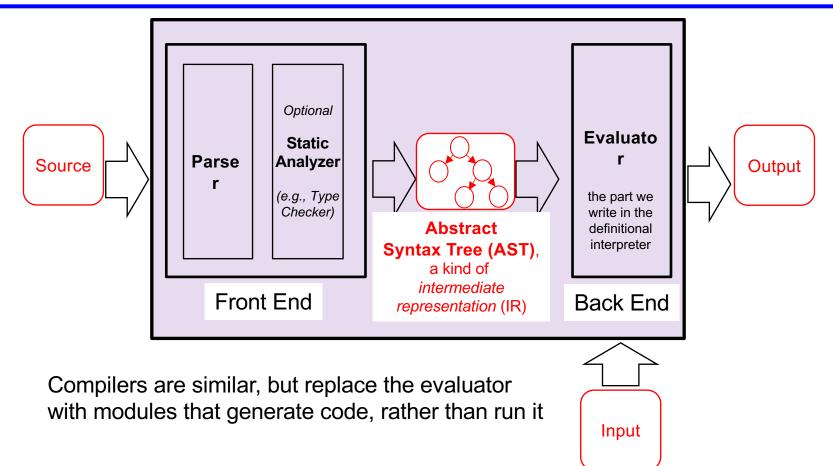
CMSC 330: Organization of Programming Languages

Context Free Grammars

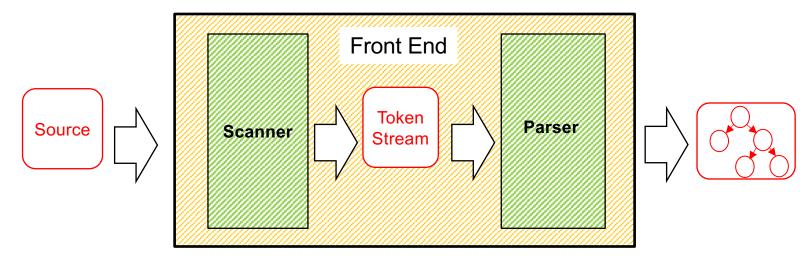
Recall: Interpreters



Implementing the Front End

- Goal: Convert program text into an AST
 - Abstract Syntax Tree
- ASTs are easier to work with
 - Analyze, optimize, execute the program
- Idea: Do this using regular expressions?
 - Won't work!
 - Regular expressions cannot reliably parse paired braces {{ ... }}, parentheses (((...))), etc.
- Instead: Regexps for tokens (scanning), and Context
 Free Grammars for parsing tokens

Front End – Scanner and Parser



- Scanner / lexer converts program source into tokens (keywords, variable names, operators, numbers, etc.) using regular expressions
- Parser converts tokens into an AST (abstract syntax tree). Parsers recognize strings defined as context free grammars

Context-Free Grammar (CFG)

- A way of describing sets of strings (= languages)
 - The notation L(G) denotes the language of strings defined by grammar G
- Example grammar G is $S \rightarrow 0S \mid 1S \mid \epsilon$

which says that string s' \in L(G) iff

- $s' = \varepsilon$, or $\exists s \in L(G)$ such that s' = 0s, or s' = 1s
- Grammar is same as regular expression (0|1)*
 - Generates / accepts the same set of strings

CFGs Are Expressive

- CFGs subsume REs, DFAs, NFAs
 - There is a CFG that generates any regular language
 - But: REs are often better notation for those languages
- And CFGs can define languages regexps cannot
 - $S \rightarrow (S) | \epsilon$ // represents balanced pairs of ()'s
- As a result, CFGs often used as the basis of parsers for programming languages

Parsing with CFGs

- CFGs formally define languages, but they do not define an algorithm for accepting strings
- Several styles of algorithm; each works only for less expressive forms of CFG
 - LL(k) parsing

— We will discuss this next lecture

- LR(k) parsing
- LALR(k) parsing
- SLR(k) parsing
- Tools exist for building parsers from grammars
 - JavaCC, Yacc, etc.

