

# Compiler Construction

## Week 03- Context-Free Grammars

### A few necessary definitions

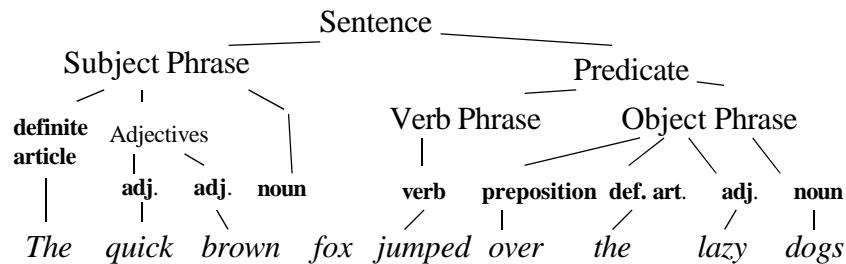
Parse - *vt*, to resolve (as a sentence) into component parts of speech and describe them grammatically

Grammar - *n*, the study of the classes of words, their inflections, and their functions and relations in the sentence

Syntax - *n*, the way in which words are put together to form phrases, clauses or sentences

# The Parsing Process

Syntactic Analysis (or **Parsing**) involves breaking a program into its **syntactic** components



## The Parsing Process (continued)

Nb: In the previous example, **subject phrase**, **predicate**, **adjectives**, etc. were **nonterminals**.

**definite article**, **adjective**, **noun**, **verb**, etc. were **terminals**

A language is a set of sentences formed from the set of basic symbols.

A grammar is the set of rules that govern how we determine if these sentences are part of the language or not.

## The Parsing Process (continued)

The analysis is based purely on syntax. A syntactically correct sentence can be nonsensical:

### **Example:**

A group of trout were flying east, where they hunted down camels for their dinner.

## Parsing as a procedure

The parser takes tokens from scanner as necessary and produces a tree structure (or analyzes the program as if it were producing one). It is called as a procedure of the main program:

```
struct parsenoderec      *parsetree;  
parsetree = parse( );
```

In most real cases, the parser actually returns a pointer to an abstract syntax tree or some other intermediate representation.

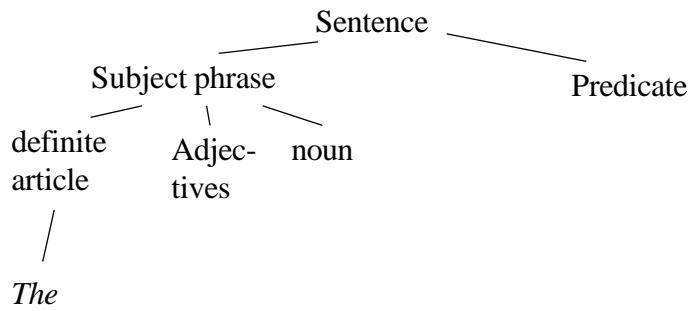
## Error recovery during parsing

- The parser will (or certainly *should*) spot any and all syntactic errors in the program.
- This requires us to consider how we will handle recovery from any errors encountered:
  - We can consider any error fatal and point it out to the user immediately and terminate execution.
  - We can attempt to find a logical place within the program where we can resume parsing so that we can spot other potential errors as well.

## Types of Parsers

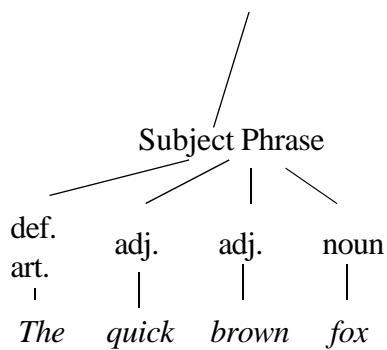
- Parsers can be either top-down or bottom-up:
  - Top-down parsers build the parse-tree starting from the root building until all the tokens are associated with a leaf on the parse tree.
  - Bottom-up parsers build the parse-tree starting from the leaves, assembling the tree fragments until the parse tree is complete.

