# Syntax of Programming Languages (cont'd)

© Diane Horton 200, Suzanne Stevenson 2001. Modified and put together by Eric Joanis 2002. Further modified by Sheila McIlraith 2004, 2005, 2007.

# Syntactic Ambiguity

### In English

Syntactically ambiguous sentences of English:

- "I saw the dog with the binoculars."
- "The friends you praise sometimes deserve it."
- "He seemed nice to her."

Other kinds of ambiguity in English:

Aside: We can often "disambiguate" ambiguous sentences. **Question:** How?

But we can be wrong.

Example: "I put the box on the table ."

#### In a programming language

#### Example:

```
<stmt> --> <assnt-stmt> | <loop-stmt> | <if-stmt> <if-stmt> --> if <boolean-expr> then <stmt> | if <boolean-expr> then <stmt> else <stmt>
```

#### Example sentence:

```
if (x odd) then
if (x == 1) then
print "bleep";
else
print "boop";
```

Definition: A grammar is ambiguous iff it generates a sentence for which there are two or more distinct parse trees

To prove that a grammar is ambiguous, give a string and two parse trees for it.

A sentence is ambiguous with respect to a grammar iff that grammar generates two or more distinct parse trees for the sentence.

Note that having two distinct *derivations* does not make a sentence ambiguous. A derivation corresponds to a traversal through a parse tree, and one can traverse a single tree in many orders.

**Exercise:** Draw the two parse trees.

## **Example**

Grammar: if statement two slides ago.

Sentence:

if (x odd) then
print "bleep";

One parse tree:

Two derivations:

**Want:** When specifying a programming language, we want the grammar to be completely unambiguous.

**Research question:** Is there a procedure one can follow to determine whether or not a given grammar is ambiguous?

### **Notation and Terminology**

We say that L(G) is the language generated by grammar G.

So G is ambiguous if L(G) contains a sentence which has more than one parse tree, or more than one *leftmost* (or *canonical*) derivation.

#### Dealing with ambiguity

We have two strategies:

- 1. Change the *language* to include **delimiters**
- 2. Change the *grammar* to impose **associativity** and **precedence**

# Changing the language to include delimiters

Algol 68 if-statement grammar:

# Example: A CFG for Arithmetic Expressions

#### Grammar 1:

Example: parse 8 - 3 \* 2

# Changing the language to include delimiters

#### Grammar 2:

$$(8)$$
- $((3)*(2)) \in L(G)$   
 $((8)$ - $(3))*(2) \in L(G)$   
 $8 - 3 * 2 \notin L(G)$ 

#### Grammar 3:

Accepts all expressions, but still ambiguous!

# Changing the grammar to impose precedence

Grammar 4:

<expn> -->

# Grouping in parse tree now reflects precedence

Example: parse 8 - 3 \* 2

### **Precedence**

- Low Precedence:
   Addition + and Subtraction -
- Medium Precedence:
   Multiplication \* and Division /
- Higher Precedence:
   Exponentiation ^
- Highest Precedence:
   Parenthesized expressions ( <expr> )
- $\Rightarrow$  Ordered lowest to highest in grammar.

Approach: Introduce a non-terminal for every precedence level.

# **Associativity**

- Deals with operators of same precedence
- Implicit grouping or parenthesizing
- Left associative: \*, /, +, -
- Right associative: ^

Approach: For left-associative operators, put the recursive term *before* the nonrecursive term in a production rule. For right-associative operators, put it *after*.

# **Associativity (cont.)**

## Examples:

 We want multiplication to be left-associative, so we wrote:

 We want exponentiation to be right-associative, so might write:

# **Dealing with Ambiguity**

- 1. Can't *always* remove an ambiguity from a grammar by restructuring productions.
- 2. When specifying a programming language, we want the grammar to be completely unambiguous.
- 3. An inherently ambiguous language does not possess an unambiguous grammar.
- 4. There is no algorithm that can examine an arbitrary context-free grammar and tell if it is ambiguous, i.e., detecting ambiguity in context-free grammars is an *undecidable* problem.

