
Inductive Definitions

Languages, Grammars, Parsing

Motivation: Parsing

- Parsing is the act of turning text into meaningful information.
- Example:
 - **Programming language:** Parsing makes the language into an executable machine language program.
 - **Calculator:** Parsing interprets the symbols to carry out the calculation being represented.
$$345 + 62.7 * 84.9$$
doesn't have a "magical" meaning; we have to give it one.

Grammars, and Induction

- Grammars provide a **plan** for parsing; they define the **syntax** of a language.
- Grammars are an instance of a more general concept: **Inductive Definitions**.
- rex rules are often inductive definitions; but grammars may be **non-deterministic** for a reason.

Inductive Definitions

- Inductive definitions are the main “constructive” way to define **infinite sets**.
- We will need infinite sets in much of what follows.

Inductive Definitions

- Elements of an inductive definition of a set S .
 - Basis
 - Induction rule(s)
 - Extremal clause

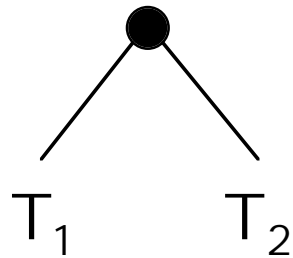
Inductive Definitions

- Elements of an inductive definition of a set S :
 - **Basis:** Defines a few items to be in S .
 - **Induction rule(s):** Introduce new items in S based on existence of other, usually simpler, items.
 - **Extremal clause:** Says that the only items in S are those derivable by the previous two elements, applied any finite number of times.

Example of I D: Binary Trees

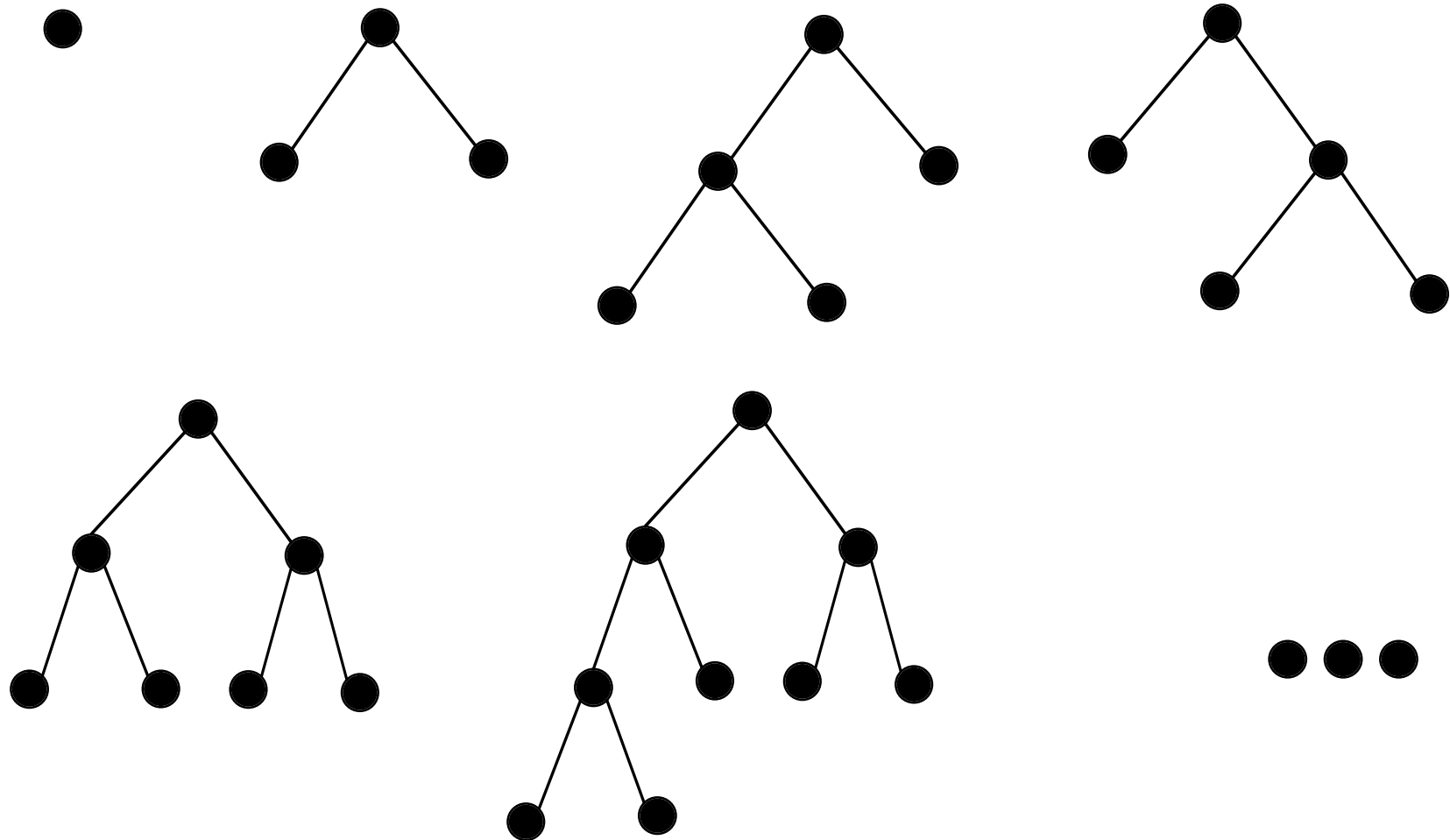
- ● is a binary tree.
- If T_1 and T_2 are binary trees, then so

is:



- Extremal clause: The only binary trees are those constructible by a finite number of applications of the above rules.

