



Chapter 3

Grammars

Course “Compiler Construction”

Martin Steffen

Spring 2024



Chapter 3

Learning Targets of Chapter “Grammars”.

1. (context-free) grammars + BNF
2. ambiguity and other properties
3. terminology: tokens, lexemes
4. different trees connected to grammars/parsing
5. derivations, sentential forms

The chapter corresponds to [1, Section 3.1–3.2] (or [3, Chapter 3]).





Chapter 3

Outline of Chapter “Grammars”.

Introduction

Context-free grammars and BNF notation

Ambiguity

Chomsky hierarchy



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Bird's eye view of a parser



Syntax

- *check* that the token sequence correspond to a *syntactically correct* program
 - if yes: yield *tree* as intermediate representation for subsequent phases
 - if not: give *understandable* error message(s)



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Trees, trees, more trees



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syntax trees

parse tree or concrete syntax tree vs. abstract syntax trees

- derivation trees (derivation in a (context-free) grammar)
- mentioned tree forms hang together, dividing line a bit fuzzy
- output of a parser: AST

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(Context-free) grammars

- specifies the *syntactic structure* of a language
- here: grammar means CFG
- G **derives** word w

Parsing

Given a stream of “symbols” w and a grammar G , find a *derivation* from G that produces w .



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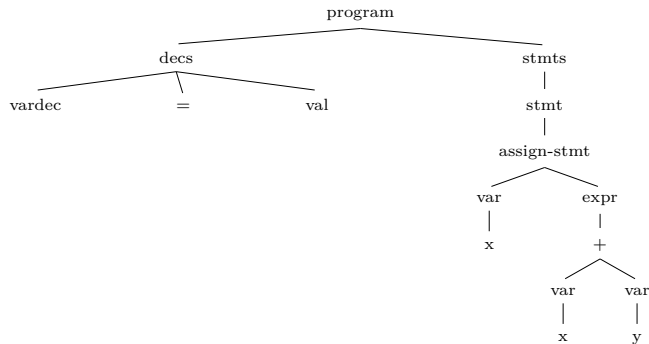
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Schematic syntax tree



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Natural-language parse tree



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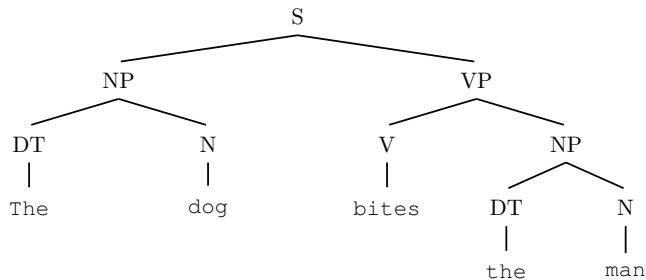
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“Interface” between scanner and parser

- remember: task of scanner = “chopping up” the input char stream (throw away white space, etc.) and *classify* the pieces (1 piece = *lexeme*)
- classified lexeme = **token**
- sometimes we use $\langle \text{integer}, "42" \rangle$
 - *integer*: “class” or “type” of the token, also called *token name*
 - *"42"* : *value of the token attribute* (or just value).
Here: directly the *lexeme* (a string or sequence of chars)
- a note on (sloppyness/ease of) terminology: often: the token name is simply just called the token

the *token (symbol)* corresponds there to **terminal symbols** (or terminals, for short)





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Context-free grammars and BNF notation

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Grammars

- in this chapter(s): focus on **context-free grammars**
- thus here: grammar = CFG
- as in the context of regular expressions/languages: *language* = (typically infinite) set of words
- **grammar** = formalism to unambiguously specify a language
- intended language: all **syntactically correct** programs of a given programming language

Slogan

A CFG describes the syntax of a programming language. ¹

¹And some say, regular expressions describe its microsyntax.



Context-free grammar



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Definition (CFG)

A *context-free grammar* G is a 4-tuple $G = (\Sigma_T, \Sigma_N, S, P)$:

1. two disjoint finite alphabets of *terminals* Σ_T and
2. *non-terminals* Σ_N ,
3. one *start-symbol* $S \in \Sigma_N$ (a non-terminal), and
4. *productions* $P =$ finite subset of $\Sigma_N \times (\Sigma_N + \Sigma_T)^*$.

- terminal symbols: corresponds to tokens in parser = basic building blocks of syntax
- non-terminals: (e.g. “expression”, “while-loop”, “method-definition” ...)
- grammar: generating (via “derivations”) languages
- **parsing**: the *inverse* problem

⇒ CFG = specification

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Further notions

- sentence and sentential form
- productions (or rules)
- derivation
- *language* of a grammar $\mathcal{L}(G)$
- parse tree



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BNF notation

- popular & common format to write CFGs, i.e., describe context-free languages
- named after *pioneering* (seriously) work on Algol 60
- notation to write productions/rules + some extra meta-symbols for convenience and grouping

Slogan: Backus-Naur form

What regular expressions are for regular languages is BNF for context-free languages.



