# CMSC 330: Organization of Programming Languages

Parsing

CMSC 330 Spring 2020

### **Recall: Front End Scanner and Parser**



- Scanner / lexer / tokenizer converts program source into tokens (keywords, variable names, operators, numbers, etc.) with regular expressions
- Parser converts tokens into an AST (abstract syntax tree) based on a context free grammar

# Scanning ("tokenizing")

- Converts textual input into a stream of tokens
  - These are the terminals in the parser's CFG
  - Example tokens are keywords, identifiers, numbers, punctuation, etc.
- Tokens determined with regular expressions
  - Identifiers match regexp [a-zA-Z\_][a-zA-Z0-9\_]\*
  - Non-negative integers match [0-9]+
  - Etc.
- Scanner typically ignores/eliminates whitespace

### A Scanner in OCaml

```
type token =
                                              tokenize 1+2'' =
   Tok Num of char
                                                 [Tok Num '1';
 | Tok Sum
                                                  Tok Sum;
 | Tok END
                                                  Tok Num '2';
                                                  Tok END]
let tokenize (s:string) = ...
   (* returns token list *)
;;
             let re num = Str.regexp "[0-9]" (* single digit *)
             let re add = Str.regexp "+"
             let tokenize str =
              let rec tok pos s =
                if pos >= String.length s then
                  [Tok END]
                else
                  if (Str.string match re num s pos) then
                    let token = Str.matched string s in
                      (Tok Num token.[0])::(tok (pos+1) s)
                  else if (Str.string match re add s pos) then
                    Tok Sum::(tok (pos+1) s)
                  else
                    raise (IllegalExpression "tokenize")
              in
              tok 0 str
```

Uses Str library module for regexps

### **Implementing Parsers**

- Many efficient techniques for parsing
  - LL(k), SLR(k), LR(k), LALR(k)...
  - Take CMSC 430 for more details
- One simple technique: recursive descent parsing
  - This is a top-down parsing algorithm
- Other algorithms are bottom-up

# **Top-Down Parsing (Intuition)**

 $E \rightarrow id = n | \{ L \}$  $L \rightarrow E ; L | \epsilon$ 

(Assume: id is variable name, n is integer)

Show parse tree for { x = 3 ; { y = 4 ; } ; }



# **Bottom-up Parsing (Intuition)**

 $\begin{array}{l} \mathsf{E} \rightarrow \mathsf{id} = \mathsf{n} \mid \{ \mathsf{L} \} \\ \mathsf{L} \rightarrow \mathsf{E} \ ; \ \mathsf{L} \mid \epsilon \end{array}$ 

Show parse tree for { x = 3 ; { y = 4 ; } ; }

Note that final trees constructed are same as for top-down; only order in which nodes are added to tree is different



# **BU Example: Shift-Reduce Parsing**

- Replaces RHS of production with LHS (nonterminal)
- Example grammar
  - $S \rightarrow aA, A \rightarrow Bc, B \rightarrow b$
- Example parse
  - $abc \Rightarrow aBc \Rightarrow aA \Rightarrow S$
  - Derivation happens in reverse
- Complicated to use; requires tool support
  - Bison, yacc produce shift-reduce parsers from CFGs

### Tradeoffs

- Recursive descent parsers
  - Easy to write
    - The formal definition is a little clunky, but if you follow the code then it's almost what you might have done if you weren't told about grammars formally
  - Fast
    - > Can be implemented with a simple table
- Shift-reduce parsers handle more grammars
  - Error messages may be confusing
- Most languages use hacked parsers (!)
  - Strange combination of the two

### **Recursive Descent Parsing**

#### Goal

- Can we "parse" a string does it match our grammar?
   > We will talk about constructing an AST later
- Approach: Perform parse
  - Replace each non-terminal A by the *rhs* of a production
     A→ *rhs*
  - And/or match each terminal against token in input
  - Repeat until input consumed, or failure

# Recursive Descent Parsing (cont.)

- At each step, we'll keep track of two facts
  - What grammar element are we trying to match/expand?
  - What is the lookahead (next token of the input string)?
- At each step, apply one of three possible cases
  - If we're trying to match a terminal
    - If the lookahead is that token, then succeed, advance the lookahead, and continue
  - If we're trying to match a nonterminal
    - > Pick which production to apply based on the lookahead
  - Otherwise fail with a parsing error

