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Grammars

BNF Grammars for ...

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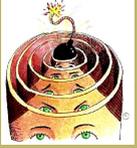
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Lecture 8: Programming Languages: Syntax

Aims:

- To look at how to define the syntax of programming languages using grammars in Backus-Naur Form.



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8.1. Recap

- A language is a set of strings. There are many ways of defining a language.
 - Since it's just a set, we could give an extensional definition, e.g.:

$$L_1 =_{\text{def}} \{0, 10, 110, 1110\}$$

... but only if the language is finite and, preferably, small.

- Equally, we can give an intensional definition, e.g.:

$$L_2 =_{\text{def}} \{w \in \{0, 1\}^* \mid w = 1^*0\}$$

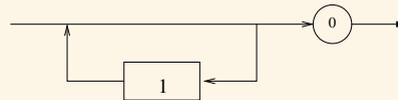
- Then again, we might use a recursive definition, e.g.:

Base case: 0 is in L_3 .

Recursive case: If w is in L_3 , then $1w$ is in L_3 .

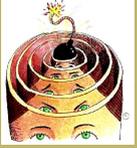
Closure: Nothing else is in L_3

- And the last approach we saw was the use of syntax diagrams, e.g.:



These are often used in textbooks and manuals, since they are easily understood by humans. However, they are not very compact, and they're not easy to enter into a computer.

- In *this* lecture, we see another way: grammars. This approach is used when describing languages to machines.



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8.2. Grammars

8.2.1. Backus-Naur Form (BNF)

- *Backus-Naur Form* (BNF) is a way of writing a grammar to define a language.
- A BNF grammar uses some symbols, specifically $::=$, \langle and \rangle . These are *metasymbols*. It is crucial that you realise that these are part of the metalanguage; they are not part of the object language.

It is also crucial that you realise that $::=$ is a BNF symbol and is completely different from $:=$, which is the DECAFF and MOCCA symbol used in assignment commands. In this lecture, we are writing grammars (using $::=$), not algorithms/programs (using $:=$)!

- Here is a very simple BNF grammar:

$$\langle S \rangle ::= a \langle S \rangle$$
$$\langle S \rangle ::= \epsilon$$

- Symbols inside metalanguage brackets \langle and \rangle are called *nonterminals*. These correspond to the names inside rectangles in syntax diagrams.
- One of the non-terminals must be designated the *start symbol*. In this case, the start symbol is $\langle S \rangle$. (It is the only non-terminal in this example!).
- Object language symbols are called *terminals*. These correspond to the names inside circles in syntax diagrams.
- The metalanguage symbol $::=$ stands for ‘is defined as’ or ‘rewrites as’.
- Each line of the grammar is called a *grammar rule*.



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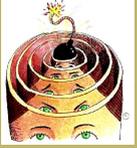
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8.2.2. Derivations

- To determine whether a particular string of terminals is a member of the language defined by a grammar, we try to find a sequence of rewrites that leads from the start symbol to the string in question.
- In the lecture we will show that $aaaa$ is a member of the language defined by the grammar from above.
- In some cases, one string may have more than one derivation.
- E.g. consider this grammar with start symbol $\langle S \rangle$:
$$\begin{aligned}\langle S \rangle &::= \langle X \rangle \langle Y \rangle \\ \langle X \rangle &::= a \\ \langle Y \rangle &::= b\end{aligned}$$
- There are two ways to derive the string ab .

8.2.3. The language defined by a grammar

- The language defined by a grammar is the set of all strings of terminals that can be derived from the start symbol.
- The language defined by this grammar:
$$\begin{aligned}\langle S \rangle &::= a \langle S \rangle \\ \langle S \rangle &::= \epsilon\end{aligned}$$
is $\{\epsilon, a, aa, aaa, aaaa, aaaaa, \dots\}$, i.e. a^* .



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- The language defined by this grammar:

$$\langle S \rangle ::= \langle X \rangle \langle Y \rangle$$
$$\langle X \rangle ::= a$$
$$\langle Y \rangle ::= b$$

is just $\{ab\}$.