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“Expressions” in BNF

$$\begin{aligned} \textit{exp} &\rightarrow \textit{exp op exp} \mid (\textit{exp}) \mid \mathbf{number} & (1) \\ \textit{op} &\rightarrow + \mid - \mid * \end{aligned}$$

- “ \rightarrow ” indicating productions and “ \mid ” indicating alternatives
- convention: terminals written **boldface**, non-terminals *italic*
- also simple math symbols like “+” and “(” are meant above as terminals
- start symbol here: *exp*
- remember: terminals like **number** correspond to tokens, resp. token classes. The attributes/token values are not relevant here.



Different notations



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- BNF: notationally not 100% “standardized” across books/tools
- “classic” way (Algol 60):

```
<exp> ::= <exp> <op> <exp>
        | ( <exp> )
        | NUMBER
<op>  ::= + | - | *
```

- Extended BNF (EBNF) and yet another style

$$\begin{aligned} exp &\rightarrow exp (" + " \mid " - " \mid " * ") exp & (2) \\ &\mid "(exp)" \mid "number" \end{aligned}$$

- note: parentheses as terminals vs. as *metasymbols*

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Different ways of writing the same grammar



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- directly written as 6 pairs (6 rules, 6 productions) from $\Sigma_N \times (\Sigma_N \cup \Sigma_T)^*$, with “ \rightarrow ” as nice looking “separator”:

$$\begin{aligned} \textit{exp} &\rightarrow \textit{exp op exp} && (3) \\ \textit{exp} &\rightarrow (\textit{exp}) \\ \textit{exp} &\rightarrow \mathbf{number} \\ \textit{op} &\rightarrow + \\ \textit{op} &\rightarrow - \\ \textit{op} &\rightarrow * \end{aligned}$$

- choice of non-terminals: irrelevant (except for human readability):

$$\begin{aligned} E &\rightarrow E O E \mid (E) \mid \mathbf{number} && (4) \\ O &\rightarrow + \mid - \mid * \end{aligned}$$

- still: we count 6 productions

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Grammars as language generators



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Deriving a word:

Start from start symbol. Pick a “matching” rule to rewrite the current word to a new one; repeat until *terminal* symbols, only.

- *non-deterministic* process
- rewrite relation for derivations:
 - one step rewriting: $w_1 \Rightarrow w_2$
 - one step using rule n : $w_1 \Rightarrow_n w_2$
 - many steps: \Rightarrow^* , etc.

Language of grammar G

$$\mathcal{L}(G) = \{s \mid \text{start} \Rightarrow^* s \text{ and } s \in \Sigma_T^*\}$$

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Example derivation for (number – number) * number

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{exp} &\Rightarrow \underline{exp} \text{ op } exp \\ &\Rightarrow (\underline{exp}) \text{ op } exp \\ &\Rightarrow (\underline{exp} \text{ op } exp) \text{ op } exp \\ &\Rightarrow (\underline{n} \text{ op } exp) \text{ op } exp \\ &\Rightarrow (\underline{n} - exp) \text{ op } exp \\ &\Rightarrow (\underline{n} - n) \underline{op} exp \\ &\Rightarrow (\underline{n} - n) * \underline{exp} \\ &\Rightarrow (\underline{n} - n) * n \end{aligned}$$

- underline the “place” where a rule is used, i.e., an *occurrence* of the non-terminal symbol is being rewritten/expanded
- here: *leftmost* derivation²

²We'll come back to that later, it will be important.

Right-most derivation

$\underline{exp} \Rightarrow exp\ op\ \underline{exp}$
 $\Rightarrow exp\ \underline{op}\ n$
 $\Rightarrow \underline{exp} * n$
 $\Rightarrow (exp\ op\ \underline{exp}) * n$
 $\Rightarrow (exp\ \underline{op}\ n) * n$
 $\Rightarrow (\underline{exp} - n) * n$
 $\Rightarrow (n - n) * n$

- other (“mixed”) derivations for the same word possible



Some easy requirements for reasonable grammars

- all symbols (terminals and non-terminals): should occur in a some word derivable from the start symbol
- words containing only non-terminals should be derivable
- an example of a silly grammar G (start-symbol A)

$$A \rightarrow Bx$$

$$B \rightarrow Ay$$

$$C \rightarrow z$$

- $\mathcal{L}(G) = \emptyset$
- those “sanitary conditions”: minimal “common sense” requirements



Parse tree

- derivation: if viewed as sequence of steps \Rightarrow linear “structure”
- order of individual steps: irrelevant
- \Rightarrow order not needed for subsequent phases
- **parse tree**: structure for the *essence* of derivation
- also called **concrete** syntax tree.