## Top-down Parsers



Top-down parsing assumes a certain minimum structure as we start building the parse tree

## Bottom-up parsers



Bottom-up parsers *shift* by each token, *reducing* them into a non-terminal as the grammar requires.

Nb: Until we finish building the predicate, we have no reason to reduce anything into the nonterminal *Sentence*

## Types of Parsers (continued)

- Parsers can be either table-driven or handwritten:
  - Table-driven parsers perform the parsing using a driver procedure and a table containing pertinent information about the grammar. The table is usually generated by automated software tools called parser generators.
  - Handwritten parsers are hand-coded using the grammar as a guide for the various parsing procedures.

## Types of Parsers (continued)

- LL(1) and LR(1) parsers are table-driven parsers which are top-down and bottom-up respectively.
- Recursive-descent parsers are top-down hand-written parsers.
- Operator-precedence parsers are bottom-up parsers which are largely handwritten for parsing expressions.

## Context-Free Grammars

A context-free grammar is defined by the 4-tuple:

$$G = (T, N, S, P)$$

where

**T** = The set of *terminals* (e.g., the tokens returned by the scanner)

**N** = The set of *nonterminals* (denoting structures within the language such as *DeclarationSection*, *Function*).

**S** = The *start symbol* (in most instances, our program).

**P** = The set of *productions* (rules governing how tokens are arranged into syntactic units).

## Context-Free Grammars

- Context-free grammars are well-suited to programming languages because they restrict the manner in which programming construct can be used and thus simplify the process of analyzing its use in a program.
- They are called context-free because the manner in which we parse any nonterminal is independent of the other symbols surrounding it (i.e., parsing is done without respect to *context*)
- The grammars of most programming languages are explicitly context-free (although a few have one or two context-sensitive elements).

## Distinction between syntax and semantics

- Syntax refers to features of sentence structure as it appears in languages.
- Semantics refers to the meaning of such structures.
- The parser will analyze the syntax of a program, not its semantics.
  - E. g., the parser does not do type-checking.
  - Semantic actions will frequently be associated with specific productions, but are not actually part of the parser.

## Backus-Naur Form

BNF (**B**ackus-**N**aur **F**orm) is a metalanguage for describing a context-free grammar.

- The symbol  $::=$  (or  $\rightarrow$ ) is used for **may derive**.
- The symbol  $|$  separates alternative strings on the right-hand side.

Example     $E ::= E + T | T$   
                     $T ::= T * F | F$   
                     $F ::= id | constant | (E)$

where E is **Expression**, T is **Term**, and F is **Factor**

## A simple grammar

Start Symbol  $\rightarrow$   $S ::= A B c$

$A ::= a A \mid b$

$B ::= A b \mid a$

The strings ***abbbc, aaabac, aaaababbc***  
are all generated by this grammar. Can  
you determine how?

## Another simple grammar

$S ::= a \mid (b S S)$

Sample strings generated by this grammar include :

$(b a a) \quad (b (b a a) a) \quad a$

## The Empty String

- Productions within a grammar can contain  $\epsilon$ , the empty string.
- $A \rightarrow B$  is equivalent to  $A \rightarrow B\epsilon$
- It is also possible to write the production  $A \rightarrow \epsilon$ ; such productions become particularly useful in top-down parsing.

## Derivations

- A derivation is a series of replacements where the nonterminal on the left of a production is replaced by a string of symbols from the right-hand side of a production.
- This may be done in one step or in many steps.

