# **Top-Down** Parsing

#### ICOM 4029

#### Review

- A parser consumes a sequence of tokens s and produces a parse tree
- Issues:
  - How do we recognize that  $s \in L(G)$ ?
  - A parse tree of s describes  $\underline{how} s \in L(G)$
  - Ambiguity: more than one parse tree (interpretation) for some string s
  - Error: no parse tree for some string s
  - How do we construct the parse tree?

## Ambiguity

• Grammar

# $E \rightarrow E + E | E * E | (E) | int$

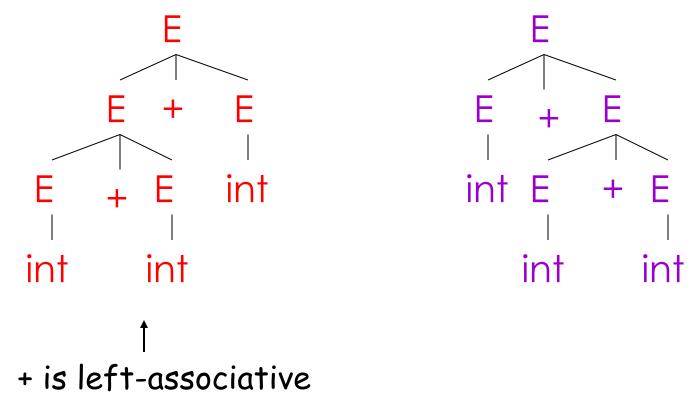
• Strings

int + int + int

int \* int + int

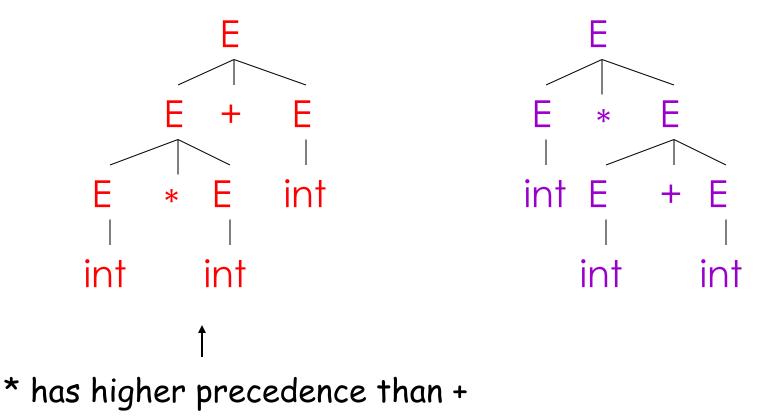
## Ambiguity. Example

## This string has two parse trees



### Ambiguity. Example

#### This string has two parse trees



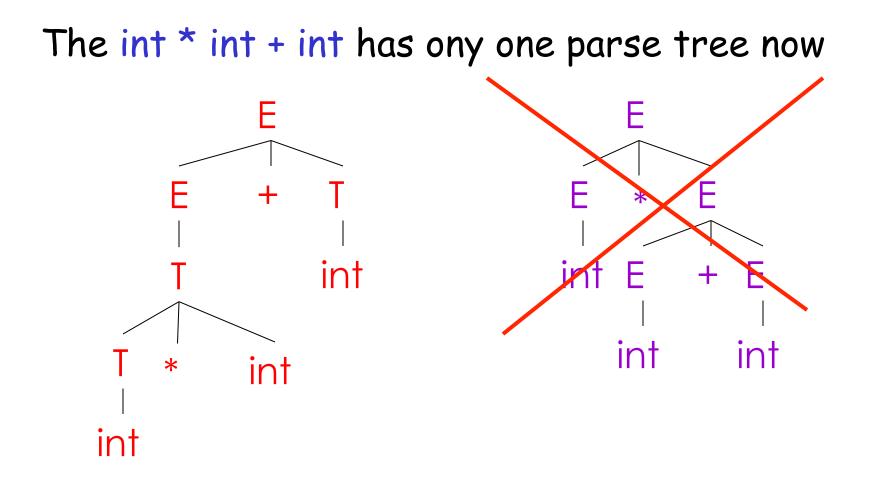
# Ambiguity (Cont.)

