

More Finite Automata/ Lexical Analysis /Introduction to Parsing

Lecture 7

Programming a lexer in Lisp “by hand”

- (actually picked out of `comp.lang.lisp` when I was teaching CS164 3 years ago, an example by Kent Pitman).
- Given a string like `"foo+34-bar*g(zz)"` we could separate it into a lisp list of strings:
`("foo" "+" "34" ...)` or we could try for a list of Lisp symbols like `(foo + 34 - bar * g |(| zz |)|)`.

Huh? What is `|(|`? It is the way lisp prints the symbol with `printname` `"(|` so as to not confuse the Lisp read program, and humans too.

Set up some data and predicates

```
(defvar *whitespace* '(#\Space #\Tab #\Return #\Linefeed))
```

```
(defun whitespace? (x) (member x *whitespace*))
```

```
(defvar *single-char-ops* '(#\+ #\- #\* #\/ #\(\ #\) #\. #\, #\=))
```

```
(defun single-char-op? (x) (member x *single-char-ops*))
```

Tokenize function...

```
(defun tokenize (text) ;; text is a string "ab+cd(x)"
  (let ((chars '()) (result '()))
    (declare (special chars result)) ;;explain scope
    (dotimes (i (length text))
      (let ((ch (char text i))) ;;pick out ith character of string
        (cond ((whitespace? ch)
                (next-token))
              ((single-char-op? ch)
                (next-token)
                (push ch chars)
                (next-token))
              (t
                (push ch chars))))))
    (next-token)
    (nreverse result)))
```

Next-token / two versions

```
(defun next-token () ;;simple version
  (declare (special chars result))
  (when chars
    (push (coerce (nreverse chars) 'string) result)
    (setf chars '()))))
```

```
(defun next-token () ;; this one "parses" integers magically
  (declare (special chars result))
  (when chars
    (let((st (coerce (reverse chars) 'string))) ;keep chars around
      to test
      (push (if (every #'digit-char-p chars)
                (read-from-string st)
                (intern st))
            result))
    (setf chars '()))))
```

Example

- `(tokenize "foo(-)+34")` → `(foo | (| - |) | + 34)`
- (Much) more info in file: `pitmantoken.cl`
- Missing: line/column numbers, 2-char tokens, keyword vs. identifier distinction. Efficiency here is low (but see file for how to use hash tables for character types!)
- Also note that Lisp has a programmable read-table so that its own idea of what delimits a token can be changed, as well as meanings of every character.

Introduction to Parsing

Outline

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

Languages and Automata

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

Limitations of Regular Languages

- Intuition: A finite automaton with N states that runs $N+1$ steps must revisit a state.
- Finite automaton can't remember # of times it has visited a particular state. No way of telling how it got here.
- Finite automaton can only use finite memory.
 - Only enough to store in which state it is
 - Cannot count, except up to a finite limit
- E.g., language of balanced parentheses is not regular: $\{ ({}^i)^i \mid i > 0 \}$

Context Free Grammars are more powerful

- Easy to parse balanced parentheses and similar nested structures
- A good fit for the vast majority of syntactic structures in programming languages like arithmetic expressions.
- Eventually we will find constructions that are not *CFG*, or are more easily dealt with outside the parser.

The Functionality of the Parser

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

Example

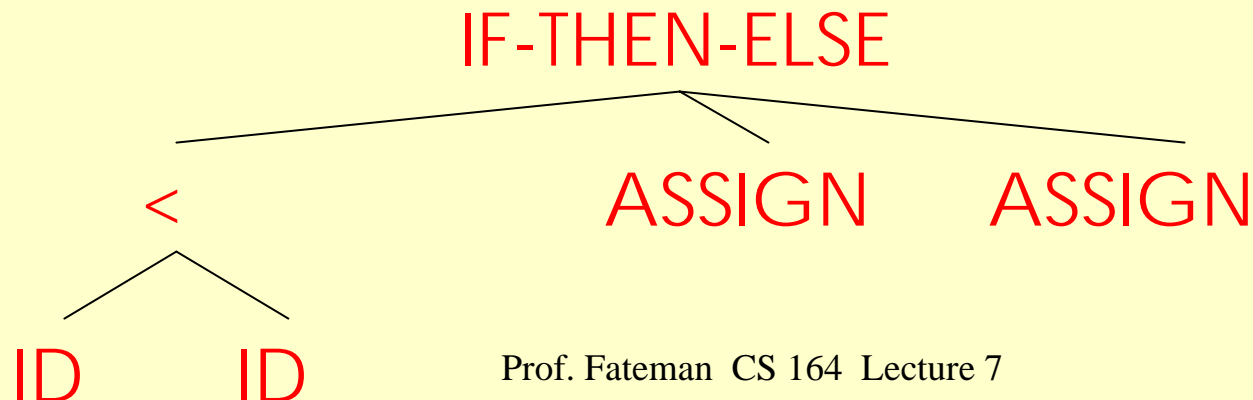
- Program Source

if (x < y) a=1; else a=2;