Class Exercise

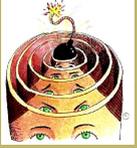
- Here is a grammar, whose start symbol is $\langle S \rangle$:

$$\langle S \rangle ::= \langle X \rangle aa \langle X \rangle$$
$$\langle X \rangle ::= a \langle X \rangle$$
$$\langle X \rangle ::= b \langle X \rangle$$
$$\langle X \rangle ::= \epsilon$$

1. Is bab a member of the language defined by this grammar?
2. What about $baab$?
3. $baaa$?
4. Describe in words the language defined by this grammar.

8.2.4. Parse Trees

- *Parse trees* are a graphical representation of the grammar rules used to derive a string. Parse trees have the advantage that they make explicit the hierarchical structure of the strings.
- To draw a parse tree,
 - put the start symbol of the grammar at the root of the tree;



- each time you use a rule $\langle A \rangle ::= \alpha$ to replace nonterminal $\langle A \rangle$ by a sequence of terminals and/or nonterminals α , then install the members of α as children of $\langle A \rangle$.

- E.g. consider this grammar with start symbol $\langle S \rangle$:

$$\langle S \rangle ::= a\langle S \rangle$$

$$\langle S \rangle ::= \epsilon$$

- aaa is a member of the language defined by this grammar, and in the lecture we will draw the parse tree.

Class Exercise

- The following grammar has start symbol $\langle S \rangle$:

$$\langle S \rangle ::= \langle X \rangle aa\langle X \rangle$$

$$\langle X \rangle ::= a\langle X \rangle$$

$$\langle X \rangle ::= b\langle X \rangle$$

$$\langle X \rangle ::= \epsilon$$

- Draw a parse tree for string $baab$.

8.2.5. Ambiguity

- A grammar is *ambiguous* if the language it defines contains at least one string that has *two or more possible derivations which correspond to different parse trees*.
- We'll first revisit an example where there isn't ambiguity!

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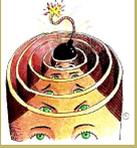
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- We saw earlier that we can derive string ab from the following grammar in two ways.

$$\langle S \rangle ::= \langle X \rangle \langle Y \rangle$$
$$\langle X \rangle ::= a$$
$$\langle Y \rangle ::= b$$

- However, both derivations give us the same parse tree. Hence, the grammar is unambiguous.
- But now consider this grammar (start symbol $\langle S \rangle$):

$$\langle S \rangle ::= a \langle S \rangle$$
$$\langle S \rangle ::= \langle S \rangle a$$
$$\langle S \rangle ::= a$$

- There are four derivations of aaa and each one gives a different parse tree.
- This grammar is *ambiguous*.



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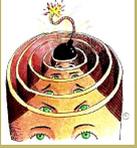
8.3. BNF Grammars for Programming Languages

- We can define the syntax of a programming language use a BNF grammar.
- Here is a BNF grammar for MOCCA corresponding to the syntax diagrams we saw in the previous lecture.
- The start symbol is $\langle \text{program} \rangle$.

$$\begin{aligned}\langle \text{program} \rangle &::= \langle \text{block} \rangle \\ \langle \text{block} \rangle &::= \{ \langle \text{command-list} \rangle \} \\ \langle \text{command-list} \rangle &::= \epsilon \\ \langle \text{command-list} \rangle &::= \langle \text{command} \rangle \langle \text{command-list} \rangle \\ \langle \text{command} \rangle &::= \langle \text{block} \rangle \\ \langle \text{command} \rangle &::= \langle \text{assignment} \rangle \\ \langle \text{command} \rangle &::= \langle \text{one-armed-conditional} \rangle \\ \langle \text{command} \rangle &::= \langle \text{two-armed-conditional} \rangle \\ \langle \text{command} \rangle &::= \langle \text{while-loop} \rangle \\ \langle \text{assignment} \rangle &::= \langle \text{var} \rangle := \langle \text{expr} \rangle \\ \langle \text{one-armed-conditional} \rangle &::= \mathbf{if} \langle \text{expr} \rangle \langle \text{command} \rangle \\ \langle \text{two-armed-conditional} \rangle &::= \mathbf{if} \langle \text{expr} \rangle \langle \text{command} \rangle \mathbf{else} \langle \text{command} \rangle \\ \langle \text{while-loop} \rangle &::= \mathbf{while} \langle \text{expr} \rangle \langle \text{command} \rangle \\ &\text{etc.}\end{aligned}$$

Class Exercise

- Syntax diagrams and BNF grammars have equivalent power: whatever languages you can describe with one, you can describe with the other.
- But my syntax diagrams and BNF grammar for MOCCA are not equivalent. The BNF grammar allows something that the syntax diagrams do not.



