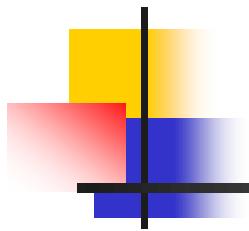


Unit 4

Context-Free Languages Grammars (CFLs & CFGs)



By Prashant Gautam

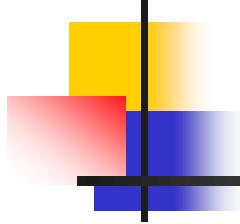


Context-Free Languages

$$\{a^n b^n : n \geq 0\} \quad \{ww^R\}$$

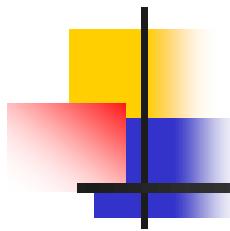
Regular Languages

$$a^* b^* \quad (a + b)^*$$



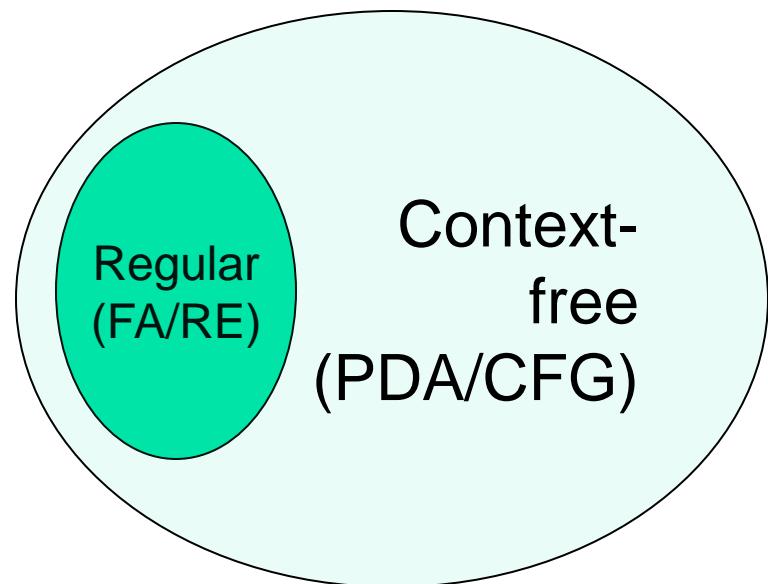
Not all languages are regular

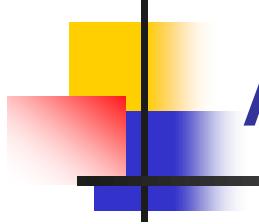
- So what happens to the languages which are not regular?
- Can we still come up with a language recognizer?
 - i.e., something that will accept (or reject) strings that belong (or do not belong) to the language?



Context-Free Languages

- A language class larger than the class of regular languages
- Supports natural, recursive notation called “context-free grammar”
- Applications:
 - Parse trees, compilers
 - XML





An Example

- A palindrome is a word that reads identical from both ends
 - E.g., $\xrightarrow{\hspace{1cm}} \xleftarrow{\hspace{1cm}}$ $\xrightarrow{\hspace{1cm}} \xleftarrow{\hspace{1cm}}$ $\xrightarrow{\hspace{1cm}} \xleftarrow{\hspace{1cm}}$ $\xrightarrow{\hspace{1cm}} \xleftarrow{\hspace{1cm}}$ madam, redivider, malayalam, 010010010
- Let $L = \{ w \mid w \text{ is a binary palindrome}\}$
- Is L regular?
 - No.

But the language of palindromes...

is a CFL, because it supports recursive substitution (in the form of a CFG)

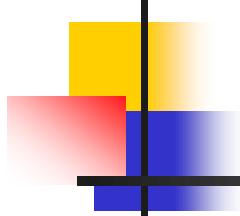
- This is because we can construct a “grammar” like this:

Productions	
1.	$A \Rightarrow \epsilon$
2.	$A \Rightarrow 0$
3.	$A \Rightarrow 1$
4.	$A \Rightarrow 0A0$
5.	$A \Rightarrow 1A1$

Variable or non-terminal

Same as:
 $A \Rightarrow 0A0 \mid 1A1 \mid 0 \mid 1 \mid \epsilon$

How does this grammar work?



How does the CFG for palindromes work?

An input string belongs to the language (i.e., accepted) iff it can be generated by the CFG

- Example: $w=01110$
- G can generate w as follows:

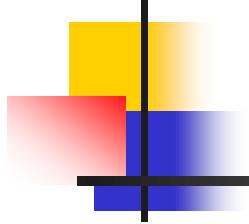
1. $A \Rightarrow 0A0$
2. $\Rightarrow 01A10$
3. $\Rightarrow 01110$

G:

$A \rightarrow 0A0 \mid 1A1 \mid 0 \mid 1 \mid \epsilon$

Generating a string from a grammar:

1. Pick and choose a sequence of productions that would allow us to generate the string.
2. At every step, substitute one variable with one of its productions.



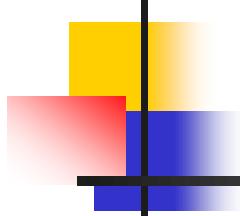
Context-Free Grammar: Definition

- A context-free grammar $G=(V,T,P,S)$, where:
 - V : set of variables or non-terminals
 - T : set of terminals (= alphabet $U \{\varepsilon\}$)
 - P : set of *productions*, each of which is of the form
$$V \implies \alpha_1 \mid \alpha_2 \mid \dots$$
 - Where each α_i is an arbitrary string of variables and terminals
 - $S \implies$ start variable

CFG for the language of binary palindromes:

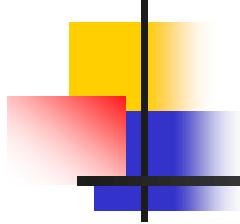
$$G=(\{A\},\{0,1\},P,A)$$

$$P: A \implies 0A0 \mid 1A1 \mid 0 \mid 1 \mid \varepsilon$$



More examples

- Parenthesis matching in code
- Syntax checking
- In scenarios where there is a general need for:
 - Matching a symbol with another symbol, or
 - Matching a count of one symbol with that of another symbol, or
 - Recursively substituting one symbol with a string of other symbols

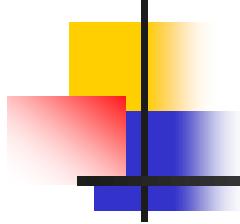


Example #2

- Language of balanced parenthesis
e.g., $()((((()))))(((())))\dots$
- CFG?

G:
 $S \Rightarrow (S) \mid SS \mid \varepsilon$

How would you “interpret” the string “ $((((())())())()$ ” using this grammar?

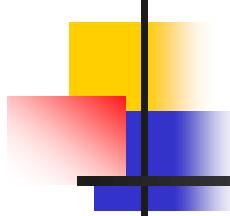


Example #3

- A grammar for $L = \{0^m 1^n \mid m \geq n\}$
- CFG?

G:
 $S \Rightarrow 0S1 \mid A$
 $A \Rightarrow 0A \mid \epsilon$

How would you interpret the string “00000111”
using this grammar?



Example #4

A program containing **if-then(-else)** statements

if Condition then Statement else Statement

(Or)

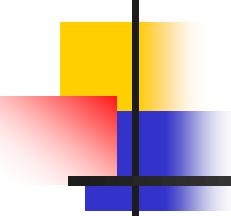
if Condition then Statement

CFG?

stmt → **if expr then stmt**

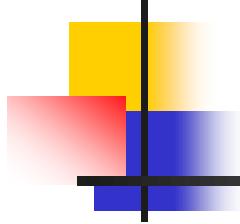
stmt → **if expr then stmt else stmt**

stmt → *other-stmt*



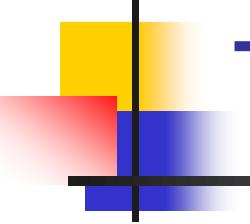
Applications of CFLs & CFGs

- Compilers use parsers for syntactic checking
- Parsers can be expressed as CFGs
 - 1. Balancing parenthesis:
 - $B \Rightarrow BB \mid (B) \mid Statement$
 - $Statement \Rightarrow \dots$
 - 2. If-then-else:
 - $S \Rightarrow SS \mid if\ Condition\ then\ Statement\ else\ Statement \mid if\ Condition\ then\ Statement \mid Statement$
 - $Condition \Rightarrow \dots$
 - $Statement \Rightarrow \dots$
 - 3. C parenthesis matching { ... }
 - 4. Pascal begin-end matching
 - 5. YACC (Yet Another Compiler-Compiler)



More applications

- Markup languages
 - Nested Tag Matching
 - HTML
 - <html> ...<p> </p> ... </html>
 - XML
 - <PC> ... <MODEL> ... </MODEL> .. <RAM> ... </RAM> ... </PC>