Examples of Binary Trees



Example of I D: Natural Numbers ω

- **Basis:** 0 is in ω .
- **Induction:** If n is in ω , so is the successor of n (variously denoted n' , $S(n)$, or $n+1$).
- **Extremal:** The only elements in ω are those derivable by applications of the above rules.
- **Examples:** $0, 0', 0'', 0''', 0'''' , \dots$ are all elements of ω .

Notes

- ω is an **infinite** set.
- ω 's members are all **finite**.
- ω does *not* contain infinity (∞) as an element.

Interpretations of Successor (')

- What are $0'$, $0''$, $0'''$, ... really?
 - Strings of symbols, **or**
 - Things that can be constructed from **sets**, a more primitive concept.
 - Two variations:
 - 0 is $\{\}$, the empty set; X' is the set $\{X\}$, **or**
 - 0 is $\{\}$, the empty set; X' is the set $X \cup \{X\}$.
 - In the second example: 0 is $\{\}$, $0'$ is $\{\{\}\}$,
 $0''$ is $\{\{\}, \{\{\}\}\}$, $0'''$ is $\{\{\}, \{\{\}\}, \{\{\}, \{\{\}\}\}$, ...
 - Advantage: $0^{n'}$ is a set **with n distinct members**.

Decimal Numerals

- We can agree by convention that
 - 1 stands for $0'$,
 - 2 stands for $0''$,
 - ...
 - 9 stands for $0''''''''''$.
 - Beyond that, give an algorithm for generating additional numerals:
10, 11, 12, 13, ...

Decimal Numbering Rule

- The successor of x_0 (concatenation) is x_1 , the successor of x_1 is x_2 , ..., and the successor of x_8 is x_9 .
- The successor of x_9 is y_0 where y is the successor of x .
- Example: 0, 1, ..., 9, 10, 11, ..., 19, 20, 21, ..., 99, 100, ...

1-adic Numerals

- The only digit is 1.
- The empty string (denoted λ so it is readable) stands for 0.
- 1X (1 followed by X) stands for X' .
- The numerals are:
 $\lambda, 1, 11, 111, 1111, 11111, \dots$
- Could also use lists: $[], [1], [1, 1], [1, 1, 1], \dots$

2-adic Numerals

- The digits are 1 and 2.
- The empty string (denoted λ so it is visible) stands for 0.
- The numerals are:
 $\lambda, 1, 2, 11, 12, 21, 22, 111, 112, \dots$
- Unlike binary numerals, there is **no redundancy** (1, 01, 001, 0001, ... all mean the same thing in binary).

Roman Numerals

- The digits are I , V , X , L , C , D , M.
- There is no string for 0.
- The successor of I is $s(I) = II$, $s(II) = III$, $s(III) = IV$, etc.

Numerals vs. Numbers

- **Numbers** are abstract.
- **Numerals** are a concrete *representation* of numbers.

Strings over an alphabet Σ

- The set of *all* finite strings over an alphabet Σ is denoted Σ^* .
- Example:
 - $\{a, b\}^* =$
 $\{\lambda, a, b, aa, ab, ba, bb, aaa, aab, aba, \dots\}$

Strings over an alphabet Σ

- Basis: λ is in Σ^* .
- Inductive rule: If $x \in \Sigma^*$ and $\sigma \in \Sigma$, then σx (σ followed by x) is in Σ^* .
- Extremal clause.

Languages

- A language over Σ is any subset of Σ^* .
- Examples, where $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$
 - $\{a, b\}^*$ itself
 - $\{ \}$ the empty language
 - $\{ba, baba\}$ maybe your first language
 - $\{\lambda, aa, aaaa, aaaa, aaaaaa, \dots\}$ the language of an even number of a's.

More Languages

- Examples, where $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$
 - $\{\lambda, ab, ba, aabb, abab, baab, bbaa, aaabbb, aababb, \dots\}$ the language in which the number of a's equals the number of b's.
 - $\{a, b, aa, bb, aab, aba, baa, abb, bab, bba, \dots\}$ the language in which the number of a's is *not* equal to the number of b's.
 - $\{ab, abab, aabb, aababb, \dots\}$ a language you might recognize.

Languages

- There are lots of languages, some very weird.
- To be of computational interest, a language needs to be defined **inductively**.
- We need a way of telling whether a given string is in the language or not (called *parsing* the string).

Non-Trivial Language Defined Inductively

- $L = \{ab, abab, aabb, aababb, \dots\}$
- Basis: ab is in L .
- Inductive rules:
 - If x is in L , so is axb .
 - If x_1 and x_2 are in L , so is x_1x_2 .

Grammars: A Shorthand

- Spelling everything out with these inductive definitions is laborious.
- We need a shorthand, especially for more complex languages.
- The idea comes from linguistics and early work on computer languages.

Grammatical Definition

- There is a “start symbol”, or “root”, say S , *not* in the alphabet of the language itself.
- \rightarrow is a symbol meaning “can be rewritten as”.
- Grammar rules:
 - $S \rightarrow ab$
 - $S \rightarrow aSb$
 - $S \rightarrow SS$
- Application of rules is by “free choice”.
- A sequence of applications is called a **derivation**.
- The strings in the language are those that **don't** include S .

Using the Grammar Rules

- Grammar rules:
 - $S \rightarrow ab$
 - $S \rightarrow aSb$
 - $S \rightarrow SS$
- Example derivations of strings in the language:
 - $S \Rightarrow ab$
 - $S \Rightarrow aSb \Rightarrow aabb$
 - $S \Rightarrow aSb \Rightarrow aaSbb \Rightarrow aaabbb$
 - $S \Rightarrow SS \Rightarrow abS \Rightarrow abab$
 - $S \Rightarrow SS \Rightarrow SSS \Rightarrow ababab$
 - $S \Rightarrow SS \Rightarrow aSbS \Rightarrow aabbS \Rightarrow aabbaSb \Rightarrow aabbaabb$

Generalizing Grammar Rules

- Instead of just S , allow multiple symbols, called **auxiliaries**, none of which are in the alphabet of the language.
- A distinguished auxiliary is called the **root** or "**start symbol**".
- The symbols in the alphabet of the language are called **terminals**.
- The rules are known as **productions**.

