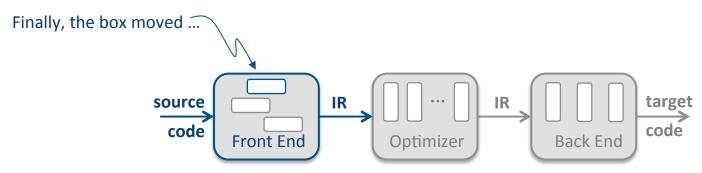


Introduction to Parsing

Context-free grammars

Comp 412



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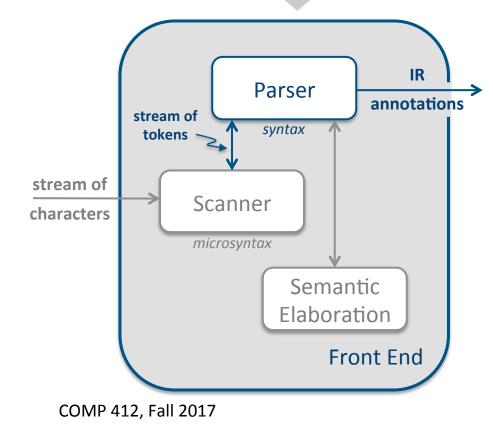
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Chapter 3 in EaC2e

The Front End







Scanner looks at every character

- Converts stream of chars to stream of classified words:
 - <word, part of speech>
 - Sometimes call this pair a "token"
- Efficiency & scalability matter

Parser looks at every token

- Determines if the stream of tokens forms a sentence in the source language
- Fits tokens to some syntactic model, or grammar, for the source language

1

The Study of Parsing

Parsing is the process of discovering a derivation for some sentence

- Need mathematical model of syntax a grammar G
- Need an algorithm to test membership in L(G)
- Need to remember that our goal is to build parsers, not to study the interesting if arcane mathematics of arbitrary languages

Roadmap for our study of parsing

- 1. Context-free grammars & derivations
- 2. Top-down parsing
 - Top-down parsers explore the possibilities of syntax in a systematic way
 - A file of code has a limited number of words that can occur at its start
- 3. Bottom-up parsing
 - Bottom-up parsers build on the detailed structure of the input stream
 - Each classified word can affect the interpretation of past & future words

Specifying Syntax: Context-Free Grammars



Context-free syntax is specified with a context-free grammar (CFG)

This CFG defines the set of noises that sheep normally make

See the digression about **BNF** on p. 87 of EaC2e

It is written in a variant of Backus-Naur form (BNF)

Formally, a **CFG** is a four tuple, G = (S, N, T, P)

- *S* is the *start symbol* of the grammar
 - L(G) is the set of sentences that can be derived from S
- N is a set of nonterminal symbols or syntactic variables

SheepNoise

• *T* is a set of *terminal symbols* or words

<u>baa</u>

• *P* is a set of *productions* or *rewrite rules*

 $P: N \to (N \cup T)^+$

We will defer the definition of "context free" for a few slides.

Deriving Sentences with a CFG



We can use the *SheepNoise* grammar to derive sentences

use the productions as rewrite rules

Rule	Rule Sentential Form	
_	SheepNoise	
1	<u>baa</u>	

Rule	Sentential Form		
_	SheepNoise		
0	SheepNoise <u>baa</u>		
1	<u>baa</u> <u>baa</u>		

Rule	Sentential Form	
_	SheepNoise	
0	SheepNoise baa	
0	SheepNoise baa baa	
1	<u>baa</u> <u>baa</u> <u>baa</u>	

And, so on ...

While this example is cute, it quickly runs out of intellectual steam ...

A **sentential form** is a string of terminal & nonterminal symbols that is a valid step in some derivation.

Context-Free Grammars



What makes a grammar "context free"?

Productions in the *SheepNoise* grammar have a specific form:

Each production has a single nonterminal symbol on its left hand side, which makes it impossible to encode either left or right context.

⇒ The grammar is *context free*

A context-sensitive grammar can have ≥ 1 symbol on its lhs.

