



CSE 401 – Compilers

Lecture 5: Parsing & Context-Free
Grammars
Michael Ringenburg
Winter 2013

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Announcements/ Reminders



- Homework 1 is due on Friday
 - There have been some good questions posted on the class discussion board – it would be worth your time to check them out.
 - Homework 1 *only* covers material from the scanning lectures. Don't worry about things we'll cover today, like ambiguous grammars.
- No class or office hours Monday (MLK day)
- Class email list
 - Everyone receiving messages? Last one sent Tuesday AM (Subject: Project Teams). Got some bounce notifications.
- Sections tomorrow – AA moved from Savery to MEB 238

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2



Agenda for Today



- Parsing overview
- Context free grammars
- Ambiguous grammars
- Reading: Cooper & Torczon 3.1-3.2

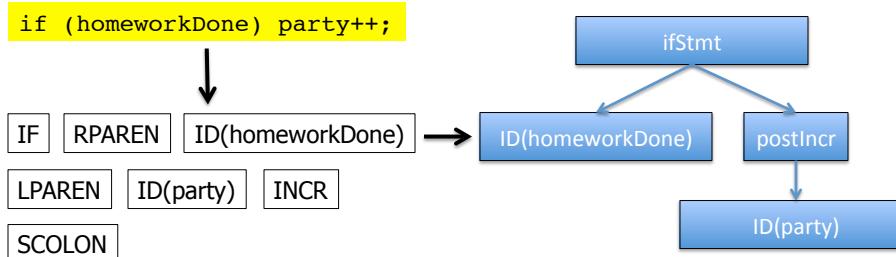
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3



Parsing



- We have: a scanner that generates a token stream
- We want an **abstract syntax tree (AST)**
 - A data structure that encodes the *meaning* of the program, and captures its structural features (loops, conditionals, etc.)
 - Primary data structure for next phases of compilation

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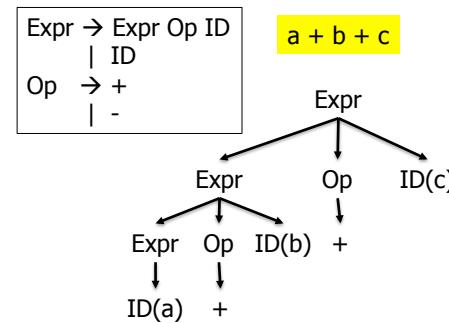
6



How is this done?



- A grammar specifies the syntax of a language.
- Parsing algorithms build *parse trees* based on a grammar and a stream of tokens.
 - Parse trees represent how a string can be derived from a grammar, and *encode meaning*.
 - E.g., add a and b , then add result to c .
 - Can build AST by traversing parse tree (parsers may do this implicitly).



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7



Derivations vs. Parsing



- Derivation: a sequence of expansion steps, beginning with a start symbol and leading to a sequence of terminals
- Parsing: inverse of derivation
 - Given a sequence of terminals (a.k.a. tokens) want to recover the nonterminals and structure (i.e., given string of terminals, find a derivation that generates them)
- Can represent derivation as a parse tree

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8



Example Derivation



G | *program ::= statement | program statement*
statement ::= assignStmt | ifStmt
assignStmt ::= id = expr ;
ifStmt ::= if (expr) statement
expr ::= id | int | expr + expr
id ::= a | b | c | i | j | k | n | x | y | z
int ::= 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9

program



Example Derivation



G | *program ::= statement | program statement*
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id ::= a | b | c | i | j | k | n | x | y | z
int ::= 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9

program
statement
assignStmt
id = expr ;
a = expr ;
a = int ;
a = 1 ;



Example Derivation



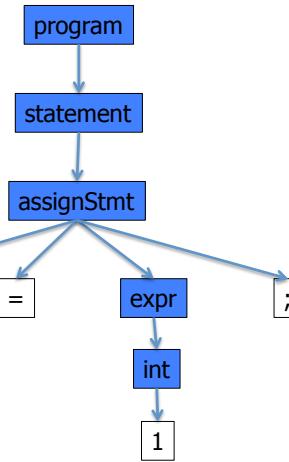
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int ::= 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9*

