## Computer Science 3-2013

## Programming Language Translation

## Practical for Week 22, beginning 23 September 2013 - Solutions

This tutorial/practical was not always well done. Many people could "guess" the answers, but could not or did not justify their conclusions. If set in exams, in these sorts of questions it is important to do so.

As usual, you can find a "solution kit" as PRAC22A. ZIP or PRAC22AC. ZIP if you wish to experiment further.
This might be an appropriate point to mention that Coco/R allows two pragma directives. One of these, $\$ \mathrm{~T}$ will perform grammar tests but suppress the generation of the parser and scanner, and the other $\$ \mathrm{~F}$ will produce a list of FIRST and FOLLOW sets for the non-terminals of your grammar - very useful when debugging LL(1) problems.

## Task 1 - Eliminating Metabrackets

Transforming PRODUCTIONS with meta brackets is really easy - there is a simple fail-safe method for doing it (see page 85). Applied to

```
PRODUCTIONS
    Calc = { Expression "=" } EOF .
    Expression = ["+" | "-" ] Term { "+" Term | "-" Term }.
    Term = Factor { "*" Factor | "/" Factor }.
    Factor = Primary { "!" } .
    Primary = decNumber | hexNumber | "("Expression ")" | "abs" "("Expression ")".
END Calc.
```

we get something like

```
PRODUCTIONS
    Calc1 = Expressions EOF
    Expressions = Expression "=" Expressions | .
    Expression = Sign Term MoreTerms .
    MoreTerms = ( "+" Term |-" Term ) MoreTerms | .
    Sign = "+" | "-" | .
    Term = Factor MoreFactors .
    MoreFactors = ( "*" Factor| "/" Factor ) MoreFactors | .
    Factor = Primary Bangs .
    Primary = decNumber | hexNumber | "(" Expression ")" | "abs" "(" Expression ")".
    Bangs = "!" Bangs | .
END Calc1.
```

Of course this grammar is now right associative, which is undesirable for the purposes of tree building.
Note that we cannot eliminate the $\}$ used in the TOKENS section, which really defines tokens in the form of regular expressions, and these don't have to obey LL(1) constraints, and cannot be defined in terms of one another in any case.

## Task 2 Steam Radio

The original grammar had productions

```
Radio = { Talkshow | NewsBulletin | "song" | "advert" } EOF .
NewsBulletin = "advert" NewsItem { NewsItem } [ Weather ] Filler .
NewsItem = "ANC" [ "cosatu" ] | "strike" | [ "cosatu" ] "ANC" | "zuma"
    "corruption" | "malema" "song"| Accident.
TalkShow = "host" { "listener" "host" } [ Filler ] .
Accident = "collision" "claims" "another" number "lives" .
Filler = "song" | "advert"
Weather = { "snow" | "rain" | "cloudy" | "windy" } .
```

This is pretty obviously non-LL(1) and most people could see one of the obvious reasons, and some seem to have looked no further. But here is what I hoped you might have done.

If we rewrite the grammar without meta-brackets we get something like:

```
Radio = Programmes EOF .
Programmes = Programme Programmes | .
Programme = TalkShow | NewsBulletin | "song" | "advert" .
NewsBulletin = "advert" NewsItems OptWeather Filler .
NewsItems = NewsItem NewsItems & .
OptWeather = Weather | E.
NewsItem = "ANC" OptCosatu | "strike" | OptCosatu "ANC" | "zuma"
| "corruption" "malema" "song" Accident
OptCosatu = "cosatu" | E.
TalkShow = "host" Exchanges OptFiller .
Exchanges = Exchange Exchanges | & .
OptFiller = Filler | \varepsilon .
Exchange = "listener" "host"
Filler = "song" | "advert" .
Accident = "collision" "claims" "another" number "lives" .
Weather = OneWeather Weather & .
OneWeather = "snow" | "rain" | "cloudy" | "windy".
```

Rule 1 is broken in only two places:
(a) One of the options for Programme, that is NewsBulletin, starts with "advert", which is an option in its own right for Programme.
(b) Since OptCosatu is nullable, two of the options in NewsItem can both start with "ANC"