Tag-Markup Languages

Roll ==> <ROLL> Class Students </ROLL>

Class ==> <CLASS> Text </CLASS>

Text ==> Char Text | Char

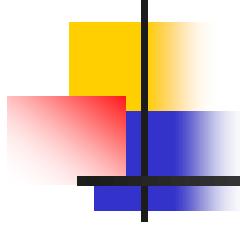
Char ==> a | b | ... | z | A | B | .. | Z

Students ==> Student Students | ϵ

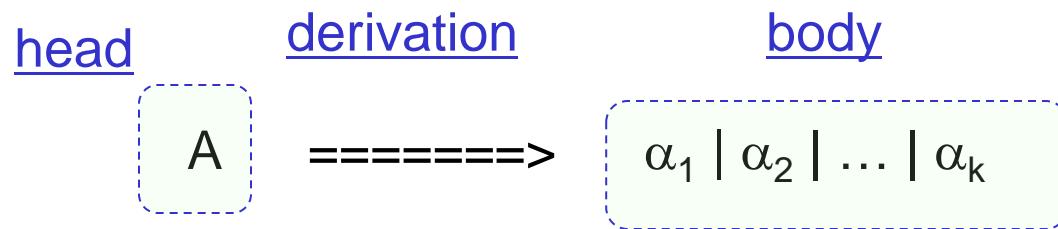
Student ==> <STUD> Text </STUD>

Here, the left hand side of each production denotes one non-terminals
(e.g., “Roll”, “Class”, etc.)

Those symbols on the right hand side for which no productions (i.e.,
substitutions) are defined are terminals (e.g., ‘a’, ‘b’, ‘|’, ‘<’, ‘>’, “ROLL”,
etc.)

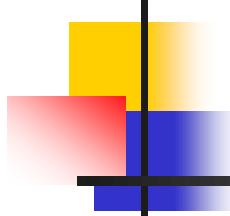


Structure of a production



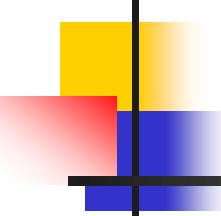
The above is same as:

1. $A \Rightarrow \alpha_1$
2. $A \Rightarrow \alpha_2$
3. $A \Rightarrow \alpha_3$
- ...
- K. $A \Rightarrow \alpha_k$



CFG conventions

- Terminal symbols $\leftarrow a, b, c\dots$
- Non-terminal symbols $\leftarrow A, B, C, \dots$
- Terminal or non-terminal symbols $\leftarrow X, Y, Z$
- Terminal strings $\leftarrow w, x, y, z$
- Arbitrary strings of terminals and non-terminals $\leftarrow \alpha, \beta, \gamma, \dots$



String membership

How to say if a string belong to the language defined by a CFG?

1. Derivation
 - Head to body
2. Recursive inference
 - Body to head

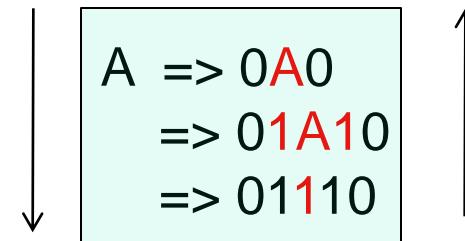
Example:

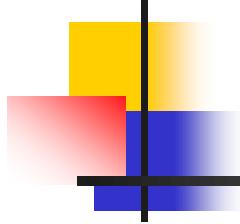
- $w = 01110$
- Is w a palindrome?



Both are equivalent forms

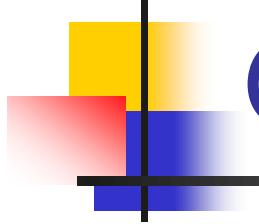
G:
 $A \Rightarrow 0A0 \mid 1A1 \mid 0 \mid 1 \mid \epsilon$





Simple Expressions...

- We can write a CFG for accepting simple expressions
- $G = (V, T, P, S)$
 - $V = \{E, F\}$
 - $T = \{0, 1, a, b, +, *, (,)\}$
 - $S = \{E\}$
 - $P:$
 - $E \Rightarrow E+E \mid E^*E \mid (E) \mid F$
 - $F \Rightarrow aF \mid bF \mid 0F \mid 1F \mid a \mid b \mid 0 \mid 1$

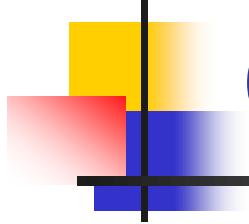


Generalization of derivation

- Derivation is *head ==> body*

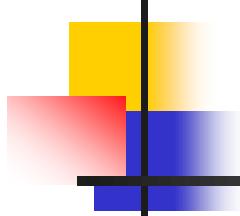
- $A ==> X$ (A derives X in a single step)
- $A ==>^*_G X$ (A derives X in a multiple steps)

- Transitivity:
 IF $A ==>^*_G B$, and $B ==>^*_G C$, THEN $A ==>^*_G C$



Context-Free Language

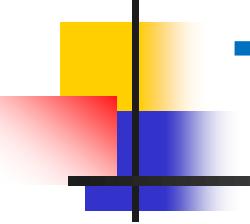
- The language of a CFG, $G=(V,T,P,S)$, denoted by $L(G)$, is the set of terminal strings that have a derivation from the start variable S .
 - $L(G) = \{ w \text{ in } T^* \mid S \Rightarrow^* G w \}$



Derivations

- Two basic requirements for a grammar are :
 1. To generate a valid string.
 2. To recognize a valid string.

Derivation is a process that generates a valid string with the help of grammar by replacing the non-terminals on the left with the string on the right side of the production.



Types of derivations

- The two types of derivation are:
 1. Left most derivation
 2. Right most derivation.
- In leftmost derivations, the leftmost non-terminal in each sentinel is always chosen first for replacement.
- In rightmost derivations, the rightmost non-terminal in each sentinel is always chosen first for replacement.

Sentinels:

Given a grammar G with start symbol S, if $S \rightarrow \alpha$, where α may contain non-terminals or terminals, then α is called the sentinel form of G.

Left-most & Right-most Derivation Styles

G:
 $E \Rightarrow E+E \mid E^*E \mid (E) \mid F$
 $F \Rightarrow aF \mid bF \mid 0F \mid 1F \mid \epsilon$

Derive the string $a^*(ab+10)$ from G:

$E \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow}_G a^*(ab+10)$

Left-most derivation:

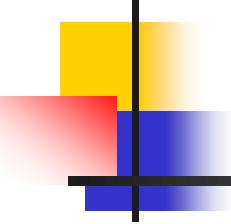
Always substitute leftmost variable

- E
- => E * E
- => F * E
- => aF * E
- => a * E
- => a * (E)
- => a * (E + E)
- => a * (F + E)
- => a * (aF + E)
- => a * (abF + E)
- => a * (ab + E)
- => a * (ab + F)
- => a * (ab + 1F)
- => a * (ab + 10F)
- => a * (ab + 10)

- E
- => E * E
- => E * (E)
- => E * (E + E)
- => E * (E + F)
- => E * (E + 1F)
- => E * (E + 10F)
- => E * (E + 10)
- => E * (F + 10)
- => E * (aF + 10)
- => E * (abF + 0)
- => E * (ab + 10)
- => F * (ab + 10)
- => aF * (ab + 10)
- => a * (ab + 10)

Right-most derivation:

Always substitute rightmost variable



Example:

- Given grammar $G : E \rightarrow E+E \mid E^*E \mid (E) \mid -E \mid id$
- Sentence to be derived : – (id+id)

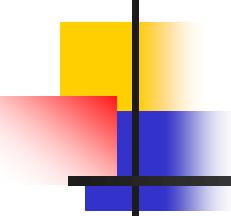
LEFTMOST DERIVATION

$E \rightarrow -E$
 $E \rightarrow -(E)$
 $E \rightarrow -(E+E)$
 $E \rightarrow -(id+E)$
 $E \rightarrow -(id+id)$

RIGHTMOST DERIVATION

$E \rightarrow -E$
 $E \rightarrow -(E)$
 $E \rightarrow -(E+E)$
 $E \rightarrow -(E+id)$
 $E \rightarrow -(id+id)$

String that appear in leftmost derivation are called left sentinel forms.
String that appear in rightmost derivation are called right sentinel forms



Leftmost vs. Rightmost derivations

Q1) For every leftmost derivation, there is a rightmost derivation, and vice versa. True or False?

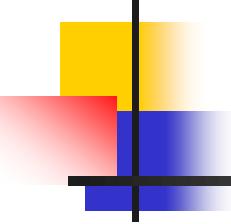
True - will use parse trees to prove this

Q2) Does every word generated by a CFG have a leftmost and a rightmost derivation?

Yes – easy to prove (reverse direction)

Q3) Could there be words which have more than one leftmost (or rightmost) derivation?

Yes – depending on the grammar



Ambiguity

- A grammar that produces more than one parse for some sentence is said to be **ambiguous grammar**.

