

Discussion3 Answer

1. Derivations.

If a string belongs to a particular language, we can find a *parse tree* for it. A single nonterminal roots the parse tree (e.g. ‘**prog**’ or ‘**expr**’). This top-level nonterminal branches off into constituent nonterminals, eventually breaking down into terminals and ϵ -symbols at the leaves. *Top-down parsing* is a method of matching strings via an abstract preorder traversal of a parse tree. We’ve already seen an example of this: recursive descent! As a recap from lecture:

- *Leftmost derivation*: a sequence of rules following a preorder traversal of the parse tree.
- *Rightmost derivation*: see previous definition, but with a right-to-left preorder traversal.

The *reverse rightmost derivation* is the rightmost derivation in reverse. The reverse rightmost derivation is an instance of bottom-up parsing—the string’s lowest level details are recognized first, then mid-level details, finally leading up to the start symbol.

Consider the following grammar:

```
var  : ID ;
expr : var
      | ‘(’ ‘λ’ var ‘.’ expr ‘)’
      | ‘(’ expr expr ‘)’ ;
```

Use this grammar to construct leftmost and reverse rightmost derivations of the following strings.

- $(\lambda f.(\lambda x.(f (f x))))$

Answer:

Leftmost derivations: $\text{expr} \rightarrow^3 (\lambda \text{var}.\text{expr}) \rightarrow^1 (\lambda f.\text{expr}) \rightarrow^3 (\lambda f.(\lambda \text{var}.\text{expr})) \rightarrow^1 (\lambda f.(\lambda x.\text{expr})) \rightarrow^4 (\lambda f.(\lambda x.(\text{expr expr}))) \rightarrow^2 (\lambda f.(\lambda x.(\text{var expr}))) \rightarrow^1$

$(\lambda f.(\lambda x.(f \text{ expr}))) \rightarrow^4 (\lambda f.(\lambda x.(f (\text{expr expr})))) \rightarrow^2 (\lambda f.(\lambda x.(f (\text{var expr}))))$
 $\rightarrow^1 (\lambda f.(\lambda x.(f (f \text{ expr})))) \rightarrow^2 (\lambda f.(\lambda x.(f (f \text{ var})))) \rightarrow^1 (\lambda f.(\lambda x.(f (f x))))$

Reverse rightmost derivations: $(\lambda f.(\lambda x.(f (f x)))) \leftarrow^1 (\lambda \text{var}.(\lambda x.(f (f x)))) \leftarrow^1 (\lambda \text{var}.(\lambda \text{var}.(f (f x)))) \leftarrow^1 (\lambda \text{var}.(\lambda \text{var}.(\text{var} (f x)))) \leftarrow^2 (\lambda \text{var}.(\lambda \text{var}.(\text{expr} (f x)))) \leftarrow^1 (\lambda \text{var}.(\lambda \text{var}.(\text{expr} (\text{var} x)))) \leftarrow^2 (\lambda \text{var}.(\lambda \text{var}.(\text{expr} (\text{expr} x)))) \leftarrow^1 (\lambda \text{var}.(\lambda \text{var}.(\text{expr} (\text{expr} \text{var})))) \leftarrow^2 (\lambda \text{var}.(\lambda \text{var}.(\text{expr} (\text{expr} \text{expr})))) \leftarrow^4 (\lambda \text{var}.(\lambda \text{var}.(\text{expr} \text{expr}))) \leftarrow^4 (\lambda \text{var}.(\lambda \text{var}.\text{expr})) \leftarrow^3 (\lambda \text{var}.\text{expr}) \leftarrow^3 \text{expr}$

2. Recursive Descent Parsers.

Try writing a recursive descent parser for the grammar in Problem 1. Assume the existence of `scan(C)`, `next()`, and `ERROR()` as defined in lecture.

Answer:

```

def var():
    if next() == IDENT:
        return make_var(scan(next()))
    else:
        ERROR()

def expr():
    if next() != '(':
        return var()
    scan('(')
    if next() == 'λ':
        scan('λ')
        param = var()
        scan('.')
        body = expr()
        scan(')')
        return make_lambda(param, body)
    else:
        func = expr()
        args = expr()
        scan(')')
        return make_funcall(func, args)

```

Recursive descent parsing is simple, but sometimes onerous (lookaheads must be handled explicitly).

3. Ambiguous Grammars.

A grammar is *ambiguous* if it permits multiple distinct parse trees for some string. For example, without the order of operations, $12 - 8/4$ could parse as 1 or as 10. Make the following grammar unambiguous, and also give precedence to $'/'$ over $'-'$.

```
e : INT
  | e '-' e
  | e '/' e ;
```

Answer:

```
em : INT
    | em '/' INT ;
e  : em
    | e '-' em ;
```

As another example, consider the following grammar:

```
e : 0 | 1 ;

stmt : e ';'
      | if e then stmt
      | if e then stmt else stmt ;
```

Give an example of a string in the language that can produce multiple parse trees. Consider the string:

```
if 0 then if 1 then 0; else 1;
```

The two parse trees corresponding to this statement could be:

- (a) if 0 then (if 1 then 0; else 1;)
- (b) Or
- if 0 then (if 1 then 0;) else 1;

In other words, the else could be grouped with the first or second if statement. Most programming languages solve this ambiguity greedily; the else statement would be matched with the closest if statement, so the first grouping is what parsers for most languages end up choosing.

4. Syntax-directed Translation.

Parser-generators usually support syntax-directed translation, which is a convenient way to execute an action every time a grammar rule is matched. While defining actions, the variable $$$$ refers to a location into which the semantic value of the current symbol can be stored. The variables $\$1$, ..., $\$n$ refer to the semantic values of the symbols used to match the current rule. Here's an example:

```

p : e ';'      { printf("Result: %d\n", $1); }
e : INT        { $$ = $1; }
  | e '-' e     { $$ = $1 - $3; }
  | e '/' e     { $$ = $1 / $3; } ;

```

Write a syntax-directed translator for the first grammar you wrote for Problem 3. Also, write one for Problem 1.

Answer:

```

em : INT        { $$ = $1; }
  | em '/' em    { $$ = $1 / $3; } ;
e  : em         { $$ = $1; }
  | e '-' e ;    { $$ = $1 - $3; } ;

```

```

var : ID        { $$ = make_var($1); } ;
expr : var      { $$ = $1; }
  | '(' 'λ' var '.' expr ')' { $$ = make_lambda($3, $5); }
  | '(' expr expr ')'       { $$ = make_funcall($2, $3); } ;

```