

# CFGs and syntax

- Having established a list of tokens, we need to describe the syntax rules for valid ways to string them together
- Our CFG will describe the ways in which parts of a program are defined in terms of sequences of token types, e.g. the syntax rules for variable declarations, the syntax rules for assignment statements, etc
- For each component that can be built, we'll provide rules for all the different valid forms of construction
- We'll borrow the yacc syntax for our CFG rules

# Basic rule format

- A rule shows the name for the type of component being described (e.g. `var_declaration`) then a `:` then the sequence of token types required, then end the rule with a `;`
- e.g. suppose we had defined tokens named `IDENTIFIER`, `INT`, `CHAR`, `FLOAT`, `SEMICOLON`, then rules might look like

```
data_type: CHAR ;
```

```
data_type: INT ;
```

```
data_type: FLOAT ;
```

- Components can be built up of other components

```
var_declaration: data_type IDENTIFIER SEMICOLON ;
```

# Collapsing rules with or |

- In cases where there are multiple ways to build a component, we can use a single rule and separate the different constructions with | (or)

```
data_type: CHAR ;
```

```
data_type: INT ;
```

```
data_type: FLOAT ;
```

- Could be replaced with

```
data_type: CHAR | INT | FLOAT ;
```

# Describing a program components

- We'll have a name for each component, which it will either be a token or a *non-terminal* component composed of a sequence of tokens
- Non-terminals are used to describe parts of the program in abstract terms, e.g. to describe a for loop, or a function declaration, or a variable declaration, etc
- We'll have a generic starting non-terminal to describe the entire program, e.g. something like program or start
- Our rule set has to describe all the ways to get from the starting non-terminal to a final valid sequence of tokens

# Example: a simple language

- Suppose our tokens are: identifiers (one or more alphabetic), positive integers (one or more digits), an assignment operator ( = ), the keywords begin and end, and the addition operator ( + ), the period (.)
- Assume we have a regex for each, our CFG uses names for the token types: IDENTIFIER, INTEGER, ASSIGN, BEGIN, END, PLUS, STOP
- Programs start with begin, finish with end, and can have one or more assignment statements inside
- Assignment statements look like identifier = expression .
- Expressions can be integers, identifiers, or expr + expr

# Valid sample program

- A valid sample program might be

```
begin  
x = 27 .  
end
```

- Another valid program might be

```
begin  
foo = 123 .  
x = 17 + foo + 100 .  
end
```

# Developing a rule set

- Let's use `program` as our starting non-terminal, `assign_stmt` as the non-terminal for an assignment statement, and `expression` as the non-terminal for an expression
- We'll need a non-terminal to represent an entire list of statements, so let's use `stmt_list`
- We can now start building the rule collection
- Our program as a whole is a begin, followed by a statement list, followed by an end, i.e.

```
program: BEGIN stmt_list END
```

# Rule set, continued

- A statement list is a single assignment statement, or an assignment statement then more statements

`stmt_list: assign_stmt | assign_stmt stmt_list`

- An assignment statement is an identifier, the assignment operator, an expression, and a period

`assign_stmt: IDENTIFIER ASSIGN expression STOP`

- An expression is an identifier, an integer or `expr + expr`

`expression: IDENTIFIER | INTEGER |  
expression PLUS expression`



# The whole grammar

- Thus our complete grammar (assuming we've handled the tokens' regular expressions separately) is:

```
program: BEGIN stmt_list END
```

```
stmt_list: assign_stmt | assign_stmt stmt_list
```

```
assign_stmt: IDENTIFIER ASSIGN expression STOP
```

```
expression: IDENTIFIER | INTEGER |
```

```
expression PLUS expression
```

# Derivations: checking validity

- To see if a program is valid under a grammar, we (or the tool) searches for a way to generate that program using the grammar rules
- If a program cannot be generated under the grammar rules then it cannot be a valid program
- If a program **can** be generated under the grammar rules, then the sequence of rules applied tell us what the components of the program are (e.g. a variable declaration, followed by a function definition, followed by a function call)

# Derivation example

- A derivation for our first sample program

```
begin  
x = 27 .  
end
```

- The steps in the derivation would be

```
Program -> BEGIN stmt_list END  
stmt_list -> assign_stmt  
assign_stmt -> IDENTIFIER ASSIGN INTEGER STOP
```

