragment of a grammar:

```
EXPR → if EXPR then EXPR else EXPR fi
| while EXPR loop EXPR pool
| id
```

## Example (Cont.)

Some elements of the language

id
if id then id else id fi
while id loop id pool
if while id loop id pool then id else id
if if id then id else id fi then id else id fi

#### Notes

The idea of a CFG is a big step. But:

- · Membership in a language is "yes" or "no"
  - we also need parse tree of the input
- · Must handle errors gracefully
- Need an implementation of CFG's (e.g., bison)

#### Derivations and Parse Trees

#### A derivation is a sequence of productions

#### A derivation can be drawn as a tree

- Start symbol is the tree's root
- For a production  $X \to Y_1 \dots Y_n$  add children  $Y_1, \dots, Y_n$  to node X

#### Derivation Example

- Grammar  $E \rightarrow E+E \mid E*E \mid (E) \mid id$
- String id \* id + id

## Derivation Example (Cont.)

$$\rightarrow$$
 E+E

$$\rightarrow$$
 E\*E+E

$$\rightarrow$$
 id \* E + E

$$\rightarrow$$
 id \* id + E

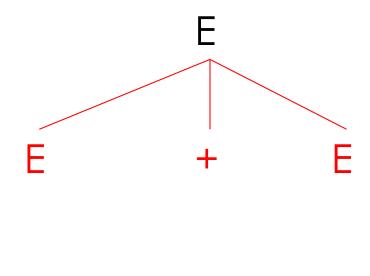
$$\rightarrow$$
 id \* id + id

## Derivation in Detail (1)

Е

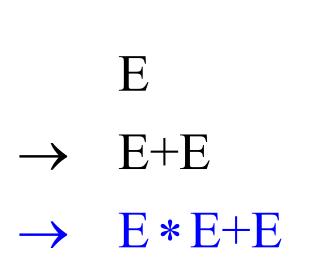
F

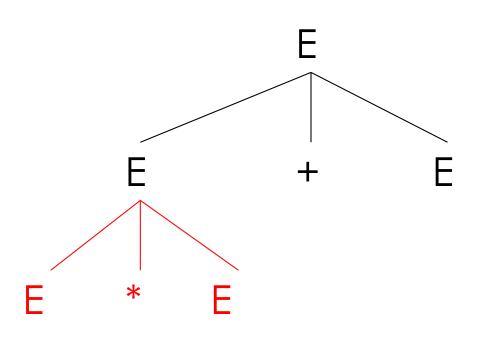
## Derivation in Detail (2)



