

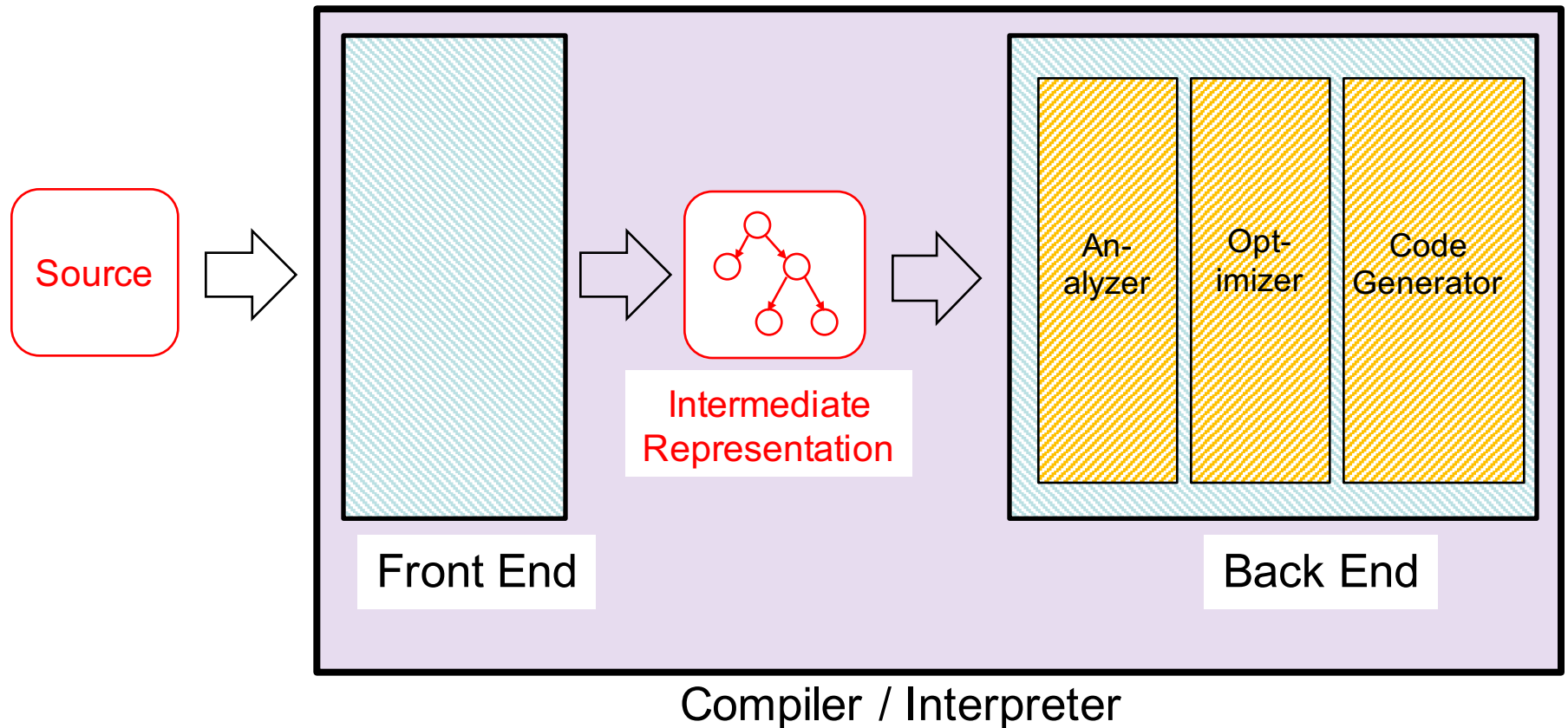
# CMSC 330: Organization of Programming Languages

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## Context Free Grammars

# Architecture of Compilers, Interpreters

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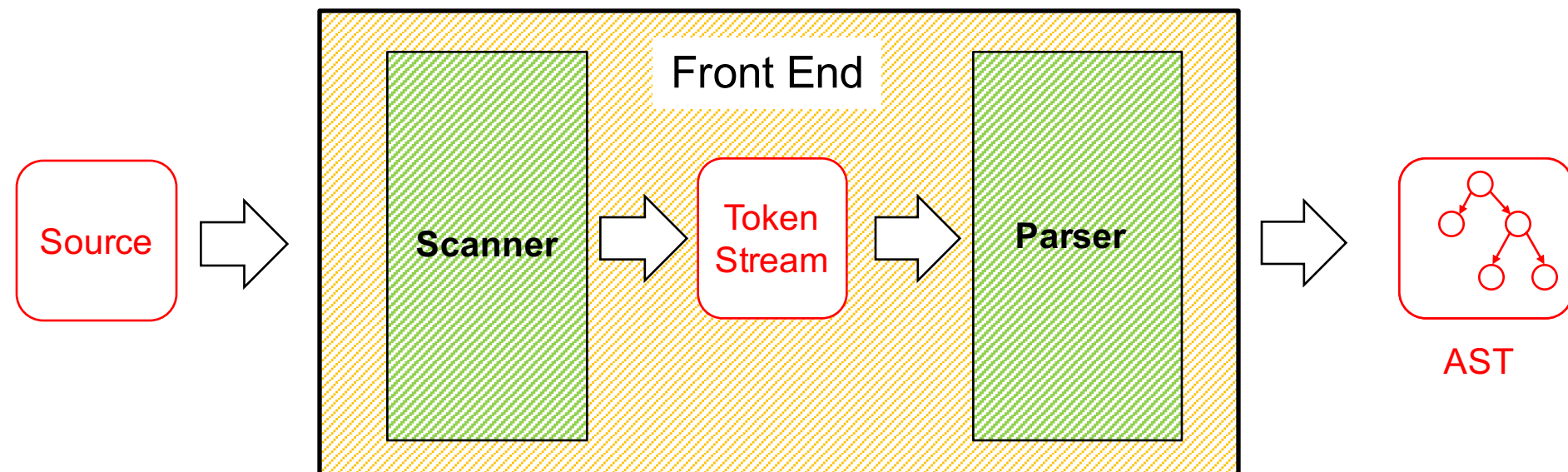
# Implementing the Front End