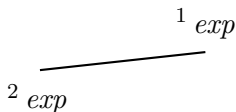
¹ *exp*

- numbers in the tree
 - *not* part of the parse tree, indicate order of derivation, only
 - here: leftmost derivation



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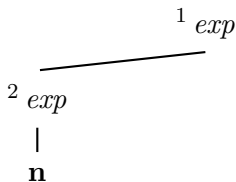


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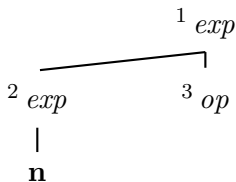


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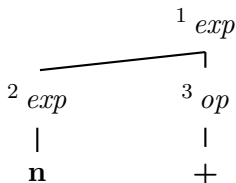


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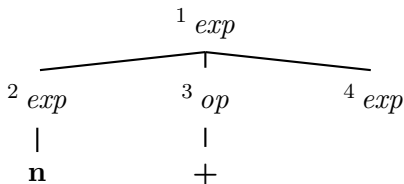


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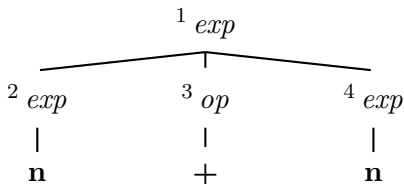


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Another parse tree (numbers for right-most derivation)

¹ *exp*



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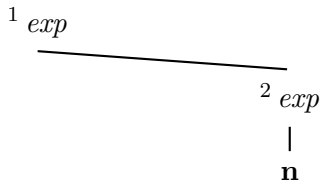
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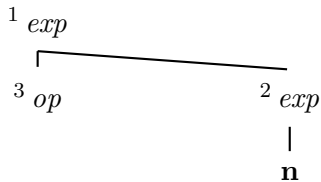
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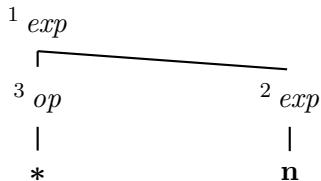
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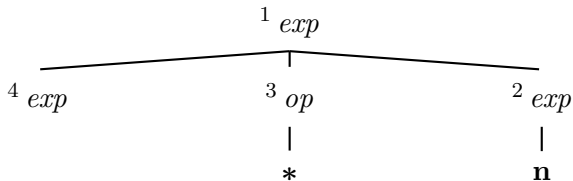
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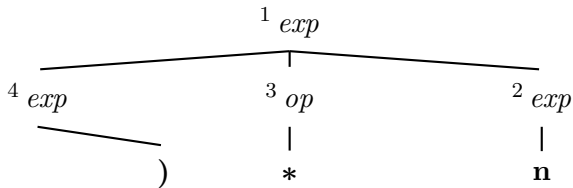
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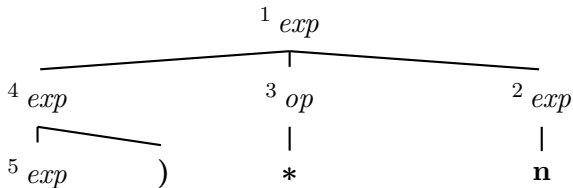
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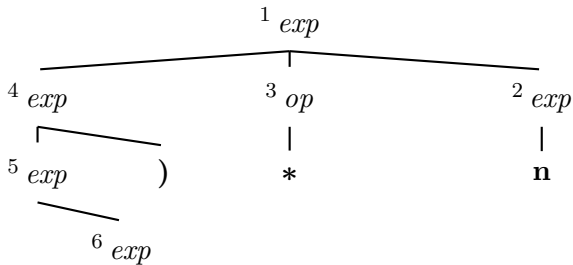
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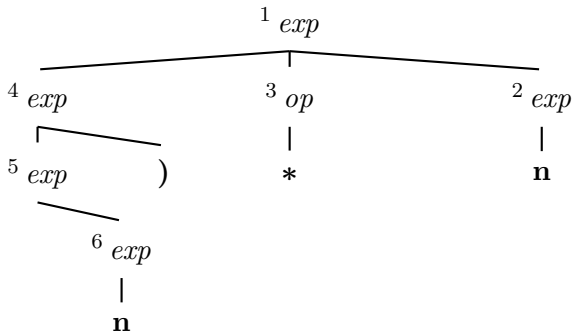
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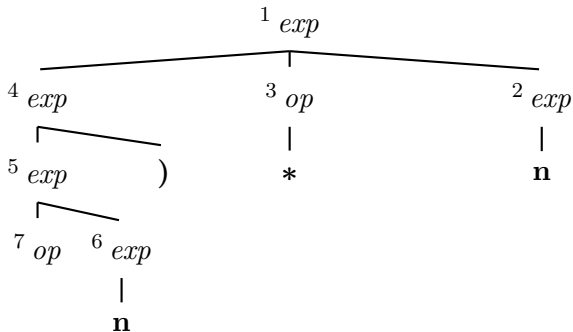
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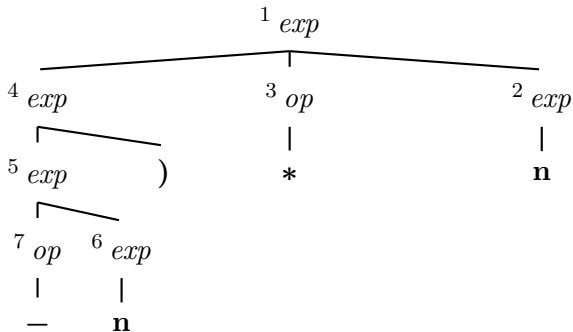
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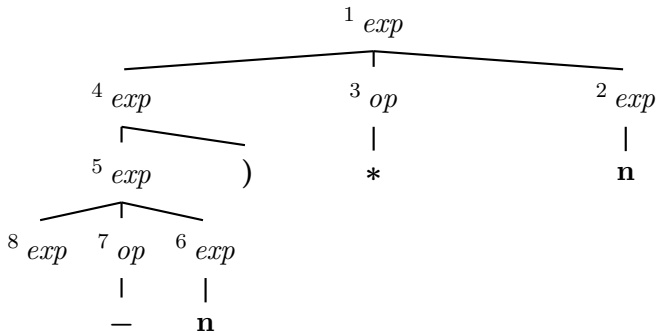
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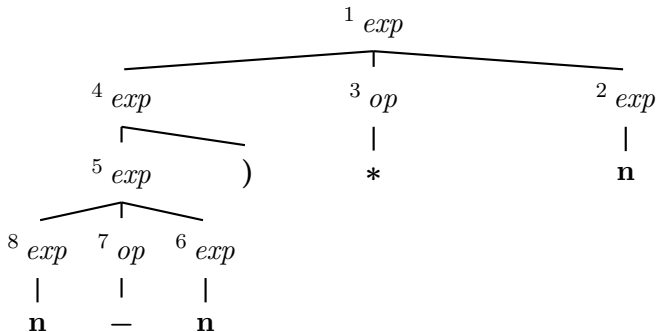
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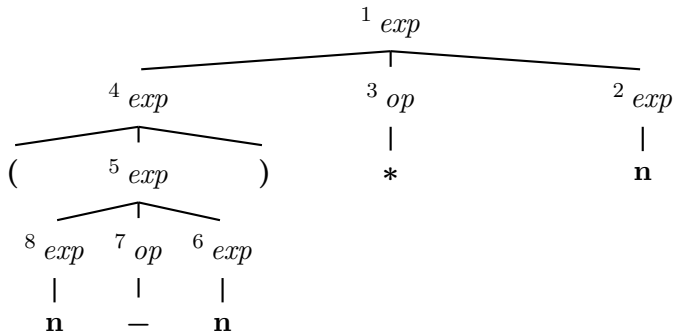
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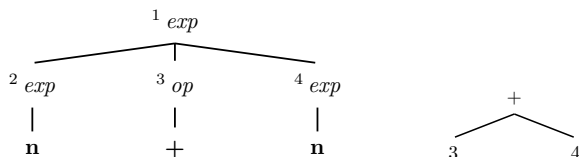
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Abstract syntax tree



