

# CMSC 330: Organization of Programming Languages

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Context-Free Grammars:  
Pushdown Automaton

## Reminders

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- Project 2 Due Oct. 12

## Regular expressions and CFGs

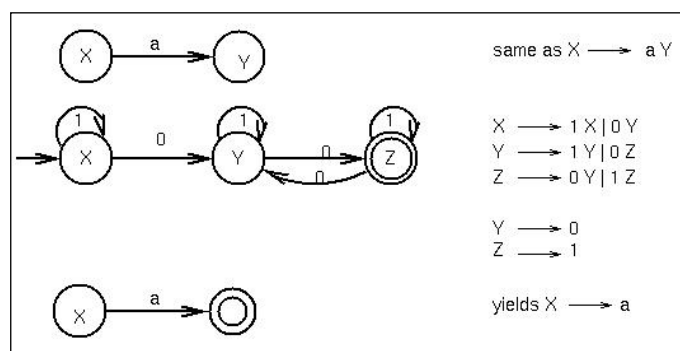
	Description	Machine
regular languages	regular expressions	DFAs, NFAs
context-free languages	context-free grammars	pushdown automata (PDAs)

- Programming languages are not regular
  - Matching (an arbitrary number of) brackets so that they are balanced
- Usually almost context-free, with some hacks

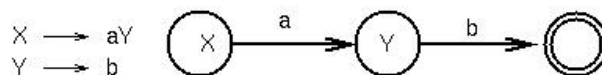
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## Equivalence of DFA and regular grammars



To go from regular grammar to FSA, make the following transformations:



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## Pushdown Automaton (PDA)

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- A **pushdown automaton** (PDA) is an abstract machine similar to the DFA
  - Has a finite set of states
  - Also has a *pushdown stack*
- Moves of the PDA are as follows:
  - An input symbol is read and the top symbol on the stack is read
  - Based on both inputs, the machine
    - Enters a new state, and
    - Writes zero or more symbols onto the pushdown stack
    - Or pops zero or more symbols from the stack
  - String accepted if the stack is empty AND the string has ended

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## Power of PDAs

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- PDAs are more powerful than DFAs
  - $a^n b^n$ , which cannot be recognized by a DFA, can easily be recognized by the PDA
    - Stack all **a** symbols and, for each **b**, pop an **a** off the stack.
    - If the end of input is reached at the same time that the stack becomes empty, the string is accepted

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## Context-free Grammars in Practice

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- Regular expressions are used to turn raw text into a string of *tokens*
  - E.g., “if”, “then”, “identifier”, etc.
  - Whitespace and comments are simply skipped
  - These tokens are the input for the next phase of compilation
  - Standard tools used include lex and flex
    - Many others for Java
- CFGs are used to turn tokens into parse trees
  - This process is called *parsing*
  - Standard tools used include yacc and bison
- Those trees are then analyzed by the compiler, which eventually produces object code

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## Parsing

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- There are many efficient techniques for turning strings into parse trees
  - They all have strange names, like LL(k), SLR(k), LR(k)...
  - Take CMSC 430 for more details
- We will look at one very simple technique:  
*recursive descent parsing*
  - This is a “top-down” parsing algorithm because we’re going to begin at the start symbol and try to produce the string

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## Example

$E \rightarrow id = n \mid \{ L \}$

$L \rightarrow E ; L \mid \epsilon$

– 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

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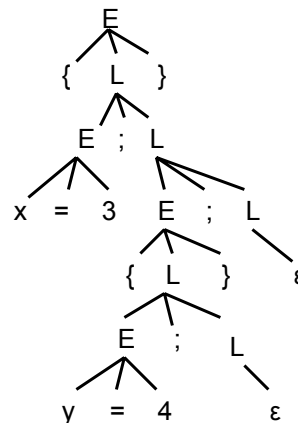
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## Example (cont'd)

$E \rightarrow id = n \mid \{ L \}$

$L \rightarrow E ; L \mid \epsilon$

$\{ x = 3; \{ y = 4; \}; \}$



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## Parsing Algorithm

- Goal: determine if we can produce a string to be parsed from the grammar's start symbol
- At each step, we'll keep track of two facts
  - What tree node are we trying to match?
  - What is the *next* token (*lookahead*) of the input string?
- There are three cases:
  - If we're trying to match a terminal and the next token (lookahead) is that token, then succeed, advance the lookahead, and continue
  - If we're trying to match a nonterminal then pick which production to apply based on the lookahead
  - Otherwise, fail with a parsing error

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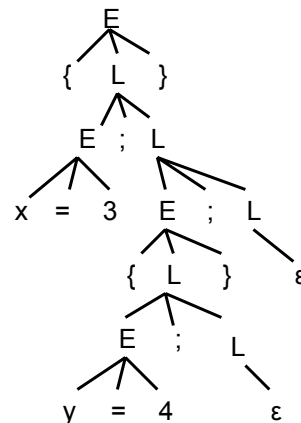
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## Example (cont'd)

