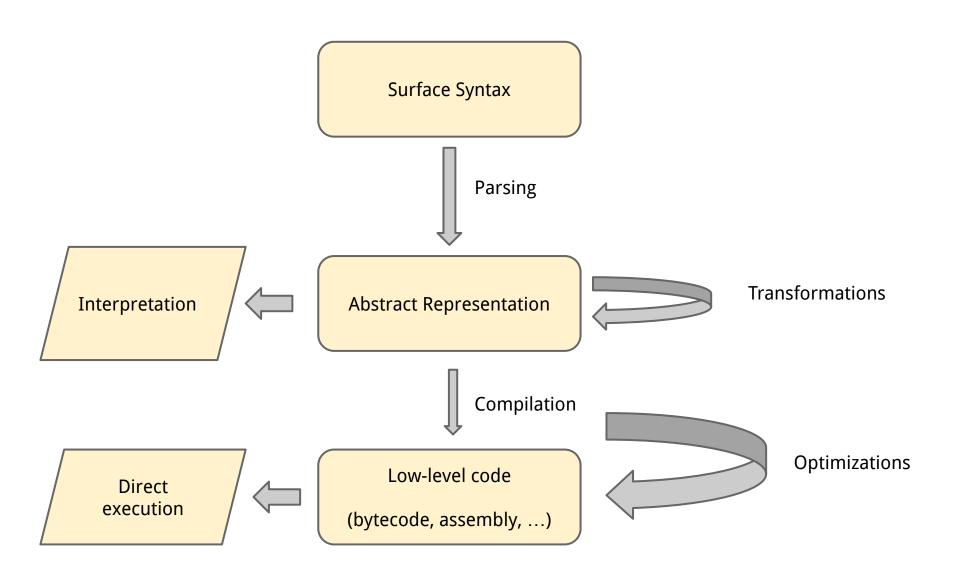
Surface Syntax and Parsing

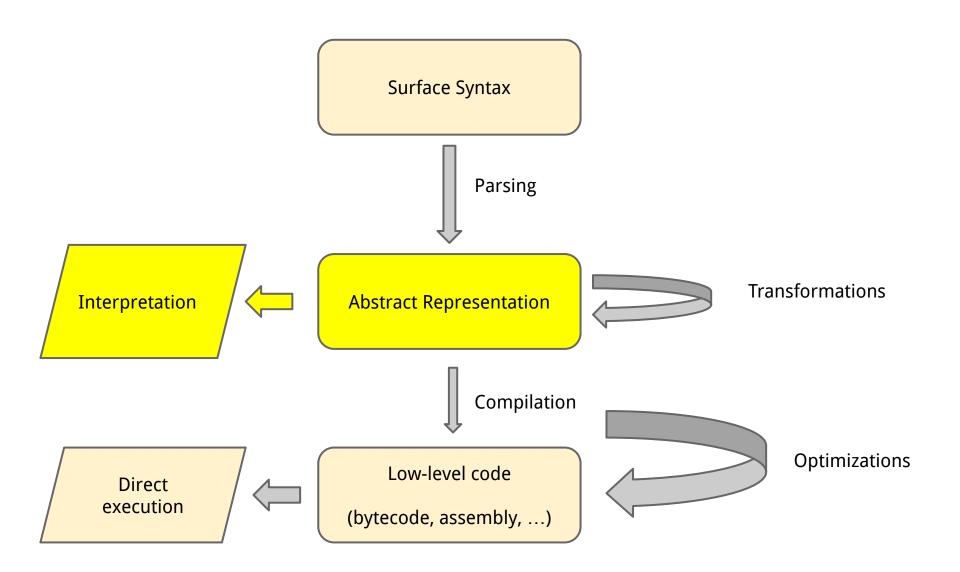
February 13, 2020

Riccardo Pucella

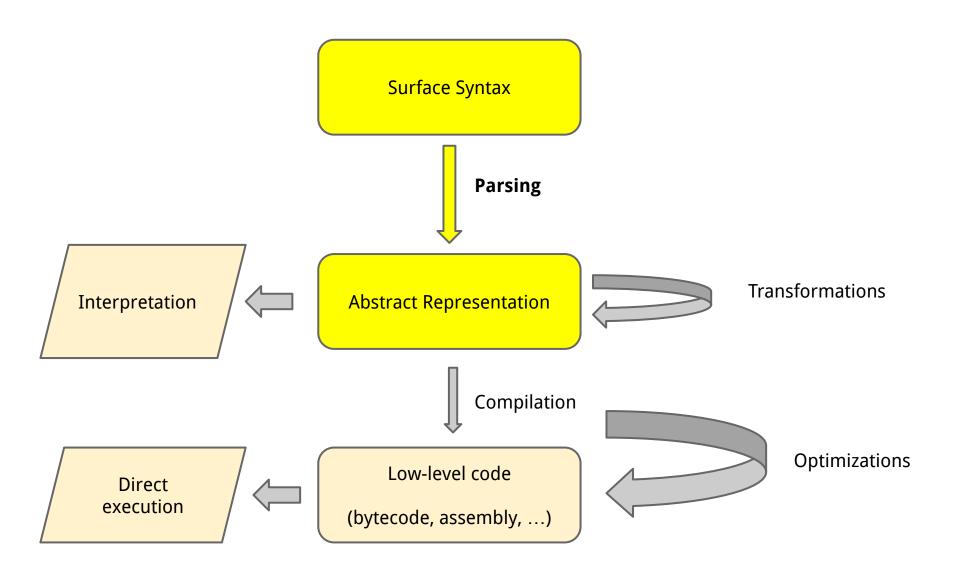
The structure of language execution



The structure of language execution



The structure of language execution



Why surface syntax?

Abstract representation: good for computers

