#### Context-Free Grammars

#### A Motivating Question

>>> (26 + 42) \* 2 + 1

How does my computer know what this sequence of characters means? How can it determine whether or not this expression is even syntactically valid?

## An Analogy: Mad Libs

#### THE MAGIC COMPUTERS

. He can solve any math problem by simply

NOUN

pushing the computer's little \_\_\_\_\_\_\_. Computers

plural NOUN

can add, multiply, divide, and \_\_\_\_\_\_\_. They

verb (Present Tense)

can also \_\_\_\_\_\_\_ better than a human. Some computers are \_\_\_\_\_\_\_. Others have a/an

When you're filling out Mad Libs, you have these placeholders for different parts of speech.

inds of \_\_\_\_\_

Imagine I have a template like this:

Here's one way I could fill it out:

$$(\frac{26}{Int}, \frac{+}{Op}, \frac{42}{Int})$$
 \*  $\frac{2}{Op}, \frac{+}{Int}, \frac{1}{Op}$  Int

Here's another:

Imagine you have a computer that's pre-programmed with this template.

You could then enter a string and be able to check whether it is valid. You can also understand what individual pieces of the string mean based on which part of the template they're filling in.

This is nice but I can only make expressions of the form (Int Op Int) Op Int Op Int

But there are many valid arithmetic expressions that don't follow this pattern!

Idea: could we come up with a set of rules for generating valid arithmetic Mad Libs templates?

```
Eg. Int Op Int, (Int Op (Int Op Int)), (Int Op Int) Op (Int Op Int)...
```

#### Describing Languages

- We've seen two models for the regular languages:
  - *Finite automata* accept precisely the strings in the language.
  - *Regular expressions* describe precisely the strings in the language.
- Finite automata *recognize* strings in the language.
  - Perform a computation to determine whether a specific string is in the language.
- Regular expressions match strings in the language.
  - Describe the general shape of all strings in the language.

#### Context-Free Grammars

- A *context-free grammar* (or *CFG*) is an entirely different formalism for defining a class of languages.
- *Goal*: Give a description of a language by recursively describing the structure of the strings in the language.
- CFGs are best explained by example...

## Arithmetic Expressions

- Suppose we want to describe all legal arithmetic expressions using addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division.
- Here is one possible CFG:

```
E \rightarrow int
E \rightarrow E Op E
E \rightarrow (E)
Op \rightarrow +
Op \rightarrow -
Op \rightarrow \times
Op \rightarrow /
```

```
\mathbf{E}
\Rightarrow E Op E
\Rightarrow E Op (E)
\Rightarrow E Op (E Op E)
\Rightarrow E × (E Op E)
\Rightarrow int \times (E Op E)
\Rightarrow int \times (int Op E)
⇒ int × (int Op int)
\Rightarrow int \times (int + int)
```

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\mathbf{E} \rightarrow \mathbf{E} \ \mathbf{Op} \ \mathbf{E}
\mathbf{E} \rightarrow (\mathbf{E})
\mathbf{Op} \rightarrow +
\mathbf{Op} \rightarrow -
\mathbf{Op} \rightarrow \times
\mathbf{Op} \rightarrow /
```

```
E
⇒ E Op E
⇒ E Op int
⇒ int Op int
⇒ int / int
```

#### Context-Free Grammars

- Formally, a context-free grammar is a collection of four items:
  - a set of nonterminal symbols (also called variables),
  - a set of terminal symbols (the alphabet of the CFG),
  - a set of *production rules* saying how each nonterminal can be replaced by a string of terminals and nonterminals, and
  - a *start symbol* (which must be a nonterminal) that begins the derivation. By convention, the start symbol is the one on the left-hand side of the first production.

