

Introduction to Parsing Ambiguity and Syntax Errors

Outline

- Regular languages revisited
- Parser overview
- Context-free grammars (CFG's)
- Derivations
- Ambiguity
- Syntax errors

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Languages and Automata

- Formal languages are very important in CS
 - Especially in programming languages and compilers
- Regular languages
 - The weakest formal languages widely used
 - Many applications
- We will also study context-free languages

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Limitations of Regular Languages

- Intuition:** A finite automaton that runs long enough must repeat states
- A finite automaton *cannot remember* number of times it has visited a particular state
 - because a finite automaton has finite memory
 - Only enough to store in which state it is
 - Cannot count, except up to a finite limit
 - Many languages are not regular
 - E.g., the language of balanced parentheses is not regular: $\{ (^i)^i \mid i \geq 0 \}$

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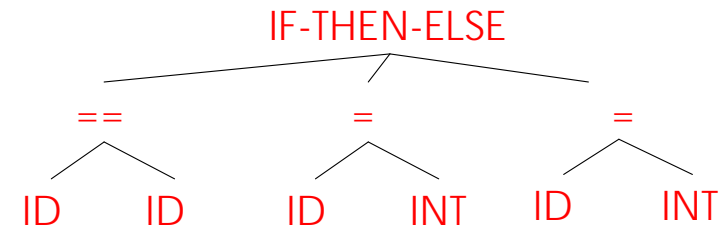
The Functionality of the Parser

- **Input:** sequence of tokens from lexer
- **Output:** parse tree of the program

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Example

- If-then-else statement
`if (x == y) then z = 1; else z = 2;`
- Parser input
`IF (ID == ID) THEN ID = INT; ELSE ID = INT;`
- Possible parser output



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Comparison with Lexical Analysis

<i>Phase</i>	<i>Input</i>	<i>Output</i>
Lexer	Sequence of characters	Sequence of tokens
Parser	Sequence of tokens	Parse tree

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The Role of the Parser

- Not all sequences of tokens are programs ...
- Parser must distinguish between valid and invalid sequences of tokens
- We need
 - A language for describing valid sequences of tokens
 - A method for distinguishing valid from invalid sequences of tokens

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Context-Free Grammars

- Many programming language constructs have a recursive structure
- E.g. A **STMT** is of the form
 - if **COND** then **STMT** else **STMT** , or
 - while **COND** do **STMT** , or
 - ...
- Context-free grammars are a natural notation for this recursive structure

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CFGs (Cont.)

A CFG consists of

- A set of *terminals* T
- A set of *non-terminals* N
- A *start symbol* S (a non-terminal)
- A set of *productions*

Assuming $X \in N$ the productions are of the form

$$X \rightarrow \varepsilon \quad , \text{ or}$$
$$X \rightarrow Y_1 Y_2 \dots Y_n \quad \text{where } Y_i \in N \cup T$$

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Notational Conventions

- In these lecture notes
 - Non-terminals are written upper-case
 - Terminals are written lower-case
 - The start symbol is the left-hand side of the first production

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Examples of CFGs

A fragment of an example language (simplified):

STMT \rightarrow if **COND** then **STMT** else **STMT**
| while **COND** do **STMT**
| id = int

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Examples of CFGs (cont.)

Grammar for simple arithmetic expressions:

$$\begin{array}{l} E \rightarrow E * E \\ | E + E \\ | (E) \\ | id \end{array}$$

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The Language of a CFG

Read productions as replacement rules:

$$X \rightarrow Y_1 \dots Y_n$$

Means X can be replaced by $Y_1 \dots Y_n$ (in this order)

$$X \rightarrow \varepsilon$$

Means X can be erased (replaced with empty string)

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Key Idea

- (1) Begin with a string consisting of the start symbol " S "
- (2) Replace any non-terminal X in the string by a right-hand side of some production

$$X \rightarrow Y_1 \dots Y_n$$

- (3) Repeat (2) until there are no non-terminals in the string

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The Language of a CFG (Cont.)

More formally, we write

$$X_1 \dots X_i \dots X_n \rightarrow X_1 \dots X_{i-1} Y_1 \dots Y_m X_{i+1} \dots X_n$$

if there is a production

$$X_i \rightarrow Y_1 \dots Y_m$$

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The Language of a CFG (Cont.)