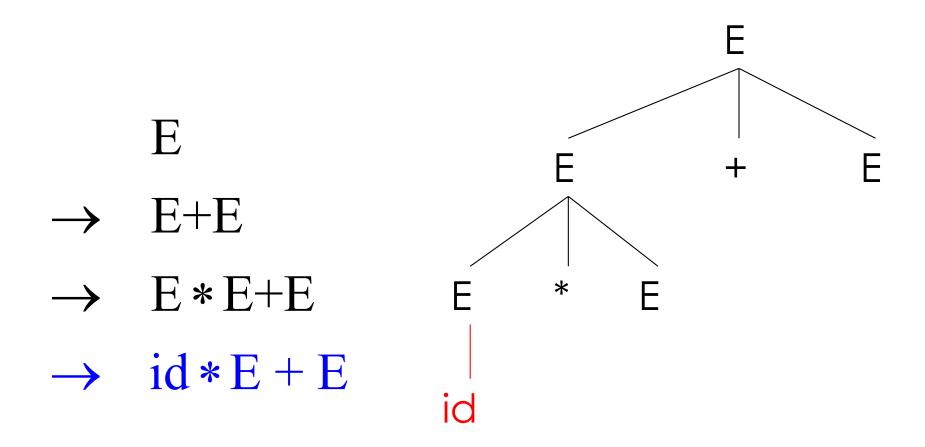
$$E \rightarrow E + E$$

# Derivation in Detail (3)

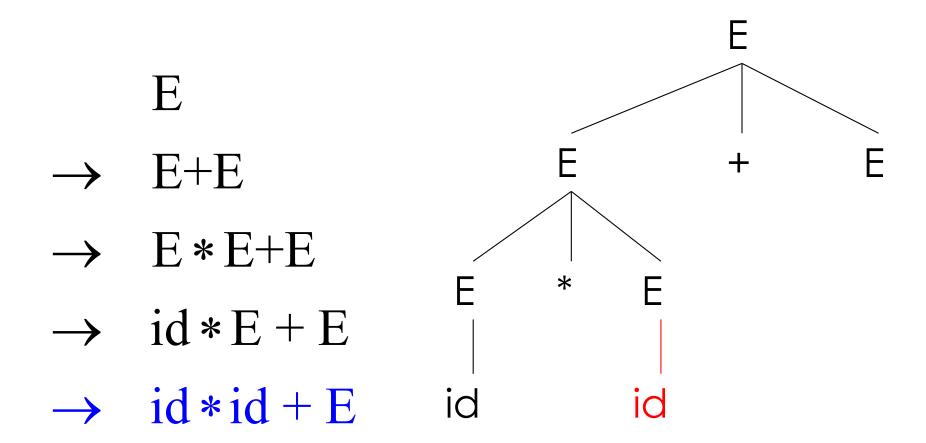




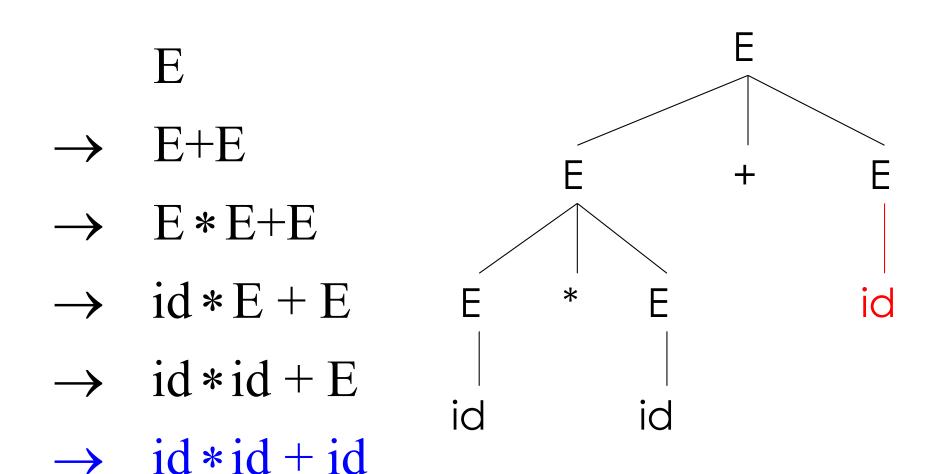
# Derivation in Detail (4)



# Derivation in Detail (5)



### Derivation in Detail (6)



#### Notes on Derivations

- A parse tree has
  - Terminals at the leaves
  - Non-terminals at the interior nodes
- A left-right traversal of the leaves is the original input
- The parse tree shows the association of operations, the input string does not!

# Left-most and Right-most Derivations

- The example is a *left-most* derivation
  - At each step, replace the left-most non-terminal
- There is an equivalent notion of a right-most derivation

$$\rightarrow$$
 E+E

$$\rightarrow$$
 E+id

$$\rightarrow$$
 E\*E + id

$$\rightarrow$$
 E \* id + id

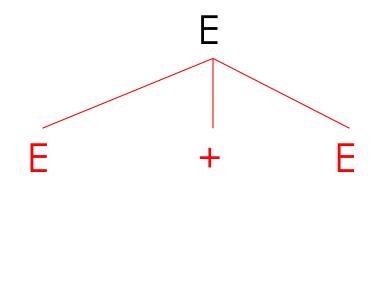
$$\rightarrow$$
 id \* id + id

# Right-most Derivation in Detail (1)

E

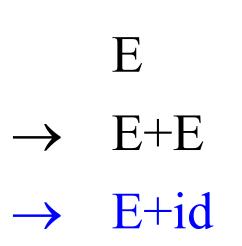
E

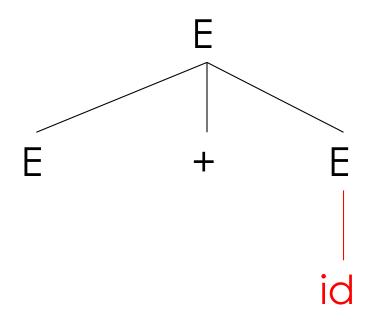
# Right-most Derivation in Detail (2)