To check Rule 2 we need to look at the nullable non-terminals, which are

Programmes, NewsItems, OptWeather, Weather, OptCosatu, Exchanges, OptFiller

You should check through in detail, but the two that cause problems are OptCosatu and OptFiller:

```
FIRST(OptCosatu) = { cosatu }
FOLLOW(OptCosatu) = { music, advert, ANC, strike, zuma, corruption, malema, cosatu,
    collision, snow, rain, cloudy, windy }
FIRST(OptFiller) = { music, advert }
FOLLOW(OptFiller) = { music, advert, host }
```

As mentioned in class, with a bit of practice one can see many of these problems just by looking at the EBNF version of the productions. A look at the three productions

```
Radio = { TalkShow | NewsBulletin | "song" | "advert" } EOF.
NewsItem = "ANC" [ "cosatu" ] | "strike" | [ "cosatu"] "ANC" | "zuma"
    | "corruption" | "malema" "song" Accident.
NewsBulletin = "advert" NewsItem { NewsItem } [ Weather ] Filler.
```

quickly shows up the Rule 1 problems. The others may not be so obvious, although the second of these last three productions shows that [ "cosatu" ] is nullable, and one quickly discovers that Rule 2 is broken. Similarly, a look at

```
TalkShow = "host" { "listener" "host" } [ Filler ] .
```

shows that [ Filler ] is nullable, and this combined with the production for Radio shows that Rule 2 must be broken for this nullable component as well.

How, if at all, can one find a better grammar? Several submissions simply gave up at this point, but their authors often gave very specious (that is, indefensible) reasons. Just because a grammar is not $\mathrm{LL}(1)$ is no guarantee that you will not be able to find an equivalent $\operatorname{LL}(1)$ grammar - but by the same token, it is possible to find many nonLL(1) grammars that can be converted to LL(1) grammars quite easily (go and read section 7.3 of the textbook again), although in some cases this is not possible (read the discussion about the "dangling else" again).

Some of the problems in the grammar are easily overcome. If we change the production for TalkShow to

```
TalkShow = "host" { "listener" "host" } .
```

we remove one of the Rule 2 problems, and we do not lose anything at all - if a filter had been present it would have shown up as part of the next item.

We can remove the Rule 1 problem involving "advert" by a simple trick which is useful on many occasions delay the factorization of the alternatives that cause problems

```
Radio = { TalkShow | "song" | "advert" [ RestofNews ] } EOF .
RestofNews = NewsItem { NewsItem } [ Weather ] Filler .
```

Conceptually a NewsBulletin in the old form - starting with an "advert" - is still required.
How do we get the problematic "cosatu" to go away? A careful look at the production for NewsItem reveals that the grammar is actually ambiguous - it appears we are allowed to parse a substring "ANC" "cosatu" "ANC" in two ways (either as ("ANC" "cosatu") ( $\varepsilon$ "ANC" ) or as ("ANC" $\varepsilon$ ) ( "cosatu" "ANC"). Now if we really want to find a grammar that is ambiguous (bearing in mind the rude remarks made in lectures that politicians love ambiguity, we might just want to do so!) we shall not be able to do this in an LL(1) compliant way. Trying to get behind the intent of the problem might suggest that we want a grammar in which it is possible to have news items on "ANC" without mentioning "cosatu" in the same breath, but if we ever mention "cosatu" it must either have been just after mentioning "ANC", or (if we had not done so), we have no option but to mention "ANC" straight afterwards.

One way to do this is to write the production:

```
NewsItem = "ANC" [ "cosatu" ] | "strike" | "cosatu" "ANC"
    | "zuma" | "corruption" | "malema" "song" | Accident.
```

this gets rid of the Rule 1 violation, but not the Rule 2 violation. However, this one might not be serious - it is, in fact, exactly the same situation as the "dangling else" and a practical parser would resolve it in the same way that we discuss in lectures - that is, a news item on "cosatu" immediately following "ANC" would be bound to that story on "ANC", and not to one still to follow. So, presented with

```
"ANC" "cosatu" "ANC" "zuma"
```

would be handled as syntactically equivalent to
("ANC" "cosatu") ("ANC") ("zuma")
and not as
("ANC") ("cosatu" "ANC") "zuma"
Of course, in a sense, this behaviour of the parser might not be what was really wanted - this is a situation where the semantics have become "context sensitive". In the case of the "dangling else", the recursive descent parser works very well, and if one wants the opposite sort of effect, one can resort to code in $\{$ braces $\}$.