*program
statement
assignStmt
id = expr ;
a = expr ;
a = int ;
a = 1 ;*

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11

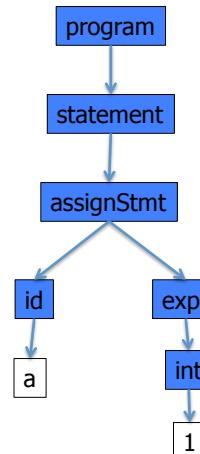


Example Derivation



G | *program ::= statement | program statement
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expr ::= id | int | expr + expr
id ::= a | b | c | i | j | k | n | x | y | z
int ::= 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9*

*program
statement
assignStmt
id = expr ;
a = expr ;
a = int ;
a = 1 ;*



(Sometimes drawn without redundant terminals)

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12



Parsing



- Parsing: Given a grammar G and a sentence w in $L(G)$, traverse the derivation (parse tree) for w in some *standard order* and do *something useful* at each node
 - The parse tree might not be produced explicitly, but the control flow of the parser corresponds to a traversal
 - For example, can generate the AST directly based on this traversal, without ever actually building the intermediate parse tree.



Parsing



- For efficiency we want the parser to avoid *backtracking* (don't make a wrong guess).
 - Can be done if you allow parser to "lookahead", and specify the grammar properly.
 - Keeps time linear in the size of source code.
- Also want to examine the source program from *left to right*.
 - Parse the program in the order tokens are returned from the scanner.



Common Orderings



- Top-down
 - Start with the root (*start symbol* of grammar G)
 - Traverse the parse tree depth-first, left-to-right
 - Equivalent to a leftmost derivation parse tree (expanding the leftmost nonterminal at every step).
 - LL(k) parsers
- Bottom-up
 - Start at leaves (string of terminals) and build up to the root
 - Ends up generated a rightmost derivation, upside down
 - Referred to as a “Reverse Rightmost Derivation”
 - LR(k) and subsets (LALR(k), SLR(k), etc.)

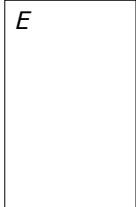


Top Down/Leftmost vs. Bottom Up/Reverse Rightmost



a + b + c

Top down/
leftmost



$$\begin{array}{l} E ::= E + F \\ \quad | \quad F \\ F ::= a \\ \quad | \quad b \\ \quad | \quad c \end{array}$$