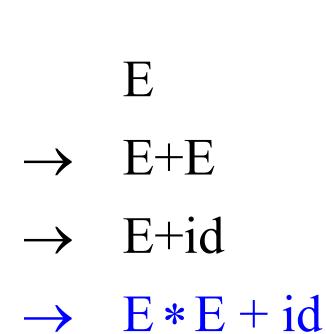
$$E \rightarrow E + E$$

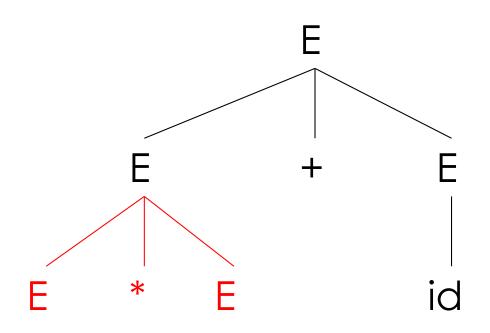
# Right-most Derivation in Detail (3)





# Right-most Derivation in Detail (4)





# Right-most Derivation in Detail (5)

$$E$$

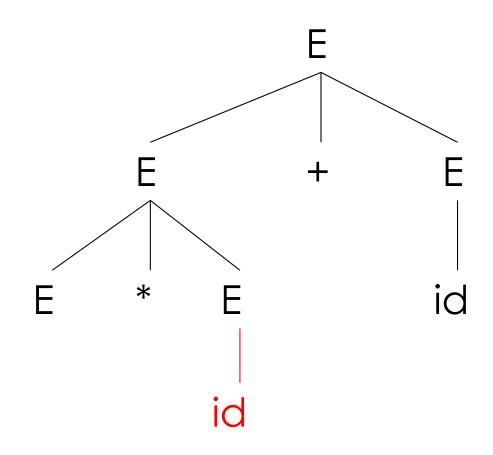
$$\rightarrow E+E$$

$$\rightarrow E+id$$

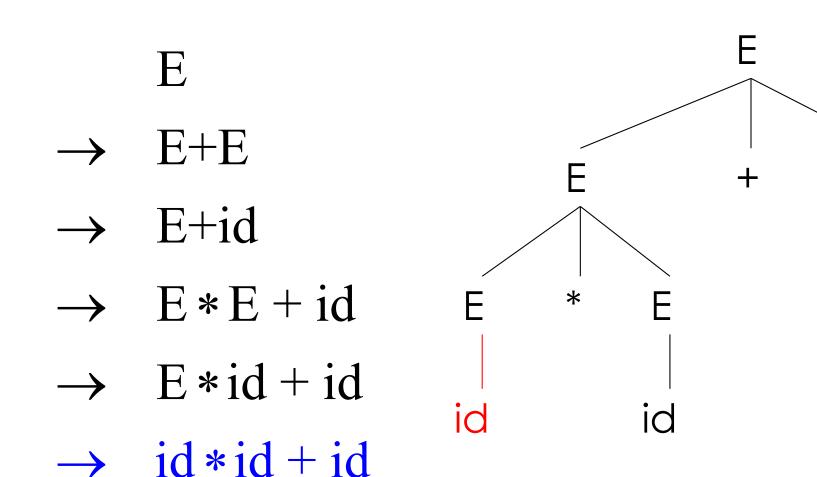
$$\rightarrow E*E+id$$

$$\rightarrow E*E+id$$

$$\rightarrow E*id+id$$



# Right-most Derivation in Detail (6)



id

#### Derivations and Parse Trees

 Note that for each parse tree there is a leftmost and a right-most derivation

 The difference is the order in which branches are added

#### Summary of Derivations

· We are not just interested in whether

$$s \in L(G)$$

- We need a parse tree for 5
- · A derivation defines a parse tree
  - But one parse tree may have many derivations
- Left-most and right-most derivations are important in parser implementation

