Parsing

Part I

Language and Grammars

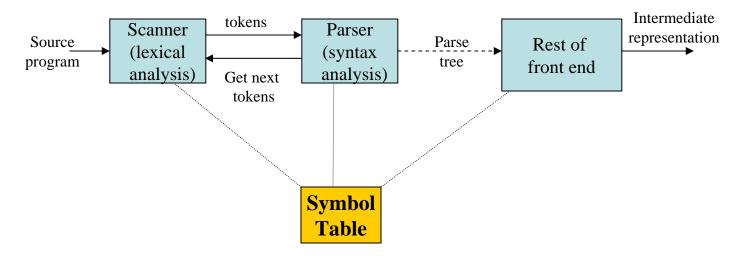
- Every (programming) language has precise rules
 - In English:
 - Subject Verb Object
 - In C
 - programs are made of functions
 - » Functions are made of statements etc.

Parsing

A.K.A. Syntax Analysis

- Recognize sentences in a language.
- Discover the structure of a document/program.
- Construct (implicitly or explicitly) a tree (called as a parse tree) to represent the structure.
- The above tree is used later to guide translation.

Role of the parser



- Verifies if the string of token can be generated from the grammar
- Error?
 - Report with a good descriptive, helpful message
 - Recover and continue parsing!
- Build a parse tree !!

Rest of Front End

- Collecting token information
- Type checking
- Intermediate code generation

Errors in Programs

Lexical

```
if x<1 then y=5: "Typos"
```

Syntactic

```
if ((x<1) & (y>5))) ... { ... { ... _ ... }
```

Semantic

```
if (x+5) then ...

Type Errors

Undefined IDs, etc.
```

Logical Errors

```
if (i<9) then ...
Should be <= not <
Bugs
Compiler cannot detect Logical Errors</pre>
```

Error Detection

- Much responsibility on Parser
 - Many errors are syntactic in nature
 - Precision/ efficiency of modern parsing method
 - Detect the error as soon as possible
- Challenges for error handler in Parser
 - Report error clearly and accurately
 - Recover from error and continue...
 - Should be efficient in processing
- Good news is
 - Simple mechanism can catch most common errors
- Errors don't occur that frequently!!
 - 60% programs are syntactically and semantically correct
 - 80% erroneous statements have only 1 error, 13% have 2
 - Most error are trivial: 90% single token error
 - 60% punctuation, 20% operator, 15% keyword, 5% other error

Adequate Error Reporting is Not a Trivial Task

Difficult to generate clear and accurate error messages.

Example

```
function foo () {
    if (...) {
    } else {
                       Missing } here
                        Not detected until here
    <eof>
Example
    int myVarr;
                          Misspelled ID here
    x = myVar;
                          Not detected until here
```

Error Recovery

- After first error recovered
 - Compiler must go on!
 - Restore to some state and process the rest of the input

Error-Correcting Compilers

- Issue an error message
- Fix the problem
- Produce an executable

Example

```
Error on line 23: "myVarr" undefined. "myVar" was used.
```

May not be a good Idea!!

Guessing the programmers intention is not easy!

Error Recovery May Trigger More Errors!

- Inadequate recovery may introduce more errors
 - Those were not programmers errors
- Example:

```
int myVar flag;
....
x := flag;
....
while (flag==0)
....
Variable flag is undefined

Variable falg is undefined
```

Too many Error message may be obscuring

- May bury the real message
- Remedy:
 - allow 1 message per token or per statement
 - Quit after a maximum (e.g. 100) number of errors

Error Recovery Approaches: Panic Mode

Discard tokens until we see a "synchronizing" token.

Example Skip to next occurrence of and;

Resume by parsing the next statement

- The key...
 - Good set of synchronizing tokens
 - Knowing what to do then
- Advantage
 - Simple to implement
 - Does not go into infinite loop
 - Commonly used
- Disadvantage
 - May skip over large sections of source with some errors

Error Recovery Approaches: Phrase-Level Recovery

Compiler corrects the program

by deleting or inserting tokens

...so it can proceed to parse from where it was.

Example

while (x==4) y:= a + b

Insert do to fix the statement

The key...

