# UNIT-3. CONTEXT FREE GRAMMARS(CFG) AND LANGUAGES(CFL)

#### Topics to be covered:

Context Free Grammars and Languages: Context free Grammars, Parse Tree, Applications of Context free Grammars, Ambiguity in the grammars and Languages. Normal Forms for Context free Grammar

#### Upon completion you will be able to

- Explain the concepts of Context free grammars and its Applications.
- Write the context free grammars for languages.
- Demonstrate the ambiguity in the context free grammars.
- Explain the Normal forms for Context Free grammars

# **CONTEXT FREE GRAMMARS(CFG) AND LANGUAGES(CFL)**

#### 1. Context Free Grammars

- 1.1. Introduction and Formal Defination
- 1.2. Notational Conventions
- 1.3. Derivations and Parse Tree.
  - 1.3.1. Language of a Grammar
  - 1.3.2. Sentential Forms
  - 1.3.3. Parse Tree
  - 1.3.4. Examples on derivations and Parse tree
- •1.4. Building Context free grammars for the Languages.
- •1.5. Ambiguity in Grammar with Examples
- •1.6. Applications of Context Free Grammars

#### 2. Normal forms for Grammars

- 2.1. Introduction
- 2.2. Eliminating **E-Productions**
- 2.3. Eliminating Unit productions
- 2.4. Eliminating Useless Productions.
- 2.5. Chmosky Normal Forms CNF

### 1. Context Free Grammar

#### 1.1. Introduction and Formal Defination

- Up till now we studied the langauges, known as class of regular languages, that are very basic and primitives in nature. These languages are described by using the mechanism called Regular expressions and are being recognized by a finite automata (DFA).
- Also, With reference to the discussion from Pumping lemma, we know that there are certain languages which are NON Regular and these languages are large class of languages called Context free Languages.
- These languages are very important and have very complex structure that involves recursive definiations.
- In order to describe these langauges, we have a very powerful mechanism called the Grammar and to recognize these languages we have a Automata called Push down Automata.
- The Grammar usually describes the structure of a sentence/construct by imposing the a heirachical structure.

- For example a grammar for the english language describes whether the perticular sentence is well formed or not.
- In otherwords, a heirachical structure of a simple sentence may be described as follows
- A Simple <Sentence> is composed of :
  - < Noun phrase > followed by < Predicate >.
  - A < Noun phrase > is made up of
    - <Article > followed by <Noun>
  - and Finally < Predicate > is composed of
    - < Verb >.
- if we associate the actual words like, "a", and "the" with <Article>, "boy" and "dog" with < Noun > and "runs" and "walks " with <Verbs> then the grammar tells the sentence " a boy runs" and "the dog walks" are well formed or not.

- The hierchical structure of the above sentence can be described by Backus Naur Form - BNF notation as follows:
  - Sentence > → < NounPhrase > < Predicate >
  - < NounPhrase > → < Article > < Noun >
  - < Predicate> → < Verb >
  - < Article > → a | the |.....
  - < Noun > → boy | dog |.....
  - < Verb > → runs | walks |.....
- In the above notation, the symbols in angular brackets are called syntactic variables or Non-terminals namely, < Sentence >, < NounPhrase > < Predicate >.
- And the symbols without angular brackets are called Terminals or Tokens( primitives) namely, a, the, boy, dog, runs, walks,.....
- The statements of the form :< Sentence > → < NounPhrase > < Predicate > are called production rules

## **Formal Defination Grammar**

As discussed about the grammar, we know that the grammar is notation to describe the structure of a sentence and Formally it can be defined as follows:

A grammar **G** is defined as a Quadraple

$$G = \{ V, T, S, P \}$$

Where

V is a Finite set of Variables or Non-terminals

→They denote the set of strings that forms the language

T is a Finite set of Terminal or Tokens

- → These are the basic symbols from which the strings are formed
  S € V is a special Symbol called the start symbol
- → This symbol is used to genarate the sentence of a langauge P is a finite set of Productions.
  - → These are nothing but the rules to specify the manner in which the Terminals and Non Terminals can be combined to form strings

Each production rule is of the following form:

```
<HEAD> → <BODY> it can read as head derives body
Here <HEAD> → is a Non-terminal or the left side of a production
and <BODY> → is a right side of a production consisting of zero or
more terminals and Non-terminals
```

```
Example -1: G = \{ V, T, S, P \}
                                                     Example -2: G = \{ V, T, S, P \}
       where V = \{E\}
                                                                          where V = \{ S, A \}
                T = \{ +, -, *, /, (, ), id, digit \}
                                                                                    T = \{ a, b \}
                                                                                    S = \{S\}
                S = \{E\}
                P = \{ E \rightarrow E + E \}
                                                                                    P = \{ S \rightarrow AS \mid \mathcal{E} \}
                                                                                           A \rightarrow aa \mid ab \mid ba \mid bb
```

#### 1.2. Notational Conventions

#### Notation for CFG Derivations

There are a number of conventions in common use that help us remember the role of the symbols we use when discussing CFG's. Here are the conventions we shall use:

- Lower-case letters near the beginning of the alphabet, a, b, and so on, are terminal symbols. We shall also assume that digits and other characters such as + or parentheses are terminals.
- Upper-case letters near the beginning of the alphabet, A, B, and so on, are variables.
- 3. Lower-case letters near the end of the alphabet, such as w or z, are strings of terminals. This convention reminds us that the terminals are analogous to the input symbols of an automaton.
- Upper-case letters near the end of the alphabet, such as X or Y, are either terminals or variables.
- 5. Lower-case Greek letters, such as  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ , are strings consisting of terminals and/or variables.

There is no special notation for strings that consist of variables only, since this concept plays no important role. However, a string named  $\alpha$  or another Greek letter might happen to have only variables.

