Grammar

CSE 413, Autumn 2002 Programming Languages

http://www.cs.washington.edu/education/courses/413/02au/

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Recall: Programming Language Specs

- Syntax of every significant programming language is specified by a formal grammar
 » BNF or some variation there on
- As language engineering has developed, formal methods have improved for defining useful grammars and tools for processing them

Productions

- The rules of a grammar are called *productions*
- Rules contain

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- » Nonterminal symbols: grammar variables (*program, statement, id,* etc.)
- » Terminal symbols: concrete syntax that appears in programs: a, b, c, 0, 1, if, (, ...
- Meaning of

nonterminal ::= <sequence of terminals and nonterminals> In a derivation, an instance of *nonterminal* can be replaced by the sequence of terminals and nonterminals on the right of the production

• Often, there are two or more productions for a single nonterminal – can use either at different times

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Grammar for D, a little language

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program ::= function-def | program function-def function-def ::= int id () { statements } int id (parameters) { statements } int id() { declarations statements } int id (parameters) { declarations statements } parameters ::= parameter | parameters, parameter parameter ::= int id declarations ::= declaration | declarations declaration declaration ::= int id ; statements ::= statement | statements statement statement ::= id = exp; | return exp; | { statements } | if (bool-exp) statement | if (bool-exp) statement else statement | while (bool-exp) statement $bool-exp ::= rel-exp \mid ! (rel-exp)$ rel-exp ::= exp == exp | exp > expexp ::= term | exp + term | exp - term*term* ::= *factor* | *term* * *factor* factor ::= id | int | (exp) | id () | id (exps) $exps ::= exp \mid exps, exp$

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Grammar for Java, a big language

- The Java[™] Language Specification, *Second Edition*
 - » Entire document

500+ pages Grammar productions with explanatory text

» Chapter 18, Syntax

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8 pages of grammar productions, presented in "BNF-style"

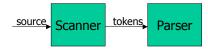
Parsing

- Parsing: reconstruct the derivation (syntactic structure) of a program
- In principle, a single recognizer could work directly from the concrete, character-by-character grammar
 - » In practice this is never done

Parsing & Scanning

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- In real compilers the recognizer is split into two phases
 - » Scanner: translate input characters to tokens Also, report lexical errors like illegal characters and illegal symbols
 - » Parser: read token stream and reconstruct the derivation



Parsing

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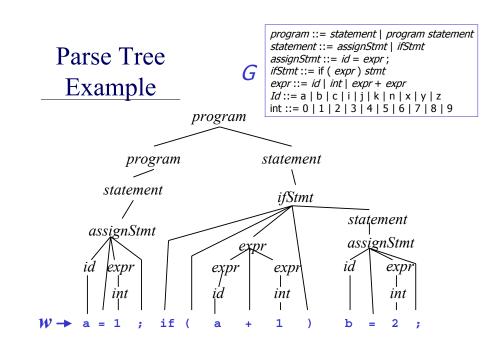
- The syntax of most programming languages can be specified by a *context-free grammar* (CFG)
- Parsing

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- » Given a grammar G and a sentence w in L(G), traverse the derivation (parse tree) for w in some *standard order* and do *something useful* at each node
- » The tree might not be produced explicitly, but the control flow of a parser corresponds to a traversal

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"Standard Order"

- For practical reasons we want the parser to be *deterministic* (no backtracking), and we want to examine the source program from *left to right*.
 - » parse the program in linear time in the order it appears in the source file

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Common Orderings

- Top-down
 - » Start with the root
 - » Traverse the parse tree depth-first, left-to-right (leftmost derivation)
 - » LL(k)
- Bottom-up
 - » Start at leaves and build up to the root Effectively a rightmost derivation in reverse
 - » LR(k) and subsets (LALR(k), SLR(k), etc.)

"Something Useful"

- At each point (node) in the traversal, perform some *semantic action*
 - » Construct nodes of full parse tree (rare)
 - » Construct abstract syntax tree (common)
 - » Construct linear, lower-level representation (more common in later parts of a modern compiler)
 - » Generate target code on the fly (1-pass compiler; not common in production compilers – can't generate very good code in one pass)

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Context-Free Grammars

- Formally, a grammar *G* is a tuple <*N*,Σ,*P*,*S*> where
 - » N a finite set of non-terminal symbols
 - » Σ a finite set of terminal symbols
 - » *P* a finite set of productions A subset of $N \times (N \cup \Sigma)^*$
 - » S the start symbol, a distinguished element of N If not specified otherwise, this is usually assumed to be the non-terminal on the left of the first production

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Standard Notations

a, b, c	elements of Σ	terminals
w, x, y, z	elements of Σ^*	strings of terminals
A, B, C	elements of N	non-terminals
X, Y, Z	elements of $N \cup \Sigma$	grammar symbols
α, β, γ	elements of $(N \cup \Sigma)^*$	strings of symbols
$A \rightarrow \alpha$ or $A ::= \alpha$ if $< A, \alpha > in P$		
"non-terminal A can take the form α "		

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Derivation Relations

- $\alpha \land \gamma \Rightarrow \alpha \land \gamma$ iff $A ::= \beta in P$ \Rightarrow "=>" is read "derives"
- A =>* w if there is a chain of productions starting with A that generates w
 - » transitive closure

Derivation Relations

- w A $\gamma =>_{lm} w \beta \gamma$ iff A ::= β in P » derives leftmost
- $\alpha A w \Longrightarrow_{rm} \alpha \beta w$ iff $A ::= \beta$ in *P* » derives rightmost
- We will only be interested in leftmost and rightmost derivations not random orderings