Lex output = parser input (simplified)

IF lpar ID < ID rpar ID = ICONST ; ID=
ICONST ICONST

- Parser output (simplified)



Example

- MJSource

```
if (x<y) a=1; else a=2;
```

- Actual lex output (from lisp...)
(fstring " if (x<y) a=1; else a=2;") →

```
(if if (1 . 10))  
(#\ ( #\ (1 . 12))  
(id x (1 . 13))  
(#\<< #\<< (1 . 14))  
(id y (1 . 15))  
(#\ ) #\ ) (1 . 16))  
(id a (1 . 18))  
(#\ = #\ = (1 . 19))  
(iconst 1 (1 . 20))  
(#\ ; #\ ; (1 . 21))  
(else else (1 . 26)) ...
```

Example

- MJSource

if (x < y) a=1; else a=2;

- Actual Parser output ; **lc** = line&column

```
(If (LessThan (IdentifierExp x) (IdentifierExp y))
    (Assign (id a lc) (IntegerLiteral 1))
    (Assign (id a lc) (IntegerLiteral 2))))
```

- Or cleaned up by taking out "extra" stuff ...

```
(If (< x y) (assign a 1) (assign a 2))
```

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

The Role of the Parser

- Not all sequences of tokens are programs . . .
- . . . Parser must distinguish between valid and invalid sequences of tokens
- Some sequences are valid only in some context, e.g. MJ requires framework.
- We need
 - A formal technique G for describing exactly and only the valid sequences of tokens (i.e. describe a language $L(G)$)
 - An "implementation" of a recognizer for L , preferably based on automatically transforming G into a program. *G for grammar.*

A test framework for trivial MJ line of code

```
class Test {  
    public static void main(String[ ] S){  
        { } }}
```

```
class fooClass {  
    public int aMethod(int value) {  
        int    a;  
        int    x;  
        int    y;  
  
        if (x<y) a=1; else a=2;  
        return 0;  
  
    }}
```

Context-Free Grammars: Why

- Programming language constructs often have an underlying recursive structure
- An **EXPR** is **EXPR + EXPR** , ... , or
A statement is **if EXPR statement; else statement** , or
while EXPR statement
...
- Context-free grammars are a natural notation for this recursive structure

Context-Free Grammars: Abstractly

- 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*, or *PAIRS* of $N \times (N \cup T)^*$

Assuming $X \in N$

$$X \rightarrow \varepsilon$$

, or

$$X \rightarrow Y_1 Y_2 \dots Y_n$$

where $Y_i \in N \cup T$

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

ϵ production; vaguely related to same symbol in RE.
 $X \rightarrow \epsilon$ means there is a rule by which X can be replaced by "nothing"

Examples of CFGs

A fragment of MiniJava

STATE \rightarrow if (EXPR) STATE;

STATE \rightarrow LVAL = EXPR

EXPR \rightarrow id

Examples of CFGs

A fragment of MiniJava

STATE \rightarrow if (EXPR) STATE;

 | LVAL = EXPR

EXPR \rightarrow id

Shorthand notation with |.

Examples of CFGs (cont.)

Simple arithmetic expression language:

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

The Language of a CFG

Read productions as replacement rules in generating sentences in a language:

$$X \rightarrow Y_1 \dots Y_n$$

Means X can be replaced by $Y_1 \dots Y_n$

$$X \rightarrow \varepsilon$$

Means X can be erased (replaced with empty string)

Key Idea

1. Begin with a string consisting of the start symbol "S"
2. Pick a non-terminal X in the string by a right-hand side of some production e.g. $X \rightarrow YZ$
...string1 X string2... \Rightarrow ...string1 YZ string2 ...
1. Repeat (2) until there are no non-terminals in the string. i.e. do \Rightarrow^*

The Language of a CFG (Cont.)

