

PARSING

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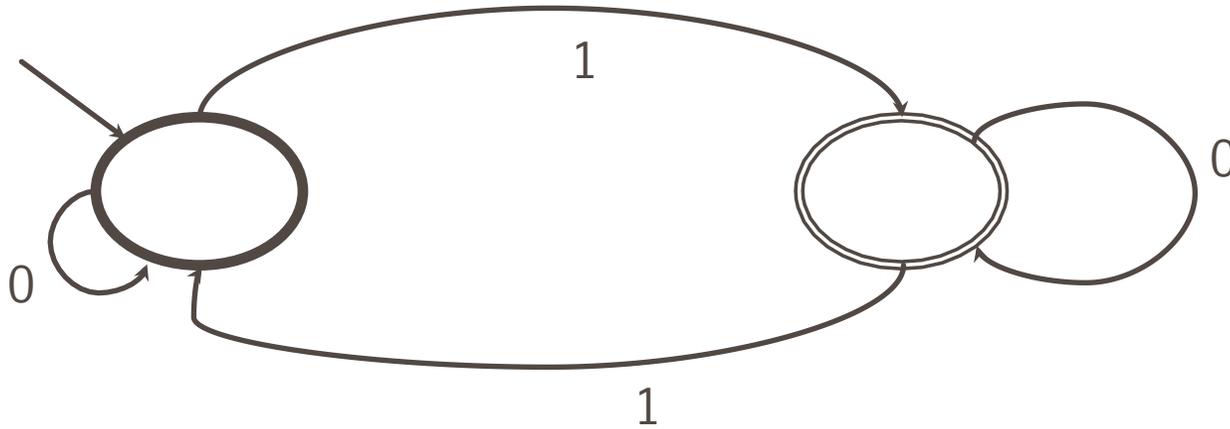
These slides are motivated from Prof. Alex Aiken: Compilers (Stanford)



Languages and Automata

- Formal languages are very important in CS
 - Especially in programming languages
- Regular Languages
 - Weakest formal languages that are widely used
 - Many applications
- Many Languages are not regular

Automata that accepts odd numbers of 1



How many 1s it has accepted?

- Only solution is duplicate state

Automata does not have any memory

Intro to Parsing

- Regular Languages
 - Weakest formal languages that are widely used
 - Many applications
- Consider the language $\{()^i \mid i \geq 0\}$
 - $()$, $(())$, $((()))$
 - $((1 + 2) * 3)$
- Nesting structures
 - if .. if.. else.. else..