```
\mathbf{E} \rightarrow \mathtt{int}
\mathbf{E} \to \mathbf{E} \ \mathbf{Op} \ \mathbf{E}
```

#### Some CFG Notation

- In today's slides, capital letters in **Bold Red Uppercase** will represent nonterminals.
  - e.g. **A**, **B**, **C**, **D**
- Lowercase letters in **blue monospace** will represent terminals.
  - e.g. t, u, v, w
- Lowercase Greek letters in *gray italics* will represent arbitrary strings of terminals and nonterminals.
  - e.g. α, γ, ω
- You don't need to use these conventions on your own; just make sure whatever you do is readable. ©

#### A Notational Shorthand

$$\mathbf{E} \rightarrow \mathbf{int}$$
 $\mathbf{E} \rightarrow \mathbf{E} \ \mathbf{Op} \ \mathbf{E}$ 
 $\mathbf{E} \rightarrow (\mathbf{E})$ 
 $\mathbf{Op} \rightarrow +$ 
 $\mathbf{Op} \rightarrow \mathbf{Op} \rightarrow \times$ 
 $\mathbf{Op} \rightarrow /$ 

#### A Notational Shorthand

$$\mathbf{E} \rightarrow \mathbf{int} \mid \mathbf{E} \mid \mathbf{Op} \mid \mathbf{E} \mid \mathbf{E}$$

#### **Derivations**

