Introduction to Parsing

Lecture 5

Outline

- Regular languages revisited
- Parser overview

- Context-free grammars (CFG's)
- Derivations

Ambiguity

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, tree languages

Beyond Regular Languages

- Many languages are not regular
- · Strings of balanced parentheses are not regular:

$$\left\{ \binom{i}{i}^i \mid i \geq 0 \right\}$$

What Can Regular Languages Express?

Languages requiring counting modulo a fixed integer

- Intuition: A finite automaton that runs long enough must repeat states
- Finite automaton can't remember # of times it has visited a particular state

The Functionality of the Parser

- · Input: sequence of tokens from lexer
- Output: parse tree of the program (But some parsers never produce a parse tree . . .)

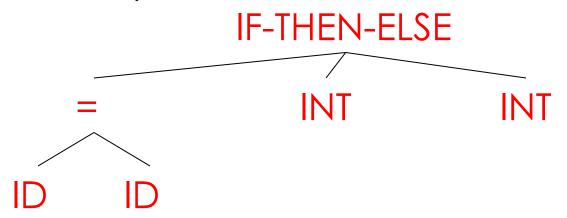
Example

· Cool

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

Parser input

Parser output



Comparison with Lexical Analysis

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

The Role of the Parser

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

Context-Free Grammars

Programming language constructs have recursive structure

An EXPR is
 if EXPR then EXPR else EXPR fi
 while EXPR loop EXPR pool

 Context-free grammars are a natural notation for this recursive structure

CFGs (Cont.)

- A CFG consists of
 - A set of terminals T
 - A set of non-terminals N
 - A start symbol 5 (a non-terminal)
 - A set of productions

$$X \to Y_1 Y_2 L Y_n$$

where $X \in N$ and $Y_i \in T \cup N \cup \{\varepsilon\}$

Notational Conventions

- · In these lecture notes
 - Non-terminals are written upper-case
 - Terminals are written lower-case
 - The start symbol is the left-hand side of the first production

Examples of CFGs

A fragment of Cool:

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

Examples of CFGs (cont.)

Simple arithmetic expressions:

$$E \rightarrow E * E$$

$$| E + E$$

$$| (E)$$

$$| id$$

The Language of a CFG

Read productions as rules:

$$X \rightarrow Y_1 L Y_n$$

Means X can be replaced by $Y_1 L Y_n$

Key Idea

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

$$X \rightarrow Y_1 L Y_n$$

3. Repeat (2) until there are no non-terminals in the string

The Language of a CFG (Cont.)

More formally, write

$$X_1L X_iL X_n \rightarrow X_1L X_{i-1}Y_1L Y_mX_{i+1}L X_n$$

if there is a production

$$X_i \rightarrow Y_1 L Y_m$$

The Language of a CFG (Cont.)

Write

if

$$X_1 L X_n \xrightarrow{*} Y_1 L Y_m$$

$$X_1 L X_n \rightarrow L \rightarrow L \rightarrow Y_1 L Y_m$$

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:

$$\left\{ a_1 \mathsf{K} \ a_n \mid S \stackrel{*}{\to} a_1 \mathsf{K} \ a_n \text{ and every } a_i \text{ is a terminal} \right\}$$

Terminals

- Terminals are so-called because there are no rules for replacing them
- · Once generated, terminals are permanent
- Terminals ought to be tokens of the language

Examples

L(G) is the language of CFG G

Strings of balanced parentheses $\{(i)^i \mid i \ge 0\}$

Two grammars:

Cool Example

A fragment of COOL:

```
EXPR → if EXPR then EXPR else EXPR fi

| while EXPR loop EXPR pool
| id
```

Cool 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

Arithmetic Example

Simple arithmetic expressions:

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

Some elements of the language:

Notes

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

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

More Notes

- Form of the grammar is important
 - Many grammars generate the same language
 - Tools are sensitive to the grammar
 - Note: Tools for regular languages (e.g., flex) are sensitive to the form of the regular expression, but this is rarely a problem in practice

