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Recall: Context-Free Grammar

Since DFA's, NFA's, and regular expressions are finite, they won't suffice in reading the syntax. We'll need something more powerful, and from that stems **context-free grammar**, which is an approach to interpreting a sequence of tokens and determining if the syntax of a program is correct.

13.1 Examples of Context-free Grammar

Context-free Grammar (CFG) involves a set of rules that we can use to manipulate words found in a language.

13.1.1 Example 1

Typical CS241 Example

```
G: (R1) S \rightarrow aSb // "aSb" is concatenation

(R2) S \rightarrow D // 2 rules with S on LHS is union

(R3) D \rightarrow cD // D on both sides is recursion

(R4) D \rightarrow \epsilon
```

- the word accb is in the language generated by the grammar G,
 i.e. L(G), since we can derive accb from G.
- · derivation:

```
S \Rightarrow aSb \Rightarrow aDb \Rightarrow acDb \Rightarrow accDb \Rightarrow accb
R1 R2 R3 R3 R4
```

Figure 13.1: We can derive the word "accb" using this particular CFG. This means that "accb" is a valid word in the language. Courtesy of Prof. Lanctot's slides.

13.1.2 Example 2

Consider the language $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$ whose language consists of words that start with one 'a', followed by an arbitrary amount of 'b's (i.e., $\{a, ab, abb, abb, \cdots\}$). The rules of the CFG that reads this language are:

- (R1): $S \rightarrow aB$
- (R2): $B \rightarrow bB$
- (R3): $B \to \varepsilon$

Say we want to derive abb, we would do the following:

$$S \rightarrow_{(R1)} aB \rightarrow_{(R2)} abB \rightarrow_{(R2)} abbB \rightarrow_{(R3)} abb$$

13.1.3 Example 3

Let's create a CFG that access accepts words with balanced parentheses. For example, valid words are

$$\varepsilon$$
, (), (()), ()(), (()()), · · ·

The rules in the grammar are:

- (R1): $S \rightarrow (S)$
- (R2): $S \rightarrow S$ S
- (R3): $S \rightarrow \varepsilon$

From these, let's derive some words:

1. Derive (()):

$$S \to_{(R1)} (S) \to_{(R1)} ((S)) \to_{(R3)} (())$$

2. Derive (()()):

$$S \to_{(R1)} (S) \to_{(R2)} (SS) \to_{(R1)} ((S)S) \to_{(R3)} ((S)S) \to_{(R1)} ((S)S) \to_{(R3)} ((S)S)$$

13.1.4 Example 4

For $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$, a CFG that contains an even number of a's:

- (R1): $S \rightarrow bS$
- (R2): $S \rightarrow Sb$
- (R3): $S \to aSa$ (a's are generated in pairs, which grantees that we have an even number)
- (R4): $S \to \varepsilon$

13.1.5 Example 5

Binary Expressions

- In this language the words are binary numbers with no leading 0's (other than 0) and with + or – operators using infix notation (between numbers, not before them)
- 1. $E \rightarrow E + E$ 5. $B \rightarrow D$ 2. $E \rightarrow E - E$ 6. $D \rightarrow 1$ 3. $E \rightarrow B$ 7. $D \rightarrow D0$ 4. $B \rightarrow 0$ 8. $D \rightarrow D1$

Here

- · E means expression
- B means generate a 0 or D
- D means generate a number with a leading 1

Figure 13.2: Courtesy of Prof. Lanctot's slides.

13.2 Parse Trees

Also called a derivation tree. It visualizes an entire derivation at once. The tree is structured such that:

- The **internal nodes** are the non-terminals (e.g., E, B, D)
- The **root** of the tree is the start symbol (e.g., E)
- The **children** of a node are given by derivation rules
- The **leaf nodes** are the terminals and show their value (e.g., 1, 0, +1)

Ambiguous Grammar

Because grammar can be ambiguous, we can have multiple parse trees for the same expression.

The way we'll be processing order in a parse tree is with a **post-order** with a **depth first** traversal.

Unambiguous Grammar

To make CFG unambiguous, we must change our rules:

Change the first two productions

1.	$E \rightarrow E + E B + E$	5.	$B \rightarrow D$
2.	$E \rightarrow E B - E$	6.	$D \rightarrow 1$
3.	$E \rightarrow B$	7.	$D \rightarrow D0$
4.	$B \rightarrow 0$	8.	$D \rightarrow D1$

This change forces the leftmost non-terminal to derive a binary number rather than another expression.

Generates the same words as the previous grammar but the parse tree for each derivation is unique.

Figure 13.3: Courtesy of Prof. Lanctot's slides.