SWEN430 - Compiler Engineering (2018)

Lecture 3 - Parsing I

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Assignment 1

Extend the While parser/interpreter to add:

- Comments: line and block comments, as in Java.
- Constant declarations

```
const PI is 3.14.15
```

- Switch statements
- Assignment to string elements

Recap: Scanner (Lexer, Tokeniser)

- Read input as a sequence characters/lines
- Output a sequence of tokens/lexemes/symbols
- Report lexical errors (illegal symbols)
- Strip out comments and white space
- Localises handling of white space, reading/counting lines, and (possibly) checking for end of file, proving a simpler interface for the parser.

- Set of tokens designed to form a regular language.
 Actually, a left-to-right deterministic regular language.
- Regular languages can be defined using regular expressions, using sequence, alternation, repetition and optional constructs.

```
• E.g.: arithOp = + | - | * | /
relOp = < | > | = | <= | >= | !=
ident = letter ( letter | digit ) *
number = digit digit * [ . digit * ]
```

• What if you want to use brackets etc. in the language being defined?

- Regular languages can be recognised using finite state acceptors.
- A finite state acceptor is an abstract machine which:
 - has a finite amount of memory (the machine is in one of a finite number of states, had has no other memory)
 - at each step determines what to do based solely on the current state and the next input
 - accepts the input if it reaches the end of the input in an accepting state, and otherwise rejects the input.

A symbol/token/lexeme usually consists of:

- a symbol type, such as semicolon, identifier, or number;
- the actual text of the symbol;
- other information, such as line/character number, needed for diagnostics

Example

Input:

```
Test.java

class Test {
   public static void main(String[] args) {
      System.out.println("Hello_World"); } }
```

Possible scanner output:

```
(keyWd, "class", 1, 1), (ident, "Test", 1, 7),
(lBrace, "{", 1, 12), (keyWd, "public", 2, 5),
(keyWd, "static", 2, 12), (keyWd, "void", 2, 19),
(keyWd, "main", 2, 25), (lParen, "(", 2, 29),
(keyWd, "String", 2, 30), (lBrack, "[", 2, 36),
(rBrack, "[", 2, 37), (ident, "args", 2, 39),
(rParen, ")", 2, 43), (lBrace, "{", 2, 45), ...
```

- The scanner is based on a finite state acceptor.
- Read one character at a time, and decide what to do next based on the next character, i.e. one character look ahead (or maybe 2 or 3).
- May be table driven or generated from a set of regular expressions (or a regular grammar), or hand coded — in which case the FSA is implicit in the program code.
- Often the most time consuming part of a compiler, so must be fast.
- May run scanner over the entire input and create a token string which is passed to the parser;
 - or call scanner as a nextToken method from the parser;
 - or run scanner and parser in parallel, e.g. as coroutines.
- Ex: Look at the code for the While lexer.

Basic outline:

```
while there is more input do
  ch <- getNextChar
  case what kind of token can ch start of
    number: scanNumericCont;
    string: scanStringConst;
    ident: scanIdentifier; // includes keywords
    operator: scanOperator;
    whiteSpace: scanWhiteSpace;
    otherwise: error</pre>
```

- Each method scans one kind of token and advances over all of the characters in that token.
- Sometimes look for white space before/after each token.
- Adding an eof char avoids checking everywhere for end of input:

```
ch <- getNextChat
while ch neq eof do
  case what kind of token can ch start of</pre>
```

Code for individual tokens is based on the structure of the RE:

- Sequence: $e_1 e_2 \dots e_n$ Look for occurrences of e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n in turn.
- Alternation: e₁ | e₂ | ... | e_n
 If next char can start e₁, look for an occurrence of e₁
 ...
 else, if next char can start e_n, look for an occurrence of e_n
 else signal error.
- Repetition: e*
 While next char can start e, look for an occurrence of e.
- Optional: [e]Exercise.

How can we be sure to make the right decision based just on the next character?

- In an alternation e₁ | e₂ | ... | e_n:
 No character can start more than one e_i.
 E.g. Can't have ab|ac. Rewrite as ...
- In a sequence, $e_1 e_2 \dots e_n$: No character can start e_i (for i < n) and also start e_{i+1} . E.g. can't have $(a,)^*a$. Rewrite as ...

Note: This means that any two identifiers/numbers must be separated by white space! Keywords are treated as a special case of identifiers.

What about optional: [e] ?
 Ex.