### Example

For the grammar

$$S ::= Aa$$

$$A ::= Ab \mid c$$

$$S \xrightarrow{} Aa \xrightarrow{} Aba \xrightarrow{} Abba \xrightarrow{} cbba$$

*cbba* is ultimately derived from *S*

## Derivations (continued)

- There are several different notations used to indicate occurs:

$A \Rightarrow \alpha$     A derives  $\alpha$  in one step

$A \Rightarrow^* \alpha$     A derives  $\alpha$  in zero or more steps

$A \Rightarrow^\dagger \alpha$     A derives  $\alpha$  in one or more steps

- Example

$S \Rightarrow Aa \Rightarrow Aba \Rightarrow Abba \Rightarrow cbba$

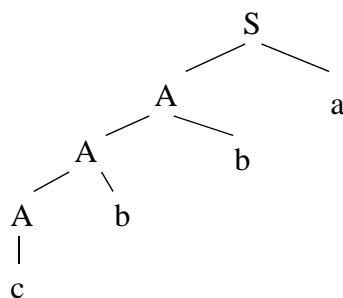
We can say that  $S \Rightarrow^* cbba$

## Derivations (continued)

- If the start symbol S derives a string  $\beta$  which contains nonterminals,  $\beta$  is a sentential form.
- If S derives a string  $\beta$  which contains only terminals,  $\beta$  is a sentence.

## Parse Trees

A parse tree is a graphical representation of such a derivation:



## Abstract Syntax Tree

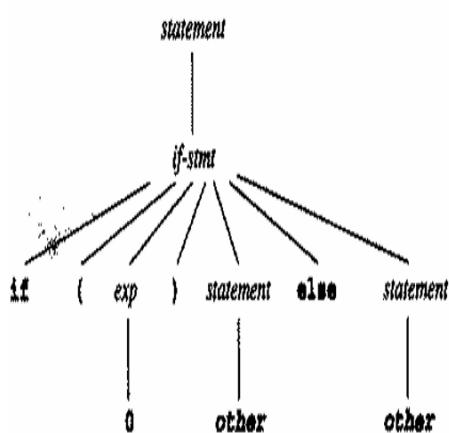
- An abstract syntax tree represents abstractions of actual source code token sequences, and token sequences cannot be recovered from them (unlike parse trees).
- Abstract syntax trees is a tree representation of a shorthand notation called abstract syntax.

## Parse Tree vs Abstract Syntax Tree

$$\begin{aligned} \text{statement} &\rightarrow \text{if-stmt} \mid \text{other} \\ \text{if-stmt} &\rightarrow \text{if } ( \text{exp} ) \text{ statement} \\ &\quad \mid \text{if } ( \text{exp} ) \text{ statement else statement} \\ \text{exp} &\rightarrow 0 \mid 1 \end{aligned}$$

String: **if (0) other else other**

Parse Tree:



Syntax Tree:



## Left and right derivations

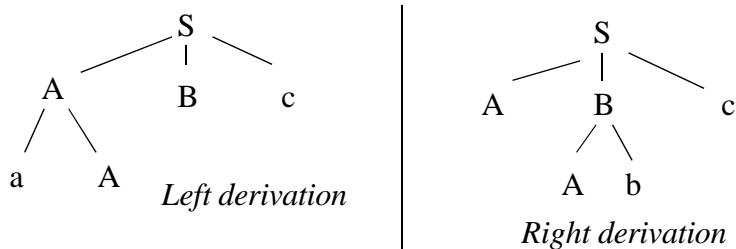
Remember our grammar:

$$S ::= A B c$$

$$A ::= a \mid b$$

$$B ::= A \mid b$$

How do we parse the string ***abbbc***?



## Languages and Grammars

- A grammar is just a way of describing a language.
- There are actually an infinite number of grammars for a particular language.
- 2 grammars are equivalent if they describe the same language.
  - This becomes extremely important when parsing top-down.
  - Most programming language manuals contain a grammar in BNF, which we may modify to fit our parsing method better.

## Ambiguous grammars

- While there may be an infinite number of grammars that describe a given language, their parse trees may be very different.
- A grammar capable of producing two different parse trees for the same sentence is called ***ambiguous***. Ambiguous grammars are highly undesirable.

## Is it IF-THEN or IF-THEN-ELSE?

The IF-THEN=ELSE ambiguity is a classical example of an ambiguous grammar.