And, for the regular expressions resolving the tokens:

```
IDENTIFIER -> x      ASSIGN -> =  
INTEGER -> 27       STOP -> .
```

# Derivation example 2

- Consider our second program

```
begin
```

```
foo = 123 .
```

```
x = 17 + foo + 100 .
```

```
end
```

- The derivation steps might start like

```
program -> stmt_list
```

```
stmt_list -> assign_stmt stmt_list
```

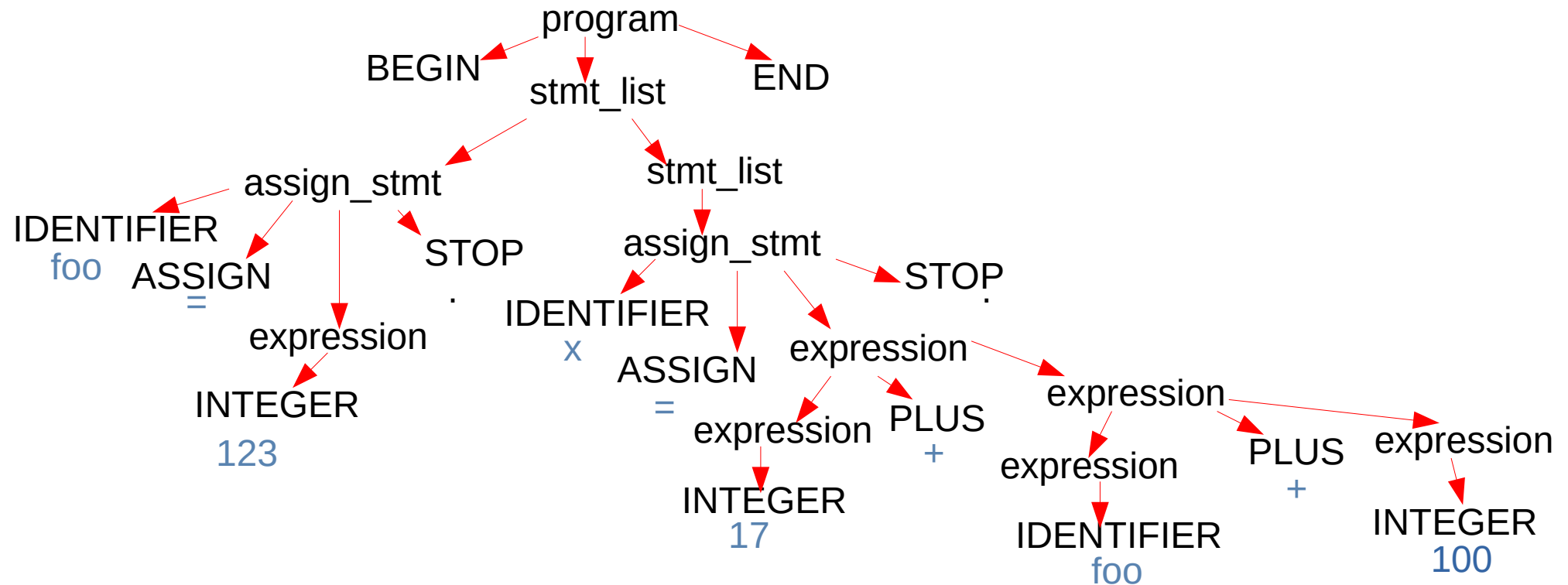
```
stmt_list -> assign_stmt
```

# Deriv example 2 continued

- For the first assignment statement
  - `assign_smt -> IDENTIFIER ASSIGN expression STOP`
  - `expression -> INTEGER`
- For the second assignment statement
  - `assign_stmt -> IDENTIFIER ASSIGN expression STOP`
  - `expression -> expression PLUS expression`
- Then (arbitrarily) resolving the expressions left-to-right
  - `expression -> INTEGER`
  - `expression -> expression PLUS expression`
  - `expression -> IDENTIFIER`
  - `expression -> INTEGER`

# Derivation trees, program meaning

- We can also represent the derivations as a tree, e.g.



