

Context Free Grammars - III

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STRONG (STRUCTURAL) AND WEAK EQUIVALENCE

WEAK EQUIVALENCE: two grammars are weakly equivalent if they generate the same language: $L(G) = L(G')$.

G and G' might assign different structures (syntax trees) to the same sentence

the structure assigned to a sentence is important: it is used by translators and interpreters

STRONG or STRUCTURAL EQUIVALENCE of two grammars G and G'

$L(G) = L(G')$ (weak eq.) **and**

G and G' have the same *condensed skeleton trees*

strong eq. \rightarrow weak eq. **but** strong eq. \neq weak eq.

(hence $\neg(\text{weak eq.} \rightarrow \text{strong eq.})$)

strong eq. is **decidable**

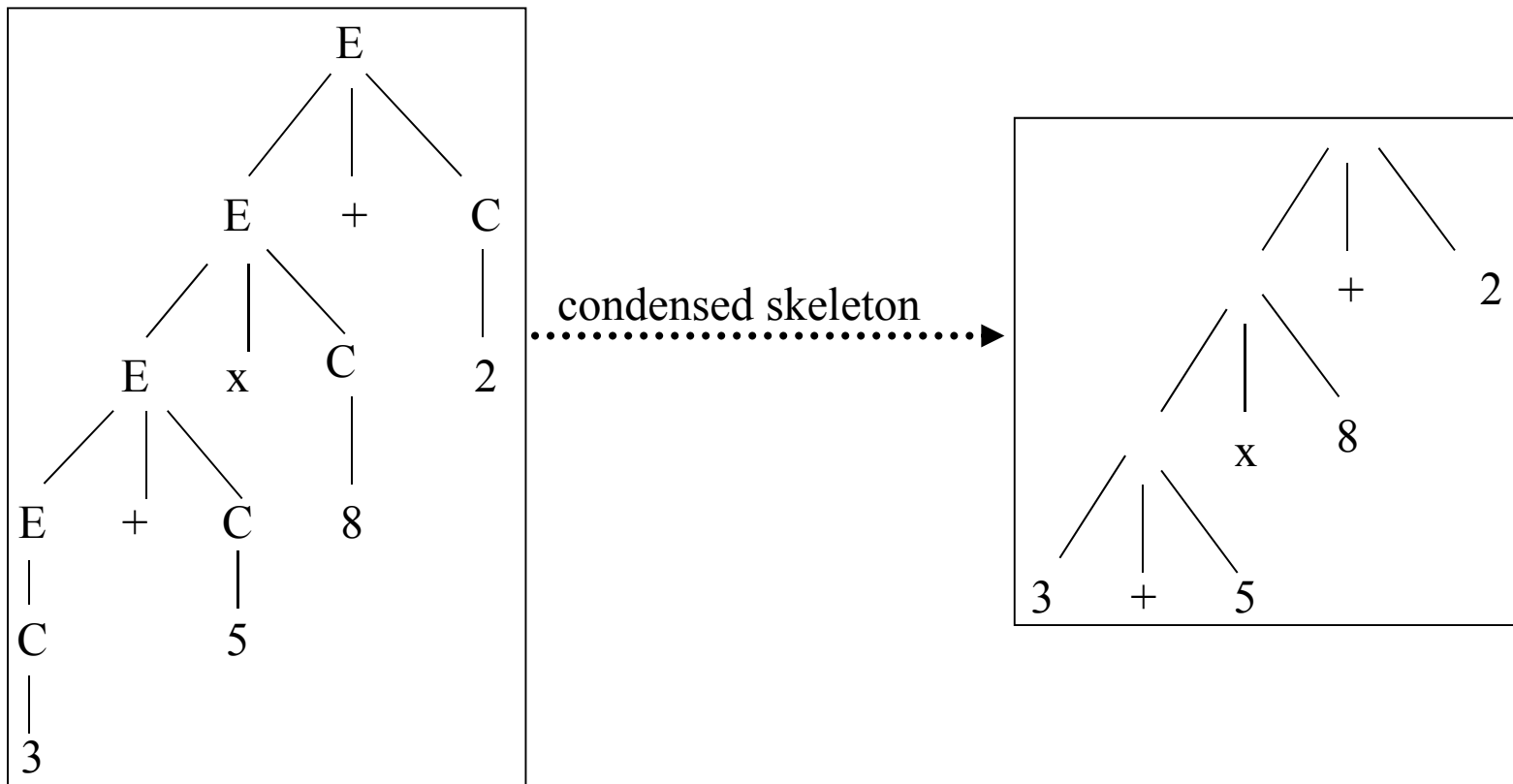
weak eq. is **not decidable**

(it can happen that one can establish that G_1 and G_2 **are not** strongly equivalent

but is unable to establish anything concerning their weak equivalence)

Example: Structural equivalence of arithmetic expressions: $3 + 5 \times 8 + 2$

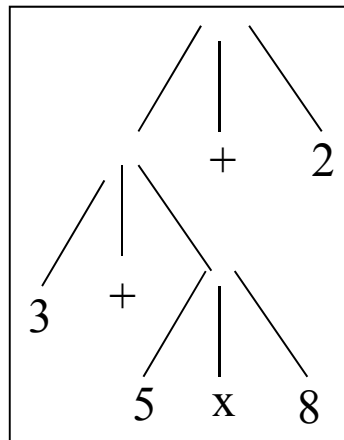
$$\begin{array}{l} G_1: \quad E \rightarrow E + C \quad E \rightarrow E \times C \quad E \rightarrow C \\ C \rightarrow 0 \mid 1 \mid 2 \mid 3 \mid 4 \mid 5 \mid 6 \mid 7 \mid 8 \mid 9 \end{array}$$



