The Structure of Programming Languages

- All language processors perform some kind of syntax analysis – an analysis of the structure of the program.
- To make this efficient and effective we need some mechanism to specify the structure of a programming language in a straightforward manner.
- →We use *grammars* for this purpose.

Reading



• Read Chap 2 in ebook



- The most convenient way to describe the structure of programming languages is using a context-free grammar (often called CFG or BNF for *Backus-Nauer Form*).
- Here we will simply refer to grammars with the understanding that we are referring to CFGs. (there are many kind of other grammars: regular grammars, context-sensitive grammars, etc)



- Grammars can readily express the structure of phrases in programming languages
- Grammars allow us to derive valid sentences or programs that are part of the language by applying the rules of the grammar repeatedly until no further rule application is possible.

Listing 2.1: A grammar that specifies the syntactic structure of arithmetic expressions.

```
program : expression
1
\mathbf{2}
3
    expression : expression + expression
                    expression - expression
 4
                    expression \* expression
\mathbf{5}
                    expression / expression
6
 7
                    ( expression )
8
                    х
9
                    y
                                                                      # apply program : expression
                                      program
10
                    z
                                                                      # apply expression : expression + expression
                                      \Rightarrow expression
                                      \Rightarrow expression + expression # apply expression : x
                                      \Rightarrow x + expression
                                                                      # apply expression : y
                                      \Rightarrow x + y
```



- Grammars have 4 parts to them
 - 1. Non-terminal Symbols these give names to phrase structures e.g. program
 - Terminal Symbols these give names to the tokens in a language – e.g. x
 - 3. Rules these describe that actual structure of phrases in a language e.g. expression : expression + expression
 - Start Symbol a special non-terminal that gives a name to the largest possible phrase(s) in the language
 - By convention it is usually the non-terminal defined by the first rule.
 - In our case that would be the program non-terminal

Derivations



A derivation is a sequence of steps that begins with the start symbol and at each derivation step replaces a single non-terminal with the right side of a production that has that non-terminal on the left side. A valid sentence in the language of a grammar is a sequence of symbols arrived at through a derivation that contains only terminals.

Let's try this with: x + y * z

program

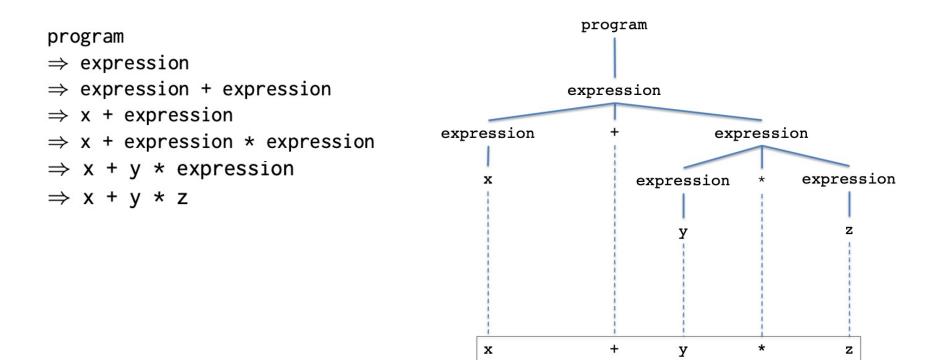
- \Rightarrow expression
- \Rightarrow expression + expression
- \Rightarrow x + expression
- \Rightarrow x + expression * expression
- \Rightarrow x + y * expression
- \Rightarrow x + y * z

Since we were able to derive our sentence from the start symbol our sentence is valid!

Parse Trees



• Derivations can also be expressed as parse trees.