Top Down/Leftmost vs. Bottom Up/Reverse Rightmost



a + b + c

Top down/
leftmost

E
E + F

E ::= E + F
|
F ::= a
|
b
|
c



Top Down/Leftmost vs. Bottom Up/Reverse Rightmost



a + b + c

Top down/
leftmost

E
E + F
E + F + F

E ::= E + F
|
F ::= a
|
b
|
c



Top Down/Leftmost vs. Bottom Up/Reverse Rightmost



a + b + c

Top down/
leftmost

E
E + F
E + F + F
F + F + F

E ::= E + F
| F
F ::= a
| b
| c



Top Down/Leftmost vs. Bottom Up/Reverse Rightmost



a + b + c

Top down/
leftmost

E
E + F
E + F + F
F + F + F
a + F + F

E ::= E + F
| F
F ::= a
| b
| c



Top Down/Leftmost vs. Bottom Up/Reverse Rightmost



a + b + c

Top down/
leftmost

E
E + F
E + F + F
F + F + F
a + F + F
a + b + F

E ::= E + F
| F
F ::= a
| b
| c



Top Down/Leftmost vs. Bottom Up/Reverse Rightmost



a + b + c

Top down/
leftmost

E
E + F
E + F + F
F + F + F
a + F + F
a + b + F
a + b + c

E ::= E + F
| F
F ::= a
| b
| c



Top Down/Leftmost vs. Bottom Up/Reverse Rightmost



a + b + c

Top down/
leftmost

E
E + F
E + F + F
F + F + F
a + F + F
a + b + F
a + b + c

Bottom up/
reverse rightmost

a + b + c

E ::= E + F
| F
F ::= a
| b
| c



Top Down/Leftmost vs. Bottom Up/Reverse Rightmost



a + b + c

Top down/
leftmost

E
E + F
E + F + F
F + F + F
a + F + F
a + b + F
a + b + c

Bottom up/
reverse rightmost

F + b + c
a + b + c

E ::= E + F
| F
F ::= a
| b
| c



Top Down/Leftmost vs. Bottom Up/Reverse Rightmost



a + b + c

Top down/
leftmost

E
E + F
E + F + F
F + F + F
a + F + F
a + b + F
a + b + c

Bottom up/
reverse rightmost

E + b + c
F + b + c
a + b + c

E ::= E + F
| F
F ::= a
| b
| c



Top Down/Leftmost vs. Bottom Up/Reverse Rightmost



a + b + c

Top down/
leftmost

E
E + F
E + F + F
F + F + F
a + F + F
a + b + F
a + b + c

Bottom up/
reverse rightmost

E + F + c
E + b + c
F + b + c
a + b + c

E ::= E + F
| F
F ::= a
| b
| c



Top Down/Leftmost vs. Bottom Up/Reverse Rightmost



a + b + c

Top down/
leftmost

E
 $E + F$
 $E + F + F$
 $F + F + F$
 $a + F + F$
 $a + b + F$
 $a + b + c$

Bottom up/
reverse rightmost

$E + c$
 $E + F + c$
 $E + b + c$
 $F + b + c$
 $a + b + c$

$E ::= E + F$
|
 $F ::= a$
|
b
|
c



Top Down/Leftmost vs. Bottom Up/Reverse Rightmost



a + b + c

Top down/
leftmost

E
 $E + F$
 $E + F + F$
 $F + F + F$
 $a + F + F$
 $a + b + F$
 $a + b + c$

Bottom up/
reverse rightmost

$E + F$
 $E + c$
 $E + F + c$
 $E + b + c$
 $F + b + c$
 $a + b + c$

$E ::= E + F$
|
 $F ::= a$
|
b
|
c



Top Down/Leftmost vs. Bottom Up/Reverse Rightmost



a + b + c

Top down/
leftmost

```
E
E + F
E + F + F
F + F + F
a + F + F
a + b + F
a + b + c
```

Bottom up/
reverse rightmost

```
E
E + F
E + c
E + F + c
E + b + c
F + b + c
a + b + c
```

$E ::= E + F$
$F ::= a$
b
c



“Something Useful”



- At each point (node) in the traversal, perform some semantic action
 - Construct nodes of full parse tree (rare)
 - Construct abstract syntax tree (AST) (common)
 - Construct linear, lower-level representation (often produced by traversing initial AST in optimization phases of production compilers)
 - Generate target code on the fly (used in 1-pass compiler; not common in production compilers)
 - Can't generate great code in one pass, – but useful if you need a quick 'n dirty working compiler



Specifying Grammar



- Why not just use a Regular Expression?
 - Can't express recursive structure – try creating an RE for balanced parenthesis
 - () just does one.
 - (()) just does two.
 - (*)* - Doesn't guarantee balance.
 - Need something like parens = (parens), but this is recursive and thus not a regular expression.
 - Fundamental problem: REs can't "count" arbitrarily.
 - Makes sense – DFAs (which can encode any RE) can't count either, because they only have finite states, and no memory (beyond state).



