# Context Free Grammar COMP3220 – Principle of Programming Languages

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## Outline

#### Introduction

Grammar

Context Free Grammar

Backus-Naur Form (BNF)

Parse Tree

Summary

#### Grammar

Grammar is a certain kind of collection of rules for building strings. Like DFAs, NFAs, and regular expressions, grammars are mechanisms for defining languages rigorously.

## Toy English Grammar

▶ An article A can be the word a or the.

$$A \rightarrow a$$
  
 $A \rightarrow the$ 

▶ A noun *N* can be the word *dog*, *cat* or *rat*.

$$N o dog \mid cat \mid rat$$

▶ A noun phrase *P* is an article followed by a noun.

$$P \rightarrow AN$$

▶ A verb *V* can be the word *love*, *hate* or *eat*.

$$V \rightarrow love \mid hate \mid eat$$

► A sentence *S* can be a noun phrase, followed by a verb, followed by another noun phrase

$$S \rightarrow PVP$$

# Terminology

The following defines a grammar  ${\cal G}$ 

$$S o PVP$$
 $P o AN$ 
 $V o love \mid hate \mid eat$ 
 $A o a \mid the$ 
 $N o dog \mid cat \mid rat$ 

- Each rule is called a production or production rule.
- ▶  $X \rightarrow Y$  means X can be substitute by  $Y \colon X \rightarrow Y_1 \mid Y_2$  is a compact form of

$$X \rightarrow Y_1$$
  
 $X \rightarrow Y_2$ 

► *S*, *P*, *V*, *A*, *N* are terminals, love, hate, eat and etc are non-terminals.

#### Generator

The grammar is a language *generator*. Finite automaton is a language *recognizer*.

$$S \rightarrow PVP$$

$$P \rightarrow AN$$

$$V \rightarrow love \mid hate \mid eat$$

$$A \rightarrow a \mid the$$

$$N \rightarrow dog \mid cat \mid rat$$

S is the start symbol.

$$S \Rightarrow PVP$$

 $\Rightarrow$  ANVP

 $\Rightarrow$  the NVP

 $\Rightarrow$  thecat  $\lor$ 

 $\Rightarrow$  thecateat P

 $\Rightarrow$  thecateat AN

 $\Rightarrow$  thecateataN

 $\Rightarrow$  thecateatarat

#### Derivation

- $S \Rightarrow PVP$ 
  - $\Rightarrow ANVP$
  - $\Rightarrow$  the NVP
  - $\Rightarrow$  thecat V
  - $\Rightarrow$  thecateat P
  - $\Rightarrow$  thecateat AN
  - $\Rightarrow$  thecateataN
  - ⇒ thecateatarat

- ▶ More one place to apply production rule
- Leftmost derivation is not required, e.g.,
  - ▶ PloveP ⇒ ANloveP
  - ▶ PloveP ⇒ PloveAN

#### Informal Definition

Grammar is a set of productions of the form  $x \to y$ .

- x and y may both contain lowercase and uppercase letters.
- x cannot be  $\epsilon$ , but y can be  $\epsilon$ .
- ▶ One uppercase letter is designated as the *start symbol*, usually *S* by convention.

Given a grammar  $\mathcal{G}$ , the language it defines is

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{G}) = \{x \mid x \text{ is generated by } \mathcal{G}\}$$

When a sequence of permissible substitutions starting from S ends in a string of all lowercase, we say the grammar generates that string.

# Example Grammar

Given a grammar  $\ensuremath{\mathcal{G}}$ 

$$S \rightarrow aS \mid X$$
  
 $X \rightarrow bX \mid \epsilon$ 

The language defined by  $\mathcal{G}$  is

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The language defined by  $\mathcal{G}$  is

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{G}) = \mathcal{L}(a^*b^*)$$

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#### Formal Definition

A grammar  $\mathcal{G}$  is a 4-tuple

$$\mathcal{G} = (V, \Sigma, S, P)$$

- V is an alphabet, the non-terminal alphabet
- Σ is another alphabet, the terminal alphabet
- $V \cap \Sigma = \emptyset$
- ▶  $S \in V$  is the start symbol
- ▶ P is a *finite* set of productions, each of the form  $\alpha \to \beta$ ,
  - $\sim \alpha$  is  $(V \cup \Sigma)^* V (V \cup \Sigma)^*$ , i.e., a string of terminals and non-terminals containing at *least one* non-terminal
  - $\triangleright$   $\beta$  is  $(V \cup \Sigma)^*$ , i.e., a string of terminals and non-terminals.