Regular languages
cannot handle well

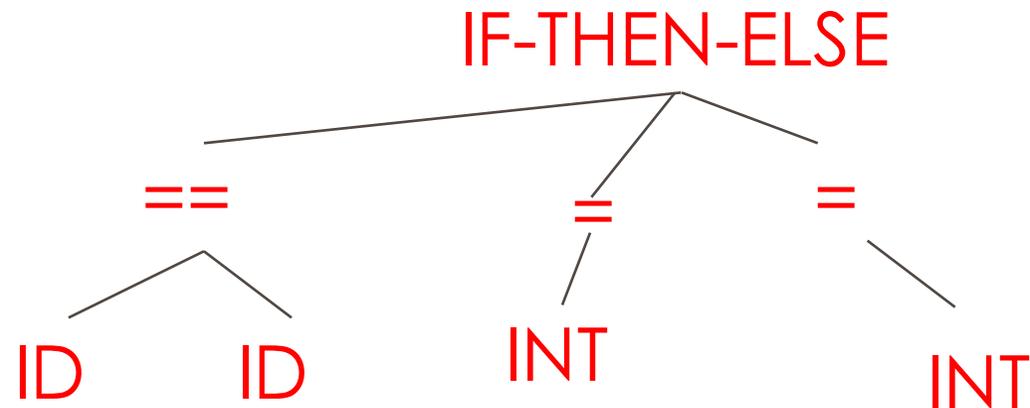
Intro to Parsing

- Input: `if(x==y) 1 else 2;`

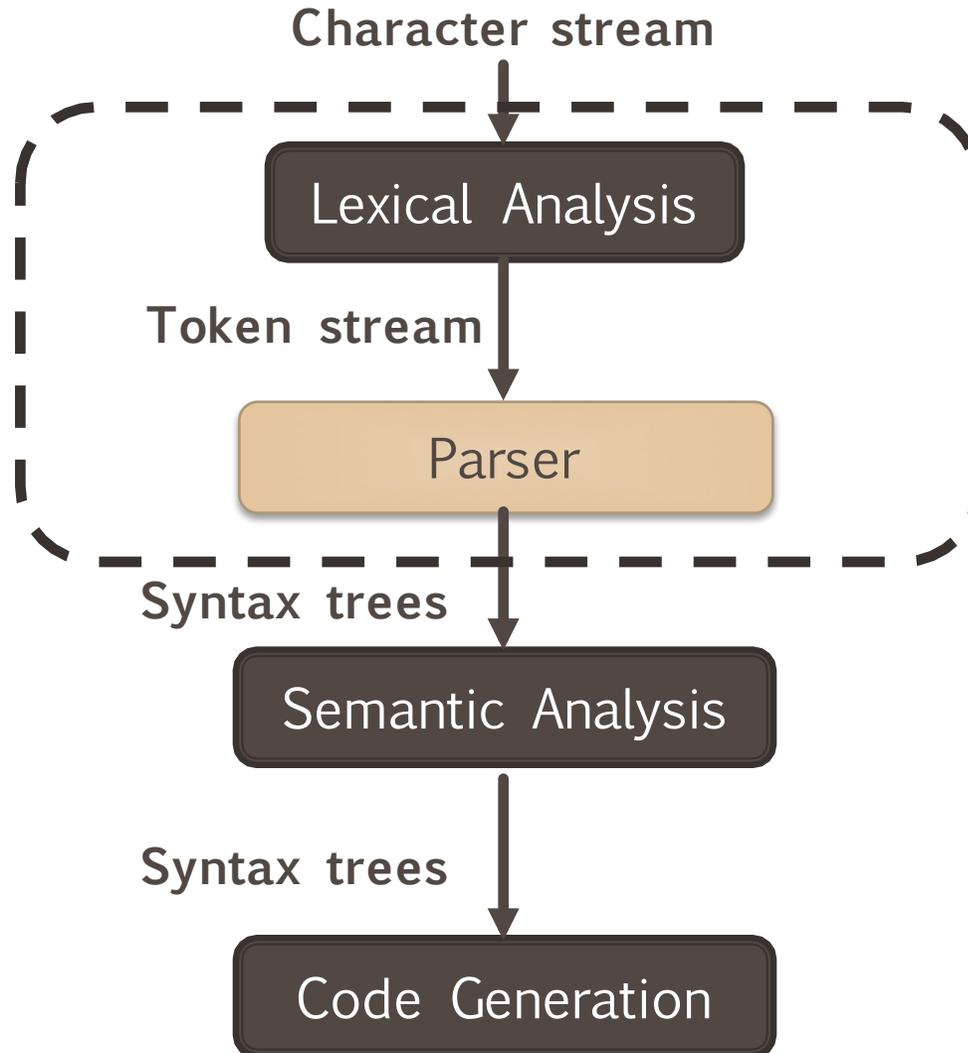
- Parser Input (Lexical Input):

KEY(IF) '(' ID(x) OP('==') ')' INT(1) KEY(ELSE) INT(2) ';

- Parser Output



Intro to Parsing



- Nor every strings of tokens are valid
- Parser must distinguish between valid and invalid token strings.
- We need
 - A Language: to describe valid string
 - A method: to distinguish valid from invalid.