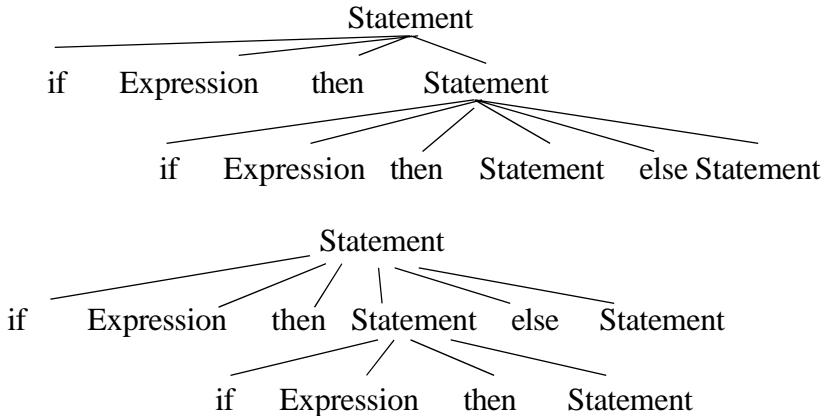
*Statement* ::=      **if** *Expression then Statement else Statement*  
                  | **if** *Expression then Statement*

How would you parse the following string?

```
IF x > 0
  THEN IF y > 0
    THEN z := x + y
  ELSE z := x;
```

## Is it IF-THEN or IF-THEN-ELSE? (continued)

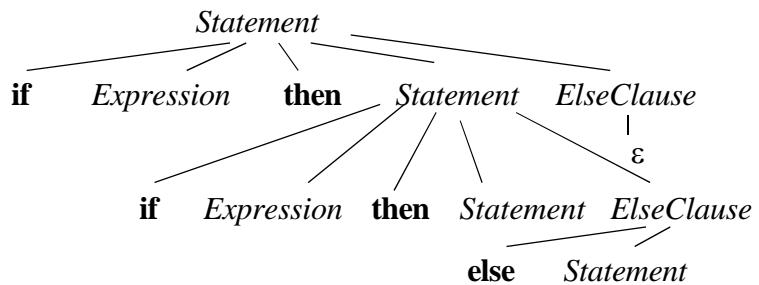
There are two possible parse trees:



## Is it IF-THEN or IF-THEN-ELSE? (continued)

*Statement* ::= **if** *Expression* **then** *Statement* *ElseClause*

*ElseClause* ::= **else** *Statement* /  $\epsilon$



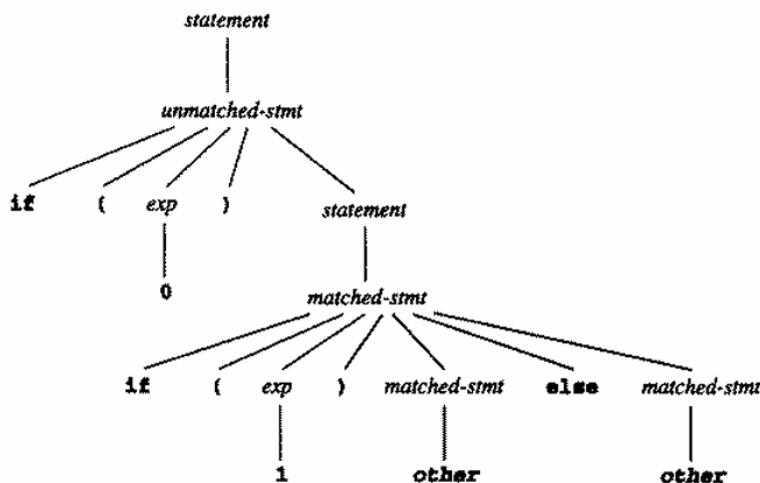
## The Dangling Else Problem

Using disambiguating rule called as **most closely nested rule**.

