Administrivia

Assignment 6 is due on Friday by 11:59PM.

A gentle reminder that the (W)ithdraw deadline is March 29.

Parsing I: An Introduction

Principles of Programming Languages Lecture 14

Objectives

Get a sense of what parsing is, starting with lexical analysis.

Look briefly at the *general parsing* problem.

Look at *recursive-decent* as a first attempt at a simple parsing procedure.

Keywords

parser generator lexical analysis lexeme token parsing recursive-decent

Errata

This grammar is not amgbiguous.

A grammar is ambiguous if it has a sentence with multiple parse trees.

A sentence may have multiple derivations just by virtue of the order in which you expand nonterminal symbols.

Practice Problem

```
<expr>> ::= <expr2> | <expr2> + <expr>
<expr2> ::= x | ( <expr> )
```

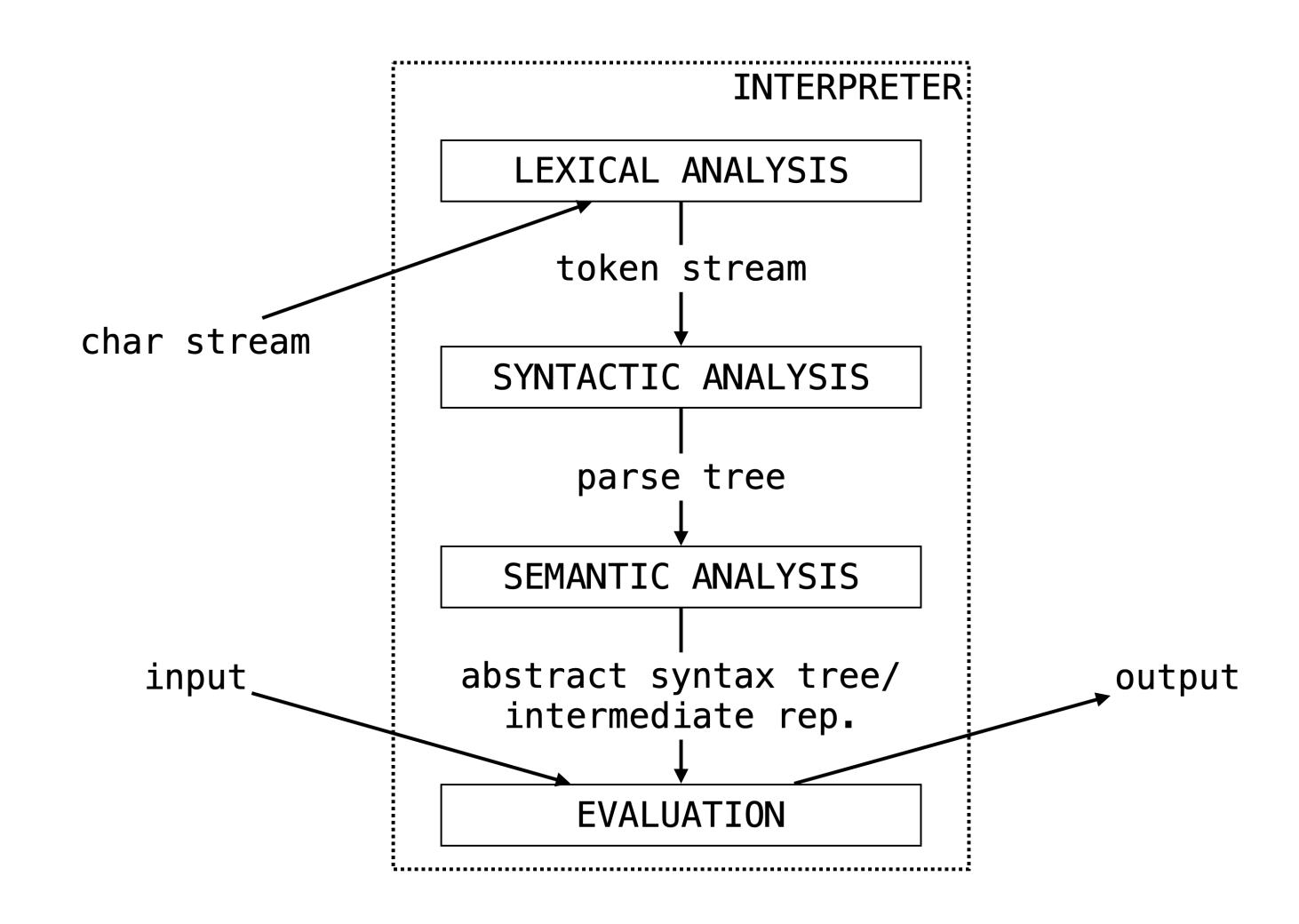
Write an ADT which represents (parse trees of) sentences in the above grammar.