Context-free Grammars



- So instead, programming languages are typically specified via a context-free grammar (CFG)
 - CFGs can be recognized by push down automata, which are essentially FAs plus a stack (makes counting possible)
- Context-free grammars are a sweet spot
 - Powerful enough to describe nesting, recursion
 - But easy to parse, unlike some more general grammars
- Not perfect
 - Cannot capture semantics, as in "variable must be declared"
 - Can be *ambiguous* – i.e., multiple ways to derive a string, which may lead to different "meanings" (e.g., order of operation)



Context-Free Grammars



- Formally, a **grammar** G is a tuple $\langle N, \Sigma, P, S \rangle$ where
 - N a finite set of non-terminal symbols
 - Σ a finite set of terminal symbols
 - P a finite set of productions
 - A subset of $N \times (N \cup \Sigma)^*$, i.e., a non-terminal right-hand side, and zero or more terminals and non-terminals on the left-hand side.
 - S the *start symbol*, a distinguished element of N
 - If not specified otherwise, this is usually assumed to be the non-terminal on the left of the first production



Standard Notations



- a, b, c elements of Σ (terminals)
- w, x, y, z elements of Σ^* (terminal strings)
- A, B, C elements of N (nonterminals)
- X, Y, Z elements of $N \cup \Sigma$ (terminals or nonterms)
- α, β, γ elements of $(N \cup \Sigma)^*$ (term/nonterm strings)
- $A \rightarrow \alpha$ or $A ::= \alpha$ if $\langle A, \alpha \rangle$ in P (productions)



Derivation Relations (1)



- $\alpha A \gamma \Rightarrow \alpha \beta \gamma$ iff $A ::= \beta$ in P
 - derives
- $A \Rightarrow^* \alpha$ if there is a chain of productions starting with A that generates α
 - transitive closure



Derivation Relations (2)



- $w A \gamma \Rightarrow_{lm} w \beta \gamma$ iff $A ::= \beta$ in P
 - derives **leftmost**
- $\alpha A w \Rightarrow_{rm} \alpha \beta w$ iff $A ::= \beta$ in P
 - derives **rightmost**
- We will only be interested in leftmost and rightmost derivations – not random orderings



Languages



- For A in N , $L(A) = \{ w \mid A \Rightarrow^* w \}$
- If S is the start symbol of grammar G , define $L(G) = L(S)$
 - Nonterminal on left of first rule is taken to be the start symbol if one is not specified explicitly



Reduced Grammars



- Grammar G is *reduced* iff for every production $A ::= \alpha$ in G there is a derivation
$$S \Rightarrow^* x A z \Rightarrow x \alpha z \Rightarrow^* xyz$$
 - i.e., no production is useless
 - E.g., $S ::= \text{hello}$, $Y ::= \text{goodbye}$ is *not* reduced (no derivation starting at S will ever use the Y production)
- Convention: we will use only reduced grammars



Ambiguity



- Grammar G is *unambiguous* iff every w in $L(G)$ has a unique leftmost (or rightmost) derivation
 - Fact: unique leftmost or unique rightmost implies the other
- A grammar without this property is *ambiguous*
 - Note that other grammars that generate the same language may be unambiguous
- We need unambiguous grammars for parsing
 - The derivation determines the shape of the parse tree/abstract syntax tree, which in turn determines meaning.



Example: Ambiguous Grammar for Arithmetic Expressions



$expr ::= expr + expr \mid expr - expr$
 $\mid expr * expr \mid expr / expr \mid int$

$int ::= 0 \mid 1 \mid 2 \mid 3 \mid 4 \mid 5 \mid 6 \mid 7 \mid 8 \mid 9$

- Exercise: show that this is ambiguous
 - How? Show two different leftmost or rightmost derivations for the same string
 - Equivalently: show two different parse trees for the same string



Exercise (cont)



- Give two different leftmost derivations of $2+3*4$ and show the parse tree

```
expr ::= expr + expr | expr - expr  
      | expr * expr | expr / expr | int  
int ::= 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9
```



Another exercise



- Give two different rightmost derivations of $5+6+7$

```
expr ::= expr + expr | expr - expr  
      | expr * expr | expr / expr | int  
int ::= 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9
```



What's going on here?