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- parse tree: contains still unnecessary details
- specifically: *parentheses* or similar, used for grouping
- tree-structure: can express the intended grouping already
- remember: tokens may contain also attribute values (e.g.: full token for token class **n** contains values like "42" ...)



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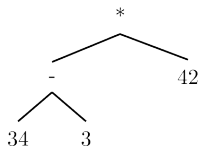
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AST vs. CST

- parse tree
 - important *conceptual* structure, to talk about grammars and derivations
 - most likely *not explicitly implemented* in a parser
 - **AST** is a *concrete* data structure
 - important IR of the syntax (for the language being implemented)
 - written in the meta-language
 - therefore: nodes like + and 3 *are no longer tokens or lexemes*
 - concrete data structures in the meta-language (C-structs, instances of Java classes, or what suits best)
 - the figure is meant schematic, only
 - produced by the parser, used by later phases
 - note also: we use 3 in the AST, where lexeme was "3"
- ⇒ at some point, the lexeme *string* (for numbers) is translated to a *number* in the meta-language (typically already by the lexer)



Plausible schematic AST (for the other parse tree)



- this AST: rather “simplified” version of the CST
- an AST closer to the CST (just dropping the parentheses): in principle nothing “wrong” with it either





Conditionals G_1

$$\begin{aligned} stmt &\rightarrow if-stmt \mid \mathbf{other} && (5) \\ if-stmt &\rightarrow \mathbf{if} (exp) stmt \\ &\mid \mathbf{if} (exp) stmt \mathbf{else} stmt \\ exp &\rightarrow \mathbf{0} \mid \mathbf{1} \end{aligned}$$