Don't get into an infinite loop

...constantly inserting tokens and never scanning the actual source

- Generally used for error-repairing compilers
 - Difficulty: Point of error detection might be much later the point of error occurrence

Error Recovery Approaches: Error Productions

- Augment the CFG with "Error Productions"
- Now the CFG accepts anything!
- If "error productions" are used...
 Their actions:

```
{ print ("Error...") }
```

- Used with...
 - LR (Bottom-up) parsing
 - Parser Generators

Error Recovery Approaches: Global Correction

- Theoretical Approach
- Find the minimum change to the source to yield a valid program
 - Insert tokens, delete tokens, swap adjacent tokens
- Global Correction Algorithm

Input: grammatically incorrect input string x; grammar G

Output: grammatically correct string y

Algorithm: converts x → y using minimum number changes (insertion, deletion etc.)

Impractical algorithms - too time consuming

Context Free Grammars (CFG)

- A context free grammar is a formal model that consists of:
- Terminals

Keywords

Token Classes

Punctuation

Non-terminals

Any symbol appearing on the lefthand side of any rule

Start Symbol

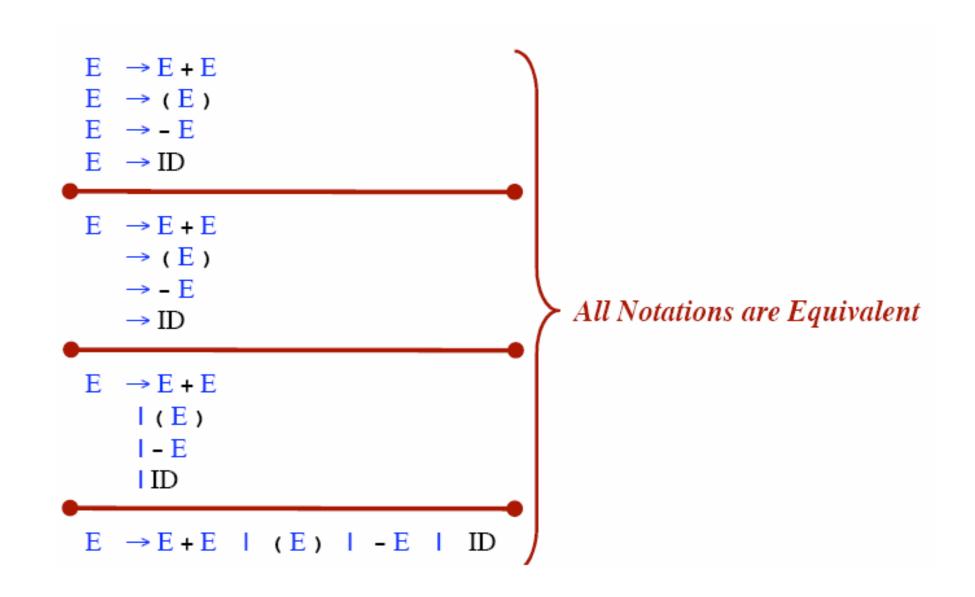
Usually the non-terminal on the lefthand side of the first rule

Rules (or "Productions")

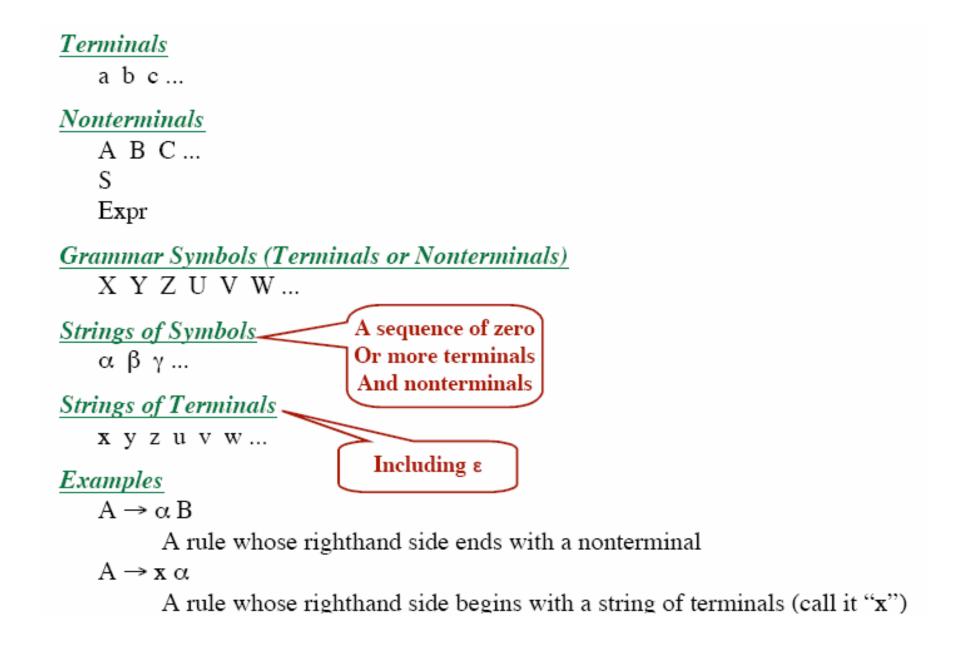
BNF: Backus-Naur Form / Backus-Normal Form