Some suggested that the production just be written even more simply

```
NewsItem = "ANC" | "strike" | "cosatu" |
    | "zuma" | "corruption" | "malema" "song" | Accident .
```

but no - one could then have news bulletins where "cosatu" is mentioned without mention of the "ANC" at all.

## Task 3 - Palindromes

Palindromes are character strings that read the same from either end. You were invited to explore various ways of finding grammars that describe palindromes made only of the letters $a$ and $b$ :

Palindrome $=" a "$ Palindrome $" a " \mid " b "$ Palindrome " $b "$.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\text { Palindrome }=" a \text { " Palindrome " } a \text { " | "b" Palindrome "b" | "a" | "b". } \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Palindrome = "a" [ Palindrome ] " $a$ " | " $b$ " [ Palindrome ] " $b "$.
Palindrome $=[$ " $a$ " Palindrome " $a " \mid " b "$ Palindrome " $b "|" a "| " b "]$.
Which grammars achieve their aim? If they do not, explain why not. Which of them are LL(1)? Can you find other (perhaps better) grammars that describe palindromes and which are LL(1)?

This is one of those awful problems that looks deceptively simple, and indeed is deceptive. We need to be able to cater for palindromes of odd or even length, and we need to be able to cater for palindromes of finite length, so that the "repetition" that one immediately thinks of has to be able to terminate.

Here are some that don't work:

```
COMPILER Palindrome /* does not terminate */
PRODUCTIONS
    Palindrome = "a" Palindrome "a" | "b" Palindrome "b".
END Palindrome.
COMPILER Palindrome /* only allows odd length palindromes */
PRODUCTIONS
    Palindrome = "a" Palindrome "a" | "b" Palindrome "b" | "a" | "b" .
END Palindrome.
COMPILER Palindrome /* only allows even length palindromes */
PRODUCTIONS
    Palindrome = "a" [ Palindrome ] "a" | "b" [ Palindrome ] "b" .
END Palindrome.
```

Of those grammars, the first seems to obey the LL(1) rules, but it is useless (it is not "reduced" in the sense of the definitions on page 68). The second one is obviously non-LL(1) as the terminals "a" and "b" can start more than one alternative. The third one is less obviously non-LL(1). If you rewrite it

```
COMPILER Palindrome /* only allows even length palindromes */
PRODUCTIONS
    Palindrome = "a" Extra "a" | "b" Extra "b" .
    Extra = Palindrome | \varepsilon.
END Palindrome.
```

and note that Extra is nullable, then FIRST(Extra) $=\{$ "a", "b" \} and FOLLOW(Extra) = \{ "a", "b" \}.

Here is another attempt

```
COMPILER Palindrome /* allows any length palindromes */
PRODUCTIONS
    Palindrome = [ "a" Palindrome "a" | "b" Palindrome "b" | "a" | "b" ].
END Palindrome.
```

This describes both odd and even length palindromes, but is non-LL(1). Palindrome is nullable, and both FIRST(Palindrome) and FOLLOW (Palindrome) $=\{$ "a", "b" \}. And, as most were quick to notice, it breaks Rule 1 immediately as well.

Other suggestions were:

```
COMPILER Palindrome /* allows any length palindromes */
PRODUCTIONS
    Palindrome = "a" Palindrome "a" | "b" Palindrome "b" | [ "a" | "b" ].
END Palindrome.
```

which also breaks both rules fairly obviously, and

```
COMPILER Palindrome /* allows any length palindromes */
PRODUCTIONS
    Palindrome = "a" [ Palindrome "a"] | "b" [ Palindrome "b" ] .
END Palindrome.
```

but, ingenious as this appears, it does not work either. Rewritten it would become

```
COMPILER Palindrome /* allows any length palindromes */
PRODUCTIONS
    Palindrome = "a" PalA | "b" PalB .
    PalA = Palindrome "a" .
    PalB = Palindrome "b" .
END Palindrome.
```

PalA and PalB are both nullable, and FIRST (PalA) $=\{$ "a" , "b" \} while FOLLOW (PalA) = FOLLOW (Palindrome) = \{ "a", "b" \} as well.

