

Toy Parser Generator  
or  
How to easily write parsers in Python

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November 11, 2003

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## **Part I**

# **Introduction and tutorial**

# Chapter 1

## Introduction

### 1.1 Introduction

TPG (Toy Parser Generator) is a Python<sup>1</sup> parser generator. It is aimed at easy usage rather than performance. My inspiration was drawn from two different sources. The first was GEN6. GEN6 is a parser generator created at ENSEEIHT<sup>2</sup> where I studied. The second was PROLOG<sup>3</sup>, especially DCG<sup>4</sup> parsers. I wanted a generator with a simple and expressive syntax and the generated parser should work as the user expects. So I decided that TPG should be a recursive descendant parser (a rule is a procedure that calls other procedures) and the grammars are attributed (attributes are the parameters of the procedures). This way TPG can be considered as a programming language or more modestly as Python extension.

### 1.2 License

TPG is available under the GNU Lesser General Public.

Toy Parser Generator: A Python parser generator

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### 1.3 Structure of the document

**Part I** starts smoothly with a gentle tutorial as an introduction. I think this tutorial may be sufficient to start with TPG.

---

<sup>1</sup>Python is a wonderful object oriented programming language available at <http://www.python.org>

<sup>2</sup>ENSEEIHT is a french engineer school (<http://www.enseeiht.fr>).

<sup>3</sup>PROLOG is a programming language using logic. My favorite PROLOG compiler is SWI-PROLOG (<http://www.swi-prolog.org>).

<sup>4</sup>Definite Clause Grammars.



**Part II** is a reference documentation. It will detail TPG as much as possible.

**Part III** gives the reader some examples to illustrate TPG.

## Chapter 2

# Installation

### 2.1 Getting TPG

TPG is freely available on its web page (<http://christophe.delord.free.fr/en/tpg>). It is distributed as a package using *distutils*<sup>1</sup>.

### 2.2 Requirements

TPG is a *pure Python* package. It may run on *any platform* supported by Python. The only requirement of TPG is *Python 2.2* or newer. Python can be downloaded at <http://www.python.org>.

### 2.3 TPG for Linux and other Unix like

Download *TPG-X.Y.Z.tar.gz*, unpack and run the installation program:

```
tar xzf TPG-X.Y.Z.tar.gz
cd TPG-X.Y.Z
python setup.py install
```

You may need to be logged as root to install TPG.

### 2.4 TPG for M\$ Windows

Download *TPG-X.Y.Z.win32.exe* and run it. Since I only use Linux I provide this executable without testing.

### 2.5 TPG for other operating systems

TPG should run on any system provided that Python is installed. You should be able to install it by running the *setup.py* script (see 2.3).

---

<sup>1</sup>distutils is a Python package used to distribute Python softwares

# Chapter 3

## Tutorial

### 3.1 Introduction

This short tutorial presents how to make a simple calculator. The calculator will compute basic mathematical expressions (+, -, \*, /) possibly nested in parenthesis. We assume the reader is familiar with regular expressions.

### 3.2 Defining the grammar

Expressions are defined with a grammar. For example an expression is a sum of terms and a term is a product of factors. A factor is either a number or a complete expression in parenthesis.

We describe such grammars with rules. A rule describe the composition of an item of the language. In our grammar we have 3 items (Expr, Term, Factor). We will call these items 'symbols' or 'non terminal symbols'. The decomposition of a symbol is symbolized with  $\rightarrow$ . The grammar of this tutorial is given in figure 3.1.

Figure 3.1: Grammar for expressions

Grammar rule	Description
$Expr \rightarrow Term (('+' '-') Term)^*$	An expression is a term eventually followed with a plus ('+') or a minus ('-') sign and an other term any number of times (* is a repetition of an expression 0 or more times).
$Term \rightarrow Fact (('*' '/') Fact)^*$	A term is a factor eventually followed with a '*' or '/' sign and an other factor any number of times.
$Fact \rightarrow number   '(' Expr ')'$	A factor is either a number or an expression in parenthesis.

We have defined here the grammar rules (i.e. the sentences of the language). We now need to describe the lexical items (i.e. the words of the language). These words - also called *terminal symbols* - are described using regular expressions. In the rules we have written some of these terminal symbols (+, -, \*, /, (, )). We have to define *number*. For sake of simplicity numbers are integers composed of digits (the corresponding regular expression can be  $[0-9]^+$ ). To simplify the grammar and then the Python script we define two terminal symbols to group the operators (additive and multiplicative operators). We can also define a special symbol that is ignored by TPG. This symbol is used as a separator. This is generally usefull for white spaces and comments. The terminal symbols are given in figure 3.2

Figure 3.2: Terminal symbol definition for expressions

Terminal symbol	Regular expression	Comment
number	$[0 - 9]^+$ or $\backslash d^+$	One or more digits
add	$[+-]$	a + or a -
mul	$[*/]$	a * or a /
spaces	$\backslash s^+$	One or more spaces

This is sufficient to define our parser with TPG. The grammar of the expressions in TPG can be found in figure 3.3.