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# **Parsing Example**

- $\mathsf{E} \rightarrow \mathsf{id} = \mathsf{n} \mid \{\mathsf{L}\}\$
- $L \to E \ ; \ L \mid \epsilon$ 
  - Here n is an integer and id is an identifier
- One input might be
  - { x = 3; { y = 4; }; }
  - This would get turned into a list of tokens
     { x = 3 ; { y = 4 ; } ; }
  - And we want to turn it into a parse tree

### Parsing Example (cont.)

$$\begin{split} & E \rightarrow id = n \mid \{ L \} \\ & L \rightarrow E \ ; L \mid \epsilon \end{split}$$



# Recursive Descent Parsing (cont.)

- Key step: Choosing the right production
- Two approaches
  - Backtracking
    - > Choose some production
    - If fails, try different production
    - Parse fails if all choices fail
  - Predictive parsing (what we will do)
    - > Analyze grammar to find FIRST sets for productions
    - Compare with lookahead to decide which production to select
    - Parse fails if lookahead does not match FIRST

# **Selecting a Production**

- Motivating example
  - If grammar  $S \rightarrow xyz$  | abc and lookahead is x
    - $\succ$  Select S  $\rightarrow$  xyz since 1st terminal in RHS matches x
  - If grammar  $S \rightarrow A \mid B$   $A \rightarrow x \mid y \mid B \rightarrow z$ 
    - > If lookahead is x, select  $S \rightarrow A$ , since A can derive string beginning with x
- In general
  - Choose a production that can derive a sentential form
     beginning with the lookahead
  - Need to know what terminal may be first in any sentential form derived from a nonterminal / production

# **First Sets**

#### Definition

- First(γ), for any terminal or nonterminal γ, is the set of initial terminals of all strings that γ may expand to
- We'll use this to decide which production to apply
- Example: Given grammar

 $S \rightarrow A \mid B$ 

$$A \rightarrow x \mid y$$

 $B \rightarrow z$ 

- First(A) = { x, y } since First(x) = { x }, First(y) = { y }
- First(B) = { z } since First(z) = { z }
- So: If we are parsing S and see x or y, we choose S → A; if we see z we choose S → B

# Calculating First(γ)

- For a terminal a
  - First(a) = { a }
- For a nonterminal N
  - If  $N \rightarrow \epsilon$ , then add  $\epsilon$  to First(N)
  - If  $N \rightarrow \alpha_1 \alpha_2 \dots \alpha_n$ , then (note the  $\alpha_i$  are all the symbols on the right side of one single production):
    - Add First(α<sub>1</sub>α<sub>2</sub> ... α<sub>n</sub>) to First(N), where First(α<sub>1</sub> α<sub>2</sub> ... α<sub>n</sub>) is defined as
      - First( $\alpha_1$ ) if  $\epsilon \notin First(\alpha_1)$
      - Otherwise  $(First(\alpha_1) \epsilon) \cup First(\alpha_2 \dots \alpha_n)$
    - > If  $\epsilon \in First(\alpha_i)$  for all i,  $1 \le i \le k$ , then add  $\epsilon$  to First(N)

# First() Examples

```
E \rightarrow id = n | \{L\}
L \rightarrow E; L \mid \epsilon
First(id) = \{ id \}
First("=") = { "=" }
First(n) = \{n\}
First("{")= { "{" }
First("}")= { "}" }
First(";")= { ";" }
First(E) = { id, "{" }
First(L) = \{ id, "\{", \epsilon \} \}
```

 $E \rightarrow id = n | \{L\} | \epsilon$  $L \rightarrow E ; L$  $First(id) = \{ id \}$ First("=") = { "=" }  $First(n) = \{n\}$ First("{")= { "{" } First("}")= { "}" } First(";")= { ";" } First(E) = { id, "{",  $\epsilon$  } First(L) = { id, "{", ";" }

### **Recursive Descent Parser Implementation**

- For all terminals, use function match\_tok a
  - If lookahead is **a** it consumes the lookahead by advancing the lookahead to the next token, and returns
  - Fails with a parse error if lookahead is not a
- For each nonterminal N, create a function parse\_N
  - Called when we're trying to parse a part of the input which corresponds to (or can be derived from) N
  - parse\_S for the start symbol S begins the parse

