

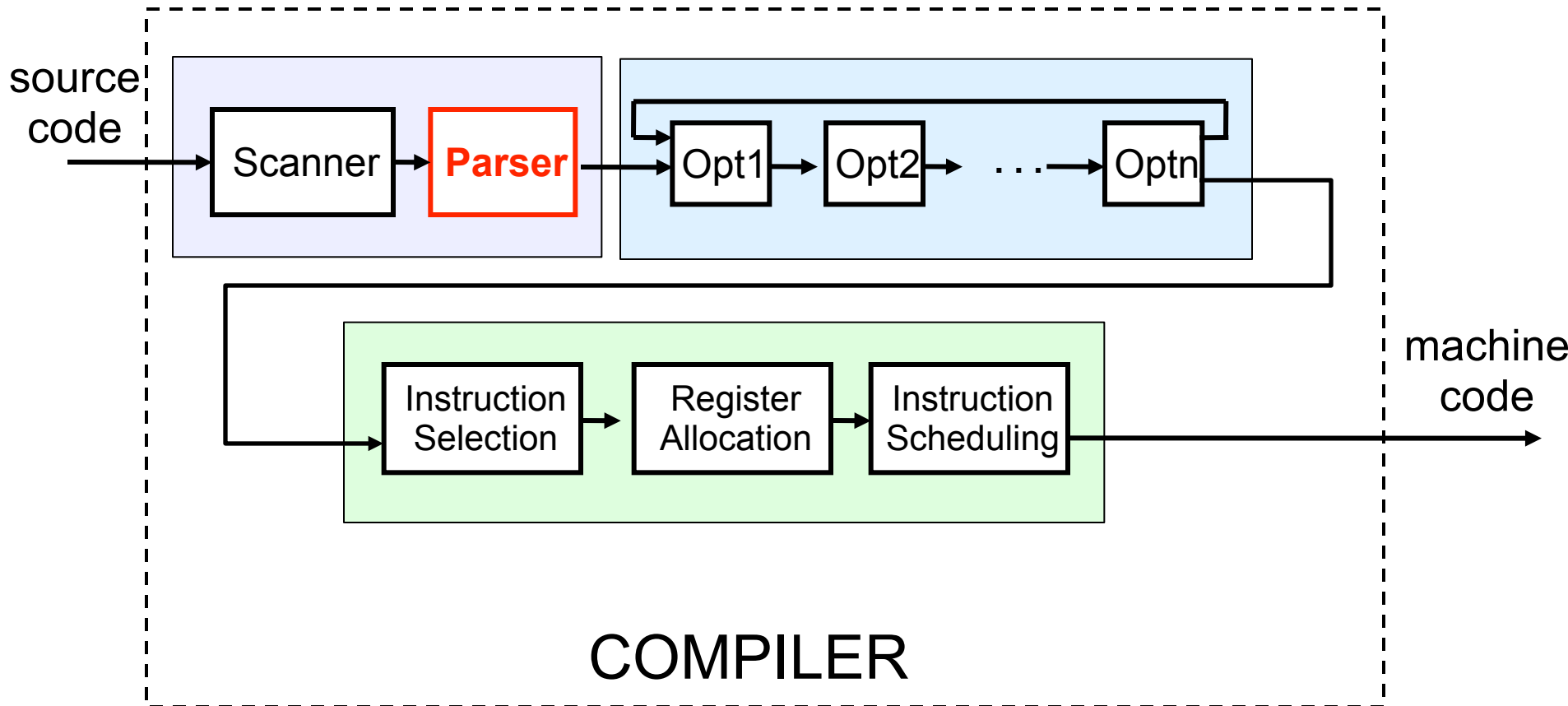


Syntactic Analysis (“parsing”)

ICS312 Machine-Level and Systems Programming

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The Big Picture Again



Syntactic Analysis

- Lexical Analysis was about ensuring that we extract a set of valid **words** (i.e., tokens/lexemes) from the source code
- But nothing says that the words make a coherent **sentence** (i.e., a program that can be compiled)
- Example:
 - “if while i == == == 12 + endif abcd”
 - Lexer will produce a stream of tokens: <TOKEN_IF>
<TOKEN_WHILE> <TOKEN_NAME, “i”> <TOKEN_EQUAL>
<TOKEN_EQUAL> <TOKEN_EQUAL>
<TOKEN_INTEGER, “12”> <TOKEN_PLUS, “+”>
<TOKEN_ENDIF> <TOKEN_NAME, “abcd”>
 - This program is **lexically correct**, but **syntactically incorrect**
 - Just like in English “apple me ate tree tree” is lexically correct but syntactically incorrect