# Ambiguous grammars

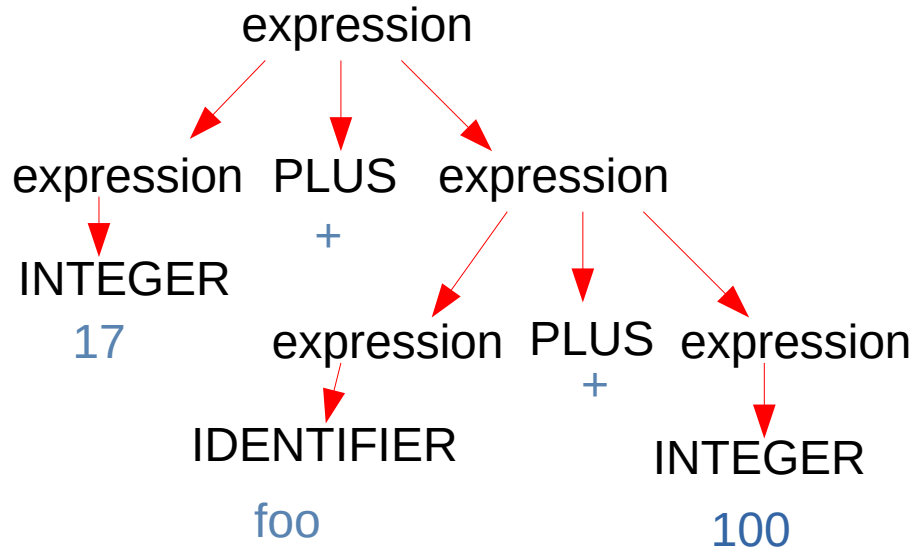
- If there is more than one way to generate a particular program under the grammar then there are multiple possible interpretations about what the structure of the program is
- The grammar is called ambiguous
- Not a good thing: e.g. one compiler might pick one derivation while a different compiler picks another, and the same source code could thus produce executables that behave differently

# Example: ambiguous grammar

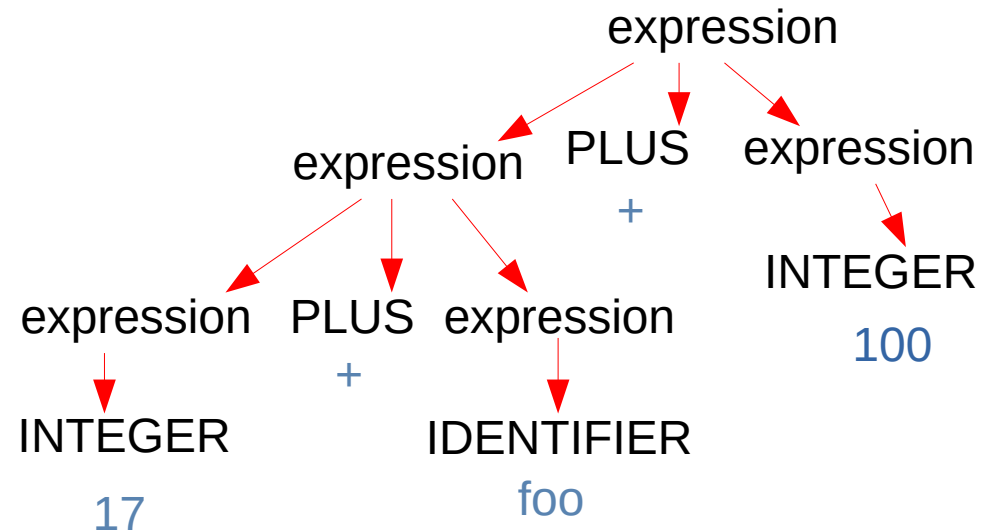
- We can demonstrate our sample grammar was ambiguous by showing a second, different, valid derivation tree for the program from example 2
- The difference will be in the expression for the second statement: the first time we expanded the expression non-terminals from left to right, this time we'll expand them in the opposite direction