What do the sentences of this grammar represent?

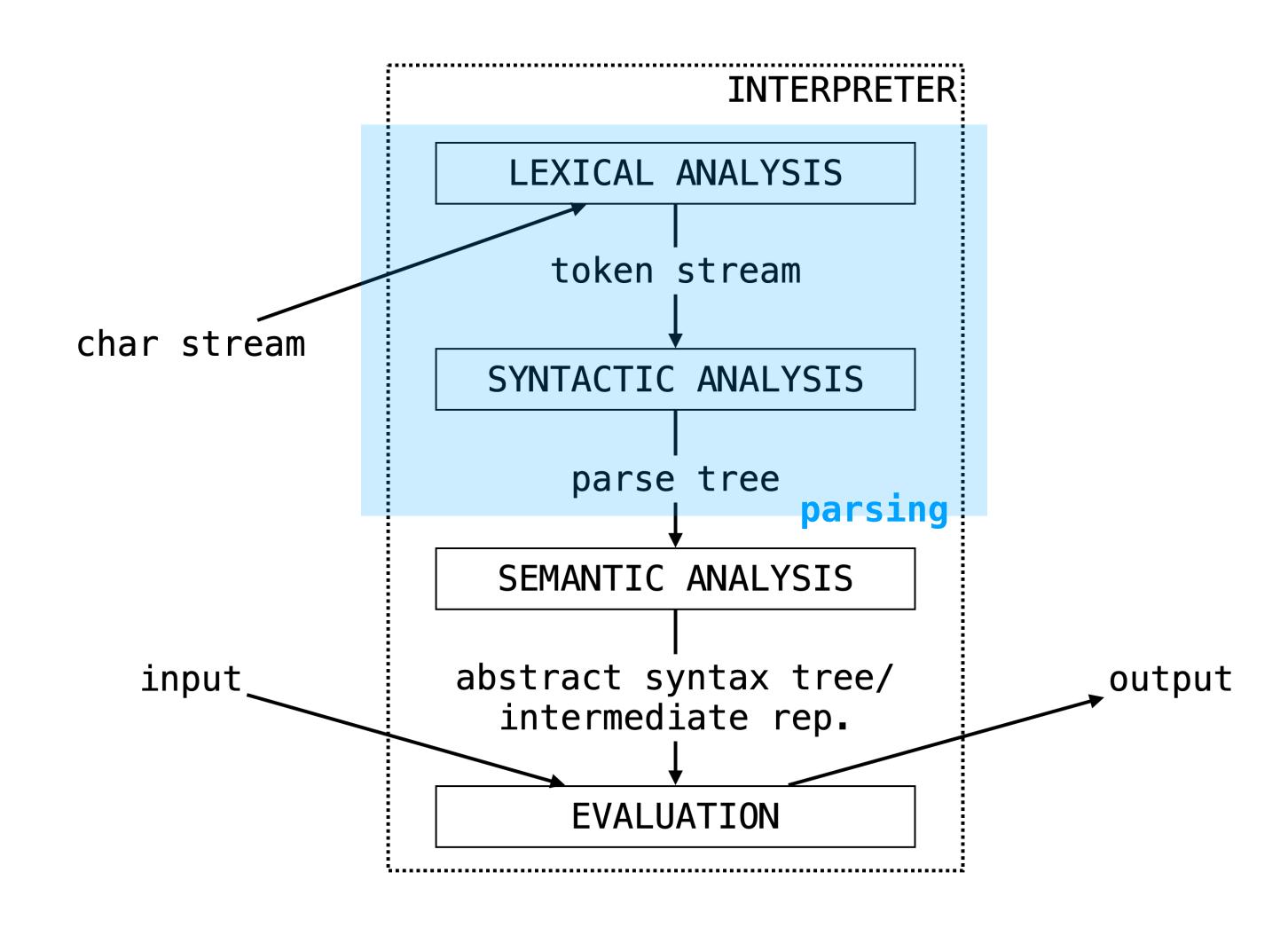
Recap + Motivation

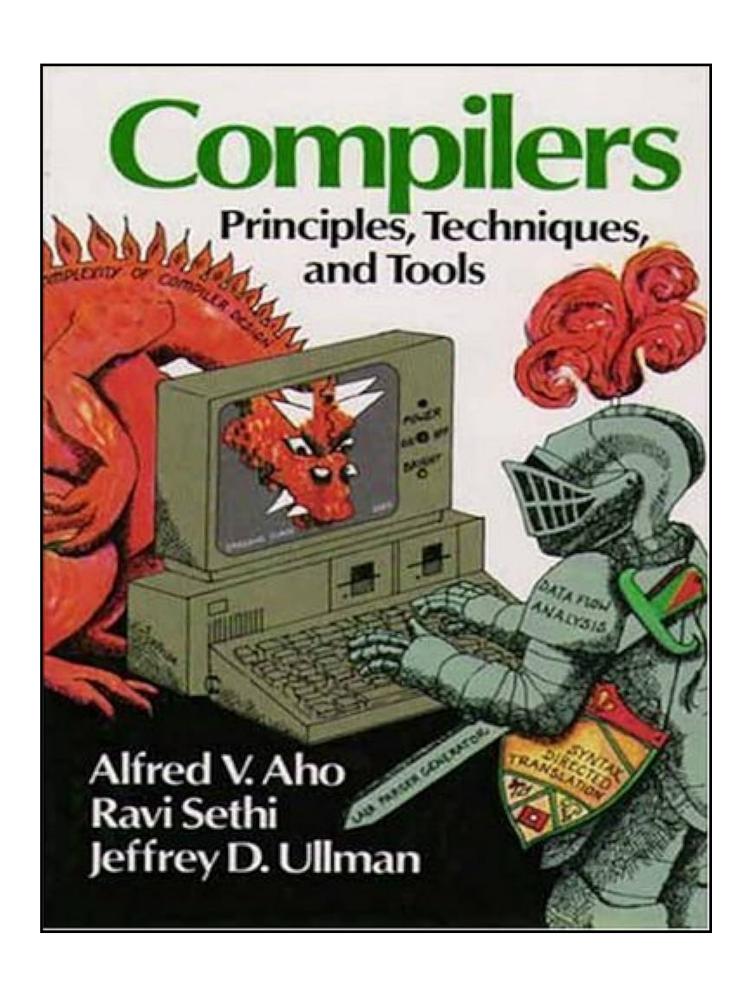
```
production rules
<expr> ::= <op1> <expr>
                  <op2> <expr> <expr> abstractions (non-terminal symbols)
                   <var>
             := not
<0p1>
            := and
<var>
                        tokens (terminal symbols)
```