Formal Definition: Context-Free Grammar

- A CFG G is a 4-tuple (Σ, N, P, S)
 - Σ alphabet (finite set of symbols, or terminals)
 - > Often written in lowercase
 - N a finite, nonempty set of nonterminal symbols
 - > Often written in UPPERCASE
 - > It must be that $N \cap \Sigma = \emptyset$
 - P a set of productions of the form $N \rightarrow (\Sigma | N)^*$
 - > Informally: the nonterminal can be replaced by the string of zero or more terminals / nonterminals to the right of the →
 - > Can think of productions as rewriting rules (more later)
 - S ϵ N the start symbol

Notational Shortcuts

- A production is of the form
 - left-hand side (LHS) \rightarrow right hand side (RHS)
- If not specified
 - Assume LHS of first production is the start symbol
- Productions with the same LHS
 - Are usually combined with
- If a production has an empty RHS
 - It means the RHS is $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}$

Backus-Naur Form

- Context-free grammar production rules are also called Backus-Naur Form or BNF
 - Designed by John Backus and Peter Naur
 - Chair and Secretary of the Algol committee in the early 1960s. Used this notation to describe Algol in 1962
- A production A → B c D is written in BNF as <A> ::= c <D>
 - Non-terminals written with angle brackets and uses ::= instead of \rightarrow
 - Often see hybrids that use ::= instead of → but drop the angle brackets on non-terminals, favoring *italics*

Generating Strings

- We can think of a grammar as generating strings by rewriting
- Example grammar G S \rightarrow 0S | 1S | ε
- ▶ Generate string 011 from G as follows:
 - $S \Rightarrow 0S$ // using $S \rightarrow 0S$
 - $\Rightarrow 01S$ // using S $\rightarrow 1S$
 - \Rightarrow 011S // using S \rightarrow 1S
 - $\Rightarrow 011 \qquad // \text{ using } S \rightarrow \varepsilon$

Accepting Strings (Informally)

- Checking if $s \in L(G)$ is called acceptance
 - Algorithm: Find a rewriting starting from G's start symbol that yields s
 - A rewriting is some sequence of productions (rewrites) applied starting at the start symbol
 - > 011 \in L(G) according to the previous rewriting
- Terminology
 - Such a sequence of rewrites is a derivation or parse
 - Discovering the derivation is called parsing

Derivations

- Notation
 - ⇒ indicates a derivation of one step
 - \Rightarrow^+ indicates a derivation of one or more steps
 - \Rightarrow^* indicates a derivation of zero or more steps
- Example
 - $S \rightarrow 0S \mid 1S \mid \epsilon$
- For the string 010
 - $S \Rightarrow 0S \Rightarrow 01S \Rightarrow 010S \Rightarrow 010$
 - S ⇒+ 010
 - 010 ⇒* 010

Language Generated by Grammar

L(G) the language defined by G is

 $L(G) = \{ s \in \Sigma^* \mid S \Rightarrow^+ s \}$

- S is the start symbol of the grammar
- Σ is the alphabet for that grammar
- In other words
 - All strings over $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ that can be derived from the start symbol via one or more productions

Consider the grammar

 $S \rightarrow bS \mid T$ $T \rightarrow aT \mid U$ $U \rightarrow cU \mid \epsilon$

Which of the following strings is generated by this grammar?

- A. aba
- B. ccc
- C. bab
- D. ca

Consider the grammar

 $S \rightarrow bS \mid T$ $T \rightarrow aT \mid U$ $U \rightarrow cU \mid \epsilon$

Which of the following strings is generated by this grammar?

A. aba



C. bab

D.ca

Consider the grammar

 $S \rightarrow bS \mid T$ $T \rightarrow aT \mid U$ $U \rightarrow cU \mid \epsilon$

Which of the following is a derivation of the string aac?