# Example Grammar

$$S \rightarrow aS \mid X$$
  
 $X \rightarrow bX \mid \epsilon$ 

This grammar  $\mathcal{G} = (V, \Sigma, S, P)$  is defined as:

- ▶  $V = \{S, X\}$
- $\blacktriangleright \ \Sigma = \{a,b\}$
- $P = \{S \to aS, S \to X, X \to bX, X \to \epsilon\}$

## Language Generated by Grammar

- $\Rightarrow$  w derives z, denoted as  $w \Rightarrow z$ , if and only if  $\exists u, x, y, v \in \Sigma \bigcup V$  such that w = uxv, z = uyv and  $(x \rightarrow y) \in P$
- $\Rightarrow^* w \Rightarrow^* z$  if and only if there is a derivation of 0 or more steps that starts with w and ends with z. Specifically,  $\alpha$  is called a *sentential form* iff  $S \Rightarrow^* \alpha$ .

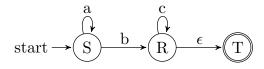
The language generated by a grammar  $\mathcal{G}$  is

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

#### NFA to Grammar

#### Theorem

There is a grammar for every regular language.

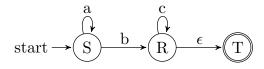


The above NFA  $\mathcal{M}$  describes

#### NFA to Grammar

#### **Theorem**

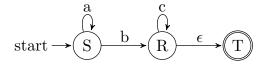
There is a grammar for every regular language.



The above NFA  $\mathcal{M}$  describes a\*bc\*

- ► For each state, our grammar will have a non-terminal symbol (S, R and T).
- ► The start state *S* will be the grammar's start symbol.
- ► The grammar will have one production for each transition of the NFA, and one for each accepting state

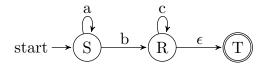
#### NFA to Grammar I



For each possible transition  $Y \in \delta(X, z)$  in the NFA, we have a production in our grammar  $X \to zY$ .

Transition of 
$$\mathcal{M}$$
 Production in  $\mathcal{G}$   $\delta(S,a) = \{S\}$   $S \to aS$   $\delta(S,b) = \{R\}$   $S \to bR$   $\delta(R,c) = \{R\}$   $R \to cR$   $\delta(R,\epsilon) = \{T\}$   $R \to T$ 

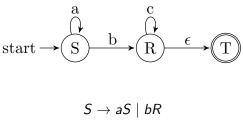
#### NFA to Grammar II



For each accepting state in the NFA, we have an  $\epsilon$ -production in our grammar.

Accepting state of 
$${\mathcal M}$$
 Production in  ${\mathcal G}$   $T \to \epsilon$ 

#### NFA to Grammar III



$$S \rightarrow aS \mid bR$$
 $R \rightarrow cR \mid T$ 
 $T \rightarrow \epsilon$ 

#### Given a string abc

$$\mathcal{M}: (S, abc) \mapsto (S, bc) \mapsto (R, c) \mapsto (R, \epsilon) \mapsto (T, \epsilon)$$
  
 $\mathcal{G}: S \Rightarrow aS \Rightarrow abR \Rightarrow abcR \Rightarrow abcT \Rightarrow abc$ 

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#### Context Free

We only discuss grammar with production like

Only a single non-terminal symbol appear at left-hand side of each production, which is called context-free grammar (CFG). Grammars with production like  $aS \rightarrow Sa$  is context-sensitive.

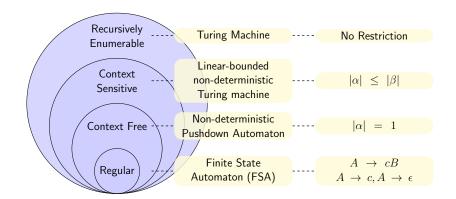
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- ▶  $S \in V$  is the start symbol
- ▶ P is a *finite* set of productions, each of the form  $\alpha \to \beta$ ,
  - $ightharpoonup \alpha$  is V, i.e., a single non-terminal
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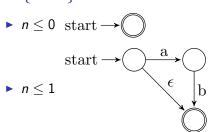
# Chomsky Hierarchy



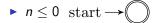
# Revisit $\{a^nb^n\}$ with NFA

▶  $n \le 0$  start →

# Revisit $\{a^nb^n\}$ with NFA

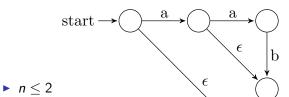


# Revisit $\{a^nb^n\}$ with NFA



start-





b

 $\mathbf{a}$ 

# Revisit $\{a^nb^n\}$ with CFG

$$S 
ightarrow aSb \mid \epsilon$$

- $\triangleright$   $S \Rightarrow ab$
- ▶  $S \Rightarrow aSb \Rightarrow aabb$
- ▶  $S \Rightarrow aSb \Rightarrow aaSbb \Rightarrow aaabbb$
- etc.