Example:

Grammar for Additive Arithmetic Expressions

- The root is A .
- The terminals are $\{a, b, c, +\}$.
- The productions are:
 - $A \rightarrow V$
 - $A \rightarrow V + A$
 - $V \rightarrow a$
 - $V \rightarrow b$
 - $V \rightarrow c$

Example Derivations

- The productions are:

- $A \rightarrow V$

- $A \rightarrow V + A$

- $V \rightarrow a$

- $V \rightarrow b$

- $V \rightarrow c$

- Sample derivations:

- $A \Rightarrow V \Rightarrow a$

- $A \Rightarrow V \Rightarrow c$

- $A \Rightarrow V + A \Rightarrow c + A \Rightarrow c + V \Rightarrow c + a$

- $A \Rightarrow V + A \Rightarrow c + A \Rightarrow c + V + A \Rightarrow c + b + A \Rightarrow c + b + V \Rightarrow c + b + a$

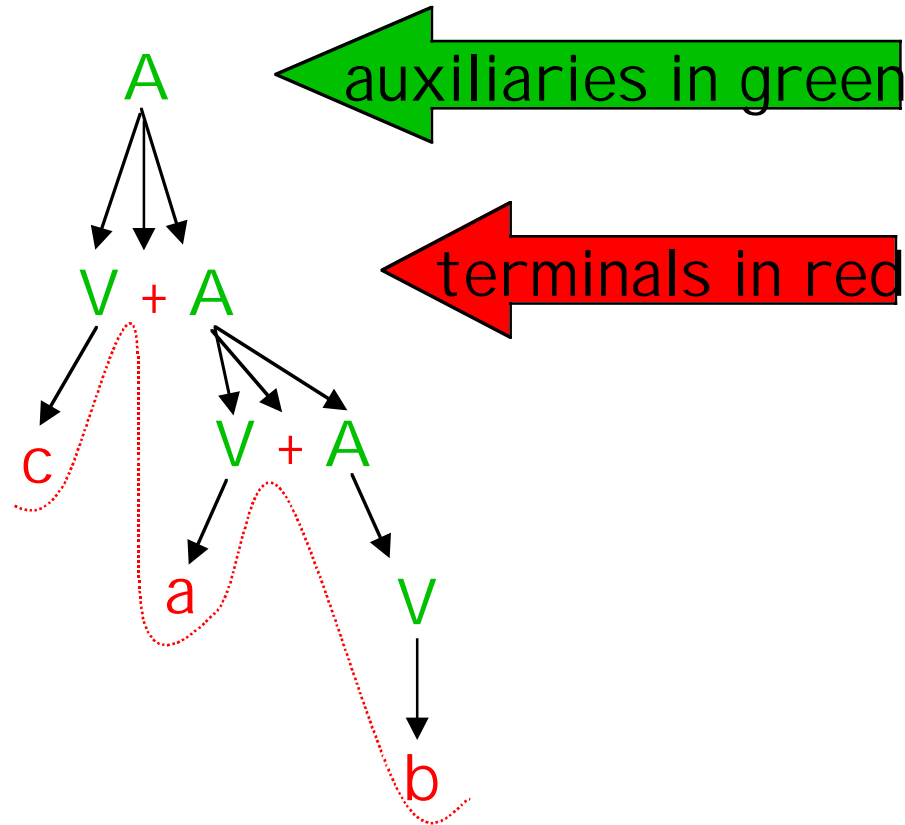
Shorthands on top of Shorthands

- The productions are:
 - $A \rightarrow V$
 - $A \rightarrow V + A$
 - $V \rightarrow a$
 - $V \rightarrow b$
 - $V \rightarrow c$
- Group by common left-hand sides
- Use | (read "or") to represent alternatives:
 - $A \rightarrow V \mid V + A$
 - $V \rightarrow a \mid b \mid c$
- Note: | "binds more loosely" than other symbols.
- Same grammar, just a briefer notation.

Derivation Tree Visualization

$A \rightarrow V \mid V + A$
 $V \rightarrow a \mid b \mid c$

arrows indicate
that a production
is being applied

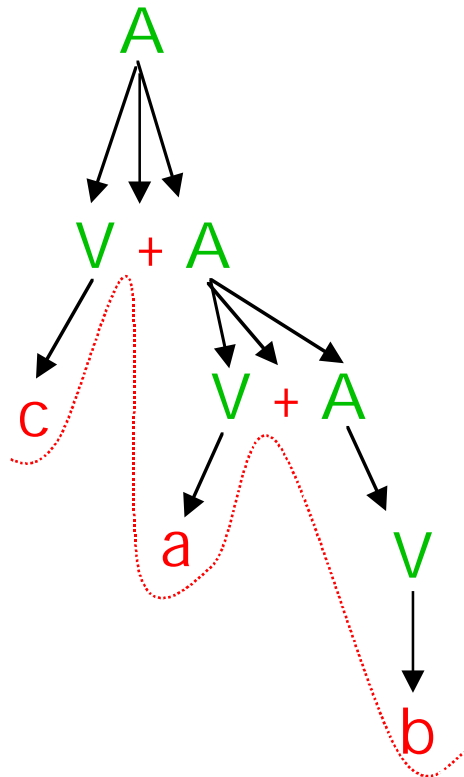


Terminal string = red "fringe" of tree = "c + a + b"

