COMPILER CONSTRUCTION

Principles and Practice

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3. Context-Free Grammars and Parsing

PART TWO

Contents

PART ONE

- 3.1 The Parsing Process
- 3.2 Context-Free Grammars
- 3.3 Parse Trees and Abstract
- 3.4 Ambiguity

PART TWO

- 3.5 Extended Notations: EBNF and Syntax Diagrams [More]
- 3.6 Formal Properties of Context-Free Languages [More]
- 3.7 Syntax of the TINY Language [More]

3.5 Extended Notations: EBNF and Syntax Diagrams

3.5.1 EBNF Notation

Special Notations for *Repetitive Constructs*

Repetition

- $A \rightarrow A \alpha \mid \beta$ (left recursive), and
- $A \rightarrow \alpha A \mid \beta$ (right recursive)
 - where α and β are arbitrary strings of terminals and non-terminals, and
- In the first rule β does not begin with A and
- In the second β does not end with A

Special Notations for *Repetitive*Constructs

 Notation for repetition as regular expressions use, the asterisk * .

$$A \rightarrow \beta \alpha^*$$
, and $A \rightarrow \alpha^* \beta$

• EBNF opts to use curly brackets {...} to express repetition

$$A \rightarrow \beta \{\alpha\}$$
, and $A \rightarrow \{\alpha\} \beta$

• The problem with any repetition notation is that it obscures how the parse tree is to be constructed, but, as we have seen, we *often* do not care.

- Example: The case of statement sequences
- The grammar as follows, in right recursive form:

```
stmt-Sequence → stmt; stmt-Sequence / stmt
stmt → s
```

In EBNF this would appear as

```
stmt-sequence \rightarrow \{ stmt; \} stmt (right recursive form) stmt-sequence \rightarrow stmt \{ ; stmt \} (left recursive form)
```

• A more significant problem occurs when the associativity matters

```
exp → exp addop term / term
exp → term { addop term }
    (imply left associativity)
exp → {term addop } term
    (imply right associativity)
```

Special Notations for *Optional*Constructs

- Optional construct are indicated by surrounding them with square brackets [...].
- The grammar rules for if-statements with optional elseparts would be written as follows in EBNF:

```
statement \rightarrow if\text{-}stmt / \text{other}

if\text{-}stmt \rightarrow if \ (exp) statement [else statement]

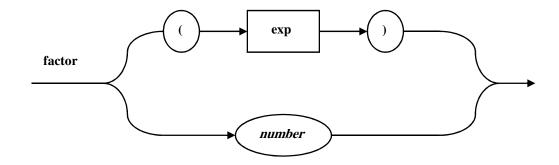
exp \rightarrow 0 \mid 1
```

- stmt-sequence → stmt; stmt-sequence / stmt is written as
- stmt-sequence → stmt [; stmt-sequence]

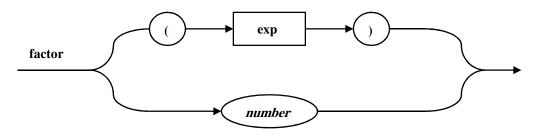
3.5.2 Syntax Diagrams

Syntax Diagrams

- Syntax Diagrams:
 - Graphical representations for visually representing EBNF rules.
- An example: consider the grammar rule factor→(exp)/number
- The syntax diagram:



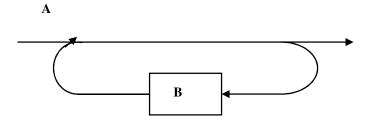
Syntax Diagrams



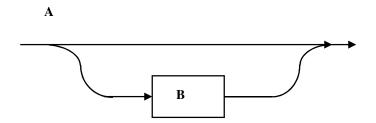
- Boxes representing terminals and non-terminals.
- Arrowed lines representing sequencing and choices.
- Non-terminal labels for each diagram representing the grammar rule defining that Non-terminal.
- A round or oval box is used to indicate terminals in a diagram.
- A square or rectangular box is used to indicate nonterminals.