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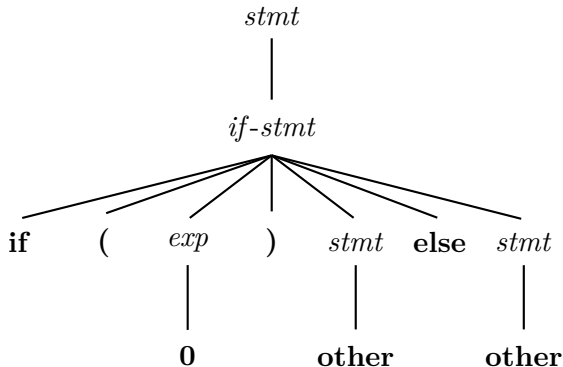
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Parse tree



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if (0) other else other



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Another grammar for conditionals



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Conditionals G_2

$$\begin{aligned} stmt &\rightarrow if-stmt \mid \mathbf{other} && (6) \\ if-stmt &\rightarrow \mathbf{if} (exp) stmt \mathit{else-part} \\ \mathit{else-part} &\rightarrow \mathbf{else} stmt \mid \epsilon \\ exp &\rightarrow \mathbf{0} \mid \mathbf{1} \end{aligned}$$

ϵ = empty word

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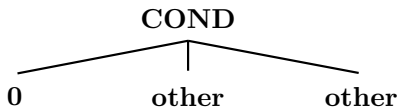
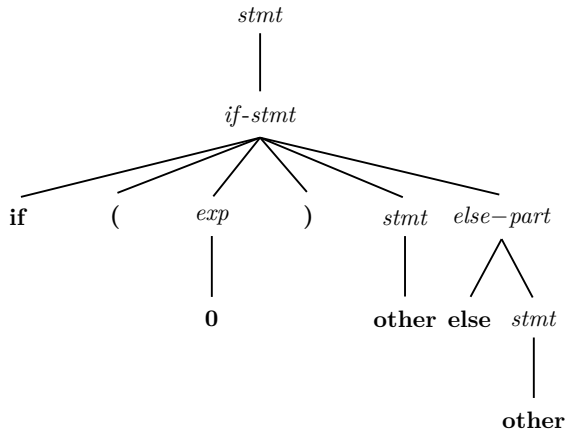
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A further parse tree + an AST



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Tempus fugit ...



picture source: wikipedia



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Ambiguous grammar



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Definition (Ambiguous grammar)

A grammar is *ambiguous* if there exists a word with *two different* parse trees.

Remember grammar from equation (1):

$$\begin{aligned} \text{exp} &\rightarrow \text{exp op exp} \mid (\text{exp}) \mid \text{number} \\ \text{op} &\rightarrow + \mid - \mid * \end{aligned}$$

Consider:

$$\mathbf{n - n * n}$$

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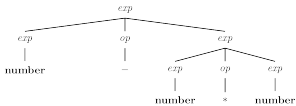
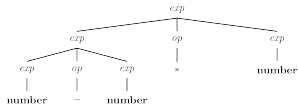
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2 resulting ASTs



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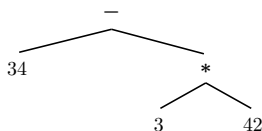
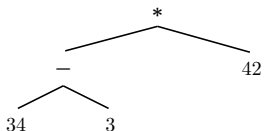
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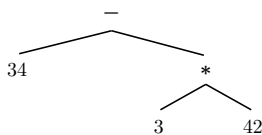
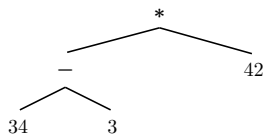


different parse trees \Rightarrow different ASTs \Rightarrow different meaning

Side remark: different meaning

The issue of “different meaning” may in practice be subtle:
is $(x + y) - z$ the same as $x + (y - z)$?

2 resulting ASTs



different parse trees \Rightarrow different ASTs \Rightarrow different meaning

Side remark: different meaning

The issue of “different meaning” may in practice be subtle: is $(x + y) - z$ the same as $x + (y - z)$? In principle yes, but what about MAXINT ?



Precedence & associativity

- one way to make a grammar unambiguous (or less ambiguous)
- for instance:

binary op's	precedence	associativity
+, -	low	left
×, /	higher	left
↑	highest	right

- $a \uparrow b$ written in standard math as a^b :

$$\begin{aligned}5 + 3/5 \times 2 + 4 \uparrow 2 \uparrow 3 &= \\5 + 3/5 \times 2 + 4^{2^3} &= \\(5 + ((3/5 \times 2)) + (4^{(2^3)})) &.\end{aligned}$$

- mostly fine for *binary* ops, but usually also for unary ones (postfix or prefix)



Unambiguity without imposing explicit associativity and precedence



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- removing ambiguity by reformulating the grammar
- **precedence** for op's: *precedence cascade*
 - some bind stronger than others ($*$ more than $+$)
 - introduce separate *non-terminal* for each precedence level (here: terms and factors)

