

Lecture Outline

- Context-free grammars
- Derivations and parse trees
- Ambiguity
- Examples of context-free grammars
- Yacc: a language for specifying syntax-directed translators

1. Context-Free Grammars (CFG's)

- CFG's are very useful for representing the syntactic structure of programming languages.
- A CFG is sometimes called Backus-Naur Form (BNF).
- A context-free grammar consists of
 1. A finite set of terminal symbols,
 2. A finite nonempty set of nonterminal symbols,
 3. One distinguished nonterminal called the start symbol, and
 4. A finite set of rewrite rules, called productions, each of the form $A \rightarrow \alpha$ where A is a nonterminal and α is a string (possibly empty) of terminals and nonterminals.
- Consider the context-free grammar G with the productions

$$\begin{aligned} E &\rightarrow E + T \mid T \\ T &\rightarrow T * F \mid F \\ F &\rightarrow (E) \mid \text{id} \end{aligned}$$

- The terminal symbols are the alphabet from which strings are formed. In this grammar the set of terminal symbols is $\{ \text{id}, +, *, (,) \}$. The terminal symbols are the token names.
- The nonterminal symbols are syntactic variables that denote sets of strings of terminal symbols. In this grammar the set of nonterminal symbols is $\{ E, T, F \}$.
- The start symbol is E .

2. Derivations and Parse Trees

- $L(G)$, the language generated by a grammar G , consists of all strings of terminal symbols that can be derived from the start symbol of G .
- A leftmost derivation expands the leftmost nonterminal in each sentential form:

$$\begin{aligned} E &\rightarrow E + T \\ &\rightarrow T + T \\ &\rightarrow F + T \\ &\rightarrow \text{id} + T \\ &\rightarrow \text{id} + T * F \\ &\rightarrow \text{id} + F * F \\ &\rightarrow \text{id} + \text{id} * F \\ &\rightarrow \text{id} + \text{id} * \text{id} \end{aligned}$$

- A rightmost derivation expands the rightmost nonterminal in each sentential form:

$$\begin{aligned} E &\rightarrow E + T \\ &\rightarrow E + T * F \\ &\rightarrow E + T * \text{id} \\ &\rightarrow E + F * \text{id} \\ &\rightarrow E + \text{id} * \text{id} \\ &\rightarrow T + \text{id} * \text{id} \\ &\rightarrow F + \text{id} * \text{id} \\ &\rightarrow \text{id} + \text{id} * \text{id} \end{aligned}$$

- Note that these two derivations have the same parse tree.

3. Ambiguity

- Consider the context-free grammar G with the productions

$$E \rightarrow E + E \mid E * E \mid (E) \mid id$$

This grammar has the following leftmost derivation for $id + id * id$

$$\begin{aligned} E &\rightarrow E + E \\ &\rightarrow id + E \\ &\rightarrow id + E * E \\ &\rightarrow id + id * E \\ &\rightarrow id + id * id \end{aligned}$$

This grammar also has the following leftmost derivation for $id + id * id$

$$\begin{aligned} E &\rightarrow E * E \\ &\rightarrow E + E * E \\ &\rightarrow id + E * E \\ &\rightarrow id + id * E \\ &\rightarrow id + id * id \end{aligned}$$

- These derivations have different parse trees.
- A grammar is *ambiguous* if there is a sentence with two or more parse trees.
- The problem is that the grammar above does not specify
 - the precedence of the + and * operators, or
 - the associativity of the + and * operators
- However, the grammar in section (3) generates the same language and is unambiguous because it makes * of higher precedence than +, and makes both operators left associative.
- A context-free language is *inherently ambiguous* if it cannot be generated by any unambiguous context-free grammar.
- The context-free language $\{ a^m b^m a^n b^n \mid m > 0 \text{ and } n > 0 \}$ is inherently ambiguous.
- Most (all?) natural languages are inherently ambiguous but no programming languages are inherently ambiguous.
- Unfortunately, there is no algorithm to determine whether a CFG is ambiguous; that is, the problem of determining whether a CFG is ambiguous is undecidable.
- We can, however, give some practically useful sufficient conditions to guarantee that a CFG is unambiguous.