Context Free Grammar

- A CFG consists of
 - A set of terminal T
 - A set of non-terminal N
 - A start symbol S ($S \in N$)
 - A set of production rules
 - $X \rightarrow Y_1 \dots Y_N$
 - $X \in N$
 - $Y_i \in \{N, T, \varepsilon\}$

- Ex: $S \rightarrow (S) \mid \varepsilon$
 - $N = \{S\}$
 - $T = \{ (,) , \varepsilon \}$

Context Free Grammar

1. Begin with a string with only the start symbol S
2. Replace a non-terminal X with in the string by the RHS of some production rule: $X \rightarrow Y_1 \dots Y_n$
3. Repeat 2 again and again until there are no non-terminals

$X_1 \dots X_i \ X \ X_{i+1} \ \dots \ X_n \rightarrow X_1 \dots X_i \ Y_1 \dots Y_k \ X_{i+1} \ \dots \ X_n$

For the production rule $X \rightarrow Y_1 \dots Y_k$

$$\alpha_0 \rightarrow \alpha_1 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow \alpha_n$$

$$\alpha_0 \xrightarrow{*} \alpha_n, n \geq 0$$

Context Free Grammar

- Let G be a CFG with start symbol S . Then the language $L(G)$ of G is:

$$\{a_1 \dots \dots an \mid \forall_i a_i \in T \wedge S \xrightarrow{*} a_1 a_2 \dots \dots an\}$$

Context Free Grammar

- There are no rules to replace terminals.
- Once generated, terminals are permanent
- Terminals ought to be tokens of programming languages
- Context-free grammars are a natural notation for this recursive structure

CFG: Simple Arithmetic expression

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

Languages can be generated: id , (id) , $(id + id) * id$,
...

Derivation

- A derivation is a sequence of production
 - $S \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow$
- A derivation can be drawn as a tree
 - Start symbol is tree's root
 - For a production $X \rightarrow Y_1 \dots Y_n$, add children $Y_1 \dots Y_n$ to node X

- Grammar

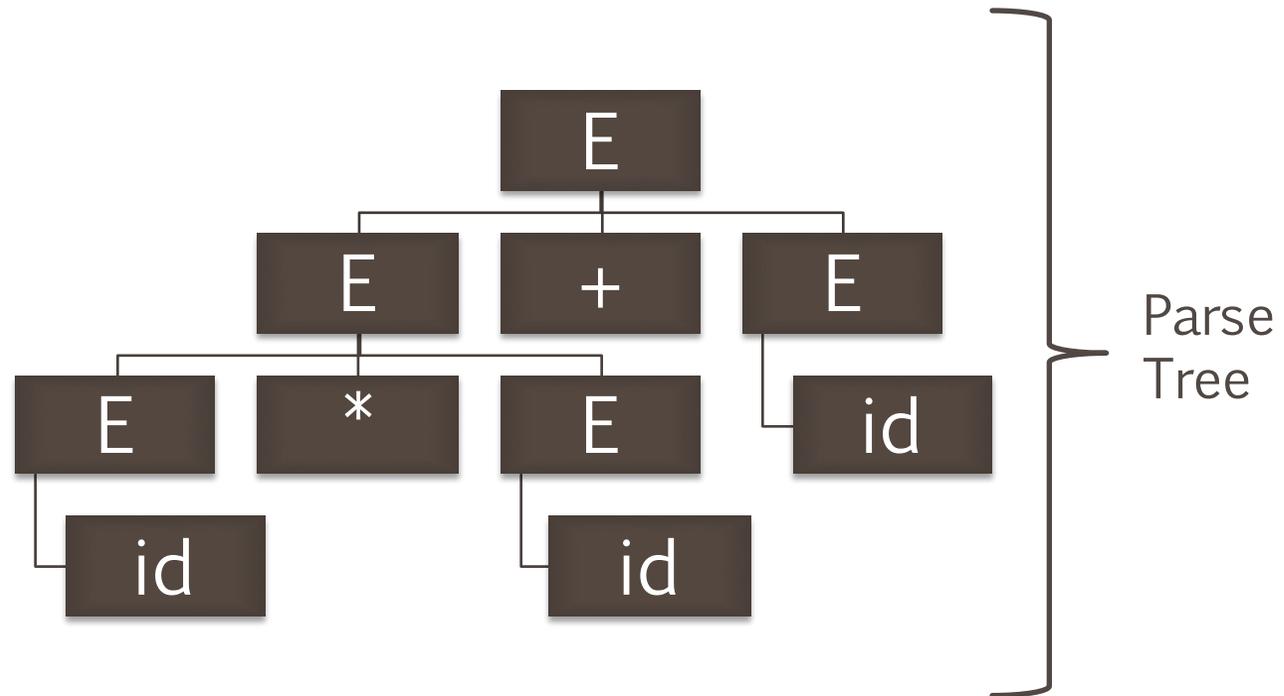
- $E \rightarrow E + E \mid E * E \mid (E) \mid id$