- The grammar has no notion of precedence or associativity
- Traditional solution
 - Create a non-terminal for each level of precedence
 - Isolate the corresponding part of the grammar
 - Force the parser to recognize higher precedence subexpressions first
 - Use left- or right-recursion for left- or right-associative operators
 - E.g., $E ::= E + F$ for left associative addition



Classic Unambiguous Expression Grammar



```
expr ::= expr + term | expr - term | term  
term ::= term * factor | term / factor | factor  
factor ::= int | ( expr )  
int ::= 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9
```

Check: Derive $2 + 3 * 4$

```
expr ::= expr + term | expr - term | term
term ::= term * factor | term / factor | factor
factor ::= int | ( expr )
int ::= 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9
```

Check: Derive $5 + 6 + 7$

- Note interaction between left- vs right-recursive rules and resulting associativity

```
expr ::= expr + term | expr - term | term
term ::= term * factor | term / factor | factor
factor ::= int | ( expr )
int ::= 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9
```

Check: Derive $5 + (6 + 7)$

```
expr ::= expr + term | expr - term | term
term ::= term * factor | term / factor | factor
factor ::= int | ( expr )
int ::= 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9
```



Another Classic Example



- Grammar for conditional statements

```
stmt ::= if ( cond ) stmt
      | if ( cond ) stmt else stmt
```

– Exercise: show that this is ambiguous

- How?



Another Classic Example



- Grammar for conditional statements

$$\begin{aligned}stmt ::= & \text{ if (} cond \text{) stmt} \\& | \text{ if (} cond \text{) stmt else stmt}\end{aligned}$$

– Exercise: show that this is ambiguous

- How?
- Hint: Consider

if (Cond1) if (Cond2) Stmt1 else Stmt2

Derive if(c1) if(c2) s1 else s2

$$\begin{aligned}stmt ::= & \text{ if (} cond \text{) stmt} \\& | \text{ if (} cond \text{) stmt else stmt}\end{aligned}$$



Solving “if” Ambiguity



- Fix the grammar to separate if statements with else clause and if statements with no else
 - Done in Java reference grammar
 - Adds lots of non-terminals
- or, Change the language
 - But it'd better be ok to do this
- or, Use some ad-hoc rule in the parser
 - “else matches closest unpaired if”



Resolving Ambiguity with Grammar (1)



```
Stmt ::= MatchedStmt | UnmatchedStmt
MatchedStmt ::= ... |
    if ( Expr ) MatchedStmt else MatchedStmt
UnmatchedStmt ::= if ( Expr ) Stmt |
    if ( Expr ) MatchedStmt else UnmatchedStmt
```

- Prevents if-without-else inside then clause of if-then-else, forcing else to match closest if. But, can still generate exact same language (try it!)
- formal, no additional rules beyond syntax

Check: if (c1) if (c2) *stmt* else *stmt*

```
Stmt ::= MatchedStmt | UnmatchedStmt
MatchedStmt ::= ... |
    if ( Expr ) MatchedStmt else MatchedStmt
UnmatchedStmt ::= if ( Expr ) Stmt |
    if ( Expr ) MatchedStmt else UnmatchedStmt
```



Resolving Ambiguity with Grammar (2)



- If you can (re-)design the language, can avoid the problem entirely, e.g., create an **end** to match closest **if**

```
Stmt ::= ... |
    if Expr then Stmt end |
    if Expr then Stmt else Stmt end
```

- formal, clear, elegant
- allows sequence of Stmts in then and else branches, no { , } needed
- extra end required for every if
(But maybe this is a good idea anyway? These ambiguities can lead to programmer bugs ...)



Parser Tools and Operators



- Most parser tools can cope with ambiguous grammars
 - Makes life simpler if you're careful
- Typically one can specify operator precedence & associativity
 - Allows simpler, ambiguous grammar with fewer nonterminals as basis for generated parser, without creating problems



Parser Tools and Ambiguous Grammars



- Possible rules for resolving other problems
 - Earlier productions in the grammar preferred to later ones
 - Longest match used if there is a choice
- Parser tools normally allow for this
 - But be sure that what the tool does is really what you want



Coming Attractions



- Next topic: LR parsing
 - Continue reading ch. 3