In fact, when you think about it, you simply will not be able to find an LL(1) grammar for this language. (That is fine; grammars don't have to be LL(1) to be valid grammars. They just have to be LL(1) or very close to LL(1) to be able to write recursive descent parsers.) Here's how to think about it. Suppose I asked you to hold your breath for as long as you could, and also to nod your head when you were half way through. I don't believe you could do it - you don't know before you begin exactly how long you will be holding your breath. Similarly, if I told you to get into my car and drive it till the tank was empty but to hoot the hooter when you were half way to running out you could not do it. Or if I told you to walk into a forest with your partner and kiss him/her when you were in the dead centre of the forest, you would not know when the magic moment had arrived.

LL(1) parsers have to be able to decide just by looking at one token exactly what to do next - if they have to guess when they are are half-way through parsing some structure they will not be able to do so. One would have to stop applying the options like Palindrome = "a" Palindrome "a" at the point where one had generated or analyzed half the palindrome, and if there is no distinctive character in the middle one could not expect the parser to be able to do so.

If course, if one changes the problem ever so slightly in that way one can find an $\operatorname{LL}(1)$ grammar. Suppose we want a grammar for palindromes that have matching $a$ and $b$ characters on either end and a distinctive $c$ or pair of $c$ characters in the centre:

```
COMPILER Palindrome /* allows any length palindromes, but c must be in the middle */
PRODUCTIONS
    Palindrome = "a" Palindrome "a" | "b" Palindrome "b" | "c" [ "c" ] .
END Palindrome.
```


## Task 4 - Pause for thought

Which of the following statements are true? Justify your answer.
(a) An LL(1) grammar cannot be ambiguous.
(b) A non-LL(1) grammar must be ambiguous.
(c) An ambiguous language cannot be described by an LL(1) grammar.
(d) It is possible to find an $\operatorname{LL}(1)$ grammar to describe any non-ambiguous language.

To answer this sort of question you must be able to argue convincingly, and most people did not do that at all!
(a) is TRUE. An LL(1) grammar cannot be ambiguous. If a language can be described by an LL(1) grammar it will always be able to find a single valid parse tree for any valid sentence, and no parse tree for an invalid sentence. The rules imply that no indecision can exist at any stage - either you can find a unique way to continue the implicit derivation from the goal symbol, or you have to conclude that the sentence is malformed.

But you cannot immediately conclude any of the "opposite" statements, other than (c) which is TRUE. If you really want to define an ambiguous language (and you may have perfectly good/nefarious reasons for doing so -stand-up comedians do it all the time) you will not be able to describe it by an LL(1) grammar, which has the property that it can only be used for deterministic parsing.

In particular (b) is FALSE. We can "justify" this by giving just a single counter example to the claim that it might be true. We have seen several such grammars. The palindrome grammars above are like this - even though they are non $\operatorname{LL}(1)$ for the reasons given, they are quite unambiguous - you would only be able to parse any palindrome in one way! Many people seem not to realise this - they incorrectly conclude that non-LL(1) inevitably implies ambiguity. The other classic case is that of the left-recursive expression grammars discussed in class and in chapter 6.1.

Similarly (d) is FALSE. Once again the palindrome example suffices - this language is simple and easily describes unambiguously, but we can easily argue that it is impossible to find an LL(1) grammar to describe it.

## Task 6 - Phools rush in (where angels fear to tread, apparently)

```
COMPILER Phoolish $CN
CHARACTERS
    letter = "abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz".
    consonant = "BCDFGHJKLMNPQRSTVWXYZ" .
    vowel = "AEIOU" .
TOKENS
    Lletter = letter.
    Uconsonant = consonant .
    Uvowel = vowel .
IGNORE CHR(0) .. CHR(31)
PRODUCTIONS
    Phoolish = { Sentence } "." .
    Sentence = Lletter | Uvowel Sentence | Uconsonant Sentence Sentence .
END Phoolish.
```

Many people had misread the question. A complete sentence can follow an uppercase vowel, and two sentences can follow an uppercase consonant.

Thus, for example, while $a A b C d e$ are valid simpler sentences, so too are $U A b$ (Vowel Sentence) and $W$ UAb Cde (Consonant Sentence Sentence). All very phoolish, you will agree!