A. S \Rightarrow T \Rightarrow aT \Rightarrow aTaT \Rightarrow aaT \Rightarrow aacU \Rightarrow aac

B. S \Rightarrow T \Rightarrow U \Rightarrow aU \Rightarrow aaU \Rightarrow aacU \Rightarrow aac

 $C. S \Rightarrow aT \Rightarrow aaT \Rightarrow aaU \Rightarrow aacU \Rightarrow aac$

 $D. S \Rightarrow T \Rightarrow aT \Rightarrow aaT \Rightarrow aaU \Rightarrow aacU \Rightarrow aac$

Consider the grammar

 $\begin{array}{l} S \rightarrow bS \mid T \\ T \rightarrow aT \mid U \\ U \rightarrow cU \mid \epsilon \end{array}$

Which of the following is a derivation of the string aac?
 A. S ⇒ T ⇒ aT ⇒ aTaT ⇒ aaT ⇒ aacU ⇒ aac
 B. S ⇒ T ⇒ U ⇒ aU ⇒ aaU ⇒ aacU ⇒ aac
 C. S ⇒ aT ⇒ aaT ⇒ aaU ⇒ aacU ⇒ aac
 D. S ⇒ T ⇒ aT ⇒ aaT ⇒ aaU ⇒ aacU ⇒ aac

Consider the grammar

 $\begin{array}{l} S \rightarrow bS \mid T \\ T \rightarrow aT \mid U \\ U \rightarrow cU \mid \epsilon \end{array}$

Which of the following regular expressions accepts the same language as this grammar?

- A. (a|b|c)*
- B. b*a*c*
- C. (b|ba|bac)*
- D. bac*

Consider the grammar

 $\begin{array}{l} S \rightarrow bS \mid T \\ T \rightarrow aT \mid U \\ U \rightarrow cU \mid \epsilon \end{array}$

Which of the following regular expressions accepts the same language as this grammar?

A. (a|b|c)*



C. (b|ba|bac)* D. bac*

Designing Grammars

1. Use recursive productions to generate an arbitrary number of symbols

2. Use separate non-terminals to generate disjoint parts of a language, and then combine in a production

a*b*	// a's followed by b's
$S \rightarrow AB$	
$A \rightarrow aA \mid \epsilon$	// Zero or more a' s
$B \rightarrow bB \mid \epsilon$	// Zero or more b' s

3. To generate languages with matching, balanced, or related numbers of symbols, write productions which generate strings from the middle

 $\begin{array}{ll} \{a^nb^n \mid n \geq 0\} & // \ N \ a' \ s \ followed \ by \ N \ b' \ s \\ S \rightarrow aSb \mid \epsilon \\ Example \ derivation: \ S \Rightarrow aSb \Rightarrow aaSbb \Rightarrow aabb \\ \{a^nb^{2n} \mid n \geq 0\} & // \ N \ a' \ s \ followed \ by \ 2N \ b' \ s \\ S \rightarrow aSbb \mid \epsilon \\ Example \ derivation: \ S \Rightarrow aSbb \Rightarrow aaSbbbb \Rightarrow aabbbb \end{array}$

Designing Grammars

4. For a language that is the union of other languages, use separate nonterminals for each part of the union and then combine

```
\{ a^{n}(b^{m}|c^{m}) \mid m > n \ge 0 \}
```

Can be rewritten as

```
\{a^{n}b^{m} \mid m > n \ge 0\} \cup \{a^{n}c^{m} \mid m > n \ge 0\}
```

```
S \to T \mid V
```

```
T \rightarrow aTb \mid U
```

```
U \rightarrow Ub \mid b
```

```
V \to aVc \mid W
```

```
\mathsf{W} \to \mathsf{Wc} \mid \mathsf{c}
```

Practice

- Try to make a grammar which accepts
 - $0^*|1^*$ $0^n 1^n$ where $n \ge 0$
 - $\begin{array}{ll} S \rightarrow A \mid B \\ A \rightarrow 0A \mid \epsilon \\ B \rightarrow 1B \mid \epsilon \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{ll} S \rightarrow 0S1 \mid \epsilon \\ \end{array}$
- Give some example strings from this language
 - S → 0 | 1S
 > 0, 10, 110, 1110, 11110, ...
 - What language is it, as a regexp?
 - > 1*0

Which of the following grammars describes the same language as $0^{n}1^{m}$ where $m \le n$?