Expressions, revisited

- *associativity*
 - *left-assoc*: write the corresponding rules in *left-recursive* manner, e.g.:

$$\text{exp} \rightarrow \text{exp addop term} \mid \text{term}$$

- *right-assoc*: analogous, but right-recursive
- *non-assoc*:

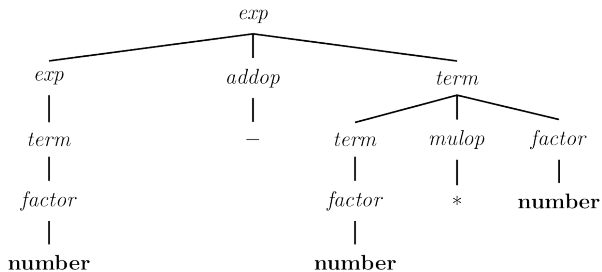
$$\text{exp} \rightarrow \text{term addop term} \mid \text{term}$$

factors and terms

$$\begin{aligned}\text{exp} &\rightarrow \text{exp addop term} \mid \text{term} & (7) \\ \text{addop} &\rightarrow + \mid - \\ \text{term} &\rightarrow \text{term mulop factor} \mid \text{factor} \\ \text{mulop} &\rightarrow * \\ \text{factor} &\rightarrow (\text{exp}) \mid \mathbf{\text{number}}\end{aligned}$$



34 - 3 * 42



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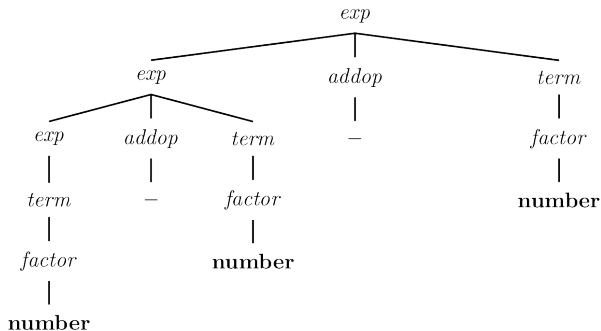
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Real life example



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Operator Precedence

left associative

Java performs operations assuming the following ordering (or *precedence*) rules if parentheses are not used to determine the order of evaluation (operators on the same line are evaluated in left-to-right order subject to the conditional evaluation rule for `&&` and `||`). The operations are listed below from highest to lowest precedence (we use `<exp>` to denote an atomic or parenthesized expression):

postfix ops	<code>[] . (<exp>) (<exp> ++ (<exp> --</code>
prefix ops	<code>++(<exp> --(<exp> -(<exp> ~(exp) !(exp)</code>
creation/cast	<code>new (<type>)(exp)</code>
mult./div.	<code>* / %</code>
add./subt.	<code>+ -</code>
shift	<code><< >> >>></code>
comparison	<code>< <= > >= instanceof</code>
equality	<code>== !=</code>
bitwise-and	<code>&</code>
bitwise-xor	<code>^</code>
bitwise-or	<code> </code>
and	<code>&&</code>
or	<code> </code>
conditional	<code>(<bool_exp>? (<>true_val>): (<>false_val>)</code>
assignment	<code>=</code>
op assignment	<code>+= -= *= /= %=</code>
bitwise assign.	<code>>>= <<= >>>=</code>
boolean assign.	<code>&= ^= =</code>

Another example



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Precedence	Operator	Description	Associativity
1	::	Scope resolution	Left-to-right
	++ --	Subscript/increment and decrement	
	typename type[]	Functional cast	
2	al)	Function call	
	a[]	Subscript	
	.->	Member access	
	++ -- a	Prefix increment and decrement	Right-to-left
	+ - a	Unary plus and minus	
	! ~	Logical NOT and bitwise NOT	
3	(type)	C-style cast	
	*	Indirection (dereference)	
	&a	Address-of	
	sizeof	Size-of-type	
	new new[]	Dynamic memory allocation	
	delete delete[]	Dynamic memory deallocation	
4	* / %	Pointer-to-member	Left-to-right
5	* / %	Multiplication, division, and remainder	
6	+ -	Addition and subtraction	
7	<< >>	Bitwise left shift and right shift	
8	< > <= >=	For relational operators < and <= respectively	
	> >=	For relational operators > and >= respectively	
9	= !=	For relational operators = and != respectively	
10	&&	Bitwise AND	
11	^	Bitwise XOR (exclusive or)	
12		Bitwise OR (inclusive or)	
13	!!	Logical AND	
14		Logical OR	Right-to-left
	a?b:c	Ternary conditional (?:)	
	throw	throw operator	
15	=	Direct assignment (provided by default for C++ classes)	
	+ -	Compound assignment by sum and difference	
	* / %	Compound assignment by product, quotient, and remainder	
	<< >>	Compound assignment by bitwise left shift and right shift	
	&& ^	Compound assignment by bitwise AND, XOR, and OR	
16	,	Comma	Left-to-right

1. $!$ The operand of `sizeof` can't be a C-style type cast: the expression `sizeof (int) * p` is unambiguously interpreted as `(sizeof (int)) * p`, but not `sizeof (int)*p`.
2. $!$ The expression in the middle of the conditional operator (between `?` and `:`) is parsed as if parenthesized: its precedence relative to `?` is ignored.