Surface syntax:

good for humans programmers

Generating abstract representation

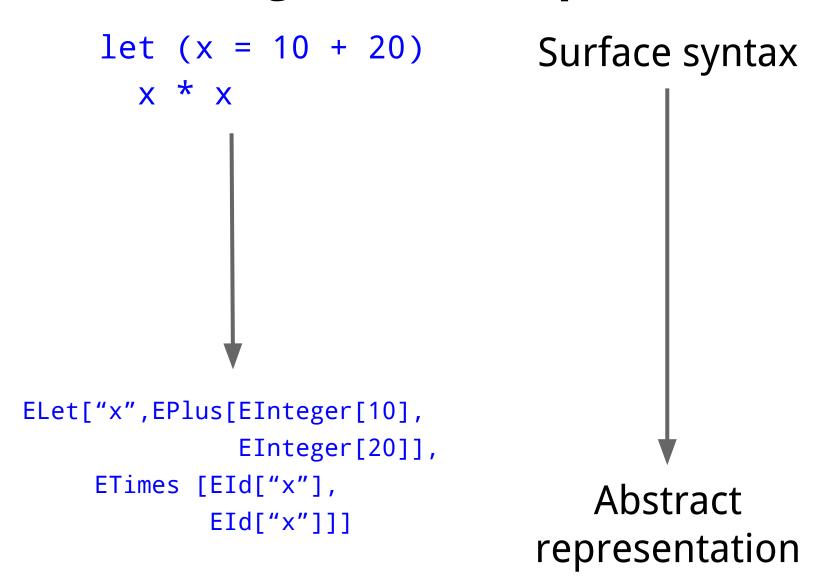
let
$$(x = 10 + 20)$$

 $x * x$

Surface syntax

Abstract representation

Generating abstract representation



Sources of surface syntax

Where does surface syntax come from?

files, input from interactive shells, ...