# Regular Language to CFG

If the language is regular, conversion to CFG is easy.

- construct an NFA, and
- convert to right-linear grammar (regular grammar)

$$S \rightarrow aR$$
  
 $R \rightarrow bR \mid aT$   
 $T \rightarrow \epsilon$ 

This grammar describes

$$S \rightarrow aR$$
  
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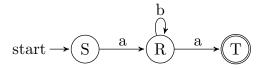
This grammar describes ab\*a.

A corresponding NFA accepts this language.

$$S \rightarrow aR$$
  
 $R \rightarrow bR \mid aT$   
 $T \rightarrow \epsilon$ 

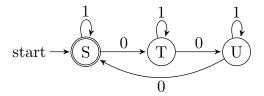
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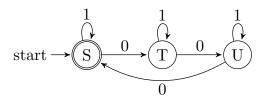


$$\mathcal{L} = \{x \in \{0,1\}^* \mid \text{the number of 0's is divisible by 3} \}$$

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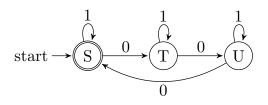


 $\mathcal{L} = \{x \in \{0,1\}^* \mid \text{the number of 0's is divisible by 3}\}$ 



$$S \rightarrow 1S \mid 0T \mid \epsilon$$
 $T \rightarrow 1T \mid 0U$ 
 $U \rightarrow 1U \mid 0S$ 

 $\mathcal{L} = \{x \in \{0,1\}^* \mid \text{the number of 0's is divisible by 3}\}$ 



$$S \rightarrow 1S \mid 0T \mid \epsilon$$
 $T \rightarrow 1T \mid 0U$ 
 $U \rightarrow 1U \mid 0S$ 

$$S \rightarrow T0T0T0S \mid T$$
  
 $T \rightarrow 1T \mid \epsilon$ 

#### Balanced Pairs to CFG

CFLs often involves balanced pairs.

- $\{a^nb^n\}$  every a paired with b
- ▶  $\{xx^R \mid x \in \{a, b\}^*\}$  each x paired with its mirror image  $x^R$
- ▶  $\{a^n b^i a^n \mid n \ge 0, i \ge 1\}$  same number of a's on each side

To get matching pairs, following recursive production is often used

$$R \rightarrow xRy$$

$$ightharpoonup \{a^nb^n\}$$

▶ 
$$\{xx^R \mid x \in \{a, b\}^*\}$$

▶ 
$$\{a^n b^i a^n \mid n \ge 0, i \ge 1\}$$

$$ightharpoonup \{a^n b^{3n}\}$$

$$ightharpoonup S 
ightharpoonup a Sb \mid \epsilon$$

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$$\{a^nb^ia^n \mid n \ge 0, i \ge 1\}$$

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$$lacksquare$$
  $S 
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$$R \rightarrow xRy$$

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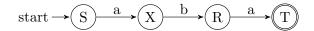
- $ightharpoonup S 
  ightharpoonup aSb \mid \epsilon$
- $ightharpoonup S 
  ightharpoonup S 
  ightharpoonup a Sa \mid bSb \mid \epsilon$
- lacksquare  $S 
  ightarrow aSa \mid R, \ R 
  ightarrow bR \mid \epsilon$
- $ightharpoonup S 
  ightarrow aSbbb \mid \epsilon$

## Non-Regular Grammar to NFA

$$S \rightarrow abR$$
  
 $R \rightarrow a$ 

- ▶  $S \rightarrow abR$  is equivalent to  $S \rightarrow aX, X \rightarrow bR$
- ▶  $R \rightarrow a$  is equivalent to  $R \rightarrow aT$ ,  $T \rightarrow \epsilon$