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- ▶ 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: Regexp for tokens (**scanning**), and **Context Free Grammars** for **parsing** tokens

# Front End – Scanner and Parser

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- **Scanner / lexer** converts program source into **tokens** (keywords, variable names, operators, numbers, etc.) using regular expressions
- **Parser** converts sequence of tokens into **AST** (abstract syntax tree) using context free grammars.

# Context Free Grammar (CFG)

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

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

# Context-Free Grammars (CFGs)

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- ▶ But CFGs can do what regexps cannot
  - $S \rightarrow ( S ) \mid \varepsilon$  // represents balanced pairs of ( )'s
- ▶ In fact, CFGs subsume REs, DFAs, NFAs
  - There is a CFG that generates any regular language
  - But REs are a better notation for regular languages
- ▶ CFGs can specify programming language syntax
  - CFGs (mostly) describe the parsing process

# Parsing with CFGs

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

# Formal Definition: Context-Free Grammar

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- ▶ A CFG  $G$  is a 4-tuple  $(\Sigma, N, P, S)$ 
  - $\Sigma$  – 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  $\rightarrow$
    - Can think of productions as rewriting rules (more later)
  - $S \in N$  – the start symbol

# Notational Shortcuts

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- ▶ 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  $\varepsilon$

|                     |                                |
|---------------------|--------------------------------|
| $S \rightarrow ABC$ | // S is start symbol           |
| $A \rightarrow aA$  |                                |
| b                   | // $A \rightarrow b$           |
|                     | // $A \rightarrow \varepsilon$ |

# Backus-Naur Form

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- ▶ Context-free grammar production rules are also called Backus-Naur Form or **BNF**
  - A production like  $A \rightarrow B c D$  is written in BNF as  $\langle A \rangle ::= \langle B \rangle c \langle D \rangle$  (Non-terminals written with angle brackets and  $::=$  instead of  $\rightarrow$ )
  - Often used to describe language syntax
- ▶ BNF was designed by
  - John Backus
    - Chair of the Algol committee in the early 1960s
  - Peter Naur
    - Secretary of the committee, who used this notation to describe Algol in 1962

# Generating Strings

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- ▶ We can think of a grammar as **generating** strings by rewriting
- ▶ Example grammar:

$$S \rightarrow 0S$$

$$S \rightarrow 1S$$

$$S \rightarrow \varepsilon$$

- $S \Rightarrow 0S$  // using  $S \rightarrow 0S$
- $\Rightarrow 01S$  // using  $S \rightarrow 1S$
- $\Rightarrow 011S$  // using  $S \rightarrow 1S$
- $\Rightarrow 011$  // using  $S \rightarrow \varepsilon$

# Accepting Strings (Informally)

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- ▶ Determining if  $s \in L(S)$  is called **acceptance**: goal is to find a rewriting from  $S$  that yields  $s$ 
  - $011 \in L(S)$  according to the previous rewriting
  - A rewriting is some sequence of productions (**rewrites**) applied starting at the start symbol
- ▶ Terminology
  - Such a sequence of rewrites is a **derivation** or **parse**
  - Discovering the derivation is called **parsing**

# Derivations

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## ► Notation

$\Rightarrow$  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

- $S \rightarrow 0S \quad S \rightarrow 1S \quad S \rightarrow \varepsilon$

## ► For the string 010

- $S \Rightarrow 0S \Rightarrow 01S \Rightarrow 010S \Rightarrow 010$

- $S \Rightarrow^+ 010$

- $S \Rightarrow^* S$

# Language Generated by Grammar

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- ▶  $L(G)$  the language defined by  $G$  is

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

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

# Practice

---

- ▶ Try to make a grammar which accepts

- $0^*1^*$       –  $0^n1^n$  where  $n \geq 0$       –  $0^n1^m$  where  $m \leq n$

$$S \rightarrow A \mid B$$

$$A \rightarrow 0A \mid \varepsilon$$

$$B \rightarrow 1B \mid \varepsilon$$

$$S \rightarrow 0S1 \mid \varepsilon$$

$$S \rightarrow 0S1 \mid 0S \mid \varepsilon$$

- ▶ Give some example strings from this language

- $S \rightarrow 0 \mid 1S$

- 0, 10, 110, 1110, 11110, ...

- What language is it, as a regexp?