Figure 3.3: Grammar of the expression recognizer

```
class Calc(tpg.Parser):
    r"""

    separator spaces: '\s+' ;
    token number: '\d+' ;
    token add: '[+-]' ;
    token mul: '*/' ;

    START -> Expr ;

    Expr -> Term ( add Term )* ;

    Term -> Fact ( mul Fact )* ;

    Fact -> number | '\(' Expr '\)' ;

    """
```

*Calc* is the name of the Python class generated by TPG. *START* is a special non terminal symbol treated as the *axiom*<sup>1</sup> of the grammar.

With this small grammar we can only recognize a correct expression. We will see in the next sections how to read the actual expression and to compute its value.

### 3.3 Reading the input and returning values

The input of the grammar is a string. To do something useful we need to read this string in order to transform it into an expected result.

This string can be read by catching the return value of terminal symbols. By default any terminal symbol returns a string containing the current token. So the token '(' always returns the string '('. For some tokens it may be useful to compute a Python object from the token. For example *number* should return an integer instead of a string, *add* and *mul* should return a function corresponding to the operator. That why we will add a function to the token definitions. So we associate *int* to *number* and *make\_op* to *add* and *mul*.

*int* is a Python function converting objects to integers and *make\_op* is a user defined function (figure 3.4).

<sup>1</sup>The axiom is the symbol from which the parsing starts

Figure 3.4: *make\_op* function

```
def make_op(s):
    return {
        '+': lambda x,y: x+y,
        '-': lambda x,y: x-y,
        '*': lambda x,y: x*y,
        '/': lambda x,y: x/y,
    }[s]
```

To associate a function to a token it must be added after the token definition as in figure 3.5

Figure 3.5: Token definitions with functions

```
separator spaces: '\s+' ;
token number: '\d+' int ;
token add: '[+-]' make_op;
token mul: '[*/] ' make_op;
```

We have specified the value returned by the token. To read this value after a terminal symbol is recognized we will store it in a Python variable. For example to save a *number* in a variable *n* we write *number/n*. In fact terminal and non terminal symbols can return a value. The syntax is the same for both sort of symbols. In non terminal symbol definitions the return value defined at the left hand side is the expression return by the symbol. The return values defined in the right hand side are just variables to which values are saved. A small example may be easier to understand (figure 3.6).

Figure 3.6: Return values for (non) terminal symbols

Rule	Comment
$X/x \rightarrow$	Defines a symbol $X$ . When $X$ is called, $x$ is returned.
$Y/y$	$X$ starts with a $Y$ . The return value of $Y$ is saved in $y$ .
$Z/z$	The return value of $Z$ is saved in $z$ .
$\$ x = y+z \$$	Computes $x$ .
$;$	Returns $x$ .

In the example described in this tutorial the computation of a *Term* is made by applying the operator to the factors, this value is then returned :

```
Expr/t -> Term/t ( add/op Term/f $t=op(t,f)$ ) * ;
```

This example shows how to include Python code in a rule. Here  $\$ \dots \$$  is copied verbatim in the generated parser.

Finally the complete parser is given in figure 3.7.

Figure 3.7: Expression recognizer and evaluator

```

class Calc(tpg.Parser):
    r"""

    separator spaces: '\s+' ;

    token number: '\d+' int ;
    token add: '[+-]' make_op ;
    token mul: '[*/] ' make_op ;

    START -> Expr ;

    Expr/t -> Term/t ( add/op Term/f $t=op(t,f)$ )* ;

    Term/f -> Fact/f ( mul Fact/a $f=op(f,a)$ )* ;

    Fact/a -> number/a | '\(' Expr/a '\)' ;

    """

```

### 3.4 Embedding the parser in a script

Since TPG 3 embedding parsers in a script is very easy since the grammar is the doc string<sup>2</sup> of a class (see figure 3.8).

Figure 3.8: Writing TPG grammars in Python

```

import tpg

class MyParser(tpg.Parser):
    r""" # Your grammar here """

    # You can instantiate your parser here
    my_parser = MyParser()

```

To use this parser you now just need to instantiate an object of the class *Calc* as in figure 3.9.

---

<sup>2</sup>It may be a good practice to use only raw strings. This will ease the pain of writing regular expressions.

Figure 3.9: Complete Python script with expression parser

```
import tpg

def make_op(s):
    return {
        '+': lambda x,y: x+y,
        '-': lambda x,y: x-y,
        '*': lambda x,y: x*y,
        '/': lambda x,y: x/y,
    }[s]

class Calc(tpg.Parser):
    r"""

    separator spaces: '\s+' ;

    token number: '\d+' int ;
    token add: '[+-]' make_op ;
    token mul: '[*/] ' make_op ;

    START/e -> Term/e ;
    Term/t -> Fact/t ( add/op Fact/f $t=op(t,f)$ )* ;
    Fact/f -> Atom/f ( mul/op Atom/a $f=op(f,a)$ )* ;
    Atom/a -> number/a | '\(' Term/a '\)' ;

    """

    calc = Calc()
    expr = raw_input('Enter an expression: ')
    print expr, '=', calc(expr)
```

## 3.5 Conclusion

This tutorial shows some of the possibilities of TPG. If you have read it carefully you may be able to start with TPG. The next chapters present TPG more precisely. They contain more examples to illustrate all the features of TPG.

Happy TPG'ing!