Grammar

- Question: How do we determine that a sentence is syntactically correct?
- Answer: We check against a **grammar**!
- A grammar consists of rules that determine which sentences are correct
- Example in English:
 - A sentence must have a verb
- Example in C:
 - A “{” must have a matching “}”

Grammar

- Regular expressions are one way we have seen for specifying a set of rules
- Unfortunately they are not powerful enough for describing the syntax of programming languages
- Example:
 - If we have 10 '{' then we must have 10 '}'
 - We can't implement this with regular expressions because they do not have memory!
 - No way of counting and remembering counts
- Therefore we need a more powerful tool
- This tool is called **Context-Free Grammars**
 - And some additional mechanisms

Context-Free Grammars

- A context-free grammar (CFG) consists of a set of **production rules**
- Each rule describes how a **non-terminal symbol** can be “replaced”/“expanded”/“rewritten” by a string that consists of non-terminal symbols and **terminal symbols**
 - Terminal symbols are really lexical tokens (i.e., valid “words”)
 - Rules are written with syntax like regular expressions
- Rules can then be applied recursively
- Eventually one reaches a string of only terminal symbols (unless a syntax error is found)
- This string is then proven syntactically correct

CFG Example

- Set of non-terminals: A, B, C (uppercase initial)
- Start non-terminal: S (uppercase initial)
- Set of terminal symbols: a, b, c, d (lowercase initial)
- Empty symbol: ϵ
- Set of production rules:
 - $S \rightarrow A \mid BC$
 - $A \rightarrow Aa \mid a$
 - $B \rightarrow bBCb \mid b$
 - $C \rightarrow dCcd \mid c$
- We can now start producing syntactically valid strings by doing **derivations**
- Examples (rewriting a non-terminal each time):
 - $S \rightarrow BC \rightarrow bBCbC \rightarrow bbCbC \rightarrow bbdCcdbC \rightarrow bbdccdbC \rightarrow bbdccdbc$
 - $S \rightarrow A \rightarrow Aa \rightarrow Aaa \rightarrow Aaaa \rightarrow aaaa$

A Grammar for Expressions

Expr	→ Expr Op Expr
Expr	→ Number Identifier
Identifier	→ Letter Letter Identifier
Letter	→ 'a'-'z'
Op	→ '+' '-' '*' '/'
Number	→ Digit Number Digit
Digit	→ '0' '1' '2' '3' '4' '5' '6' '7' '8' '9'

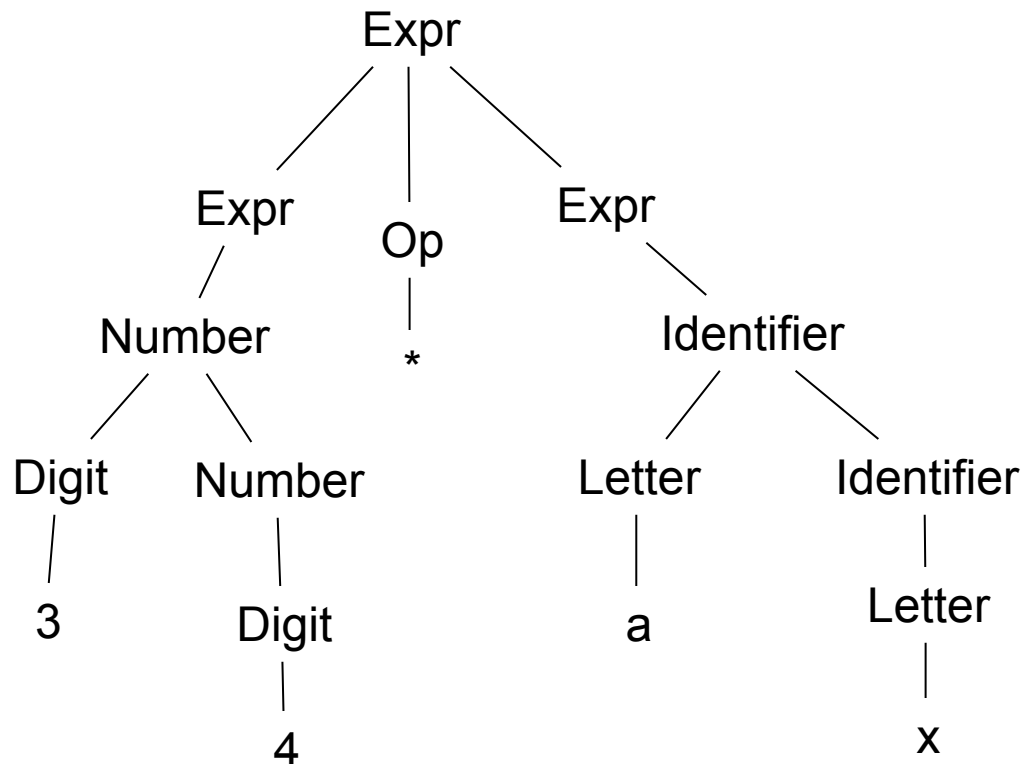
Expr → Expr Op Expr → Number Op Expr →
Digit Number Op Expr → 3 Number Op Expr → 34 Op Expr →
34 * Expr → 34 * Identifier → 34 * Letter Identifier →
34 * a Identifier → 34 * a Letter → **34 * ax**

