#### CS406: Compilers Spring 2020

Week 5: Parsers, AST, and Semantic Routines

#### Recap

## What is parsing

- Parsing is recognizing members in a language specified/ defined/generated by a grammar
- When a construct (corresponding to a production in a grammar) is recognized, a typical parser will take some action
	- In a compiler, this action generates an intermediate representation of the program construct
	- In an interpreter, this action might be to perform the  $\bullet$ action specified by the construct. Thus, if  $a+b$  is recognized, the value of a and b would be added and placed in a temporary variable

# Top-down Parsing – predictive parsers

- Idea: we know sentence has to start with initial symbol
- Build up partial derivations by *predicting* what rules are used to expand non-terminals
	- Often called predictive parsers
- If partial derivation has terminal characters, *match* them from the input stream

## Top-down Parsing – contd..

- Also called recursive-descent parsing
- Equivalent to finding the left-derivation for an input string
	- Recall: expand the leftmost non-terminal in a parse tree
	- Expand the parse tree in pre-order i.e. identify parent nodes before children

### Top-down Parsing





string': (a+a)\$ *Assume that the table is given.*

• Table-driven (Parse Table) approach doesn't require backtracking

*But how do we construct such a table?*

### First and follow sets

- First( $\alpha$ ): the set of terminals (and/or  $\lambda$ ) that begin all strings that can be derived from  $\alpha$ 
	- First(A) =  $\{x, y, \lambda\}$
	- $First(xaA) = {x}$
	- First  $(AB) = {x, y, b}$
- Follow $(A)$ : the set of terminals (and/ or \$, but no  $\lambda$ s) that can appear immediately after A in some partial derivation
	- $Follow(A) = {b}$

 $S \rightarrow AB$  \$  $A \rightarrow x a A$  $A \rightarrow y a A$  $A \rightarrow \lambda$  $B \rightarrow b$ 

#### First and follow sets

- First( $\alpha$ ) = { $a \in V_t | \alpha \Rightarrow^* a\beta$ }  $\cup \{\lambda | \text{ if } \alpha \Rightarrow^* \lambda\}$
- Follow(A) =  ${a \in V_t | S \Rightarrow^+ ... Aa} ...$  u  ${\$ | if S \Rightarrow^+ ... A $}$



## Towards parser generators

- Key problem: as we read the source program, we need to decide what productions to use
- Step 1: find the tokens that can tell which production  $P$  (of the form  $A \rightarrow X_1X_2...X_m$ ) applies

```
Predict(P) =
```

```
\left\{\begin{array}{ll}\text{First}(X_1 \dots X_m) & \text{if } \lambda \notin \text{First}(X_1 \dots X_m) \\ (\text{First}(X_1 \dots X_m) - \lambda) \cup \text{Follow}(A) & \text{otherwise}\end{array}\right.
```
If next token is in  $Predict(P)$ , then we should choose this  $\bullet$ production

## Computing Parse-Table

1) S  $\rightarrow$  ABc\$ 2) A -> xaA 3) A -> yaA 4) A -> c 5) B -> b 6)  $B \rightarrow \lambda$ 



 $first(S) = \{x, y, c\}$   $follow(S) = \{\}$ first  $(A) = \{x, y, c\}$  follow  $(A) = \{b, c\}$  $first(B) = \{b, \lambda\}$   $follow(B) = \{c\}$ 

$$
P(1) = {x,y,c}P(2) = {x}P(3) = {y}P(4) = {c}P(5) = {b}P(6) = {c}
$$

### Parsing using stack-based model (non-recursive) of a predictive parser

## Computing Parse-Table

string: xacc\$



\* Stack top is on the left-side (first character) of the column

# Identifying LL(1) Grammar

- What we saw was an example of LL(1) Parser
- Not all Grammars are LL(1) A Grammar is LL(1) iff for a production A  $\rightarrow \alpha \mid \beta$ , where α and β are distinct:
	- 1. For no terminal a do both  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  derive strings beginning with a
	- 2. At most one of  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  can derive an empty string
	- 3. If  $\beta \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} \epsilon$ , then a does not derive any string beginning with a terminal in Follow(A). If  $x \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} \epsilon$ , then does not derive any string beginning with a terminal in Follow(A)

## Left recursion

- Left recursion is a problem for LL(1) parsers
	- LHS is also the first symbol of the RHS
- Consider:  $\bullet$

 $E \rightarrow E + T$ 

• What would happen with the stack-based algorithm?