More formally, write

$$X_1 \dots X_i \dots X_n \Rightarrow X_1 \dots X_{i-1} Y_1 Y_2 \dots Y_m X_{i+1} \dots X_n$$

if there is a production

$$X_i \rightarrow Y_1 Y_2 \dots Y_m$$

Note, the double arrow denotes rewriting of strings is \Rightarrow

The Language of a CFG (Cont.)

Write $u \Rightarrow^* v$

If $u \Rightarrow \dots \Rightarrow v$

in 0 or more steps

The Language of a CFG

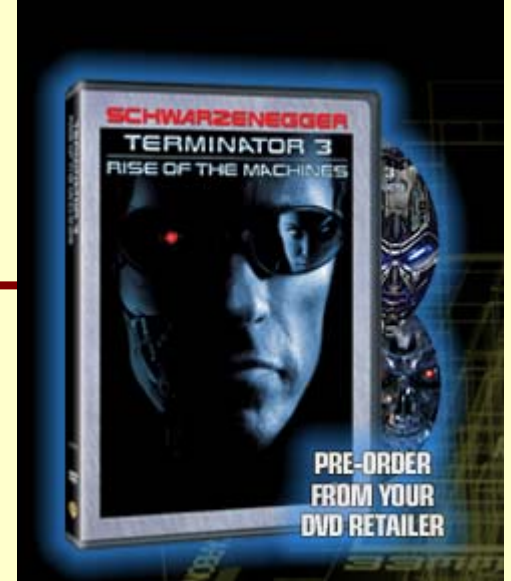
Let G be a context-free grammar with start symbol S . Then the language of G is:

$$\{a_1 \dots a_n \mid S \Rightarrow a_1 \dots a_n \text{ and every } a_i \text{ is a terminal symbol}\}$$

Terminals

Terminals are called that because there are no rules for replacing them. (terminated..)

- Once generated, terminals are permanent.
- Terminals ought to be tokens of the language, numbers, ids, not concepts like "statement".



Examples

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

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

A simple grammar:

$$S \rightarrow (S)$$

$$S \rightarrow \varepsilon$$

To be more formal..

- The alphabet Σ for G is $\{ (,) \}$, the set of two characters left and right parenthesis. This is the set of terminal symbols.
- The non-terminal symbols, N on the LHS of rules is here, a set of one element: $\{S\}$
- There is one distinguished non-terminal symbol, often S for "sentence" or "start" which is what you are trying to recognize.
- And then there is the finite list of rules or productions, technically a subset of $N \times (N \cup \Sigma)^*$

Let's produce some sentential forms of a MJgrammar

A fragment of a Tiger grammar:

```
STATE → if ( EXPR ) STATE ; else STATE  
      | while EXPR do STATE  
      | id
```

MJ Example (Cont.)

Some sentential forms of the language

id

if (expr) state; else state

while id do state;

if if id then id else id then id else id

Arithmetic Example

Simple arithmetic expressions:

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

Some elements of the language:

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

Notes

The CFG idea for describing languages is a powerful concept. Understanding its complexities can solve many important Programming Language problems.

- Membership in a CFG's language is "yes" or "no".
- But to be useful to us, a CFG parser
 - Should show how a sentence corresponds to a parse tree.
 - Should handle non-sentences gracefully (pointing out likely errors).
 - Should be easy to generate from the grammar specification "automatically" (e.g., YACC, Bison, JCC, LALR-generator)

More Notes

- Form of the grammar is important
 - Different grammars can generate the identical language
 - Tools are sensitive to the form of the grammar
 - Restrictions on the types of rules can make automatic parser generation easier

Simple grammar (3.1 in text)

1: $S \rightarrow S ; S$

2: $S \rightarrow \text{id} := E$

3: $S \rightarrow \text{print } (L)$

4: $E \rightarrow \text{id}$

5: $E \rightarrow \text{num}$

6: $E \rightarrow E + E$

7: $E \rightarrow (S , E)$

8: $L \rightarrow E$

9: $L \rightarrow L , E$

Derivations and Parse Trees

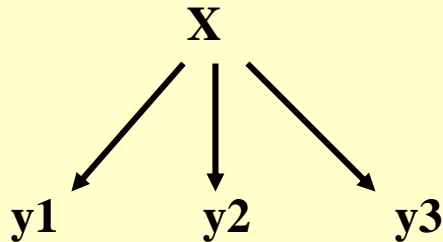
A *derivation* is a sequence of sentential forms starting with S , rewriting one non-terminal each step. A left-most derivation rewrites the left-most non-terminal.