A solution to the dangling else ambiguity in the BNF itself is more difficult than the previous ambiguities we have seen. A solution is as follows:

```
statement → matched-stmt | unmatched-stmt
matched-stmt → if ( exp ) matched-stmt else matched-stmt | other
unmatched-stmt → if ( exp ) statement
                  | if ( exp ) matched-stmt else unmatched-stmt
exp → 0 | 1
```

This works by permitting only a *matched-stmt* to come before an **else** in an if-statement, thus forcing all else-parts to be matched as soon as possible. For instance, the associated parse tree for our sample string now becomes



which indeed associates the *else*-part with the second if-statement.

## Operator Precedence

Most programming languages have an order of precedence for operators. It would be helpful if this could be encoded into the language's grammar

E. g., let's take a look at the order of precedence in Pascal:

Highest	<i>Unary +, Unary - , NOT</i>
	<i>*, /, DIV, MOD, AND</i>
	<i>+, -, OR</i>

Lowest                     $=, < >, > =, <=, >, <$

## Operator Precedence (continued)

This can be encoded in our grammar by considering first a production for our highest level of precedence:

*Factor ::= Unary-operator Unary-Factor*  
*/ Unary-Factor*

Let's now consider the next-highest level:

*Term ::= Term Multiplicative-operator Factor*  
*/ Factor*

## Operator Precedence (continued)

Now let's consider the next-level:

*Expr. ::= Expr. Add.-op Term / Term*

And finally,

*Rel.-Expr. ::= Rel.-Expr Rel.-op Expr. / Expr.*

Once we add the production

*Unary-Factor ::= Identifier / Constant / (Rel.Expr.)*

we have a complete expression for Pascal.

## Operator Precedence (continued)

In general, we can start from the lowest order of precedence and work our way to highest in this fashion

ExprA ::= ExprA opA ExprB | ExprB

ExprB ::= ExprB opB ExprC | ExprC

.....

ExprZ ::= Identifier | Const | .....

### Operator Precedence and Associativity

```
exp → exp addop term | term  
addop → + | -  
term → term mulop factor | factor  
mulop → *  
factor → ( exp ) | number
```

In the above grammar the operators are set to be left associative and higher precedence operators are set on the lower level.

To do: Add an operator like  $\wedge$  (power of) in the existing expression grammar which is right associative and has highest precedence among  $+, -, *$ .

### DEFINING CFG FOR RELATIONAL EXPRESSIONS

A-E  $\rightarrow$  E + T | T

T  $\rightarrow$  T \* F | F

F  $\rightarrow$  id | ( A-E )

R-E  $\rightarrow$  A-E    R-OPR    A-E

R-OPR  $\rightarrow$  <|> | <= | >= | == | !=

2 < 8  $\rightarrow$  valid

a >= h  $\rightarrow$  valid

(a+b) <= ( c+d )  $\rightarrow$  valid

CFG for LOGICAL EXPRESSION:  
Logical Operators → and, or, not

Binary → and, or

Unary → not

L-E → A-E LOPR-A A-E | L-OPRB A-E

L-OPRA → and | or

L-OPRB → not

(A&&B) || (! B) → valid expression

(a<b) && (a < c) → valid

L-E → E && E | E “|” “|” E | ! E

E → A-E | R-E | L-E

((a>b || a<c) && a<d)

! ( a>b && c<d)

!!! a !! (a<b)

## Expression grammar with compound statement

IF → if (EXPR) STMT ELSE-PART

ELSE-PART → ε | else STMT

EXPR → 0 | 1

STMT → SIMPLE | COMPOUND

SIMPLE → ASSIGN-S | IF | FOR | WHILE | Do-WHILE  
| SWITCH | RETURN | GOTO ...