- A grammar is *ambiguous* if it has more than one parse tree for some string
  - Equivalently, there is more than one right-most or left-most derivation for some string
- Ambiguity is <u>bad</u>
  - Leaves meaning of some programs ill-defined
- Ambiguity is <u>common</u> in programming languages
  - Arithmetic expressions
  - IF-THEN-ELSE

## Dealing with Ambiguity

- There are several ways to handle ambiguity
- Most direct method is to rewrite the grammar unambiguously  $E \rightarrow E + T \mid T$  $T \rightarrow T^*$  int | int | (E)
- Enforces precedence of \* over +
- Enforces left-associativity of + and \*

#### Ambiguity. Example



# Ambiguity: The Dangling Else

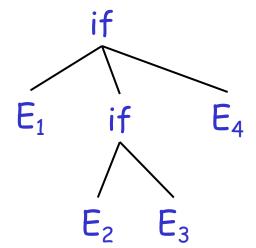
- Consider the grammar  $E \rightarrow if E$  then E | if E then E else E | OTHER
- This grammar is also ambiguous

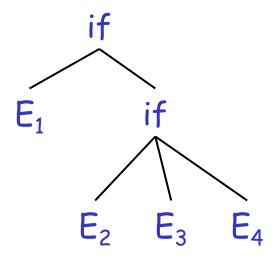
## The Dangling Else: Example

• The expression

if  $E_1$  then if  $E_2$  then  $E_3$  else  $E_4$ 

has two parse trees





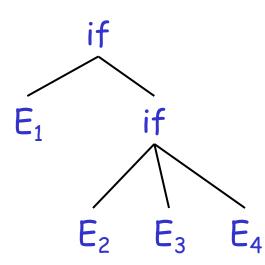
• Typically we want the second form

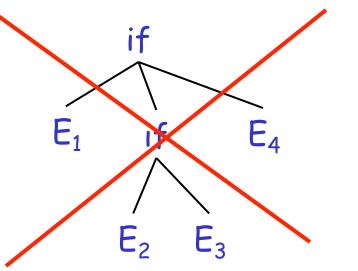
#### The Dangling Else: A Fix

- else matches the closest unmatched then
- We can describe this in the grammar (distinguish between matched and unmatched "then")
- Describes the same set of strings Profs. Necula CS 164 Lecture 6-7

# The Dangling Else: Example Revisited

• The expression if  $E_1$  then if  $E_2$  then  $E_3$  else  $E_4$ 





 A valid parse tree (for a UIF)

 Not valid because the then expression is not a MIF

# Ambiguity

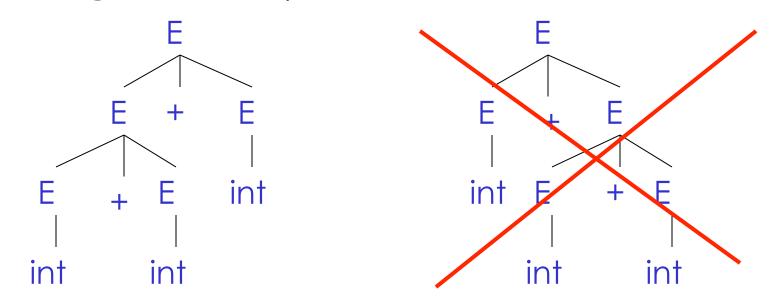
- No general techniques for handling ambiguity
- Impossible to convert automatically an ambiguous grammar to an unambiguous one
- Used with care, ambiguity can simplify the grammar
  - Sometimes allows more natural definitions
  - We need disambiguation mechanisms

## Precedence and Associativity Declarations

- Instead of rewriting the grammar
  - Use the more natural (ambiguous) grammar
  - Along with disambiguating declarations
- Most tools allow <u>precedence and associativity</u> <u>declarations</u> to disambiguate grammars
- Examples ...