**Part II**

**TPG reference**

# Chapter 4

## Usage

### 4.1 Package content

TPG is a package which main function is to define a class which particular metaclass converts a doc string into a parser. You only need to import TPG and use these five objects:

**tpg.Parser:** This is the base class of the parsers you want to define.

**tpg.Error:** This exception is the base of all TPG exceptions.

**tpg.LexicalError:** This exception is raised when the lexer fails.

**tpg.SyntacticError:** This exception is raised when the parser fails.

**tpg.SemanticError:** This exception is raised by the grammar itself when some semantic properties fail.

The grammar must be in the doc string of the class (see figure 4.1).

Figure 4.1: Grammar embedding example

```
class Foo(tpg.Parser):
    r"""

    START/x -> Bar/x ;

    Bar/x -> 'bar'/x ;

    """
```

Then you can use the new generated parser. The parser is simply a Python class (see figure 4.2).

### 4.2 Command line usage

The *tpg* script reads a Python script and replaces TPG grammars (in doc string) by Python code. To produce a Python script (\*.py) from a script containing grammars (\*.pyg) you can use *tpg* as follow:

```
tpg [-v|-vv] grammar.pyg [-o parser.py]
```

Figure 4.2: Parser usage example

```
test = "bar"
my_parser = Foo()
x = my_parser(test)           # Uses the START symbol
print x
x = my_parser.parse('Bar', test) # Uses the Bar symbol
print x
```

*tpg* accepts some options on the command line:

- v turns *tpg* into a verbose mode (it displays parser names).
- vv turns *tpg* into a more verbose mode (it displays parser names and simplified rules).
- o **file.py** tells *tpg* to generate the parser in *file.py*. The default output file is *grammar.py* if -o option is not provided and *grammar.pyg* is the name of the grammar.

Notice that .pyg files are valid Python scripts. So you can choose to run .pyg file (slower startup but easier for debugging purpose) or turn them into a .py file (faster startup but needs a "precompilation" stage). You can also write .py scripts containing grammars to be used as Python scripts.

In fact I only use the *tpg* script to convert *tpg.pyg* into *tpg.py* because TPG needs obviously to be a pure Python script (it can not translate itself at runtime). Then in most cases it is very convenient to directly write grammars in Python scripts.

## Chapter 5

# Grammar structure

### 5.1 TPG grammar structure

TPG grammars are contained in the doc string of the parser class. TPG grammars may contain three parts:

**Options** are defined at the beginning of the grammar (see 5.3).

**Tokens** are introduced by the *token* or *separator* keyword (see 6.2).

**Rules** are described after tokens (see 5.5).

See figure 5.1 for a generic TPG grammar.

Figure 5.1: TPG grammar structure

```
class Foo(tpg.Parser):
    """

    # Options
    set lexer = CSL

    # Tokens
    separator spaces    '\s+'      ;
    token int           '\d+'      int ;

    # Rules
    START -> X Y Z ;

    """

foo = Foo()
result = foo("input string")
```

### 5.2 Comments

Comments in TPG start with `#` and run until the end of the line.

```
# This is a comment
```

## 5.3 Options

Some options can be set at the beginning of TPG grammars. The syntax for options is:

`set name = value` sets the *name* option to *value*.

### 5.3.1 Lexer option

The *lexer* option tells TPG which lexer to use.

`set lexer = NamedGroupLexer` is the default lexer. It is context free and uses named groups of the *sre* package (and its limitation of 100 named groups, ie 100 tokens).

`set lexer = Lexer` is similar to *NamedGroupLexer* but doesn't use named groups. It is slower than *NamedGroupLexer*.

`set lexer = CacheNamedGroupLexer` is similar to *NamedGroupLexer* except that tokens are first stored in a list. It is faster for heavy backtracking grammars.

`set lexer = CacheLexer` is similar to *Lexer* except that tokens are first stored in a list. It is faster for heavy backtracking grammar.

`set lexer = ContextSensitiveLexer` is the context sensitive lexer (see 8).

### 5.3.2 Word bondary option

The *word\_boundary* options tells the lexer to search for word boundaries after identifiers.

`set word_boundary = True` enables the word boundary search. This is the default.

`set word_boundary = False` disables the word boundary search.

### 5.3.3 Regular expression options

The *sre* module accepts some options to define the behaviour of the compiled regular expressions. These options can be changed for each parser.

`set lexer_ignorecase = True` enables the *re.IGNORECASE* option.

`set lexer_locale = True` enables the *re.LOCALE* option.

`set lexer_multiline = True` enables the *re.MULTILINE* option.

`set lexer_dotall = True` enables the *re.DOTALL* option.

`set lexer_verbose = True` enables the *re.VERBOSE* option.

`set lexer_unicode = True` enables the *re.UNICODE* option.

## 5.4 Python code

Python code section are not handled by TPG. TPG won't complain about syntax errors in Python code sections, it is Python's job. They are copied verbatim to the generated Python parser.

### 5.4.1 Syntax

Before TPG 3, Python code is enclosed in double curly brackets. That means that Python code must not contain consecutive close brackets. You can avoid this by writing `} }` (with a space) instead of `}}` (without space). This syntax is still available but the new syntax may be more readable. The new syntax uses `$` to delimit code sections. When several `$` sections are consecutive they are seen as a single section.

### 5.4.2 Indentation

Python code can appear in several parts of a grammar. Since indentation has a special meaning in Python it is important to know how TPG handles spaces and tabulations at the beginning of the lines.