- $1^*0$

# Example: Arithmetic Expressions

---

- ▶  $E \rightarrow a \mid b \mid c \mid E+E \mid E-E \mid E^*E \mid (E)$ 
  - 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
  - $\{a, b, c, a+b, a+a, a^*c, a-(b^*a), c^*(b + a), \dots\}$
- ▶ Example strings not in the language
  - $d, c(a), a+, b^{**}c, \text{etc.}$

# Formal Description of Example

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- Formally, the grammar we just showed is
  - $\Sigma = \{ +, -, *, (, ), a, b, c \}$  // terminals
  - $N = \{ E \}$  // nonterminals
  - $P = \{ \begin{array}{l} E \rightarrow a, E \rightarrow b, E \rightarrow c, \\ E \rightarrow E-E, E \rightarrow E+E, \\ E \rightarrow E * E, \\ E \rightarrow (E) \end{array} \}$  // productions
  - $S = E$  // start symbol

# (Non-)Uniqueness of Grammars

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- ▶ Different grammars generate the same set of strings (language)
- ▶ The following grammar generates the same set of strings as the previous grammar

$$E \rightarrow E+T \mid E-T \mid T$$

$$T \rightarrow T*P \mid P$$

$$P \rightarrow (E) \mid a \mid b \mid c$$

# Practice

---

- ▶ Given the grammar

$S \rightarrow aS \mid T$

$T \rightarrow bT \mid U$

$U \rightarrow cU \mid \varepsilon$

- Provide derivations for the following strings

➤  $b$        $S \Rightarrow T \Rightarrow bT \Rightarrow bU \Rightarrow b$

➤  $ac$        $S \Rightarrow aS \Rightarrow aT \Rightarrow aU \Rightarrow acU \Rightarrow ac$

➤  $bbc$        $S \Rightarrow T \Rightarrow bT \Rightarrow bbT \Rightarrow bbU \Rightarrow bbcU \Rightarrow bbc$

- Does the grammar generate the following?

➤  $S \Rightarrow^+ ccc$     Yes       $S \Rightarrow^+ bS$     No

➤  $S \Rightarrow^+ bab$     No       $S \Rightarrow^+ Ta$     No

# Practice

---

- ▶ Given the grammar

$$S \rightarrow aS \mid T$$
$$T \rightarrow bT \mid U$$
$$U \rightarrow cU \mid \varepsilon$$

- Name language accepted by grammar
  - $a^*b^*c^*$
- Give a different grammar accepting language

$$S \rightarrow ABC$$
$$A \rightarrow aA \mid \varepsilon \quad // a^*$$
$$B \rightarrow bB \mid \varepsilon \quad // b^*$$
$$C \rightarrow cC \mid \varepsilon \quad // c^*$$

# Parse Trees

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- ▶ 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  $\epsilon$
- ▶ Reading the leaves left to right
  - Shows the string corresponding to the tree

# Parse Tree Example

---

S

S

$S \rightarrow aS \mid T$

$T \rightarrow bT \mid U$

$U \rightarrow cU \mid \varepsilon$

# Parse Tree Example

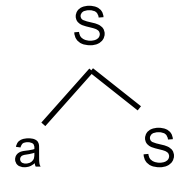
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$$S \Rightarrow aS$$

$$S \rightarrow aS \mid T$$

$$T \rightarrow bT \mid U$$

$$U \rightarrow cU \mid \varepsilon$$



# Parse Tree Example

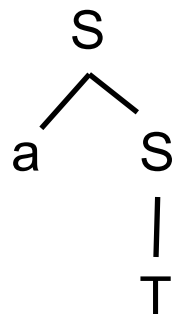
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$$S \Rightarrow aS \Rightarrow aT$$

$$S \rightarrow aS \mid T$$

$$T \rightarrow bT \mid U$$

$$U \rightarrow cU \mid \varepsilon$$



# Parse Tree Example

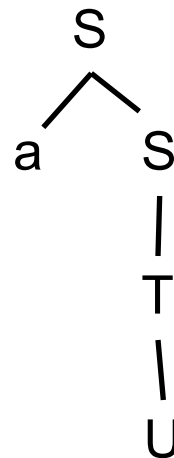
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$S \Rightarrow aS \Rightarrow aT \Rightarrow aU$

$S \rightarrow aS \mid T$

$T \rightarrow bT \mid U$

$U \rightarrow cU \mid \varepsilon$



# Parse Tree Example

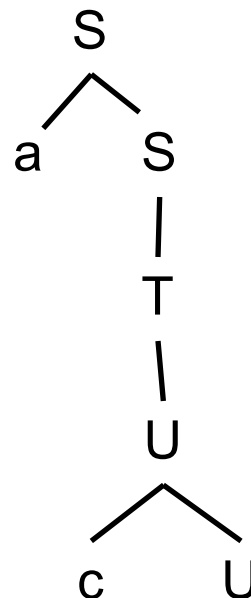
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$S \Rightarrow aS \Rightarrow aT \Rightarrow aU \Rightarrow acU$

$S \rightarrow aS \mid T$

$T \rightarrow bT \mid U$

$U \rightarrow cU \mid \varepsilon$



# Parse Tree Example

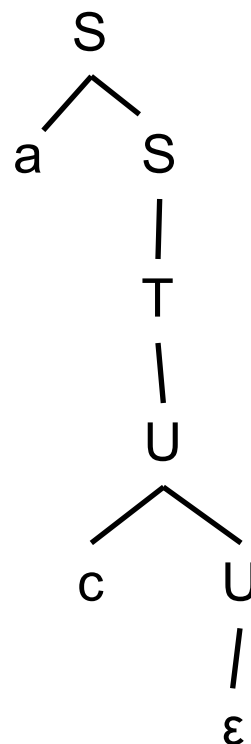
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$S \Rightarrow aS \Rightarrow aT \Rightarrow aU \Rightarrow acU \Rightarrow ac$