CSG's have not found widespread application in compilers

Ihs \cong left-hand side rhs \cong right hand side

Notice that L(SheepNoise) is actually a regular language: baa baa*

 $RLS \subseteq CFLS$

Digression: The Chomsky Hierarchy



PL microsyntax

PL syntax

Noam Chomsky proposed a hierarchy of languages

Type 3 grammars are regular grammars (equivalent to **RE**s)

- Single NT on lhs; rhs has one T & (optionally) one NT
- Corresponds to a DFA

Type 2 grammars are context-free grammars

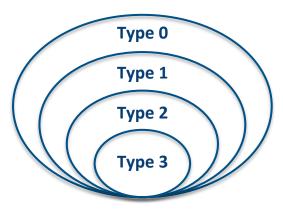
- Single **NT** on *lhs*; *rhs* has string of grammar symbols
- Corresponds to a push-down automaton

Type 1 grammars are context-sensitive grammars

- Productions of form $\alpha A \beta \rightarrow \gamma$, where α , β , and γ are strings in $(T \cup NT)$
- Corresponds to a linear bounded automaton

Type 0 grammars are unrestricted grammars

- Includes all formal grammars
- Corresponds to a Turing machine



The Chomsky Hierarchy of Grammars

Relating COMP 412 to your friends who major in linguistics.

Limits of Regular Languages



Does it matter that $RL's \subset CFL's$?

You cannot construct **DFA**'s to recognize these languages

• $L = \{ p^k q^k \}$

(parentheses, brackets)

• $L = \{ wcw^r \mid w \in \Sigma^* \}$

Neither of these is a regular language

(nor an RE)

Constructs like these are important to programming languages

But, this is a little subtle. You can construct **DFA**'s for

- Strings with alternating 0's and 1's
 (ε | 1)(01)*(ε | 0)
- Strings with and even number of 0's and 1's

RE's can count bounded sets and bounded differences

Terminology for Derivations



The point of parsing is to discover a derivation

A derivation consists of a series of rewrite steps

$$\rightarrow S \Rightarrow \gamma_0 \Rightarrow \gamma_1 \Rightarrow \gamma_2 \Rightarrow \dots \Rightarrow \gamma_{n-1} \Rightarrow \gamma_n \Rightarrow sentence$$

- Each γ_i is a sentential form
 - If γ contains only terminal symbols, γ is a **sentence** in L(G)
 - If γ contains 1 or more non-terminals, γ is a **sentential form**
- To get γ_i from γ_{i-1} , expand some **NT** $A \in \gamma_{i-1}$ by using $A \to \beta$
 - Replace the occurrence of $A \in \gamma_{i-1}$ with β to get γ_i
 - Replacing the leftmost NT at each step, creates a leftmost derivation
 - Replacing the rightmost NT at each step, creates a rightmost derivation

A **left-sentential form** occurs in a *leftmost* derivation

A right-sentential form occurs in a rightmost derivation

 $NT \cong nonterminal symbol$

Terminology for Derivations



The point of parsing is to discover a derivation

	Rule	Sentential Form	
N N	_	SheepNoise	1
rop down	0	SheepNoise baa	
Tol	0	SheepNoise baa baa	
	1	<u>baa</u> <u>baa</u> <u>baa</u>	7

- A top-down parse begins with the grammar's start symbol and works toward the sentence
- A bottom-up parse starts with the words in the sentence and works towards the start symbol

Three-word SheepNoise

In the general case¹, discovering a derivation looks expensive

- Many alternatives & combinations, possible backtracking
- Derivation must be guided by the actual words in the sentence
- Fortunately, programming languages tend to have simple syntax
- Understanding parsing will help you see why PLs look as they do!

¹ e.g., Chomsky 0 or 1 grammars

A Better Example

Not a regular language



SheepNoise is quite limited. Let's consider a more interesting example.