Given grammar

$$G : E \rightarrow E+E \mid E^*E \mid (E) \mid -E \mid id$$

The sentence **id+id*id** has the
following two distinct
leftmost derivations:

$$E \rightarrow E + E$$

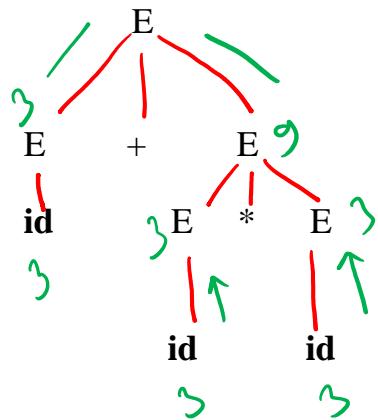
$$E \rightarrow id + E$$

$$E \rightarrow id + E * E$$

$$E \rightarrow id + id * E$$

$$E \rightarrow id + id * id$$

The two corresponding parse trees are :



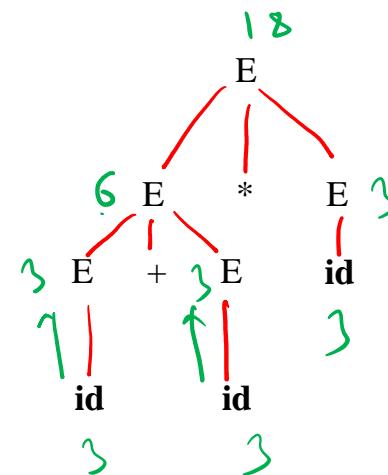
$$E \rightarrow E^* E$$

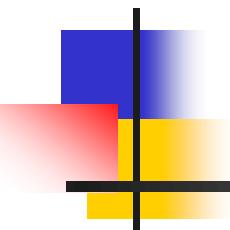
$$E \rightarrow E + E^* E$$

$$E \rightarrow id + E^* E$$

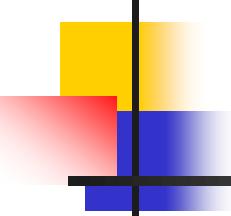
$$E \rightarrow id + id^* E$$

$$E \rightarrow id + id^* id$$





Parse trees

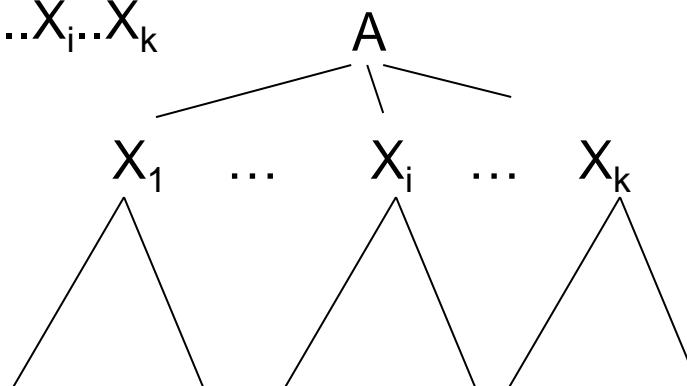


Parse Trees

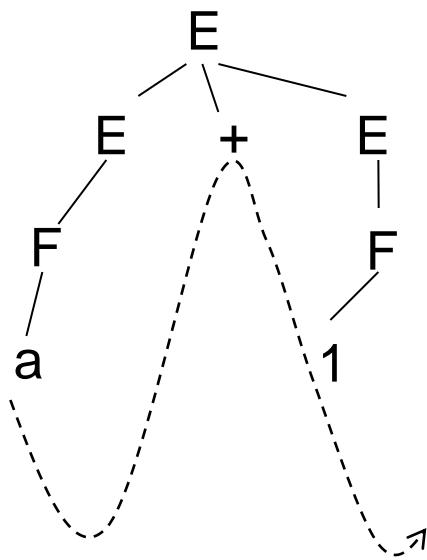
- Each CFG can be represented using a *parse tree*:
 - Each internal node is labeled by a variable in V
 - Each leaf is terminal symbol
 - For a production, $A \Rightarrow X_1 X_2 \dots X_k$, then any internal node labeled A has k children which are labeled from X_1, X_2, \dots, X_k from left to right
-

Parse tree for production and all other subsequent productions:

$$A \Rightarrow X_1 \dots X_i \dots X_k$$



Examples



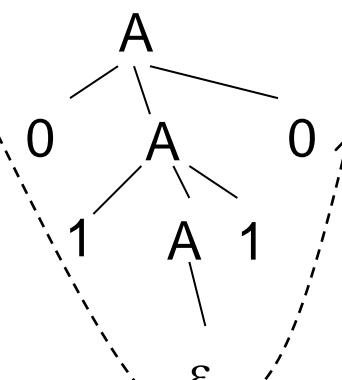
Parse tree for a + 1

[G:

$E \Rightarrow E+E \mid E^*E \mid (E) \mid F$

$F \Rightarrow aF \mid bF \mid 0F \mid 1F \mid 0 \mid 1 \mid a \mid b$

Recursive inference



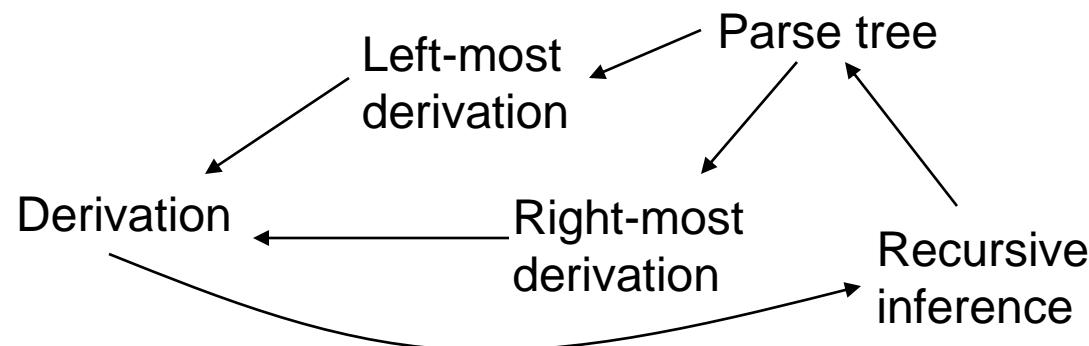
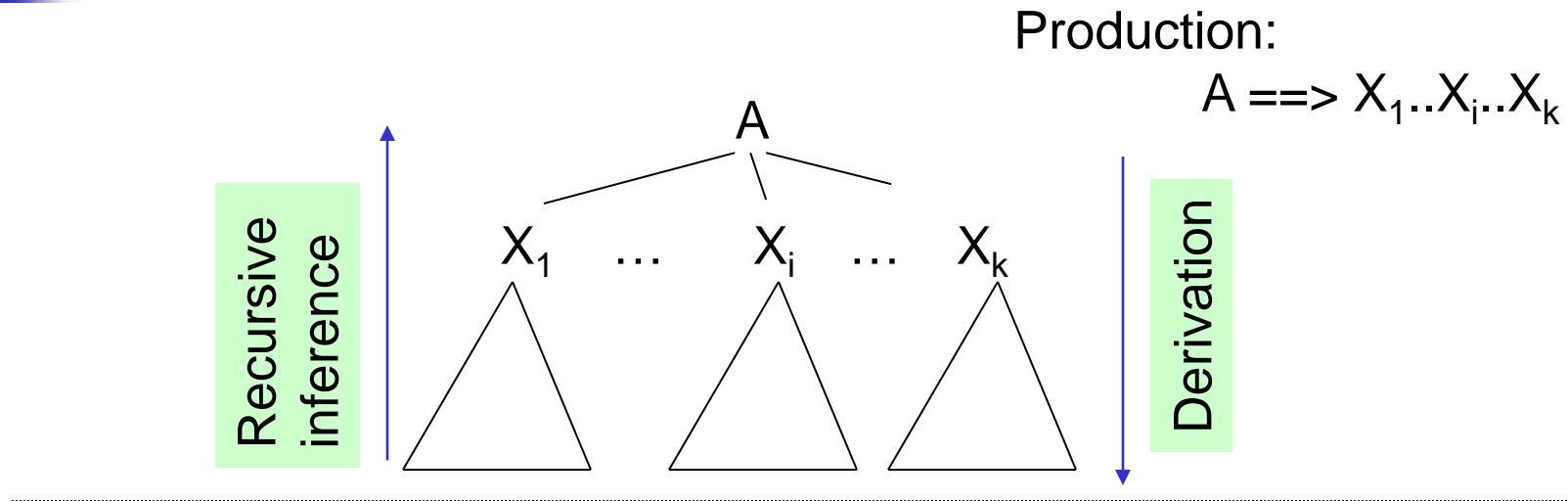
Parse tree for 0110

[G:

$A \Rightarrow 0A0 \mid 1A1 \mid 0 \mid 1 \mid \epsilon$

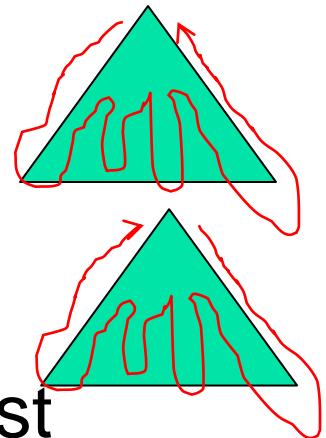
Derivation

Parse Trees, Derivations, and Recursive Inferences



Interchangeability of different CFG representations

- Parse tree ==> left-most derivation
 - DFS left to right
- Parse tree ==> right-most derivation
 - DFS right to left
- ==> left-most derivation == right-most derivation
- Derivation ==> Recursive inference
 - Reverse the order of productions
- Recursive inference ==> Parse trees
 - bottom-up traversal of parse tree



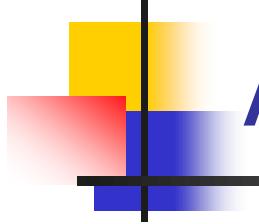
Connection between CFLs and RLS

What kind of grammars result for regular languages?