$S \rightarrow aS \mid T$

$T \rightarrow bT \mid U$

$U \rightarrow cU \mid \varepsilon$



# Parse Trees for Expressions

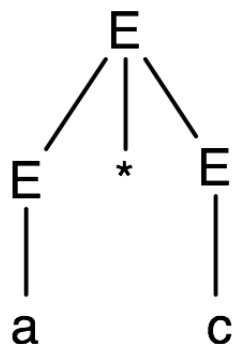
- ▶ A **parse tree** shows the structure of an expression as it corresponds to a grammar

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

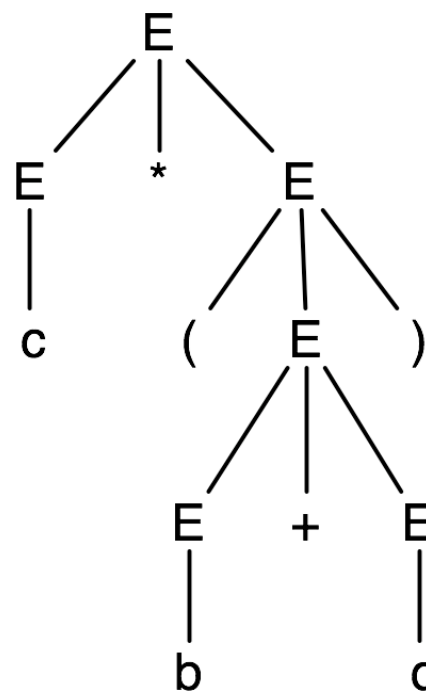
a



a\*c



c\*(b+d)



# Practice

---

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

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
    - $S \rightarrow AB, A \rightarrow a, B \rightarrow b$
  - Leftmost derivation for “ab”
    - $S \Rightarrow AB \Rightarrow aB \Rightarrow ab$
  - Rightmost derivation for “ab”
    - $S \Rightarrow AB \Rightarrow Ab \Rightarrow ab$

# Parse Tree For Derivations

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- ▶ Parse tree may be same for both leftmost & rightmost derivations

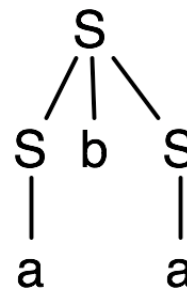
- Example Grammar:  $S \rightarrow a \mid SbS$       String:  $aba$

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

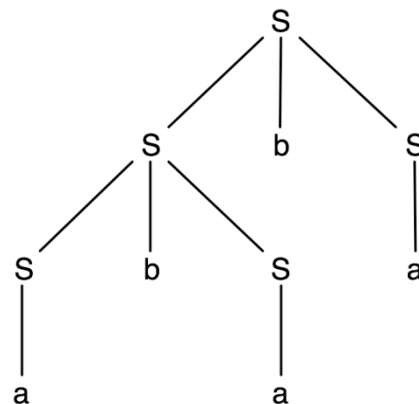
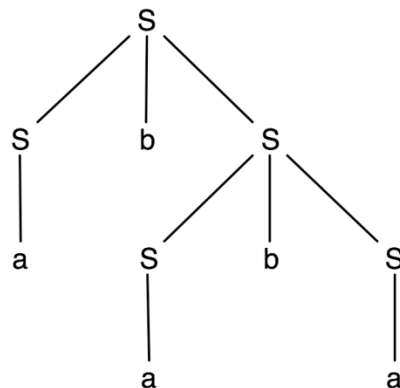
- Example Grammar:  $S \rightarrow a \mid SbS$     String: **ababa**