#### 1.3. Derivations and Parse Tree

- In order to define the langauge assicaited with Grammar G we apply the productions rules to infer that certain strings are in the language.
- There are two approaches:
  - Approach -1 → This is more conventional approach where the production rules used from body to head. That is, we take strings known to be in the language of each of the variables of the body of production, concatenate them in the proper order, with any terminals appearing in the body, and infer that the resulting strings is in the language of the varibale in the head. This is called recursive inference.

#### 1.3. Derivations and Parse Tree

Approach -2 → In this approach we use the productions from head to body. We expand the Start Symbol using one of its productions. We further expand the resulting string by replacing one of the variables by the body of one of the productions, and so on, until we derive a string consisting entirely of terminals. The language of the grammar is all strings of teminals, that we can obtain in this way.

This is called as derivation process.

Example → Consider the grammar with following Productions :

$$E \rightarrow E + E \mid E - E$$
  
 $E \rightarrow (E)$   
 $E \rightarrow E * E \mid E / E$   
 $E \rightarrow - E$   
 $E \rightarrow id \mid digit$ 

- Let w = id + id, and Consider the derivation step E ⇒ E+E, which is
  the initial step of expansion of start symbol → E
  - Since, E+E derives from E
    - we can replace E by E+E to get a string E+E in the derivation step.
      - i.e. **E** ⇒ **E**+**E**
    - to able to do this, we have to have a production rule E→E+E in our grammar.
  - This is then continued until we derive a string consisting entirely of terminals.
    - In oherwords, in the next derivation step, We can replace id by
       E as we have a production rule E→id to get a string id + E. .
      - i. e. **E** ⇒ **E**+**E** ⇒ **id**+**E**
    - Finally, we can replace id by E again to get a string-id+id, consisting of eniterly of terminals to end the derivation Process.
      - i. e.  $E \Rightarrow E+E \Rightarrow id+E \Rightarrow id+id$

- Beginning with Start Non-terminal, we identify the sequence of replacements for non-terminal symbols, until we derive a string consisting entirely of terminals is called a derivation of string id+id from E.
- In general,  $\alpha A\beta \Rightarrow \alpha \gamma \beta$  is a derivation step, where  $A \rightarrow \gamma$  is a production in our grammar and  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are arbitrary strings of terminal and non-terminal symbols.
- In the derivation process, we have the choices of replacements of Non-terminal symbols and to restrict the number of choices there are two types of derivations namely, Leftmost Derivation and Rightmost Derivation.
  - Leftmost Derivation: A derivation is said to be Leftmost derivation if, at each step the replacements are done by considering LEFTMOST non-terminal.
  - We indicate Leftmost derivation by a symbol → ⇒

- Rightmost Derivation : A derivation is said to be Rightmost derivation if, at each step the replacements are done by considering **RIGHTMOST** non-terminal.
- We indicate the Rightmost derivation by a symbol → ⇒

#### Example

1. 
$$E \rightarrow I$$
2.  $E \rightarrow E+E$ 
3.  $E \rightarrow E*E$ 
4.  $E \rightarrow (E)$ 
5.  $I \rightarrow a$ 
6.  $I \rightarrow b$ 
7.  $I \rightarrow Ia$ 
8.  $I \rightarrow Ib$ 
9.  $I \rightarrow I0$ 
10.  $I \rightarrow I1$ 
Context-free grammar for simple expressions

Leftmost Derivation For the Input  $\rightarrow a*(a+b00)$ 
 $E \Rightarrow E*E \Rightarrow I*E \Rightarrow a*E \Rightarrow im$ 
 $a*(E) \Rightarrow a*(E+E) \Rightarrow a*(E+E) \Rightarrow a*(a+E) \Rightarrow im$ 
 $a*(a+I) \Rightarrow a*(a+I0) \Rightarrow a*(a+I00) \Rightarrow a*(a+b00)$ 
 $E \Rightarrow E*E \Rightarrow E*(E) \Rightarrow E*(E+E) \Rightarrow im$ 
 $E \Rightarrow E*E \Rightarrow E*(E) \Rightarrow E*(E+E) \Rightarrow im$ 
 $E \Rightarrow E*E \Rightarrow E*(E) \Rightarrow E*(E+E) \Rightarrow im$ 
 $E \Rightarrow E*E \Rightarrow E*(E) \Rightarrow E*(E+E) \Rightarrow im$ 
 $E \Rightarrow E*E \Rightarrow E*(E) \Rightarrow E*(E+E) \Rightarrow im$ 
 $E \Rightarrow E*E \Rightarrow E*E \Rightarrow E*(E+E) \Rightarrow im$ 
 $E \Rightarrow E*E \Rightarrow E*E \Rightarrow E*(E+E) \Rightarrow im$ 
 $E \Rightarrow E*E \Rightarrow E*E \Rightarrow E*(E+E) \Rightarrow im$ 
 $E \Rightarrow E*E \Rightarrow E*E$ 

Figure 5.2: A context-free grammar for simple expressions

# 1.3.1 Language of a Grammar

# 5.1.5 The Language of a Grammar

If G(V, T, P, S) is a CFG, the language of G, denoted L(G), is the set of terminal strings that have derivations from the start symbol. That is,

$$L(G) = \{ w \text{ in } T^{\bullet} \mid S \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} w \}$$

## 1.3.2 Sentential Form

#### 5.1.6 Sentential Forms

Derivations from the start symbol produce strings that have a special role. We call these "sentential forms." That is, if G = (V, T, P, S) is a CFG, then any string  $\alpha$  in  $(V \cup T)^*$  such that  $S \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} \alpha$  is a sentential form. If  $S \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} \alpha$ , then  $\alpha$  is a left-sentential form, and if  $S \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} \alpha$ , then  $\alpha$  is a right-sentential form. Note that the language L(G) is those sentential forms that are in  $T^*$ ; i.e., they consist solely of terminals.