When parsing an expression, an operator which is listed on some row of the table above with a precedence will be bound tighter (as if by parentheses) to its arguments than any operator that is listed on a row further below z with a lower precedence. For example, the expressions `std::cout << a & b` and `std::cout << (a & b) | (*p)++` are parsed as `(std::cout << a) & b` and `*(p++)`, and not as `std::cout << (a & b) | (*p)++`.

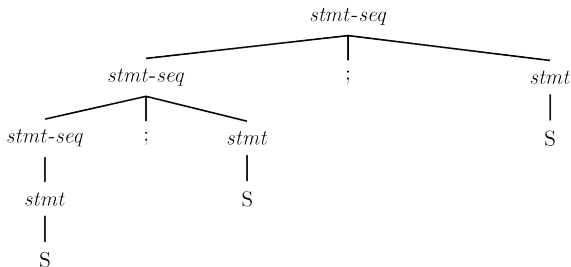
Operators that have the same precedence are bound to their arguments in the direction of their associativity. For example, the expression `a & b & c` is parsed as `a & (b & c)`, and not as `(a & b) & c` because of right-to-left associativity of assignment, but `a + b - c` is parsed as `(a + b) - c` and not as `a | (b - c)` because of left-to-right associativity of addition and subtraction.

Associativity specification is redundant for unary operators and is only shown for completeness: unary prefix operators always associate right-to-left (`delete[] (*p)++` is `delete[] (*(p)++)`) and unary postfix operators always associate left-to-right (`a[1][2]++` is `(a[1][2])++`). Note that the associativity is meaningful for member access operators, even though they are grouped with unary postfix operators: `a.b.c` is parsed as `(a.b).c` and not as `a.(b.c)`.

Operator precedence is unaffected by operator overloading. For example, `std::cout << a ? b : c` parses as

Non-essential ambiguity

left-assoc

$$\begin{array}{l} \textit{stmts} \rightarrow \textit{stmts}; \textit{stmt} \\ \quad \quad | \quad \textit{stmt} \\ \textit{stmt} \rightarrow S \end{array}$$


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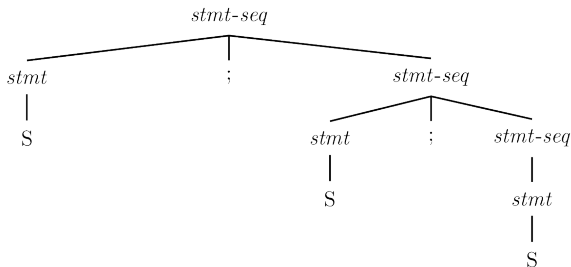
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Non-essential ambiguity (2)

right-assoc representation instead

$$\begin{aligned} \text{stmts} &\rightarrow \text{stmt}; \text{stmts} \\ &\quad | \quad \text{stmt} \\ \text{stmt} &\rightarrow S \end{aligned}$$


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Possible AST representations



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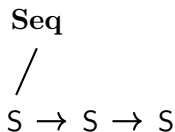
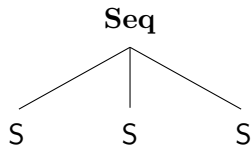
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Nested if's

`if (0) if (1) other else other`

Remember grammar from equation (5):

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

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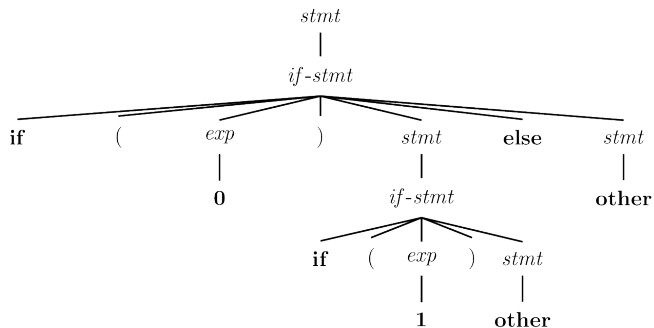
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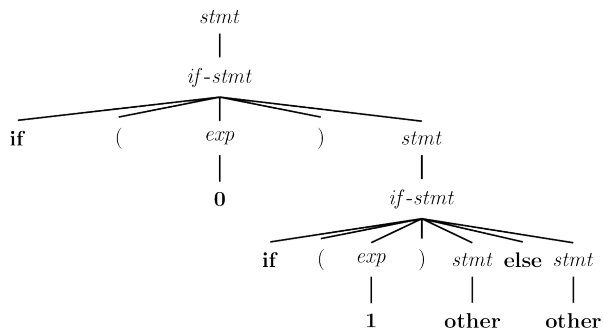
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Should it be like this ...