What is Parsing?

- What we just saw is the process of, starting with the start symbol and, through a sequence of rule derivations, obtain a string of terminal symbols: **derivation**
 - We could generate all correct programs (it's an infinite set though)
- **Parsing**: the other way around
 - Give a string of non-terminals, discover a sequence of rule derivations that produce this particular string
- When we say we can't parse a string, we mean that we can't find any legal way in which the string can be obtained from the start symbol through derivations
 - We call this a **syntax error**
- What we want to build is a **parser**: a program that takes in a string of tokens (terminal symbols) and discovers a derivation sequence or says "syntax error"

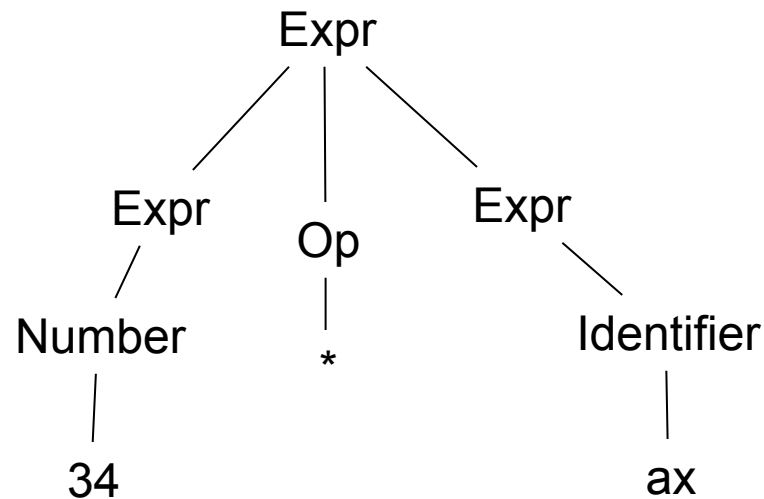
Derivations as Trees

- A convenient and natural way to represent a sequence of derivations is a **syntactic tree** or **parse tree**
- Example: $\text{Expr} \rightarrow \text{Expr Op Expr} \rightarrow \text{Number Op Expr} \rightarrow \text{Digit Number Op}$
 $\text{Expr} \rightarrow 3 \text{ Number Op Expr} \rightarrow 34 \text{ Op Expr} \rightarrow 34 * \text{Expr} \rightarrow 34 * \text{Identifier} \rightarrow$
 $34 * \text{Letter Identifier} \rightarrow 34 * a \text{ Identifier} \rightarrow 34 * a \text{ Letter} \rightarrow 34 * ax$



Derivations as Trees (2)

- Often, we draw trees without the full derivations (i.e., we aggregate subtrees)
- Example:

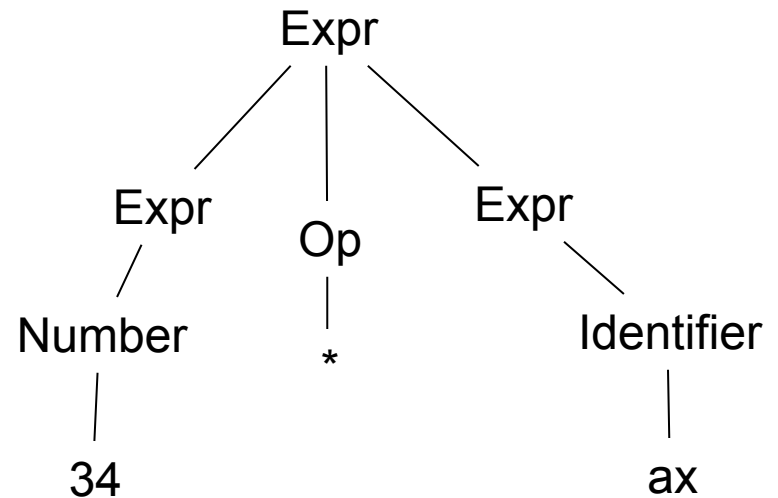


In-class Exercise #1

- Consider the CFG:

$$S \rightarrow (' L ') \mid 'a'$$
$$L \rightarrow L ', S \mid S$$

Draw parse trees for:
(a, a)



Example from before

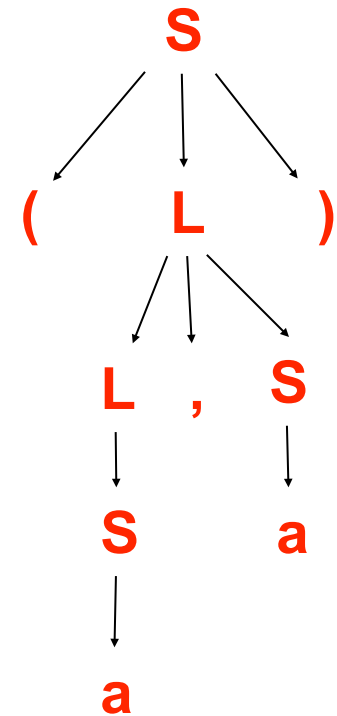
In-class Exercise #1 (solution)

- Consider the CFG:

$S \rightarrow '(\text{' } L \text{'})' \mid \text{'a'}$

$L \rightarrow L \text{' , ' } S \mid S$

Draw parse trees for:
(a, a)



In-class Exercise #2

$S \rightarrow ' (' L ') ' \mid ' a '$

$L \rightarrow L ' , ' S \mid S$

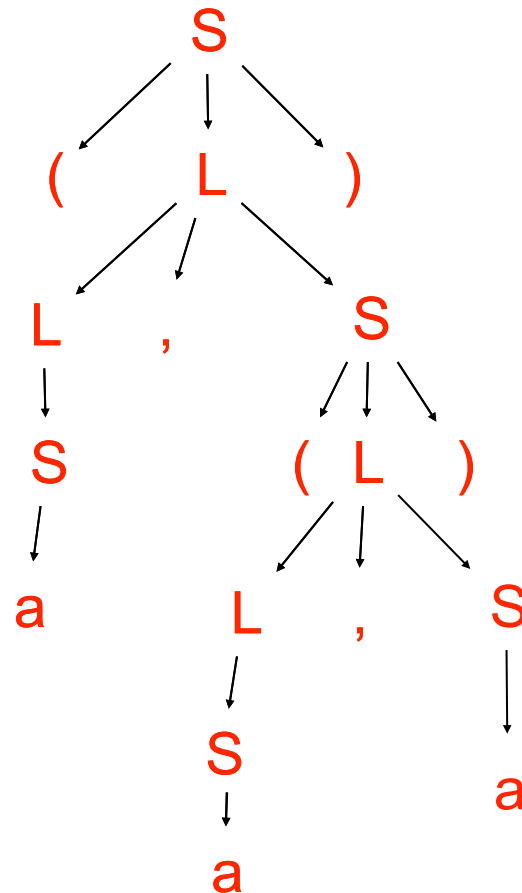
Draw parse tree for: $(a, (a, a))$?

In-class Exercise #2 (solution)

$S \rightarrow '(' L ')' \mid 'a'$

$L \rightarrow L ',' S \mid S$

Draw parse tree for: $(a, (a, a))$?