**Example 5.8:** Consider the grammar for expressions from Fig. 5.2. For example, E \* (I + E) is a scattential form, since there is a derivation

$$E\Rightarrow E*E\Rightarrow E*(E)\Rightarrow E*(E+E)\Rightarrow E*(I+E)$$

However this derivation is neither leftmost nor rightmost, since at the last step, the middle E is replaced.

As an example of a left-sentential form, consider a \* E, with the leftmost derivation

$$E \Rightarrow E * E \Rightarrow I * E \Rightarrow a * E$$

$$\lim_{lm} E * E \Rightarrow a * E$$

Additionally, the derivation

$$E \Rightarrow_{rm} E * E \Rightarrow_{rm} E * (E) \Rightarrow_{rm} E * (E + E)$$

shows that E\*(E+E) is a right-sentential form.  $\square$ 

## 1.3.3. Parse Tree

- Parse Tree is graphical representation of a derivation process which clearly shows how the symbols of a terminal strings are grouped into a substring belonging to a language.
- Formaly it is defined as follows:

Let us fix on a grammar G = (V, T, P, S). The parse trees for G are trees with the following conditions:

- 1. Each interior node is labeled by a variable in V.
- 2. Each leaf is labeled by either a variable, a terminal, or  $\epsilon$ . However, if the leaf is labeled  $\epsilon$ , then it must be the only child of its parent.
- 3. If an interior node is labeled A, and its children are labeled

$$X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_k$$

respectively, from the left, then  $A \to X_1 X_2 \cdots X_k$  is a production in P. Note that the only time one of the X's can be  $\epsilon$  is if that is the label of the only child, and  $A \to \epsilon$  is a production of G.

# Example of Parse Tree on input string - $\rightarrow$ a\*(a+h00)

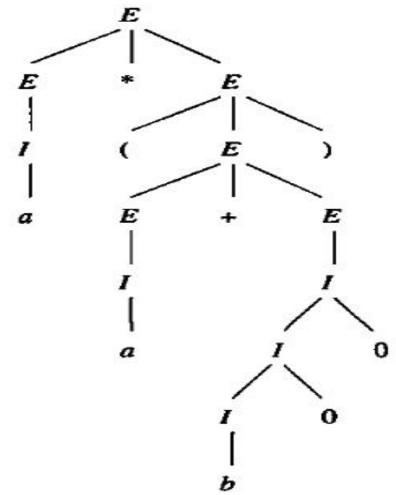


Figure 5.6: Parse tree showing a \* (a + b00) is in the language of our expression grammar

# 1.3.4. Examples on Derivations and Parse Tree

#### **Example -1**

Consider the grammar  $G = \{ \{S, A, B\}, \{a, b\}, \{S\}, P \}$ 

$$P - \{S \rightarrow bA \mid aB \\ A \rightarrow bAA \mid aS \mid a \\ B \rightarrow aBB \mid bS \mid b$$

Write leftmost and rightmost derivation for the following sentences along with Parse tree.

#### i. bbaaba ii. bbbaaaba

# $P - \{ S \rightarrow b A \mid a B \}$ i) bbaaba $A \rightarrow b A A \mid a S \mid a$ $B \rightarrow a B B \mid b S \mid b$ S b S a a a

ii) bbbaaaba (Home Work)

#### **Leftmost Derivation**

$$S \Rightarrow bA$$

$$\Rightarrow bb\underline{A}A$$

$$\Rightarrow bba\underline{S}A$$

$$\Rightarrow bbaa\underline{B}A$$

$$\Rightarrow bbaabA$$

$$\Rightarrow bbaaba$$

#### Rightmost derivation

$$S \Rightarrow b\underline{A}$$

$$\Rightarrow bb\underline{A}\underline{A}$$

$$\Rightarrow bb\underline{A}\underline{A}$$

$$\Rightarrow bb\underline{A}\underline{A}$$

$$\Rightarrow bb\underline{A}\underline{A}$$

$$\Rightarrow bb\underline{A}\underline{B}\underline{A}$$

$$\Rightarrow bb\underline{A}\underline{B}\underline{A}$$

$$\Rightarrow bb\underline{A}\underline{B}\underline{A}$$

Fig. 3.5 Parse Tree for the string bbaaba

b

#### **Example -2**

Exercise 5.4.7: The following grammar generates prefix expressions with operands x and y and binary operators +, -, and \*:

$$E \rightarrow +EE \mid *EE \mid -EE \mid x \mid y$$

a) Find leftmost and rightmost derivations, and a derivation tree for the string +\*-xyxy.

#### Example -3

$$\begin{array}{ccc} S & \rightarrow & A1B \\ A & \rightarrow & 0.4 \mid \epsilon \\ B & \rightarrow & 0B \mid 1B \mid \epsilon \end{array}$$

Give leftmost and rightmost derivations of the following strings:

- \* a) 00101.
  - b) 1001.
  - c) 00011.

#### **Example -4**

$$S \rightarrow AS \mid \varepsilon$$
  
 $A \rightarrow aa \mid ab \mid ba \mid bb$ 

Give Leftmost and rightmost derivations and a parse tree for following Srings i. aabbba ii. baabab iii. aaabbb

#### **Example -5**

$$S \rightarrow aAS \mid a$$
  
 $A \rightarrow SbA \mid ba$ 

Give Leftmost and rightmost derivations and Parse tree for following Srings - aabbba

#### **Example -6**

$$S \rightarrow AaAb \mid BbBa$$
  
 $A \rightarrow aAb \mid bAB \mid d$   
 $B \rightarrow aB \mid bB \mid a$ 

Give Leftmost and Rightmost derivations and Parse Tree for following Srings

i. aabbba ii. badbabaadb

#### **Example -7**

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

$$T \rightarrow TF* \mid F$$

$$F \rightarrow FP \uparrow \mid P$$

$$P \rightarrow E \mid id$$

Give Leftmost and Rightmost derivations and Parse Tree for following Srings

- In order to learn the writing of context free grammars, We can start with following easiest steps:
  - A. Building Context free grammar for Regular Languages
    - i. Context free grammar from finite automata.
    - ii. From Regular Expressions
  - B. Building Context free grammar for Other Languages

i. Context free grammar from finite automata.