When TPG encounters some Python code it removes in all non blank lines the spaces and tabulations that are common to every lines. TPG considers spaces and tabulations as the same character so it is important to always use the same indentation style. Thus it is advised not to mix spaces and tabulations in indentation. Then this code will be reindented when generated according to its location (in a class, in a method or in global space).

The figure 5.2 shows how TPG handles indentation.

## 5.5 TPG parsers

TPG parsers are *tpg.Parser* classes. The grammar is the doc string of the class.

### 5.5.1 Methods

As TPG parsers are just Python classes, you can use them as normal classes. If you redefine the `__init__` method, don't forget to call *tpg.Parser.\_\_init\_\_*.

### 5.5.2 Rules

Each rule will be translated into a method of the parser.

Figure 5.2: Code indentation examples

Code in grammars (old syntax)	Code in grammars (new syntax)	Generated code	Comment
<pre>{   if_1==2:     print_???"   else:     print_ "OK" }</pre>	<pre>\$if_1==2: \$print_???" \$else: \$print_ "OK"</pre>	<pre>if_1==2:   print_???" else:   print_ "OK"</pre>	<i>Correct:</i> these lines have four spaces in common. These spaces are removed.
<pre>{if_1==2:   print_???" else:   print_ "OK" }</pre>	The new syntax has no trouble in that case.	<pre>if_1==2:   print_???" else:   print_ "OK"</pre>	<i>WRONG:</i> it's a bad idea to start a multiline code section on the first line since the common indentation may be different from what you expect. No error will be raised by TPG but Python won't compile this code.
<pre>{print_ "OK"}</pre>	<pre>\$print_ "OK"</pre> <p>or</p> <pre>\$_print_ "OK"\$_</pre>	<pre>print_ "OK"</pre>	<i>Correct:</i> indentation does not matter in a one line Python code.

# Chapter 6

## Lexer

### 6.1 Regular expression syntax

The lexer is based on the *re*<sup>1</sup> module. TPG profits from the power of Python regular expressions. This document assumes the reader is familiar with regular expressions.

You can use the syntax of regular expressions as expected by the *re* module except from the grouping syntax since it is used by TPG to decide which token is recognized.

### 6.2 Token definition

#### 6.2.1 Predefined tokens

Tokens can be explicitly defined by the *token* and *separator* keywords.

A token is defined by:

**a name** which identifies the token. This name is used by the parser.

**a regular expression** which describes what to match to recognize the token.

**an action** which can translate the matched text into a Python object. It can be a function of one argument or a non callable object. If it is not callable, it will be returned for each token otherwise it will be applied to the text of the token and the result will be returned. This action is optional. By default the token text is returned.

Token definitions must end with a ; when no action is specified. The dots after the token name are optional.

See figure 6.1 for examples.

The order of the declaration of the tokens is important. The first token that is matched is returned. The regular expression has a special treatment. If it describes a keyword, TPG also looks for a word boundary after the keyword. If you try to match the keywords *if* and *ifxyz* TPG will internally search *if\b* and *ifxyz\b*. This way, *if* won't match *ifxyz* and won't interfere with general identifiers (*\w+* for example). This behaviour can be disabled since the version 3 of TPG (see 5.3.2).

There are two kinds of tokens. Tokens defined by the *token* keyword are parsed by the parser and tokens defined by the *separator* keyword are considered as separators (white spaces or comments for example) and are wiped out by the lexer.

---

<sup>1</sup>*re* is a standard Python module. It handles regular expressions. For further information about *re* you can read <http://python.org/doc/2.2/lib/module-re.html>



Figure 6.1: Token definition examples

```

#      name      reg. exp      action
token integer:  '\d+'          int;
token ident   :  '[a-zA-Z]\w*' ;
token bool    :  'True|False'  $ lambda b: b=='True'

separator spaces : '\s+';      # white spaces
separator comments: '#.*';     # comments

```

### 6.2.2 Inline tokens

Tokens can also be defined on the fly. Their definition are then inlined in the grammar rules. This feature may be useful for keywords or punctuation signs. Inline tokens can not be transformed by an action as predefined tokens. They always return the token in a string.

See figure 6.2 for examples.

Figure 6.2: Inline token definition examples

```

IfThenElse ->
    'if' Cond
    'then' Statement
    'else' Statement
    ;

```

Inline tokens have a higher precedence than predefined tokens to avoid conflicts (an inlined *if* won't be matched as a predefined *identifier*).

## 6.3 Token matching

TPG works in two stages. The lexer first splits the input string into a list of tokens and then the parser parses this list. The default lexer is lazy in TPG 3. Tokens are generated while parsing. This way TPG 3 need less memory when parsing huge files.

### 6.3.1 Splitting the input string

The lexer split the input string according to the token definitions (see 6.2). When the input string can not be matched a *tpg.LexicalError* exception is raised.

The lexer may loop indefinitely if a token can match an empty string since empty strings are everywhere.

### 6.3.2 Matching tokens in grammar rules

Tokens are matched as symbols are recognized. Predefined tokens have the same syntax than non terminal symbols. The token text (or the result of the function associated to the token) can be saved by the infix / operator (see figure 6.3).

Inline tokens have a similar syntax. You just write the regular expression (in a string). Its text can also be save (see figure 6.4).