$E \rightarrow id = n \mid \{ L \}$

$L \rightarrow E ; L \mid \epsilon$

$\{ x = 3 ; \{ y = 4 ; \} ; \}$   
↑↑↑↑↑↑↑↑↑↑↑↑↑↑↑↑  
lookahead



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## Definition of First( $y$ )

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- $\text{First}(y)$ , for any terminal or nonterminal  $y$ , is the set of initial terminals of all strings that  $y$  may expand to
  - We'll use this to decide what production to apply

## Definition of First( $y$ ), cont'd

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- For a terminal  $a$ ,  $\text{First}(a) = \{ a \}$
- For a nonterminal  $N$ :
  - If  $N \rightarrow \epsilon$ , then add  $\epsilon$  to  $\text{First}(N)$
  - 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  $\text{First}(\alpha_1 \alpha_2 \dots \alpha_n)$  to  $\text{First}(N)$ , where  $\text{First}(\alpha_1 \alpha_2 \dots \alpha_n)$  is defined as
      - $\text{First}(\alpha_1)$  if  $\epsilon \notin \text{First}(\alpha_1)$
      - Otherwise  $(\text{First}(\alpha_1) - \epsilon) \cup \text{First}(\alpha_2 \dots \alpha_n)$
    - If  $\epsilon \in \text{First}(\alpha_i)$  for all  $i$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq n$ , then add  $\epsilon$  to  $\text{First}(N)$

## Examples

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

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

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## Implementing a Recursive Descent Parser

- For each terminal symbol  $a$ , create a function `parse_a`, which:
  - If the lookahead is  $a$  it consumes the lookahead by advancing the lookahead to the next token, and returns
  - Otherwise fails with a parse error if the lookahead is not  $a$
- For each nonterminal  $N$ , create a function `parse_N`
  - This function is 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 process

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## Implementing a Recursive Descent Parser, con't.

- The body of `parse_N` for a nonterminal `N` does the following:
  - Let  $N \rightarrow \beta_1 \mid \dots \mid \beta_k$  be the productions of `N`
    - Here  $\beta_i$  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  $\text{First}(\beta_i)$ 
    - It must be that  $\text{First}(\beta_i) \cap \text{First}(\beta_j) = \emptyset$  for  $i \neq j$
    - If there is no such production, but  $N \rightarrow \epsilon$  then return
    - Otherwise, then fail with a parse error
  - Suppose  $\beta_i = \alpha_1 \alpha_2 \dots \alpha_n$ . Then call `parse_α1()`; ... ; `parse_αn()` to match the expected right-hand side, and return

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## Example

$E \rightarrow \text{id} = n \mid \{ L \}$

$L \rightarrow E ; L \mid \epsilon$

```
let parse_term t =  
  if !lookahead = t  
  then lookahead := <next token>  
  else raise <Parse error>
```

```
let rec parse_E () =  
  if lookahead = 'id' then begin  
    parse_term 'id';  
    parse_term '=';  
    parse_term 'n'  
  end  
  else if lookahead = '{' then begin  
    parse_term '{';  
    parse_L ();  
    parse_term '}';  
  end  
  else raise <Parse error>;
```

(not quite  
valid OCaml)

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## Example (cont'd)

$E \rightarrow id = n \mid \{ L \}$

$L \rightarrow E ; L \mid \epsilon$

mutually recursive with previous `let rec`

```
and parse_L () =  
  if lookahead = 'id' || lookahead = '{' then begin  
    parse_E ();  
    parse_term ';';  
    parse_L ()  
  end  
  (* else return (not an error) *)
```

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## Things to Notice

- If you draw the execution trace of the parser as a tree, then you get the parse tree
- This parsing strategy may fail on certain grammars because the **First** sets overlap
  - This doesn't mean the grammar is not usable in a parser, just not in this type of parser
- Consider parsing the grammar  $E \rightarrow n + E \mid n$ 
  - $\text{First}(E) = n = \text{First}(n)$ , so we can't use this technique
    - Exercise: Rewrite this grammar so it becomes amenable to our parsing technique
- This is a *predictive* parser because we use the lookahead to determine exactly which production to use

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## More on Limitations

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- How about the grammar  $S \rightarrow Sa \mid \epsilon$ 
  - $\text{First}(Sa) = a$ , so we're ok as far as which production
  - But the body of `parse_S()` has an infinite loop
    - if (lookahead = "a") then `parse_S()`
  - This technique cannot handle left-recursion
  - Exercise: rewrite this grammar to be right-recursive

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## Expr Grammar for Top-Down Parsing