In-class Exercise #3

- Write a CFG for the language of all possible non-empty strings of 0's and 1's
 - Yes, we can do this with a regular expression, but let's do a CFG anyway

In-class Exercise #3 (solution)

- Write a CFG for the language of all possible, non-empty strings of 0's and 1's

$$S \rightarrow 0S \mid 1S \mid 0 \mid 1$$

The above is recursive (a string in the language is either a 0 or a 1, or starts with a 0 or a 1 and is then followed by a string in the language)

In-class Exercise #4

- Write a CFG for the language of strings that start and end with the same number of 0's
 - No, we could not do this with a regular expression

In-class Exercise #4 (solution)

- Write a CFG for the language of strings that start and end with the same number of 0's

$S \rightarrow 0 S 0 \mid L$

$L \rightarrow 1 W 1$

$W \rightarrow 0 W \mid 1 W \mid e$

Note the recursive “book-ends” pattern of the first rule. Let's look at a wrong (yet commonly written by students) answer...

In-class Exercise #4 (solution)

- Write a CFG for the language of strings that start and end with the same number of 0's

POPULAR BUT WRONG SOLUTION:

$$S \rightarrow L 1 W 1 L$$
$$L \rightarrow 0 L \mid \varepsilon$$

The first rule above does not “control” that the numbers of 0's on the left and on the right are the same!!!

In-class Exercise #5

- Write a CFG for the language of well-formed parenthesized expressions
 - $()$, $(())$, $()()$, $(())()$, etc.: OK
 - $()$), $)()$, $((($), $((($, etc.: not OK
- This is sort of a “do you really understand recursion?” test :)

In-class Exercise #5 (solution)

- Write a CFG for the language of well-formed parenthesized expressions
 - $()$, $(())$, $()()$, $(())()$, etc.: OK
 - $()$, $)()$, $((()$, $((()$, etc.: not OK

$P \rightarrow '()' \mid PP \mid '({P})'$

Example CFG for a for loop

ForStatement \rightarrow 'for' '(' StmtCommaList ';' ExprCommaList ';' StmtCommaList ')' '{' StmtSemicList '}'

StmtCommaList \rightarrow ϵ | Stmt | Stmt ',' StmtCommaList

ExprCommaList \rightarrow ϵ | Expr | Expr ',' ExprCommaList

StmtSemicList \rightarrow ϵ | Stmt | Stmt ';' StmtSemicList

Expr \rightarrow . . .

Stmt \rightarrow . . .

Full Language Grammar Sketch

Program \rightarrow VarDeclList FuncDeclList

VarDeclList $\rightarrow \varepsilon \mid$ VarDecl \mid VarDecl VarDeclList

VarDecl \rightarrow Type IdentCommaList $;$

IdentCommaList \rightarrow Ident \mid Ident $,$ IdentCommaList

Type \rightarrow int \mid char \mid float

FuncDeclList $\rightarrow \varepsilon \mid$ FuncDecl \mid FuncDecl FuncDeclList

FuncDecl \rightarrow Type Ident $($ ArgList $)$ $\{$ VarDeclList StmtList $\}$

StmtList $\rightarrow \varepsilon \mid$ Stmt \mid Stmt StmtList

Stmt \rightarrow Ident $=$ Expr $;$ \mid ForStatement \mid ...

Expr \rightarrow ...

Ident \rightarrow ...

Using * notations

Program → VarDeclList FuncDeclList

VarDeclList → **VarDecl***

VarDecl → Type IdentCommaList ‘;’

IdentCommaList → **Ident** (‘,’ **Ident**)*

Type → int | char | float

FuncDeclList → **FuncDecl***

FuncDecl → Type Ident ‘(’ ArgList ‘)’ ‘{’ VarDeclList StmtList ‘}’

StmtList → **Stmt***

Stmt → Ident ‘=’ Expr ‘;’ | ForStatement | ...

Expr → ...

Ident → ...

Real-world CFGs

- Some sample grammars found on the Web
 - LISP: 7 rules
 - PROLOG: 19 rules
 - Java: 30 rules
 - C: 60 rules
 - Ada: 280 rules
- LISP is particularly easy to parse because
 - No operators, just function calls
 - Therefore no precedence, associativity
- In the Java specification the description of operator precedence and associativity takes 25 pages!

How do we build a parser?