Figure 6.3: Token usage examples

```
S -> ident/i;
```

Figure 6.4: Token usage examples

```
S -> '(' '\w+' /i ')';
```

# Chapter 7

## Parser

### 7.1 Declaration

A parser is declared as a *tpg.Parser* class. The doc string of the class contains the definition of the tokens and rules.

### 7.2 Grammar rules

Rule declarations have two parts. The left side declares the symbol associated to the rule, its attributes and its return value. The right side describes the decomposition of the rule. Both parts of the declaration are separated with an arrow ( $\rightarrow$ ) and the declaration ends with a `;`.

The symbol defined by the rule as well as the symbols that appear in the rule can have attributes and return values. The attribute list - if any - is given as an object list enclosed in left and right angles. The return value - if any - is extracted by the infix `/` operator. See figure 7.1 for example.

Figure 7.1: Rule declaration

```
SYMBOL <att1, att2, att3> / return_expression_of_SYMBOL ->

    A <x, y> / ret_value_of_A

    B <y, z> / ret_value_of_B

;
```

### 7.3 Parsing terminal symbols

Each time a terminal symbol is encountered in a rule, the parser compares it to the current token in the token list. If it is different the parser backtracks.

## 7.4 Parsing non terminal symbols

### 7.4.1 Starting the parser

You can start the parser from the axiom or from any other non terminal symbol. When the parser can not parse the whole token list a *tpg.SyntacticError* is raised. The value returned by the parser is the return value of the parsed symbol.

#### From the axiom

The axiom is a special non terminal symbol named *START*. Parsers are callable objects. When an instance of a parser is called, the *START* rule is parsed. The first argument of the call is the string to parse. The other arguments of the call are given to the *START* symbol.

This allows to simply write `x=calc("1+1")` to parse and compute an expression if *calc* is an instance of an expression parser.

#### From another non terminal symbol

It's also possible to start parsing from any other non terminal symbol. TPG parsers have a method named *parse*. The first argument is the name of the symbol to start from. The second argument is the string to parse. The other arguments are given to the specified symbol.

For example to start parsing a *Term* you can write:

```
f=calc.parse('Term', "2*3")
```

### 7.4.2 In a rule

To parse a non terminal symbol in a rule, TPG call the rule corresponding to the symbol.

## 7.5 Sequences

Sequences in grammar rules describe in which order symbols should appear in the input string. For example the sequence *A B* recognizes an *A* followed by a *B*. Sequences can be empty.

For example to say that a *sum* is a *term* plus another *term* you can write:

```
Sum -> Term '+' Term ;
```

## 7.6 Alternatives

Alternatives in grammar rules describe several possible decompositions of a symbol. The infix pipe operator (`|`) is used to separate alternatives. *A | B* recognizes either an *A* or a *B*. If both *A* and *B* can be matched only the first match is considered. So the order of alternatives is very important. If an alternative has an empty choice, it must be the last.

For example to say that an *atom* is an *integer* or an *expression in parenthesis* you can write:

```
Atom -> integer | '\(' Expr '\)' ;
```

## 7.7 Repetitions

Repetitions in grammar rules describe how many times an expression should be matched.

**A?** recognizes zero or one *A*.

**A\*** recognizes zero or more *A*.

**A+** recognizes one or more *A*.

**A{m,n}** recognizes at least *m* and at most *n* *A*.

Repetitions are greedy. Repetitions are translated into Python loops. Thus whatever the length of the repetitions, the Python stack will not overflow.

7.8 Precedence and grouping

The figure 7.2 lists the different structures in increasing precedence order. To override the default precedence you can group expressions with parenthesis.

Figure 7.2: Precedence in TPG expressions

Structure	Example
Alternative	<i>A</i>   <i>B</i>
Sequence	<i>A</i> <i>B</i>
Repetitions	<i>A</i> ?, <i>A</i> *, <i>A</i> +
Symbol and grouping	<i>A</i> and ( ... )

7.9 Actions

Grammar rules can contain actions as Python code. Python code is copied verbatim into the generated code.

7.9.1 Abstract syntax trees

An abstract syntax tree (AST) is an abstract representation of the structure of the input. A node of an AST is a Python object (there is no constraint about its class). AST nodes are completely defined by the user.

The figure 7.3 shows a node symbolizing a couple.

Figure 7.3: AST example

```
class Couple:
    def __init__(self, a, b):
        self.a = a
        self.b = b

class Foo(tpg.Parser):
    r"""
    COUPLE -> '(' ITEM/a ',' ITEM/b ')' $ c = Couple(a,b) $ ;

    COUPLE/$Couple(a,b)$ -> '(' ITEM/a ',' ITEM/b ')' ;
    """
```

### Creating an AST

AST are created in Python code delimited either by `$...$` or by `{{...}}` (see figure 7.9.1).

### Updating an AST

When parsing lists for example it is useful to save all the items of the list. In that case one can use a list and its append method (see figure 7.4).

Figure 7.4: AST update example

```
class ListParser(tpg.Parser):
    r"""
    LIST/l ->
        '('
            ITEM/a          $ l = List<>
            ( ',' ITEM/a    $ l.append(a)
            )*
        ')',
    ;
    """
```

## 7.9.2 Text extraction

TPG can extract a portion of the input string. The idea is to put marks while parsing and then extract the text between the two marks. This extracts the whole text between the marks, including the tokens defined as separators.