Write

$$X_1 \cdots X_n \xrightarrow{*} Y_1 \cdots Y_m$$

if

$$X_1 \cdots X_n \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow Y_1 \cdots Y_m$$

in 0 or more steps

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The Language of a CFG

Let G be a context-free grammar with start symbol S . Then the language of G is:

$$\left\{ a_1 \dots a_n \mid S \xrightarrow{*} a_1 \dots a_n \text{ and every } a_i \text{ is a terminal} \right\}$$

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Terminals

- Terminals are called so because there are no rules for replacing them
- Once generated, terminals are permanent
- Terminals ought to be tokens of the language

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Examples

$L(G)$ is the language of the CFG G

Strings of balanced parentheses $\{()^i \mid i \geq 0\}$

Two equivalent ways of writing the grammar G :

$$\begin{array}{l} S \rightarrow (S) \\ S \rightarrow \varepsilon \end{array} \quad \text{or} \quad \begin{array}{l} S \rightarrow (S) \\ \quad \quad \quad | \quad \varepsilon \end{array}$$

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Example

A fragment of our example language (simplified):

```
STMT → if COND then STMT
      | if COND then STMT else STMT
      | while COND do STMT
      | id = int
COND  → (id == id)
      | (id != id)
```

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Example (Cont.)

Some elements of the our language

```
id = int
if (id == id) then id = int else id = int
while (id != id) do id = int
while (id == id) do while (id != id) do id = int
if (id != id) then if (id == id) then id = int else id = int
```

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Arithmetic Example

Simple arithmetic expressions:

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

Some elements of the language:

id		id + id
(id)		id * id
(id) * id		id * (id)

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Notes

The idea of a CFG is a big step.

But:

- Membership in a language is just "yes" or "no"; we also need the parse tree of the input
- Must handle errors gracefully
- Need an implementation of CFG's
 - e.g., [yacc/bison/ML-yacc/...](#)

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More Notes

- Form of the grammar is important
 - Many grammars generate the same language
 - Parsing tools are sensitive to the grammar

Note: Tools for regular languages (e.g., *lex/ML-Lex*) are also sensitive to the form of the regular expression, but this is rarely a problem in practice

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Derivations and Parse Trees

A *derivation* is a sequence of productions

$$S \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow \dots$$

A derivation can be drawn as a tree

- Start symbol is the tree's root
- For a production $X \rightarrow Y_1 \dots Y_n$ add children $Y_1 \dots Y_n$ to node X

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Derivation Example

- Grammar

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

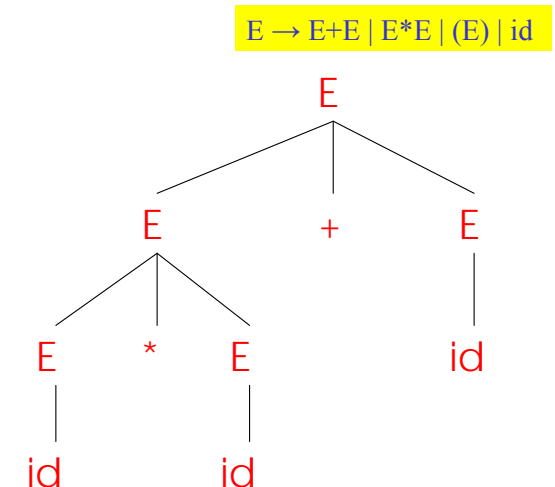
- String

$id * id + id$

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Derivation Example (Cont.)

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



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Derivation in Detail (1)

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

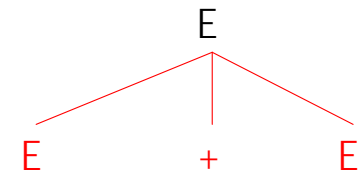
E

E

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Derivation in Detail (2)

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

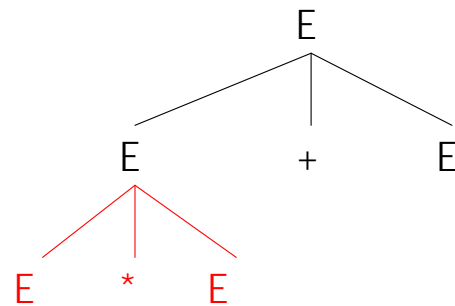


E
→ E+E

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Derivation in Detail (3)