Syntax Diagrams

• A repetition : $A \rightarrow \{B\}$



• An optional : $A \rightarrow [B]$



• Example: Consider the example of simple arithmetic expressions.

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

• This BNF includes associativity and precedence

• The corresponding EBNF is

```
exp \rightarrow term \{ addop term \}

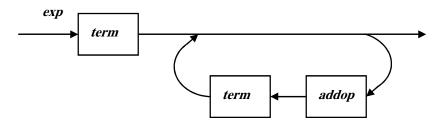
addop \rightarrow + | -

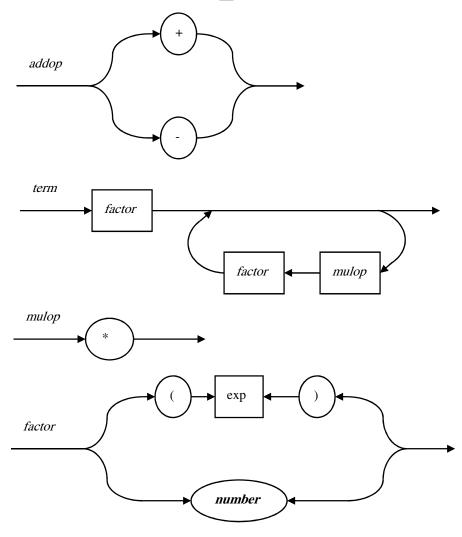
term \rightarrow factor \{ mulop factor \}

mulop \rightarrow *

factor \rightarrow (exp) | numberr,
```

• The corresponding syntax diagrams are given as follows:





• Example: Consider the grammar of simplified if-statements, the BNF

```
Statement \rightarrow if-stmt / other
if-stmt \rightarrow if (exp) statement
| if (exp) statement else statement
exp \rightarrow 0 | 1
```

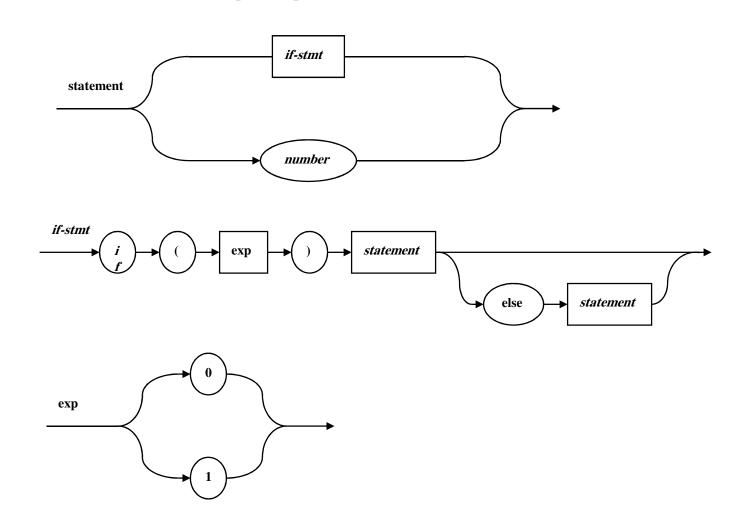
and the EBNF

```
statement \rightarrow if\text{-}stmt / other

if\text{-}stmt \rightarrow if (exp) statement [else statement]

exp \rightarrow 0 \mid 1
```

The corresponding syntax diagrams are given in following figure.



3.6 Formal Properties of Context-Free Language

3.6.1 A Formal Definition of Context-Free Language

- Definition: A context-free grammar consists of the following:
 - 1. A set T of terminals.
 - 2. A set Nof non-terminals (disjoint from T).
 - 3. A set P of productions, or grammar rules, of the form $A \rightarrow a$, where A is an element of N and a is an element of $T \cup N$ * (a possibly empty sequence of ter-minals and non-terminals).
 - 4. A start symbol S from the set N.

- Let G be a grammar as defined above, G = (T, N, P, S).
- A derivation step over G is of the form

$$a A \gamma => a \beta \gamma$$
,
Where a and γ are elements of $(T \cup N)^*$, and $A \rightarrow \beta$ is in P.