$$S \rightarrow aX$$
  
 $X \rightarrow bR$   
 $R \rightarrow aT$   
 $T \rightarrow \epsilon$ 



### **Grammar Concatenation**

$$L = \{a^n b^n c^m d^m\}$$

It is easy to write grammars separately

$$L_1 = \{a^n b^n\} \colon S_1 \to aS_1 b \mid \epsilon$$

$$L_2 = \{c^m d^m\}: S_2 \to cS_2 d \mid \epsilon$$

▶ Since 
$$L = L_1L_2$$
,  $S \rightarrow S_1S_2$ 

### **Grammar Union**

$$L = \{z \in \{a, b\}^* \mid z = xx^R \text{ or } |z| \text{ is odd}\}$$

▶  $L_1 = \{xx^R \mid x \in \{a, b\}^*\}$ 

$$S_1 \rightarrow aS_1a \mid bS_2b \mid \epsilon$$

▶  $L_2 = \{z \in \{a, b\}^* \mid |z| \text{ is odd}\}$ 

$$S_2 \rightarrow XXS_2 \mid X$$
  
  $X \rightarrow a \mid b$ 

▶ Since  $L = L_1 \bigcup L_2$ ,  $S \rightarrow S_1 \mid S_2$ 

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#### Introduction

Backus-Naur Form (BNF) was developed by John Backus and Peter Naur, independently from CFG.

- Every symbol is enclosed by <>
- ightharpoonup ightharpoonup replace by ::=.

### BNF Notation - Kleene Closure

The symbol {} is used for "zero or more".

```
<unsigned> ::= <nonzero> { <digit> }
<digit> ::= 0 | <nonzero>
<nonzero> ::= 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9
```

The  $\{\alpha\}$  is equivalent to  $A \to A\alpha \mid \alpha$ .

```
<unsigned> ::= <nonzero> <more>
<more> ::= <more> <digit> | <digit>
<digit> ::= 0 | <nonzero>
<nonzero> ::= 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9
```

## BNF Notation - Optional

The symbol [] is used for optional items.

```
<stmt> ::= if <cond> then <stmt> [else <stmt>]
```

The  $[\alpha]$  is equivalent to  $A \to \alpha \mid \epsilon$ .

```
<stmt> ::= if <cond> then <stmt> <else> <else> ::= else <stmt> | ""
```

### BNF Notation - Miscellaneous

Usage	Notation
termination	;
alternation	
optional	[]
repetition	{ }
grouping	( )
Terminal string	" " or ' '

See C99 YACC/Bison grammar

http://www.quut.com/c/ANSI-C-grammar-y-2011.html

## BNF Example I

### Some strings generated by this grammar

a < b</li>(a - (b \* c))a = ca \* b = c

## BNF Example II

This grammar generates strings with 0 and 1.

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# Left/Right-most Derivation

$$S \rightarrow SS \mid (S) \mid ()$$

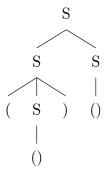
This is balanced-parentheses grammar.

Given a string (())(), we have multiple ways to generate it.

- ▶ Leftmost derivation  $S \Rightarrow SS \Rightarrow (S)S \Rightarrow (())S \Rightarrow (())()$
- ▶ Rightmost derivation  $S \Rightarrow SS \Rightarrow S() \Rightarrow (S)() \Rightarrow (())()$

### Parse Tree

$$S \Rightarrow SS \Rightarrow (S)S \Rightarrow (())S \Rightarrow (())()$$



Parse trees are trees labeled by symbols of a particular grammar.

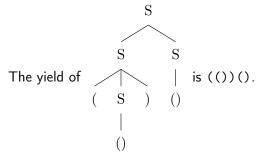
Leaves are labeled by a terminal or  $\epsilon$ .

Interior nodes are labeled by a variable (i.e., non-terminals), the children of which are labeled by the right side of the production or the parent.

Root is labeled by the start symbol.

### Yield of Parse Tree

The concatenation of the labels of the leaves in left-to-right order, i.e., pre-order traversal, is the *yield* of the parse tree.



## Ambiguous Grammar

A grammar is *ambiguous* if there is a string in the language that is the yield of more than one distinct parse trees.

#### **Theorem**

For every parse tree, there is a unique leftmost, and a unique rightmost derivation.

A grammar is ambiguous if

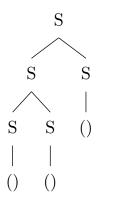
- the grammar generates a sentence with more than one leftmost derivation or
- the grammar generates a sentence with more than one rightmost derivation.

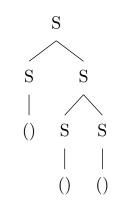
## Ambiguous Grammar Example

Two ways to generate ()()() from grammar  $S \to SS \mid (S) \mid$  ().

$$S \Rightarrow SS \Rightarrow SSS \Rightarrow ()SS$$
$$\Rightarrow ()()S \Rightarrow ()()()$$

$$S \Rightarrow SS \Rightarrow SSS \Rightarrow SS()$$
$$\Rightarrow S()() \Rightarrow ()()()$$





# Why Ambiguous?

Ambiguity is a property of grammars, NOT languages.