# Different expression derivations



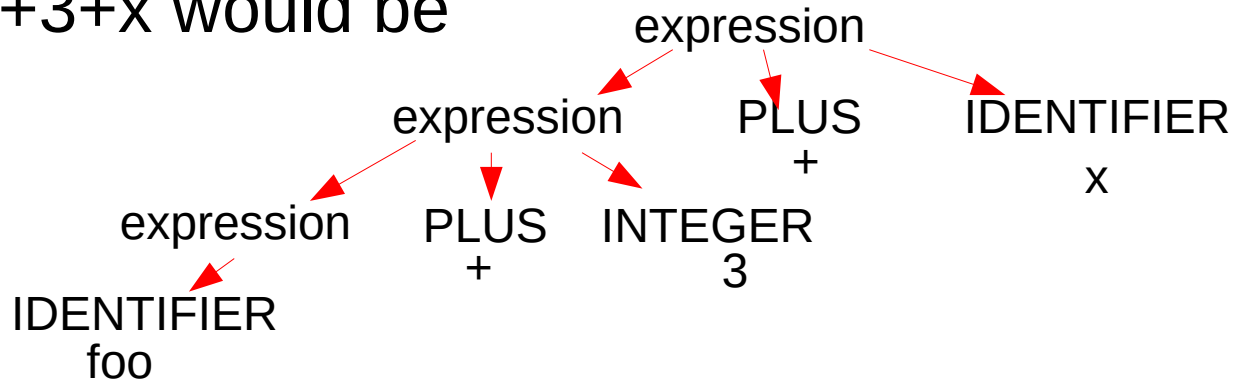
Meaning:  $17 + (foo + 100)$



Meaning:  $(17 + foo) + 100$

# Eliminating ambiguity

- We can structure our grammar rules to enforce which terms to expand next, e.g. instead of  $\text{expr} \rightarrow \text{expr} + \text{expr}$  we could use
- $\text{Expr} \rightarrow \text{expr PLUS INTEGER} \mid \text{expr PLUS IDENTIFIER$
- thus it would finalize the term to the right of the +, so  $\text{foo}+3+x$  would be



# Order of operations: associativity

- the grammar rules we pick must reflect our desired order of operations, both precedence and associativity
- $\text{expr} \rightarrow \text{expr PLUS INTEGER}$  implies the rightmost PLUS is evaluated last, which means order of evaluation is left to right (typically what we want)
- $\text{expr} \rightarrow \text{INTEGER PLUS expr}$  implies the leftmost PLUS is evaluated last, i.e. + operations would evaluate right to left (not usually what we want for +, but might be the desired order for assignment, e.g. for things like  $x = y = z$ ;) )

# Order of ops: precedence

- We want higher precedence operations to be “lower” in the derivation tree, so they get performed first, e.g. for  $x+y*z$  what we want is effectively  $x+(y*z)$ , and for  $x*y+z$  what we want is effectively  $(x*y)+z$
- To get this effect, we can create separate non-terminals for the different precedence levels of expression, and have the grammar rules finalize the lower precedence operations earlier in the derivation

# Example: + and \*

- We'll introduce two expression types: `add_expr` and `mult_expr`, and have our derivations process every `add_expr` first so they're "higher" in the tree

`expr -> add_expr`

`add_expr --> add_expr PLUS mult_expr`

    | `add_expr PLUS mult_expr`

    | `mult_expr`

- ie there will be no way for a `mult_expr` to lead back to an `add_expr`, so our derivations are forced to deal with every `PLUS` before any `MULT`