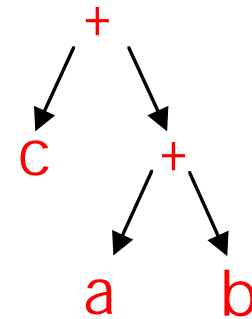
Syntax Tree (!= Derivation Tree)

Shows Implied "Interpretation" of String

Derivation Tree

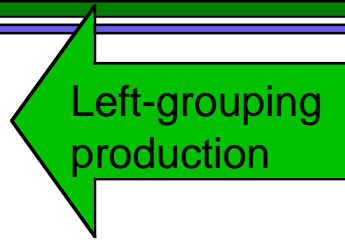


Syntax Tree



Right Grouping (used so far) vs. Left Grouping Productions

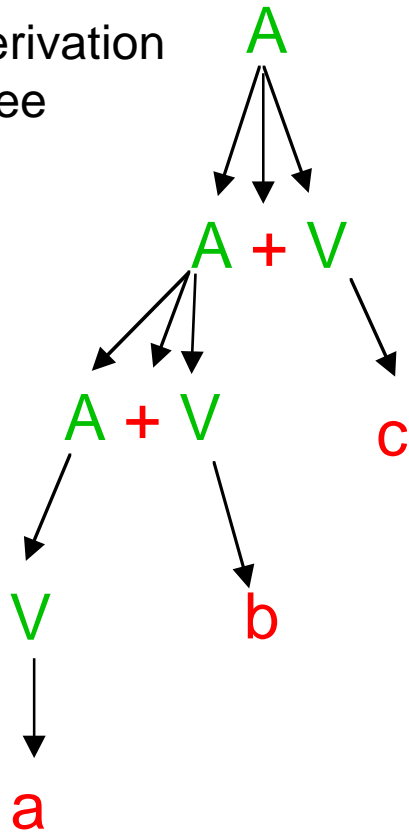
$A \rightarrow A + V \mid V$
 $V \rightarrow a \mid b \mid c$



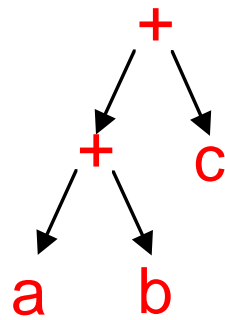
Right-grouping production

$A \rightarrow V + A \mid V$
 $V \rightarrow a \mid b \mid c$

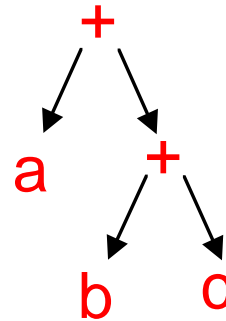
Derivation Tree



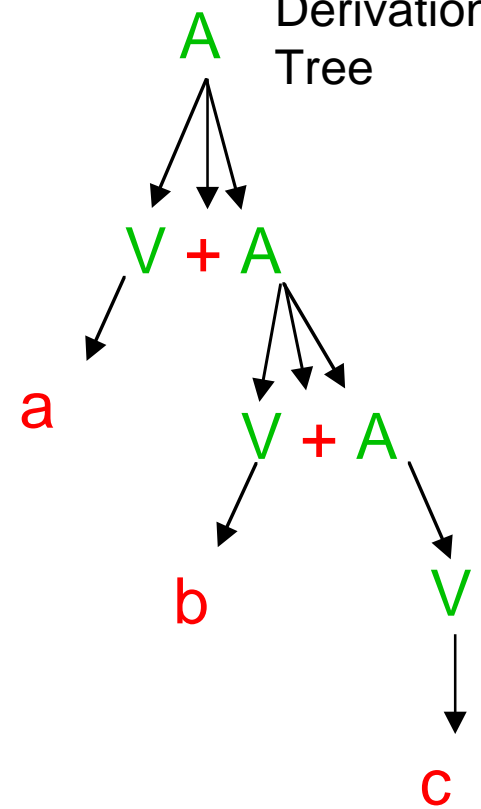
Syntax Tree



Syntax Tree



Derivation Tree



Does Grouping Matter?

- Mathematically, + is an associative operator:

$$(a + b) + c == a + (b + c)$$

- However:
 - There **are** non-associative operators, such as -, where it does matter.
 - $(a - b) - c \neq a - (b - c)$
 - On computers, for floating point addition, associativity does not always hold.

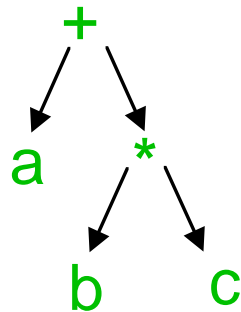
Precedence Issue

(multiple operator symbols)

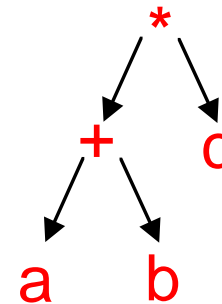
- How do we ensure that the syntax tree of

$$a + b^*c$$

looks like **this**:



and not **this**:

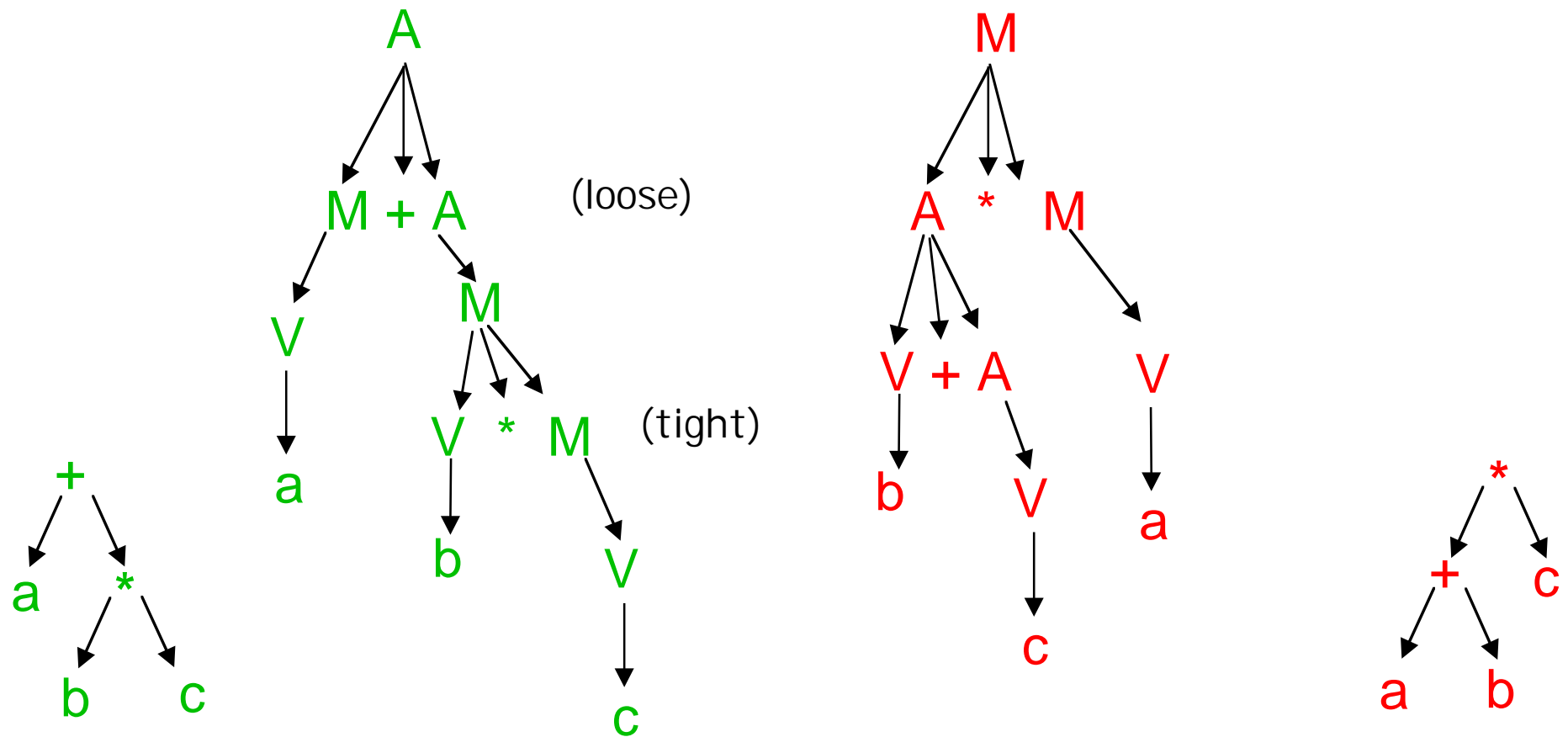


Multiple Auxiliaries

- We want * to “bind more tightly” than +.
- Use a different auxiliary symbol for each level of precedence.
- Arrange it so that expansions from the tighter binding auxiliary symbol can only be done **after** those of the looser binding auxiliary.

Precedence Issue

- We must ensure that the **derivation** tree for $a+b*c$ looks like **this**: and not **this**:



Example:
Grammar for Additive & Multiplicative
Arithmetic Expressions

- The root is A .
- The terminals are $\{a, b, c, +, *\}$.
- The productions are:
 - $A \rightarrow M + A \mid M$
 - $M \rightarrow V * M \mid V$
 - $V \rightarrow a \mid b \mid c$
- Intuitive rule: Operator “farther from the root” binds more tightly

Syntactic Categories

- The various auxiliary symbols typically represent **syntactic categories**: sets of sub-expressions having a certain type of meaning.
- Categories:
 - $A \rightarrow M + A \mid M$ S is a "sum"
 - $M \rightarrow V * M \mid V$ P is a "product"
 - $V \rightarrow a \mid b \mid c$ V is a "variable"

Example Derivations

- The productions are:
 - $A \rightarrow M + A \mid M$
 - $M \rightarrow V * M \mid V$
 - $V \rightarrow a \mid b \mid c$
- Sample derivations (A is the syntactic category):
 - $A \Rightarrow M \Rightarrow V \Rightarrow a$
 - $A \Rightarrow M + A \Rightarrow V + A \Rightarrow a + A \Rightarrow a + M \Rightarrow a + V \Rightarrow a + b$
 - $A \Rightarrow M + A \Rightarrow V + A \Rightarrow a + A \Rightarrow a + M \Rightarrow a + V * M$
 $\Rightarrow a + b * M \Rightarrow a + b * c$
 - $A \Rightarrow M + A \Rightarrow V * M + A \Rightarrow a * M + A \Rightarrow a * V + A$
 $\Rightarrow a * b + A \Rightarrow a * b + M \Rightarrow a * b + V \Rightarrow a * b + c$

Example Syntactic Categories

- The productions are:
 - $A \rightarrow M + A \mid M$
 - $M \rightarrow V * M \mid V$
 - $V \rightarrow a \mid b \mid c$
- Sample sub-derivations:
 - **Derivations from M:**
 - $M \Rightarrow V \Rightarrow a$
 - $M \Rightarrow V * M \Rightarrow a * M \Rightarrow a * V \Rightarrow a * b$
 - $M \Rightarrow V * M \Rightarrow a * M \Rightarrow a * V * M \Rightarrow a * b * M \Rightarrow a * b * V \Rightarrow a * b * a$
 - Observation: Derivations from M don't include any +'s.