Leftmost Derivation

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

Another Leftmost Derivation

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



# Ambiguity

---

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

- Equivalent to multiple parse trees
- Can be hard to determine

1.  $S \rightarrow aS \mid T$

$$T \rightarrow bT \mid U$$

$$U \rightarrow cU \mid \varepsilon$$

**No**

2.  $S \rightarrow T \mid T$

$$T \rightarrow Tx \mid Tx \mid x \mid x$$

**Yes**

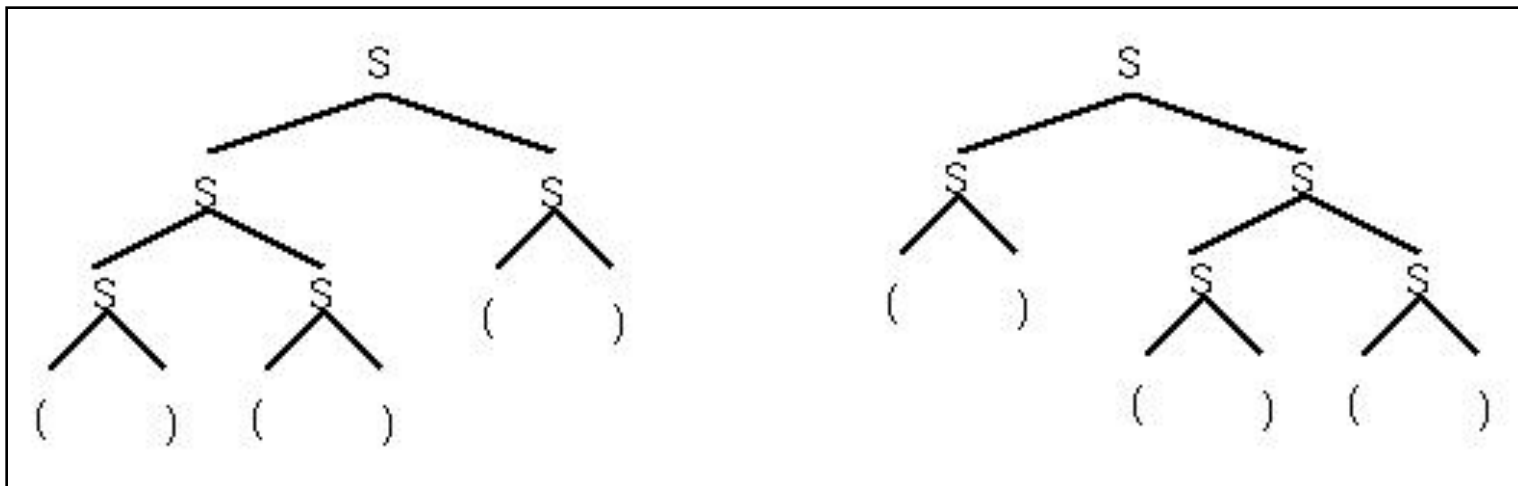
3.  $S \rightarrow SS \mid () \mid (S)$

**?**

# Ambiguity (cont.)

## ► Example

- Grammar:  $S \rightarrow SS \mid () \mid (S)$  String:  $()()()$
- 2 distinct (leftmost) derivations (and parse trees)
  - $S \Rightarrow \underline{SS} \Rightarrow \underline{SSS} \Rightarrow ()\underline{SS} \Rightarrow ()()\underline{S} \Rightarrow ()()()$
  - $S \Rightarrow \underline{SS} \Rightarrow ()\underline{S} \Rightarrow ()\underline{SS} \Rightarrow ()()\underline{S} \Rightarrow ()()()$



# CFGs for Programming Languages

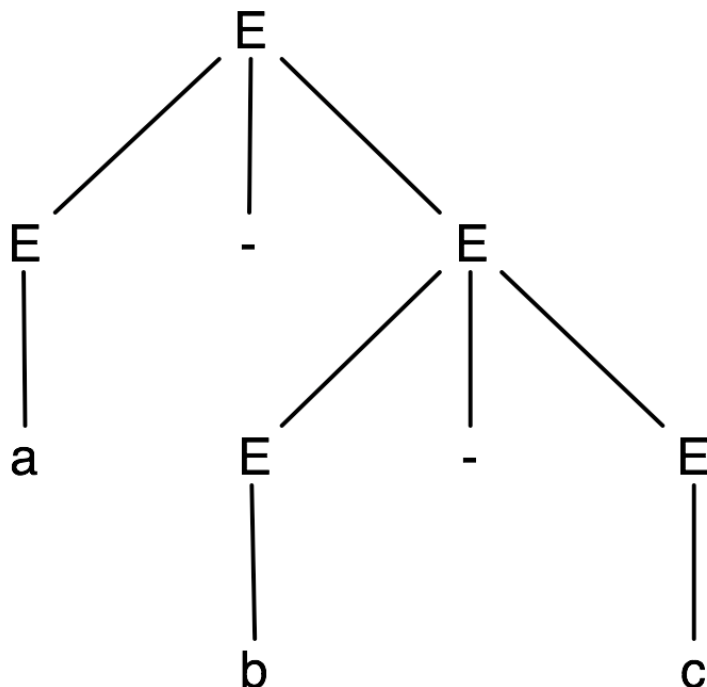
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- ▶ Recall that our goal is to describe programming languages with CFGs
- ▶ We had the following example which describes limited arithmetic expressions
$$E \rightarrow a \mid b \mid c \mid E+E \mid E-E \mid E^*E \mid (E)$$
- ▶ What's wrong with using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

# Example: a-b-c

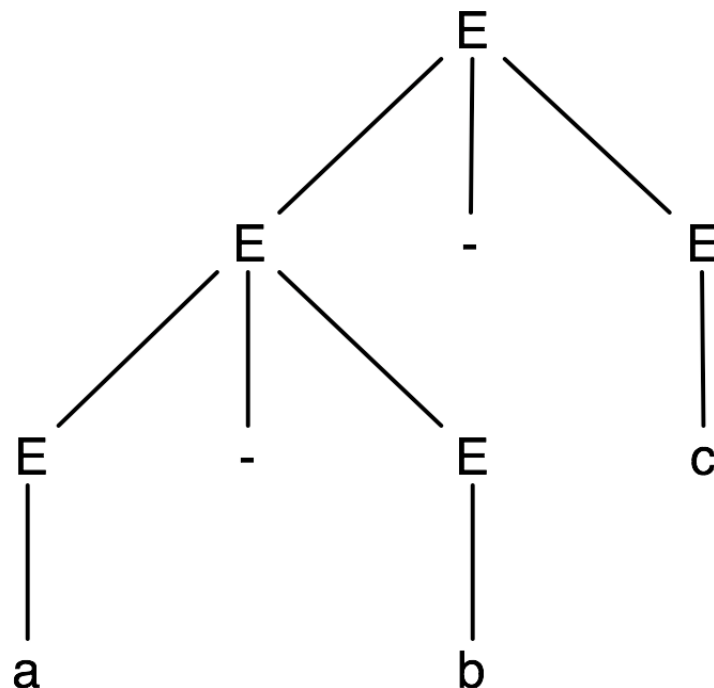
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$E \Rightarrow E-E \Rightarrow a-E \Rightarrow a-E-E \Rightarrow$   
 $a-b-E \Rightarrow a-b-c$