- A. $S \rightarrow 0S1 \mid \epsilon$ //same number of 0 and 1
- B. $S \rightarrow 0S1 \mid S1 \mid \epsilon$ //more 1's
- C. $S \rightarrow 0S1 \mid 0S \mid \epsilon$ //more 0's
- D. $S \rightarrow SS \mid 0 \mid 1 \mid \epsilon$ //no control of the number

Which of the following grammars describes the same language as $0^{n}1^{m}$ where $m \le n$?

A.
$$S \rightarrow 0S1 | \epsilon$$

B. $S \rightarrow 0S1 | S1 | \epsilon$
C. $S \rightarrow 0S1 | 0S | \epsilon$
D. $S \rightarrow SS | 0 | 1 | \epsilon$

CFGs for Language Syntax

When discussing operational semantics, we used BNFstyle grammars to define ASTs

e ::= x | n | e + e | let x = e in e

- This grammar defined an AST for expressions synonymous with an OCaml datatype
- We can also use this grammar to define a language parser
 - However, while it is fine for defining ASTs, this grammar, if used directly for parsing, is ambiguous

Arithmetic Expressions

$\blacktriangleright E \rightarrow a \mid b \mid c \mid E+E \mid E-E \mid E^*E \mid (E)$

- An expression E is either a letter a, b, or c
- Or an E followed by + followed by an E
- etc...
- This describes (or generates) a set of strings
 - {a, b, c, a+b, a+a, a*c, a-(b*a), c*(b + a), ...}
- Example strings not in the language
 - d, c(a), a+, b**c, etc.

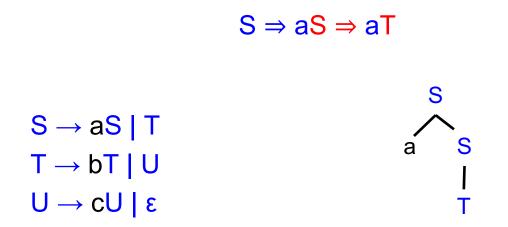
Parse Trees

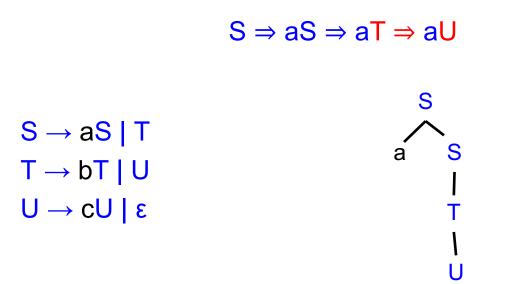
Parse tree shows how a string is produced by a grammar

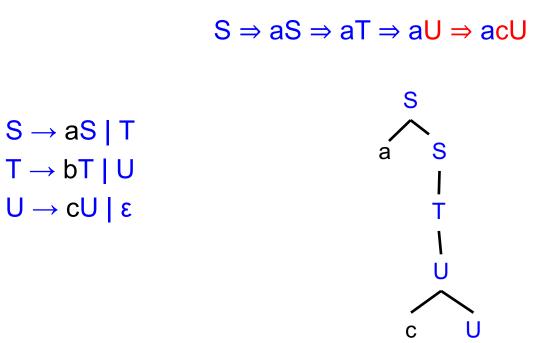
- Root node is the start symbol
- Every internal node is a nonterminal
- Children of an internal node
 - > Are symbols on RHS of production applied to nonterminal
- Every leaf node is a terminal or $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}$
- Reading the leaves left to right
 - Shows the string corresponding to the tree