Pure Interpretation: The Picture

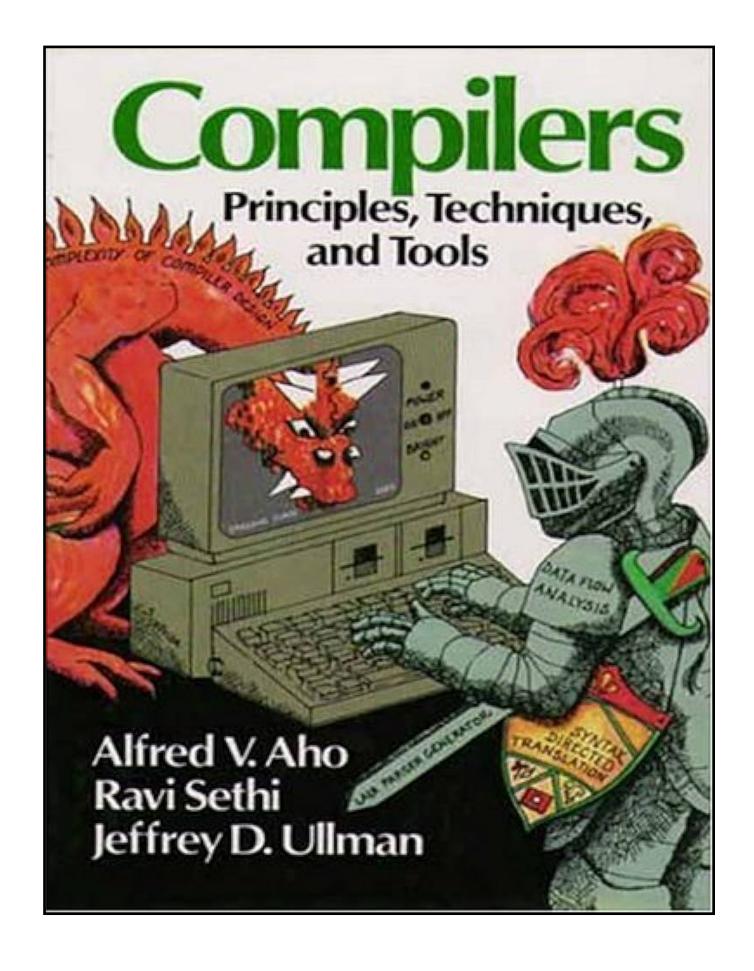


Pure Interpretation: The Picture



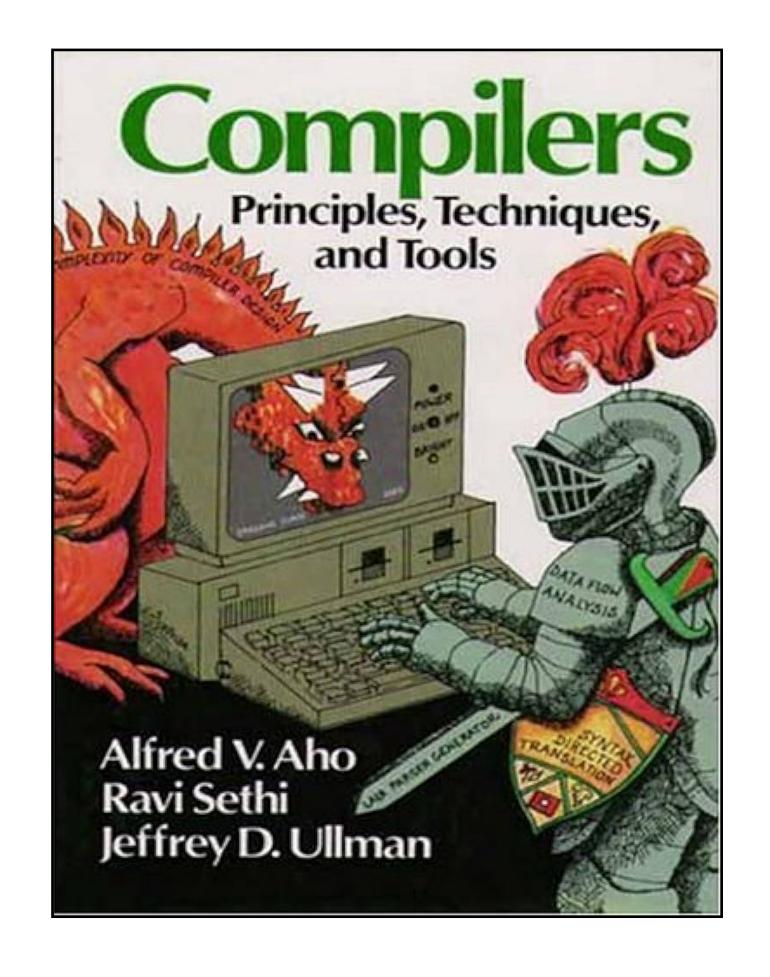


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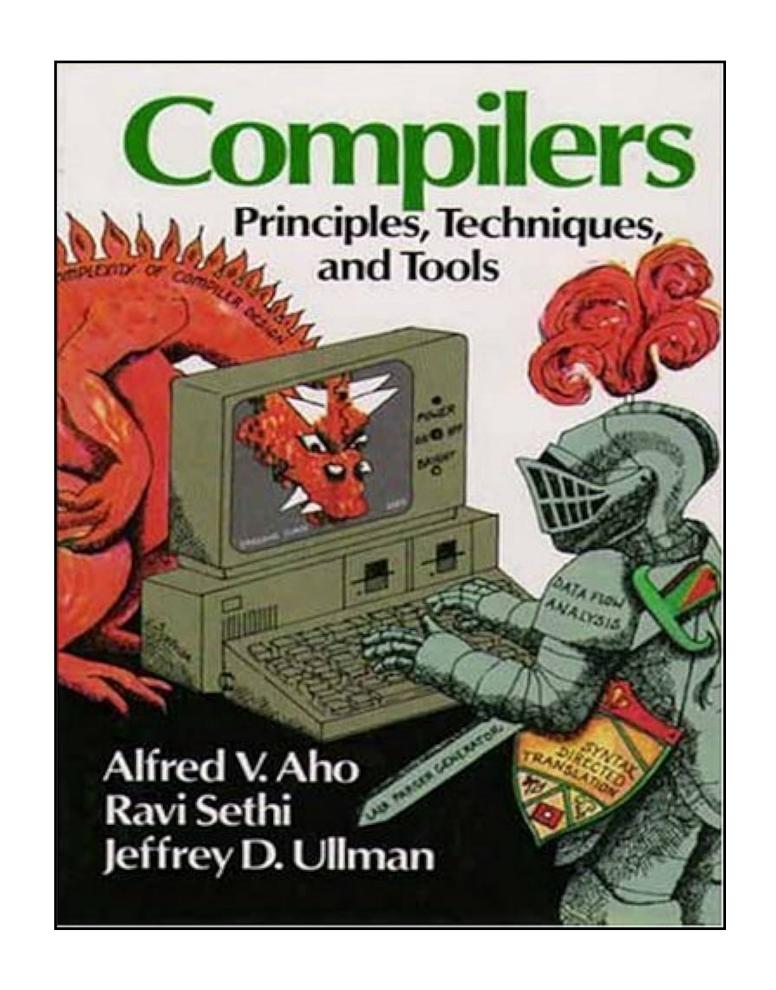
Compiler design was once a fundamental requirement in CS programs. This is not really the case anymore.



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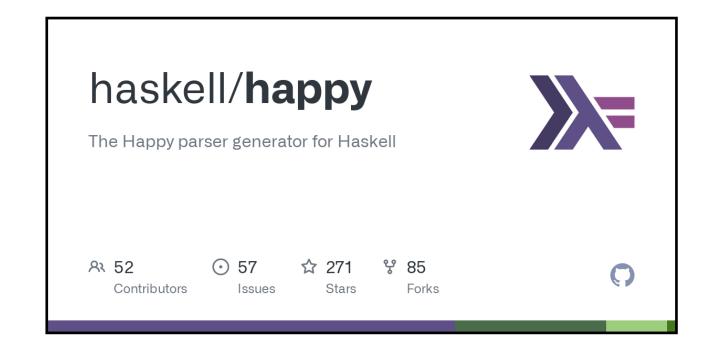
