G52MAL Machines and Their Languages Lecture 15 Recursive-Descent Parsing: Introduction

Henrik Nilsson

University of Nottingham, UK

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This Lecture

- What is Parsing?
- Recursive-Descent Parsing Fundamentals
- Handling Choice

What is Parsing? (1)

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- In CS, we take this to mean answering

 $w \in L(G)?$

for a CFG G by analysing the structure of w according to G; i.e. to *recognize* the language generated by a grammar G.

What is Parsing? (2)

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- A parser is a program that carries out parsing; i.e., essentially (for CFGs) a realization of a PDA.
- For most practical applications, a parser will also return a structured representation of a word $w \in L(G)$: its *derivation* or *parse tree* (although usually a simplified version, an *Abstract Syntax Tree*).

Parsing Strategies

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Parsing Strategies

There are two basic strategies for parsing: top-down and bottom up.

- A top-down parser attempts to carry out a derivation matching the input starting from the start symbol; i.e., it constructs the parse tree for the input *from the root downwards* in preorder.
- A bottom-up parser tries to construct the parse tree from the leaves upwards by using the productions "backwards".

Recursive-Descent Parsing (1)

Recursive-descent parsing is a way to implement top-down parsing.

We are just going to focus on the language recognition problem:

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This suggests the following type for the parser:
 parser :: [Token] -> Bool
Token is "compiler speak" for (input) symbol.

Recursive-Descent Parsing (2)

Consider a typical production in some grammar G:

 $S \to AB$

Let L(X) be the language $\{w \in T^* \mid X \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} w\}$. Note that

 $w \in L(S) \Leftarrow \exists w_1, w_2 . \quad w = w_1 w_2$ $\land w_1 \in L(A)$ $\land w_2 \in L(B)$

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 $w \in L(S) \Leftarrow \exists w_1, w_2 . \quad w = w_1 w_2$ $\land w_1 \in L(A)$ $\land w_2 \in L(B)$

I.e., given a parser for L(A) and a parser for L(B), we can construct a parser for L(S).

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Idea!

- Each parser
 - tries to derive a *prefix* of the input according to the productions for the nonterminal
- returns the remaining suffix if successful.

Recursive-Descent Parsing (3)

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Idea!

Each parser

 tries to derive a *prefix* of the input according to the productions for the nonterminal

returns the remaining suffix if successful.

New type:

parseX :: [Token] -> Maybe [Token]
(Recall:data Maybe a = Nothing | Just a)

Recursive-Descent Parsing (4)

Now we can construct a parser for L(S) $S \rightarrow AB$

in terms of parsers for L(A) and L(B): parseS :: [Token] -> Maybe [Token] parseS ts = case parseA ts of Nothing -> Nothing Just ts' -> case parseB ts' of Nothing -> Nothing Just ts'' -> Just ts''

Recursive-Descent Parsing (5)

Or we can simplify to just

```
parseS :: [Token] -> Maybe [Token]
```

```
parseS ts =
```

```
case parseA ts of
```

```
Nothing -> Nothing
```

Just ts' -> parseB ts'

This is called recursive-descent parsing because the parse functions (usually) end up being (mutually) recursive.

Exercise

Suppose type Token = Char and

parseA :: [Token] -> Maybe [Token]
parseA ('a' : ts) = Just ts
parseA _ = Nothing

parseB :: [Token] -> Maybe [Token]
parseB ('b' : ts) = Just ts
parseB _ = Nothing

- Evaluate parseA, parseB, and parseS on "abcd".
- What are the productions for *A* and *B*?

Recursive-Descent Parsers and PDAs

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 - keeps track of the state of the computation
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- Fundamental to the implementation of a recursive computation is a stack that
 - keeps track of the state of the computation
 - allows for *subcomputations* (to any depth).
- In a language that supports recursive functions and procedures, the stack isn't explicitly visible. But internally, it is the central datastructure.
- Thus, a recursive-descent parser is a kind of PDA.

Recursive-Descent Parsing (6)

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We are first going to consider the case when the choice is obvious, as in

 $S \to aAB \mid cCD$

I.e. we assume it is manifest from the grammar that we can choose between productions with a one-symbol *lookahead*.