### **Ambiguity**

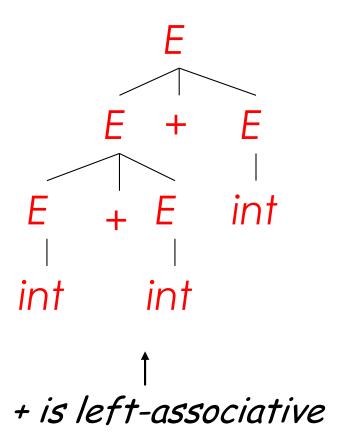
• Grammar

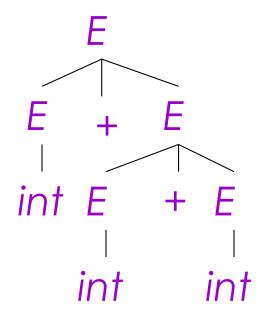
$$E \rightarrow E + E \mid E * E \mid (E) \mid int$$

Strings

### Ambiguity. Example

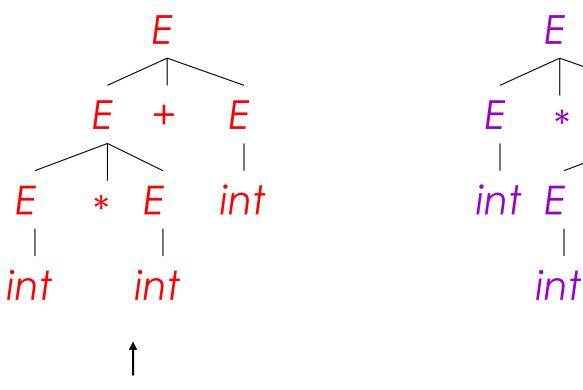
The string int + int + int has two parse trees





### Ambiguity. Example

The string int \* int + int has two parse trees



<sup>\*</sup> has higher precedence than +

# Ambiguity (Cont.)

- A grammar is ambiguous if it has more than one parse tree for some string
  - Equivalently, there is more than one right-most or left-most derivation for some string
- Ambiguity is bad
  - Leaves meaning of some programs ill-defined
- · Ambiguity is common in programming languages
  - Arithmetic expressions
  - IF-THEN-ELSE

# Dealing with Ambiguity

- · There are several ways to handle ambiguity
- Most direct method is to rewrite the grammar unambiguously

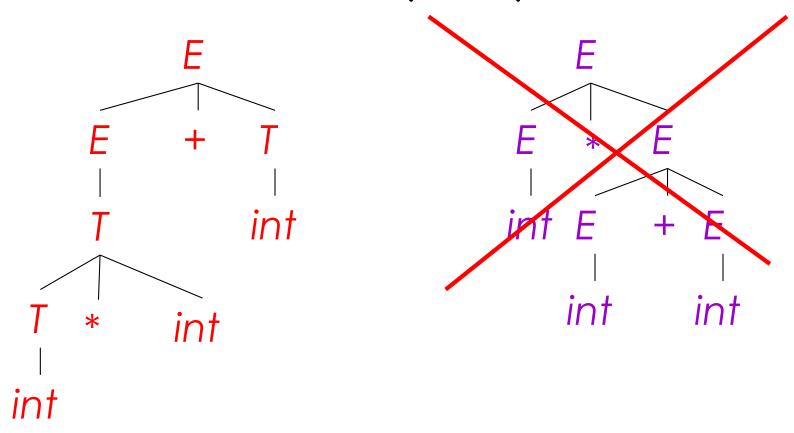
```
E \rightarrow E + T \mid T

T \rightarrow T * int \mid int \mid (E)
```

- Enforces precedence of \* over +
- Enforces left-associativity of + and \*

### Ambiguity. Example

The int \* int + int has ony one parse tree now



### Ambiguity: The Dangling Else

Consider the grammar

```
E \rightarrow if E \text{ then } E
| if E then E else E
| OTHER
```

This grammar is also ambiguous

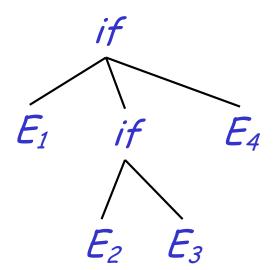
```
if E_1 then if E_2 then E_3 else E_4
```