CFLs & Regular Languages

- A CFG is said to be *right-linear* if all the productions are one of the following two forms: $A \implies wB$ (or) $A \implies w$
 - Where:
 - A & B are variables,
 - w is a string of terminals
- Theorem 1: Every right-linear CFG generates a regular language
- Theorem 2: Every regular language has a right-linear grammar
- Theorem 3: Left-linear CFGs also represent RLs

Ambiguity in CFGs and CFLs



Ambiguity in CFGs

- A CFG is said to be *ambiguous* if there exists a string which has more than one left-most derivation

Example:

$$\begin{aligned} S & \Rightarrow AS \mid \epsilon \\ A & \Rightarrow A1 \mid 0A1 \mid 01 \end{aligned}$$

Input string: 00111

Can be derived in two ways

LM derivation #1:

$$\begin{aligned} S & \Rightarrow AS \\ & \Rightarrow 0A1S \\ & \Rightarrow 0A11S \\ & \Rightarrow 00111S \\ & \Rightarrow 00111 \end{aligned}$$

LM derivation #2:

$$\begin{aligned} S & \Rightarrow AS \\ & \Rightarrow A1S \\ & \Rightarrow 0A11S \\ & \Rightarrow 00111S \\ & \Rightarrow 00111 \end{aligned}$$

Why does ambiguity matter?

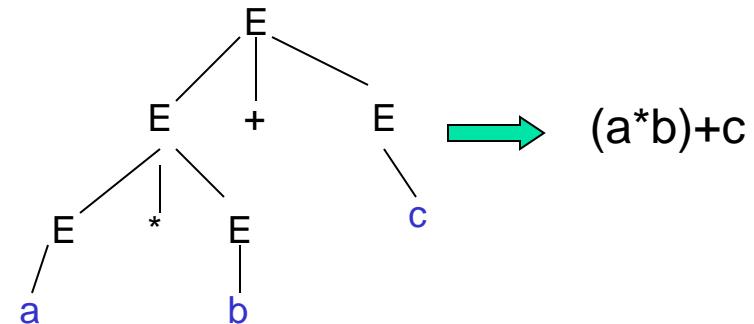
$E \Rightarrow E + E \mid E * E \mid (E) \mid a \mid b \mid c \mid 0 \mid 1$

Values are different !!!

*string = a * b + c*

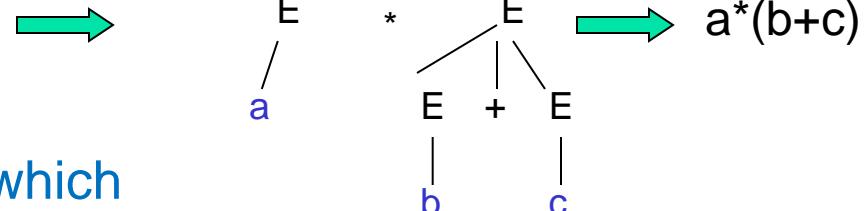
- LM derivation #1:

• $E \Rightarrow E + E \Rightarrow E * E + E \Rightarrow^* a * b + c$

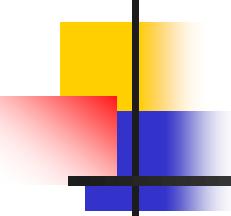


- LM derivation #2

• $E \Rightarrow E * E \Rightarrow a * E \Rightarrow a * E + E \Rightarrow^* a * b + c$



The calculated value depends on which of the two parse trees is actually used.



Removing Ambiguity in Expression Evaluations

- It MAY be possible to remove ambiguity for some CFLs
 - E.g., in a CFG for expression evaluation by imposing rules & restrictions such as precedence
 - This would imply rewrite of the grammar

Modified unambiguous version:

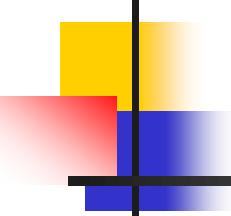
- Precedence: (), *, +

$$\begin{aligned}E &\Rightarrow E + T \mid T \\T &\Rightarrow T * F \mid F \\F &\Rightarrow I \mid (E) \\I &\Rightarrow a \mid b \mid c \mid 0 \mid 1\end{aligned}$$

Ambiguous version:

$$E \Rightarrow E + E \mid E * E \mid (E) \mid a \mid b \mid c \mid 0 \mid 1$$

How will this avoid ambiguity?



Inherently Ambiguous CFLs

- However, for some languages, it may not be possible to remove ambiguity
- A CFL is said to be *inherently ambiguous* if every CFG that describes it is ambiguous

Example:

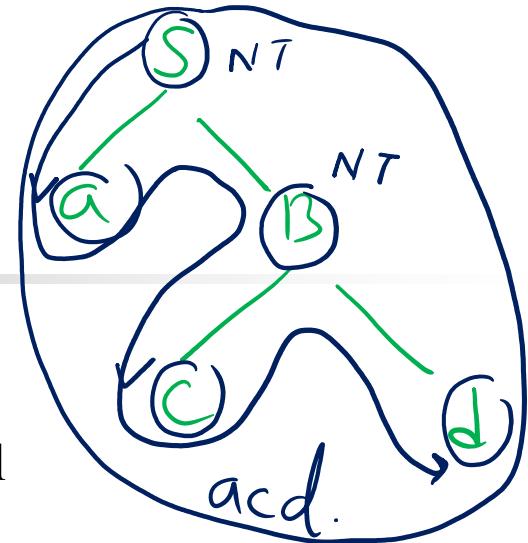
- $L = \{ a^n b^n c^m d^m \mid n, m \geq 1 \} \cup \{ a^n b^m c^m d^n \mid n, m \geq 1 \}$
- L is inherently ambiguous
- Why?

Input string: $a^n b^n c^n d^n$

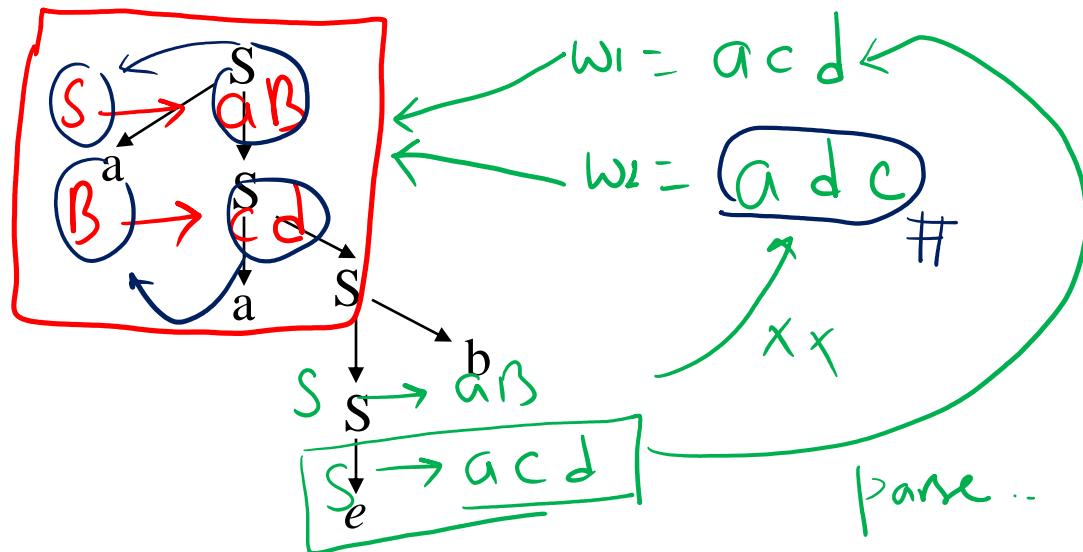
Parse Tree

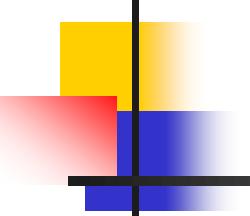
A parse tree of a derivation is a tree in which:

- Each internal node is labeled with a nonterminal
- If a rule $A \rightarrow A_1A_2\dots A_n$ occurs in the derivation then A is a parent node of nodes labeled A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n



Parsing: ? e.g.