## 7.9.3 Object

TPG 3 doesn't handle Python object as TPG 2. Only identifiers, integers and strings are known. Other objects must be written in Python code delimited either by `$...$` or by `{{...}}`.

### Argument lists and tuples

Argument list is a comma separated list of objects. *Remember that arguments are enclosed in left and right angles.*

```
<object1, object2, object3>
```

Argument lists and tuples have the same syntax except from the possibility to have default arguments, argument lists and argument dictionaries as arguments as in Python.

```
RULE<arg1, arg2=18, arg3=None, *other_args, **keywords> -> ;
```

### Python code object

A Python code object is a piece of Python code in double curly brackets or in dollar signs. Python code used in an object expression must have only one line.

```
$ dict([ (x,x**2) for x in range(100) ]) $ # Python embeded in TPG
```

### Text extraction

Text extraction is done by the *extract* method. Marks can be put in the input string by the *mark* method or the prefix operator.

```
@beginning      # equivalent to $ beginning = self.mark()
...
@end            # equivalent to $ end = self.mark()
...
$ my_string = self.extract(beginning, end)
```

### Getting the line and row number of a token

The *line* and *row* methods return the line and row number of the current token. If the first parameter is a mark (see 7.9.2) the method returns the line number of the token following the mark.

### Backtracking

The user can force the parser to backtrack in rule actions. The module has a *WrongToken* exception for that purpose (see figure 7.5).

Figure 7.5: Backtracking with *WrongToken* example

```
# NATURAL matches integers greater than 0
NATURAL/n ->
    number/n
    $ if n<1: raise tpg.WrongToken $
    ;
```

Parsers have another useful method named *check* (see figure 7.6). This method checks a condition. If this condition is false then *WrongToken* if called in order to backtrack.

Figure 7.6: Backtracking with the *check* method example

```
# NATURAL matches integers greater than 0
NATURAL/n ->
    number/n
    $ self.check(n>=1) $
    ;
```

A shortcut for the *check* method is the *check* keyword followed by the condition to check (see figure 7.7).

### Error reporting

The user can force the parser to stop and raise an exception. The parser classes have a *error* method for that purpose (see figure 7.8). This method raises a *SemanticError*.

A shortcut for the *error* method is the *error* keyword followed by the object to give to the *SemanticError* exception (see figure 7.9).

Figure 7.7: Backtracking with the *check* keyword example

```
# NATURAL matches integers greater than 0
NATURAL/n ->
    number/n
    check $ n>=1 $
    ;
```

Figure 7.8: Error reporting the *error* method example

```
# FRACT parses fractions
FRACT/<n,d> ->
    number/n '/' number/d
    $ if d==0: self.error("Division by zero") $
    ;
```

Figure 7.9: Error reporting the *error* keyword example

```
# FRACT parses fractions
FRACT/<n,d> ->
    number/n '/' number/d
    ( check d | error "Division by zero" )
    ;
```



## Chapter 8

# Context sensitive lexer

### 8.1 Introduction

Before the version 2 of TPG, lexers were context sensitive. That means that the parser commands the lexer to match some tokens, i.e. different tokens can be matched in a same input string according to the grammar rules being used. These lexers were very flexible but slower than context free lexers because TPG backtracking caused tokens to be matched several times.

In TPG 2, the lexer is called before the parser and produces a list of tokens from the input string. This list is then given to the parser. In this case when TPG backtracks the token list remains unchanged.

Since TPG 2.1.2, context sensitive lexers have been reintroduced in TPG. By default lexers are context free but the *CSL* option (see 5.3.1) turns TPG into a context sensitive lexer.

### 8.2 Grammar structure

CSL grammar have the same structure than non CSL grammars (see 5.1) except from the *lexer = CSL* option (see 5.3.1).

### 8.3 CSL lexers

#### 8.3.1 Regular expression syntax

The CSL lexer is based on the *re* module. The difference with non CSL lexers is that the given regular expression is compiled as this, without any encapsulation.

#### 8.3.2 Token matching

In CSL parsers, tokens are matched as in non CSL parsers (see 6.3).

### 8.4 CSL parsers

There is no difference between CSL and non CSL parsers.

# Chapter 9

## Debugging

### 9.1 Introduction

When I need to debug a grammar I often add print statements to visualize the parser activity. Now with TPG 3 it is possible to print such information automatically.

### 9.2 Verbose parsers

Normal parsers inherit from *tpg.Parser*. If you need a more verbose parser you can use *tpg.VerboseParser* instead. This parser prints information about the current token each time the lexer is called. The debugging information has currently two level of details.

**Level 0** displays no information.

**Level 1** displays tokens only when the current token matches the expected token.

**Level 2** displays tokens if the current token matches or not the expected token.

The level is defined by the attribute *verbose*. Its default value is 1.

Figure 9.1: Verbose parser example

```
class Test(tpg.VerboseParser):  
    r"""  
  
    START -> 'x' 'y' 'z' ;  
  
    """  
  
    verbose = 2
```

The information displayed by verbose parsers has the following format:

[eat counter][stack depth]callers: (line,row) <current token> == <expected token>

*eatcounter* is the number of calls of the lexer.

*stackdepth* is the depth of the Python stack since the axiom.

*callers* is the list of non terminal symbols called before the current symbol.

$(line, row)$  is the position of the current token in the input string.