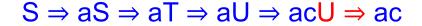




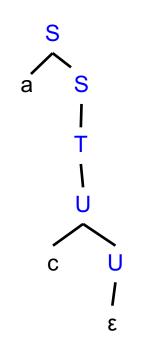








 $\begin{array}{l} S \rightarrow aS \mid T \\ T \rightarrow bT \mid U \\ U \rightarrow cU \mid \epsilon \end{array}$



Parse Trees for Expressions

A parse tree shows the structure of an expression as it corresponds to a grammar

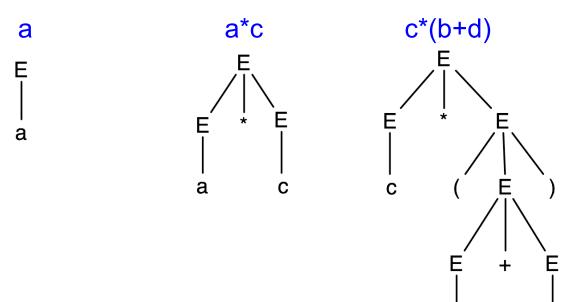
```
E \rightarrow a \mid b \mid c \mid d \mid E+E \mid E-E \mid E^{*}E \mid (E)
```

```
a a*c c*(b+d)
```

Parse Trees for Expressions

A parse tree shows the structure of an expression as it corresponds to a grammar

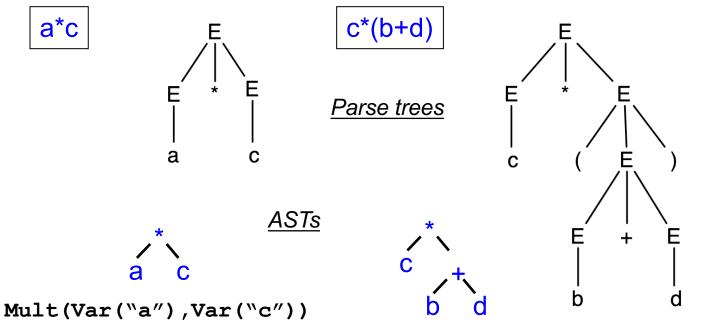
 $E \rightarrow a \mid b \mid c \mid d \mid E+E \mid E-E \mid E^*E \mid (E)$



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Abstract Syntax Trees

- A parse tree and an AST are not the same thing
 - The latter is a data structure produced by parsing



Mult(Var(``c''), Plus(Var(``b''), Var(``d'')))

$\mathsf{E} \rightarrow \mathsf{a} \mid \mathsf{b} \mid \mathsf{c} \mid \mathsf{d} \mid \mathsf{E}\mathsf{+}\mathsf{E} \mid \mathsf{E}\mathsf{-}\mathsf{E} \mid \mathsf{E}^{*}\mathsf{E} \mid (\mathsf{E})$

Make a parse tree for...

- a*b
- a+(b-c)
- d*(d+b)-a
- (a+b)*(c-d)
- a+(b-c)*d

Leftmost and Rightmost Derivation

- Leftmost derivation
 - Leftmost nonterminal is replaced in each step
- Rightmost derivation
 - Rightmost nonterminal is replaced in each step
- Example
 - Grammar
 - $\succ S \rightarrow AB, A \rightarrow a, B \rightarrow b$
 - Leftmost derivation for "ab"
 - $\succ S \Rightarrow AB \Rightarrow aB \Rightarrow ab$
 - Rightmost derivation for "ab"
 - $\succ S \Rightarrow AB \Rightarrow Ab \Rightarrow ab$

Parse Tree For Derivations

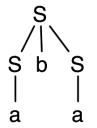
- Parse tree may be same for both leftmost & rightmost derivations
 - Example Grammar: $S \rightarrow a \mid SbS$ String: aba

Leftmost Derivation

 $S \Rightarrow SbS \Rightarrow abS \Rightarrow aba$

Rightmost Derivation

 $S \Rightarrow SbS \Rightarrow Sba \Rightarrow aba$



- Parse trees don't show order productions are applied
- Every parse tree has a unique leftmost and a unique rightmost derivation

Parse Tree For Derivations (cont.)