... or like this



- common convention: connect **else** to closest “free” (= dangling) occurrence

Unambiguous grammar

Grammar

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

- never an unmatched statement inside a matched one
- complex grammar, seldomly used
- instead: ambiguous one, with extra “rule”: connect each **else** to closest free **if**
- alternative: *different* syntax, e.g.,
 - *mandatory else*,
 - or require **endif**



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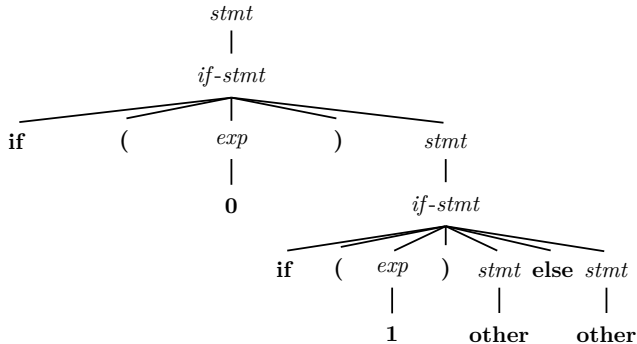
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Adding sugar: extended BNF

- make CFG-notation more “convenient” (but without more theoretical expressiveness)
- syntactic sugar

EBNF

Main additional notational freedom: use *regular expressions* on the rhs of productions. They can contain terminals and non-terminals.

- EBNF: officially standardized, but often: all “sugared” BNFs are called EBNF
- in the standard:
 - α^* written as $\{\alpha\}$
 - $\alpha?$ written as $[\alpha]$
- supported (in the standardized form or other) by some parser tools, but not in all
- remember equation (2)



EBNF examples



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

for $A \rightarrow A\alpha \mid \beta$

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

for $A \rightarrow \alpha A \mid \beta$

$stmts \rightarrow stmt \{ ; stmt \}$

$stmts \rightarrow \{ stmt ; \} stmt$

$if-stmt \rightarrow \mathbf{if} (exp) stmt [\mathbf{else} stmt]$

greek letters: for non-terminals or terminals.

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Some yacc style grammar



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```
/* Infix notation calculator—calc */
%{
#define YYSTYPE double
#include <math.h>
%}

/* BISON Declarations */
%token NUM
%left '-' '+'
%left '*' '/'
%left NEG      /* negation—unary minus */
%right '^'     /* exponentiation */

/* Grammar follows */
%%
input:      /* empty string */
        | input line
;

line:      '\n'
        | exp '\n' { printf ("\t%.10g\n", $1); }
;

exp:      NUM
        | exp '+' exp { $$ = $1 + $3; }
        | exp '-' exp { $$ = $1 - $3; }
        | exp '*' exp { $$ = $1 * $3; }
        | exp '/' exp { $$ = $1 / $3; }
        | '-' exp %prec NEG { $$ = -$2; }
        | exp '^' exp { $$ = pow ($1, $3); }
        | '(' exp ')' { $$ = $2; }
;
%%
```



Section

Chomsky hierarchy

Chapter 3 “Grammars”
Course “Compiler Construction”
Martin Steffen
Spring 2024

The Chomsky hierarchy



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- linguist Noam Chomsky [?]
- **important** classification of (formal) languages (sometimes Chomsky-Schützenberger)
- 4 levels: type 0 languages – type 3 languages
- levels related to machine models that generate/recognize them
- so far: regular languages and CF languages

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Overview

	rule format	languages	machines	closed
3	$A \rightarrow aA, A \rightarrow a$	regular	NFA, DFA	all
2	$A \rightarrow \alpha_1\beta\alpha_2$	CF	pushdown automata	$\cup, *, \circ$
1	$\alpha_1A\alpha_2 \rightarrow \alpha_1\beta\alpha_2$	context-sensitive	(linearly restricted automata)	all
0	$\alpha \rightarrow \beta, \alpha \neq \epsilon$	recursively enumerable	Turing machines	all, except complement

Conventions

- terminals $a, b, \dots \in \Sigma_T$,
- non-terminals $A, B, \dots \in \Sigma_N$
- general words $\alpha, \beta \dots \in (\Sigma_T \cup \Sigma_N)^*$

Phases of a compiler & hierarchy



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“Simplified” design?

1 big grammar for the whole compiler? Or at least a CSG for the front-end, or a CFG combining parsing and scanning?

possible, but a **bad** idea:

- efficiency
- bad design
- especially combining scanner + parser in one BNF:
 - grammar would be needlessly large
 - separation of concerns: much clearer/ more efficient design
- for scanner/parsers: regular expressions + (E)BNF: simply **the formalisms of choice!**
 - front-end needs to do more than checking syntax, CFGs not expressive enough
 - for level-2 and higher: situation gets less clear-cut, plain CSG not too useful for compilers

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