Example: The Exp0 Language

```
stmt_list : stmt stmt_list
| ""
stmt : p exp ;
| s var exp ;
exp : + exp exp
| - exp exp
| \( exp \)
| var
| num
var : x | y | z
num : 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |9
```

Example Exp0 Program:

s x 1; p + x 1;



- A grammar tells us if a sentence belongs to the language,
 - e.g. Does 's x 3 ;' belong to the language?
- We can show that a sentence belongs to the language by constructing a derivation or a parse tree starting at the start symbol

s x 3 ;

```
      stmt_list : stmt stmt_list

      | ""

      stmt : p exp ;

      | s var exp ;

      exp : + exp exp

      | - exp exp

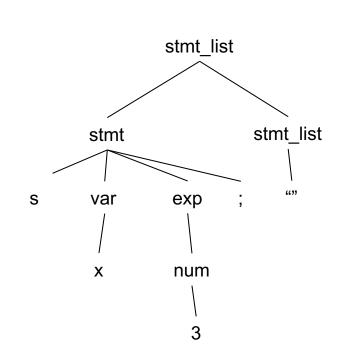
      | \( exp \)

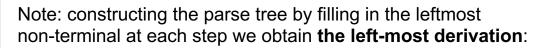
      | var

      | num

      var : x | y | z

      num : 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9
```





```
\begin{array}{ll} stmt\_list \Rightarrow \\ stmt stmt\_list \Rightarrow \\ s \ var \ exp \ ; \ stmt\_list \Rightarrow \\ s \ x \ exp \ ; \ stmt\_list \Rightarrow \\ s \ x \ num \ ; \ stmt\_list \Rightarrow \\ s \ x \ 3 \ ; \ stmt\_list \Rightarrow \\ s \ x \ 3 \ ; \end{array}
```

Constructing the parse tree by filling in the rightmost non-terminal at each step we obtain the **right-most derivation**.





- Every <u>valid</u> sentence (a sentence that belongs to the language) has a parse tree.
- Test if these sentences are valid:
 - p x + 1 ;
 - s x 1 ; s y x ;
 - s x 1 ; p (+ x 1) ;
 - sy+3x;
 - s + y 3 x ;

s	stmt_list : stmt stmt_list ""
s	stmt : p exp ; s var exp ;
e	exp : + exp exp - exp exp \(exp \) var num
v	var:x y z
n	num : 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Parsers



- The converse is also true:
 - If a sentence has a parse tree, then it belongs to the language.
 - This is precisely what <u>parsers</u> do: to show a program is <u>syntactically correct</u>, parsers construct a <u>parse tree</u>

Top-Down Parsers - LL(1)

- LL(1) parsers start constructing the parse tree at the *start symbol*
 - as opposed to bottom-up parsers, LR
- LL(1) parsers use the <u>current position</u> in the input stream and a <u>single look-ahead token</u> to decide how to construct the next node(s) in the parse tree.
- LL(1)
 - Reads input from <u>Left</u> to right.
 - Constructs the <u>Leftmost derivation</u>
 - Uses <u>1</u> look-ahead token.

Top-Down Parsing



```
Lookahead Set
                                                                     Consider: p + x 1;
stmt_list : {p,s} stmt stmt list
      | {""} ""
                                                                      For top-down parsing we can think
stmt : {p} p exp ;
                                                                      of the grammar extended with the
     | {s} s var exp;
                                                                      one token look-ahead set.
exp: \{+\} + exp exp
                                                                      The look-ahead set uniquely identifies
    | {-} - exp exp
                                                                      the selection of each rule within a
    | {(} \( exp \)
                                                                      block of rules
    | {x,y,z} var
    | {0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9} num
var : {x} x | {y} y | {z} z
num : {0} 0 | {1} 1 | {2} 2 | {3} 3 | {4} 4 | {5} 5 | {6} 6 | {7} 7 | {8} 8 | {9} 9
```