- This could take one month of a graduate course, as there are many approaches, many algorithms, many challenges
- The (amazing) bottom-line: **Given a grammar, provided this grammar abides by a few constraints, we know how to generate the code for a parser that, for every input string, will either say “syntax error” or build a parse tree**
- There is no way we can get into this deeply in this course, so I’m just going to give you the gist to if
 - ANTLR will do all this for us!

How do we build a Parser?

- Let's try to see a very high-level view of parsing
 - If you go to grad school you'll be able to take an in-depth compiler course with all the details
- There are two approaches for parsing:
 - **Top-Down**: Start with the start symbol and try to expand it using derivation rules until you get the input source code
 - **Bottom-Up**: Start with the input source code, consume symbols, and infer which rules could be used
- Note: this does not work for all CFGs
 - CFGs must have some properties to be parsable with our beloved parsing algorithms
 - There are tons of results about which algorithm works with which grammars

Top-Down Parsing

- A simple recursive algorithm that searches for the derivations
 - Start with the start symbol
 - Pick one of the rules to expand it and expand it
 - If the leftmost symbol is a non-terminal and matches the current token of the input source, great
 - If there is no match, then backtrack and try another rule
 - Repeat for all non-terminal symbols
 - Success if we get all terminals
 - Failure if we've tried all productions without getting all terminals
- Let's see this on an example

Top-Down Parsing Example

A simple grammar:

(R1) $\text{Expr} \rightarrow \text{Number} + \text{Expr}$

(R2) $\text{Expr} \rightarrow \text{Number}$

(R3) $\text{Expr} \rightarrow \text{Number} * \text{Expr}$

(R4) $\text{Number} \rightarrow 0-9$

Top-Down Parsing Example

- Let's parse string "3*4*5"

A simple grammar:

(R1) $\text{Expr} \rightarrow \text{Number} + \text{Expr}$

(R2) $\text{Expr} \rightarrow \text{Number}$

(R3) $\text{Expr} \rightarrow \text{Number} * \text{Expr}$

(R4) $\text{Number} \rightarrow 0-9$

Top-Down Parsing Example

- Let's parse string "3*4*5"
 - Apply **R1**:
 - Apply **R4**: gets the number ("3")
 - Expects a "+", but gets a "*": **backtrack**

A simple grammar:

(R1) $\text{Expr} \rightarrow \text{Number} + \text{Expr}$

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Top-Down Parsing Example

- Let's parse string "3*4*5"
 - Apply **R1**:
 - Apply **R4**: gets the number ("3")
 - Expects a "+", but gets a "*": **backtrack**
 - Apply **R2**:
 - Apply **R4**: gets the number ("3")
 - Expects nothing, but gets a "*": **backtrack**

A simple grammar:

(R1) $\text{Expr} \rightarrow \text{Number} + \text{Expr}$

(R2) $\text{Expr} \rightarrow \text{Number}$

(R3) $\text{Expr} \rightarrow \text{Number} * \text{Expr}$

(R4) $\text{Number} \rightarrow 0-9$

Top-Down Parsing Example

- Let's parse string "3*4*5"

- Apply **R1**:

- Apply **R4**: gets the number ("3")
 - Expects a "+", but gets a "*": **backtrack**

- Apply **R2**:

- Apply **R4**: gets the number ("3")
 - Expects nothing, but gets a "*": **backtrack**

- Apply **R3**:

- Apply **R4**: gets the number ("3")
 - Gets the "*"
 - Apply **R1**
 - Apply **R4**: gets the number ("4")
 - Expects a "+", but gets a "*": **backtrack**

A simple grammar:

(R1) $\text{Expr} \rightarrow \text{Number} + \text{Expr}$

(R2) $\text{Expr} \rightarrow \text{Number}$

(R3) $\text{Expr} \rightarrow \text{Number} * \text{Expr}$

(R4) $\text{Number} \rightarrow 0-9$

Top-Down Parsing Example

- Let's parse string "3*4*5"

- Apply **R1**:

- Apply **R4**: gets the number ("3")
 - Expects a "+", but gets a "*": **backtrack**

- Apply **R2**:

- Apply **R4**: gets the number ("3")
 - Expects nothing, but gets a "*": **backtrack**

- Apply **R3**:

- Apply **R4**: gets the number ("3")
 - Gets the "*"
 - Apply **R1**
 - Apply **R4**: gets the number ("4")
 - Expects a "+", but gets a "*": **backtrack**
 - Apply **R2**
 - Apply **R4**: gets the number ("4")
 - Expects nothing, but gets a "*": **backtrack**