COMPOUND → { STMTS }

STMTS → ε | STMT STMTS

### CFG of FOR:

FOR → for ( EXPR;EXPR ;EXPR ) STMT

### CFG of WHILE:

WHILE → while (EXPR) STMT

### CFG of DO-WHILE:

DO-WHILE → do COMPOUND while (EXPR) ;

**DEFINING FUNCTION CALL:**

```
name( parameters)  
sum(a,b);  
a = sum(a,b)+h;  
cout<<sum(a,b)<<endl;  
abc(a+B,)  
display()
```

FN-CALL → identifier ( PARAM-LIST)

PARAM-LIST → ε | PARAMETERS

PARAMETERS → PARAM | PARAM , PARAMETERS

PARAM → EXPR



**DEFINITION of FUNCTION DEFINITION:**

2 parts:

Ret-type name(parameters) → header

{

→ body

}

int sum (int a, int b)

### **CFG for Function definition:**

**FN\_DEF → FN-HDR FN-BODY**

**FN-HDR → RET-TYPE identifier ( F-PARAM-LIST )**

**RET-TYPE → ε | void | int | float | double | char | identifier....**

**F-PARAM-LIST → ε | F-PARAM MORE-F-PARAM**

**F-PARAM → PARAM-TYPE identifier**

**PARAM-TYPE → int | float | double | char | bool.....**

**MORE-F-PARAM → ε | F-PARAM MORE-F-PARAM**

### **DEFINITION of FUNCTION DECLARATION:**

**FN-DEC → FN-HDR ;**

Define C language SWITCH Statement using BNF Notation.  
You may assume that EXPR and STMT are already defined.

## Expression grammar in C

C had 14 levels of precedence, making its expression grammar more complex than that of most other languages:

$\text{Expr} ::= \text{Expr}, \text{AssnExpr} \mid \text{AssnExpr}$   
 $\text{AssnExpr} ::= \text{CondExpr} \text{ AssnOp } \text{ AssnExpr} \mid \text{CondExpr}$   
 $\text{AssnOp} ::= = \mid *= \mid /= \mid \%= \mid += \mid -= \mid <<= \mid >>= \mid \&=$   
 $\quad \mid \wedge= \mid !=$   
 $\text{CondExpr} ::= \text{LogORExpr} \mid \text{LogORExpr} ? \text{ Expr} : \text{CondExpr}$   
 $\text{LogORExpr} ::= \text{LogORExpr} \parallel \text{LogANDExpr} \mid \text{LogANDExpr}$   
 $\text{LogANDExpr} ::= \text{LogANDExpr} \&\& \text{ InclORExpr} \mid \text{InclORExpr}$   
 $\text{InclORExpr} ::= \text{InclORExpr} \mid \text{ExclORExpr} \mid \text{ExclORExpr}$




## Expression grammar in C (continued)

```

ExclORExpr ::= ExclORExpr ^ ANDExpr | ANDExpr
ANDExpr ::= ANDExpr & EQExpr | EQExpr
EQExpr ::= EQExpr == RelExpr | EQExpr != RelExpr | RelExpr
RelExpr ::= RelExpr >= ShftExpr | RelExpr <= ShftExpr
          | RelExpr > ShftExpr | RelExpr < ShftExpr | ShftExpr
ShftExpr ::= ShftExpr >> AddExpr | ShftExpr << AddExpr
          | ShftExpr
AddExpr ::= AddExpr + MultExpr | AddExpr - MultExpr
          | MultExpr
MultExpr ::= MultExpr * CastExpr | MultExpr / CastExpr
          | MultExpr % CastExpr | CastExpr

```

## Expression grammar in C (continued)

```
CastExpr ::= (typename) CastExpr | UnExpr  
UnExpr ::= PostExpr | ++UnExpr | --UnExpr  
        | UnOp CastExpr | sizeof UnExpr | sizeof(typename)  
UnOp ::= & | * | + | - | ~ | !  
ExprList ::= ExprList, AssnExpr | AssnExpr  
PostExpr ::= PrimExpr | PostExpr[Expr] | PosrExpr(ExprList)  
        | PostExpr.id | Post Expr -> id | PostExpr ++  
        | PostExpr --  
PrimExpr ::= Literal | (Expr) | id  
Literal ::= integer-constant | char-constant | float-constant  
        | string-constant
```