Compiler design was once a fundamental requirement in CS programs. This is not really the case anymore.

Also, we have parser generators.



Parser Generators

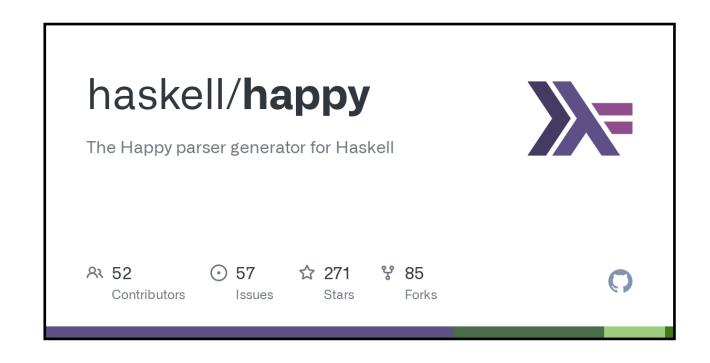






Parser Generators



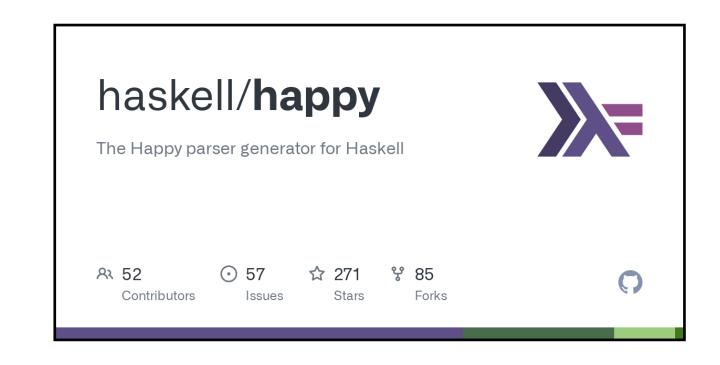




Parser generators are programs which, given a representation of a language (e.g., as an EBNF grammar), build a parser for you.