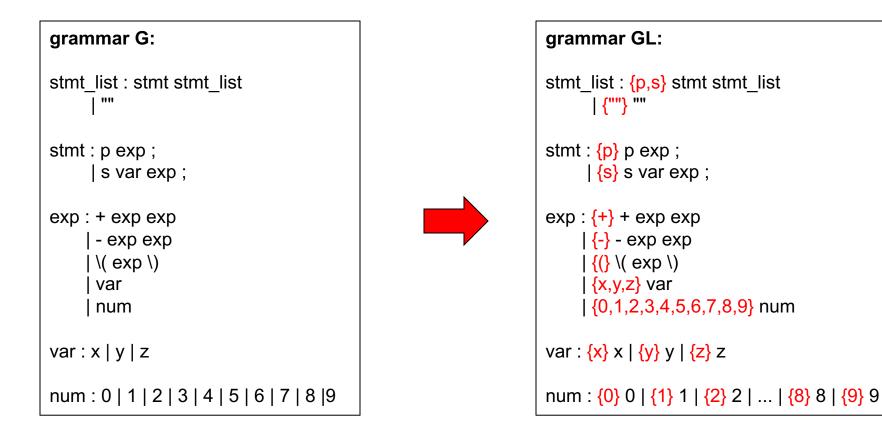
```
def compute lookahead sets(G):
    1.1.1
    Accepts: G is a context-free grammar viewed as a list of rules
    Returns: GL is a context-free grammar extended with lookahead sets
    1.1.1
    GL = []
    for R in G:
        (A, rule body) = R
        S = first symbol(rule body)
        if S == "":
            GL.append((A, set([""]), rule body))
        elif S in terminal set(G):
            GL.append((A, set(S), rule body))
        elif S in non terminal set(G):
            L = lookahead set(S,G)
            GL.append((A, L, rule body))
    return GL
```

Note: a grammar is a list of rules and a rule is the tuple (non-terminal, body) Note: a grammar extended with lookahead sets is a list of rules where each rule is the tuple (non-terminal, lookahead-set, body)

```
def lookahead set(N, G):
    1.1.1
    Accepts: N is a non-terminal in G
    Accepts: G is a context-free grammar
    Returns: L is a lookahead set
    1.1.1
   L = set()
    for R in G:
        (A, rule body) = R
        if A == N:
            Q = first symbol(rule body)
            if 0 == "":
                raise ValueError("non-terminal {} is a nullable prefix".format(A))
            elif Q in terminal set(G):
                L = L \mid set(Q)
            elif Q in non terminal set(G):
                L = L | lookahead set(Q, G)
    return L
```

set union operator in Python





- Actually, the algorithm we have outlined computes the lookahead set for a simpler parsing technique called sLL(1) – simplified LL (1) parsing.
- sLL(1) parsing does not deal with non-terminals that expand into the empty string in the first position of a production – also called *nullable prefixes*.
- All our parsers will be sLL(1)
 - Later in the course we will discuss a tool called Ply and we will have access to another parsing technique called LR(1) – which is bottom-up parsing

Constructing a Parser



- A sLL(1) parser can be constructed by hand by converting each non-terminal into a function
- The body of the function implements the right sides of the rules for each non-terminal in order to:
 - Process terminals
 - Call the functions of other non-terminals as appropriate



- A parser for Exp0
 - We start with the grammar for Exp0 extended with the lookahead sets



We need to set up some sort of character input stream. In our case we use the 'InputStream' class

Note: all the Python code given in the slides is available in the repl.it VM.

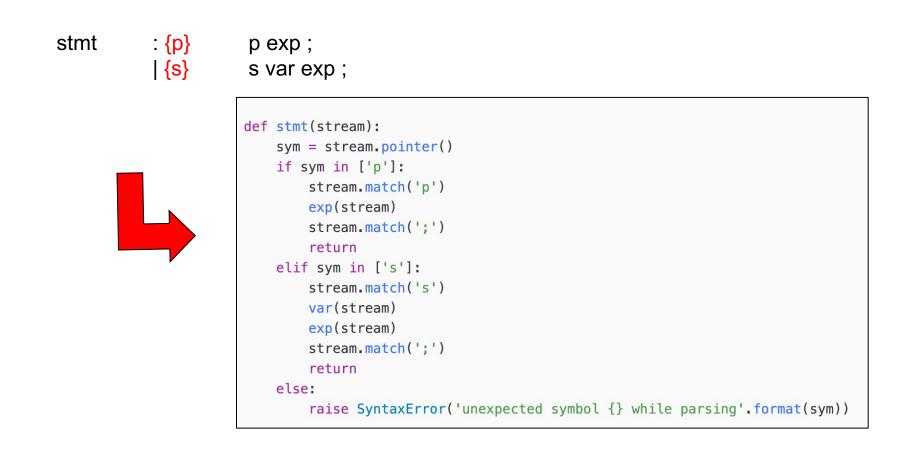
Note: the parser for Exp0 is in 'exp0'