#### match\_tok in OCaml

```
let tok list = ref [] (* list of parsed tokens *)
exception ParseError of string
let match tok a =
 match !tok list with
    (* checks lookahead; advances on match *)
    | (h::t) when a = h -> tok list := t
    | -> raise (ParseError "bad match")
(* used by parse X *)
let lookahead () =
 match !tok list with
    [] -> raise (ParseError "no tokens")
  | (h::t) -> h
```

### **Parsing Nonterminals**

- The body of parse\_N for a nonterminal N does the following
  - Let  $N \rightarrow \beta_1 \mid ... \mid \beta_k$  be the productions of N
    - Here β<sub>i</sub> is the entire right side of a production- a sequence of terminals and nonterminals
  - Pick the production  $N \rightarrow \beta_i$  such that the lookahead is in First( $\beta_i$ )
    - > It must be that  $First(\beta_i) \cap First(\beta_j) = \emptyset$  for  $i \neq j$
    - $\succ$  If there is no such production, but  $N \rightarrow \epsilon$  then return
    - > Otherwise fail with a parse error
  - Suppose  $\beta_i = \alpha_1 \alpha_2 \dots \alpha_n$ . Then call parse\_ $\alpha_1(); \dots;$ parse\_ $\alpha_n()$  to match the expected right-hand side, and return

### **Example Parser**

- Given grammar  $S \rightarrow xyz \mid abc$ 
  - First(xyz) = { x }, First(abc) = { a }
- Parser

```
let parse S() =
  if lookahead () = "x" then (* S \rightarrow xyz *)
    (match tok "x";
     match tok "y";
     match tok "z")
   else if lookahead () = "a" then (* S \rightarrow abc *)
     (match tok "a";
     match tok "b";
     match tok "c")
   else raise (ParseError "parse S")
```

#### **Another Example Parser**

• Given grammar  $S \rightarrow A \mid B$   $A \rightarrow x \mid y \mid B \rightarrow z$ • First(A) = { x, y }, First(B) = { z } Parser: let(rec)parse\_s () = If lookahead () = |x| || lookahead () = "y" then Syntax for parse A () (\* S  $\rightarrow$  A \*) mutually else if lookahead () = "z" then recursive parse B () (\* S  $\rightarrow$  B \*) functions in else raise (ParseError "parse S") OCaml – and parse A () = parse S and if lookahead () = "x" then parse A and match tok "x" (\*  $A \rightarrow x$  \*) parse B Can else if lookahead () = "y" then each call the match tok "y" (\*  $A \rightarrow y$  \*) other else raise (ParseError "parse A") and parse B () =  $\dots$ 

### Example

```
E \rightarrow id = n | \{L\} \qquad First(E) = \{ id, "\{" \} \}L \rightarrow E ; L | \epsilonParser:
```

```
let rec parse_E () =
    if lookahead () = "id" then
        (* E → id = n *)
        (match_tok "id";
        match_tok "=";
        match_tok "n")
    else if lookahead () = "{" then
        (* E → { L } *)
        (match_tok "{";
        parse_L ();
        match_tok "}")
    else raise (ParseError "parse_A")
```

```
and parse_L () =

if lookahead () = "id"

|| lookahead () = "{" then

(* L \rightarrow E; L *)

(parse_E ();

match_tok ";";

parse_L ())

else

(* L \rightarrow \epsilon *)

()
```

# Things to Notice

- If you draw the execution trace of the parser
  - You get the parse tree (we'll consider ASTs later)
- Examples
  - Grammar
    - $S \to xyz$
    - $S \to \text{abc}$
  - String "xyz"
     parse\_S ()
     match\_tok "x" / | \
     match\_tok "y" x y z
     match\_tok "z"

- Grammar
  - $S \rightarrow A \mid B$  $A \rightarrow x \mid y$
  - $B \rightarrow z$
- String "x"
   parse\_S ()
   A

X

# Things to Notice (cont.)

- This is a predictive parser
  - Because the lookahead determines exactly which production to use
- This parsing strategy may fail on some grammars
  - Production First sets overlap
  - Production First sets contain ε
  - Possible infinite recursion
- Does not mean grammar is not usable
  - Just means this parsing method not powerful enough
  - May be able to change grammar

# **Conflicting First Sets**

- Consider parsing the grammar  $E \rightarrow ab \mid ac$ 
  - First(ab) = a Parser cannot choose between
  - First(ac) = a RHS based on lookahead!
- Parser fails whenever  $A \rightarrow \alpha_1 \mid \alpha_2$  and
  - First( $\alpha_1$ )  $\cap$  First( $\alpha_2$ ) !=  $\epsilon$  or Ø
- Solution
  - Rewrite grammar using left factoring