A simple grammar:

(R1) $\text{Expr} \rightarrow \text{Number} + \text{Expr}$

(R2) $\text{Expr} \rightarrow \text{Number}$

(R3) $\text{Expr} \rightarrow \text{Number} * \text{Expr}$

(R4) $\text{Number} \rightarrow 0-9$

Top-Down Parsing Example

- Let's parse string "3*4*5"

- Apply **R1**:

- Apply **R4**: gets the number ("3")
 - Expects a "+", but gets a "*": **backtrack**

- Apply **R2**:

- Apply **R4**: gets the number ("3")
 - Expects nothing, but gets a "*": **backtrack**

- Apply **R3**:

- Apply **R4**: gets the number ("3")
 - Gets the "*" **Apply R1**

- Apply **R4**: gets the number ("4")
 - Expects a "+", but gets a "*": **backtrack**

- Apply **R2**

- Apply **R4**: gets the number ("4")
 - Expects nothing, but gets a "*": **backtrack**

- Apply **R3**:

- Apply **R4**: gets the number ("4")
 - Gets the "*" **Apply R1**:

- Apply **R4**: gets the number ("5")
 - Expects a "+", but gets nothing: **backtrack**

- Apply **R2**:

- Apply **R4**: gets the number ("5"): **done**

A simple grammar:

(R1) $\text{Expr} \rightarrow \text{Number} + \text{Expr}$

(R2) $\text{Expr} \rightarrow \text{Number}$

(R3) $\text{Expr} \rightarrow \text{Number} * \text{Expr}$

(R4) $\text{Number} \rightarrow 0-9$

Left-Recursion

- One problem for the Top-Down approach is **left-recursive rules**
- Example: $\text{Expr} \rightarrow \text{Expr} + \text{Number}$
 - The Parser will expand the leftmost Expr as Expr + Number to get: “Expr + Number + Number”
 - And again: “Expr + Number + Number + Number”
 - And again: “Expr + Number + Number + Number + Number”
 - Ad infinitum. . .
 - Since the leftmost symbol is never a non-terminal symbol the parser will never check for a match with the source code and will be stuck in an infinite loop
- Luckily, there are ways to remove left-recursion

Bottom-Up Parsing

- Bottom-up parsing is more general than top-down and is the method typically used in practice
- The idea is very simple:
 - Look at the string of tokens, from left to right
 - Look for “things that look like” the right-hand side of production rules
 - Replace the tokens
- Intuitively, it seems less “random” than Top-Down parsing and more “clever”
- Let’s see an example

Bottom-Up Parsing Example

- The same simple grammar

(R1) $\text{Expr} \rightarrow \text{Expr} * \text{Number}$

(R2) $\text{Expr} \rightarrow \text{Number}$

(R3) $\text{Expr} \rightarrow \text{Number} * \text{Number}$

(R4) $\text{Number} \rightarrow 0-9$

- Let's parse string "3*4*5"

- $\text{Number} * 4 * 5$ (R4)
- $\text{Number} * \text{Number} * 5$ (R4)
- $\text{Expr} * 5$ (R3)
- $\text{Expr} * \text{Number}$ (R4)
- Expr (R5) [done]