# Example + and \* continued

- Now we can process the mult operations

`mult_expr --> mult_expr MULT simple`

`| simple`

`simple --> INTEGER`

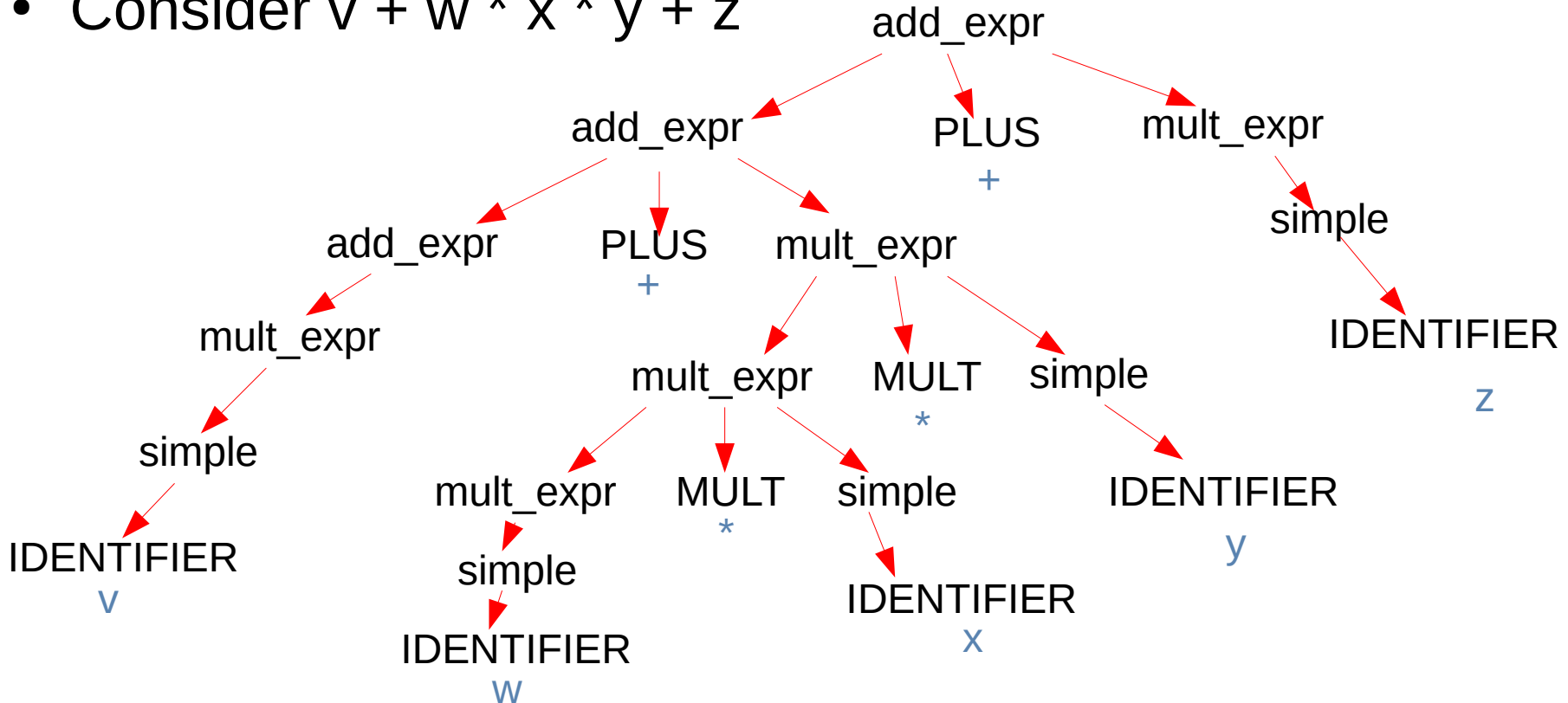
`| IDENTIFIER`

- Note that if an expression was just an integer (or just an identifier) the derivation now goes

`expr -> add_expr -> mult_expr -> simple -> INTEGER`

# Example: derivation tree

- Consider  $v + w * x * y + z$



# Adding handling of parenthesis

- Generally the ( ) are regarded as highest precedence, and working from the “outside” in, so these have to be reflected in our grammar rules
- For our “simple” rule from the previous example, we can add our bracket checker

```
simple --> INTEGER
        | IDENTIFIER
        | LBRACKET expr RBRACKET
```

- Thus the content inside the brackets is treated as a normal top-level expression, assuming LBRACKET and RBRACKET are “(“ and “)”



# “Real” languages

- You can see the lex tokenization for C at [www.tysator.liu.se/c/ANSI-C-grammar-1.html](http://www.tysator.liu.se/c/ANSI-C-grammar-1.html)
- Similarly, you can see the yacc syntax parsing for C at [www.tysator.liu.se/c/ANSI-C-grammar-y.html](http://www.tysator.liu.se/c/ANSI-C-grammar-y.html)
- While it takes some time to follow through the sequences, the ideas have all been covered!