- String

- $id * id + id$

- Derivation

$E \rightarrow E + E$
 $\rightarrow E * E + E$
 $\rightarrow id * E + E$
 $\rightarrow id * id + E$
 $\rightarrow id * id + id$



Parse Tree

- 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

Parse Tree

- Left-most derivation
 - At each step, replace the left-most non-terminal

$E \rightarrow E + E$

$\rightarrow E * E + E$

$\rightarrow id * E + E$

$\rightarrow id * id + E$

$\rightarrow id * id + id$

- Right-most derivation
 - At each step, replace the right-most non-terminal

$E \rightarrow E + E$

$\rightarrow E + id$

$\rightarrow E * E + id$

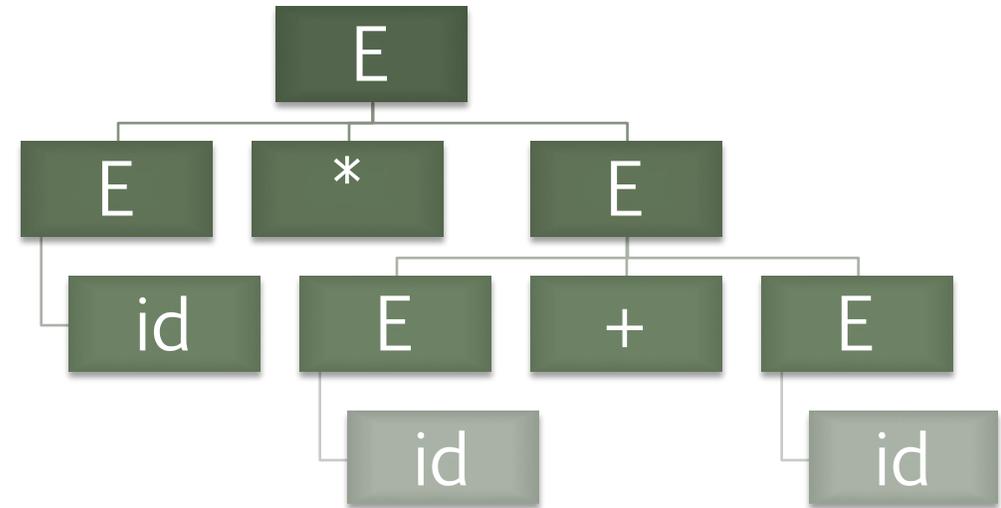
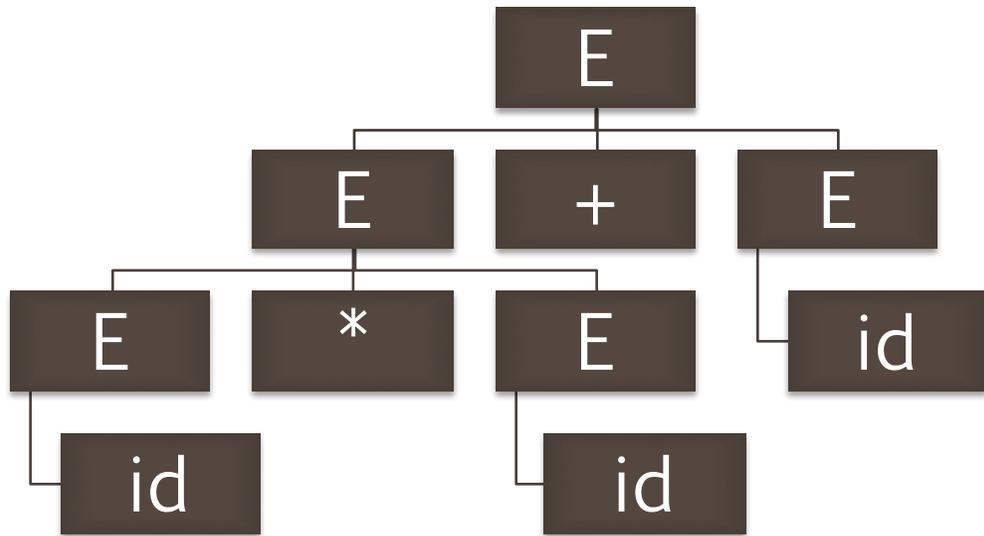
$\rightarrow E * id + id$