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

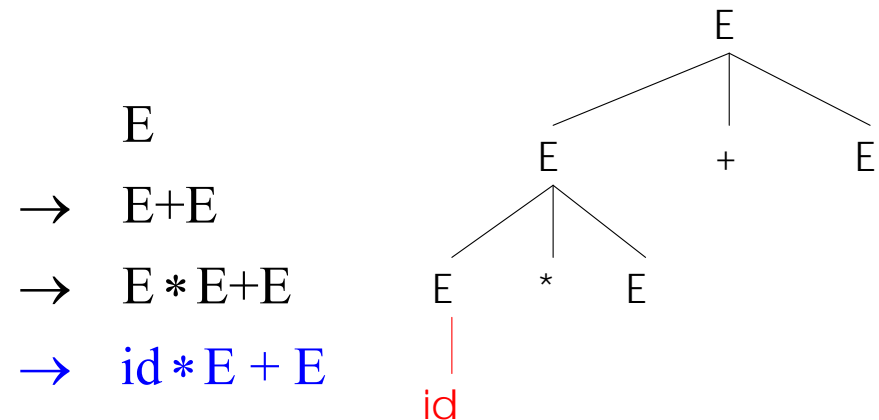


E
→ E+E
→ E * E + E

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Derivation in Detail (4)

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

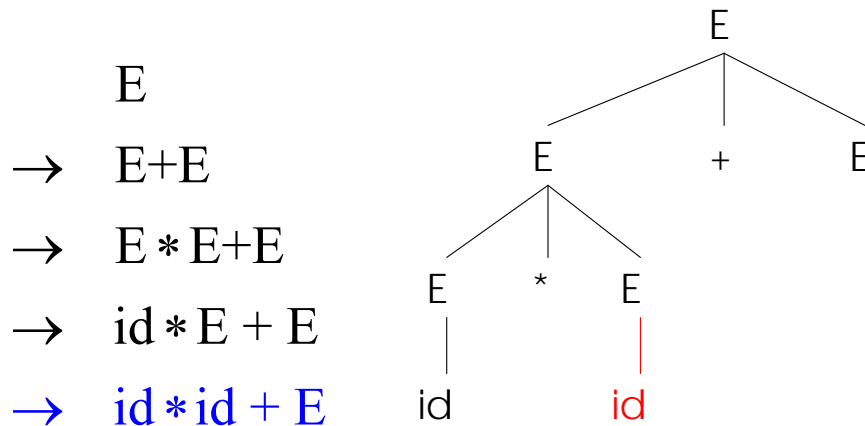


E
→ E+E
→ E * E + E
→ id * E + E

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Derivation in Detail (5)

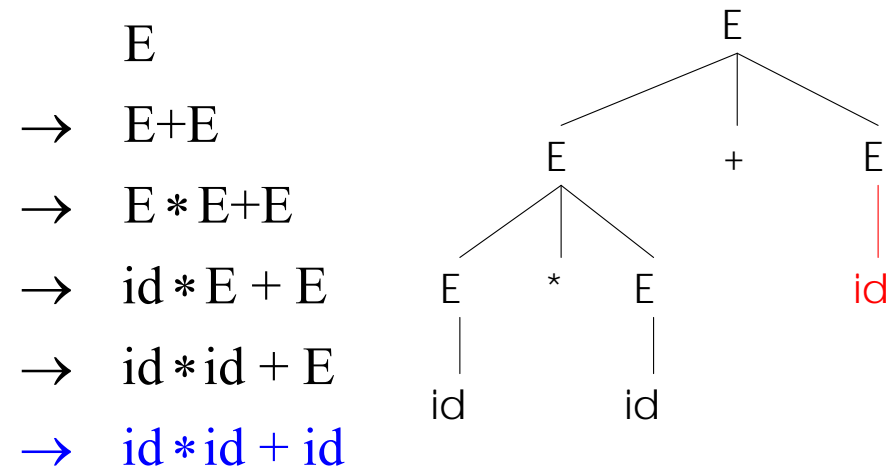
$E \rightarrow E+E \mid E * E \mid (E) \mid id$



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Derivation in Detail (6)

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



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Notes on Derivations

- 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 !