Exercise: Include ^ (power)

- ^ binds the most tightly
- * is next
- + is the weakest

How to handle '(')'

- Parentheses means
“handle inside as a single unit”
- Parallel level to a single **variable**
 - Sometimes called “primaries”

Two Main Language Problems

- Recognition problem:
Is a given string in the language?
- Meaning problem:
What is the meaning of a string if it *is* in the language?

Naïve Solution to the Recognition Problem

- To determine whether string x is in the language generated by a grammar:
 - Start with the start symbol.
 - Generate strings successively by applying productions.
 - Eventually either:
 - The string x is generated, **or**
 - The new strings being generated all exceed x in length.
 - So we can tell whether or not x is *ever* generated.

Parsing

- Parsing seeks to solve both problems:
 - Recognition
 - Meaning
- In addition, it tries to do recognition much more efficiently than the naïve solution.

Recursive Descent Parsing

- Simplest reasonably general form of parsing.
- Works for many, but not all grammars.
- Sometimes a grammar can be transformed to enable recursive descent.
- Recall that each auxiliary symbol in the grammar can be identified with a **syntactic category**, the set of strings that can be generated from that symbol (possibly with the help of other symbols). The meaning will derive from this idea.

Recursive Descent

- It's called "recursive" because in general grammar productions can "call" themselves or **each other**.
- It's called "descent" because parsing starts at the **root** of a "derivation tree" and proceeds toward the leaves.

Parse Methods

- For each auxiliary symbol in the grammar, construct a **parse method**
- Each parse method's responsibility is to recognize the longest string in the corresponding **syntactic category** in the remainder of the input, from the current point onward:

$$\underbrace{a + b}_{\text{passed}} \underbrace{* c}_{\text{remaining}}$$

Example

- Consider the grammar with start symbol S :
 - $S \rightarrow V + S \mid V$
 - $V \rightarrow a \mid b \mid c$
- The parse begins by trying to identify the entire input string as being in syntactic category S .
- Clearly it must find a V to start.
 - To find a V , it checks to see whether the next symbol is one of those listed.
- Having found a V , it checks to see if the next symbol is $+$.
 - If so, it recurses, trying to find another S .
 - If not it stops.
- After the top call to S returns, it checks to see whether there are any spurious remaining characters in the input.
 - If there are, the input is not accepted.
 - If not, the input is accepted.

Example: Success

$$S \rightarrow V + S \mid V$$
$$V \rightarrow a \mid b \mid c$$

- Suppose the input string is "a + b + c".
 - Subscripts will indicate the particular instance of the method and the "argument" will indicate the unparsed remainder of the input.
 - The parser calls S_1 ("a + b + c").
 - S_1 calls V_1 ("a + b + c").
 - V_1 identifies **a**, returns success and unparsed input "+ b + c".
 - S_1 checks for **+** and finds it; therefore S_1 calls S_2 ("b + c").
 - S_2 calls V_2 ("b + c").
 - V_2 identifies **b**, returns success and unparsed input "+ c".
 - S_2 checks for **+** and finds it; therefore S_2 calls S_3 ("c").
 - S_3 calls V_3 ("c").
 - V_3 identifies **c**, returns success and unparsed input "".
 - S_3 checks for **+** and does not find it; therefore S_3 returns success with "".
 - S_2 returns success with "".
 - S_1 returns success with "".
- The string is accepted.**

Example: Failure

$$S \rightarrow V + S \mid V$$
$$V \rightarrow a \mid b \mid c$$

- Suppose the input string is "a b + c".
- The parser calls S_1 ("a b + c").
- S_1 calls V_1 ("a b + c").
- V_1 identifies **a**, returns success and unparsed input "b + c".
- S_1 checks for **+** and does not find it; therefore S_1 returns success, with "b + c".
- **Since the top-level call to S_1 has returned, but there is residual input, the string is not accepted.**

A rex version of parsing

- Each syntactic category will be a rex function.
- There is one argument:
 - the unparsed input, a **list** of characters.
- There are two results:
 - success or failure indicator
 - for success: the Syntax Tree
 - for failure: FAILURE (some special value, not a syntax tree)
 - the unparsed input.

A rex version of parsing (1)

```
// parse function for auxiliary A, rules A -> V | V + A
```

```
A(input) =  
  Vresult = V(input), // try for V  
  [tree1, residue1] = Vresult,  
  residue1 == [] ? Vresult // use A -> V  
  
: failed(tree1) ? Vresult // failure  
  
: first(residue1) == '+' ?  
  
  ( [tree2, residue2] = A(rest(residue1)), // try A -> V + A  
    failed(tree2) ?  
      Vresult // use A -> V only  
      : [mkTree('+', tree1, tree2), residue2] // use A -> V + A  
    )  
  
: Vresult; // use A -> V
```

Test cases

```
test(A(explode("a")), ['a', []]);
```

```
test(A(explode("a+b")), [['+', 'a', 'b'], []]);
```

```
test(A(explode("a+b+c")), [['+', 'a', ['+', 'b', 'c']], []]);
```

```
test(A(explode("a+b+c+a")), [['+', 'a', ['+', 'b', ['+', 'c', 'a']]], []]);
```

```
test(A(explode("")), [FAILURE, []]);
```

```
test(A(explode("+")), [FAILURE, ['+']]);
```

```
test(A(explode("ab")), ['a', ['b']]);
```

```
test(A(explode("a+b")), [['+', 'a', 'b'], ['+']]);
```

```
test(A(explode("a+b+c")), [['+', 'a', ['+', 'b', 'c']], ['+']]);
```

```
test(A(explode("ab+c")), ['a', ['b', '+', 'c']]);
```

```
test(A(explode("a+b")), [['+', 'a', 'b'], ['+']]);
```