## **Example (Left Factoring)**

• Consider

 $\le$ stmt>  $\rightarrow$  if  $\le$ expr> then  $\le$ stmt list> endif

 $\text{M}_{\text{start}}$   $\rightarrow$  if  $\text{M}_{\text{exp}}$  then  $\text{M}_{\text{start}}$  list  $\text{M}_{\text{start}}$  list  $\text{M}_{\text{start}}$  and  $\text{M}_{\text{start}}$ 

- This is not  $LL(1)$  (why?)
- $\bullet$  We can turn this in to

 $\text{M}}$  <stmt>  $\rightarrow$  if <expr> then <stmt list> <if suffix>

 $\leq$  if suffix  $\geq \rightarrow$  endif

 $\leq$  if suffix $\geq \rightarrow$  else  $\leq$ stmt list $\geq$  endif

# Eliminating Left Recursion

 $A \rightarrow A \alpha \mid \beta$ 



 $A' \rightarrow \alpha A' \mid \lambda$ 

## LL(k) parsers

- Can look ahead more than one symbol at a time  $\bullet$ 
	- k-symbol lookahead requires extending first and follow sets
	- 2-symbol lookahead can distinguish between more rules:  $A \rightarrow ax$  | ay
- More lookahead leads to more powerful parsers
- $\bullet$  What are the downsides?

# Are all grammars LL(k)?

No! Consider the following grammar:

$$
S \rightarrow E
$$
  
\n
$$
E \rightarrow (E + E)
$$
  
\n
$$
E \rightarrow (E - E)
$$
  
\n
$$
E \rightarrow x
$$

- When parsing E, how do we know whether to use rule 2 or 3?
	- Potentially unbounded number of characters before the  $\bullet$ distinguishing '+' or '-' is found
	- No amount of lookahead will help!

# In real languages?

- Consider the if-then-else problem
- $\bullet$  if x then y else z
- Problem: else is optional
- $\bullet$  if a then if b then c else d
	- Which if does the else belong to?
- This is analogous to a "bracket language":  $[i]$  (i  $\geq$  j)

```
S \rightarrow [SC<br>
S \rightarrow \lambda<br>
C \rightarrow J<br>
C \rightarrow \lambda[[] can be parsed: SS\lambdaC or SSC\lambda(it's ambiguous!)
```
# Solving the if-then-else problem

- The ambiguity exists at the language level. To fix, we need to define the semantics properly
	- "] matches nearest unmatched ["
	- This is the rule C uses for if-then-else
	- What if we try this?

$$
S \rightarrow [SS \rightarrow SISI \rightarrow [SI]
$$
  

$$
SI \rightarrow \lambda
$$

This grammar is still not  $LL(1)$ (or  $LL(k)$  for any  $k!)$ 

## Two possible fixes

- If there is an ambiguity, prioritize one production over another
	- e.g., if C is on the stack, always match "]" before matching  $\mathfrak{a}$ .

$$
S \rightarrow [SC
$$
  
\n
$$
S \rightarrow \lambda
$$
  
\n
$$
C \rightarrow J
$$
  
\n
$$
C \rightarrow \lambda
$$

- Another option: change the language!
	- e.g., all if-statements need to be closed with an endif

$$
S \rightarrow \text{if } S \in
$$
\n
$$
S \rightarrow \text{other}
$$
\n
$$
E \rightarrow \text{else } S \text{ endif}
$$
\n
$$
E \rightarrow \text{endif}
$$

# Parsing if-then-else

- What if we don't want to change the language?
	- C does not require  $\{\}$  to delimit single-statement blocks
- To parse if-then-else, we need to be able to look ahead at the entire rhs of a production before deciding which production to use
	- In other words, we need to determine how many "]" to  $\bullet$ match before we start matching "["s
- LR parsers can do this!