	Using rules
<u>S</u>	2
id := <u>E</u>	6
id := <u>E</u> + E	5
id := num + <u>E</u>	5
id := num + num	

The sequence of rules tells us all we need to know! We can use it to generate a tree diagram for the sentence.

Building a Parse Tree

- Start symbol is the tree's root
- For a production $X \rightarrow y_1 y_2 y_3$ we draw



Another Derivation Example

- Grammar Rules

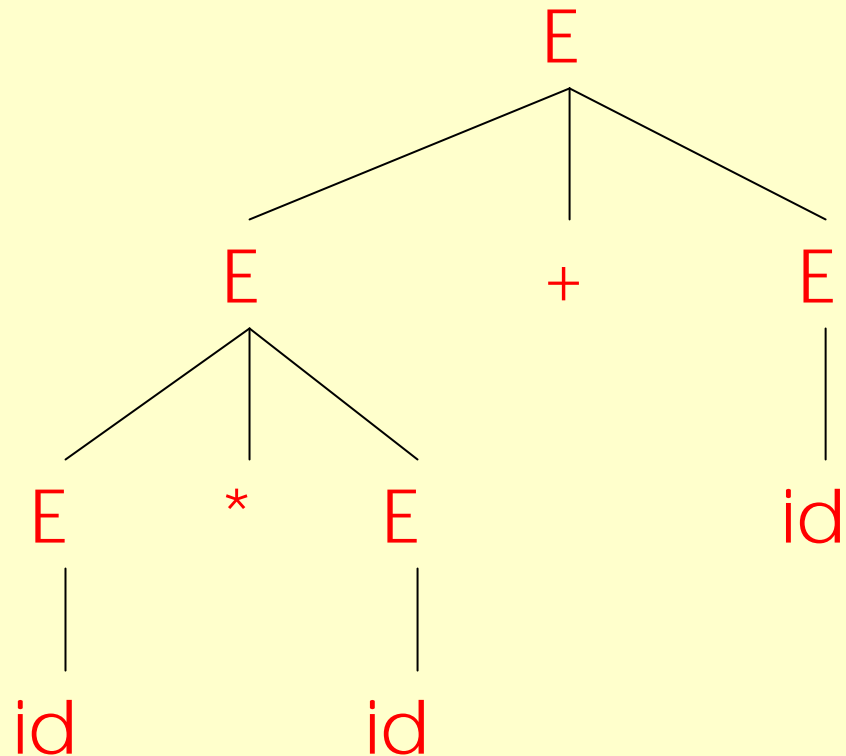
$$E \rightarrow E+E \mid E * E \mid (E) \mid id$$

- Sentential Form (input to parser)

$$id * id + id$$

Derivation Example (Cont.)

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



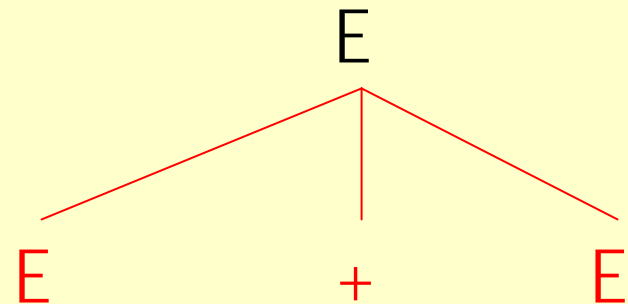
Left-Most Derivation in Detail (1)

E

E

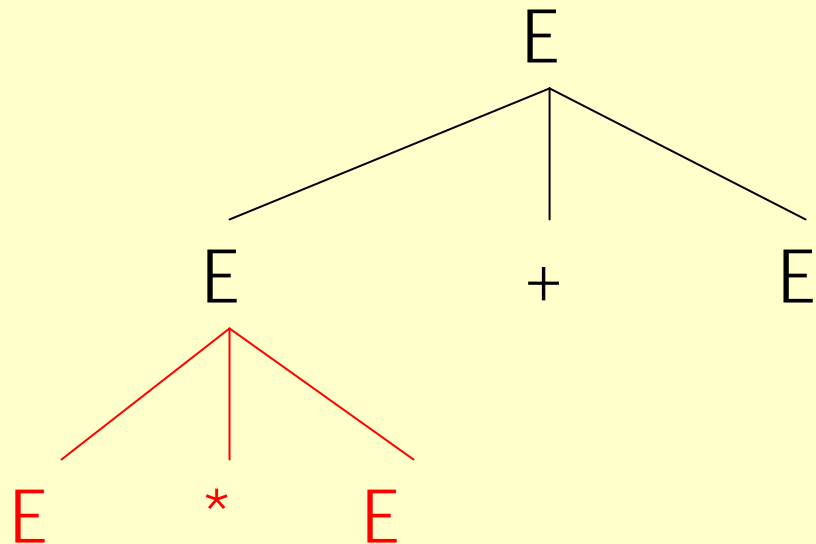
Derivation in Detail (2)