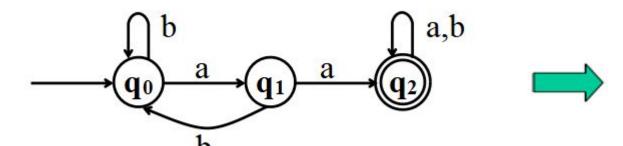
```
Method: Let M = { Q, ∑, δ, q0, F} be a DFA accepting the language L. The Grammar G = {V, T, S, P} can be constructed as follows:
```

 $V = \{ q0, q1...qn \} \rightarrow$  The states of DFA will be Non-Terminals  $T = \{ \sum \} \rightarrow$  The inputs are the Terminal Symbols.  $S = q0 \rightarrow$  The start state of DFA will be the Start Symbol P = The productions can obtained as follows:

If  $\delta(qi, a) = qj$  then introduce the productions as -  $qi \rightarrow aqj$  if  $qi \in F$  then introduce the productions as -  $qi \rightarrow \epsilon$ 

# **Examples:**

# Example -1



P { Refer Following table }

δ→Transitions	Productiuons
$\delta(q_0 a) = q_1$	$q_0 \rightarrow aq_1$
$\delta(q_0, b) = q_0$	$q_0 \rightarrow bq_0$
$\delta(q_1, a) = q_2$	$q_1 \rightarrow aq_2$
$\delta(q_1, b) = q_0$	$q_1 \rightarrow bq_0$
$\delta(q_2, a) = q_2$	$q_2 \rightarrow aq_2$
$\delta(q_2, b) = q_2$	$q_2 \rightarrow bq_2$
q <sub>2</sub> € F	$q_2 \rightarrow \epsilon$

ii. Context free grammar from Regular Expressions

Method: The grammar can obtained by breaking the given regular expression into smaller one and introducing the new variables and associated productions for the smaller Regular expressions.

expressions.

```
Example - 1. Regular Expression = a^*

Productions S \to aS

Example - 2. Regular Expression = ab(a + b)^*

Productions S \to S_1S_2

S_1 \to ab

S_2 \to aS_2 \mid bS_2 \mid \epsilon
```

i. Obtain a grammar to genarate the following Languages

```
1. L = \{a^n b^n | n \ge 0\}
 2. L = \{a^{n+1} b^n | n \ge 0\}
 3. L = { a^n b^{n+1} | n>= 0 }
 4. L = \{a^{2n} b^n | n \ge 0\}
 5. L = \{a^n b^{2n} | n>= 0\}
 6. L = { ww^R | w \in (a+b)^* }
 7. L = { w | n_a(w) = n_b(w) and w \in (a+b)^* }
 8. L = { w | n_a(w) > n_b(w) and w \in (a+b)* }
 9. L = { w | n_a(w) < n_b(w) and w € (a+b)^* }
10. L = { 0^{m}1^{m} 2^{n} | m, n \ge 0 }
11. L = { a^n b^{n-3} | n>= 3 }
```

```
12. L = \{a^n b^{n+3} | n > = 0\}

13. L = \{a^i b^j c^k | j, k > = 0 \text{ and } i = j + k\}

14. L = \{a^i b^j c^k | i, k > = 0 \text{ and } j = i + k\}

15. L = \{a^n b^m c^k | m, n > = 0 \text{ and } n + 2m = k\}

16. L = \{a^m b^n | m > n, m, n > = 0\}

17. L = \{a^m b^n | m < n, m, n > = 0\}

18. L = \{a^m b^n | m < n, m, n > = 0\}

19. L = \{a^n ww^R b^n | n > = 0, w \in (a + b)^*\}
```

i. Obtain a grammar to genarate the following Languages

```
1. L = \{a^n b^n | n \ge 0\}
 Answer = S \rightarrow a S b \epsilon
2. L = \{a^{n+1} b^n | n \ge 0\}
Answer = S \rightarrow a S b \mid a
3. L = \{a^n b^{n+1} | n>= 0\}
Answer = S \rightarrow a S b b
4. L = \{a^{2n} b^n | n \ge 0\}
 Answer = S \rightarrow aa S b \mid \epsilon
5. L = \{a^n b^{2n} | n \ge 0\}
 Answer = S \rightarrow a S bb \mid \epsilon
```