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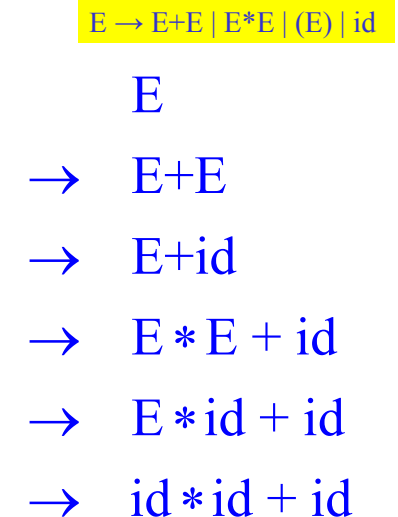
Left-most and Right-most Derivations

- What was shown before was a *left-most derivation*

- At each step, we replaced the left-most non-terminal

- There is an equivalent notion of a *right-most derivation*

- Shown on the right



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Right-most Derivation in Detail (1)

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

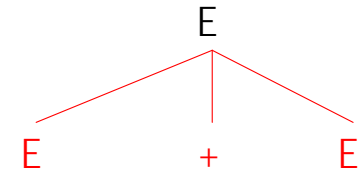
E

E

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Right-most Derivation in Detail (2)

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

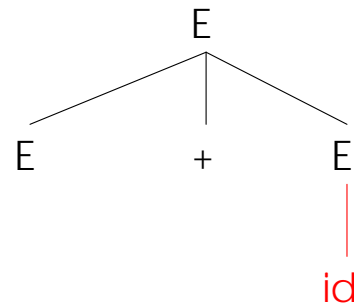


E
→ E+E

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Right-most Derivation in Detail (3)

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

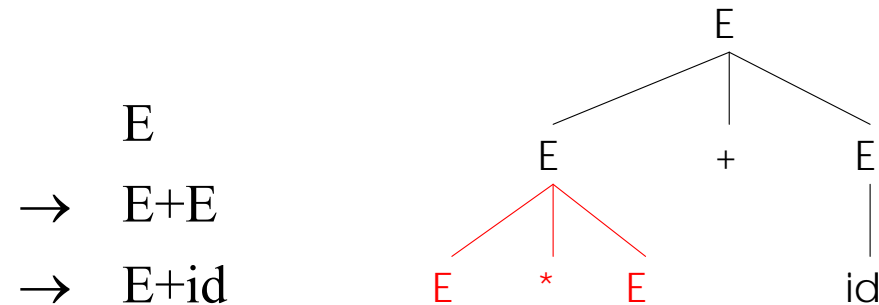


E
→ E+E
→ E+id

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Right-most Derivation in Detail (4)

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

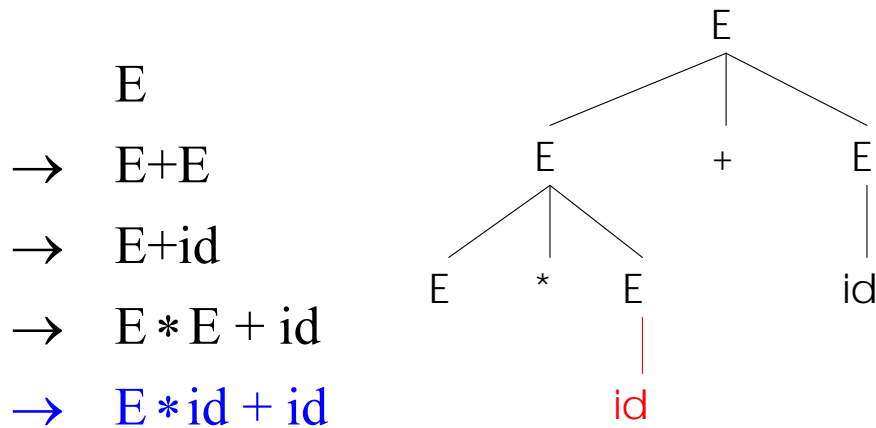


E
→ E+E
→ E+id
→ E * E + id

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Right-most Derivation in Detail (5)