Notice that the names of character sets cannot appear in the PRODUCTIONS section, seductive though this may appear. So the following is incorrect:

```
COMPILER Phoolish $CN
CHARACTERS
    letter = "abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz".
    consonant = "BCDFGHJKLMNPQRSTVWXYZ" .
    vowel = "AEIOU" .
IGNORE CHR(0) .. CHR(31)
PRODUCTIONS /* INCORRECT !!!!!!!! */
    Phoolish = { Sentence } "." .
    Sentence = letter | vowel Sentence | consonant sentence sentence .
END Phoolish.
```


## Task 7 - Parva expressions are not like those in C\# and Java

To handle expressions with Java-inspired precedence we might proceed as follows. Note the use of the \{ \} metabrackets in all but one of the following.

```
Expression = AndExp { "||" AndExp } .
AndExp = EqlExp { "&&" EqlExp } .
EqlExp = RelExp { Eqlop RelExp }.
RelExp = AddExp [ RelOp AddExp | "in" ExpList ].
    // Note [ ] not {} - disallow an expression like a < b < c
AddExp = MulExp { AddOp MulExp } .
MulExp = Factor { MulOp Factor }.
Factor = Primary | ( "+" | "-" | "!") Factor.
Primary = Designator | Constant
    | "new" BasicType "[" Expression "]"
    "(" Expression ")" .
ExpList 
ExpList = "(" Range { "," Range } ")" .' 
```

We need to classify the various operators differently:

```
Mulop 
```

Mulop
MddOp
MddOp
Rlol
Rlol
"/=" | "%=" | "\&=" | "|=" .

```
"/=" | "%=" | "&=" | "|=" .
```

Several students put "in" as an operator at the wrong level. I think it is best regardes as a sort of relational operator (it produces a Boolean result).

The large number of levels in the C family make for bigger, slower parsers. The have the advantage over the Pascal hierarchy in that one can write $\mathrm{a}<\mathrm{b} \| \mathrm{c}>\mathrm{d}$ rather than requiring ( $\mathrm{a}<\mathrm{b}$ ) \| ( $\mathrm{c}>\mathrm{d}$ ). But in either system it is possible to use (and sometimes sensible to use) parentheses to ensure that the correct precedence is achieved. Quickly - do you remember all the precedence levels in the C family?

## Task 8 - How are things stacking up?

The grammar for the assembler language was well done by some, and rather inadequately done by others. In particular, few submissions had handled the PRNS opcode correctly - this one takes a "string" as an argument, and the best way to define a string is in the TOKENS section (and, in fact, a way of doing this had been given to you in the Parva grammar last week).

The basic grammar (for the original form of PVM code) demonstrates some techniques that are easily missed. We must treat the ends of lines to be significant markers this time, and we must make provision for an escape sequence in the definition of a string. The various kinds of opcode must be distinguished, and it must be possible to have completely blank lines. Note that we have introduced lf as a singleton character set, and then defined the EOL token to be comprised of this character.

```
COMPILER Assem1 $CN
/* Grammar for subset of PVM assembler language
    No labels - all addressing is absolute
    P.D. Terry, Rhodes University, 2010 */
CHARACTERS
    control = CHR(0)..CHR(31).
    printable = ANY - control .
    instring = printable - '"'i.
    digit = "0123456789".
    lf = CHR(10).
TOKENS
    number = digit { digit }.
    stringLit = '"'{ {年String |',\"' } '"'.
    EOL = lf.
COMMENTS FROM ";" TO lf
IGNORE control - lf
PRODUCTIONS
    Assem1 = { PVMStatement } EOF .
    PVMStatement = [ number ] [ PVMInstruction ] SYNC EOL .
    PVMInstruction = TwoWord | OneWord | PrintString .
    TwoWord =( "LDA" "LDC" [ "-" ] | "LDL" | "STL"| "DSP" | "BRN" |"BZE" ) number 
```



```
    | "CNE" ( "DIV" { "HALT" 
    PrintString = "PRNS" stringLit.
END Assem1.
```

To allow for alphanumeric labels requires a few small changes. It is best to split the opcodes into 4 groups - those that take no argument, those that can take only a numerical argument, those that can take a numerical argument or a label, and PRNS. Note that we can have "standalone" labels too - in other words, lines with nothing but a label are permissible.