Corresponds to  $a-(b-c)$

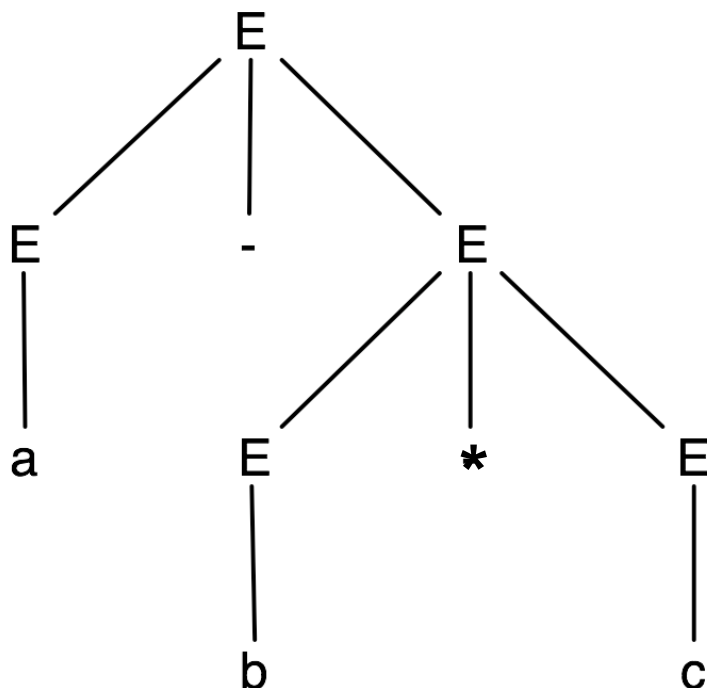
$E \Rightarrow E-E \Rightarrow E-E-E \Rightarrow$   
 $a-E-E \Rightarrow a-b-E \Rightarrow a-b-c$



Corresponds to  $(a-b)-c$

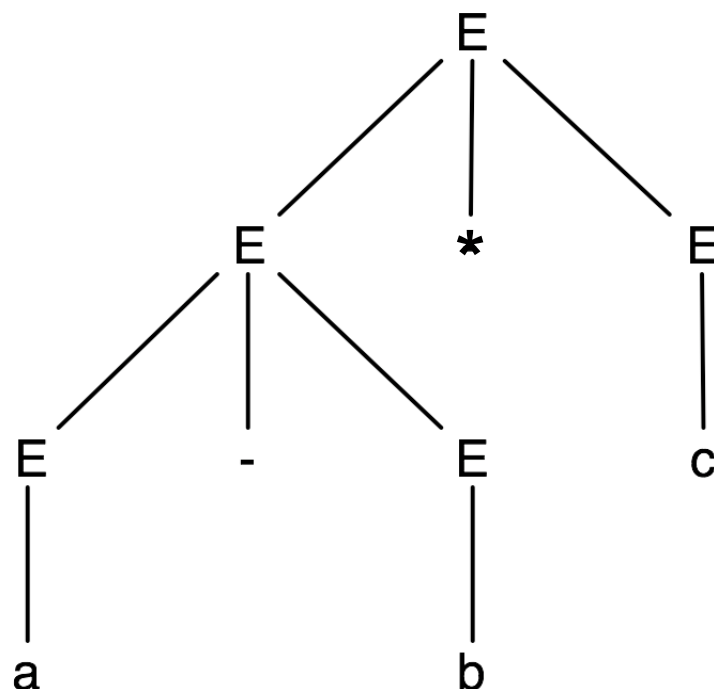
# Example: $a-b^*c$

$E \Rightarrow E-E \Rightarrow a-E \Rightarrow a-E^*E \Rightarrow$   
 $a-b^*E \Rightarrow a-b^*c$



Corresponds to  $a-(b^*c)$

$E \Rightarrow E-E \Rightarrow E-E^*E \Rightarrow$   
 $a-E^*E \Rightarrow a-b^*E \Rightarrow a-b^*c$



Corresponds to  $(a-b)^*c$

# Another Example: If-Then-Else

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Aka the dangling else problem

$\langle \text{stmt} \rangle \rightarrow \langle \text{assignment} \rangle \mid \langle \text{if-stmt} \rangle \mid \dots$

$\langle \text{if-stmt} \rangle \rightarrow \text{if } (\langle \text{expr} \rangle) \langle \text{stmt} \rangle \mid$   
 $\text{if } (\langle \text{expr} \rangle) \langle \text{stmt} \rangle \text{ else } \langle \text{stmt} \rangle$

(Note  $\langle \rangle$ 's are used to denote nonterminals)