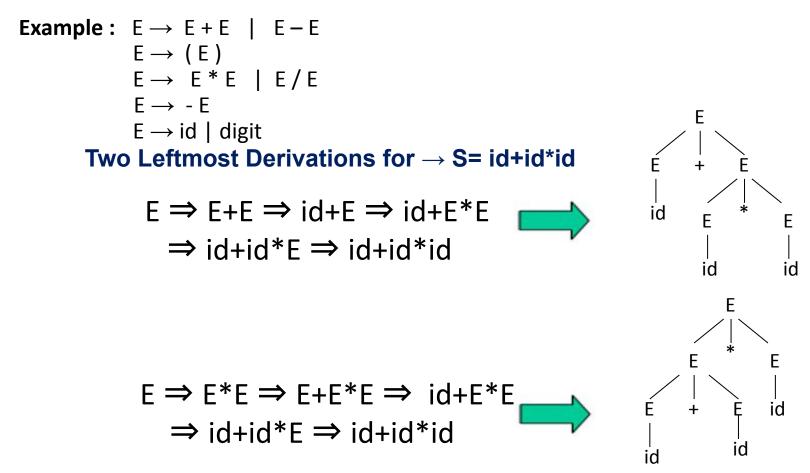
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6. L = { ww^R | w \in (a+b)^* }
        Answer = S \rightarrow a S a \mid b S b \mid a \mid b \mid \epsilon
7. L = { w | n_a(w) = n_b(w) and w \in (a+b)* }
        Answer = S \rightarrow a S b \mid b S a \mid \varepsilon
8. L = { w | n_a(w) > n_b(w) and w \in (a+b)* }
        Answer = S \rightarrow a S_1 b \mid b S_1 a \mid S_1
                         S_1 \rightarrow a \mid a \mid S_1
9. L = { w | n_a(w) < n_b(w) and w \in (a+b)* }
        Answer = S \rightarrow a S_1 b \mid b S_1 a \mid S_1
                         S_1 \rightarrow b \mid b \mid S_1
10. L = { 0^{m}1^{m} 2^{n} | m, n>= 0 }
        Answer = S \rightarrow S_1 S_2
                         S_1 \rightarrow 0 S_1 1 \mid \epsilon
                         S_2 \rightarrow 2 S_2 \mid \varepsilon
```

```
11. L = { a^n b^{n-3} | n>= 3 }
      Answer = S \rightarrow a S b aaa
12. L = \{a^n b^{n+3} | n>= 0\}
      Answer = S \rightarrow a S b | bbb
13. L = \{a^i b^j c^k | j, k >= 0 \text{ and } i=j+k \}
      Answer = Since i = j+k
                      L = \{ a^{j+k} b^j c^k \}
                      L = \{ a^j a^k b^j c^k \}
                      L = a^k a^j b^j c^k
                      S \rightarrow a S c \mid S_1
                      S_1 \rightarrow a S_1 b \mid \epsilon
14. L = \{a^i b^j c^k | i, k >= 0 \text{ and } j=i+k \}
15. L = \{a^n b^m c^k | m, n >= 0 \text{ and } n+2m=k \}
```