Stmt ::= if Expr then Stmt else Stmt

Rule Alternative Notations



Notational Conventions



Derivations

```
1. E \rightarrow E + E

2. \rightarrow E * E

3. \rightarrow (E)

4. \rightarrow - E

5. \rightarrow ID
```

A "Derivation" of "(id*id)"

$$E \Rightarrow (E) \Rightarrow (E*E) \Rightarrow (\underline{id*E}) \Rightarrow (\underline{id*\underline{id}})$$
"Sentential Forms"

A sequence of terminals and nonterminals in a derivation (<u>id</u>*E)

Derivation

If $A \rightarrow \beta$ is a rule, then we can write

$$\underbrace{\alpha A \gamma} \Rightarrow \alpha \beta \gamma$$

Any sentential form containing a nonterminal (call it A) ... such that A matches the nonterminal in some rule.

Derives in zero-or-more steps ⇒*

$$E \Rightarrow^* (\underline{id}*\underline{id})$$

If
$$\alpha \Rightarrow^* \beta$$
 and $\beta \Rightarrow \gamma$, then $\alpha \Rightarrow^* \gamma$

Derives in one-or-more steps ⇒+

<u>Given</u>

G A grammar

S The Start Symbol

Define

L(G) The language generated $L(G) = \{ w \mid S \Rightarrow + w \}$

"Equivalence" of CFG's

If two CFG's generate the same language, we say they are "equivalent." $G_1 \approx G_2$ whenever $L(G_1) = L(G_2)$

In making a derivation...

Choose which nonterminal to expand

Choose which rule to apply

Leftmost Derivation

In a derivation... always expand the <u>leftmost</u> nonterminal.

```
E
      E+E
\Rightarrow (E) +E
\Rightarrow (E*E) +E
\Rightarrow (id*E)+E
\Rightarrow (id*id)+E
⇒ (id*id)+id
```

```
1. E \rightarrow E + E

2. \rightarrow E * E

3. \rightarrow (E)

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5. \rightarrow ID
```

Let \Rightarrow_{LM} denote a step in a leftmost derivation (\Rightarrow_{LM}^* means zero-or-more steps)

At each step in a leftmost derivation, we have

$$WA\gamma \Rightarrow_{LM} W\beta\gamma$$
 where $A \rightarrow \beta$ is a rule

(Recall that W is a string of terminals.)

Each sentential form in a leftmost derivation is called a "left-sentential form."

If $S \Rightarrow_{\mathbf{I},\mathbf{M}} {}^* \alpha$ then we say α is a "left-sentential form."

Rightmost Derivation

In a derivation... always expand the <u>rightmost</u> nonterminal.

```
E
\Rightarrow E+E
\Rightarrow E+\underline{id}
\Rightarrow (E)+\underline{id}
\Rightarrow (E*E)+\underline{id}
\Rightarrow (E*\underline{id})+\underline{id}
\Rightarrow (\underline{id}*\underline{id})+\underline{id}
```

```
1. E → E + E

2. → E * E

3. → (E)

4. → - E

5. → ID
```

Let \Rightarrow_{RM} denote a step in a rightmost derivation (\Rightarrow_{RM}^* means zero-or-more steps)

At each step in a rightmost derivation, we have

$$\alpha A W \Rightarrow_{RM} \alpha \beta W$$
 where $A \rightarrow \beta$ is a rule

(Recall that W is a string of terminals.)

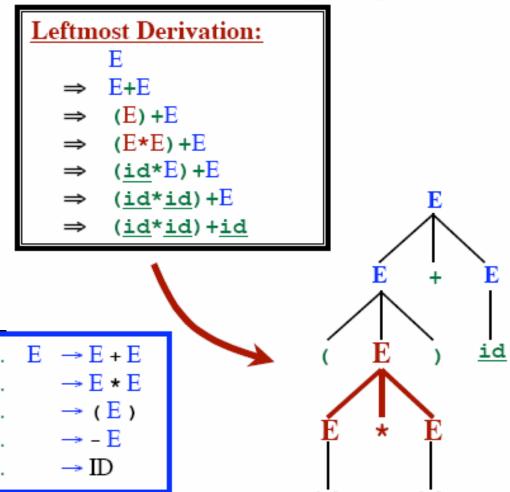
Each sentential form in a rightmost derivation is called a "right-sentential form."