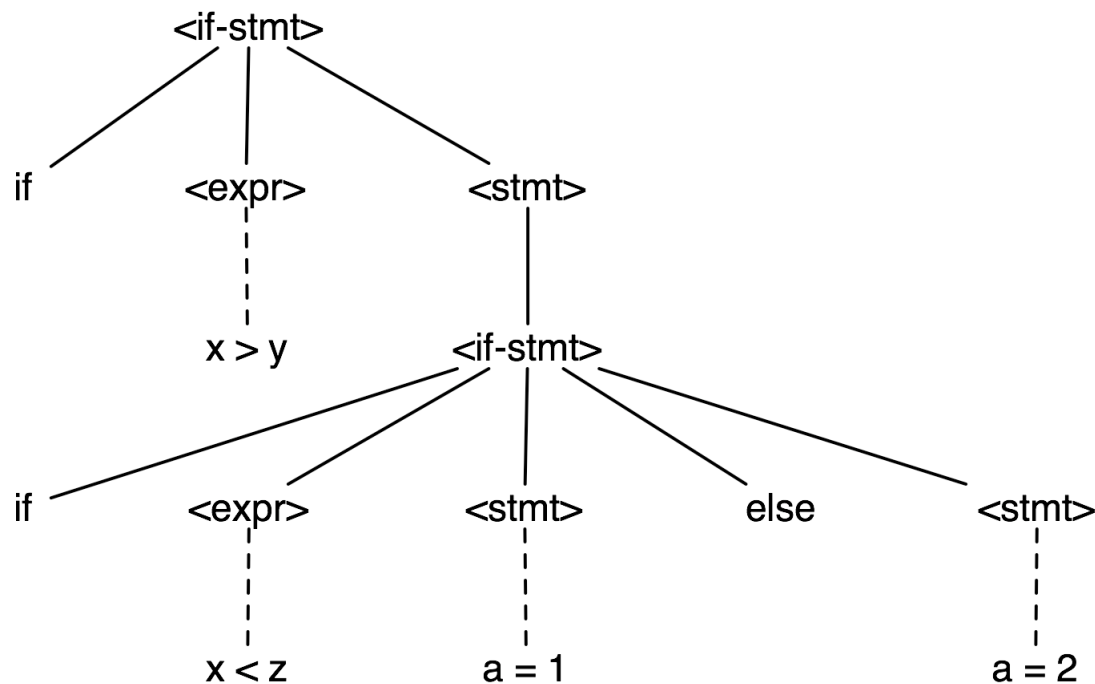
- Consider the following program fragment

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

(Note: Ignore newlines)

# Parse Tree #1

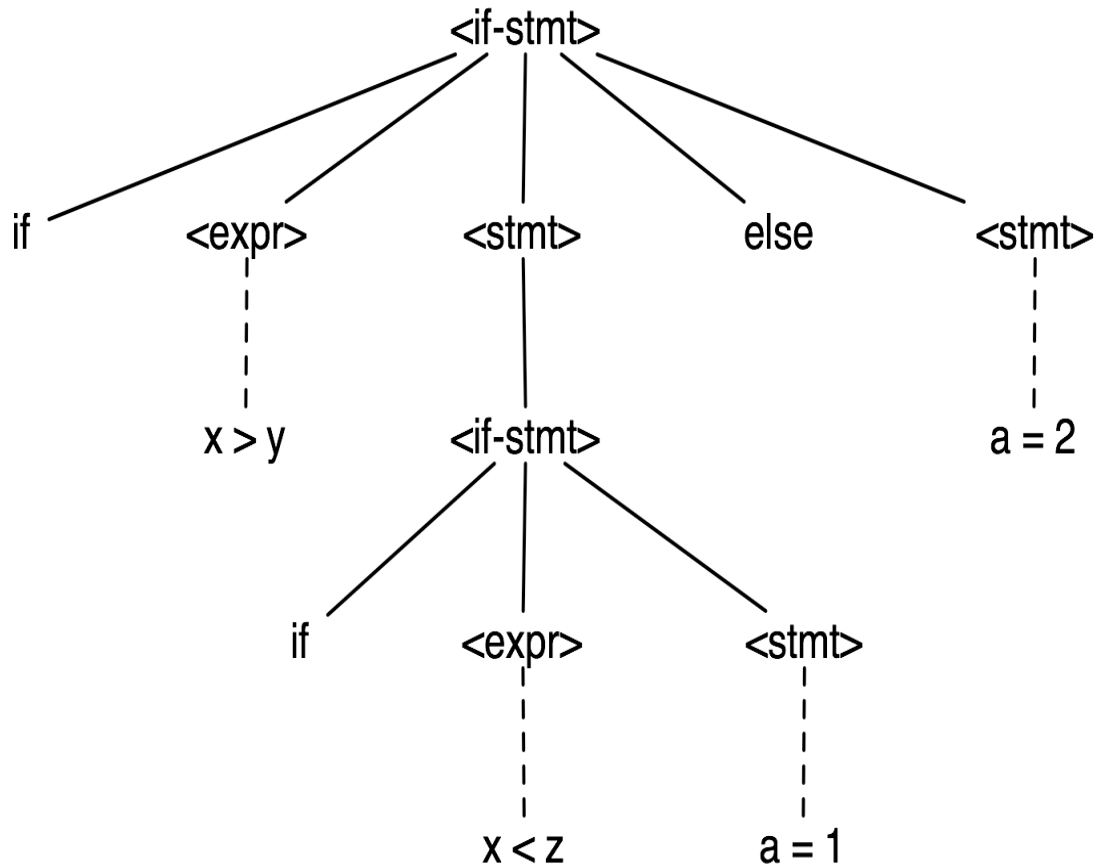
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- Else belongs to inner if

# Parse Tree #2

---



- Else belongs to outer if

# Dealing With Ambiguous Grammars

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- ▶ Ambiguity is bad
  - Syntax is correct
  - But semantics differ depending on choice
    - Different associativity  $(a-b)-c$  vs.  $a-(b-c)$
    - Different precedence  $(a-b)*c$  vs.  $a-(b*c)$
    - Different control flow `if (if else)` vs. `if (if) else`
- ▶ Two approaches
  - Rewrite grammar
  - Use special parsing rules
    - Depending on parsing method (learn in CMSC 430)