E
 $\rightarrow E+E$



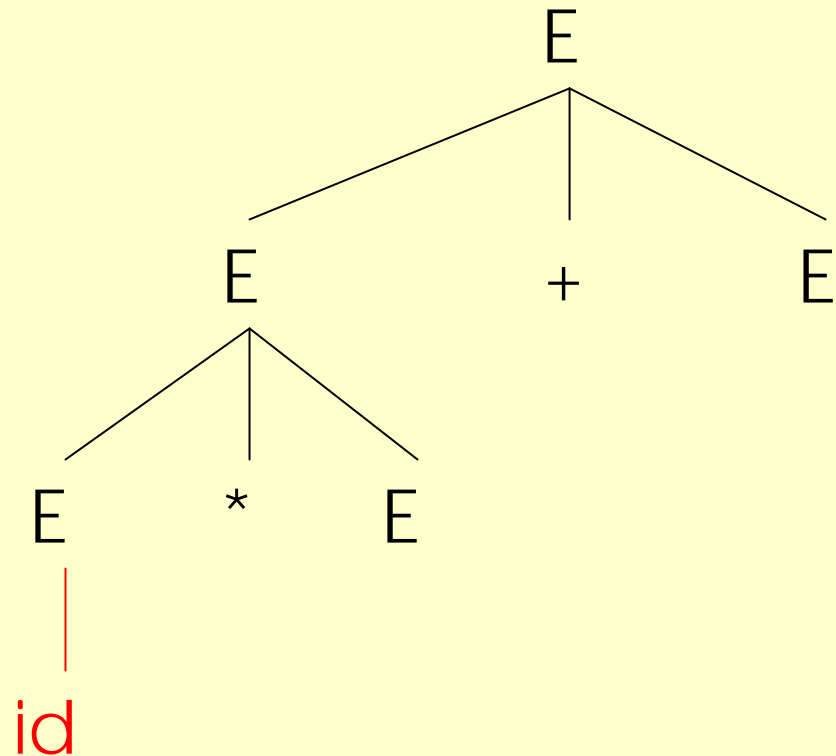
Derivation in Detail (3)

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



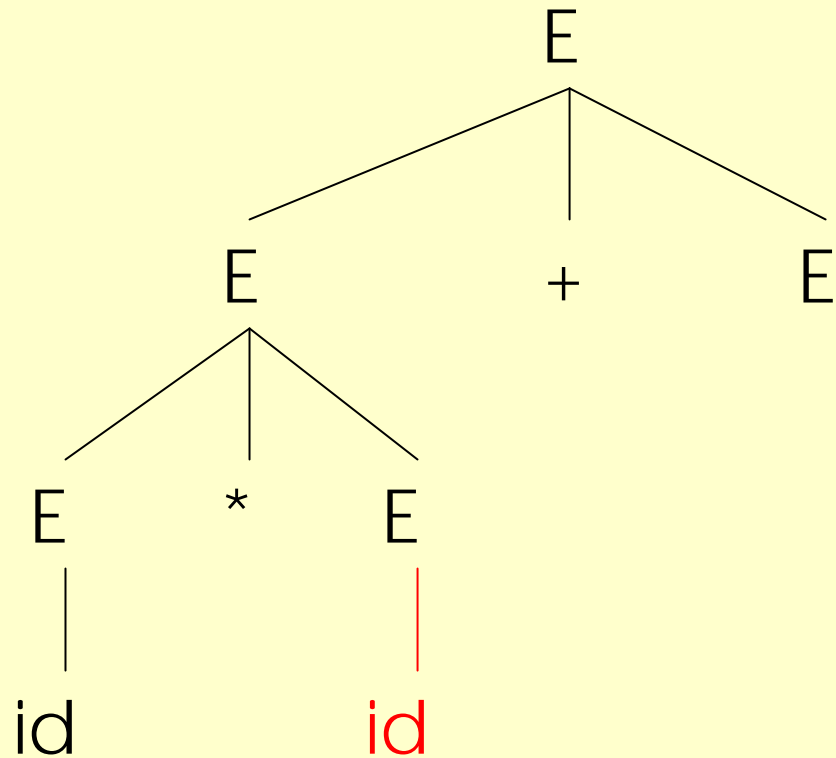
Derivation in Detail (4)