abstraction: sequences of characters

Distinguishing two phases

Tokenization (aka lexical analysis) sequence of characters → sequence of tokens

Parsing

sequence of tokens -- abstract representation

Same thing happens in natural languages

 phonemes (units of elocution) merged into words (units of meaning) merged into sentences

```
let (x = 10 + 20)
 x * x
```

```
let (x = 10 + 20)
1 e t \sqcup (x \sqcup = \sqcup 1 0 \sqcup + \sqcup 2 0) \spadesuit \sqcup x \sqcup * \sqcup x
KW(let) LP ID(x) EQUAL INT(10) PLUS INT(20) RP ID(x)
   TIMES ID(x)
ELet["x", EPlus[EInteger[10],
                  EInteger[20]],
      ETimes [EId["x"],
                EId["x"]]]
```

```
let (x = 10 + 20)
         x * x
1 e t \sqcup (x \sqcup = \sqcup 1 0 \sqcup + \sqcup 2 0) \spadesuit \sqcup x \sqcup * \sqcup x
KW(let) LP ID(x) EQUAL INT(10) PLUS INT(20) RP ID(x)
   TIMES ID(x)
ELet["x", EPlus[EInteg
                            Many choices for the kind of
                 EIntes
                              tokens to use — practical
     ETimes [EId["x"
                                       trade-offs
               EId["x"
```

Tokens

Unit of meaning

- sentences are made up of words
- programs are made up of tokens

Typical tokens:

- integers, floating point numbers, identifiers
- operation symbols + * =
- punctuation () , .

characters → token: local decision

Tokenization

Lexer:

character sequence → token sequence

Description of tokens: regular expressions

```
integer /[0-9]+/
string /\".*\"/
identifier /[a-zA-Z][a-zA-Z0-9]*/
keyword /let/ (e.g.)
```

Compact representation for families of strings

Lexer: charac

Efficient ways to check if a string is in the family

Description of tokens: regular expressions

```
integer /[0-9]+/
string /\".*\"/
identifier /[a-zA-Z][a-zA-Z0-9]*/
keyword /let/ (e.g.)
```

A naive lexer

```
While characters remain:
   For each possible token:
     Does token's regexp match a prefix
     of the characters?
     Yes → output token
        tokenize remaining characters
```

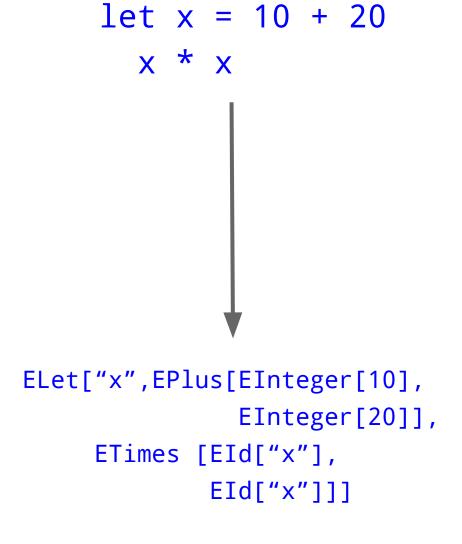
- Works reasonably well for small programs
- Relies on regexp matching

A more clever lexer algorithm

 Matching a regular expression can be done with a deterministic finite automaton (DFA)

- Lexer algorithm:
 - Compile all token regexps into single large DFA
 - Tag final states with token recognized
 - Run the DFA with character sequence
 - When you hit a final state:
 - output token
 - restart DFA with remaining characters
- Usually implemented via a tool (lex family)