Derivations and Parse Trees

A derivation is a sequence of productions

$$S \to L \to L \to L$$

A derivation can be drawn as a tree

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

Derivation Example

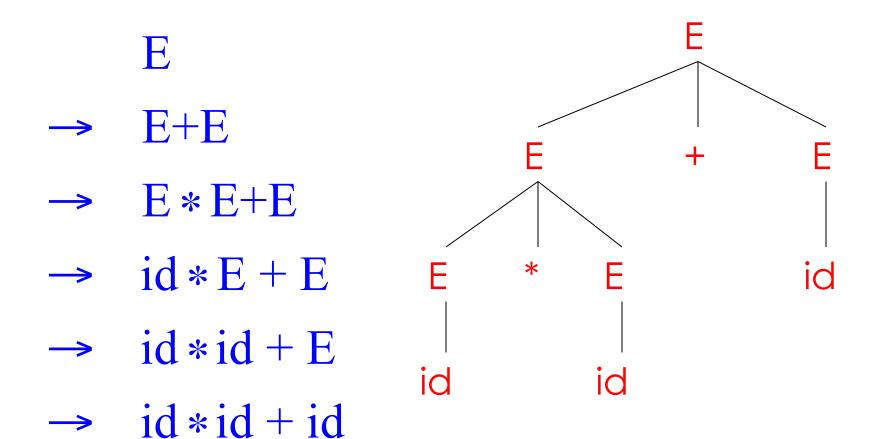
· Grammar

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

· String

$$id * id + id$$

Derivation Example (Cont.)

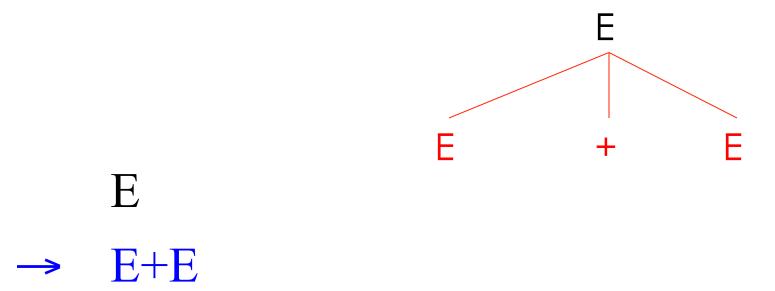


Derivation in Detail (1)

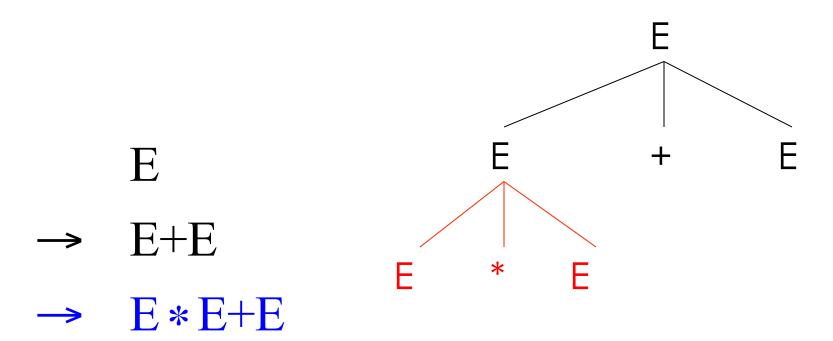
E

E

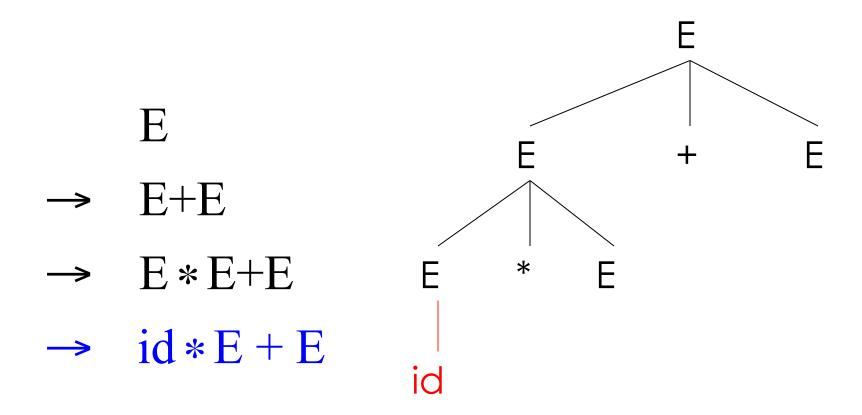
Derivation in Detail (2)