- The set of symbols:
 - The union $T \cup N$ of the sets of terminals and non-terminals
- A sentential form:
 - a string a in $(T \cup N)^*$.

- The relation $a = >*\beta$ is defined to be the transitive closure of the derivation step relation =>;
 - $ta => *\beta$ if and only if there is a sequence of 0 or more derivation steps (n >= 0)
 - $a1 \Rightarrow a2 \Rightarrow ... \Rightarrow a = a$
 - such that a = -a1, and $\beta = a$ n

(If
$$n = 0$$
, then $a = \beta$)

- A derivation over the grammar G is of the form
 - $S =>^* W,$
 - where $w \in T^*$ (i.e., w is a string of terminals only, called a **sentence**), and S is the start symbol of G
- The **language generated by G**, written L(G), is defined as the set
 - $L(G) = \{ w \in T^* | \text{ there exists a derivation } S =>^* w \text{ of } G \}.$
 - L(G) is the set of sentences derivable from S.

- A leftmost derivation S = > *lm w
 - is a derivation in which each derivation step
 - $-aA\gamma =>a\beta\gamma$
 - is such that $a \in T^*$; that is, a consists only of terminals.
- A **rightmost derivation** is one in which each derivation step
 - $-aA\gamma =>a\beta\gamma$
 - has the property that $\gamma \in T^*$.

Parse Tree over Grammar G

A rooted labeled tree with the following properties:

- 1. Each node is labeled with a terminal or a non-terminal or ε.
- 2. The root node is labeled with the start symbol S.
- 3. Each leaf node is labeled with a terminal or with ε .
- 4. Each non-leaf node is labeled with a non-terminal.
- 5. If a node with label $A \in N$ has n children with labels X1, X2,..., Xn

(which may be terminals or non-terminals), then $A \rightarrow X1X2 \dots Xn \in P(a \text{ production of the grammar}).$

Role of Derivation

- Each derivation gives rise to a parse tree.
- In general, many derivations may give rise to the same parse tree.
- Each parse tree has a unique leftmost and right-most derivation that give rise to it.
- The leftmost derivation corresponds to a preorder traversal of the parse tree.
- The rightmost derivation corresponds to the reverse of a postorder traversal of the parse tree.

CFG & Ambiguous

- A set of strings L is said to be a contextfree language
 - if there is context-free grammar G such that L = L(G).
- A grammar G is ambiguous
 - if there exists a string $w \in L(G)$ such that w has two distinct parse trees (or leftmost or rightmost derivations).

3.6.2 Grammar Rules as Equations

Meaning of Equation

- The grammar rules use the arrow symbol instead of an equal sign to represent the definition of names for structures (non-terminals)
- Left and right-hands sides still hold equality in some extents, but the defining process of the language that results from this view is different.
- Consider, for example, the following grammar rule, which is extracted (in simplified form) from our simple expression grammar:
 - $exp \rightarrow exp + exp \mid number$

Rules as Equation

- A non-terminal name like *exp* defines a set of strings of terminals, called E;
 - (which is the language, of the grammar if the non-terminal is the start symbol).
- let N be the set of natural numbers;
 - (corresponding to the regular expression name *number*).
- Then, the given grammar rule can be interpreted as the set equation
 - $\quad \mathbf{E} = (\mathbf{E} + \mathbf{E}) \cup \mathbf{N}$
- This is a recursive equation for the set E:
 - $\quad \mathbf{E} = \mathbf{N} \cup (\mathbf{N} + \mathbf{N}) \cup (\mathbf{N} + \mathbf{N} + \mathbf{N}) \cup (\mathbf{N} + \mathbf{N} + \mathbf{N} + \mathbf{N}) \dots$

3.6.3 Chomsky Hierarchy and Limits of Context-Free Syntax

The Power of CFG

Consider the definition of a number as a sequence of digits using regular expressions:

digit = 0|1|2|3|4|5|6|7|8|9 *number* = *digit digit**

Writing this definition using BNF, instead, as $Digit \rightarrow 0$ |1|2|3|4|5|6|7|8|9 $number \rightarrow number \ digit \ |digit$

Note that the recursion in the second rule is used to express repetition only.