# Fixing the Expression Grammar

- Require right operand to not be bare expression

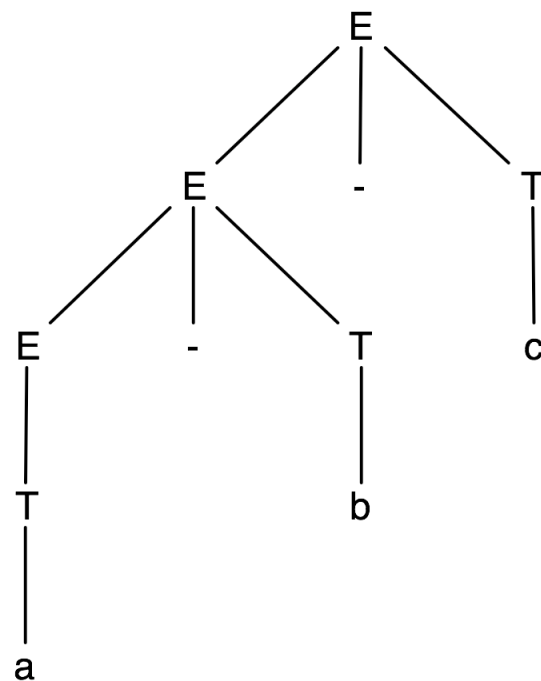
$$E \rightarrow E+T \mid E-T \mid E*T \mid T$$

$$T \rightarrow a \mid b \mid c \mid (E)$$

- 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

$$E \rightarrow E+T \mid E-T \mid E*T \mid T$$

$$T \rightarrow a \mid b \mid c \mid (E)$$

## ▶ Right-recursive productions

- Used for right-associative operators
- Example

$$E \rightarrow T+E \mid T-E \mid T*E \mid T$$

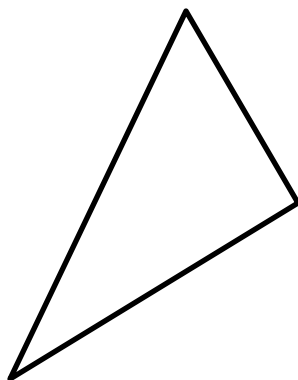
$$T \rightarrow a \mid b \mid c \mid (E)$$

# Parse Tree Shape

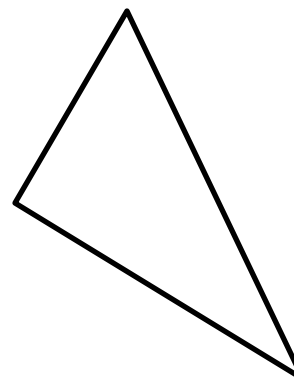
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- ▶ The kind of recursion determines the shape of the parse tree

left recursion



right recursion



# A Different Problem

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- ▶ How about the string  $a+b*c$  ?

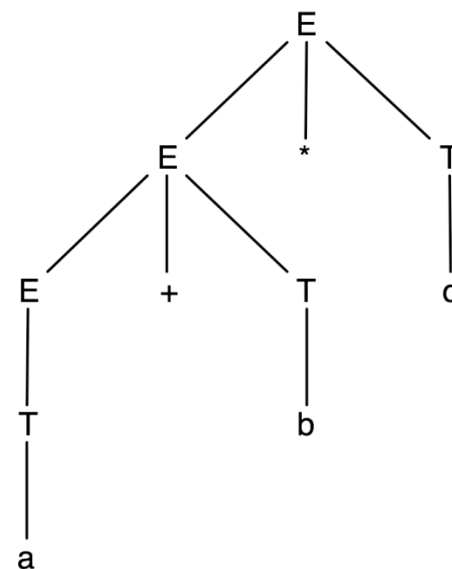
$E \rightarrow E+T \mid E-T \mid E*T \mid T$

$T \rightarrow a \mid b \mid c \mid (E)$

- ▶ 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

---

$E \rightarrow E+T \mid E-T \mid T$

lowest precedence operators

$T \rightarrow T*P \mid P$

higher precedence

$P \rightarrow a \mid b \mid c \mid (E)$

highest precedence (parentheses)

- ▶ 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)

# Tips For Designing Grammars

---

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

$A \rightarrow xA \mid \varepsilon$  // Zero or more  $x'$  s

$A \rightarrow yA \mid y$  // One or more  $y'$  s

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

$S \rightarrow AB$

$A \rightarrow aA \mid \varepsilon$  // Zero or more  $a'$  s

$B \rightarrow bB \mid \varepsilon$  // Zero or more  $b'$  s

# Tips For Designing Grammars (cont.)

---

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

$\{a^n b^n \mid n \geq 0\}$  // N a' s followed by N b' s

$S \rightarrow aSb \mid \epsilon$

Example derivation:  $S \Rightarrow aSb \Rightarrow aaSbb \Rightarrow aabb$

$\{a^n b^{2n} \mid n \geq 0\}$  // N a' s followed by 2N b' s

$S \rightarrow aSbb \mid \epsilon$

Example derivation:  $S \Rightarrow aSbb \Rightarrow aaSbbbb \Rightarrow aabbbb$

# Tips For Designing Grammars (cont.)

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

$\{ a^n(b^m|c^m) \mid m > n \geq 0 \}$

Can be rewritten as

$\{ a^n b^m \mid m > n \geq 0 \} \cup \{ a^n c^m \mid m > n \geq 0 \}$

$S \rightarrow T \mid V$

$T \rightarrow aTb \mid U$

$U \rightarrow Ub \mid b$

$V \rightarrow aVc \mid W$

$W \rightarrow Wc \mid c$