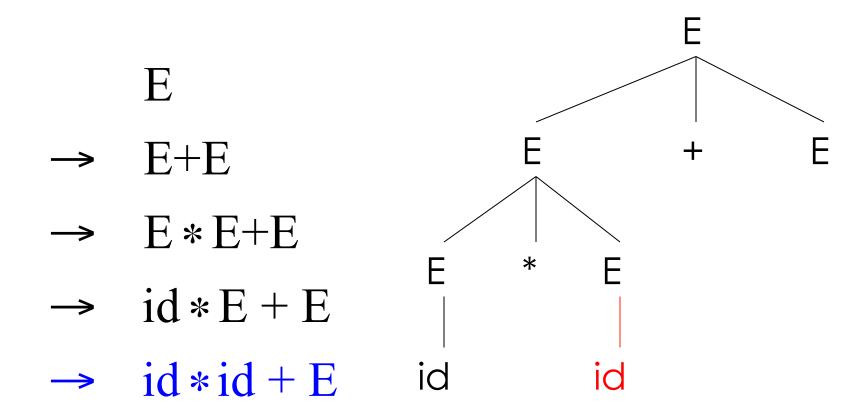
Derivation in Detail (3)



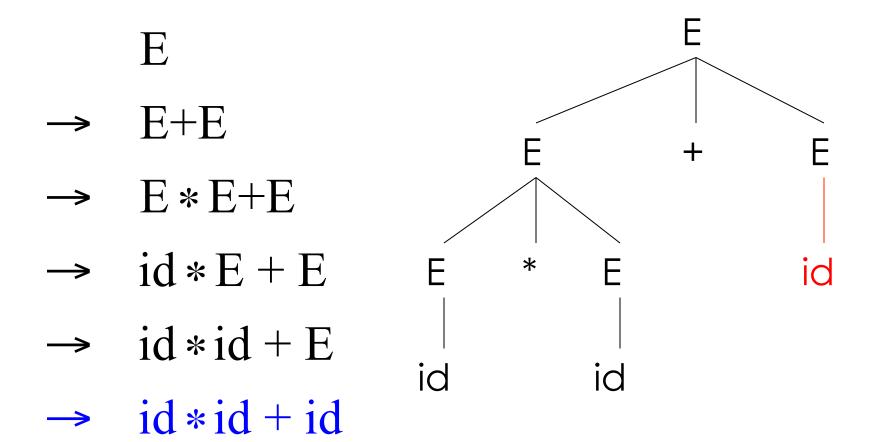
Derivation in Detail (4)



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
- An in-order 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 leftmost 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

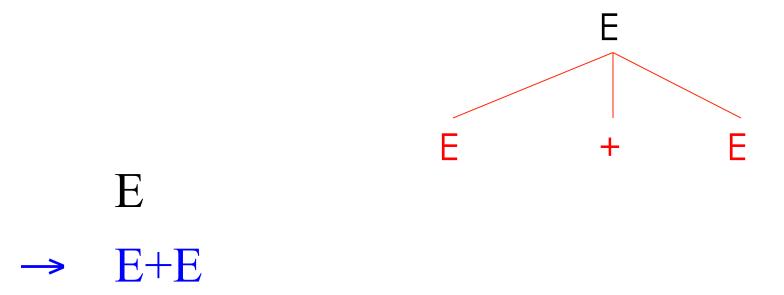
$$\rightarrow$$
 id * id + id

Right-most Derivation in Detail (1)

E

E

Right-most Derivation in Detail (2)

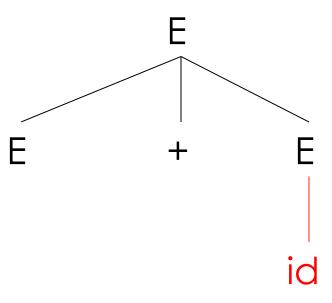


Right-most Derivation in Detail (3)

