CS 326 Lecture 3 - Context Free Grammars

Context-free Grammars

N = { E, T, F}	
$\boldsymbol{\Sigma} = \{ (,), +, *, \underline{id} \}$	
P = { E →T	<i>Note</i> : $P \subseteq NxV^*$, where $V = N \cup \Sigma = \{ E,T,F,C,(,),+,*,\underline{id} \}$
$E \rightarrow E + T$	
$T \rightarrow F$	$M_{oto}(\Lambda_{oto}) \subset D$ is usually written
	<i>Note</i> : (A, α) \in P is usually written A $\rightarrow \alpha$
—	
$F \rightarrow (E) \}$	or $A ::= \alpha$ or $A : \alpha$
	$\Sigma = \{ (,), +, *, \underline{id} \}$ $P = \{ E \longrightarrow T$ $E \longrightarrow E + T$

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Derivations of a Grammar

Directly Derives or \Rightarrow :

If α and β are strings in V^{*} (vocabulary), then α directly derives β (written $\alpha \Rightarrow \beta$) *iff* there is a production $A \rightarrow \delta$ s.t.

- A is a symbol in α
- Substituting string δ for A in α produces the string β

Canonical Derivation Step:

The above derivation step is called <u>rightmost</u> if A is the rightmost non-terminal in α . (Similarly, <u>leftmost</u>.)

A rightmost derivation step is also called canonical.

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Derivations and Sentential Forms

Derivation:

A sequence of steps $\alpha_0 \Rightarrow \alpha_1 \Rightarrow \alpha_2 \Rightarrow ... \Rightarrow \alpha_n$ where $\alpha_0 = S$ is called a *derivation*. It is written $S \Rightarrow^* \alpha_n$

Example Grammar: Arithmetic Expressions

If every derivation step is rightmost, then this is a *canonical derivation*.

Sentential Form

Each α_i in a derivation is called a <u>sentential form</u> of G.

Sentences and the Language L(G)

A sentential form α_i consisting only of tokens (i.e., terminals) is called a *sentence* of *G*.

The <u>language generated by G</u> is the set of all sentences of G. It is denoted L(G).

Parse Trees of a Grammar

A <u>Parse Tree</u> for a grammar G is any tree in which:

- The root is labeled with *S*
- Each leaf is labeled with a token $a (a \in \Sigma)$ or ε (the empty string)
- Each interior node is labeled by a non-terminal.
- If an interior node is labeled A and has children labeled $X_1...X_n$, then $A \to X_1...X_n$ is a production of G
- If A → ε is a production in G, then a node labeled A may have a single child labeled ε
- The string formed by the leaf labels (left to right) is the <u>yield</u> of the parse tree.

Parse Trees (continued)

• An <u>intermediate parse tree</u> is the same as a parse tree except the leaves can be non-terminals.

Notes:

- Every $\alpha \in L(G)$ is the yield of <u>some</u> parse tree. Why?
- Consider a derivation, S ⇒ α₁ ⇒ α₂ ⇒ ... ⇒ α_n, where α_n ∈ L(G)
 For each α_i, we can construct an intermediate parse tree.
 The last one will be the parse tree for the sentence α_n.
- A parse tree ignores the order in which symbols are replaced to derive a string.

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Uniqueness of Derivations

Derivations and Parse Trees

- Every *parse tree* has a unique *derivation*: Yes? No?
- Every parse tree has a unique rightmost derivation: Yes? No?
- Every parse tree has a unique leftmost derivation: Yes? No?

Derivations and Strings of the Language

- Every $u \in L(G)$ has a unique derivation: Yes? No?
- Every $u \in L(G)$ has a unique *rightmost derivation*: Yes? No?
- Every $u \in L(G)$ has a unique *leftmost derivation*. Yes? No?



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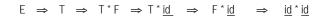


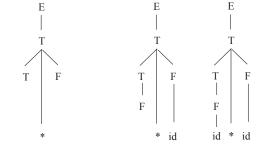
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<u>id</u> * <u>id</u>

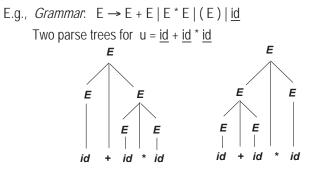




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Ambiguity

Def. A grammar, G, is said to be <u>unambiguous</u> if $\forall u \in L(G)$, **a** exactly one canonical derivation $S \Rightarrow^* u$. Otherwise, G is said to be **ambiguous**.



These are different syntactic interpretations of the input code University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign Page 5

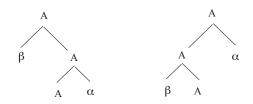
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Detecting Ambiguity

<u>*Caution:*</u> There is no mechanical algorithm to decide whether an arbitrary CFG is ambiguous.

But one common kind of ambiguity can be detected:

If a symbol, $A \in N$ is both left-recursive (i.e., $A \Rightarrow^+ A\alpha$, $|\alpha| \ge 0$) and rightrecursive (i.e., $A \Rightarrow^+ \beta A$, $|\beta| \ge 0$), then G is ambiguous, provided that G is "reduced" (i.e., has no "redundant" symbols).



Order of Evaluation of Parse Tree

Note: These are <u>conventions</u>, not theorems

- · Code for a non-terminal is evaluated as a single "block"
 - I.e., cannot partially execute it, then execute something else, then evaluate the rest
 - A different parse tree would be needed to achieve that
 - E.g. 1: Non-terminal T enforces precedence of * over +
 - E.g. 2: E \rightarrow E + T enforces left-associativity,
 - $E \rightarrow T + E$ enforces right-associativity.
- Parse tree does not specify order of execution of code blocks
 - Must be enforced by the code generated for parent block. Obey:
 - » Operator (e.g, +) cannot be evaluated before operands
 - » Associativity rules

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Removal of Ambiguity: Example 1

1. Enforce higher precedence for *

 $E \rightarrow E + E \mid T$ $T \rightarrow T * T \mid \underline{id} \mid (E)$

2. Eliminate right-recursion for $E \rightarrow E + E$ and $T \rightarrow T * T$. $E \rightarrow E + T | T$ $T \rightarrow T * id | T * (E) | id | (E)$ CS 326 Lecture 3 – Context Free Grammars

Removal of Ambiguity: Example 2

The Infamous *Dangling-Else* Grammar: *Stmt* → if *expr* then *stmt* / if *expr* then *stmt* else *stmt* / other

<u>Solution</u>: Introduce new non-terminals to distinguish matched then/else Stmt → matched_stmt / unmatched_stmt matched_stmt → if expr then matched_stmt else matched_stmt / other unmatched_stmt → if expr then stmt / if expr then matched_stmt else unmatched_stmt

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