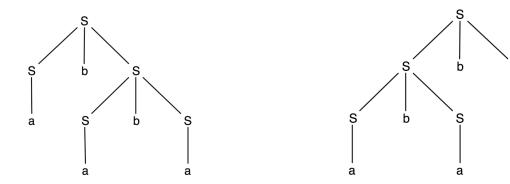
- Not every string has a unique parse tree
 - Example Grammar: $S \rightarrow a \mid SbS$ String: ababa

Leftmost Derivation

 $S \Rightarrow SbS \Rightarrow abS \Rightarrow abSbS \Rightarrow ababS \Rightarrow ababa$

Another Leftmost Derivation

 $\mathsf{S} \Rightarrow \mathsf{S}\mathsf{b}\mathsf{S} \Rightarrow \mathsf{S}\mathsf{b}\mathsf{S}\mathsf{b}\mathsf{S} \Rightarrow \mathsf{a}\mathsf{b}\mathsf{S}\mathsf{b}\mathsf{S} \Rightarrow \mathsf{a}\mathsf{b}\mathsf{a}\mathsf{b}\mathsf{s} \Rightarrow \mathsf{a}\mathsf{b}\mathsf{a}\mathsf{b}\mathsf{s}$



Ambiguity

 A grammar is ambiguous if a string may have multiple leftmost derivations

I saw a girl with a telescope.



Ambiguity

- A grammar is ambiguous if a string may have multiple leftmost derivations
 - Equivalent to multiple parse trees
 - Can be hard to determine
 - 1. $S \rightarrow aS \mid T$ $T \rightarrow bT \mid U$ No $U \rightarrow cU \mid \epsilon$ 2. $S \rightarrow T \mid T$ $T \rightarrow Tx \mid Tx \mid x \mid x$ 3. $S \rightarrow SS \mid () \mid (S)$?

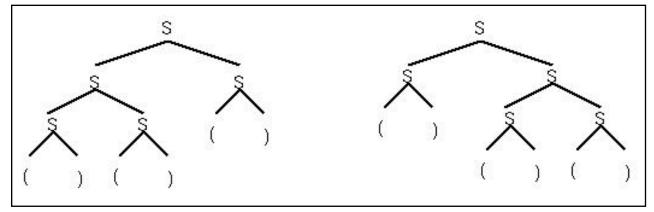
Ambiguity (cont.)

Example

- Grammar: $S \rightarrow SS \mid () \mid (S)$ String: ()()()
- 2 distinct (leftmost) derivations (and parse trees)

 $\succ S \Rightarrow \underline{S}S \Rightarrow \underline{S}SS \Rightarrow \underline{S}SS \Rightarrow \underline{S}S) = \underline{S}S = \underline{S}S) = \underline{S}S = \underline{S}S) = \underline{S}S = \underline{S}S) = \underline{S}S = \underline{S}S = \underline{S}S) = \underline{S}S = \underline{S}S) = \underline{S}S = \underline{S}S) = \underline{S}S = \underline{S}S) = \underline{S}S = \underline{S}S$