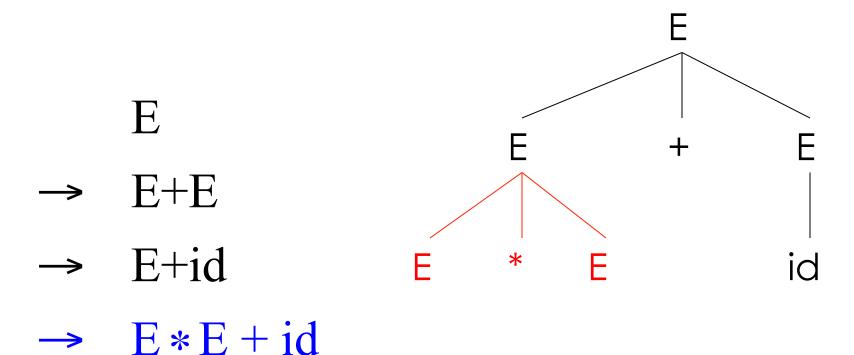
E

$$\rightarrow$$
 E+E

$$\rightarrow$$
 E+id



Right-most Derivation in Detail (4)



Right-most Derivation in Detail (5)

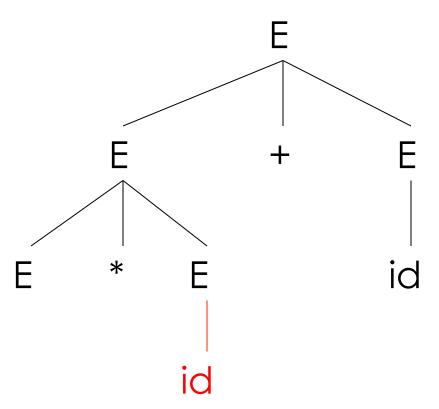
$$E$$

$$\rightarrow E+E$$

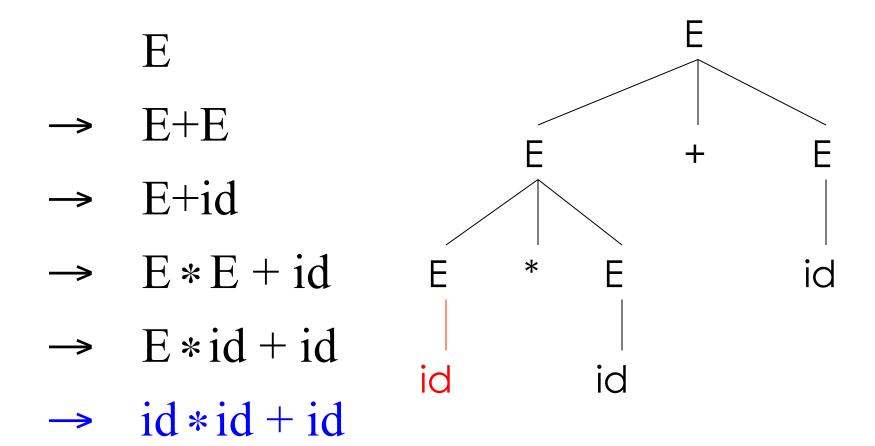
$$\rightarrow E+id$$

$$\rightarrow E*E+id$$

$$\rightarrow E*id+id$$



Right-most Derivation in Detail (6)



Derivations and Parse Trees

 Note that right-most and left-most derivations have the same parse tree

 The difference is the order in which branches are added

Summary of Derivations

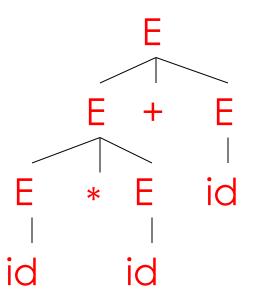
- We are not just interested in whether $s \in L(G)$
 - We need a parse tree for s
- · A derivation defines a parse tree
 - But one parse tree may have many derivations
- Left-most and right-most derivations are important in parser implementation

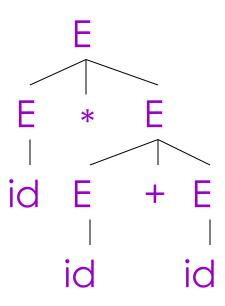
Ambiguity

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

Ambiguity (Cont.)