Parse Trees

$$S \rightarrow A \mid AB$$

$$A \rightarrow \epsilon \mid a \mid Ab \mid AA$$

$$B \rightarrow b \mid bc \mid Bc \mid bb$$

Sample derivations:

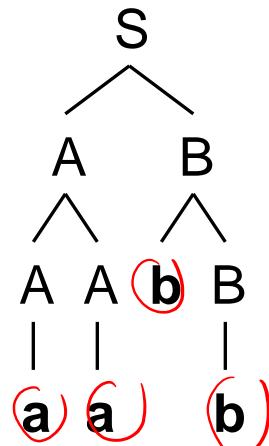
$$S \Rightarrow AB \Rightarrow AAB \Rightarrow aAB \Rightarrow aaB \Rightarrow aabB \Rightarrow \text{aabb}$$

$$S \Rightarrow AB \Rightarrow AbB \Rightarrow Abb \Rightarrow AAbb \Rightarrow Aabb \Rightarrow aabb$$

These two derivations use same productions, but in different orders.

This ordering difference is often uninteresting.

Derivation trees give way to abstract away ordering differences.



Root label = start node.

Each interior label = variable.

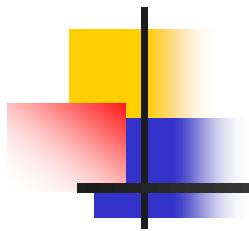
Each parent/child relation = derivation step.

Each leaf label = terminal or ϵ .

All leaf labels together = derived string = *yield*.

aabb :-

Leftmost, Rightmost Derivations



Definition. A **left-most derivation** of a sentential form is one in which rules transforming the left-most nonterminal are always applied

Definition. A **right-most derivation** of a sentential form is one in which rules transforming the right-most nonterminal are always applied

Leftmost & Rightmost Derivations

$S \rightarrow A \mid AB$

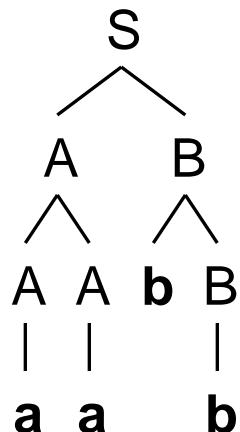
$A \rightarrow \epsilon \mid a \mid Ab \mid AA$

$B \rightarrow b \mid bc \mid Bc \mid bb$

Sample derivations:

$S \Rightarrow AB \Rightarrow AAB \Rightarrow aAB \Rightarrow aaB \Rightarrow aabB \Rightarrow aabb$

$S \Rightarrow AB \Rightarrow AbB \Rightarrow Abb \Rightarrow AAAbb \Rightarrow Aabb \Rightarrow aabb$



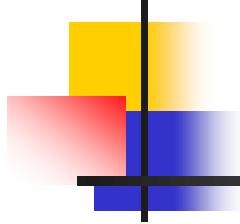
These two derivations are special.

1st derivation is *leftmost*.

Always picks leftmost variable.

2nd derivation is *rightmost*.

Always picks rightmost variable.



Left / Rightmost Derivations

- In proofs...
 - Restrict attention to left- or rightmost derivations.
- In parsing algorithms...
 - Restrict attention to left- or rightmost derivations.
 - E.g., recursive descent uses leftmost; **yacc** uses rightmost.

Derivation Trees

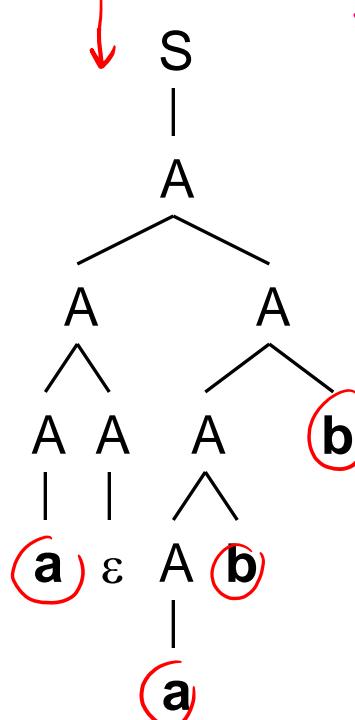
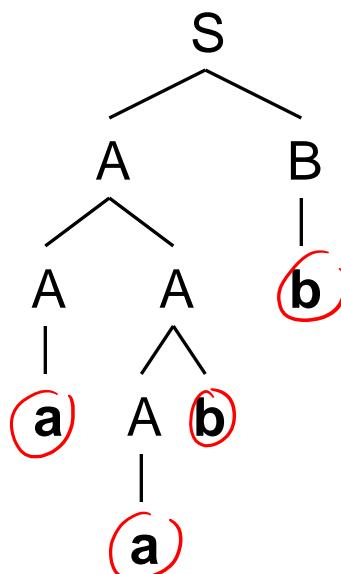
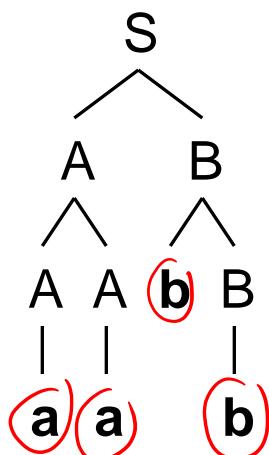
Ambiguity.

$$S \rightarrow A \mid AB$$

$$A \rightarrow \epsilon \mid a \mid Ab \mid AA$$

$$B \rightarrow b \mid bc \mid Bc \mid bb$$

w = aabb



Other derivation trees
for this string?

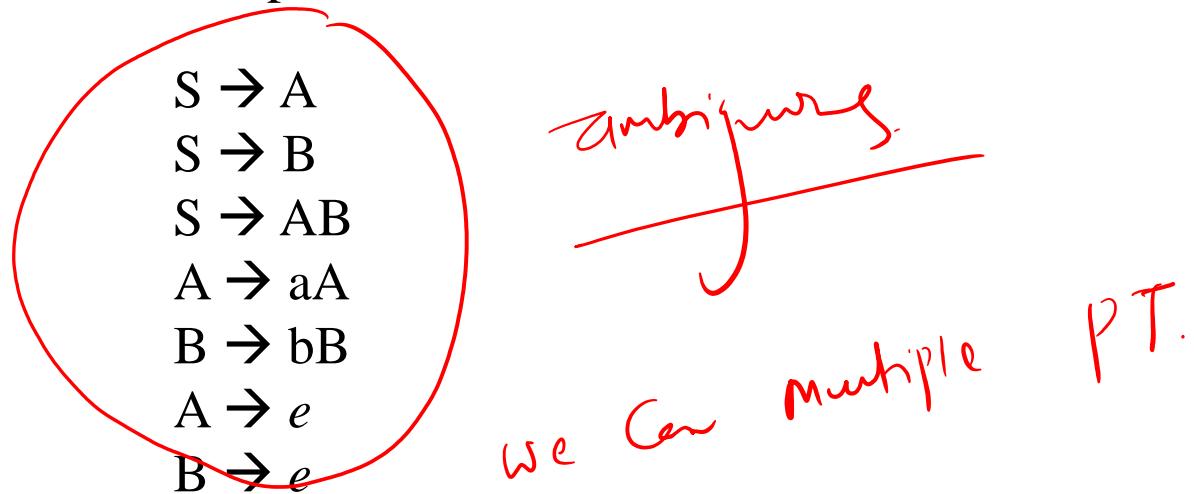
?

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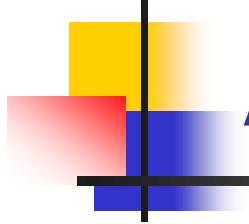
Infinitely
many others
possible.

Ambiguous Grammar

Definition. A grammar G is ambiguous if there is a word $w \in L(G)$ having at least two different parse trees



Notice that a has at least two left-most derivations

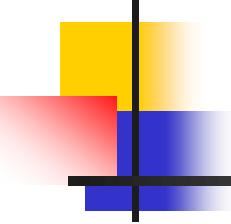


Ambiguity

CFG *ambiguous* \Leftrightarrow any of following equivalent statements:

- \exists string w with multiple derivation trees.
- \exists string w with multiple leftmost derivations.
- \exists string w with multiple rightmost derivations.

Defining ambiguity of grammar, not language.



Ambiguity & Disambiguation

Given an ambiguous grammar, would like an equivalent unambiguous grammar.

- Allows you to know more about structure of a given derivation.
- Simplifies inductive proofs on derivations.
- Can lead to more efficient parsing algorithms.
- In programming languages, want to impose a canonical structure on derivations. E.g., for

1+2×3.

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Strategy: Force an ordering on all derivations.

Disambiguation: Example 1

$\text{Exp} \rightarrow \text{n}$

| $\text{Exp} + \text{Exp}$

| $\text{Exp} \times \text{Exp}$

?