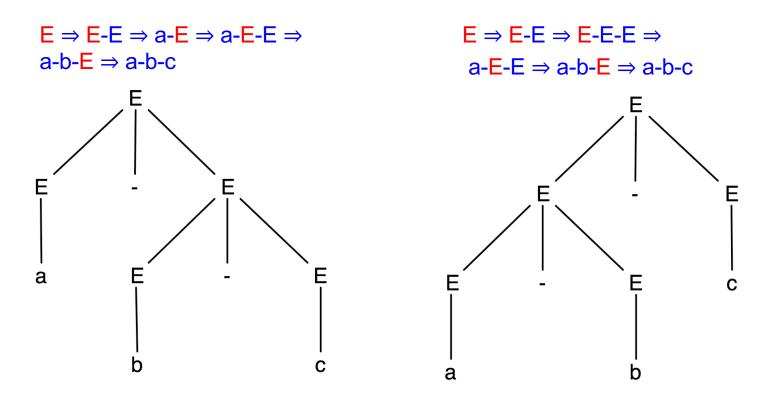
 $\succ S \Rightarrow \underline{S}S \Rightarrow ()\underline{S} \Rightarrow ()\underline{S}S \Rightarrow ()()\underline{S} \Rightarrow ()()()$



CFGs for Programming Languages

- Recall that our goal is to describe programming languages with CFGs
- We had the following example which describes limited arithmetic expressions
 E → a | b | c | E+E | E-E | E*E | (E)
- What's wrong with using this grammar?
 - It's ambiguous!

Example: a-b-c



Corresponds to (a-b)-c

Example: a-b*c

 $E \Rightarrow E - E \Rightarrow a - E \Rightarrow a - E^* E \Rightarrow$ $a-b^*E \Rightarrow a-b^*c$ Е Ε Ε Ε а Е

С

 $E \Rightarrow E - E \Rightarrow E - E^* E \Rightarrow$ $a-E^*E \Rightarrow a-b^*E \Rightarrow a-b^*c$ Ε Ε Ε Е Ε С а b

Corresponds to (a-b)*c

b

Another Example: If-Then-Else

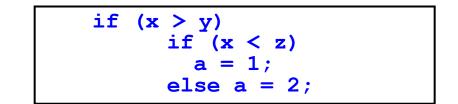
Aka the dangling else problem

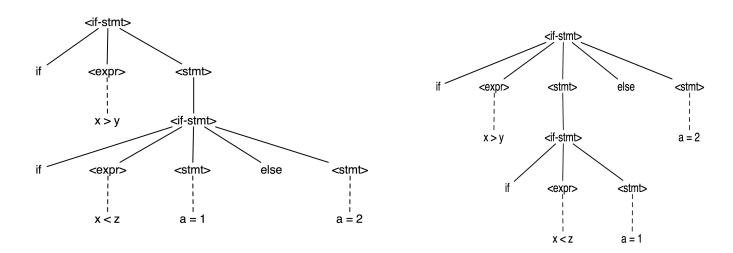
<stmt> \rightarrow <assignment> | <if-stmt> | ... <if-stmt> \rightarrow if (<expr>) <stmt> | if (<expr>) <stmt> else <stmt> (Recall < >' s are used to denote nonterminals)

Consider the following program fragment

if (x > y)
 if (x < z)
 a = 1;
 else a = 2;
(Note: Ignore newlines)</pre>

Two Parse Trees





Which of the following grammars is ambiguous?

- A. $S \rightarrow 0SS1 \mid 0S1 \mid \epsilon$
- B. $S \rightarrow A1S1A \mid \epsilon$
 - $A \rightarrow 0$
- C. $S \rightarrow (S, S, S) \mid 1$
- D. None of the above.

Which of the following grammars is ambiguous?

A. $S \rightarrow 0SS1 | 0S1 | \epsilon$ B. $S \rightarrow A1S1A | \epsilon$ $A \rightarrow 0$ C. $S \rightarrow (S, S, S) | 1$ D. None of the above.