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- What is it?
- How would you make them equivalent?

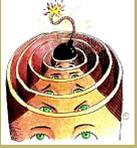
Parse Trees and Ambiguity

- For the purposes of illustration, here is a MOCCA program:

```
{  
  x := 0  
  while x < 10  
    x := x + 1  
}
```

The BNF grammar tells us that this is a syntactically well-formed program.

- The following parse tree confirms that the program above is syntactically well-formed. It also shows the rules used to derive the program and the program's hierarchical structure.



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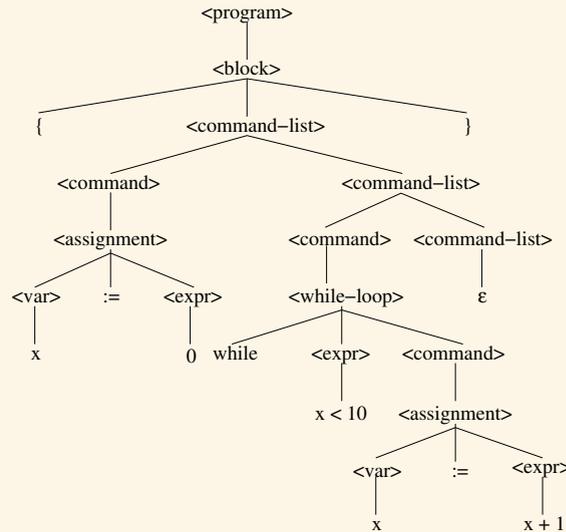
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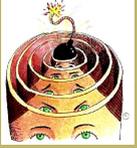
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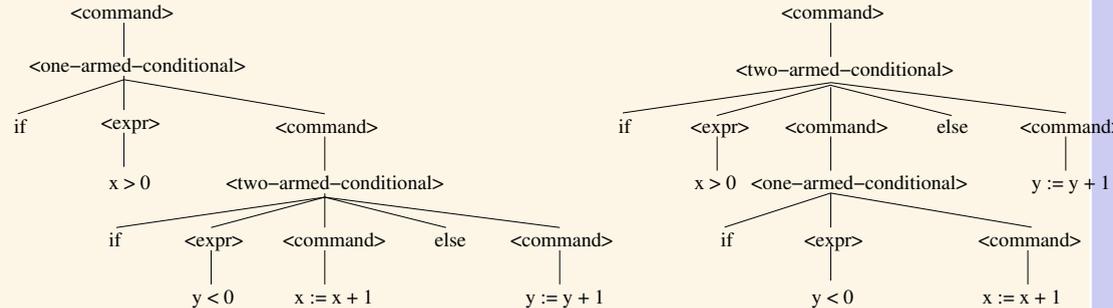
- Here's another fragment of a MOCCA program:

```
if x > 0
  if y < 0
    x := x + 1
  else
    y := y + 1
```

This MOCCA program is well-formed according to our grammar.



- But it has two parse trees:



- You should recall that this is an example of a dangling-else .
- For programming languages, ambiguity is generally undesirable. What should we do?
 - Either: abandon this grammar and come up with an unambiguous grammar.
 - Or: stick with this grammar but devise some disambiguation conventions that tell us which parse trees to discard.

Acknowledgements

Some of the grammars come from [Coh91].

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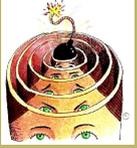
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References

[Coh91] D. I. A. Cohen. *Introduction to Computer Theory*. John Wiley, 2nd. edition, 1991.