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$E \rightarrow T E'$   
 $E' \rightarrow \epsilon \mid + E$   
 $T \rightarrow P T'$   
 $T' \rightarrow \epsilon \mid * T$   
 $P \rightarrow n \mid ( E )$

- Notice we can always decide what production to choose with only one symbol of lookahead

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## Tradeoffs with Other Approaches

- Recursive descent parsers are 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
  - They're unable to handle certain kinds of grammars
- More powerful techniques need tool support, such as yacc and bison (which can be slower)
- Recursive descent is good for a quick hack
  - Though using the tools is pretty fast if you're familiar with them

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## General parsing algorithms

- As with NFA, we can also have a NDPDA
  - NDPDA are more powerful than DPDA
  - NDPDA can recognize even length palindromes over  $\{0,1\}^*$ , but a DPDA cannot. Why? (Hint: Consider palindromes over  $\{0,1\}^2\{0,1\}^*$ )
  - (Remember that DFA and NFA **do** accept the same sets.)
- Knuth in 1965 showed that the deterministic PDAs were equivalent to a class of grammars called LR(k) [Left-to-right parsing with k symbol lookahead]
  - Create a PDA that decides whether to stack the next symbol or pop a symbol off the stack by looking k symbols ahead.
  - This is a deterministic process, and for  $k=1$  is efficient.
- LR(k), SLR(k) [Simple LR(k)], and LALR(k) [Lookahead LR(k)] are all techniques used today to build efficient parsers.
  - Recursive descent is a form of LL(k) parsing
  - More in CMSC 430 ...

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## What's Wrong with Parse Trees?

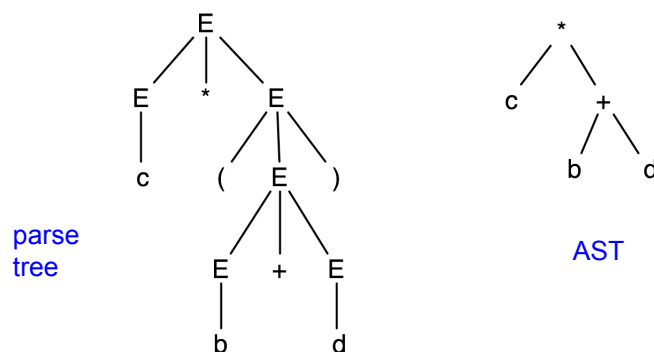
- Parse trees contain too much information
  - E.g., they have parentheses and they have extra nonterminals for precedence
  - This extra stuff is needed for parsing
- But when we want to *reason* about languages, it gets in the way (it's too much detail)

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## Abstract Syntax Trees (ASTs)

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

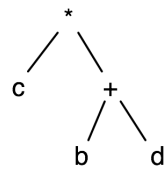


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## ASTs (cont'd)

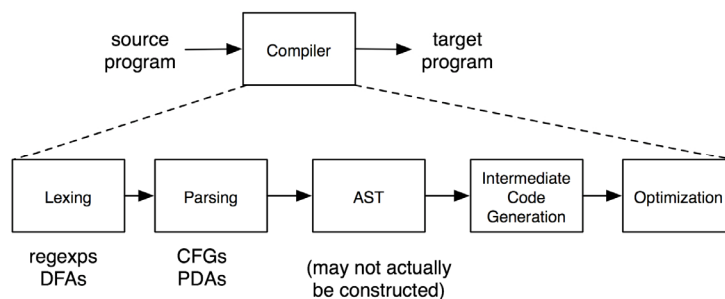
- Intuitively, ASTs correspond to the data structure you'd use to represent strings in the language
  - Note that grammars describe trees (so do OCaml datatypes which we'll see later)
  - $E \rightarrow a \mid b \mid c \mid E+E \mid E-E \mid E^*E \mid (E)$



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## The Compilation Process



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## Producing an AST

- To produce an AST, we modify the `parse()` functions to construct the AST along the way

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## Producing an AST (cont'd)

```
type ast =  
  Assn of string * int  
| Block of ast list
```

```
let rec parse_E () =  
  if lookahead = 'id' then  
    let id = parse_term 'id' in  
    let _ = parse_term '=' in  
    let n = parse_term 'n' in  
    Assn(id, int_of_string n)  
  else if lookahead = '{' then begin  
    let _ = parse_term '{' in  
    let l = parse_L () in  
    let _ = parse_term '}' in  
    Block l  
  end  
  else raise <Parse error>;
```

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## Producing an AST (cont'd)

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```
type ast =  
  Assn of string * int  
| Block of ast list
```

```
and parse_L () =  
  if lookahead = 'id' then  
    let e = parse_E () in  
    let _ = parse_term ';' in  
    let l = parse_L () in  
      e::l  
  else []
```