$E \rightarrow E + \Theta | E \times E | id$

What is an equivalent
unambiguous
grammar?

$\text{Exp} \rightarrow \text{Term}$

| $\text{Term} + \text{Exp}$

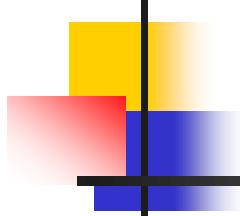
$\text{Term} \rightarrow \text{n}$

| $n \times \text{Term}$

$E \rightarrow E + \Theta | T$

$T \rightarrow \underline{T \times id} | \underline{id}$

- operator precedence
- left-associativity



Disambiguation



What is a general algorithm? ?
None exists!

There are CFLs that are *inherently ambiguous*
Every CFG for this language is ambiguous.

E.g., $\{a^n b^n c^m d^m \mid n \geq 1, m \geq 1\} \cup \{a^n b^m c^m d^n \mid n \geq 1, m \geq 1\}$.

So, can't necessarily eliminate ambiguity!

CFG Simplification

~~grm~~

(How)

Can't always eliminate ambiguity.

But, CFG simplification & restriction still useful theoretically & pragmatically.

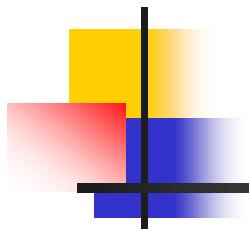
ad

Why?

- Simpler grammars are easier to understand. ↗
- Simpler grammars can lead to faster parsing. ↗
- Restricted forms useful for some parsing algorithms. ↗
- Restricted forms can give you more knowledge about derivations.

$A \rightarrow Aa \rightarrow Aa \rightarrow AaAa \rightarrow AaAaAa \rightarrow AaAaAaAa \dots$

CFG Simplification *(How?)*

- 
- ① Eliminate ambiguity. *(if possible)*
 - 2. Eliminate “useless” variables. ~~✓~~
 - 3. Eliminate ϵ -productions: $A \rightarrow \epsilon$. ~~✓~~
 - 4. Eliminate unit productions: $A \rightarrow B$. ~~✓~~
 - 5. Eliminate redundant productions.
 - ⑥ Trade left- & right-recursion.
- grp*

Eliminate “useless” variables.

$w = aabb$

$aaaaA \times \times$

■ $T \rightarrow aaB \mid abA \mid aaT$

■ $A \rightarrow aA$

■ $B \rightarrow ab \mid b$

■ $C \rightarrow ad$

$A \rightarrow aA \rightarrow aaa \rightarrow aaaa \rightarrow aaaaa$

because it doesn't occur in

rhs. (body of production)

$T \rightarrow aaT$

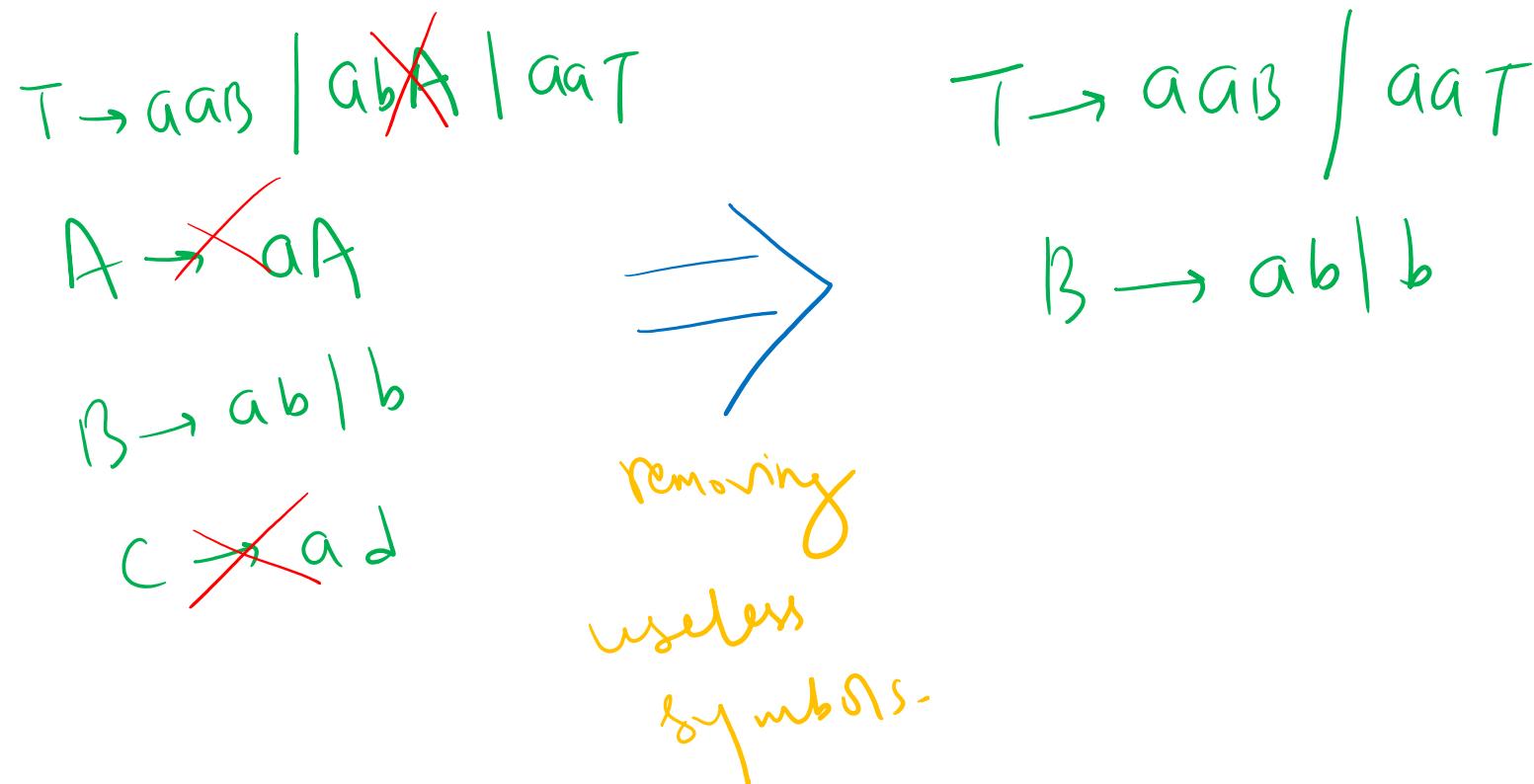
$\rightarrow aaaaB$

$\rightarrow aaaaab$

$T \rightarrow aaB \mid aaT$

$B \rightarrow ab \mid b$

Eliminate “useless” variables.



Eliminate e-productions: $A \rightarrow e$.

- $S \rightarrow XYX$
- $X \rightarrow 0X \mid e$
- $Y \rightarrow 1Y \mid e$

Eliminate e-productions: $A \rightarrow e$.

CFG with
e-prod

$$\begin{array}{l} S \rightarrow XYX \\ X \rightarrow 0X \mid \epsilon \\ Y \rightarrow 1Y \mid \epsilon \end{array}$$

Eliminate all
e-production.

CFG
$$\begin{array}{l} S \rightarrow XX \mid Xr \mid rX \mid x \mid r \\ X \rightarrow 0X \mid 0 \\ Y \rightarrow 1Y \mid 1 \end{array}$$

simplified CFG

4.

How?

what

Eliminate unit productions: $A \rightarrow B$

- $S \rightarrow 0A \mid 1B \mid C$
- $A \rightarrow 0S \mid 00$
- $B \rightarrow 1 \mid A$
- $C \rightarrow 01$

① $S \rightarrow C$

② $B \rightarrow A$

These are the two unit
productions in the given G.

Eliminate unit productions: $A \rightarrow B$

- $S \rightarrow 0A \mid 1B \mid C$
- $A \rightarrow 0S \mid 00$
- $B \rightarrow 1 \mid A$
- $C \rightarrow 01$

unit
prod

$$S \rightarrow 0A$$

$$S \rightarrow 1B$$

$$\boxed{S \rightarrow C}$$

$$S \rightarrow 01$$

$$A \rightarrow 0S$$

$$A \rightarrow 00$$

$$B \rightarrow 1$$

$$\boxed{B \rightarrow A}$$

$$B \rightarrow 0S \mid 00$$

$$\boxed{C \rightarrow 01}$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} S \rightarrow 0A \mid 1B \mid 01 \\ A \rightarrow 0S \mid 00 \\ B \rightarrow 1 \mid 0S \mid 00 \\ C \rightarrow 01 \end{array} \right\} \text{simplified CFG}$$

Examples

$S \rightarrow AB | \epsilon$
 $A \rightarrow aA | a$
 $C \rightarrow cC | c$

$S \rightarrow \epsilon$
 $A \rightarrow aA | a$

$S \rightarrow \epsilon$

*B does not derive terminal string;
C unreachable.*

A unreachable.