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Languages

- For A in $N, L(A) = \{ w | A =>* w \}$
- If *S* is the start symbol of grammar *G*, define L(G) = L(S)
 - » The language derived by G is the language derived by the start symbol S

Reduced Grammars

Grammar *G* is *reduced* iff for every production A ::= α in *G* there is a derivation

 $S \Longrightarrow x \land z \Longrightarrow x \alpha z \Longrightarrow xyz$

» i.e., no production is useless

• Convention: we will use only reduced grammars

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Ambiguity

- Grammar *G* is *unambiguous* iff every *w* in *L*(*G*) has a unique leftmost (or rightmost) derivation
 - » Fact: unique leftmost or unique rightmost implies the other
- A grammar without this property is *ambiguous*
 - » Note that other grammars that generate the same language may be unambiguous
- We need unambiguous grammars for parsing

Ambiguous Grammar for Expressions

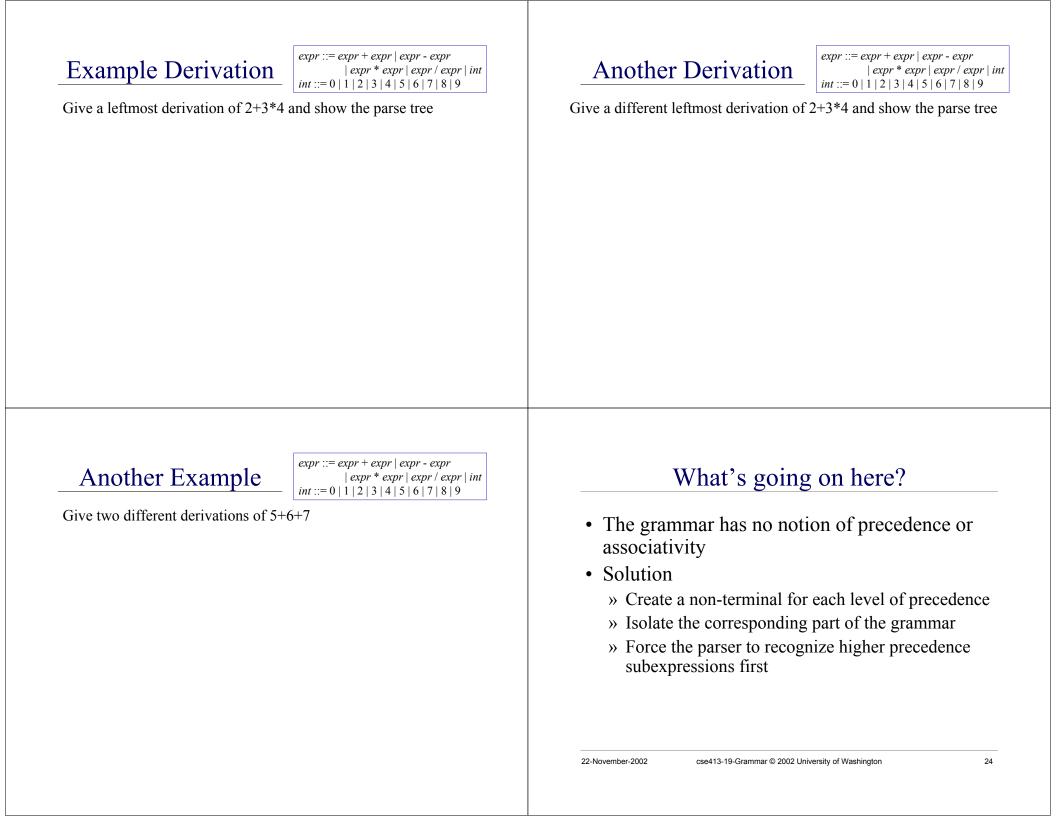
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- expr ::= expr + expr | expr expr | expr * expr | expr / expr | int int ::= 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9
- Show that this is ambiguous
 - » How? Show two different leftmost or rightmost derivations for the same string
 - » Equivalently: show two different parse trees for the same string

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expr ::= expr + term | expr - term | termDerive 2 + 3 * 4 Classic Expression Grammar *term* ::= *term* * *factor* | *term* / *factor* | *factor* factor ::= int | (expr)*int* ::= 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 *expr* ::= *expr* + *term* | *expr* - *term* | *term term* ::= *term* * *factor* | *term* / *factor* | *factor factor* ::= *int* | (*expr*) *int* ::= 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 22-November-2002 cse413-19-Grammar © 2002 University of Washington 25 expr ::= expr + term | expr - term | termexpr ::= expr + term | expr - term | termDerive 5 + 6 + 7Derive 5 + (6 + 7)*term* ::= *term* * *factor* | *term* / *factor* | *factor* term ::= term * factor | term / factor | factor factor := int | (expr)factor ::= int | (expr)*int* ::= 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 *int* ::= 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7

Another Classic Example	One Derivationif (cond) stmt if (cond) stmt else stmt
Grammar for conditional statements	
ifStmt ::= if(cond) stmt	
if (cond) stmt else stmt	
» Exercise: show that this is ambiguous How?	
22-November-2002 cse413-19-Grammar © 2002 University of Washington 29	if (cond) if (cond) stmt else stmt
Another Derivation <i>ifStmt</i> ::= if (<i>cond</i>) <i>stmt</i> if (<i>cond</i>) <i>stmt</i> else <i>stmt</i>	Solving if Ambiguity
	 Fix the grammar to separate if statements with else clause and if statements with no else » Done in Java reference grammar
	» Adds lots of non-terminals
	. Use some of bee rule in norman
	• Use some ad-hoc rule in parser

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