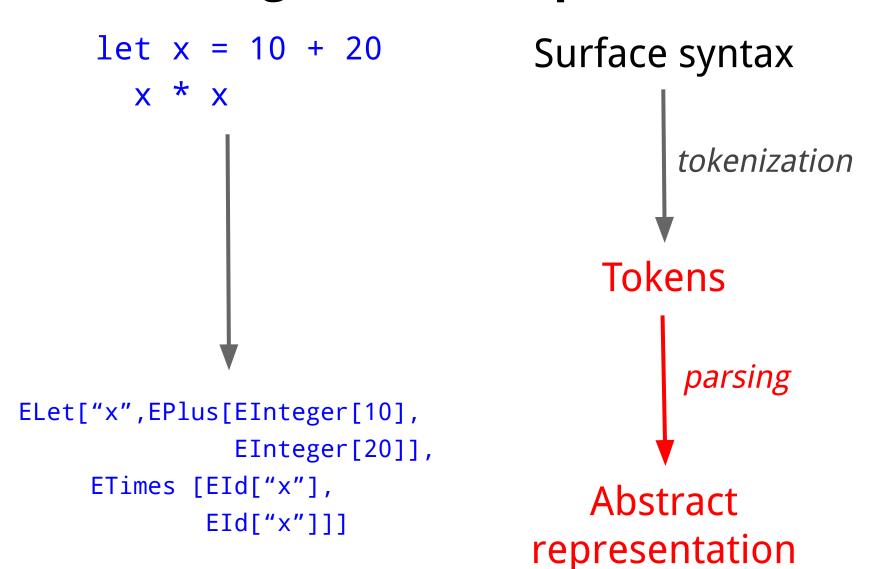
Generating abstract representation



Surface syntax

Tokens

Generating abstract representation



Parsing

- Identify valid token sequences
 - E.g. valid: KW(let) LP ID(x) EQUAL INT[10] RP ID(x)
 - E.g. not: KW(let) LP ID(x) ID(y) EQUAL INT(10) RP ...
- Map valid token sequences to elements of the internal representation
 - **E.g.** ELet [...]

Anything that does that is a parser

How do we describe valid token sequences?

Parsing

This is a HUGE field

A lot of work in programming languages, linguistics, natural language processing, and computational theory

This is merely to give you a taste

Anything that does that is a parser

How do we describe valid token sequences?

Grammars

A grammar is a description of valid sequences of tokens expressed as *production rules*

A production rule expands variables (known as nonterminals) into tokens and other variables

Think of English:

- A sentence is a noun phrase followed by a verb phrase
- A noun phrase is ...

Example: S-expressions

```
atomic ::= integer
             identifier
             true
             false
  expr ::= atomic
           ( + expr expr )
           ( * expr expr )
           ( if expr expr expr )
           ( let ( ( identifier expr ) ) expr )
Examples: (+ 3 5)
             (* (+ 3 5) (+ x 2))
             (let ((x (+ 10 20))) (* x x))
```

Example: S-expressions

```
atomic ::= integer
             identifier
             true
                            All bolded terms are tokens
             false
 expr ::= atomic
           ( + expr expr )
           ( * expr expr )
           ( if expr expr expr )
           ( let ( ( identifier expr ) ) expr )
Examples: (+ 3 5)
             (* (+ 3 5) (+ x 2))
             (let ((x (+ 10 20))) (* x x))
```

```
atomic ::= integer(i)
         identifier(s)
         true
         false
expr ::= atomic
       ( + expr expr )
       ( * expr expr )
       ( if expr expr expr )
       ( let ( ( identifier expr ) ) expr )
```

```
identifier(s)
      true
      false
expr ::= atomic
     ( + expr  expr )
     ( * expr expr )
     ( if expr expr expr )
     ( let ( ( identifier expr ) ) expr )
```

```
atomic ::= integer(i) \longrightarrow EInteger(i)
          identifier(s) \longrightarrow EId(s)
                             EBoolean(true)
         true
          false
                        → EBoolean(false)
expr ::= atomic
        ( + expr expr
        ( * expr expr
        ( if expr expr expr )
        ( let ( ( identifier expr ) ) expr
```

```
atomic ::= integer(i) \longrightarrow EInteger(i)
            identifier(s) \longrightarrow EId(s)
                              → EBoolean(true)
            true
            false
                              → EBoolean(false)
expr ::= atomic(r) \longrightarrow r
          ( + expr(e1) expr(e2) ) \longrightarrow EPlus(e1, e2)
          ( * expr(e1) expr(e2) ) \longrightarrow ETimes(e1, e2)
          ( if expr(e1) expr(e2) expr(e3) ) \rightarrow EIf(e1,e2,e3)
          ( let ( ( identifier(s) expr(e) ) ) expr(b) )
                                                  \mathsf{ELet}(s,e,b)
```