A Simple Recursive-Descent Parser (1)

Consider:

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A Simple Recursive-Descent Parser (1)

Consider:

 $S \rightarrow aA \mid bBA$ $A \rightarrow aA \mid \epsilon$ $B \rightarrow bB \mid \epsilon$

We are going to need one parsing function for each non-terminal:

parseS :: [Token] -> Maybe [Token]

parseA :: [Token] -> Maybe [Token]

parseB :: [Token] -> Maybe [Token]

A Simple Recursive-Descent Parser (2)

```
Production: S \rightarrow aA \mid bBA
```

```
type Token = Char
```

```
parseS :: [Token] -> Maybe [Token]
parseS ('a' : ts) =
    parseA ts
parseS ('b' : ts) =
    case parseB ts of
        Nothing -> Nothing
        Just ts' -> parseA ts'
parseS _ = Nothing
```

A Simple Recursive-Descent Parser (3)

Production: $A \rightarrow aA \mid \epsilon$ parseA :: [Token] -> Maybe [Token] parseA ('a' : ts) = parseA ts parseA ts = Just ts Production: $B \rightarrow bB \mid \epsilon$ parseB :: [Token] -> Maybe [Token] parseB ('b' : ts) = parseB ts parseB_ts = Just_ts

Note: Since $A \Rightarrow \epsilon$ and $B \Rightarrow \epsilon$, it is **not** a syntax error if the next token is not, respectively, a and b.

Choice (1)

Now consider:

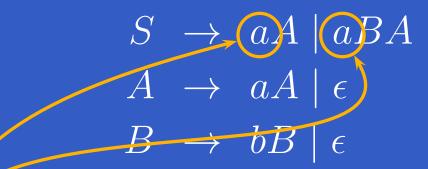
$$S \rightarrow aA \mid aBA$$
$$A \rightarrow aA \mid \epsilon$$
$$B \rightarrow bB \mid \epsilon$$

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Choice (1)

Now consider:



In parseS, should parseA or parseB be called once a has been read?

Choice (2)

```
We could try the alternatives in order; i.e., a
limited form of backtracking:
Production: S \rightarrow aA \mid aBA
   parseS ('a' : ts) =
        case parseA ts of
            Just ts' -> Just ts'
            Nothing ->
                 case parseB ts of
                     Nothing -> Nothing
                     Just ts' -> parseA ts'
```

Choice (3)

Similarly, to handle ϵ -productions (as we already did): Production: $A \rightarrow aA \mid \epsilon$ parseA :: [Token] -> Maybe [Token] parseA ('a' : ts) = parseA ts parseA ts = Just ts

Choice (3)

Similarly, to handle ϵ -productions (as we already did): Production: $A \rightarrow aA \mid \epsilon$ parseA :: [Token] -> Maybe [Token] parseA ('a' : ts) = parseA ts parseA ts = Just ts

If the present input starts with an a, consume it and continue. Only if this fails will the always successful ϵ -rule be used! The opposite order would not be very useful.

Choice (4)

Limited backtracking is *not* an exhaustive search: liable to get stuck in "blind alleys". Consider:

 $\begin{array}{rccc} S & \to & AB \\ A & \to & aA \mid \epsilon \\ B & \to & ab \end{array}$

Choice (5)

Parsing functions:

parseA ('a' : ts) = parseA ts
parseA ts = Just ts

parseB ('a' : 'b' : ts) = Just ts
parseB ts = Nothing

parseS ts =
 case parseA ts of
 Nothing -> Nothing
 Just ts' -> parseB ts'

Will it work? Consider parsing *ab*. Clearly derivable from the grammar!

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But:

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parseA "ab" = Just "b"

I.e., committed to the choice $A \rightarrow a$, and will never try $A \rightarrow \epsilon$: a "blind alley".

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But:

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Why? Because

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I.e., committed to the choice $A \rightarrow a$, and will never try $A \rightarrow \epsilon$: a "blind alley".

Changing order may solve this, but will cause other problems.

One principled approach is to try **all** alternatives; i.e., **full backtracking** (aka **list of successes**):

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• Translate $A \rightarrow \alpha \mid \beta$ into

parseA ts = parseAlpha ts ++ parseBeta ts

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An empty list indicates no possible parsing.

Choice (8)

However:

- backtracking is computationally expensive
- issues with error reporting: where exactly lies the problem if it only after an exhaustive search becomes apparent that there is no possible way to parse a word?

We are going to look at another principled approach that avoids backtracking: *predictive parsing*. (But the grammar must satisfy certain conditions.)