- ▶  $S \rightarrow SS \mid (S) \mid ()$  is ambiguous.

 $\stackrel{S \to (RS \mid \epsilon}{R \to) \mid (RR} R \text{ generates strings that have one more right ')'}$ 

# Ambiguity Good or Bad?

- ▶ Bad. It leaves meaning of some programs ill-defined since we cannot decide its syntactical structure uniquely.
- Good. Ambiguous grammars are often used in LR parsing because of simplicity.

$$E \rightarrow E + E$$
  $E \rightarrow E + T \mid T$   
 $\mid E * E$   $T \rightarrow T * F \mid F$   
 $\mid (E) \mid \epsilon$   $F \rightarrow (E) \mid id$ 

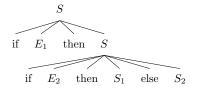
# Solution to Ambiguity

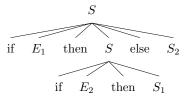
- 1. Disambiguate the grammar, i.e., rewrite the grammar.
- 2. In practice use disambiguating declarations.

## Disambiguate the Grammar 0

$$S \rightarrow \text{if } E \text{ then } S$$
  
| if  $E \text{ then } S \text{ else } S$ 

This is the dangling else problem. if  $E_1$  then if  $E_2$  then  $S_1$  else  $S_2$ 





## Disambiguate the Grammar 1

Disambiguating Rule: Match each else with the closest unmatched then. To incorporate the rule, we need to distinguish between matched M and unmatched U.

$$S o M \mid U$$
 $M o ext{ if } E ext{ then } M ext{ else } M$ 
 $U o ext{ if } E ext{ then } S$ 
 $\mid ext{ if } E ext{ then } M ext{ else } U$ 

## Disambiguating Declarations

In practice, instead of rewriting the grammar,

- 1. use the more natural (ambiguous) grammar
- 2. along with disambiguating declarations

Most tools (e.g., YACC) allow *precedence* and *associativity* declaration for terminals

# Associativity

Productions that are left (right)-recursive force evaluation in left-to-right (right-to-left) order, i.e., left (right) associativity.

$$S \rightarrow E$$

$$\mid S + E$$

$$\mid S * E$$

$$E \rightarrow a \mid b \mid c \mid S$$

Parse a + b \* c and a \* b + c.

### Precedence

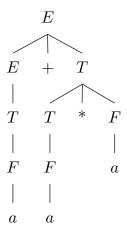
Precedence is introduced by adding new non-terminal symbols.

- Symbols with lowest precedence closest to the start symbol.
- ▶ Lower symbol in the parse tree has higher precedence.

Given following grammar

$$E \rightarrow E + T \mid T$$
  
 $T \rightarrow T * F \mid F$   
 $F \rightarrow (E) \mid a$ 

Consider the string a + a \* a.



# Inherent Ambiguity

It would be nice if for every ambiguous grammar, there were some way to fix the ambiguity. However, some CFL's are *inherently* ambiguous.

$$\{0^{i}1^{j}2^{k} \mid i=j \text{ or } j=k\}$$

### One possible grammar

$$S \rightarrow AB \mid CD$$
  
 $A \rightarrow 0A1 \mid 01$   
 $B \rightarrow 2B \mid 2$   
 $C \rightarrow 0C \mid 0$   
 $D \rightarrow 1D2 \mid 12$ 

Consider the string 012

$$S \Rightarrow AB \Rightarrow 01B \Rightarrow 012$$

$$S \Rightarrow CD \Rightarrow 0D \Rightarrow 012$$

# **Ambiguity Summary**

- Ambiguity is good since it simplifies the grammar
- Ambiguity is bad since it is ambiguous

### As for ambiguity solution

- We have no general techniques to handle ambiguity
- Impossible to remove ambiguity automatically

# LL/LR Parser

```
LL L-eft-to-right scan, L-eftmost derivation LR L-eft-to-right scan, R-ightmost derivation
```

- ► As for more in depth review, see difference between LL and LR
- ► As for the comparison, pros and cons of LL and LR

### Outline

Introduction

Grammar

Context Free Grammar

Backus-Naur Form (BNF)

Parse Tree

Summary

## Limitation?

$$L = \{a^n b^n\}$$

$$S \to aSb \mid \epsilon$$

$$L = \{a^n b^n c^n\}$$

$$S \to \dots$$