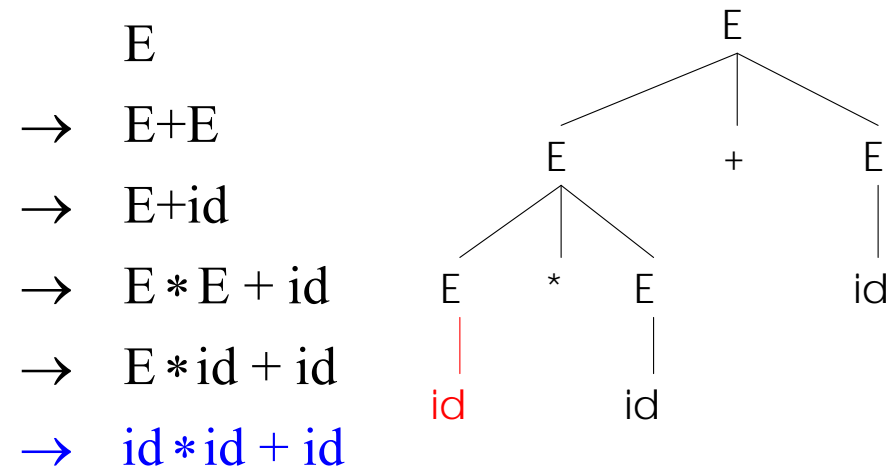
$E \rightarrow E+E \mid E * E \mid (E) \mid id$



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Right-most Derivation in Detail (6)

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



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Derivations and Parse Trees

- Note that:
 - right-most and left-most derivations have the same parse tree
 - for each parse tree, there is a right-most and a left-most derivation
- The difference *is just in the order* in which branches are added

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Summary of Derivations

- We are not just interested in whether $s \in L(G)$
 - We need a parse tree for s
- A derivation defines a parse tree
 - But one parse tree may have many derivations
- Left-most and right-most derivations are important in parser implementation

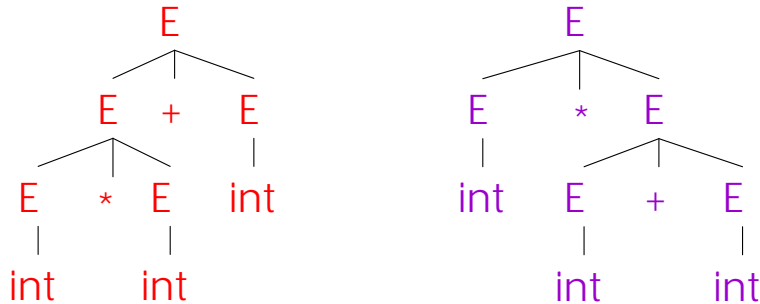
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Ambiguity

- Grammar:

$$E \rightarrow E + E \mid E * E \mid (E) \mid \text{int}$$

- The string $\text{int} * \text{int} + \text{int}$ has two parse trees



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Ambiguity (Cont.)

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

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Dealing with Ambiguity

- There are several ways to handle ambiguity
- Most direct method is to rewrite the grammar unambiguously

$$E \rightarrow T + E \mid T$$

$$T \rightarrow \text{int} * T \mid \text{int} \mid (E)$$

- This grammar enforces precedence of $*$ over $+$

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Ambiguity: The Dangling Else

- Consider the following grammar

$$\begin{aligned} S &\rightarrow \text{if } C \text{ then } S \\ &\quad \mid \text{if } C \text{ then } S \text{ else } S \\ &\quad \mid \text{OTHER} \end{aligned}$$

- This grammar is also ambiguous

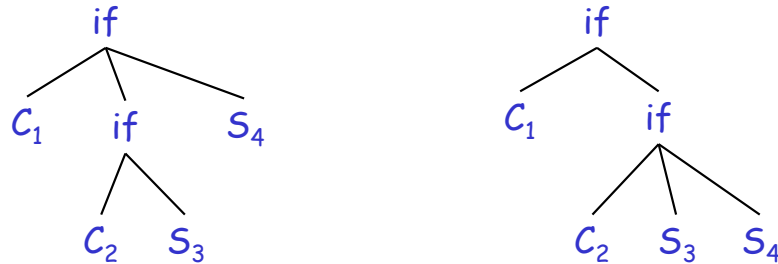
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The Dangling Else: Example

- The expression

if C_1 then if C_2 then S_3 else S_4

has two parse trees



- Typically we want the second form

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The Dangling Else: A Fix

- `else` should match the closest unmatched `then`
- We can describe this in the grammar