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

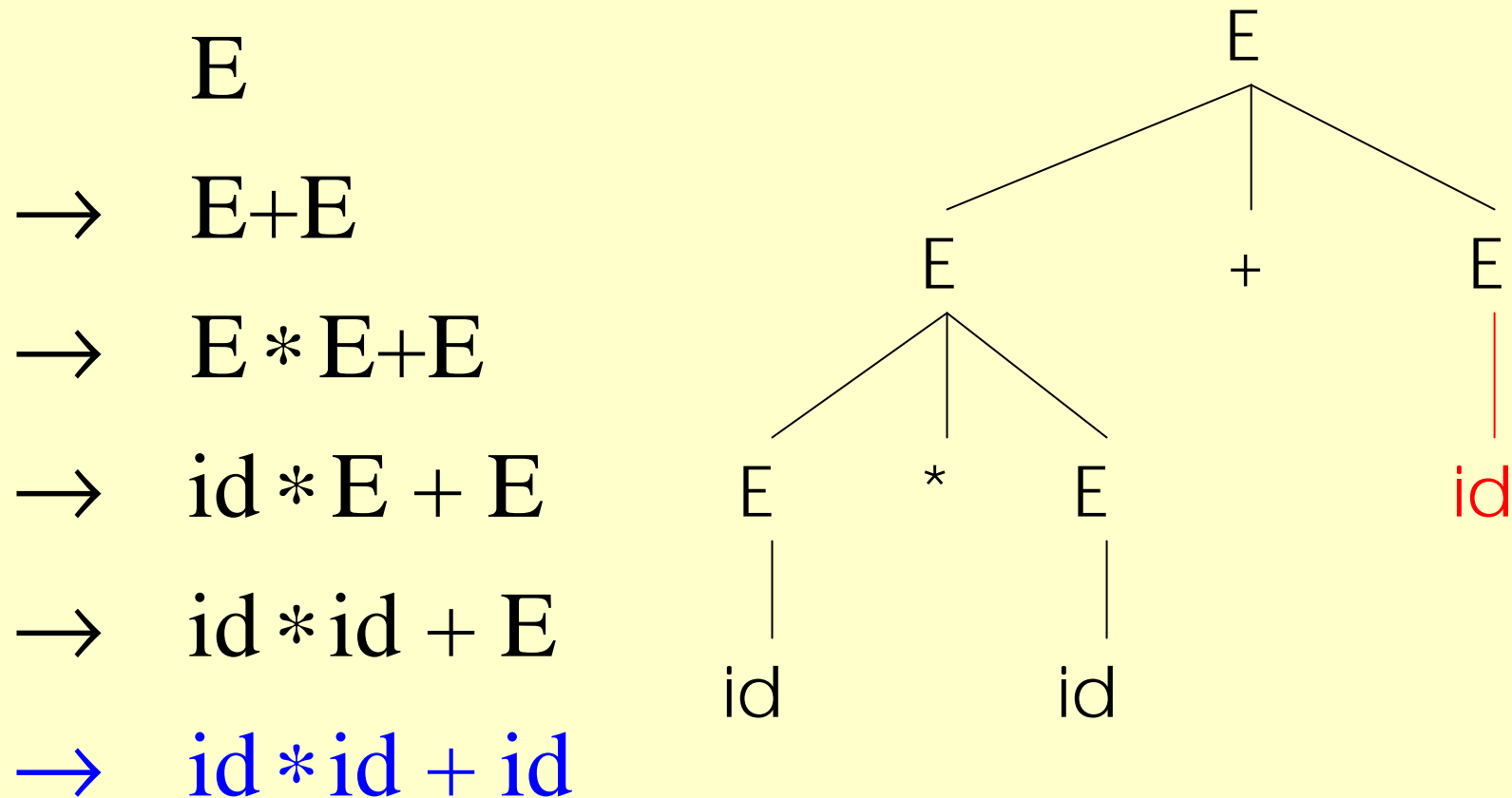


Derivation in Detail (5)

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



Derivation in Detail (6)



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, even if the input string does not

What is a Right-most Derivation?