A rex version of parsing (2)

```
// parse function for auxiliary V, rules V -> a | b | c

V([]) => [FAILURE, []]; // no input

V([c | chars]) => isVar(c) ? [mkTree(c), chars]; // variable

V([c | chars]) => [FAILURE, [c | chars]]; // not a variable

// auxiliary functions

FAILURE = "failure";
VARS = ['a', 'b', 'c'];

isVar(char) = member(char, VARS);

failed(result) = result == FAILURE;

mkTree(Var) = Var;
mkTree(Op, Tree1, Tree2) = [Op, Tree1, Tree2];

parse(string) = A(explode(string));
```

Operators + and *

with * having higher precedence

- Rules:

- $A \rightarrow M + A \mid M$

- $M \rightarrow V * M \mid V$

- $V \rightarrow a \mid b \mid c$

- Note that * is *analogous* to +.

- A is to M and + as
M is to V and *

- Therefore the *same rule pattern* applies to both.

rex parsing for +, * (A)

```
A(input) =
  Mresult = M(input),           // try for M
  [tree1, residue1] = Mresult,
  residue1 == [] ? Mresult      // use A -> M

: failed(tree1) ? Mresult      // failure

: first(residue1) == '+' ?

  ( [tree2, residue2] = A(rest(residue1)), // try A -> M + A
    failed(tree2) ?
      Mresult                    // use A -> M only
      : [mkTree('+', tree1, tree2), residue2] // use A -> M + A
    )

: Mresult;                     // use A -> M
```

rex parsing for +, * (M)

```
M(input) =
  Vresult = V(input),                // try for V
  [tree1, residue1] = Vresult,
  residue1 == [] ? Vresult           // use M -> V

: failed(tree1) ? Vresult            // failure

: first(residue1) == '*' ?

  ( [tree2, residue2] = M(rest(residue1)), // try M -> V * M
    failed(tree2) ?
      Vresult                          // use M -> V only
      : [mkTree('*', tree1, tree2), residue2] // use M -> V + M
    )

: Vresult;                           // use M -> V
```

Parsing Methods in Java

- In the Java version, we will “not need to” return the unparsed input as a value.
- We can **side-effect** the input stream to achieve a similar result, “using up” characters as we go.
- We can store the input stream in the parse object, rather than pass it as an argument.

Parsing Methods in Java

```
/**  
 * ParseFromString is the base class for parsing from a String,  
 * such as a single input line.  
 */
```

```
class ParseFromString  
{  
ParseFromString(String input) // constructor  
  
char nextChar()  
  
boolean nextCharIs(char c)  
  
char peek()  
  
boolean skipWhitespace()  
}
```

} various utility methods

Additive Grammar

$$A \rightarrow V \mid V + A$$
$$V \rightarrow a|b|c|d|e|f|g|h|i|j|k|l|m \\ |n|o|p|q|r|s|t|u|v|w|x|y|z$$

Corresponding to the grammar above,
there will be two parse methods:

A()

V()

Each parses from the current point in
the input.

Runnable Examples

`parse/addRecursive/Additive.java`

`parse/add/Additive.java`

`parse/addMult/AddMult.java`

`parse/simpleCalc/SimpleCalc.java`

V() method

```
/**  
 * PARSE METHOD for V → a|b|c|d|e|f|g|h|i|j|k|l|m|n|o|p  
 * |q|r|s|t|u|v|w|x|y|z  
 */
```

```
Object V()  
{  
  skipWhitespace();  
  
  if( isVar(peek()) )  
  {  
    return makeString(nextChar());  
  }  
  return failure;  
}
```

makeString(char c)

```
/**
 * make a String from a char
 */

static String makeString(char c)
{
    return (new StringBuffer(1).append(c)).toString();
}
```

isVar()

```
/**
 * predicate defining whether its argument is a variable
 */

boolean isVar(char c)
{
    switch( c )
    {
        case 'a': case 'b': case 'c': case 'd': case 'e': case 'f': case 'g':
        case 'h': case 'i': case 'j': case 'k': case 'l': case 'm': case 'n':
        case 'o': case 'p': case 'q': case 'r': case 's': case 't': case 'u':
        case 'v': case 'w': case 'x': case 'y': case 'z':
            return true;

        default:
            return false;
    }
}
```

**Do *not* use arithmetic
on integer codes for
this purpose.**

Recursive A() method

```
/**
 * PARSE METHOD for A -> V { '+' V }
 */

Object A()
{
    Object result;
    Object V1 = V();
    if( isFailure(V1) ) return failure;

    if( skipWhitespace() && nextCharIs('+') )
    {
        Object A2 = A();
        if( isFailure(A2) ) return failure;
        return OpenList.list("+", V1, A2);
    }
    else
    {
        return V1;
    }
}
```



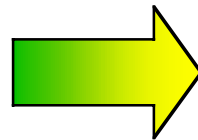
Replacing some Recursion with Iteration

“Inverse McCarthy Transformation” for Grammars with **left**-grouping

{ } is a meta-symbol meaning “0 or more of what’s inside”

- Recursion \rightarrow Iteration
- Works in some cases, not all
- Use for convenience and readability