The Stream Class

It is convenient to map the input string into a stream structure.

```
class InputStream:
    def __init__(self, char_stream=None):
        # if no stream given read it from the terminal
       if not char_stream:
            char stream = stdin.read()
        # turn char stream into a list of characters
        # ignoring any kind of white space
        clean_stream = char_stream.replace(' ','') \
                                  .replace('\t','') \
                                  .replace('\n','')
        self.stream = [c for c in clean stream]
        self.stream.append('\eof')
        self.stream_ix = 0
    def pointer(self):
        return self.stream[self.stream_ix]
    def next(self):
        if not self.end of file():
            self.stream ix += 1
        return self.pointer()
    def match(self, sym):
        if sym == self.pointer():
            s = self.pointer()
            self.next()
            return s
        else:
            raise SyntaxError('unexpected symbol {} while parsing, expected {}
                              .format(self.stream[self.stream_ix], sym))
    def end_of_file(self):
        if self.pointer() == '\eof':
            return True
        else:
            return False
```



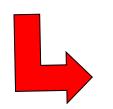


Notice that we are using the look-ahead set to decide which rule to call!



Consider the following rule:

stmt_list : {p,s} stmt stmt_list



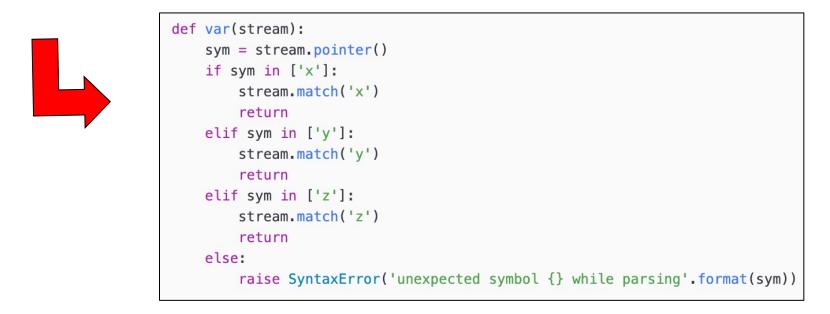
def	<pre>f stmtlist(stream):</pre>						
	<pre>sym = stream.pointer()</pre>						
	if sym in ['p','s']:						
	<pre>stmt(stream)</pre>						
	<pre>stmtlist(stream)</pre>						
	return						
	else:						
	return						





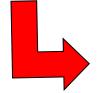


var : { x } x | { y } y | { z } z





num : $\{0\}0|\{1\}1|...|\{9\}9$



def num(stream): sym = stream.pointer() if sym in ['0']: stream.match('0') return elif sym in ['1']: stream.match('1') return elif sym in ['2']: stream.match('2') return elif sym in ['3']: stream.match('3') return elif sym in ['4']: stream.match('4') return elif sym in ['5']: stream.match('5') return elif sym in ['6']: stream.match('6') return elif sym in ['7']: stream.match('7') return elif sym in ['8']: stream.match('8') return elif sym in ['9']: stream.match('9') return else: raise SyntaxError('unexpected symbol {} while parsing'.format(sym))