0	Start	→	Brackets
1	Brackets	\rightarrow	[Brackets]
2		ı	[Brackets]
3		ı	()
4			[]

Rule	Sentential Form
_	Start
0	Brackets
1	(Brackets)
2	([Brackets])
3	([Brackets])

Two flavors of nested brackets

Derivation of "([()])"

- A sequence of rewrites that produces a sentence is a *derivation*
- Process of discovering a derivation is called parsing

We denote this derivation: $Start \Rightarrow^* ([()])$

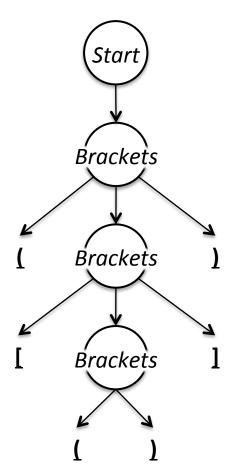
Brackets



A derivation corresponds to a derivation tree or parse tree

	Sentential Form
_	Start Brackets (Brackets) ([Brackets]) ([()])
0	Brackets
1	(Brackets)
2	([Brackets])
3	(1()1)
	$Start \Rightarrow^* ([()])$

The derivation gives us the grammatical structure of the input sentence, which was completely missing in **RE / DFA** recognizers.



Parse tree for this derivation

A Simple Expression Grammar



CFGs are used to define many programming language constructs

0	Expr	\rightarrow	Expr Op Expr
1		1	<u>number</u>
2		1	<u>identifier</u>
3	Ор	\rightarrow	plus
4		1	<u>minus</u>
5			<u>times</u>
6			<u>divide</u>

Expressions over +, -, *, / numbers, & identifiers

When a syntactic category has just one lexeme, as with <u>plus</u> and <u>minus</u>, we will often write it as just the lexeme.

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Rule	Sentential Form
_	Expr
0	Expr Op Expr
2	< <u>id</u> ,x> <i>Op Expr</i>
4	< <u>id</u> ,x> — <i>Expr</i>
0	< <u>id</u> ,x> — Expr Op Expr
1	< <u>id</u> ,x> — < <u>num</u> ,2> <i>Op Expr</i>
5	< <u>id</u> ,x> — < <u>num</u> ,2> * <i>Expr</i>
2	< <u>id</u> ,x> — < <u>num</u> ,2> * < <u>id</u> ,y>

Derivation of x - 2 * y

And, if you skipped class & are reading the slides, you should know that this grammar is a very bad way to define expressions

A Simple Expression Grammar



Constructing a derivation

- At each step, we select an NT in the current string to replace
- Different choices can lead to different derivations

Two derivations are of interest

- Leftmost derivation replace, at each step, the leftmost NT
- Rightmost derivation replace, at each step, the rightmost NT

These are the two systematic derivations (We don't care about random orders)

The example on the preceding slide was a *leftmost* derivation

- Of course, there is also a *rightmost* derivation
- In this example, the rightmost derivation is different

Leftmost and Rightmost Derivations



Rule	Sentential Form	Rule	Sentential Form
_	Expr	_	Expr
0	Expr Op Expr	0	Expr Op Expr
2	< <u>id</u> ,x> <i>Op Expr</i>	2	Expr Op < <u>id</u> ,y>
4	< <u>id</u> ,x> — <i>Expr</i>	5	<i>Expr</i> * < <u>id</u> ,y>
0	< <u>id</u> ,x> — Expr Op Expr	0	Expr Op Expr * < <u>id</u> ,y>
1	< <u>id</u> ,x> — < <u>num</u> ,2> <i>Op Expr</i>	1	<i>Expr Op </i> < <u>num</u> ,2> * < <u>id</u> ,y>
5	< <u>id</u> ,x> — < <u>num</u> ,2> * <i>Expr</i>	4	Expr — < <u>num</u> ,2> * < <u>id</u> ,y>
2	< <u>id</u> ,x> — < <u>num</u> ,2> * < <u>id</u> ,y>	2	< <u>id</u> ,x> — < <u>num</u> ,2> * < <u>id</u> ,y>

Leftmost Derivation of x - 2 * y

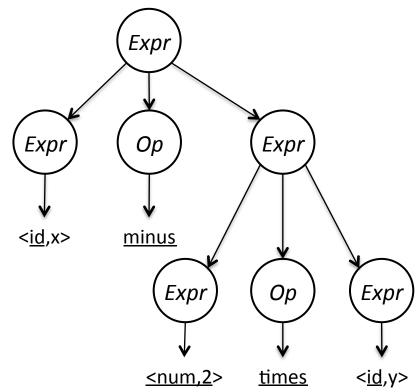
Rightmost Derivation of x - 2 * y

- In both cases, $Expr \Rightarrow^* \underline{identifier} \underline{number} + \underline{identifier}$
- The two derivations produce different parse trees & evaluation orders