Recursive Form

$$A \rightarrow V \mid A + V$$
$$V \rightarrow a \mid b \mid c$$


Iterative Form

$$A \rightarrow V \{ + V \}$$
$$V \rightarrow a \mid b \mid c$$

both forms are
“left grouping”
in this
example

A() method, iterative version

```
/** PARSE METHOD for A -> V { '+' V } **/  
  
Object A()  
{  
    Object result;  
    Object V1 = V();  
    if( isFailure(V1) ) return failure;  
  
    result = V1;  
  
    while( skipWhitespace() && nextCharIs('+') )  
    {  
        Object V2 = V();  
        if( isFailure(V2) ) return failure;  
        result = OpenList.list("+", result, V2);  
    }  
    return result;  
}
```

The Additive/Multiplicative Grammar

Additive

$$A \rightarrow V \{ '+' V \}$$
$$V \rightarrow a|b|c|d|e|f|g|h|i|j|k|l|m \\ |n|o|p|q|r|s|t|u|v|w|x|y|z$$

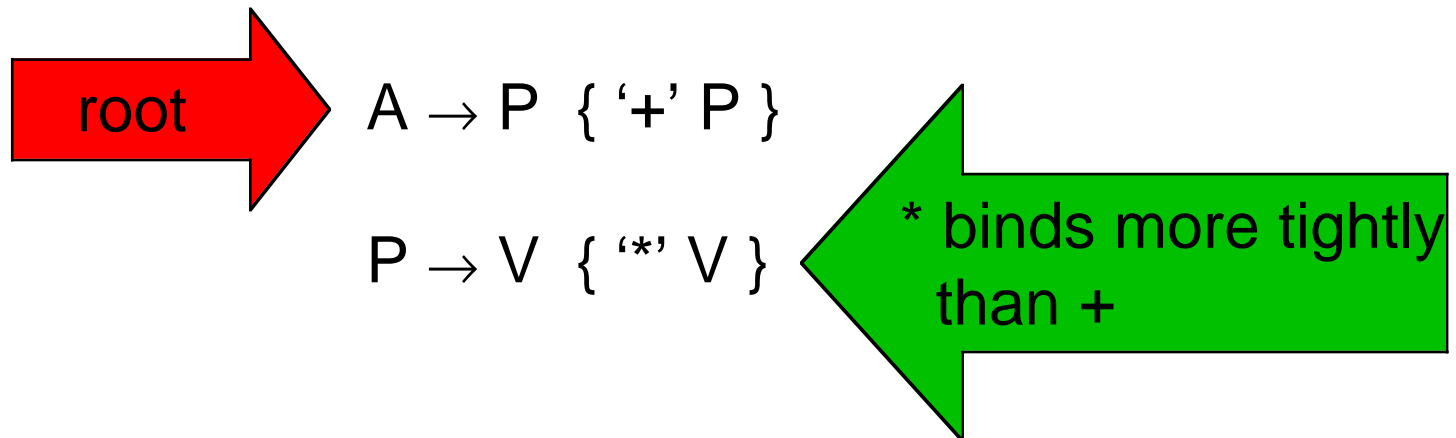
Additive and
Multiplicative

$$A \rightarrow P \{ '+' P \}$$
$$P \rightarrow V \{ '*' V \}$$
$$V \rightarrow a|b|c|d|e|f|g|h|i|j|k|l|m \\ |n|o|p|q|r|s|t|u|v|w|x|y|z$$

Construct methods by analogy.

Remembering Precedence Rules

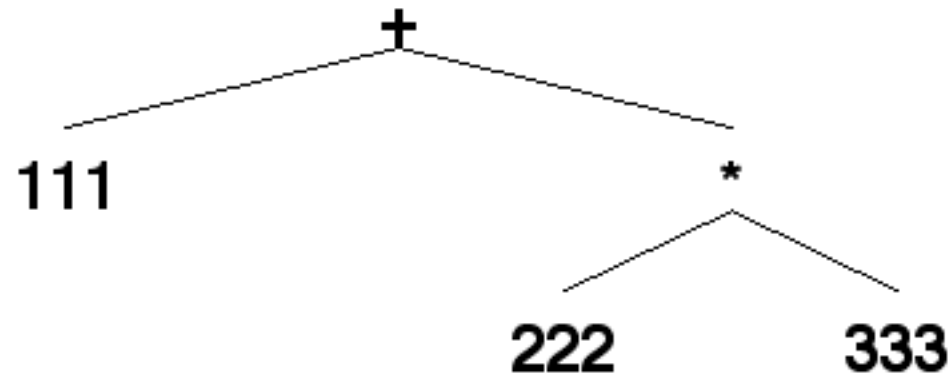
- Tighter-binding operators are introduced **further** away from the root of the grammar:



Syntax Tree Applet

Input numeric expression for syntax analysis:

111 + 222 * 333



Example: SimpleCalc

- Parses numeric expressions with +, *, ()
- Computes the *numeric* answer
- Same grammar as SyntaxTree applet

```
/**
 * SimpleCalc Parse method for A -> P { '+' P }
 **/

Object A()
{
    Object result = P();           // get first addend
    if( isFailure(result) ) return failure;

    while( skipWhitespace() && nextCharIs( '+' ) )
    {
        Object P2 = P();           // get next addend
        if( isFailure(P2) ) return failure;
        try
        {
            result = Arith.add(result, P2);           // accumulate result
        }
        catch( IllegalArgumentException e )
        {
            System.err.println("error: IllegalArgumentException caught");
        }
    }
    return result;
}
```

Grammar for Unicalc

- Example
 - 3.5 meters² / (watt hour)
- Operators
 - ^
 - /
 - juxtaposition (implied multiplication)
- Units (meter, second, etc.)
- Numbers (floating point allowed: 1.23e-45)
- Parentheses

Result of Parsing Unicalc

- A Unicalc quantity:
Object with 3 components:
 - numeric multiplier
 - numerator
 - denominator
- The parser may perform some "algebra":
 - ^ gets converted to multiplication
 - / and juxtaposition use Unicalc divide and multiply