If $S \Rightarrow_{RM}^* \alpha$ then we say α is a "right-sentential form."

Two choices at each step in a derivation...

- · Which non-terminal to expand
- · Which rule to use in replacing it

The parse tree remembers only this



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- · Which non-terminal to expand
- · Which rule to use in replacing it

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Rightmost Derivation:

E+E

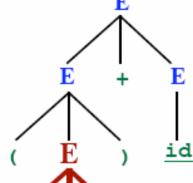
 \Rightarrow E+id

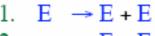
(E) + id

(E*E) +<u>id</u>

(E*id)+id

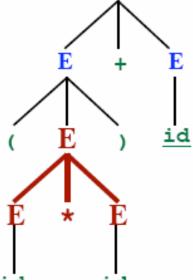
(id*id)+id





$$2. \longrightarrow \mathbf{E} \star \mathbf{E}$$

$$3. \rightarrow (E)$$



Two choices at each step in a derivation...

- · Which non-terminal to expand
- · Which rule to use in replacing it

The parse tree remembers only this

<u>Leftmost Derivation:</u>

Ε

 \Rightarrow E+E

 \Rightarrow (E) +E

 \Rightarrow (E*E) +E

 \Rightarrow (id*E)+E

 \Rightarrow (id*id)+E

 \Rightarrow (id*id)+id

Rightmost Derivation:

Ε

 \Rightarrow E+E

 \Rightarrow E+id

 \Rightarrow (E)+id

 \Rightarrow (E*E)+id

 $\Rightarrow (E*\underline{id})+\underline{id}$

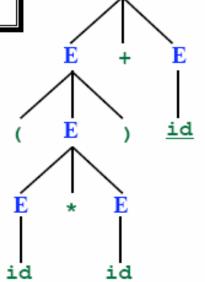
 $\Rightarrow (\underline{id}*\underline{id})+\underline{id}$



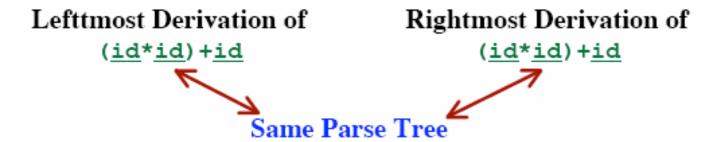
2.
$$\rightarrow$$
 E * E

$$3. \rightarrow (E)$$

5. → ID



Given a leftmost derivation, we can build a parse tree. Given a rightmost derivation, we can build a parse tree.



Every parse tree corresponds to...

- · A single, unique leftmost derivation
- · A single, unique rightmost derivation

Ambiguity:

However, one input string may have several parse trees!!!

Therefore:

- Several leftmost derivations
- Several rightmost derivations

Ambiguous Grammar

Leftmost Derivation #1

E

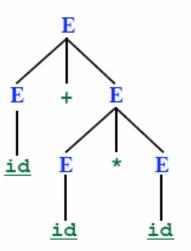
 \Rightarrow E+E

 $\Rightarrow id+E$

 \Rightarrow id+E*E

 $\Rightarrow id+id*E$

⇒ <u>id</u>+<u>id</u>*<u>id</u>



1. $E \rightarrow E + E$ 2. $\rightarrow E * E$ 3. $\rightarrow (E)$ 4. $\rightarrow -E$ 5. $\rightarrow ID$

Input: id+id*id

Leftmost Derivation #2

Ε

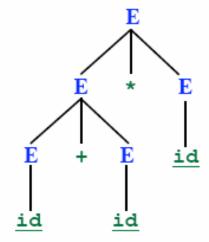
⇒ E*E

 \Rightarrow E+E*E

 $\Rightarrow \underline{id} + E * E$

 $\Rightarrow id+id*E$

⇒ <u>id</u>+<u>id</u>*<u>id</u>



Ambiguous Grammar

- More than one Parse Tree for some sentence.
 - The grammar for a programming language may be ambiguous
 - Need to modify it for parsing.

- Also: Grammar may be left recursive.
- Need to modify it for parsing.