Leftmost Derivation



Rule	Sentential Form
_	Expr
0	Expr Op Expr
2	< <u>id</u> ,x> <i>Op Expr</i>
4	< <u>id</u> ,x> — <i>Expr</i>
0	< <u>id</u> ,x> — Expr Op Expr
1	< <u>id</u> ,x> — < <u>num</u> ,2> <i>Op Expr</i>
5	< <u>id</u> ,x> — < <u>num</u> ,2> * <i>Expr</i>
2	< <u>id</u> ,x> — < <u>num</u> ,2> * < <u>id</u> ,y>



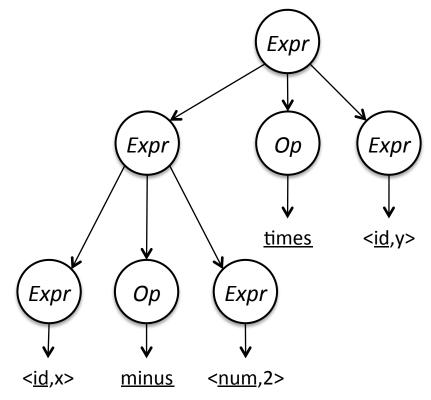
In a postorder treewalk, this parse tree evaluates as x - (2 * y)

Parse tree for the leftmost derivation

Rightmost Derivation



Rule	Sentential Form
	Expr
0	Expr Op Expr
2	Expr Op < <u>id</u> ,y>
5	<i>Expr</i> * < <u>id</u> ,y>
0	Expr Op Expr * < <u>id</u> ,y>
1	<i>Expr Op <</i> <u>num</u> ,2> * < <u>id</u> ,y>
4	Expr — < <u>num</u> ,2> * < <u>id</u> ,y>
2	< <u>id</u> ,x> — < <u>num</u> ,2> * < <u>id</u> ,y>



In a postorder treewalk, this parse tree evaluates as (x-2) * y

Parse tree for the rightmost derivation

Evaluation Order: Why Do We Care?



The leftmost & rightmost derivations for x - 2 * y produced different evaluation orders.

- These two orders may produce different results, even with integers
 - -x-(2*y) is different than (x-2)*y, for most values of x & y
 - In floating point, the problem can arise with a string of the same operator
- Standard algebra specifies both an evaluation order (*left to right*) and a precedence (*parentheses; multiply and divide; add and subtract*)

The compiler must pay attention to the intended order of evaluation

Floating-point Numbers are not Real Numbers

- Finite magnitude (e.g., -2³¹ to 2³¹-1) introduces overflow & underflow
- Floating-point arithmetic causes unexpected losses of precision
 - There exist x, y, & z such that x + y > 0, (x + y) + z > z, but x + (y + z) = z

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Reminder: Why Do We Care About Ambiguity?



It is easy to get lost in language theory

The point of this course is language translation

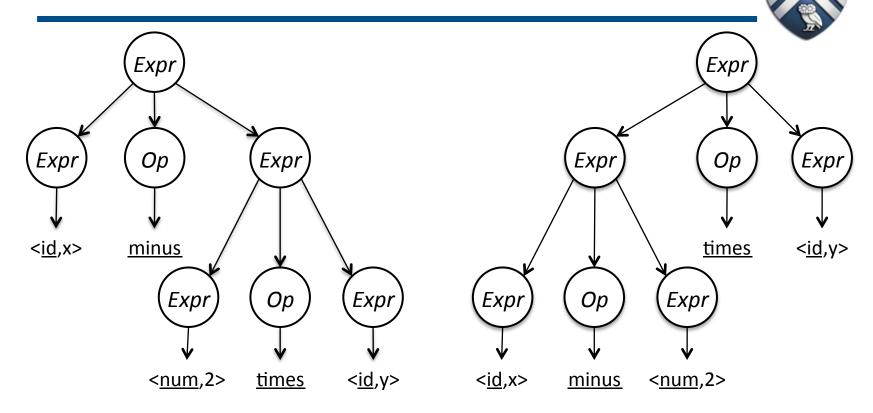
- Build an executable image that implements the source program
- Implements implies that the source program has well-defined meaning

Ambiguity is the opposite of "well-defined"

- Ambiguous constructs have multiple meanings
- A program with multiple meanings is not, in general, a good thing

Programming languages (& their designers) should abhor ambiguity

Leftmost & Rightmost Parse Trees



The two parse trees generate different evaluation orders

Different parse trees for leftmost & rightmost derivations means that the underlying grammar is ambiguous

 \rightarrow Not a good thing.