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Parser generators are programs which, given a representation of a language (e.g., as an EBNF grammar), build a parser for you.

(So there was a point to learning (E)BNF for the "real-world")

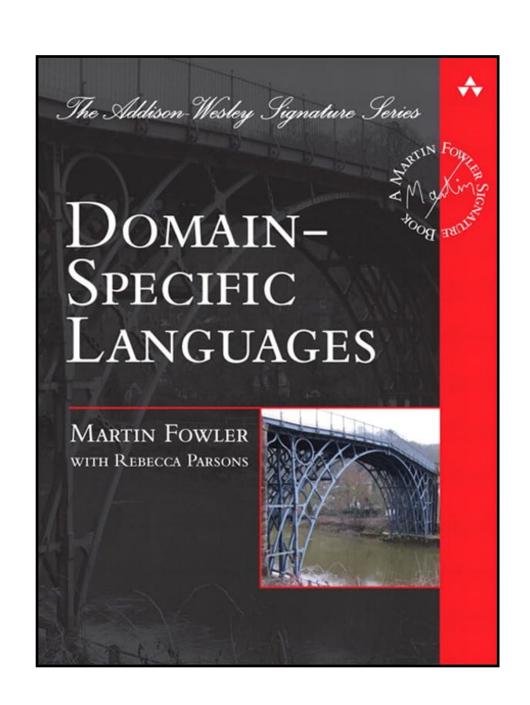
demo (ANTLR)

An Aside: Domain-Specific Languages

Domain-specific languages (DSLs) are simple programming languages for domain-specific tasks, e.g.

- » Emacs Lisp
- » SQL

We need **parsers** for these languages if we want to use them...





Lexical Analysis

```
"let" \approx ['l', 'e', 't'] \mapsto LET
"fun" \approx ['f', 'u', 'n'] \mapsto FUN
```

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```

The Goal. Convert a stream of characters into a stream of tokens.

"let"
$$\approx$$
 ['l', 'e', 't'] \mapsto *LET*
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» Characters are grouped so together so they correspond to the smallest units at the level of the language.

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- » Characters are grouped so together so they correspond to the smallest units at the level of the language.
- » Whitespace and comments are ignored.

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The Goal. Convert a stream of characters into a stream of tokens.

- » Characters are grouped so together so they correspond to the smallest units at the level of the language.
- » Whitespace and comments are ignored.
- » Syntax errors are caught, when possible.

Lexical Analysis is about **small-scale** language constructs.

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Syntactic Analysis (Parsing) is about large-scale language constructs.

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» keywords, names, literals

Syntactic Analysis (Parsing) is about large-scale language constructs.

» expressions, statements, modules

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Good question...for simple implementations, we don't.

But there are benefits for larger projects: (what do you think?)

- » Simplicity. It's easier to think about parsing if we don't need to worry about whitespace, characters, etc.
- » Portability. Files are finicky things, handled differently
 across different operating systems. Abstracting this away for
 parsing is just good software engineering.

```
        input program:
        fun
        l
        ->
        l
        ++
        [
        100
        ]

        lexemes:
        "fun"
        "l"
        "->
        "l"
        "++" "["
        "100" "]"

        tokens:
        FUN
        (ID "l")
        ARR
        (ID "l")
        (OP "++")
        LBRAK
        (INT 100)
        RBRAK
```

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A **lexeme** is a sequence of characters associated a syntactic unit in a language.

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A token is a lexeme together with information about what kind of unit it is.

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» "12" and "234" are both INT_LITS, whereas "let" is a KEYWORD.

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A token is a lexeme together with information about what kind of unit it is.

» "12" and "234" are both INT_LITS, whereas "let" is a KEYWORD.

We typically represent tokens as an ADT.

```
"let@#_)($#@_J_@0#GKJ" \rightarrow (LET, "@#_)($#@_J_@0#GKJ")

"le x = 2" \rightarrow FAILURE
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The approach.

» Given a stream of characters, determine if there is a valid lexeme at the beginning.

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"le x = 2" \rightarrow FAILURE
```

The approach.