$\rightarrow id * id + id$

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

Ambiguity

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



Ambiguity

- A grammar is ambiguous if it has more than one parse tree for a string
 - There are more than one right-most or left-most derivation for some string
- Ambiguity is bad
 - Leaves meaning for some programs ill-defined

Error Handling

- Purpose of the compiler is
 - To detect non-valid programs
 - To translate the valid ones
- Many kinds of possible errors (e.g., in C)

Error Kind	Example	Detected by
Lexical	... \$...	Lexer
Syntax	... x*%...	Parser
Semantic	... int x; y = x(3);...	Type Checker
Correctness	your program	tester/user

Error Handling

- Error Handler should
 - Recover errors accurately and quickly
 - Recover from an error quickly
 - Not slow down compilation of valid code
- Types of Error Handling
 - Panic mode
 - Error productions
 - Automatic local or global correction

Panic Mode Error Handling

- Panic mode is simplest and most popular method
- When an error is detected
 - Discard tokens until one with a clear role is found
 - Continue from there
- Typically looks for “synchronizing” tokens
 - Typically the statement of expression terminators

Panic Mode Error Handling

- Example:
 - (1 + + 2) + 3
- Panic-mode recovery:
 - Skip ahead to the next integer and then continue
- Bison: use the special terminal **error** to describe how much input to skip
 - $E \rightarrow \text{int} \mid E + E \mid (E) \mid \text{error int} \mid (\text{error})$



Error Productions

- Specify known common mistakes in the grammar
- Example:
 - Write $5x$ instead of $5 * x$
 - Add production rule $E \rightarrow .. \mid E E$
- Disadvantages
 - complicates the grammar

Error Corrections

- Idea: find a correct “nearby” program
 - Try token insertions and deletions (goal: minimize edit distance)
 - Exhaustive search
- Disadvantages
 - Hard to implement
 - Slows down parsing of correct programs
 - “Nearby” is not necessarily “the intended” program

Error Corrections

- Past

- Slow recompilation cycle (even once a day)
- Find as many errors in once cycle as possible

- Present

- Quick recompilation cycle
- Users tend to correct one error/cycle
- Complex error recovery is less compelling