```
16. L = { a<sup>m</sup> b<sup>n</sup>| m > n, m, n >=0 }
17. L = { a<sup>m</sup> b<sup>n</sup>| m < n, m, n >=0 }
18. L = { a<sup>m</sup> b<sup>n</sup>| m <> n, m, n >=0 }
```

# 1.5. Ambiguity in the Grammar

 A grammar produces more than one parse tree for a sentence is called as an Ambiguous Grammar. In other words there exists more than one leftmost or more than one rightmost derrivations for some sentence S.



## **Example: Consider the following grammar**

$$A \rightarrow BC \mid aaC$$
 $B \rightarrow a \mid Ba$ 
 $C \rightarrow b$ 

#### Prove that the grammar is ambiguous

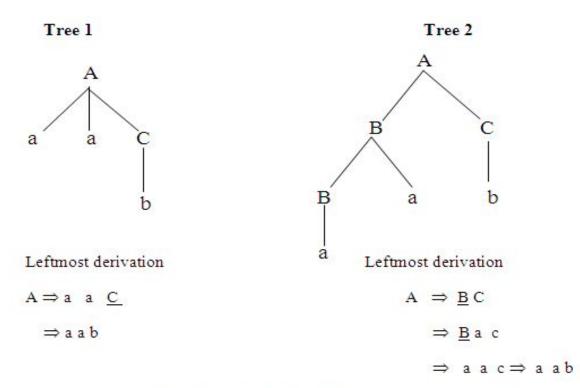


Fig. 3.20 Two leftmost derivation for string a a b

Syntax Analyser -l 33

### **Examples on Ambiguity**

Example - 1: 
$$S \rightarrow AS$$
 | aaa  
 $A \rightarrow a$  |  $Aa$   
 $B \rightarrow a$   
Example - 2:  $S \rightarrow aS$  |  $X$ 

Example - 7 
$$S \rightarrow aB \mid bA$$
  
 $A \rightarrow aS \mid bAA \mid a$   
 $B \rightarrow bS \mid aBB \mid b$   
 $w = aaabbabbba$ 

Example - 3 : 
$$S \rightarrow aSbS \mid bSaS \mid \epsilon$$

Example - 4: 
$$S \rightarrow SS$$
 aSb | bSa |  $\epsilon$ 

 $X \rightarrow aX$  a

Example - 5: 
$$S \rightarrow AB \mid aaB$$
  
 $A \rightarrow a \mid Aa$   
 $B \rightarrow b$   
Example - 6:  $S \rightarrow aS \mid aSbS \mid \epsilon$ 

#### 5.4.4 Inherent Ambiguity

A context-free language L is said to be inherently ambiguous if all its grammars are ambiguous. If even one grammar for L is unambiguous, then L is an unambiguous language. We saw, for example, that the language of expressions generated by the grammar of Fig. 5.2 is actually unambiguous. Even though that grammar is ambiguous, there is another grammar for the same language that is unambiguous — the grammar of Fig. 5.19.

We shall not prove that there are inherently ambiguous languages. Rather we shall discuss one example of a language that can be proved inherently ambiguous, and we shall explain intuitively why every grammar for the language must be ambiguous. The language L in question is:

$$L = \{a^n b^n c^m d^m \mid n \ge 1, m \ge 1\} \cup \{a^n b^m c^m d^n \mid n \ge 1, m \ge 1\}$$

$$\begin{array}{ccc} S & \rightarrow & AB \mid C \\ A & \rightarrow & aAb \mid ab \\ B & \rightarrow & cBd \mid cd \\ C & \rightarrow & aCd \mid aDd \\ D & \rightarrow & bDc \mid bc \end{array}$$

Figure 5.22: A grammar for an inherently ambiguous language

This grammar is ambiguous. For example, the string aabbccdd has the two leftmost derivations:

1. 
$$S \Rightarrow_{lm} AB \Rightarrow_{lm} aAbB \Rightarrow_{lm} aabbB \Rightarrow_{lm} aabbcBd \Rightarrow_{lm} aabbccdd$$

2. 
$$S \Rightarrow C \Rightarrow aCd \Rightarrow aaDdd \Rightarrow aabDcdd \Rightarrow aabbccdd$$

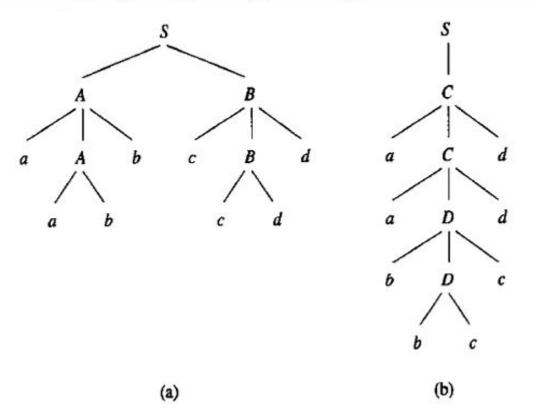


Figure 5.23: Two parse trees for aabbccdd

# 1.6. Applications of Comtext free grammar

#### •Parsers:

The Parsers are nothing but the program modules written for the Compiler that discovers the structure of source program and represents it in a Parse tree. The Context free grammars are used in describing the structure of source program for many programming languages.

#### The YACC Parser Generator :

YACC Parser Genarator is a special tool on UNIX platform that uses Context free grammars as a part of Rule section of YACC specifications along with actions to genarate the Parser program module for a typical Compiler.

# 1.6. Applications of Comtext free grammar

#### Markup Languages :

In the Markup language like HTML -HyperText Markup Language has two major functions: one is to create a link between documents and second is to describe the format of the document. The Context free grammars are used describe the structure of legal HTML documents and guides the processing of documents with respect the display of the document on a monitor or printer.

#### •XML and Document Type Definitions (DTD):

In the development XML -Extensible Markup Language, as a part of Document Type Definitions (DTD), the Context Free Grammars are used to describe the allowable tags and how these tags can be nested, where each tag is deals with formating of text and along with its meaningfullness.

### 2. Normal Forms of Context Free Grammar

#### 2.1. Introduction

- We know that Context Free Grammars are more powerful enough to describe the syntax of most of the programming languages.
- We also know that the languages that are described by the Context free grammars are called Context free languages.
- in order to take the advantage during the implementation of these context free langauges we ensure that the Conetxt free grammars are in one of the Normal froms where we impose certain restrictions in writing the productions for Context free grammar.
- There are Two types of normal forms for the context **free grammars**:
  - 1. Chomsky Normal Form CNF
  - 2. Greibach Normal Form GNF

- In Chomsky Normal form, all the productions are of the form :
   A→BC or A → a, where A, B, and C are all variables and a is
   terminal symbol
- In Greiback Normal Form all the productions are of the form :
   A→ax where A is a variable, a € T and x € V\*
- To get these normal forms for the grammmars, we need to make number of preliminary simplifications. Following are the simplications:
  - We must eliminate E-productions, those of the from A →E for some variable A
  - We must eliminate Unit-productions, those of the from A → B for some variables A and B.
  - 3. We must eliminate useless varibales, those variables that do not appear in any derivation and genarating a terminal string from the start symbol of the grammar.

## 2.2. Eliminating E-Productions

Let G=(V,T,S,P) be a context free grammar. A production of the form  $A \to \mathcal{E}$  for some  $A \in V$  is called  $\mathcal{E}$ -production.

A variable A is said to be Nuallable, if  $A \Rightarrow *\varepsilon$ , in zero or more derivation steps are posssible. i.e in every derivation step, we come across only ' $\varepsilon$  ' in the sentential form.

## 2.2. Eliminating E-Productions

- 1.We first find all **set V<sub>n</sub> of Nullable variables of G** using the following steps:
  - a. All productions of the form A→€ put A into V<sub>n</sub>
  - b. Repeat the following steps until no further variables are added to V<sub>n</sub>
    - For all productions A→B<sub>1</sub>,B<sub>2</sub>,B<sub>3</sub>....B<sub>n</sub> where B<sub>i</sub> € V<sub>n</sub> then add A to V<sub>n</sub>.
- 2. We then construct P1(new Production set) by looking at productions in P of the form  $A \rightarrow x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n$  for n>1, where  $x_i \in \text{to VUT}$  for each such production of P.
  - we put into P1 that productions as well as all those productions that are generated by replacing null able variables with E in all possible combinations.

#### Working with Example:

$$S \rightarrow ABA$$
  
 $A \rightarrow aA \mid E$ ,  
 $B \rightarrow bB \mid E$ 

Step -1. Finding Nullable Variables  $V_n$ :

V<sub>n</sub> = { A, B, S } → A, B are Nullable as they have ε- productions and S is Nullable as its production body contains all Nullable variables

Step -2. Remove all **E- productions** from given **grammar G** and add new productions by **replacing null able variables with E ie. NULL** in all possible combinations. The resulting grammar is follows:

$$S \rightarrow ABA \mid BA \mid AA \mid AB \mid A \mid B$$
  
 $A \rightarrow aA \mid a$   
 $B \rightarrow bB \mid b$ 

# Examples on Elimination of E-productions