Bottom-Up Parsing

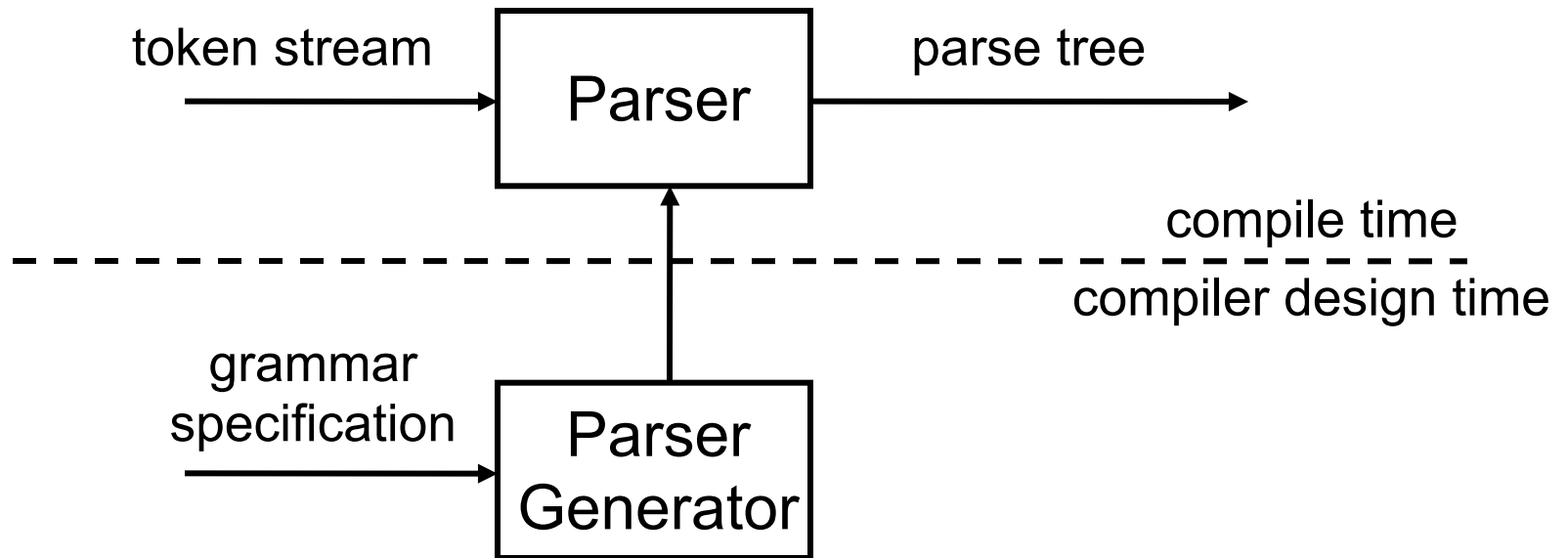
- The previous example made it look very simple, but this doesn't always work
- Turns out there is a way to do this (“shift-reduce” parsing) that is guaranteed to work for any non-ambiguous grammar
 - Uses a stack to do some backtracking
- More about all this in a graduate-level compiler course...



Parsing: Bottom-Line

- Parsing was a very active field of research and development decades ago
- At this point it's mostly well-understood
 - We know what properties grammars should have to have easy/quick parsers
 - We know which parsing algorithms work well
- As a result, we have tools that generate the parser code for us...

Parser Generator



So What Now?

- We want to write a compiler for a given language
- Lexing
 - We come up with a definition of the tokens embodied in regular expressions
 - We build a lexer using a tool
 - In the previous set of lecture notes, we have used ANTLR to do this
- Parsing
 - We come up with a definition of the syntax embodied in a context-free grammar
 - We build a parser using a tool
 - Let's use ANTLR again for a simple language!

Our Language

- We have all the tokens we've already defined in our lexer:
 - IF, ENDIF
 - PRINT, INT, PLUS, LPAREN, RPAREN
 - EQUAL, NOTEQUAL, ASSIGN, SEMICOLON
 - INTEGER, NAME
- We want a very limited language with
 - integer variable declarations
 - assignments
 - addition (only 2 operands)
 - if (not else, only test for equality)
 - semicolon-terminated statements
 - white-spaces, tabs, carriage returns don't matter
- Let's look at an example program to get a sense of it

Example Program

```
int a;  
int b;  
a = 3;  
b = a + 1;  
if (b != 4)  
    a = 2;  
endif  
if (a == 3)  
    a = a + 1;  
    b = b + 6;  
endif  
print a;  
print b;
```

Let's Implement the Parser

- Let's attempt live-coding of the Parser for our language right now using ANTLR...
- The basic ANTLR syntax for a production rule looks like this:

```
expression      :  
    expression PLUS expression |  
    expression MINUS expression  
    ;  
  
number          :  
    digit |  
    digit *  
    ;
```



Did we succeed?

- I had done this parser beforehand, and it is posted on the Web site
 - In the “A Simple ANTLR Parser” reading
- We’ll use the one of the Web site for the next step

Conclusion

- At this point, we have a “compiler” that will detect lexical and syntactic errors
 - Lexer or parser errors
- If no errors, then it will generate a parse tree
 - Which we can look at on some GUI
- The next step is to actually have our compiler generate code
- In the next set of lecture notes we will make our compiler generate x86 assembly!!!