 To pull this all together we add a high-level parsing function

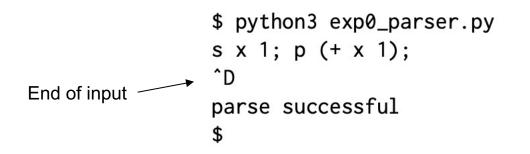
```
def parse():
    from inputstream import InputStream
    stream = InputStream() # reads from stdin
    try:
        stmtlist(stream) # call the parser function for start symbol
        if stream.end_of_file():
            print("parse successful")
        else:
            raise SyntaxError("bad syntax at {}".format(stream.pointer()))
    except Exception as e:
        print("error: " + str(e))

if __name__ == "__main__":
    parse()
```

Running the Parser



• Run the parser in a command shell, in our case we use the cloud based Linux VM



Class Exercise

• Please see BrightSpace



Parsers build Parse Trees



call tree == parse tree

To see that parsers build parse trees in order to prove that a sentence belongs to a language consider the expression: + x y

var

match(y)

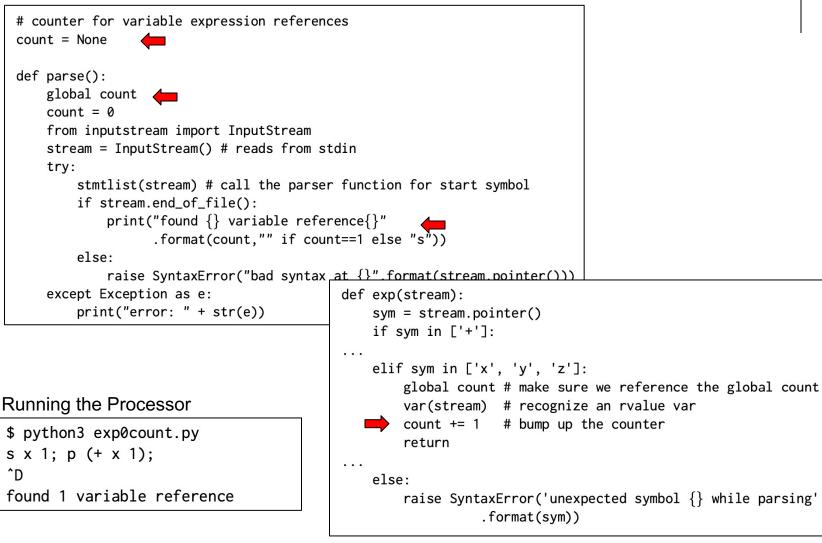
<pre>def exp(stream): sym = stream.pointer() if sym in ['+']: stream.match('+') exp(stream) return elif sym in ['-']: stream.match('-') exp(stream) return elif sym in ['(']: stream.match('(') stream.match('(')</pre>	<pre>def var(stream): sym = stream.pointer() if sym in ['x']: stream.match('x') return elif sym in ['y']: stream.match('y') return elif sym in ['z']: stream.match('z') return else: raise SyntaxError('unexpected states)</pre>	symbol {} wh:	ile parsing'.format(sym))	
<pre>stream.match(')') return elif sym in ['x', 'y', 'z']: var(stream) return elif sym in ['0', '1', '2', '3' num(stream) return else:</pre>	<pre>exp(stream) stream.match(')') return elif sym in ['x', 'y', 'z']: var(stream) return elif sym in ['0', '1', '2', '3', '4', '5', '6', '7', '8', '9']: num(stream) return</pre>		Parsing + x y will exp match(+) exp var match(x) exp	result	in the following tree: Parsing function call tree == parse

Our First Language Processor



- Parsers are good because they can tell us if a program is valid or not
- But we have to extend it with "actions", code that does something useful in order to go beyond just parsing
- Idea: Our first language processor parses Exp0 programs and counts the number of times the value of a variable is accessed
 - Example: s x 1; s x (+ x 1);
 - In this program we only access the value of a variable once!
- Note: Scanning for variable names and counting the number of times a variable name occurs does NOT work, we need to use a parser that understands the difference between a variable value reference and a variable storage reference (rvalues and lvalues, respectively).

Extended Parser





Assignments

- Read Chapter 2
- Assignment #1 -- see BrightSpace