```
S \rightarrow AB
Example -1
                                     A \rightarrow aAA \mid \epsilon
                                     B \rightarrow bBB \mid \epsilon
Example -2
                                            \rightarrow ASB \mid \epsilon
                                           \rightarrow aAS \mid a
                                          \rightarrow SbS | A | bb
                                          \rightarrow 0A0 \mid 1B1 \mid BB
Example -3
                                     B \rightarrow S \mid A
                                     C \rightarrow S \mid \epsilon
                                          \rightarrow 0A0 | 1B1 | BB
Example -4
                                    B \rightarrow S \mid A
```

## 2.3. Eliminating UNIT-Productions

Let G= { V, T, S, P} be a context -free -grammar.

A production of the form  $A \to B$  for some variable A and  $B \in V$  is called Unit production.

They can be eliminated using the following steps:

- 1. Add all Non unit productions to P1 where P1 is a new Production set.
- 2. For Each variable A find all variables such that A ⇒\*B is possible that is in the derivation process from A we encounter only single variables in the sentential form to B.( no other terminal symbols ). This is obtained by constructing the dependency graph for unit productions only.
- 3. By substitution to unit productions we add new productions to P1 for each variable that is if A⇒\*B is possible then add all non-unit productions of B to variable A.
- 4. Resulting grammar with P1 productions generates the same language as accepted by the original grammar G.

#### Working with Example:

$$S \rightarrow ABA \mid BA \mid AA \mid AB \mid A \mid B$$
  
 $A \rightarrow aA \mid a$   
 $B \rightarrow bB \mid b$ 

Step -1. The unit productions are S → A, S →B. Now List all Non Unit productions of Given grammar G

 $S \rightarrow ABA \mid BA \mid AA \mid AB$   $A \rightarrow aA \mid a$  $B \rightarrow bB \mid b$ 

Step -2. Write dependency graph for only UNIT - productions and for Each variable A find all variables such that A ⇒\*B is possible.

Possible Derivation are of the from

A⇒\*B for variables A and B are :
S ⇒\*A and S ⇒\*B

Add all productions of Variable A and B to the Varibale S and resulting grammar is follows:

```
S \rightarrow ABA \mid BA \mid AA \mid AB \mid aA \mid a \mid bB \mid b

A \rightarrow aA \mid a

B \rightarrow bB \mid b
```

# **Examples on Elimination of Unit-productions**

Example -1 
$$S \rightarrow AB$$
  
 $A \rightarrow aAA \mid \epsilon$   
 $B \rightarrow bBB \mid \epsilon$   
Example -2  $S \rightarrow ASB \mid \epsilon$   
 $A \rightarrow aAS \mid a$   
 $B \rightarrow SbS \mid A \mid bb$   
Example -3  $S \rightarrow 0A0 \mid 1B1 \mid BB$   
 $A \rightarrow C$   
 $B \rightarrow S \mid A$   
 $C \rightarrow S \mid \epsilon$   
Example -4  $S \rightarrow 0A0 \mid 1B1 \mid BB$   
 $A \rightarrow C$   
 $B \rightarrow S \mid A$   
 $C \rightarrow S \mid \epsilon$ 

Example - 5
$$S \rightarrow Aa \mid B$$

$$A \rightarrow a \mid bc \mid B,$$

$$B \rightarrow A \mid bb$$
Example - 6

## 2.4. Eliminating Useless Productions

Let G = { V, T, S P} be a context free grammar, a variable A € V is said to be useful, if and only if there exits, at least one W € L(G),

such that S ⇒ ....xAy⇒ .....⇒ W is possible.

In otherwords a variable  $A \in V$  is useful if it appears at least once in the derivation process and evetually leads to a terminal string  $w \in L(G)$ .

A variable 'A' is not useful is said to be Useless and associated productions are called as Useless productions.

### Procedure to Eliminate Useless variables and Productions

- 1. First we identify the set of variables that can lead to a terminal string by the following steps:
  - A. Set V1 to NULL where  $V_1$  is set of useful variables.
  - B. Repeat the following steps until no more variables are added to V1:
    - For every A € V for which P has a production of the form A → x<sub>1</sub>x<sub>2</sub>x<sub>3</sub>....x<sub>n</sub> with all x<sub>i</sub> € (V<sub>1</sub> U T), add A to V<sub>1</sub>.
    - Take all the productions into P1 whose symbols are all in (V<sub>1</sub> U T), where P1 is set of useful productions.

- 2. We eliminate the variables from Productions P1, that cannot be reached from the start variable. For this we draw the dependency graph for the variable set V1 found in step 1.
  - i.e. Dependency Graph is a graph with vertices labeled with variables with an edge between vertices C and D iff there is a production of the form c->xDy.

From the dependency graph. we obtain the useful variables as follows:

- if there is a direct or indirect path from vertex labeled S to the vertex labeled A then A is a useful variable. ie. the variables are reachable from vertex 'S' where S is Start Symbol of the Grammar.
- Any vertex 'X' if there is no direct or indirect path from Vertex 'S' then the Vertex 'X" is ignored.
- Finally, the grammar G is modified that contains only useful variables and its associated productions

Working with the Example :  $S \rightarrow a \mid aA$ 

 $A \rightarrow aB$ 

 $B \rightarrow aA \mid a$ 

 $D \rightarrow ddd$ 

#### 1. First we identify the set of variables that can lead to a terminal string by the following steps:

Steps	V1- Set of Useful variables	New Set of useful variables	Productions	Remarks
1	Ø	S, B and D	$S \rightarrow a$ $B \rightarrow a$ $D \rightarrow ddd$	S, B and D derive only Terminal strings, so Add S, B and D to new set of V1
2.	S, B and D Update w.r.t New Set of variables	A	$S \rightarrow a$ $B \rightarrow a$ $D \rightarrow ddd$ $A \rightarrow aB$	Body of Production A €{S, B, D } U़{ T }, Add the variable 'A' to new Set of V1
3	S, B D and A Update w.r.t New Set of Variables	S, B	$S \rightarrow a \mid aA$ $B \rightarrow a$ $D \rightarrow ddd$ $A \rightarrow aB$ $B \rightarrow aA$	Body of Productions S and B €{S, B, D, A } U़{T}. Add the variables S and B to the new Set of V1
4.	S, B, D, A No update	NiL	NIL	All productions are Considered

2. We eliminate the variables from Productions P1, that cannot be reached from the start variable. For this we draw the dependency graph for the variable set V1 = { S, A, B and D } found in step 1. Following is the dependency Graph:

#### **Productions:**

$$S \rightarrow a \mid aA$$
 $B \rightarrow a \mid aA$ 
 $D \rightarrow ddd$ 
 $A \rightarrow aB$ 

From the above Dependency graph, it is observed that the Vertex D is Not reachable from Vertex S, hence, Vertex D is ignored. So we have only the Verices S, A and B.

Finally, modified Grammar with Useful Varibales S, A and B and their associated productions are as follows:

$$S \rightarrow a \mid aA$$
  
 $A \rightarrow aB$   
 $B \rightarrow aA \mid a$ 

# Examples on Elimination of Useless-productions

Example -1	S  ightarrow AB $A  ightarrow aAA \mid \epsilon$ $B  ightarrow bBB \mid \epsilon$			
Example -2	S		$ASB \mid \epsilon$	
			$aAS \mid a$	
	В	$\rightarrow$	$SbS \mid A \mid bb$	
Example -3	S	$\rightarrow$	0A0   1B1   BB	
•	A	$\rightarrow$	C	
	B	$\rightarrow$	$S \mid A$	
	C	$\rightarrow$	$S \mid \epsilon$	
Example -4	S	$\rightarrow$	0A0   1B1   BB	
•	A	$\rightarrow$	College and the control of the contr	
	B	$\rightarrow$	$S \mid A$	
	C	$\rightarrow$	$S \mid \epsilon$	

Example - 5
$$S \rightarrow Aa \mid B$$

$$A \rightarrow a \mid bc \mid B,$$

$$B \rightarrow A \mid bb$$
Example - 6
$$S \rightarrow a \mid aA \mid B \mid$$

$$S \rightarrow a \mid aA \mid B \mid C$$
  
 $A \rightarrow aB$   
 $B \rightarrow aA \mid a$   
 $C \rightarrow cCD$   
 $D \rightarrow ddd$ 

## 2.5. Chomsky Normal Forms

A Grammar G is said to be in Chomsky Normal form, if all of its productions are of the form :  $A \rightarrow BC$  or  $A \rightarrow a$ , where A, B, and C are all variables and a is terminal symbol

### Chomsky Normal Form

- The construction of CNF is performed through:
- Arrangement of all bodies of length 2 or more to contain only variables.
- Breaking bodies of length 3 or more into a cascade productions, where each one has a body consisting of 2 variables.

Note: Before the **Grammar is transferred to CNF notation**, the grammar must be **Simplified** interms of **E-productions**, **Unit productions and Useless productions**.

### Algorithm to produce a grammar in CNF:

- 1. Eliminate E-productions, Unit productions and Useless symbols, from the grammar Given grammar.
- 2. Elimination of terminals on the body of a productions.
  - a) Add all productions of the form  $A \to BC$  or  $A \to a$  to P1, where P1 is an intermediate set of productions b) Consider a production  $A \to X_1X_2...X_n$  from P.

If X, is a terminal 'a' then

- Introduce a new variable B<sub>a</sub> for 'a'and replace each X<sub>i</sub> in A by B<sub>a</sub>
- Also Add new production B<sub>a</sub> → a to P1.

c) Consider each production  $A \rightarrow X_1 X_2 ... X_n$ , where  $n \ge 3$  and all  $X_i$ 's are variables from P1 -the intermedaite set of productions and introduce new variables and productions as per the following order to reduce the production's body length to 2 to P1

$$\begin{array}{c}
A \longrightarrow X_1C_1 \\
C_1 \longrightarrow X_2C_2 \\
C_2 \longrightarrow X_3C_3
\end{array}$$

$$C_{n-2} \rightarrow X_{n-1}X_n \longrightarrow$$
 Here  $C_1, C_2, \dots C_{n-2}$  are all New variables

#### Working with Example:

$$S \rightarrow aAD$$
 $A \rightarrow aB \mid bAB$ 
 $B \rightarrow b$ 
 $D \rightarrow d$ 

Step -1. Simplification of the Grammar.

#### Grammar is already simplified.

Step -2. Elimination of terminals on the body of a productions. i.e arrangements of production bodies of length to 2 or more to contain only variables.

Step -3. Breaking the bodies of length 3 or more into a cascade of productions.

# Examples on Chomsky Normal From - CNF

Example -1 
$$S \rightarrow AB$$
  
 $A \rightarrow aAA \mid \epsilon$   
 $B \rightarrow bBB \mid \epsilon$   
Example -2  $S \rightarrow ASB \mid \epsilon$   
 $A \rightarrow aAS \mid a$   
 $B \rightarrow SbS \mid A \mid bb$   
Example -3  $S \rightarrow 0A0 \mid 1B1 \mid BB$   
 $A \rightarrow C$   
 $B \rightarrow S \mid A$   
 $C \rightarrow S \mid \epsilon$   
Example -4  $S \rightarrow 0A0 \mid 1B1 \mid BB$   
 $A \rightarrow C$   
 $B \rightarrow S \mid A$   
 $C \rightarrow S \mid \epsilon$ 

Example - 5
$$S \rightarrow Aa \mid B$$

$$A \rightarrow a \mid bc \mid B,$$

$$B \rightarrow A \mid bb$$
Example - 6
$$S \rightarrow a \mid aA \mid B \mid C$$

$$A \rightarrow aB$$

$$B \rightarrow aA \mid a$$

$$C \rightarrow cCD$$

 $D \rightarrow ddd$ 

### **END of UNIT-3**