- » Given a stream of characters, determine if there is a valid lexeme at the beginning.
- » If there is, return its corresponding token and the remainder of the stream.

Question (Conceptual)

```
"let@#_)($#@_J_@0#GKJ" \rightarrow (LET, "@#_)($#@_J_@0#GKJ")

"le x = 2" \rightarrow FAILURE
```

Why do it this way?

Possible Answers

- » What else could we do? For example, splitting on whitespace could group characters unnecessarily.
- » It generalizes nicely to cases when we don't have the entire input program, e.g., if we want to buffer the input, or if we want to combine lexing and parsing.

Recall: Options

```
type 'a option = None | Some of 'a

let head (l : 'a list) : 'a option =
  match l with
  | [] -> None
  | x :: xs -> Some x
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Options are like boxes which *may* hold a value or may be empty.

This can be useful for defining functions which may not be total.

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let rec next_token (cs : char list) : (token * char list) option = ...
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need something with more structure (like results).

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To deal with possible failures of the next_token function, we use options.

- » If we want to include syntax error messages, we'd need something with more structure (like results).
- » If we wanted to buffer the input, we wouldn't use lists.

Tokenizing

```
next_token "let x = 2" \Rightarrow Some (LET, " x = 2")
next_token " x = 2" \Rightarrow Some (ID "x", " x = 2")
next_token " x = 2" \Rightarrow Some (EQ, " x = 2")
next_token " x = 2" \Rightarrow Some (INT x = 2")
tokenize "let x = 2" \Rightarrow Some [LET, ID "x = 2")

tokenize "let x = 2" \Rightarrow Some [LET, ID "x = 2")
```

Tokenizing

```
next_token "let x = 2" \implies Some (LET, " x = 2")
next_token " x = 2" \implies Some (ID "x", " x = 2")
next_token " x = 2" x = 2" x = 2"
next_token " x = 2" x = 2"
next_token " x = 2" x = 2"
next_token " x = 2" x = 2"
some (INT 2, "")

tokenize "let x = 2" x = 2"

Tokenize "let x = 2" x = 2"

Some (LET, "x = 2")

Some (ID "x = 2")

Some (EQ, " x = 2")

Tokenize "let x = 2"

Some (LET, ID "x = 2")
```

Once we have a **next_token** function. The process of turning a list of characters into a list of tokens is simple.

Tokenizing

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next_token " x = 2" x = 2"
next_token " x = 2" x = 2"
some (EQ, " x = 2")
Tokenize "let x = 2" x = 2"

Tokenize "let x = 2" x = 2"

Some (LET, " x = 2")
Some (ID "x", " x = 2")
Some (EQ, " x = 2")

Tokenize "let x = 2" x = 2"

Tokenize "let x = 2" x = 2"
```

Once we have a **next_token** function. The process of turning a list of characters into a list of tokens is simple.

Just apply it a bunch of times until the list is empty, or until an error occurs (returning None).

Practice Problem

Implement the higher-order function tokenize, which given

next : char list -> ('a * char list) option
cs : char list

returns the 'a list of elements gotten by repeatedly applying next until the list is empty, returning None if next ever returns None.

demo (tokenizing)

Parsing

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 upwards (dynamic programming).

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Recursive-Decent (General)

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Recursive-Decent (General)

The Approach.

- » Choose a nonterminal symbol to expand, and apply a production rule
- » In the case of alternative rules, we have to choose an order to apply the rules.
- » Backtrack if we get to an sentential form which
 does not match our sentence.

```
<expr> ::= <expr2> | <expr2> + <expr>
<expr2> ::= x | ( <expr> )
```

<expr>

$$x + (x + x)$$

```
<expr><expr>>
```

```
<expr> ::= <expr2> | <expr2> + <expr>
<expr2> ::= x | ( <expr> )
```

$$x + (x + x)$$

```
<expr><expr>><expr2>
```

```
<expr> ::= <expr2> | <expr2> + <expr>
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$$x + (x + x)$$

```
<expr> <expr> <expr>> + <expr>>
```

```
<expr> ::= <expr2> | <expr2> + <expr>
<expr2> ::= x | ( <expr> )
```

$$x + (x + x)$$

```
<expr>
<expr> <expr> + <expr>
x + <expr>
```

```
<expr> ::= <expr2> | <expr2> + <expr>
<expr2> ::= x | ( <expr> )
```

$$x + (x + x)$$