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The grammar has multiple leftmost derivations (& rightmost derivations)

Rule	Sentential Form	Rule	Sentential Form
_	Expr	_	Expr
0	Expr Op Expr	0	Expr Op Expr
2	< <u>id</u> ,x> <i>Op Expr</i>	0	Expr Op Expr Op Expr
4	< <u>id</u> ,x> — <i>Expr</i>	2	< <u>id</u> ,x> Op Expr Op Expr
0	< <u>id</u> ,x> — Expr Op Expr	4	< <u>id</u> ,x> — Expr Op Expr
1	< <u>id</u> ,x> — < <u>num</u> ,2> <i>Op Expr</i>	1	< <u>id</u> ,x> — < <u>num</u> ,2> <i>Op Expr</i>
5	< <u>id</u> ,x> — < <u>num</u> ,2> * <i>Expr</i>	5	< <u>id</u> ,x> — < <u>num</u> ,2> * <i>Expr</i>
2	< <u>id</u> ,x> — < <u>num</u> ,2> * < <u>id</u> ,y>	1	< <u>id</u> ,x> — < <u>num</u> ,2> * < <u>id</u> ,y>

Any grammar that has multiple leftmost (or multiple rightmost) derivations for a single sentence is an **ambiguous** grammar.

⇒ Ambiguity is bad in a programming language



What should you do with an ambiguous grammar?

You rewrite it to remove the ambiguity.

u rewrite it to remove the ambiguity.			0	Expr	\rightarrow	Expr Op Value	
0	Expr	\rightarrow	Expr Op Expr	1			Value
1		I	<u>number</u>	2	Value	-	<u>number</u>
2		I	<u>identifier</u>	3		I	<u>identifier</u>
3	Ор	\rightarrow	<u>plus</u>	4	Ор	\rightarrow	<u>plus</u>
4		I	<u>minus</u>	5		I	<u>minus</u>
5		I	<u>times</u>	6		I	<u>times</u>
6			<u>divide</u>	7		I	<u>divide</u>

Ambiguous Grammar

Rewritten Grammar

In this case, the ambiguity that we see arises from the fact that rule 0 generates *Expr*, its lhs, at both the right & left ends of its rhs.

⇒ The ambiguity allows derivations with the wrong evaluation order



Leftmost derivation of x - 2 * y

	0	Expr	\rightarrow	Expr Op Value	Rule	Sentential Form
	1			Value		Expr
	2	Value	\rightarrow	<u>number</u>	0	Expr Op Value
	3		ı	<u>identifier</u>	0	Expr Op Value Op Value
	4	Ор	\rightarrow	<u>plus</u>	1	Value Op Value Op Value
	5		I	<u>minus</u>	3	<id,x> Op Value Op Value</id,x>
	6		I	<u>times</u>	5	<id,x> — Value Op Value</id,x>
	7		ı	<u>divide</u>	2	<id,x> — <num,2> <i>Op Value</i></num,2></id,x>
The unambiguous grammar requires			ous grammar requires	6	<id,x> — <num,2> * Value</num,2></id,x>	
				3	<id,x> — <num,2> * <id,y></id,y></num,2></id,x>	

The unambiguous grammar requires one more step in this derivation: the rewrite through *Value* for **x**.

Seems like a small price to pay. (TANSTAAFL)



Definitions

- A context-free grammar G is **ambiguous** if there exists has more than one leftmost derivation for some sentence in L(G)
- A context-free grammar G is **ambiguous** if there exists has more than one rightmost derivation for some sentence in L(G)
- A context-free grammar *G* is **ambiguous** if the rightmost and leftmost derivations produce different parse trees
 - However, the rightmost and leftmost derivations may differ

The classic example — the if-then-else problem

```
0 Stmt → <u>if Expr then Stmt</u>

1 | <u>if Expr then Stmt else Stmt</u>

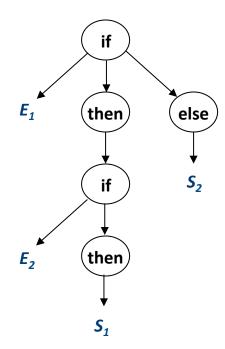
2 | ... other statements ...
```