Dealing With Ambiguous Grammars

Ambiguity is bad

- Syntax is correct
- But semantics differ depending on choice
 - > Different associativity
 - > Different precedence
 - > Different control flow

(a-b)-c vs. a-(b-c)

(a-b)*c vs. a-(b*c)

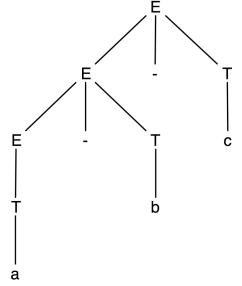
if (if else) vs. if (if) else

Two approaches

- Rewrite grammar
 - Grammars are not unique can have multiple grammars for the same language. But result in different parses.
- Use special parsing rules
 - > Depending on parsing tool

Fixing the Expression Grammar

- Require right operand to not be bare expression
 E → E+T | E-T | E*T | T
 T → a | b | c | (E)
- Corresponds to left associativity
- Now only one parse tree for a-b-c
 - Find derivation

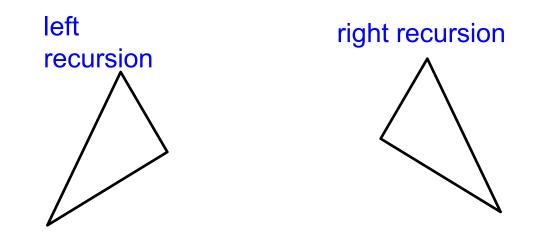


What if we want Right Associativity?

- Left-recursive productions
 - Used for left-associative operators
 - Example
 - $\mathsf{E} \to \mathsf{E}\text{+}\mathsf{T} \mid \mathsf{E}\text{-}\mathsf{T} \mid \mathsf{E}^{*}\mathsf{T} \mid \mathsf{T}$
 - $\mathsf{T} \to a \mid b \mid c \mid (\mathsf{E})$
- Right-recursive productions
 - Used for right-associative operators
 - Example
 - $\begin{array}{l} \mathsf{E} \rightarrow \mathsf{T} \textbf{+} \mathsf{E} \mid \mathsf{T} \textbf{-} \mathsf{E} \mid \mathsf{T}^{\star} \mathsf{E} \mid \mathsf{T} \\ \mathsf{T} \rightarrow \mathsf{a} \mid \mathsf{b} \mid \mathsf{c} \mid (\mathsf{E}) \end{array}$

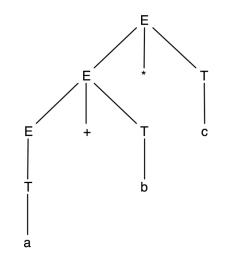
Parse Tree Shape

The kind of recursion determines the shape of the parse tree



A Different Problem

- How about the string a+b*c ?
 E → E+T | E-T | E*T | T
 T → a | b | c | (E)
- Doesn't have correct
 - precedence for *



- When a nonterminal has productions for several operators, they effectively have the same precedence
- Solution Introduce new nonterminals

Final Expression Grammar

- $\begin{array}{ll} \mathsf{E} \to \mathsf{E} + \mathsf{T} \mid \mathsf{E} \mathsf{T} \mid \mathsf{T} & \text{lowest precedence operators} \\ \mathsf{T} \to \mathsf{T}^* \mathsf{P} \mid \mathsf{P} & \text{higher precedence} \\ \mathsf{P} \to \mathsf{a} \mid \mathsf{b} \mid \mathsf{c} \mid (\mathsf{E}) & \text{highest precedence (parentheses)} \end{array}$
- Controlling precedence of operators
 - Introduce new nonterminals
 - Precedence increases closer to operands
- Controlling associativity of operators
 - Introduce new nonterminals
 - Assign associativity based on production form
 - > $E \rightarrow E+T$ (left associative) vs. $E \rightarrow T+E$ (right associative)
 - > But parsing method might limit form of rules

Conclusion

- Context Free Grammars (CFGs) can describe programming language syntax
 - They are a kind of formal language that is more powerful than regular expressions
- CFGs can also be used as the basis for programming language parsers (details later)
 - But the grammar should not be ambiguous
 - > May need to change more natural grammar to make it so
 - Parsing often aims to produce abstract syntax trees
 - > Data structure that records the key elements of program