```
<expr>
<expr> <expr> > + <expr> x + <expr> x + <expr> x + <expr2>
```

```
<expr> ::= <expr2> | <expr2> + <expr>
<expr2> ::= x | ( <expr> )
```

$$x + (x + x)$$

```
<expr> ::= <expr2> | <expr2> + <expr>
<expr2> ::= x | ( <expr> )
```

```
<expr>
<expr>
<expr>> + <expr>
x + <expr>
x + <expr2>
x + (<expr>)
```

```
<expr> ::= <expr2> | <expr2> + <expr>
<expr2> ::= x | ( <expr> )
```

```
<expr>
<expr>
<expr>> + <expr>
x + <expr>
x + <expr2>
x + ( <expr>)
x + ( <expr>)
```

```
<expr> ::= <expr2> | <expr2> + <expr>
<expr2> ::= x | ( <expr> )
```

```
<expr>
<expr>
<expr>>
<expr>>
x + <expr>
x + <expr2>
x + (<expr>)
x + (<expr>>)
x + (x)
```

```
<expr> ::= <expr2> | <expr2> + <expr>
<expr2> ::= x | ( <expr> )
```

$$x + (x + x)$$

```
<expr>
<expr>>
<expr>>
<expr>>
x + <expr>
x + <expr2>
x + (<expr>)
x + ( <expr>>
)
x + ( <expr>)
)
```

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<expr> ::= <expr2> | <expr2> + <expr>
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```

```
<expr>
<expr>
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x + <expr>
x + <expr>>
x + ( <expr>)
x + ( <expr>> )
```

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<expr>> ::= <expr2> | <expr2> + <expr>
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```
<expr>
<expr>
<expr>
<expr>
x + <expr>
x + <expr2>
x + ( <expr> )
x + ( <expr2> + <expr> )
x + ( x + <expr> )
```

```
<expr>> ::= <expr2> | <expr2> + <expr>
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```

```
<expr>
<expr>
<expr>>
<expr>>
x + <expr>
x + <expr>>
x + (<expr>)
x + ( <expr>)
x + ( x + <expr>)
x + ( x + <expr>)
x + ( x + <expr>)
```

$$x + (x + x)$$

```
<expr>
<expr2> + <expr>
x + <expr>
x + <expr2>
x + ( <expr> )
x + (expr2 + expr)
x + (x + < expr > )
x + (x + < expr2 > )
X + (X + X)
```

```
<expr>> ::= <expr2> | <expr2> + <expr>
<expr2> ::= x | ( <expr> )
```

Practical Parsing

```
<expr> ::= <expr2> | <expr2> + <expr>
<expr2> ::= <int> | ( <expr> )
<int> ::= ...
```

```
type expr
= Num of int
| Add of expr * expr
```

```
[LPAR; NUM 2; ADD; NUM 3; RPAR; ADD; NUM 4] → Add (Add (Num 2, Num 3), 4)
( 2 + 3 ) + 4
```

Practical Parsing

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<expr>> ::= <expr2> | <expr2> + <expr>
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Problem. Convert a stream of tokens into a parse tree (represented as an ADT).

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```

Problem. Convert a stream of tokens into a parse tree (represented as an ADT).

Note. An ADT does not have to perfectly model a grammar. There is no need for parentheses in the above example since it can be captured by the tree structure alone.

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<expr2> ::= <int> | ( <expr> )
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The Approach.

» For each production rule, define a subprogram that parses that kind of non-terminal symbol. (They will be mutually recursive)

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» Just like with tokenizing, we try to consume as much as possible from the input, returning what is left.

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type expr
= Num of int
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```

The Approach.

- » For each production rule, define a subprogram that parses that kind of non-terminal symbol. (They will be mutually recursive)
- » Just like with tokenizing, we try to consume as much as possible from the input, returning what is left.
- » We're done if we've consumed every token.

demo (parsing)

```
<expr>>
```

```
<expr>> ::= <expr> + <expr2> | <expr2>
<expr2> ::= x | ( <expr> )
```

```
<expr> ::= <expr> + <expr2> | <expr2>
<expr> <expr> + <expr2>
<expr> + <expr2>
<expr> + <expr
```

In code, this would be an infinite loop.

What's to Come

- » How do we deal with (left) associativity?
- » How do we deal with precedence?
- » Can we make this simpler and more general?