## **LR Parsers**

- Parser which does a Left-to-right, Right-most derivation
	- Rather than parse top-down, like LL parsers do, parse bottom-up, starting from leaves

Example:

 $E \rightarrow E + T$  | T T -> T \* F | F  $F \rightarrow (E)$  | id

String: id\*id

*Demo*

## **LR Parsers**

• Basic idea: put tokens on a stack until an entire production is found

- **- shift** tokens onto the stack. At any step, keep the set of productions that could generate the read-in token
	- **- reduce** the RHS of recognized productions to the corresponding non-terminal on the LHS of the production. Replace the RHS tokens on the stack with the LHS non-
- Issiminal.
	- Recognizing the endpoint of a production
	- Finding the length of a production (RHS)
	- Finding the corresponding nonterminal (the LHS of the production)

#### Data structures

- At each state, given the next token,
	- A goto table defines the successor state
	- An *action table* defines whether to
		- $\frac{\text{shift}}{\text{shift}}$  put the next state and token on the stack
		- $reduce an RHS$  is found; process the production
		- terminate parsing is complete

#### Simple example

- I.  $P \rightarrow S$
- 2.  $S \rightarrow x$ ; S
- 3.  $S \rightarrow e$



# Parsing using an LR(0) parser

- Basic idea: parser keeps track, simultaneously, of all possible productions that could be matched given what it's seen so far. When it sees a full production, match it.
- Maintain a *parse stack* that tells you what state you're in
	- Start in state 0
- In each state, look up in action table whether to:
	- shift: consume a token off the input; look for next state in goto table; push next state onto stack
	- reduce: match a production; pop off as many symbols from state stack as seen in production; look up where to go according to non-terminal we just matched; push next state onto stack
	- accept: terminate parse

### Example

• Parse " $x ; x ; e$ "



# LR(k) parsers

- $LR(0)$  parsers
	- No lookahead
	- Predict which action to take by looking only at the  $\bullet$ symbols currently on the stack
- $LR(k)$  parsers
	- $\bullet$  Can look ahead  $k$  symbols
	- Most powerful class of deterministic bottom-up parsers
	- $LR(1)$  and variants are the most common parsers

## Top-down vs. Bottom-up parsers

- Top-down parsers expand the parse tree in pre-order
	- Identify parent nodes before the children
- Bottom-up parsers expand the parse tree in post-order
	- Identify children before the parents
- Notation:
	- LL(1): Top-down derivation with I symbol lookahead
	- $LL(k)$ : Top-down derivation with  $k$  symbols lookahead
	- LR(1): Bottom-up derivation with 1 symbol lookahead

## Abstract Syntax Trees

- Parsing recognizes a production from the grammar based on a sequence of tokens received from Lexer
- Rest of the compiler needs more info: a structural representation of the program construct
	- Abstract Syntax Tree or AST

## Abstract Syntax Trees

- Are like parse trees but ignore certain details
- Example:
- $E \rightarrow E + E$  | (E) | int
- String:  $1 + (2 + 3)$

*Demo*

#### Semantic Actions for Expressions

## Review

- Scanners
	- Detect the presence of illegal tokens
- Parsers
	- Detect an ill-formed program
- Semantic actions
	- Last phase in the *front-end* of a compiler
	- Detect all other errors

*What are these kind of errors?*

## What we cannot express using CFGs

- Examples:
	- Identifiers declared before their use (scope)
	- Types in an expression must be consistent
	- Number of formal and actual parameters of a function must match
	- Reserved keywords cannot be used as identifiers
	- etc.

Depends on the language..

# Semantic Records

- Data structures produced by semantic actions
- Associated with both non-terminals (code structures) and terminals (tokens/symbols)
- Build up semantic records by performing a bottom-up walk of the abstract syntax tree

## Scope

- Scope of an identifier is the part of the program where the identifier is accessible
- Multiple scopes for same identifier name possible
- Static vs. Dynamic scope

*exercise: what are the different scopes in Micro?*

# Types

- Static vs. Dynamic
- Type checking
- Type inference

## Referencing identifiers

- What do we return when we see an identifier?
	- Check if it is symbol table
	- Create new AST node with pointer to symbol table entry
	- Note: may want to directly store type information in AST  $\bullet$ (or could look up in symbol table each time)











# Suggested Reading

- Alfred V. Aho, Monica S. Lam, Ravi Sethi and Jeffrey D.Ullman: Compilers: Principles, Techniques, and Tools, 2/E, AddisonWesley 2007
	- Chapter 4 (4.5, 4.6 (introduction)). Chapter 5 (5.3), Chapter 6 (6.1)
- Fisher and LeBlanc: Crafting a Compiler with C
	- Chapter 8 (Sections 8.1 to 8.3), Chapter 9 (9.1, 9.2.1 9.2.3)