$S \rightarrow BD$
 $B \rightarrow BD | B$
 $D \rightarrow DB | D$

*Empty set of
productions*

"Non-termination"

CFG Simplification: Example

How can the following be simplified?

$S \rightarrow A B$
 $S \rightarrow A C D$

$A \rightarrow A a$

$A \rightarrow a$

$A \rightarrow a A$

$A \rightarrow a$

$C \rightarrow \epsilon$

$D \rightarrow d D$

$D \rightarrow E$

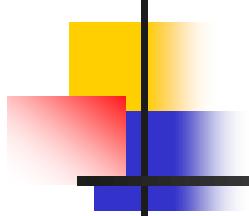
$E \rightarrow e A e$

$F \rightarrow f f$

?

?

- 1) Delete: B useless because nothing derivable from B.
- 2) Delete either $A \rightarrow Aa$ or $A \rightarrow aA$.
- 3) Delete one of the identical productions.
- 4) Delete & also replace $S \rightarrow ACD$ with $S \rightarrow AD$.
- 5) Replace with $D \rightarrow eAe$.
- 6) Delete: E useless after change #5.
- 7) Delete: F useless because not derivable from S.



Trading Left- & Right- Recursion

Left recursion: $A \rightarrow A \alpha$

Right recursion: $A \rightarrow \alpha A$

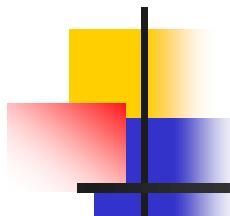
Most algorithms have trouble with one,

In recursive descent, avoid left recursion.



Normal Forms

By Prashant Gautam



Why normal forms?

What?

- If all productions of the grammar could be expressed in the same form(s), then:
 - a. It becomes easy to design algorithms that use the grammar
 - b. It becomes easy to show proofs and properties

$$A \rightarrow BC$$

$$A \rightarrow a$$

CNF

Chomsky Normal Form (CNF)

Let G be a CFG for some $L - \{\epsilon\}$

Definition:

G is said to be in **Chomsky Normal Form** if all its productions are in one of the following two forms:

- i. $A \rightarrow BC$
- ii. $A \rightarrow a$

where A, B, C are variables, or
where a is a terminal

- G has no useless symbols
- G has no unit productions
- G has no ϵ -productions

Annotations

CNF checklist

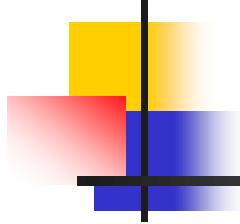
Is this grammar in CNF?

- $G_1:$
1. $E \rightarrow E+T \mid T^*F \mid (E) \mid Ia \mid Ib \mid I0 \mid I1$
 2. $T \rightarrow T^*F \mid (E) \mid Ia \mid Ib \mid I0 \mid I1$
 3. $F \rightarrow (E) \mid Ia \mid Ib \mid I0 \mid I1$
 4. $I \rightarrow a \mid b \mid Ia \mid Ib \mid I0 \mid I1$

Checklist:

- G has no ϵ -productions ✓
- G has no unit productions ✓
- G has no useless symbols ✓
- But...
 - the normal form for productions is violated

→ So, the grammar is not in CNF



Practice

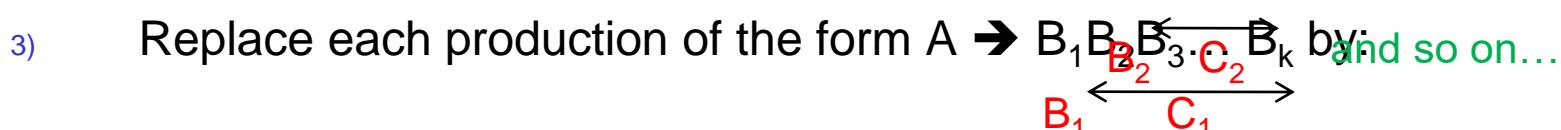
$S \rightarrow AB$

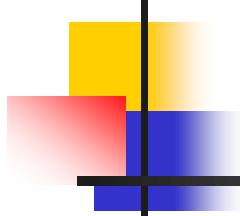
$S \rightarrow C$

$A \rightarrow a$

$B \rightarrow b$

How to convert a G into CNF?

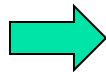
- Assumption: G has no ϵ -productions, unit productions or useless symbols
 - If there is, just do simplify.
- 1) For every terminal a that appears in the body of a production:
- i. create a unique variable, say X_a , with a production $X_a \rightarrow a$, and
 - ii. replace all other instances of a in G by X_a
- 2) Now, all productions will be in one of the following two forms:
- $A \rightarrow B_1B_2\dots B_k \ (k \geq 3)$ or $A \rightarrow a$
- 3) Replace each production of the form $A \rightarrow B_1B_2\dots B_k$ by:

- $A \rightarrow B_1C_1 \quad C_1 \rightarrow B_2C_2 \dots \quad C_{k-3} \rightarrow B_{k-2}C_{k-2} \quad C_{k-2} \rightarrow B_{k-1}B_k$



Example #1

G:

$S \Rightarrow AS \mid BABC$
 $A \Rightarrow A1 \mid 0A1 \mid 01$
 $B \Rightarrow 0B \mid 0$
 $C \Rightarrow 1C \mid 1$



G in CNF:

$X_0 \Rightarrow 0$
 $X_1 \Rightarrow 1$
 $S \Rightarrow AS \mid BY_1$
 $Y_1 \Rightarrow AY_2$
 $Y_2 \Rightarrow BC$
 $A \Rightarrow AX_1 \mid X_0Y_3 \mid X_0X_1$
 $Y_3 \Rightarrow AX_1$
 $B \Rightarrow X_0B \mid 0$
 $C \Rightarrow X_1C \mid 1$

All productions are of the form: $A \Rightarrow BC$ or $A \Rightarrow a$

Example #2 (HomeWork)

G:

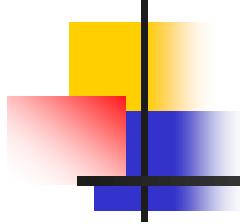
1. $E \rightarrow E+T \mid T^*F \mid (E) \mid I_a \mid I_b \mid I_0 \mid I_1$
2. $T \rightarrow T^*F \mid (E) \mid I_a \mid I_b \mid I_0 \mid I_1$
3. $F \rightarrow (E) \mid I_a \mid I_b \mid I_0 \mid I_1$
4. $I \rightarrow a \mid b \mid I_a \mid I_b \mid I_0 \mid I_1$

Step (1)

1. $E \rightarrow EX_+T \mid TX_*F \mid X(EX) \mid IX_a \mid IX_b \mid IX_0 \mid IX_1$
2. $T \rightarrow TX_*F \mid X(EX) \mid IX_a \mid IX_b \mid IX_0 \mid IX_1$
3. $F \rightarrow X(EX) \mid IX_a \mid IX_b \mid IX_0 \mid IX_1$
4. $I \rightarrow X_a \mid X_b \mid IX_a \mid IX_b \mid IX_0 \mid IX_1$
5. $X_+ \rightarrow +$
6. $X_* \rightarrow *$
7. $X_+ \rightarrow +$
8. $X(\rightarrow ($
9.

Step (2)

1. $E \rightarrow EC_1 \mid TC_2 \mid X(C_3) \mid IX_a \mid IX_b \mid IX_0 \mid IX_1$
2. $C_1 \rightarrow X_+T$
3. $C_2 \rightarrow X_*F$
4. $C_3 \rightarrow EX)$
5. $T \rightarrow$
6.

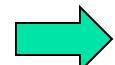


Languages with ϵ

- For languages that include ϵ ,
 - Write down the rest of grammar in CNF
 - Then add production “ $S \Rightarrow \epsilon$ ” at the end

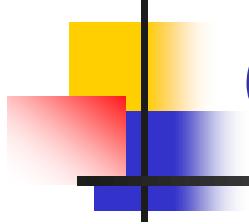
E.g., consider:

G:

$$\begin{aligned} S &\Rightarrow AS \mid BABC \\ A &\Rightarrow A1 \mid 0A1 \mid 01 \mid \epsilon \\ B &\Rightarrow 0B \mid 0 \mid \epsilon \\ C &\Rightarrow 1C \mid 1 \mid \epsilon \end{aligned}$$


G in CNF:

$$\begin{aligned} X_0 &\Rightarrow 0 \\ X_1 &\Rightarrow 1 \\ S &\Rightarrow AS \mid BY_1 \mid \epsilon \\ Y_1 &\Rightarrow AY_2 \\ Y_2 &\Rightarrow BC \\ A &\Rightarrow AX_1 \mid X_0Y_3 \mid X_0X_1 \\ Y_3 &\Rightarrow AX_1 \\ B &\Rightarrow X_0B \mid 0 \\ C &\Rightarrow X_1C \mid 1 \end{aligned}$$



Other Normal Forms

- Griebach Normal Form (GNF)

- All productions of the form

$A \Rightarrow a \alpha$, where a is a terminal, i.e. $a \in T^*$ and α is a string of zero or more variables. i.e. $\alpha \in V^*$

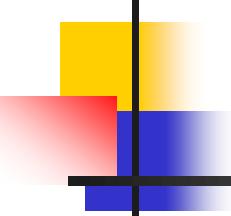
So we can rewrite as:

$A \rightarrow aV^*$ with $a \in T^*$

Or,

$A \rightarrow aV^+$

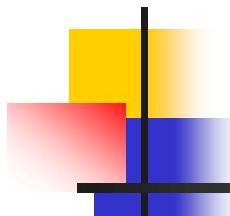
$A \rightarrow a$ with $a \in T$



Eliminating Left Recursion

- A grammar is said to be *left recursive* if it has a non-terminal A such that there is a derivation $A \rightarrow A\alpha$ for some string α .
- Top-down parsing methods cannot handle left-recursive grammars. Hence, left recursion can be eliminated as follows:
- If there is a production $A \rightarrow A\alpha \mid \beta$ it can be replaced with a sequence
$$A \rightarrow \beta A'$$
$$A' \rightarrow \alpha A' \mid \epsilon$$

without changing the set of strings derivable from A .