# Left Factoring Algorithm

- Given grammar
  - $A \rightarrow x\alpha_1 | x\alpha_2 | \dots | x\alpha_n | \beta$
- Rewrite grammar as
  - $A \rightarrow xL \mid \beta$
  - $L \rightarrow \alpha_1 \mid \alpha_2 \mid \dots \mid \alpha_n$
- Repeat as necessary
- Examples
  - $S \rightarrow ab \mid ac$  $\Rightarrow$  S  $\rightarrow$  aL L  $\rightarrow$  b | c

- $S \rightarrow abcA \mid abB \mid a \Rightarrow S \rightarrow aL$   $L \rightarrow bcA \mid bB \mid \epsilon$
- $L \rightarrow bcA \mid bB \mid \epsilon \qquad \Rightarrow L \rightarrow bL' \mid \epsilon \quad L' \rightarrow cA \mid B$

### **Alternative Approach**

- Change structure of parser
  - First match common prefix of productions
  - Then use lookahead to chose between productions
- Example
  - Consider parsing the grammar  $E \rightarrow a + b \mid a^*b \mid a$

```
let parse_E () =
  match_tok "a"; (* common prefix *)
  if lookahead () = "+" then (* E \rightarrow a+b *)
    (match_tok "+";
    match_tok "b")
  else if lookahead () = "*" then (* E \rightarrow a*b *)
    (match_tok "*";
    match_tok "b")
  else () (* E \rightarrow a *)
```

### Left Recursion

- Consider grammar  $S \rightarrow Sa \mid \epsilon$ 
  - Try writing parser

```
let rec parse_S () =
    if lookahead () = "a" then
        (parse_S ();
        match_tok "a") (* S → Sa *)
    else ()
```

- Body of parse\_S () has an infinite loop!
  - Infinite loop occurs in grammar with left recursion

# **Right Recursion**

- ► Consider grammar  $S \rightarrow aS \mid \epsilon$  Again, First(aS) = a
  - Try writing parser

• Will parse\_S() infinite loop?

Invoking match\_tok will advance lookahead, eventually stop

• Top down parsers handles grammar w/ right recursion

# Algorithm To Eliminate Left Recursion

- Given grammar
  - $A \rightarrow A\alpha_1 \mid A\alpha_2 \mid \dots \mid A\alpha_n \mid \beta$ 
    - >  $\beta$  must exist or no derivation will yield a string
- Rewrite grammar as (repeat as needed)
  - $A \rightarrow \beta L$
  - $L \rightarrow \alpha_1 L \mid \alpha_2 L \mid ... \mid \alpha_n L \mid \epsilon$
- Replaces left recursion with right recursion
- Examples
  - $S \rightarrow Sa \mid \epsilon \qquad \Rightarrow S \rightarrow L \qquad L \rightarrow aL \mid \epsilon$
  - $S \rightarrow Sa \mid Sb \mid c$   $\Rightarrow S \rightarrow cL$   $L \rightarrow aL \mid bL \mid c$

# What's Wrong With Parse Trees?

- Parse trees contain too much information
  - Example
    - > Parentheses
    - > Extra nonterminals for precedence
  - This extra stuff is needed for parsing
- But when we want to reason about languages
  - Extra information gets in the way (too much detail)

# Abstract Syntax Trees (ASTs)

An abstract syntax tree is a more compact, abstract representation of a parse tree, with only the essential parts





AST

# Abstract Syntax Trees (cont.)

- Intuitively, ASTs correspond to the data structure you'd use to represent strings in the language
  - Note that grammars describe trees
    - > So do OCaml datatypes, as we have seen already
  - $E \rightarrow a \mid b \mid c \mid E+E \mid E-E \mid E^*E \mid (E)$



## **Producing an AST**

- To produce an AST, we can modify the parse() functions to construct the AST along the way
  - match\_tok a returns an AST node (leaf) for a
  - parse\_A returns an AST node for A

> AST nodes for RHS of production become children of LHS node

- Example
  - $S \rightarrow aA$

let rec parse\_S () =
 if lookahead () = "a" then
 S
 let n1 = match\_tok "a" in
 let n2 = parse\_A () in
 Node(n1,n2)
 else raise ParseError "parse\_S"

# **The Compilation Process**