#### Associativity Declarations

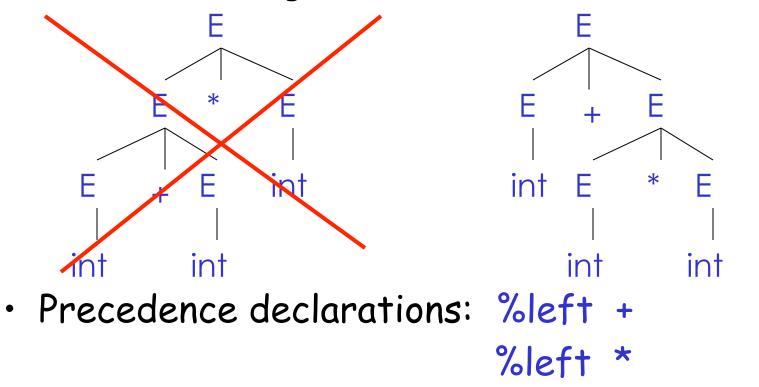
- Consider the grammar  $E \rightarrow E + E \mid int$
- Ambiguous: two parse trees of int + int + int



Left-associativity declaration: %left +

#### **Precedence** Declarations

- Consider the grammar  $E \rightarrow E + E \mid E * E \mid int$ 
  - And the string int + int \* int



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#### Review

- We can specify language syntax using CFG
- A parser will answer whether  $s \in L(G)$
- ... and will build a parse tree
- ... and pass on to the rest of the compiler
- Next:
  - How do we answer  $s \in L(G)$  and build a parse tree?

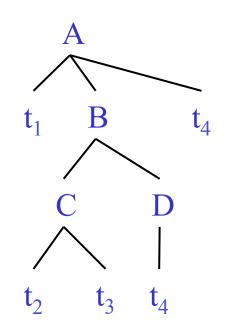
# Approach 1 Top-Down Parsing

#### Intro to Top-Down Parsing

 Terminals are seen in order of appearance in the token stream:

 $t_1 t_2 t_3 t_4 t_5$ 

- The parse tree is constructed
  - From the top
  - From left to right



#### **Recursive Descent Parsing**

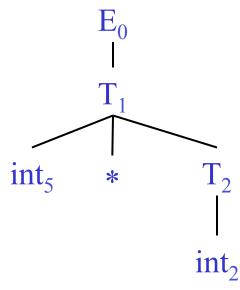
- Consider the grammar  $E \rightarrow T + E \mid T$  $T \rightarrow int \mid int * T \mid (E)$
- Token stream is:  $int_5 * int_2$
- Start with top-level non-terminal E
- Try the rules for E in order

# Recursive Descent Parsing. Example (Cont.)

- Try  $E_0 \rightarrow T_1 + E_2$
- Then try a rule for  $T_1 \rightarrow (E_3)$ 
  - But ( does not match input token  $int_5$
- Try  $T_1 \rightarrow int$ . Token matches.
  - But + after  $T_1$  does not match input token \*
- Try  $T_1 \rightarrow int * T_2$ 
  - This will match but + after  $T_1$  will be unmatched
- Have exhausted the choices for  $T_1$ 
  - Backtrack to choice for  $E_0$

#### Recursive Descent Parsing. Example (Cont.)

- Try  $E_0 \rightarrow T_1$
- Follow same steps as before for  $T_1$ 
  - And succeed with  $T_1 \rightarrow int * T_2$  and  $T_2 \rightarrow int$
  - With the following parse tree



#### Recursive Descent Parsing. Notes.

- Easy to implement by hand
  - An example implementation is provided as a supplement "Recursive Descent Parsing"

• But does not always work ...

#### **Recursive-Descent Parsing**

- Parsing: given a string of tokens  $t_1 t_2 \dots t_n$ , find its parse tree
- Recursive-descent parsing: Try all the productions exhaustively
  - At a given moment the fringe of the parse tree is:  $t_1 t_2 \dots t_k A \dots$
  - Try all the productions for A: if  $A \rightarrow BC$  is a production, the new fringe is  $t_1 t_2 \dots t_k BC$ ...
  - Backtrack when the fringe doesn't match the string
  - Stop when there are no more non-terminals Profs. Necula CS 164 Lecture 6-7

#### When Recursive Descent Does Not Work

- Consider a production  $S \rightarrow S a$ :
  - In the process of parsing 5 we try the above rule
  - What goes wrong?
- A left-recursive grammar has a non-terminal S  $S \rightarrow^{+} S \alpha$  for some  $\alpha$
- Recursive descent does not work in such cases
  - It goes into an  $\infty$  loop

#### Elimination of Left Recursion

- Consider the left-recursive grammar  $S \rightarrow S \alpha \mid \beta$
- S generates all strings starting with a  $\beta$  and followed by a number of  $\alpha$
- Can rewrite using right-recursion  $S \rightarrow \beta S'$  $S' \rightarrow \alpha S' \mid \epsilon$