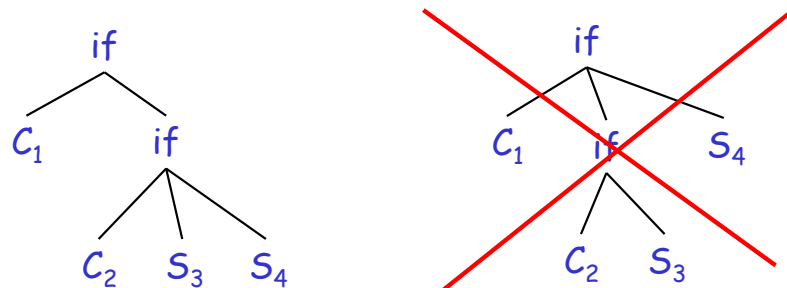
```
S → MIF          /* all then are matched */
   | UIF          /* some then are unmatched */
MIF → if C then MIF else MIF
     | OTHER
UIF → if C then S
     | if C then MIF else UIF
```

- Describes the same set of strings

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The Dangling Else: Example Revisited

- The expression if C_1 then if C_2 then S_3 else S_4



- A valid parse tree (for a `UIF`)

- Not valid because the `then` expression is not a `MIF`

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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
 - However, we need disambiguation mechanisms

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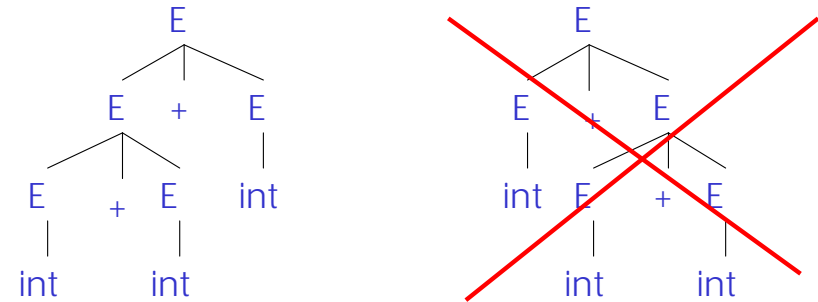
Precedence and Associativity Declarations

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

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Associativity Declarations

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

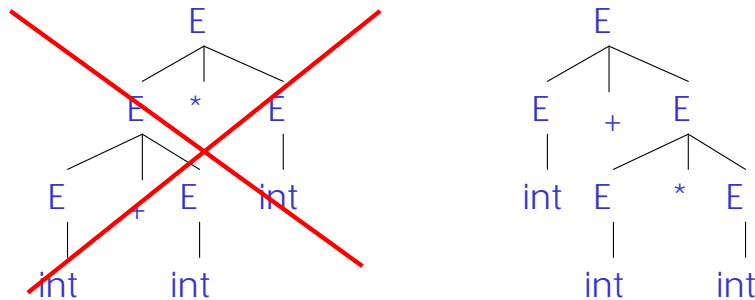


- Left associativity declaration: `%left +`

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Precedence Declarations

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



- Precedence declarations: `%left +`
`%left *`

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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 favorite program	Tester/User

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Syntax Error Handling

- Error handler should
 - Report errors accurately and clearly
 - Recover from an error quickly
 - Not slow down compilation of valid code

- Good error handling is not easy to achieve

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Approaches to Syntax Error Recovery

- From simple to complex
 - Panic mode
 - Error productions
 - Automatic local or global correction

- Not all are supported by all parser generators

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Error Recovery: Panic Mode

- Simplest, most popular method

- When an error is detected:
 - Discard tokens until one with a clear role is found
 - Continue from there

- Such tokens are called synchronizing tokens
 - Typically the statement or expression terminators

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Syntax Error Recovery: Panic Mode (Cont.)

- Consider the erroneous expression
 $(1 + + 2) + 3$

- Panic-mode recovery:
 - Skip ahead to next integer and then continue

- (ML)-Yacc: use the special terminal **error** to describe how much input to skip
 $E \rightarrow \text{int} \mid E + E \mid (E) \mid \text{error int} \mid (\text{error})$

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Syntax Error Recovery: Error Productions

- Idea: specify some recovery rules in the grammar based on known common mistakes
- Essentially promotes common errors to alternative syntax
- Example:
 - Write **5 x** instead of **5 * x**
 - Add the production $E \rightarrow \dots \mid E E$
- Disadvantage
 - Complicates the grammar

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Syntax Error Recovery: Past and Present

- (Distant) Past
 - Slow recompilation cycle (even once a day)
 - Find as many errors in one cycle as possible
 - Researchers could not let go of the topic
- Present
 - Quick recompilation cycle
 - Users tend to correct one error/cycle
 - Complex error recovery is needed less
 - Panic-mode seems enough

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