# An Inherently Ambiguous Language

Two parse trees for  $a^ib^ic^i$ 

Suppose we want to generate the following language:

$$\mathcal{L} = \{ a^i b^j c^k \mid i, j, k \ge 1, i = j \text{ or } j = k \}$$

Grammar:

### **Limitations of CFGs**

CFGs are not powerful enough to describe some languages.

## Example:

- The language consisting of strings with one or more a's followed by the same number of b's then the same number of c's. I.e.,  $\{a^ib^ic^i\mid i\geq 1\}$ .
- {  $a^mb^nc^md^n \mid m,n \geq 1$  }.

**Research question:** Exactly what things can and cannot be expressed with a CFG?

**Research question:** Can we write an algorithm which examines an arbitrary CFG and tells if it is ambiguous or not? – *Undecidable!* 

**Research question:** Is there an algorithm that can examine two arbitrary CFGs and determine if they generate the same language? — *Undecidable!* 

# The Chomsky Hierarchy

Recall: There are several categories of grammar that are more and less expressive, forming a hierarchy:

Phrase-structure grammars

Context-sensitive grammars

Context-free grammars

Regular grammars

This is called the Chomsky hierarchy, after linguist Noam Chomsky, who did much of the original research.

# Regular vs. Context-Free Languages

Regular languages are simpler than programming languages (e.g., numbers, identifiers).

- Context-free grammars can describe nested constructs, matching pairs of items.
- Regular grammars can only describe linear, not nested, structure.

# Using CFGs for PL Syntax

Some aspects of programming language syntax can't be specified with CFGs:

- Cannot declare the same identifier twice in the same block.
- Must declare an identifier before using it.
- A[i,j] is valid only if A is two-dimensional.
- The number of actual parameters must equal the number of formal parameters.

Other things are awkward to say with CFGs:

• Identifier names must be no more than 50 characters long.

These aspects of a programming language are usually specified informally, separately from the formal grammar.

# **Implementations**

#### The Translation Process

1. Lexical Analysis: Converts source code into sequence of tokens.

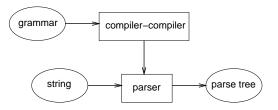
We use regular grammars and finite state automata (recognizers).

**2. Syntactic Analysis:** Structures tokens into initial parse tree.

We use CFGs and parsing algorithms.

- **3. Semantic Analysis:** Annotates parse tree with *semantic actions*.
- **4. Code Generation:** Produces final machine code.

### **Compiler-compilers**



### Examples:

- yacc ("yet another compiler-compiler"). See: man yacc.
- bison (the GNU replacement for yacc)
- JavaCC.
   See: http://www.webgain.com/products/java\_cc

So why does anyone still write compilers by hand?

# **Parsing Techniques**

Two general strategies:

- Bottom-up: Beginning with the leaves (the sentence to be parsed), work upwards to the root (the start symbol).
- Top-down: Beginning with the root (the start symbol), work downwards to the leaves (the sentence to be parsed).

### Recursive descent parsing (top-down)

Every non-terminal is represented by a subprogram that parses strings generated by that non-terminal, according to its production rules.

When it needs to parse another non-terminal, it calls the corresponding subprogram.

Requires: No left-recursion in the productions; ability to know which RHS applies without looking ahead.

# Addressing the "no left-recursion" problem

**Problem:** Left Recursion

#### **Possible Solutions:**

1. Right Recursion? E.g.,

2. Left Recursion Removal, E.g.,

3. Left Factoring, E.g.,

The EBNF corresponds to the code you'd write.

# Other Applications of Formal Grammars

# Identifying strings for an operating system command

#### Examples

(Unix commands that use extended REs):

- ls s[y-z]\*
- grep Se.h syntax.tex
- Scripting languages like awk use regular expressions.

awk '/to[kg]e/ {print \$1}' syntax.tex

## Voice recognition

Problem: Given recorded speech, produce a string containing the words that were spoken.

Difficulties:

How can a grammar help?