- Our examples were *left-most* derivations

- At each step, replace the left-most non-terminal

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

E

→ E+E

→ E+id

→ E * E + id

→ E * id + id

→ id * id + id

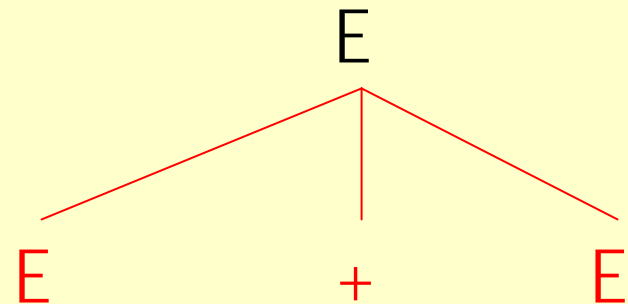
Right-most Derivation in Detail (1)

E

E

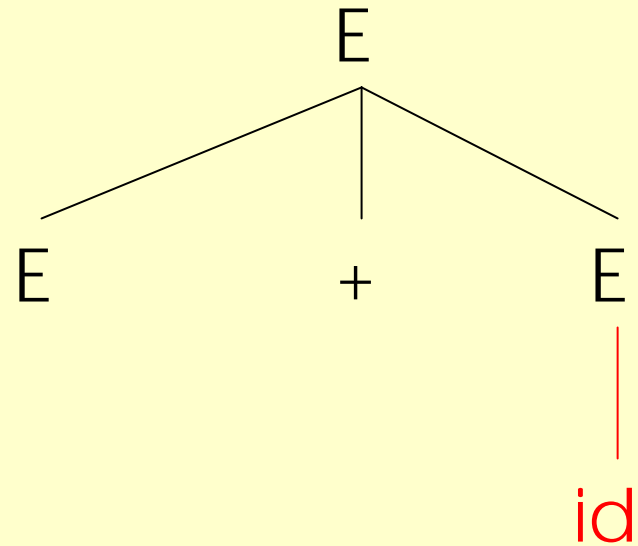
Right-most Derivation in Detail (2)

E
 $\rightarrow E+E$



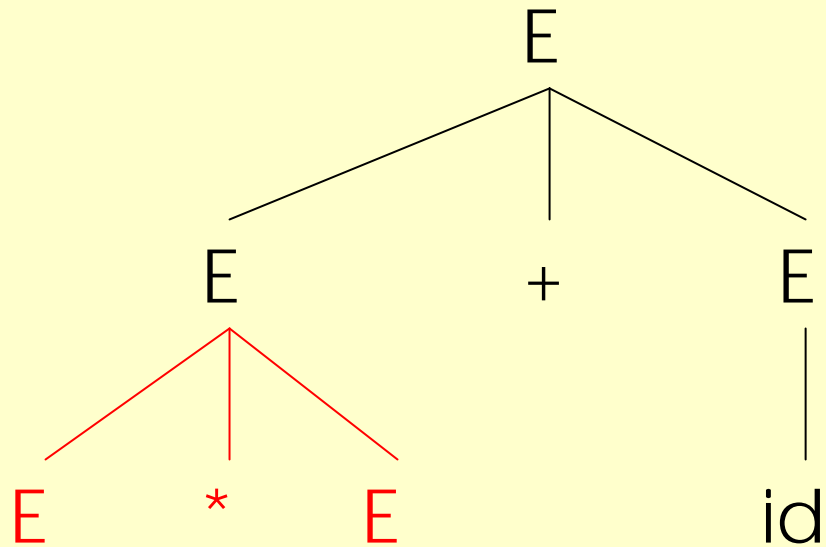
Right-most Derivation in Detail (3)