### Elimination of Left-Recursion. Example

• Consider the grammar  $S \rightarrow 1 \mid S 0$  ( $\beta = 1$  and  $\alpha = 0$ )

can be rewritten as  $S \rightarrow 1 S'$  $S' \rightarrow 0 S' \mid \epsilon$ 

#### More Elimination of Left-Recursion

• In general

 $\textbf{S} \rightarrow \textbf{S} \; \alpha_1 \mid ... \mid \textbf{S} \; \alpha_n \mid \beta_1 \mid ... \mid \beta_m$ 

- All strings derived from S start with one of  $\beta_1, \dots, \beta_m$  and continue with several instances of  $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$
- Rewrite as

 $S \rightarrow \beta_1 S' \mid \dots \mid \beta_m S'$  $S' \rightarrow \alpha_1 S' \mid \dots \mid \alpha_n S' \mid \varepsilon$ 

#### **General Left Recursion**

- The grammar  $S \rightarrow A \alpha \mid \delta$   $A \rightarrow S \beta$ is also left-recursive because  $S \rightarrow^{+} S \beta \alpha$
- This left-recursion can also be eliminated
- See Dragon Book, Section 4.3 for general algorithm

#### Summary of Recursive Descent

- Simple and general parsing strategy
  - Left-recursion must be eliminated first
  - ... but that can be done automatically
- Unpopular because of backtracking
  - Thought to be too inefficient
- In practice, backtracking is eliminated by restricting the grammar

#### **Predictive Parsers**

- Like recursive-descent but parser can "predict" which production to use
  - By looking at the next few tokens
  - No backtracking
- Predictive parsers accept LL(k) grammars
  - L means "left-to-right" scan of input
  - L means "leftmost derivation"
  - k means "predict based on k tokens of lookahead"
- In practice, LL(1) is used

# LL(1) Languages

- In recursive-descent, for each non-terminal and input token there may be a choice of production
- LL(1) means that for each non-terminal and token there is only one production that could lead to success
- Can be specified as a 2D table
  - One dimension for current non-terminal to expand
  - One dimension for next token
  - A table entry contains one production

# Predictive Parsing and Left Factoring

- Recall the grammar  $E \rightarrow T + E \mid T$  $T \rightarrow int \mid int * T \mid (E)$
- Impossible to predict because
  - For T two productions start with int
  - For E it is not clear how to predict
- A grammar must be <u>left-factored</u> before use for predictive parsing

# Left-Factoring Example

- Recall the grammar  $E \rightarrow T + E \mid T$  $T \rightarrow int \mid int * T \mid (E)$
- Factor out common prefixes of productions

$$E \rightarrow T X$$
  

$$X \rightarrow + E \mid \varepsilon$$
  

$$T \rightarrow (E) \mid int Y$$
  

$$Y \rightarrow * T \mid \varepsilon$$

# LL(1) Parsing Table Example

• Left-factored grammar  $E \rightarrow T X$   $X \rightarrow + E \mid \epsilon$  $T \rightarrow (E) \mid int Y$   $Y \rightarrow * T \mid \epsilon$ 

# • The LL(1) parsing table:

	int	*	+	(	)	\$
Т	int Y			(E)		
E	ТХ			ТΧ		
X			+ E		3	3
У		* T	3		3	8

# LL(1) Parsing Table Example (Cont.)

- Consider the [E, int] entry
  - "When current non-terminal is E and next input is int, use production  $E \rightarrow TX$
  - This production can generate an int in the first place
- Consider the [Y,+] entry
  - "When current non-terminal is Y and current token is +, get rid of Y"
  - We'll see later why this is so

# LL(1) Parsing Tables. Errors

- Blank entries indicate error situations
  - Consider the [E,\*] entry
  - "There is no way to derive a string starting with \* from non-terminal E"

## Using Parsing Tables

- Method similar to recursive descent, except
  - For each non-terminal S
  - We look at the next token a
  - And choose the production shown at [5,a]
- We use a stack to keep track of pending nonterminals
- We reject when we encounter an error state
- We accept when we encounter end-of-input