$==$  means the current token matches the expected token (level 1 or 2).

$!=$  means the current token doesn't match the expected token (level 2).



## **Part III**

# **Some examples to illustrate TPG**

## Chapter 10

# Complete interactive calculator

### 10.1 Introduction

This chapter presents an extension of the calculator described in the tutorial (see 3). This calculator has more functions and a memory.

### 10.2 New functions

#### 10.2.1 Trigonometric and other functions

This calculator can compute some numerical functions (*sin*, *cos*, *sqrt*, ...). The *make\_op* function (see figure 3.4) has been extended to return these functions. Tokens must also be defined to scan function names. *funct1* defines the name of unaries functions and *funct2* defines the name of binaries functions. Finally the grammar rule of the atoms has been added a branch to parse functions. The *Function* non terminal symbol parser unaries and binaries functions.

#### 10.2.2 Memories

The calculator has memories. A memory cell is identified by a name. For example, if the user types  $pi = 4 * atan(1)$ , the memory cell named *pi* will contain the value of  $\pi$  and *cos(pi)* will return  $-1$ .

To display the content of the whole memory, the user can type *vars*.

The variables are saved in a dictionary. In fact the parser itself is a dictionary (the parser inherits from the *dict* class).

The *START* symbol parses a variable creation or a single expression and the *Atom* parses variable names (the *Var* symbol parses a variable name and returns its value).

### 10.3 Source code

Here is the complete source code (*calc.pyg*):

```
#!/usr/bin/env python
```

```
import math
import operator
import string
import tpg
```

```
def make_op(op):
```

```

return {
    '+' : operator.add,
    '-' : operator.sub,
    '*' : operator.mul,
    '/' : operator.div,
    '%' : operator.mod,
    '^' : lambda x,y:x**y,
    '**' : lambda x,y:x**y,
    'cos' : math.cos,
    'sin' : math.sin,
    'tan' : math.tan,
    'acos' : math.acos,
    'asin' : math.asin,
    'atan' : math.atan,
    'sqr' : lambda x:x*x,
    'sqrt' : math.sqrt,
    'abs' : abs,
    'norm' : lambda x,y:math.sqrt(x*x+y*y),
}[op]

class Calc(tpg.Parser, dict):
    r"""
        separator space '\s+' ;

        token pow_op      '\^|\*\*'          $ make_op
        token add_op      '[+-]'             $ make_op
        token mul_op      '[_/]'             $ make_op
        token funct1      '(cos|sin|tan|acos|asin|atan|sqr|sqrt|abs)\b' $ make_op
        token funct2      '(norm)\b'         $ make_op
        token real        '(\d+\.\d*|\d*\.\d+)([eE][+-]?\d+)?|\d+[eE][+-]?\d+' $ string.atof
        token integer     '\d+'               $ string.atol
        token VarId       '[a-zA-Z_]\w*'      ;

        START/e ->
            'vars'                $ e=self.mem()
            | VarId/v '=' Expr/e   $ self[v]=e
            | Expr/e
        ;

        Var/$self.get(v,0)$ -> VarId/v ;

        Expr/e -> Term/e ( add_op/op Term/t      $ e=op(e,t)
                           )*
        ;

        Term/t -> Fact/t ( mul_op/op Fact/f      $ t=op(t,f)
                           )*
        ;

        Fact/f ->
            add_op/op Fact/f          $ f=op(0,f)
            | Pow/f
        ;

```

```

Pow/f -> Atom/f ( pow_op/op Fact/e      $ f=op(f,e)
                )?
;

Atom/a ->
    real/a
    | integer/a
    | Function/a
    | Var/a
    | '\(' Expr/a '\)'
;

Function/y ->
    funct1/f '\(' Expr/x '\)'          $ y = f(x)
    | funct2/f '\(' Expr/x1 ',' Expr/x2 '\)' $ y = f(x1,x2)
;

"""

def mem(self):
    vars = self.items()
    vars.sort()
    memory = [ "%s = %s"%(var, val) for (var, val) in vars ]
    return "\n\t" + "\n\t".join(memory)

print "Calc (TPG example)"
calc = Calc()
while 1:
    l = raw_input("\n:")
    if l:
        try:
            print calc(l)
        except Exception, e:
            print e
    else:
        break

```



# Chapter 11

## Infix/Prefix/Postfix notation converter

### 11.1 Introduction

In the previous example, the parser computes the value of the expression on the fly, while parsing. It is also possible to build an abstract syntax tree to store an abstract representation of the input. This may be useful when several passes are necessary.

This example shows how to parse an expression (infix, prefix or postfix) and convert it in infix, prefix and postfix notation. The expression is saved in a tree. Each node of the tree corresponds to an operator in the expression. Each leaf is a number. Then to write the expression in infix, prefix or postfix notation, we just need to walk through the tree in a particular order.

### 11.2 Abstract syntax trees

The AST of this converter has two types of node:

**class Op** is used to store operators (+, -, \*, /, ^). It has two sons associated to the sub expressions.

**class Atom** is an atomic expression (a number or a symbolic name).

Both classes are instantiated by the `__init__` method. The *infix*, *prefix* and *postfix* methods return strings containing the representation of the node in *infix*, *prefix* and *postfix* notation.