These sort of grammars are often called *attribute grammars*

Two approaches to parsing

TOP-DOWN

BOTTOM-UP

- recursive descent
- coded by hand
- flexible but slow

- table-based
- generated by tools
- fast

good for simple grammars

production systems

Recursive-descent parsers

For every nonterminal NT:

 define a function parse_NT that can match a sequence of tokens via any of the rules for NT

Predictive parsers are a simple class of recursive-descent parsers

- Applicable when *k* tokens uniquely identify which rule applies for each nonterminal

Predictive parser for S-expressions

```
atomic ::= integer
           identifier
           true
          false
expr ::= atomic
         ( + expr expr )
         ( * expr expr )
         ( if expr expr expr )
         ( let ( ( identifier expr ) ) expr )
```

Predictive parser for S-expressions

```
parse_atomic (tokens) =
   if tokens[0] is an integer token
      return (EInteger(tokens[0]), tokens[1:])
   if tokens[0] is an identifier token
      return (EId(tokens[0]), tokens[1:])
   if tokens[0] is token "true"
      return (EBoolean(True), tokens[1:])
   if tokens[0] is token "false"
      return (EBoolean(False), tokens[1:])
   fail
```

(Each function parse_NT returns a pair of the abstract representation of the parsed tokens, and the rest of the tokens not yet parsed)

Predictive parser for S-expressions

```
parse_expr (tokens) =
   if tokens[0] is token "("
     if tokens[1] is token "+"
       (e1,rest) = parse_expr(tokens[2:])
       (e2,rest) = parse_expr(rest)
       if rest[0] is token ")"
         return (EPlus(e1,e2),rest[1:])
       else fail
     if tokens[1] is token "*" ... (similar)
     if tokens[1] is token "if" ... (similar)
     if tokens[1] is token "let" ... (similar)
     fail
   else
     return parse_atomic(tokens)
```

Parsing with backtracking

Some grammars cannot be parsed with a predictive parser

General recursive descent parsers:

- 1. Attempt to parse
- 2. if it succeeds, done
- 3. if it fails, backtrack and try a different rule that's why it can be slow

Parser combinator libraries

Parser combinators

Idea:

- create small parsers
- combine parsers into more complex parsers

Example:

pyparsing library in Python
scala.util.parsing.combinator in Scala

Note: most parser combinator libraries do not distinguish between tokenization and parsing

What about a more natural syntax?

```
expr ::= integer
    identifier
        ( expr )
    let ( identifier = expr ) expr
    if expr then expr else expr
        expr + expr
        expr * expr
```

What about a more natural syntax?

```
expr ::= integer
   identifier
   ( expr )
   let ( identifier = expr ) expr
   if expr then expr else expr
       expr + expr
   expr * expr
```

Grammar with *left recursion*

Bad for recursive-descent parsers — WHY?

What a Need to eliminate left recursion by the rewriting grammar:

expr

```
expr ::= integer
         expr + expr
         expr * expr
expr ::= integer
         integer expr_rest
expr_rest ::= + expr
              * expr
```

Grammar with *left recursion*

Bad for recursive-descent parsers — WHY?

Ambiguities

Ambiguities are another problem with the grammar...

A grammar is ambiguous if some sequences of tokens can parse in more than one way

To solve: impose operator precedence

Ambiguities

```
Ambig/
        Another classic ambiguity
gram
          expr ::= ...
                   if expr then expr else expr
                   if expr then expr
A gra
token
        Consider if a then if b then c else d
          if a then (if b then c) else d?
 10
          if a then (if b then c else d)?
```

Ambiguities

Ambio

Ambiguities are *nasty*

There is no generic way of dealing with them

You have to understand your grammar well, and know which of the possible parses is the one you want

For a recursive-descent parser: you want to modify the grammar so that the parse you want is the first one found

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