Immediate Left - Recursion

$$A \rightarrow A\alpha \mid \beta$$



Eliminate immediate left recursion

$$A \rightarrow \beta A'$$

$$A' \rightarrow aA' \mid \epsilon$$

In general,

$$A \rightarrow A \alpha_1 \mid \dots \mid A \alpha_m \mid \beta_1 \mid \dots \mid \beta_n \quad \text{where } \beta_1 \dots \beta_n \text{ do not start with } A$$

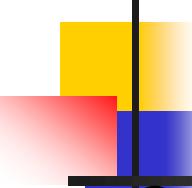


eliminate immediate left recursion

$$A \rightarrow \beta_1 A' \mid \dots \mid \beta_n A'$$

$$A' \rightarrow \alpha_1 A' \mid \dots \mid \alpha_m A' \mid \epsilon$$

an equivalent grammar



Example :

- Consider the following grammar for arithmetic expressions:

$$E \rightarrow E + T \mid T$$

$$T \rightarrow T^* F \mid F$$

$$F \rightarrow (E) \mid id$$

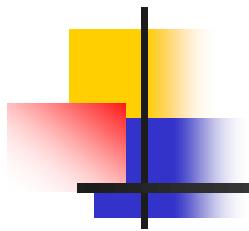
- First eliminate the left recursion for E as

$$E \rightarrow TE'$$

$$E' \rightarrow +TE' \mid \epsilon$$

- Then eliminate for T as

$$T \rightarrow FT' \quad T' \rightarrow *FT' \mid \epsilon$$



Thus the obtained grammar after eliminating left recursion is

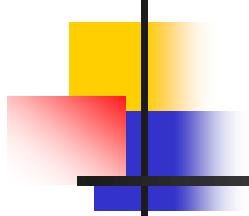
$$E \rightarrow TE'$$

$$E' \rightarrow +TE' \mid \epsilon$$

$$T \rightarrow FT'$$

$$T' \rightarrow *FT' \mid \epsilon$$

$$F \rightarrow (E) \mid id$$



Non-Immediate Left-Recursion

- By just eliminating the immediate left-recursion, we may not get a grammar which is not left recursive.

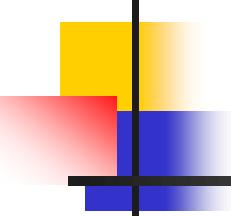
$S \rightarrow Aa \mid b$

$A \rightarrow Sc \mid d$ This grammar is not immediately left-recursive,
but it is still left-recursive.

S $\Rightarrow Aa \Rightarrow \underline{S}ca$ or

A $\Rightarrow Sc \Rightarrow \underline{A}ac$ causes to a left-recursion

So, we have to eliminate all left-recursions from our grammar



CFG to GNF Steps

- **Step 1: Convert the grammar into CNF.**

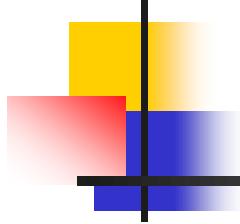
If the given grammar is not in CNF, convert it into CNF. You can refer the following topic to convert the CFG into CNF: Chomsky normal form

- **Step 2: If the grammar exists left recursion, eliminate it.**

If the context free grammar contains left recursion, eliminate it. You can refer the following topic to eliminate left recursion: Left Recursion

- **Step 3: In the grammar, convert the given production rule into GNF form.**

If any production rule in the grammar is not in GNF form, convert it.



Example

1. $S \rightarrow XB \mid AA$

2. $A \rightarrow a \mid SA$

As the given grammar G is already in CNF and there is no left recursion, so we can skip step 1 and step 2 and directly go to step 3.

3. $B \rightarrow b$

4. $X \rightarrow a$

- The production rule $A \rightarrow SA$ is not in GNF, so we substitute $S \rightarrow XB \mid AA$ in the production rule $A \rightarrow SA$ as:
 1. $S \rightarrow XB \mid AA$
 2. $A \rightarrow a \mid XBA \mid AAA$
 3. $B \rightarrow b$
 4. $X \rightarrow a$

- The production rule $S \rightarrow XB$ and $B \rightarrow XBA$ is not in GNF, so we substitute $X \rightarrow a$ in the production rule $S \rightarrow XB$ and $B \rightarrow XBA$ as:

$S \rightarrow aB \mid AA$

$A \rightarrow a \mid aBA \mid AAA$

$B \rightarrow b$

$X \rightarrow a$



■ Now we will remove left recursion
 $(A \rightarrow AAA)$, we get:

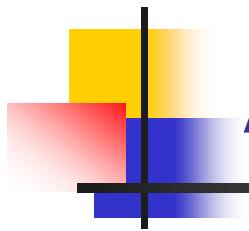
1. $S \rightarrow aB \mid AA$
2. $A \rightarrow aC \mid aBAC$
3. $C \rightarrow AAC \mid \epsilon$
4. $B \rightarrow b$
5. $X \rightarrow a$

- Now we will remove null production $C \rightarrow \epsilon$, we get:

1. $S \rightarrow aB \mid AA$
2. $A \rightarrow aC \mid aBAC \mid a \mid aBA$
3. $C \rightarrow AAC \mid AA$
4. $B \rightarrow b$
5. $X \rightarrow a$

- The production rule $S \rightarrow AA$ is not in GNF, so we substitute $A \rightarrow aC | aBAC | a | aBA$ in production rule $S \rightarrow AA$ as:
 1. $S \rightarrow aB | aCA | aBACA | aA | aBAA$
 2. $A \rightarrow aC | aBAC | a | aBA$
 3. $C \rightarrow AAC$
 4. $C \rightarrow aCA | aBACA | aA | aBAA$
 5. $B \rightarrow b$
 6. $X \rightarrow a$

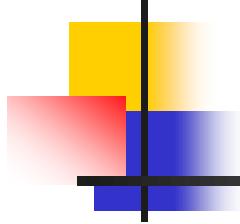
- The production rule $C \rightarrow AAC$ is not in GNF, so we substitute $A \rightarrow aC \mid aBAC \mid a \mid aBA$ in production rule $C \rightarrow AAC$ as:
 1. $S \rightarrow aB \mid aCA \mid aBACA \mid aA \mid aBAA$
 2. $A \rightarrow aC \mid aBAC \mid a \mid aBA$
 3. $C \rightarrow aCAC \mid aBACAC \mid aAC \mid aBAAC$
 4. $C \rightarrow aCA \mid aBACA \mid aA \mid aBAA$
 5. $B \rightarrow b$
 6. $X \rightarrow a$



Assignment (CFG to GNF)

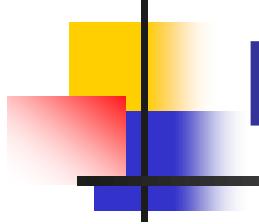
- $S \rightarrow AB$

$$A \rightarrow BS|b$$
$$B \rightarrow SA|a$$



Bakus Naur Form

- Notation Technique used for CFG
- Used for Specifying language Syntax
- $\langle \text{Symbol} \rangle := \text{exp1} \mid \text{exp2} \mid \text{exp3} \dots$



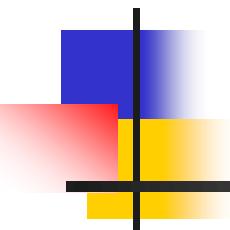
BNF: Example

```
(2.0 * PI) / n

<expression> ::= <expression> + <term>
                | <expression> - <term>
                | <term>

<term>       ::= <term> * <factor>
                | <term> / <factor>
                | <factor>

<factor>     ::= number
                | name
                | ( <expression> )
```



Return of the Pumping Lemma !!

Think of languages that cannot be CFL

== think of languages for which a stack will not be enough

e.g., the language of strings of the form ww