### 11.3 Grammar

#### 11.3.1 Infix expressions

The grammar for infix expressions is similar to the grammar used in the previous example.

```
EXPR/e -> TERM/e ( '[+-]' /op TERM/t $e=Op(op,e,t,1)$ ) * ;
TERM/t -> FACT/t ( '[*/]' /op FACT/f $t=Op(op,t,f,2)$ ) * ;
FACT/f -> ATOM/f ( '^' /op FACT/e $f=Op(op,f,e,3)$ ) ? ;

ATOM/a -> ident/s $a=Atom(s)$ | '(' EXPR/a ')' ;
```

### 11.3.2 Prefix expressions

The grammar for prefix expressions is very simple. A compound prefix expression is an operator followed by two subexpressions.

```

EXPR_PRE/e ->
    ident/s                                $ e=Atom(s)
|   '\(' EXPR_PRE/e '\)'
|   OP/<op,prec> EXPR_PRE/a EXPR_PRE/b    $ e=Op(op,a,b,prec)
;

OP/<op,prec> ->
    '[+-]'/op    $ prec=1
|   '[*/]'/op    $ prec=2
|   '[^]'/op     $ prec=3
;

```

### 11.3.3 Postfix expressions

At first sight postfix and infix grammars may be very similar. Only the position of the operators changes. So a compound postfix expression is a first expression followed by a second and an operator. This rule is left recursive. As TPG is a descendant recursive parser, such rules are forbidden to avoid infinite recursion. To remove the left recursion a classical solution is to rewrite the grammar like this:

```

EXPR_POST/e -> ATOM_POST/a SEXPR_POST<a>/e ;

ATOM_POST/a ->
    ident/s                                $ a=Atom(s)
|   '\(' EXPR_POST/a '\)'
;

SEXPR_POST<e>/e ->
    EXPR_POST/e2 OP/<op,prec> SEXPR_POST<$Op(op,e,e2,prec)$>/e
|   ;

```

The parser first searches for an atomic expression and then builds the AST by passing partial expressions by the attributes of the *SEXPR\_POST* symbol.

## 11.4 Source code

Here is the complete source code (*notation.py*):

```

#!/usr/bin/env python

# Infix/prefix/postfix expression conversion

import tpg

class Op:
    """ Binary operator """
    def __init__(self, op, a, b, prec):
        self.op = op          # operator ("+", "-", "*", "/", "^")
        self.prec = prec      # precedence of the operator
        self.a, self.b = a, b # operands

```

```

def infix(self):
    a = self.a.infix()
    if self.a.prec < self.prec: a = "(%s)"%a
    b = self.b.infix()
    if self.b.prec <= self.prec: b = "(%s)"%b
    return "%s %s %s"%(a, self.op, b)
def prefix(self):
    a = self.a.prefix()
    b = self.b.prefix()
    return "%s %s %s"%(self.op, a, b)
def postfix(self):
    a = self.a.postfix()
    b = self.b.postfix()
    return "%s %s %s"%(a, b, self.op)

class Atom:
    """ Atomic expression """
    def __init__(self, s):
        self.a = s
        self.prec = 99
    def infix(self): return self.a
    def prefix(self): return self.a
    def postfix(self): return self.a

# Grammar for arithmetic expressions

class ExpressionParser(tpg.Parser):
    r"""

    separator space '\s+';
    token ident '\w+';

    START/<e,t> ->
        EXPR/e          '\n'      $ t = 'infix'
    |   EXPR_PRE/e       '\n'      $ t = 'prefix'
    |   EXPR_POST/e      '\n'      $ t = 'postfix'
    ;

    # Infix expressions

    EXPR/e -> TERM/e ( '['+-']'/op TERM/t          $ e=Op(op,e,t,1)
                    )*
    ;
    TERM/t -> FACT/t ( '['*/']'/op FACT/f          $ t=Op(op,t,f,2)
                    )*
    ;
    FACT/f -> ATOM/f ( '^'~/op FACT/e              $ f=Op(op,f,e,3)
                    )?
    ;

    ATOM/a ->
        ident/s                                $ a=Atom(s)
    |   '(' EXPR/a '\)'
    ;

```

```

# Prefix expressions

EXPR_PRE/e ->
    ident/s                                $ e=Atom(s)
|   '\(' EXPR_PRE/e '\)'
|   OP/<op,prec> EXPR_PRE/a EXPR_PRE/b      $ e=Op(op,a,b,prec)
;

# Postfix expressions

EXPR_POST/e -> ATOM_POST/a SEXPR_POST<a>/e ;

ATOM_POST/a ->
    ident/s                                $ a=Atom(s)
|   '\(' EXPR_POST/a '\)'
;

SEXPR_POST<e>/e ->
    EXPR_POST/e2 OP/<op,prec> SEXPR_POST<$Op(op,e,e2,prec)$>/e
|   ;

OP/<op,prec> ->
    '[+ -]'/op $ prec=1
|   '[* /]'/op $ prec=2
|   '[^]'/op   $ prec=3
;

"""

parser = ExpressionParser()
while 1:
    e = raw_input(":")
    if e == "": break
    try:
        expr, t = parser(e+"\n")
    except tpg.Error, e:
        print e
    else:
        print e, "is a", t, "expression"
        print "\tinfix   :", expr.infix()
        print "\tprefix  :", expr.prefix()
        print "\tpostfix :", expr.postfix()

```