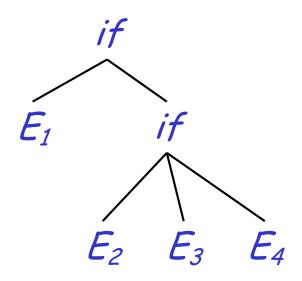
### The Dangling Else: Example

The expression

if 
$$E_1$$
 then if  $E_2$  then  $E_3$  else  $E_4$ 

has two parse trees





· Typically we want the second form

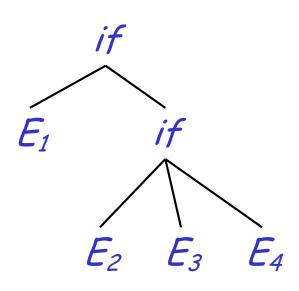
#### The Dangling Else: A Fix

 Statement appearing between a then and else must not have an open then

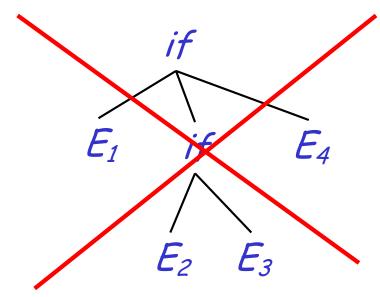
Describes the same set of strings

### The Dangling Else: Example Revisited

• The expression if  $E_1$  then if  $E_2$  then  $E_3$  else  $E_4$ 



• A valid parse tree (for a UIF)



 Not valid because the then expression is not a MIF

### **Ambiguity**

- · No general techniques for handling ambiguity
- Impossible to convert automatically an ambiguous grammar to an unambiguous one
- Used with care, ambiguity can simplify the grammar
  - Sometimes allows more natural definitions
  - We need disambiguation mechanisms

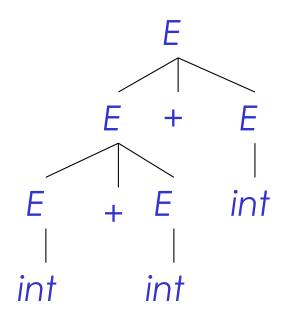
### Precedence and Associativity Declarations

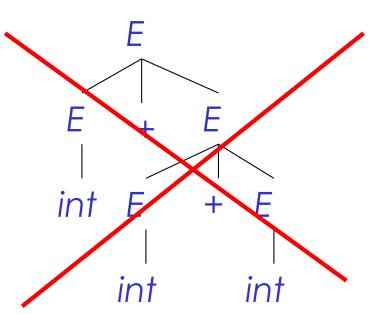
- · Instead of rewriting the grammar
  - Use the more natural (ambiguous) grammar
  - Along with disambiguating declarations
- Most tools allow precedence and associativity declarations to disambiguate grammars
- Examples ...

#### Associativity Declarations

Consider the grammar

- $E \rightarrow E + E \mid int$
- Ambiguous: two parse trees of int + int + int

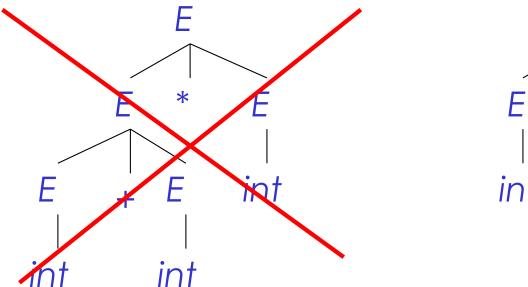




· Left-associativity declaration: %left +

#### Precedence Declarations

- Consider the grammar  $E \rightarrow E + E \mid E * E \mid int$ 
  - And the string int + int \* int



E + E int E \* E int int

• Precedence declarations: %left +

%left \*

#### Review

- We can specify language syntax using CFG
- A parser will answer whether  $s \in L(G)$
- · ... and will build a parse tree
- · ... and pass on to the rest of the compiler
- · Next:
  - How do we answer  $s \in L(G)$  and build a parse tree?