This string has two parse trees





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

Dealing with Ambiguity

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

$$E \rightarrow E' + E \mid E'$$

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

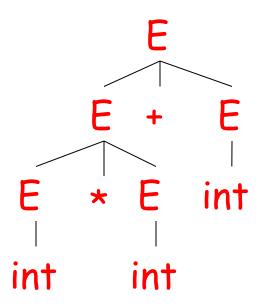
Enforces precedence of * over +

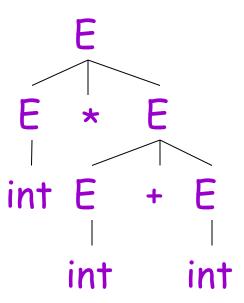
Ambiguity in Arithmetic Expressions

Recall the grammar

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

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





Ambiguity: The Dangling Else

Consider the grammar

```
E → if E then E
| if E then E else E
| OTHER
```

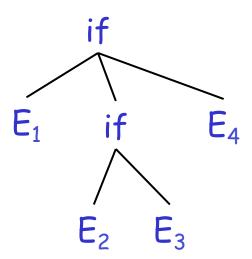
This grammar is also ambiguous

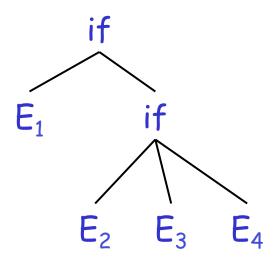
The Dangling Else: Example

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

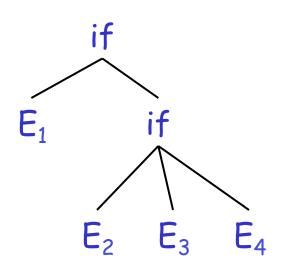
- · else matches the closest unmatched then
- We can describe this in the grammar

```
E → MIF  /* all then are matched */
    | UIF  /* some then is unmatched */
MIF → if E then MIF else MIF
    | OTHER
UIF → if E then E
    | if E then MIF else UIF
```

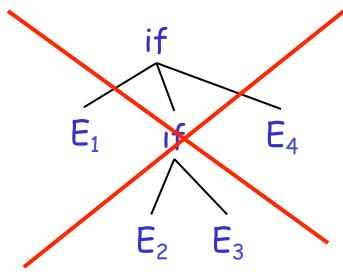
Describes the same set of strings

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

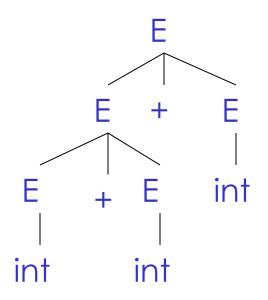
Precedence and Associativity Declarations

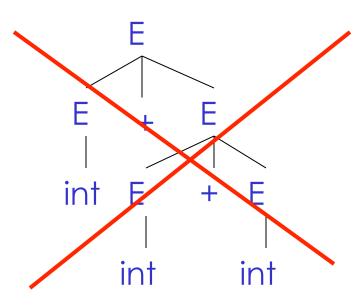
- Instead of rewriting the grammar
 - Use the more natural (ambiguous) grammar
 - Along with disambiguating declarations
- Most tools allow <u>precedence and associativity</u> <u>declarations</u> to disambiguate grammars
- Examples ...

Associativity Declarations

Consider the grammar

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

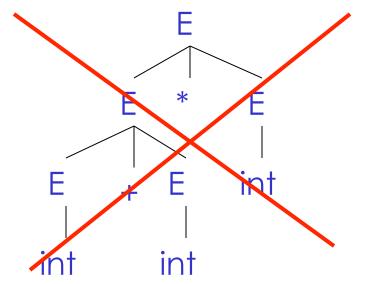


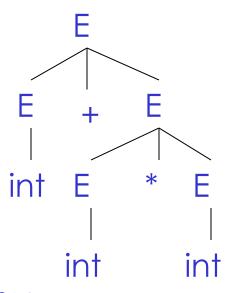


Left associativity declaration: %left +

Precedence Declarations

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





Precedence declarations: %left +