We have allowed the statements to incorporate either alphanumeric labels or the (redundant) numbers or both. As a simple exercise, consider how might allow one or the other, but not both.

```
TOKENS
    identifier = Letter { Letter | digit }.
    number = digit { digit } .
    stringLit = '"'{ instring | '\"' } '"'.
    EOL = lf .
PRODUCTIONS
    Assem2 = { PVMStatement } EOF .
    PVMStatement = [ number ] [ Label ] [ PVMInstruction ] SYNC EOL .
    PVMInstruction = TwoWord | OneWord | PrintString | Branch.
    TwoWord = ( "LDA" "LDC" [ "-" ] | "LDL" | "STL"| "DSP" ) number.
```



```
    "STO" "SUB" ).
    Branch = ( "BRN" | "BZE" ) ( number | Label ) .
    PrintString = "PRNS" stringLit .
    Label = identifier .
END Assem2.

A description of the . COD format is complicated only in that we have to allow for superfluous blank lines at the start and end of the program.
```

PRODUCTIONS
Assem3 = { EOL } "ASSEM" EOL { EOL} "BEGIN" EOL { CODStatement } "END" "." { EOL } .
CODStatement = [ "{" number "}" CODInstruction ] SYNC EOL .
CODInstruction = TwoWord | OneWord | PrintString;

```

```

    PrintString = "PRNS" stringLit.
    END Assem3.

```

Allowing for a system that will accept either the original .pvm format or the .cod format (but not intermingled) is a little tricky if one is not to insist that the distinguishing ASSEM directive come immediately at the start of the file. The solution suggested below actually suffers from an LL(1) violation, but (like the dangling else situation) in this case it is of no consequence - the parser would simply mop up leading EOL tokens until a point is reached where the distinction can be made.
```

PRODUCTIONS
Assem4 = {EOL } (PVMFormat | coDFormat ).
PVMFormat = { PVMStatement } EOF .
PVMStatement = [ number ] [ Label ] [ PVMInstruction ] SYNC EOL .
PVMInstruction = OneWord | TwoWord | PrintString | PVMBranch .
PVMBranch = ( "BRN" "BZE" ) ( number | Label ).
CODFormat = "ASSEM" EOL { EOL} "BEGIN" EOL { CODStatement } "END" "." { EOL }.
CODStatement = [ "{" number "}" CODInstruction ] SYNC EOL .
CODInstruction = OneWord| Twoword | PrintString | CODBranch .
CODBranch = ( "BRN" | "BZE" ) number .
TwoWord = ( "LDA" | "LDC" [ "-" ] | "LDL" | "STL" | "DSP" ) number. .
OneWord =( " "ADD" ( "AND"
"NEG" | "NOP" | "NOT" | "OR" | "PRNB" | "PRNI" | "PRNL" | "REM"
PrintString = "PRNS" stringLit.
Label = identifier.
END Assem4.

```

One might have been tempted to introduce a comment token, and then modified the grammar on the following lines
```

CHARACTERS
incomment = ANY - control .
TOKENS
comment = ";" { incomment }.
PRODUCTIONS
PVMStatement = [ number ] [ Label ] [ PVMInstruction ] [ comment ] SYNC EOL .
CODStatement = [ "{" number "}" CODInstruction ] [ comment ] SYNC EOL.

```
since comments from ; to end of line can only appear in one place in each line.
This is, incidentally, a system where the IGNORECASE directive in Coco/R might usefully be applied.
Finally note that, while it may be common to find halt as the last statement in a program, this is not demanded. As an example:
; read a sentence up to a period
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline & DSP & 1 & ; char ch; \\
\hline \multirow[t]{7}{*}{WHILE} & LDA & 0 & ; while (true) \{ \\
\hline & INPC & & ; Read(ch) \\
\hline & LDL & 1 & \\
\hline & LDC & 46 & ; if (ch == '.') halt; \\
\hline & CEQ & & \\
\hline & BZE & PRINT & \\
\hline & HALT & & \\
\hline \multirow[t]{3}{*}{PRINT} & LDL & 0 & \\
\hline & PRNC & & ; write(ch) \\
\hline & BRN & WHILE & ; 3 // while(true) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}```