Abstract Syntax Trees

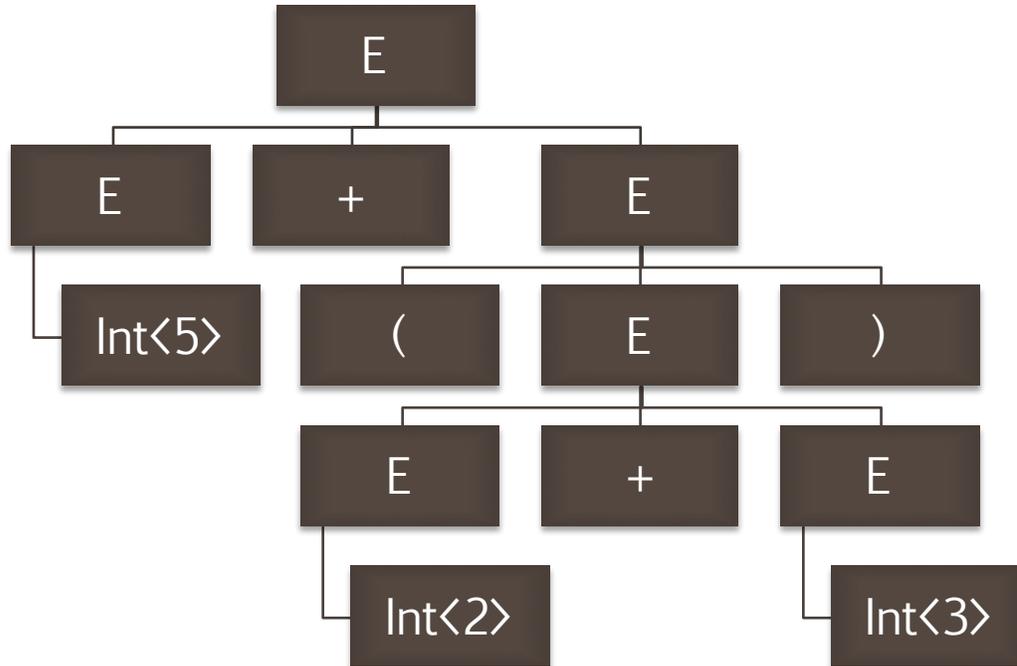
- A parser traces the derivation of a sequence of tokens
- But the rest of the compiler needs a structural representation of the program
- Abstract Syntax Trees
 - Like parse trees but ignore some details
 - Abbreviated as AST

Abstract Syntax Trees

- Grammar
 - $E \rightarrow \text{int} \mid (E) \mid E + E$
- String
 - $5 + (2 + 3)$
- After lexical analysis
 - $\text{Int}\langle 5 \rangle \text{'+' ' (' Int}\langle 2 \rangle \text{'+' Int}\langle 3 \rangle \text{'})'}$