```
\mathbf{E} \to \mathbf{E} \ \mathbf{Op} \ \mathbf{E} \ | \ \mathbf{int} \ | \ (\mathbf{E})
\mathbf{Op} \to \mathbf{+} \mid \mathbf{x} \mid \mathbf{-} \mid \mathbf{/}
     E
\Rightarrow E Op E
\Rightarrow E Op (E)
\Rightarrow E Op (E Op E)
\Rightarrow \mathbf{E} \times (\mathbf{E} \mathbf{Op} \mathbf{E})
\Rightarrow int \times (E Op E)
\Rightarrow int \times (int Op E)
⇒ int × (int Op int)
⇒ int × (int + int)
```

- A sequence of steps where nonterminals are replaced by the right-hand side of a production is called a *derivation*.
- If string  $\alpha$  derives string  $\omega$ , we write  $\alpha \Rightarrow^* \omega$ .
- In the example on the left, we see E ⇒\* int × (int + int).

# The Language of a Grammar

• If G is a CFG with alphabet  $\Sigma$  and start symbol S, then the language of G is the set

$$\mathcal{L}(G) = \{ \boldsymbol{\omega} \in \Sigma^* \mid \mathbf{S} \Rightarrow^* \boldsymbol{\omega} \}$$

• That is,  $\mathcal{L}(G)$  is the set of strings of terminals derivable from the start symbol.

If G is a CFG with alphabet  $\Sigma$  and start symbol S, then the *language of* G is the set

$$\mathcal{L}(G) = \{ \boldsymbol{\omega} \in \Sigma^* \mid \mathbf{S} \Rightarrow^* \boldsymbol{\omega} \}$$

Consider the following CFG G over  $\Sigma = \{a, b, c, d\}$ :

$$S \rightarrow Sa \mid dT$$
 $T \rightarrow bTb \mid c$ 

How many of the following strings are in  $\mathcal{L}(G)$ ?

dca
cad
bcb
dTaa

#### Context-Free Languages

- A language L is called a **context-free language** (or CFL) if there is a CFG G such that  $L = \mathcal{L}(G)$ .
- Questions:
  - What languages are context-free?
  - How are context-free and regular languages related?

- CFGs consist purely of production rules of the form  $A \rightarrow \omega$ . They do not have the regular expression operators \* or U.
- However, we can convert regular expressions to CFGs as follows:

 $S \rightarrow a*b$ 

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$$S \rightarrow Ab$$
 $A \rightarrow Aa \mid \epsilon$ 

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$$S \rightarrow aX$$

$$X \rightarrow b \mid c*$$

$$C \rightarrow Cc \mid \epsilon$$

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- However, we can convert regular expressions to CFGs as follows:

$$\begin{array}{c} \mathbf{S} \to \mathbf{a} \mathbf{X} \\ \mathbf{X} \to \mathbf{b} \mid \mathbf{c}^* \\ \mathbf{C} \to \mathbf{C} \mathbf{c} \mid \mathbf{\epsilon} \end{array}$$

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- However, we can convert regular expressions to CFGs as follows:

$$S \rightarrow aX$$

$$X \rightarrow b \mid C$$

$$C \rightarrow Cc \mid \epsilon$$

## Regular Languages and CFLs

- **Theorem:** Every regular language is context-free.
- **Proof Idea:** Use the construction from the previous slides to convert a regular expression for L into a CFG for L.
- *Great Exercise:* Instead, show how to convert a DFA/NFA into a CFG.

• Consider the following CFG *G*:

$$S \rightarrow aSb \mid \varepsilon$$

What strings can this generate?

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What strings can this generate?

S

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What strings can this generate?

a S b

• Consider the following CFG *G*:

$$S \rightarrow aSb \mid \varepsilon$$

What strings can this generate?

a

S

b

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What strings can this generate?

a a S b b

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What strings can this generate?

a a b b

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What strings can this generate?

a a a	S	q	b	b
-------	---	---	---	---

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$$S \rightarrow aSb \mid \varepsilon$$

What strings can this generate?

a a a b b

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What strings can this generate?

a	a a	a	S	b	b	b	b
---	-----	---	---	---	---	---	---

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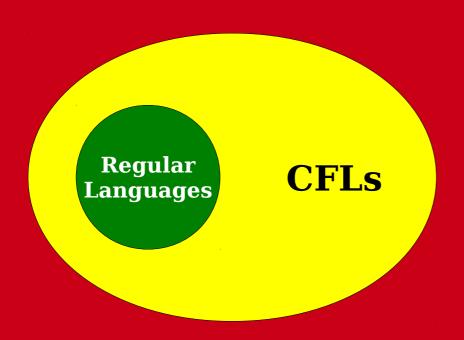
a a a b b b

• Consider the following CFG *G*:

$$S \rightarrow aSb \mid \varepsilon$$

What strings can this generate?

a a a b b b b 
$$\mathcal{L}(G) = \{ a^n b^n \mid n \in \mathbb{N} \}$$



- Why do CFGs have more power than regular expressions?
- *Intuition:* Derivations of strings have unbounded "memory."

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S

b

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S

b b

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b b b b

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Let's take a five minute break!

- Like designing DFAs, NFAs, and regular expressions, designing CFGs is a craft.
- When thinking about CFGs:
  - **Think recursively:** Build up bigger structures from smaller ones.
  - *Have a construction plan:* Know in what order you will build up the string.
  - Store information in nonterminals: Have each nonterminal correspond to some useful piece of information.

- Let  $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$  and let  $L = \{w \in \Sigma^* \mid w \text{ is a palindrome }\}$
- We can design a CFG for *L* by thinking inductively:
  - Base case: ε, a, and b are palindromes.
  - If  $\omega$  is a palindrome, then  $a\omega a$  and  $b\omega b$  are palindromes.
  - No other strings are palindromes.

$$S \rightarrow \epsilon$$
 | a | b | aSa | bSb

- Let  $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$  and let  $L = \{w \in \Sigma^* \mid w \text{ is a palindrome }\}$
- We can design a CFG for L by thinking inductively:

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- Let  $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$  and let  $L = \{w \in \Sigma^* \mid w \text{ is a palindrome }\}$
- We can design a CFG for L by thinking inductively:

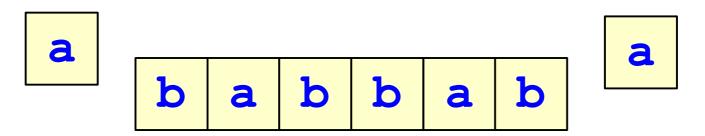
Inductive (building up) perspective: you can take any palindrome and build a larger one by adding the same character to both ends.

$$S \rightarrow \epsilon$$
 a b aSa bSb

- Let  $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$  and let  $L = \{w \in \Sigma^* \mid w \text{ is a palindrome }\}$
- We can design a CFG for *L* by thinking recursively:

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 a b aSa bSb

- Let  $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$  and let  $L = \{w \in \Sigma^* \mid w \text{ is a palindrome }\}$
- We can design a CFG for L by thinking recursively:



$$S \rightarrow \epsilon \mid a \mid b \mid aSa \mid bSb$$

- Let  $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$  and let  $L = \{w \in \Sigma^* \mid w \text{ is a palindrome }\}$
- We can design a CFG for L by thinking recursively:

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 a b aSa bSb

- Let  $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$  and let  $L = \{w \in \Sigma^* \mid w \text{ is a palindrome }\}$
- We can design a CFG for *L* by thinking recursively:

$$S \rightarrow \epsilon$$
 a b aSa bSb

- Let  $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$  and let  $L = \{w \in \Sigma^* \mid w \text{ is a palindrome }\}$
- We can design a CFG for L by thinking recursively:

$$S \rightarrow \epsilon$$
 a b aSa bSb

- Let  $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$  and let  $L = \{w \in \Sigma^* \mid w \text{ is a palindrome }\}$
- We can design a CFG for L by thinking recursively:

Recursive (building down) perspective: you can take any palindrome and repeatedly remove the same character from both ends, leaving behind a palindrome.

$$S \rightarrow \epsilon$$
 a b aSa bSb

- Let  $\Sigma = \{\{,\}\}$  and let  $L = \{w \in \Sigma^* \mid w \text{ is a string of balanced braces }\}$
- Some sample strings in *L*:

```
{{{}}}
{{}}}}
{{{{}}}}
{{{{}}}}
{{{{}}}}
```

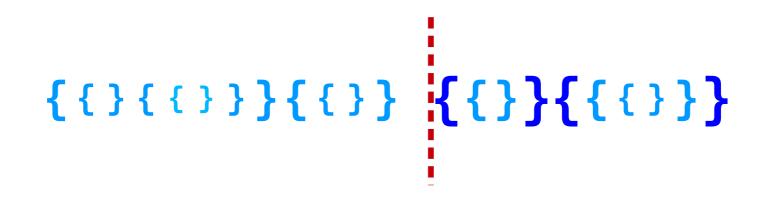
- Let  $\Sigma = \{\{,\}\}$  and let  $L = \{w \in \Sigma^* \mid w \text{ is a string of balanced braces }\}$
- Let's think about this recursively.
  - Base case: the empty string is a string of balanced braces.
  - Recursive step: Look at the closing brace that matches the first open brace.



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- Let  $\Sigma = \{\{,\}\}$  and let  $L = \{w \in \Sigma^* \mid w \text{ is a string of balanced braces }\}$
- Let's think about this recursively.
  - Base case: the empty string is a string of balanced braces.
  - Recursive step: Look at the closing brace that matches the first open brace. Removing the first brace and the matching brace forms two new strings of balanced braces.

$$S \to \{S\}S \mid \epsilon$$

Here's the derivation from class today:

```
S
⇒ {S}S
⇒ {{S}S}S
\Rightarrow \{\{\{S\}S\}S\}S\}
⇒ {{{S}{S}S}S}S
\Rightarrow \{\{\{\epsilon\}\{S\}S\}S\}S\}
\Rightarrow \{\{\{\epsilon\}\{\epsilon\}\}\}\}
\Rightarrow \{\{\{\epsilon\}\{\epsilon\}\}\}\}
\Rightarrow \{\{\{\epsilon\}\{\epsilon\}\}\}\}
\Rightarrow \{\{\{\epsilon\}\{\epsilon\}\}\epsilon\}\epsilon\}\epsilon
```

• Let  $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$  and let  $L = \{w \in \Sigma^* \mid w\}$ has the same number of a's and b's }

$$S \rightarrow aSb \mid bSa \mid \epsilon$$

$$S \rightarrow abS \mid baS \mid \epsilon$$

$$S \rightarrow abSba \mid baSab \mid \epsilon$$
  $S \rightarrow SbaS \mid SabS \mid \epsilon$ 

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$$S \rightarrow aSb \mid bSa \mid \epsilon$$

$$S \rightarrow abS \mid baS \mid \epsilon$$

#### Designing CFGs: A Caveat

- When designing a CFG for a language, make sure that it
  - generates all the strings in the language and
  - never generates a string outside the language.
- The first of these can be tricky make sure to test your grammars!
- You'll design your own CFG for this language on Problem Set 8.

#### CFG Caveats II

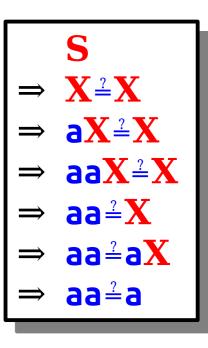
• Is the following grammar a CFG for the language  $\{a^nb^n \mid n \in \mathbb{N} \}$ ?

$$S \rightarrow aSb$$

- What strings in {a, b}\* can you derive?
  - Answer: None!
- What is the language of the grammar?
  - Answer: Ø
- When designing CFGs, make sure your recursion actually terminates!

- When designing CFGs, remember that each nonterminal can be expanded out independently of the others.
- Let  $\Sigma = \{a, \stackrel{?}{=}\}$  and let  $L = \{a^n \stackrel{?}{=} a^n \mid n \in \mathbb{N} \}$ .
- Is the following a CFG for *L*?

```
S \rightarrow X^{2}X
X \rightarrow aX \mid \epsilon
```



### Finding a Build Order

- Let  $\Sigma = \{a, \stackrel{?}{=}\}$  and let  $L = \{a^n \stackrel{?}{=} a^n \mid n \in \mathbb{N} \}$ .
- To build a CFG for *L*, we need to be more clever with how we construct the string.
  - If we build the strings of a's independently of one another, then we can't enforce that they have the same length.
  - *Idea*: Build both strings of a's at the same time.
- Here's one possible grammar based on that idea:

$$S \rightarrow \frac{?}{}$$
 | aSa



- **Key idea:** Different non-terminals should represent different states or different types of strings.
  - For example, different phases of the build, or different possible structures for the string.
  - Think like the same ideas from DFA/NFA design where states in your automata represent pieces of information.

- Let  $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$  and let  $L = \{w \in \Sigma^* \mid |w| \equiv_3 0$  and all the characters in the first third of w are the same  $\}$ .
- Examples:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \mathbf{\epsilon} \in L & \text{a} \notin L \\ \text{abb} \in L & \text{b} \notin L \\ \text{bab} \in L & \text{ababab} \notin L \\ \text{aababa} \in L & \text{aabaaaaaa} \notin L \\ \text{bbbbbb} \in L & \text{bbbb} \notin L \end{array}$$

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- Examples:

```
\begin{array}{lll} \mathbf{\epsilon} \in L & \text{a} \notin L \\ \text{a} & \text{bb} \in L & \text{b} \notin L \\ \text{b} & \text{ab} \in L & \text{ab} & \text{abab} \notin L \\ \text{aa} & \text{baba} \in L & \text{aab} & \text{aaaaaa} \notin L \\ \text{bb} & \text{bbbb} \in L & \text{bbbb} \notin L \end{array}
```

• Let  $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$  and let  $L = \{w \in \Sigma^* \mid |w| \equiv_3 0$  and all the characters in the first third of w are the same  $\}$ .

• One approach:

<b>aaa</b>	bab	Observation 1:
abb	bbb	Strings in this language are either: the first third is as or the first third is bs.
aaabab	bbabbb	
aababa	bbbaaaaa	
aaaaaaaa	bbbbbabaa	

- Let  $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$  and let  $L = \{w \in \Sigma^* \mid |w| \equiv_3 0$  and all the characters in the first third of w are the same  $\}$ .
- One approach:

aaa bab

abb bbb

aaabab bbabbb

aababa bbbaaaaaa

aaaaaaaa bbbbbabaa

- Let  $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$  and let  $L = \{w \in \Sigma^* \mid |w| \equiv_3 0$  and all the characters in the first third of w are the same  $\}$ .
- One approach:

<b>aaa</b>	bab
abb	bbb
aaabab	bbabbb
aababa	bbbaaaaa
aaaaaaaa	bbbbbabaa

#### **Observation 2:**

Amongst these strings, for every a I have in the first third, I need two other characters in the last two thirds.

- Let  $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$  and let  $L = \{w \in \Sigma^* \mid |w| \equiv_3 0$  and all the characters in the first third of w are the same  $\}$ .
- One approach:

```
aaababbbbaaababbbabbb
```

```
This pattern of 'for every x I see here, I need a y somewhere else in the string' is very common in CFGs!
```

#### **Observation 2:**

Amongst these strings, for every a I have in the first third, I need two other characters in the last two thirds.

- Let  $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$  and let  $L = \{w \in \Sigma^* \mid |w| \equiv_3 0$  and all the characters in the first third of w are the same  $\}$ .
- One approach:

<b>aaa</b>	bab	Observation 2:
abb	bbb	Amongst these strings, for every a I
aaabab	bbabbb	have in the first third,
aababa	bbbaaaaaa	I need two other characters in the last
aaaaaaaa	bbbbbabaa	two thirds.
$A \rightarrow aAXX \mid \epsilon$	$X \rightarrow a$	b

- Let  $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$  and let  $L = \{w \in \Sigma^* \mid |w| \equiv_3 0$  and all the characters in the first third of w are the same  $\}$ .
- One approach:

```
abb

aaabab

aababa

aababa

A \rightarrow AXX

A \rightarrow AXX

Abb

Here the nonterminal A represents 'a string where the first third is a's' and the nonterminal X represents 'any character'

A \rightarrow AXX

A \rightarrow AXX
```

- Let  $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$  and let  $L = \{w \in \Sigma^* \mid |w| \equiv_3 0$  and all the characters in the first third of w are the same  $\}$ .
- One approach:

```
aaa
bbb
aaabab
bbabbb
aababa
bbbbaaaaaa
bbbbbbabaa
A → aAXX | ε X → a | b
```

- Let  $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$  and let  $L = \{w \in \Sigma^* \mid |w| \equiv_3 0$  and all the characters in the first third of w are the same  $\}$ .
- One approach:

```
aaa
bbb
aaabab
bbabbb
aababa
bbbaaaaaa
bbbbbabaa
B → bBXX | ε X → a | b
```

- Let  $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$  and let  $L = \{w \in \Sigma^* \mid |w| \equiv_3 0$  and all the characters in the first third of w are the same  $\}$ .
- Tying everything together:

```
S \rightarrow A \mid B
A \rightarrow aAXX \mid \epsilon
B \rightarrow bBXX \mid \epsilon
X \rightarrow a \mid b
```

- Let  $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$  and let  $L = \{w \in \Sigma^* \mid |w| \equiv_3 0$  and all the characters in the first third of w are the same  $\}$ .
- Tying everything together:

```
S \rightarrow A \mid B
A \rightarrow aAXX \mid \epsilon
B \rightarrow bBXX \mid \epsilon
X \rightarrow a \mid b
```

Overall strings in this language either follow the pattern of  $\bf A$  or  $\bf B$ .

- Let  $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$  and let  $L = \{w \in \Sigma^* \mid |w| \equiv_3 0$  and all the characters in the first third of w are the same  $\}$ .
- Tying everything together:

```
S \rightarrow A \mid B
A \rightarrow aAXX \mid \epsilon
B \rightarrow bBXX \mid \epsilon
X \rightarrow a \mid b
```

A represents "strings where the first third is a's"

- Let  $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$  and let  $L = \{w \in \Sigma^* \mid |w| \equiv_3 0$  and all the characters in the first third of w are the same  $\}$ .
- Tying everything together:

```
S \rightarrow A \mid B
A \rightarrow aAXX \mid \epsilon
B \rightarrow bBXX \mid \epsilon
X \rightarrow a \mid b
```

B represents "strings where the first third is b's"

- Let  $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$  and let  $L = \{w \in \Sigma^* \mid |w| \equiv_3 0$  and all the characters in the first third of w are the same  $\}$ .
- Tying everything together:

```
S \rightarrow A \mid B
A \rightarrow aAXX \mid \epsilon
B \rightarrow bBXX \mid \epsilon
X \rightarrow a \mid b
```

X represents "either an a or a b"

#### **Function Prototypes**

- Let  $\Sigma = \{\text{void}, \text{ int}, \text{ double}, \text{ name}, (, ), ,, ;\}.$
- Let's write a CFG for C-style function prototypes!
- Examples:
  - void name(int name, double name);
  - int name();
  - int name(double name);
  - int name(int, int name, int);
  - void name(void);

#### Function Prototypes

- Here's one possible grammar:
  - S → Ret name (Args);
  - Ret → Type | void
  - Type → int | double
  - Args → ε | void | ArgList
  - ArgList → OneArg | ArgList, OneArg
  - OneArg → Type | Type name

### Summary of CFG Design Tips

- Look for recursive structures where they exist: they can help guide you toward a solution.
- Keep the build order in mind often, you'll build two totally different parts of the string concurrently.
  - Usually, those parts are built in opposite directions: one's built left-to-right, the other right-to-left.
- Use different nonterminals to represent different structures.



>>> (26 + 42) \* 2 + 1

How does my computer know what this sequence of characters means? How can it determine whether or not this expression is even syntactically valid?

#### Applications of CFGs

```
\mathbf{E} \rightarrow \mathbf{E} \ \mathbf{Op} \ \mathbf{E} \ | \ \mathbf{int} \ | \ (\mathbf{E})
\mathbf{Op} \rightarrow + \ | \ \times \ | \ - \ | \ /
```

E

- $\Rightarrow$  E Op E
- $\Rightarrow$  E Op (E)
- $\Rightarrow$  E Op (E Op E)
- $\Rightarrow$  E × (E Op E)
- $\Rightarrow$  int  $\times$  (E Op E)
- $\Rightarrow$  int  $\times$  (int Op E)
- ⇒ int × (int Op int)
- ⇒ int × (int + int)

Given a set of production rules and an expression,

If I can somehow reverse engineer the derivation, I can ascribe meaning to the pieces of my string.

Exact details of how to do this are beyond the scope of this class – *Take CS143!* 

#### CFGs for Programming Languages

```
BLOCK \rightarrow STMT
            { STMTS }
STMTS \rightarrow \epsilon
           STMT STMTS
STMT
         \rightarrow EXPR;
           if (EXPR) BLOCK
           while (EXPR) BLOCK
            do BLOCK while (EXPR);
            BLOCK
EXPR
         → identifier
            constant
            EXPR + EXPR
            EXPR - EXPR
            EXPR * EXPR
```

#### Grammars in Compilers

- One of the key steps in a compiler is figuring out what a program "means."
- This is usually done by defining a grammar showing the high-level structure of a programming language.
- There are certain classes of grammars (LL(1) grammars, LR(1) grammars, LALR(1) grammars, etc.) for which it's easy to figure out how a particular string was derived.
- Tools like yacc or bison automatically generate parsers from these grammars.
- Curious to learn more? *Take CS143!*

### Natural Language Processing

- By building context-free grammars for actual languages and applying statistical inference, it's possible for a computer to recover the likely meaning of a sentence.
  - In fact, CFGs were first called *phrase-structure grammars* and were introduced by Noam Chomsky in his seminal work *Syntactic Structures*.
  - They were then adapted for use in the context of programming languages, where they were called *Backus-Naur forms*.
- Stanford's **CoreNLP project** is one place to look for an example of this.
- Want to learn more? Take CS124 or CS224N!

#### Next Time

- Turing Machines
  - What does a computer with unbounded memory look like?
  - How would you program it?