# LL(1) Parsing Algorithm

initialize stack = <S, \$> and next (pointer to tokens) repeat case stack of <X, rest> : if T[X,\*next] =  $Y_1...Y_n$ then stack  $\leftarrow$  <Y $_1...Y_n$  rest>; else error (); <t, rest> : if t == \*next ++ then stack  $\leftarrow$  <rest>; else error (); until stack == < >

# LL(1) Parsing Example

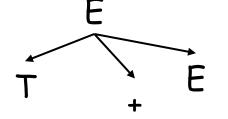
<u>Stack</u>	Input	Action
E \$	int * int \$	ТХ
ТХ\$	int * int \$	int Y
int Y X \$	int * int \$	terminal
УХ\$	* int \$	* T
* T X \$	* int \$	terminal
ТХ\$	int \$	int Y
int Y X \$	int \$	terminal
УХ\$	\$	8
X \$	\$	3
\$	\$	ACCEPT

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### Constructing Parsing Tables

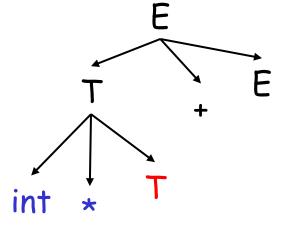
- LL(1) languages are those defined by a parsing table for the LL(1) algorithm
- No table entry can be multiply defined
- We want to generate parsing tables from CFG

- Top-down parsing expands a parse tree from the start symbol to the leaves
  - Always expand the leftmost non-terminal



#### int \* int + int

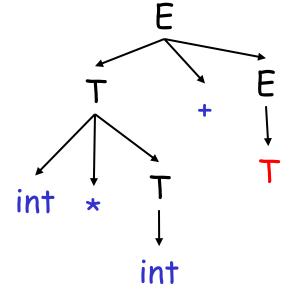
- Top-down parsing expands a parse tree from the start symbol to the leaves
  - Always expand the leftmost non-terminal



- The leaves at any point form a string  $\beta A \gamma$ 
  - $\beta$  contains only terminals
  - The input string is  $\beta b \delta$
  - The prefix  $\beta$  matches
  - The next token is b

int \* int + int

- Top-down parsing expands a parse tree from the start symbol to the leaves
  - Always expand the leftmost non-terminal



int +

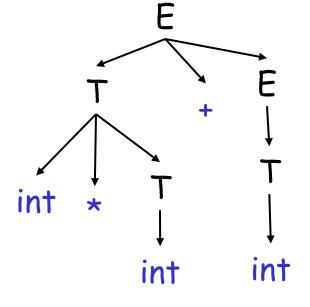
int

int

- The leaves at any point form a string  $\beta \textbf{A} \gamma$ 
  - $\beta$  contains only terminals
  - The input string is  $\beta b \delta$
  - The prefix  $\beta$  matches
  - The next token is b

int

- Top-down parsing expands a parse tree from the start symbol to the leaves
  - Always expand the leftmost non-terminal



int +

int

- The leaves at any point form a string  $\beta A \gamma$ 
  - $\beta$  contains only terminals
  - The input string is  $\beta b \delta$
  - The prefix  $\beta$  matches
  - The next token is b

### Predictive Parsing. Review.

- A predictive parser is described by a table
  - For each non-terminal A and for each token b we specify a production  $A \rightarrow \alpha$
  - When trying to expand A we use A  $\rightarrow \alpha$  if b follows next
- Once we have the table
  - The parsing algorithm is simple and fast
  - No backtracking is necessary

## **Constructing Predictive Parsing Tables**

- Consider the state  $S \rightarrow^* \beta A \gamma$ 
  - With b the next token
  - Trying to match  $\beta b \delta$

There are two possibilities:

- 1. b belongs to an expansion of A
  - Any  $A \rightarrow \alpha$  can be used if b can start a string derived from  $\alpha$

In this case we say that  $b \in First(\alpha)$ 

Or...