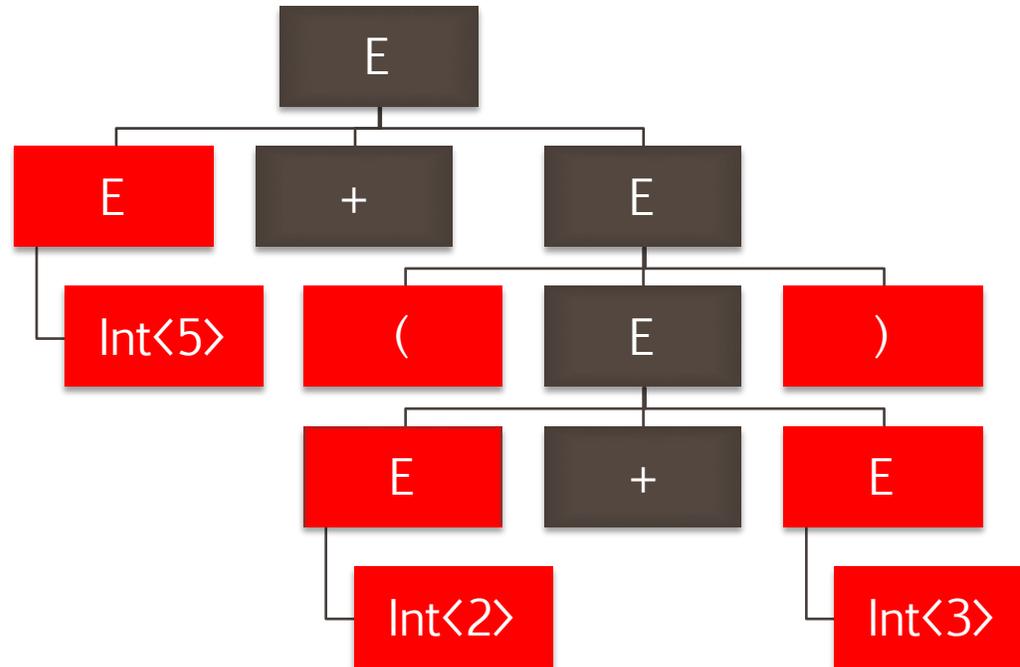
Abstract Syntax Trees: $5 + (2 + 3)$

Parse Trees



Abstract Syntax Trees: $5 + (2 + 3)$

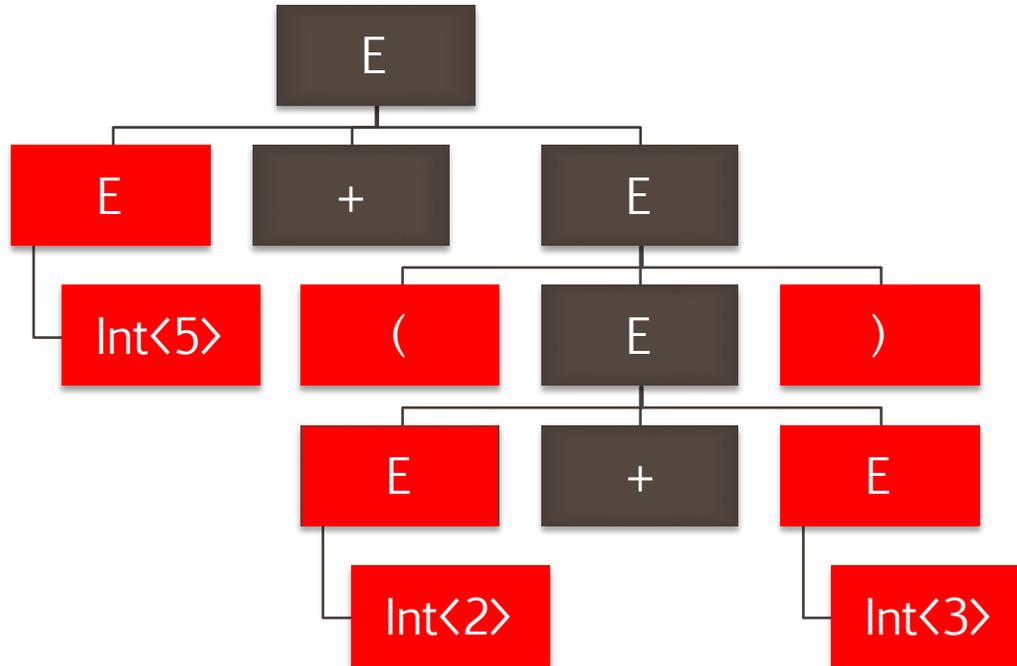
Parse Trees



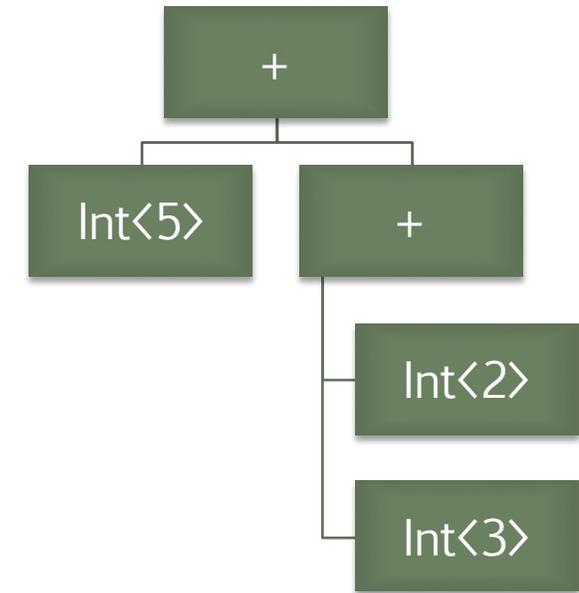
- Have too much information
 - Parentheses
 - Single-successor nodes

Abstract Syntax Trees: $5 + (2 + 3)$

Parse Trees



AST



- Have too much information
 - Parentheses
 - Single-successor nodes

- ASTs capture the nesting structure
- But abstracts from the concrete syntax
 - More compact and easier to use

Disadvantages of ASTs

- AST has many similar forms
 - E.g., for, while, repeat...until
 - E.g., if, ?:, switch
- Expressions in AST may be complex, nested
 - $(x * y) + (z > 5 ? 12 * z : z + 20)$
- Want simpler representation for analysis
 - ...at least, for dataflow analysis