Parser design

- The set of syntactically valid programs is designed to be a (deterministically parsable) context-free language, defined by a form of context-free grammar.
- The parser is based on a *push-down automaton* essentially an FSA with extra memory in the form of an unbounded stack.
- Read one token at a time and decide what to do next based on that token, i.e. one symbol look ahead (or sometimes ...).
- May build a parse tree from root down to leaves (top-down, LL(k); or from leaves up to root (bottom-up, LR(k)).
- May be table driven or generated from a context-free grammar, or hand coded — in which case the PDA is implicit in the program code.
- Lots of tools for generating scanners and parsers (yacc and lex, bison, antlr, ...).

- We'll use a form of top-down hand coded parser called recursive descent or predictive parsing.
- Simple but powerful deterministic parsing method uses one (or more) lookahead symbols to determine what to look for next.
- Grammars and languages for which recursive descent works are called LL(k), where k is the number of lookahead symbols needed.
- Most programming languages structures turn out to be LL(1).
- For each nonterminal N in the grammar, define a method parseN to recognise an instance of N as a prefix of the input, and build an AST for it.
- Logic of the parse methods reflects the structure of the grammar.
 Can be coded directly from the grammar once it is in LL(1) form.
- Easy to extend to do error analysis/reporting/recovery, semantic checking and building AST.

• A Context-Free Grammar (CFG) is a set of rules of the form

$$N \longrightarrow A_1 \mid \ldots \mid A_n$$

where, N is a *non-terminal*, and A_1, \ldots, A_n are strings of *terminals* and/or non-terminals.

- Terminals are symbols that actually appear in a program
 Non-terminals are names of structural components of a program
- The parser method for such a rule (ignoring tree building) is:

```
parseN()
  if nextSym can start A1 then recognise A1
  ...
  else if nextSym can start An then recognise An
  else error(nextSym can't start N)
```

- If A_i is $X_1...X_m$
- Then recognise Ai is:

```
recognise X1;
...
recognise Xm;
```

- Where recognise Xj calls parseXj if X_j is a nonterminal, and looks for terminal X_j otherwise.
- This needs some more plumbing to handle errors and build AST.
- In practice, we can simplify the parser a bit.

```
• Example: E \longrightarrow N \mid V \mid (E+E)

N \longrightarrow [0-9]^+

V \longrightarrow [a-zA-Z_]^+[a-zA-Z0-9_]^*
```

Note that this uses Unix regular expression notation to define sets of terminals.

Parser is:

When does it work? LL(1) conditions

- Must be able to decide what to do on basis of next input symbol.
- So, given $N \longrightarrow A \mid B$, no symbol that can start an A can also start a B.
- Define first sets:

Let γ be a sequence of terminal and non-terminal symbols. Then $\mathit{first}(\gamma)$ is the set of all terminal symbols which begin a string derived from γ .

- Code nextSym can start N as nextSym in first(N).
- We can now state the **Choice Condition**:

For any rule $N \longrightarrow \alpha \mid \beta$, it must hold that $\mathit{first}(\alpha) \cap \mathit{first}(\beta) = \emptyset$.

LL(1) — first() sets

• Example:
$$S \longrightarrow T \text{ a } | U \text{ b}$$
 (1)
 $T \longrightarrow \text{d } T | \text{e}$ (2)
 $U \longrightarrow \text{c } U | \text{f}$ (3)

- For rule (2): $first(dT) = \{d\}$ and $first(e) = \{e\}$.
- For rule (3): $first(cU) = \{c\}$ and $first(f) = \{f\}$.
- For rule (1): $first(Ta) = first(T) = first(dT) \cup first(e) = \{d, e\},$ and $first(Ub) = first(U) = first(cU) \cup first(f) = \{c, f\}.$
- Does this satisfy the choice condition?
- Ex: Write (or find) a recursive definition of first.

LL(1) — first() sets

• What are the first() sets for these grammars?

$$\mathbf{0}$$
 $S \longrightarrow a S \mid a$

3
$$S \longrightarrow T \text{ a } | U \text{ b}$$

 $S \longrightarrow T \text{ a } | U \text{ c}$
 $T \longrightarrow \text{d } T | \text{ e}$
 $U \longrightarrow \text{c } U | \epsilon$

Do they satisfy the choice condition?

Questions to ponder

- How do we extend the Choice Condition to $N \longrightarrow \alpha_1 |...| \alpha_n$?
- Are there any cases the Choice Condition doesn't handle?
 i.e. anywhere else the parser has to make a choice?
- How can we extend this to handle extended BNF grammars, where we can write:
 - $[\alpha]$ to mean that α is optional.
 - α^* to mean that α is repeated 0 or more times.
 - α^+ to mean that α is repeated 1 or more times.