# Constructing Predictive Parsing Tables (Cont.)

# 2. b does not belong to an expansion of A

- The expansion of A is empty and b belongs to an expansion of  $\gamma$
- Means that b can appear after A in a derivation of the form  $S \rightarrow {}^*\beta Ab\omega$
- We say that  $b \in Follow(A)$  in this case
- What productions can we use in this case?
  - Any  $A \rightarrow \alpha$  can be used if  $\alpha$  can expand to  $\varepsilon$
  - We say that  $\varepsilon \in First(A)$  in this case

#### **Computing First Sets**

Definition First(X) = {  $b \mid X \rightarrow^* b\alpha$ }  $\cup$  { $\epsilon \mid X \rightarrow^* \epsilon$ } 1. First(b) = { b }

- 2. For all productions  $X \rightarrow A_1 \dots A_n$ 
  - Add First( $A_1$ ) { $\epsilon$ } to First(X). Stop if  $\epsilon \notin First(A_1)$
  - Add First( $A_2$ ) { $\epsilon$ } to First(X). Stop if  $\epsilon \notin First(A_2)$
  - •

...

- Add First( $A_n$ ) { $\epsilon$ } to First(X). Stop if  $\epsilon \notin First(A_n)$
- Add ε to First(X)

### First Sets. Example

- Recall the grammar  $E \rightarrow T X$  $T \rightarrow (E) \mid int Y$
- First sets

First(() = { ( }
First()) = { ) }
First( int) = { int }
First(+) = { + }
First(\*) = { \* }

 $\begin{array}{c} X \rightarrow + E \mid \epsilon \\ Y \rightarrow * T \mid \epsilon \end{array}$ 

```
First( T ) = {int, ( }
First( E ) = {int, ( }
First( X ) = {+, ε }
First( Y ) = {*, ε }
```

### **Computing Follow Sets**

- Definition Follow(X) = {  $b \mid S \rightarrow^* \beta X b \delta$  }
- 1. Compute the First sets for all non-terminals first
- 2. Add \$ to Follow(S) (if S is the start non-terminal)
- 3. For all productions  $Y \rightarrow \dots X A_1 \dots A_n$ 
  - Add First( $A_1$ ) { $\epsilon$ } to Follow(X). Stop if  $\epsilon \notin First(A_1)$
  - Add First( $A_2$ ) { $\epsilon$ } to Follow(X). Stop if  $\epsilon \notin First(A_2)$
  - •
  - Add First( $A_n$ ) { $\epsilon$ } to Follow(X). Stop if  $\epsilon \notin First(A_n)$
  - Add Follow(Y) to Follow(X)

### Follow Sets. Example

- Recall the grammar  $E \rightarrow T X$  $T \rightarrow (E) \mid int Y$
- Follow sets

Follow(+) = { int, ( } Follow(\*) = { int, ( } Follow(() = { int, ( } Follow(E) = { ), \$ } Follow(X) = { \$, ) } Follow(T) = { +, ), \$ } Follow() = { +, ), \$ Follow(Y) = { +, ), \$ } Follow(int) = { \*, +, ), \$ }

 $X \rightarrow + E \mid \varepsilon$ 

 $Y \rightarrow T \mid \varepsilon$ 

# Constructing LL(1) Parsing Tables

- Construct a parsing table T for CFG G
- For each production  $A \rightarrow \alpha$  in G do:
  - For each terminal  $b \in First(\alpha)$  do
    - T[A, b] =  $\alpha$
  - If  $\alpha \rightarrow {}^{*} \epsilon$ , for each  $b \in Follow(A)$  do
    - T[A, b] =  $\alpha$
  - If  $\alpha \rightarrow {}^{*} \epsilon$  and  $\$ \in Follow(A)$  do
    - T[A, \$] =  $\alpha$

## Constructing LL(1) Tables. Example

- Recall the grammar  $E \rightarrow T X$   $T \rightarrow (E) \mid int Y$   $X \rightarrow + E \mid \varepsilon$  $Y \rightarrow * T \mid \varepsilon$
- Where in the row of Y do we put Y → \* T?
  In the lines of First(\*T) = { \* }
- Where in the row of Y do we put  $Y \rightarrow \epsilon$  ?
  - In the lines of  $Follow(Y) = \{ \$, +, \}$

# Notes on LL(1) Parsing Tables

- If any entry is multiply defined then G is not LL(1)
  - If G is ambiguous
  - If G is left recursive
  - If G is not left-factored
  - And in other cases as well
- Most programming language grammars are not LL(1)
- There are tools that build LL(1) tables

#### Review

- For some grammars there is a simple parsing strategy
  - Predictive parsing
- Next: a more powerful parsing strategy