4. Examples of Context-Free Grammars

- Nonempty palindromes of a's and b's. (A palindrome is a string that reads the same forwards as backwards; e.g., abba.)

CFG: $S \rightarrow a S b \mid b S a \mid a a \mid b b \mid a \mid b$

Note that the language generated by this grammar is not regular. Can you prove this using the pumping lemma for regular languages?

- Strings with an equal number of a's and b's:

CFG: $S \rightarrow a S a \mid b S b \mid S S \mid \epsilon$

Note that this grammar is ambiguous. Can you find an equivalent unambiguous grammar?

- If- and if-else statements:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{stmt} &\rightarrow \text{if (expr) stmt else stmt} \\ &\mid \text{if (expr) stmt} \\ &\mid \text{other} \end{aligned}$$

Note that this grammar is ambiguous.

- Some typical programming language constructs:

$$\text{stmt} \rightarrow \text{expr ;}$$

```

    | if (expr) stmt
    | for ( optexpr; optexpr; optexpr; ) stmt
    | other
optexpr â†’ Î¼
    | expr

```

5. Yacc: a Language for Specifying Syntax-Directed Translators

- Yacc is popular language, created by Steve Johnson of Bell Labs, for implementing syntax-directed translators.
- Bison is a gnu version of Yacc, upwards compatible with the original Yacc, written by Charles Donnelly and Richard Stallman. Many other versions of Yacc are also available.
- The original Yacc used C for semantic actions. Yacc has been rewritten for many other languages including Java, ML, OCaml, and Python.
- Yacc specifications
 - A Yacc program has three parts:

```

    declarations
%%
    translation rules
%%
    supporting C-routines

```

The declarations part may be empty and the last part (%% followed by the supporting C-routines) may be omitted.

- Here is a Yacc program for a desk calculator that adds and multiplies numbers. (See ALSU, p. 292, Fig. 4.59 for a more advanced desk calculator.)

```

%{
#include <ctype.h>

#include <stdio.h>
#define YYSTYPE double
%}

%token NUMBER
%left '+'
%left '*'

%%

lines : lines expr '\n'    { printf("%g\n", $2); }
    | lines '\n'
    | /* empty */
    ;

expr  : expr '+' expr      { $$ = $1 + $3; }
    | expr '*' expr       { $$ = $1 * $3; }
    | '(' expr ')'         { $$ = $2; }
    | NUMBER
    ;

%%
/* the lexical analyzer; returns <token-name, yylval> */
int yylex() {
    int c;
    while ((c = getchar()) == ' ');
    if ((c == '.') || (isdigit(c))) {
        ungetc(c, stdin);
        scanf("%lf", &yylval);
        return NUMBER;
    }
    return c;
}

```

- The declarations

```
%left '+'
```

```
%left '**'
```

make the operator + left associative and of lower precedence than the left-associative operator *.

- On Linux, we can make a desk calculator from this Yacc program as follows:

1. Put the yacc program in a file, say `desk.y`.
2. Invoke `yacc desk.y` to create the yacc output file `y.tab.c`.
3. Compile this output file with a C compiler by typing `gcc y.tab.c -ly` to get `a.out`. (The library `-ly` contains the Yacc parsing program.)
4. `a.out` is the desk calculator. Try it!

6. Practice Problems

1. Let G be the grammar $S \rightarrow aSb \mid bSa \mid \epsilon$.
 - a. What language is generated by this grammar?
 - b. Draw all parse trees for the sentence `abab`.
 - c. Is this grammar ambiguous?
2. Let G be the grammar $S \rightarrow aSb \mid \epsilon$. Prove that $L(G) = \{ a^n b^n \mid n \geq 0 \}$.
3. Consider a sentence of the form `id + id + ... + id` where there are n plus signs. Let G be the grammar in section (3) above. How many parse trees are there in G for this sentence when n equals
 - a. 1
 - b. 2
 - c. 3
 - d. 4
 - e. m ?
4. Write down a CFG for regular expressions over the alphabet $\{a, b\}$. Show a parse tree for the regular expression $a \mid b^*a$.

7. Reading

- ALSU Sects. 4.1-4.2, 4.9
- [A nice Lex & Yacc tutorial](#)