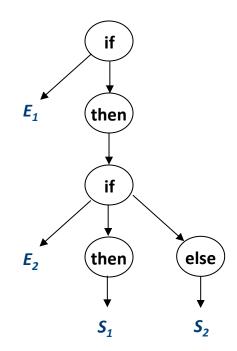
The straightforward if-then-else grammar is ambiguous

Consider the sentential form:

if Expr₁ then if Expr₂ then Stmt₁ else Stmt₂



production 2, then production 1



production 1, then production 2

Two parse trees, two meanings

The new grammar forces the structure to match the desired meaning.



Rewriting the grammar to remove the ambiguity

- Must rewrite the grammar to avoid generating the problem
- Match each <u>else</u> to innermost unmatched <u>if</u>

(common sense rule)

```
0 Stmt → <u>if Expr then Stmt</u>

1 <u>if Expr then WithElse else Stmt</u>

2 ... other statements ...

3 WithElse → <u>if Expr then WithElse else WithElse</u>

4 ... other statements ...

The critical point: the if-then case is not in ... other statements ...
```

With this grammar, the example has only one rightmost derivation

Intuition: once inside a *WithElse*, derivation cannot generate an unmatched <u>else</u> ... a final if without an else can only come through rule 2 ...



Derivation for the example sentence

<u>if Expr₁ then if Expr₂ then Stmt₁ else Stmt₂</u>

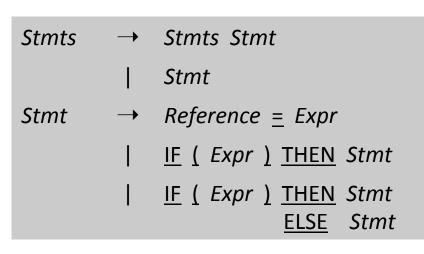
Rule	Sentential Form		
_	Stmt		
0	<u>if</u> Expr <u>then</u> Stmt		
1	<u>if</u> Expr <u>then</u> <u>if</u> Expr <u>then</u> WithElse <u>else</u> Stmt		
2	if Expr then if Expr then WithElse else S2		
4	if Expr then if Expr then S_1 else S_2		
(3)	if Expr then if E_2 then S_1 else S_2		
\ <u>\$</u>	if E_1 then if E_2 then S_1 else S_2		
Other productions to derive <i>Expr</i> s			

The new grammar has only one **rightmost** derivation for the example

A Final Word on IF-THEN-ELSE



The IF-THEN-ELSE ambiguity is a bit more subtle than it looks



... where *Reference* and *Expr* are **NT**s defined elsewhere

We know how to fix this ambiguity using the "withelse" rewrite

What happens if we add a *Stmt* that contains *Stmt*?

Stmt can derive IF-THEN-ELSE, which creates an ambiguity when a WHILE is inside an IF-THEN or an IF-THEN-ELSE

→ Either disallow IF-THEN inside while or require brackets around Stmts list

Deeper Ambiguity



Ambiguity usually refers to confusion in the CFG

Overloading can create deeper confusions about meaning

$$a = f(17)$$

In many Algol-like languages, <u>f</u> can be either a function or a subscripted variable

Disambiguating this confusion requires context

- Need values of declarations
- Really an issue of *type*, not context-free syntax
- Requires an extra-grammatical solution (not in the CFG)
- Must handle these with a different mechanism.
 - Step outside grammar rather than use a more complex grammar

The alternative: *change the syntax*C introduced square brackets for subscripts

BCPL used !, the indirection operator

Ambiguity - the Final Word



Ambiguity arises from two distinct sources

Confusion in the context-free syntax

(if-then-else)

Confusion that requires context to resolve

(overloading)

Resolving ambiguity

- To remove context-free ambiguity, rewrite the grammar
- To handle context-sensitive ambiguity takes cooperation
 - Knowledge of declarations, types, ...
 - Accept a superset of L(G) & check it by other means[†]
 - This is a language design problem

Sometimes, the compiler writer accepts an ambiguous grammar

- Parsing techniques that "do the right thing"
- i.e., always select the same derivation