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



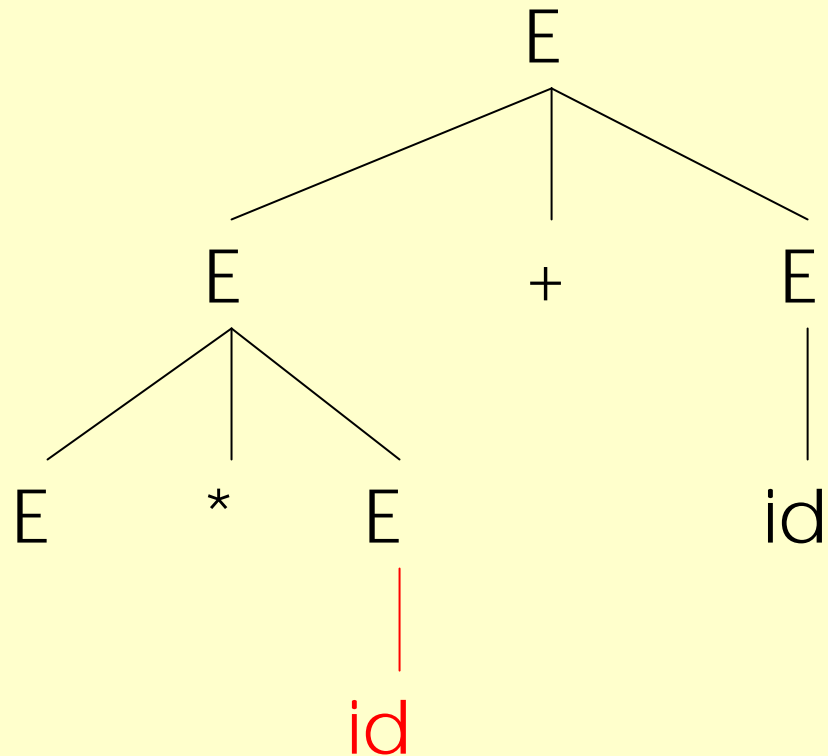
Right-most Derivation in Detail (4)

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



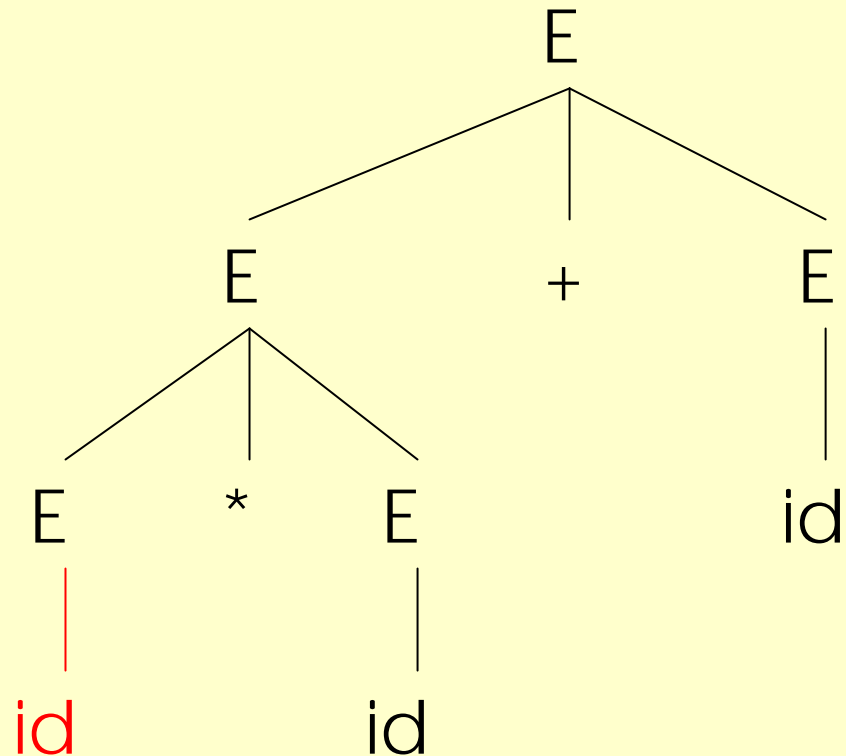
Right-most Derivation in Detail (5)

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



Right-most Derivation in Detail (6)

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



Derivations and Parse Trees

- Note that right-most and left-most derivations have the same parse tree
- The difference is the order in which branches are added

Summary: Objectives of Parsing

- 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

Question from 9/21: grammar for /* */

- The simplest way of handling this is to write a program to just suck up characters looking for */, and “count backwards”.
- Here's an attempt at a grammar
- $C \rightarrow /*A */$
- $C \rightarrow /*ACA */$
- $A1 \rightarrow a | b | c | 0 | \dots 9 | \dots$ all chars not /
- $B1 \rightarrow a | b | c | 0 | \dots 9 | \dots$ all chars not *
- $A \rightarrow A B1 | A1 B1 A B1 A1 | \epsilon$
- --To make this work, you'd need to have a grammar that covered both “real programs” and comments concatenated.