Regular Grammar

- A grammar is called a regular grammar
 - The recursion in the rule is used to express repetition only
 - Can express everything that regular expressions can
 - Can design a parser accepting characters directly from the input source file and dispense with the scanner altogether.
- A parser is a more powerful machine than a scanner but less efficient.
 - The grammar would then express the complete syntactic structure, including the lexical structure.
- The language implementers would be expected to extract these definitions from the grammar and turn them into a scanner.

Context Rules

Free of context rule:

- Non-terminals appear by themselves to the left of the arrow in context-free rules.
- A rule says that A may be replaced regardless of where the A occurs.

• Context-sensitive grammar rule:

- A rule would apply only if β occurs before and γ occurs after the non-terminal.
- We would write this as
 - $\beta A \gamma => \beta a \gamma, (a \neq \varepsilon)$
- Context-sensitive grammars are more powerful than context-free grammars
 - but are also much more difficult to use as the basis for a parser.

Requirement of a Context-Sensitive Grammar Rule

- The C rule requires declaration before use
 - First: Include the name strings themselves in the grammar rules rather than include all names as identifier tokens that are indistinguishable.
 - Second: For each name, we would have to write a rule establishing its declaration prior to a potential use.
- In many languages, the length of an identifier is unrestricted,
 - The number of possible identifiers is (at least potentially) infinite.
- Even if names are allowed to be only two characters long,
 - The potential for hundreds of new grammar rules. Clearly, this is an impossible situation.

Solution like a Disambiguating Rule

- State a rule (declaration before use) that is not explicit in the grammar.
 - Such a rule cannot be enforced by the parser itself, since it is beyond the power of (reasonable) context-free rules to express.
- This rule becomes part of semantic analysis
 - Depends on the use of the symbol table (which records which identifiers have been declared).
- The static semantics of the language include type checking (in a statically typed language) and such rules as declaration before use.
- Regard as *syntax* only those rules that can be expressed by BNF rules. Everything else we regard as semantics.

Unrestricted Grammars

- More general than the context-sensitive grammars.
 - It have grammar rules of the form $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$,
- where there are no restrictions on the form of the strings a and β (except that a cannot be β)

Types of Grammars

- The language classes they construct are also referred to as the **Chomsky hierarchy**,
 - after Noam Chomsky, who pioneered their use to describe natural languages.
 - type 0: unrestricted grammar, equivalent to Turing machines
 - type 1: context sensitive grammar
 - type 2: context free grammar, equivalent to pushdown automaton
 - type 3: regular grammar, equivalent to finite automata
- These grammars represent distinct levels of computational power.

3.7 Syntax of the TINY language

3.7.1 A Context-Free Grammar for TINY

Grammar of the TINY language in BNF(1)

- program → stmt-sequence
- stmt-sequence→ stmt-sequence; statement | statement
- statement → if-stmt | repeat-stmt | assign-stmt | read-stmt | write-stmt
- if-stmt \rightarrow if exp then stmt-sequence end
- /if exp then stmt-sequence else stmt-sequence end
- repeat-stmt→repeat stmt-sequence until exp
- $assign-stmt \rightarrow identifier := exp$
- read- $stmt \rightarrow read$ identifier
- write-stmt \rightarrow write exp

Grammar of the TINY language in BNF(2)

- exp → simple-exp comparison-op simple-exp / simple-exp
- $comparison-op \rightarrow < 1 =$
- simple-exp → simple-exp addop term / term
- $addop \rightarrow + |-$
- term → term mulop factor factor / factor
- mulop →*//
- $factor \rightarrow (exp)$ | number | identifier

3.7.2 Syntax Tree Structure for the TINY Compiler

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End of Part Two

THANKS