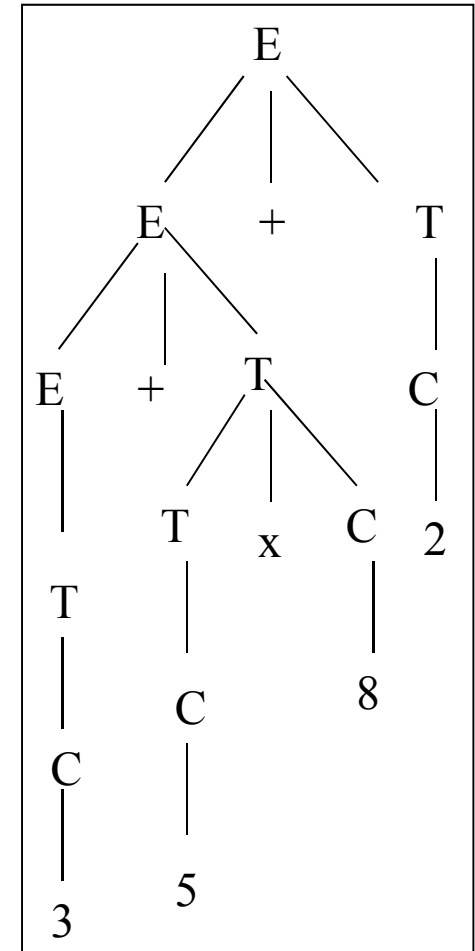
ANOTHER GRAMMAR FOR THE SAME LANGUAGE

NB: copy (or categorization) rules

$$G_2: E \rightarrow E + T \quad E \rightarrow T \quad T \rightarrow T \times C \quad T \rightarrow C$$

$$C \rightarrow 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9$$


condensed
skeleton



G_1 and G_2 are not structurally equivalent

Semantic interpretations:

$$G_1: (((3 + 5) \times 8) + 2)$$

$$G_2: ((3 + (5 \times 8)) + 2)$$

Only G_2 is **structurally adequate** w.r.t. the operator precedence rules (NB: G_2 is more complex): it forces the generation of a product from n.t. T only *after* E therefore it assigns a higher precedence to the product than to the sum

NB: **this is how operator priority can be enforced through grammars**

STRUCTURAL ADEQUACY must be carefully considered
it supports syntax-directed interpretation and translation

another grammar G_3 structurally equivalent to the previous one
(NB structural equiv. concerns *condensed trees*):

$$\begin{array}{l} E \rightarrow E + T \mid T + T \mid C + T \mid E + C \mid T + C \mid C + C \mid T \times C \mid C \times C \mid C \\ T \rightarrow T \times C \mid C \times C \mid C \\ C \rightarrow 0 \mid 1 \mid 2 \mid 3 \mid 4 \mid 5 \mid 6 \mid 7 \mid 8 \mid 9 \end{array}$$

G_3 has more rules: it does not exploit **categorization rules** as G_2 does

categorization can reduce the complexity of grammars

GRAMMAR NORMAL FORMS AND TRANSFORMATION

Normal forms constrain the rules without reducing the family of generated languages

They are useful for both proving properties and for language design

Let us see some transformations useful both to

- obtain an equivalent normal form
- design the syntax analyzers

EXPANSION of a nonterminal (to ELIMINATE it from the rules where it appears)

In the example, we eliminate nonterm. B

Grammar $A \rightarrow \alpha B \gamma \quad B \rightarrow \beta_1 \mid \beta_2 \mid \dots \mid \beta_n$

Becomes $A \rightarrow \alpha \beta_1 \gamma \mid \alpha \beta_2 \gamma \mid \dots \mid \alpha \beta_n \gamma$

Derivation $A \Rightarrow \alpha B \gamma \Rightarrow \alpha \beta_i \gamma$

Becomes $A \Rightarrow \alpha \beta_i \gamma$

ELIMINATION OF THE AXIOM FROM RIGHT PARTS :

It is always possible to obtain right part of rules as strings $\in (\Sigma \cup (V \setminus \{S\}))$

Simply introduce a new axiom S_0 and the rule $S_0 \rightarrow S$

NULLABLE NONTERMINALS AND ELIMINATION OF EMPTY RULES

a nonterminal is *nullable* iff there exists a derivation: $A \xRightarrow{+} \varepsilon$

$Null \subseteq V$ is the set of nullable n.t.

computation of the set $Null$

$A \in Null$ if $A \rightarrow \varepsilon \in P$

$A \in Null$ if $(A \rightarrow A_1 A_2 \dots A_n \in P \text{ with } A_i \in V \setminus \{A\}) \wedge \forall A_i (A_i \in Null)$

NB: recursive rules cannot be used

Example – Computing nullable nonterminals

$$\begin{array}{l} S \rightarrow SAB \mid AC \quad A \rightarrow aA \mid \varepsilon \quad B \rightarrow bB \mid \varepsilon \quad C \rightarrow cC \mid c \\ Null = \{A, B\} \end{array}$$

NB: If the grammar included rule $S \rightarrow AB$ then the result would include $S \in Null$

NORMAL FORM WITHOUT NULLABLE NONTERMS (non-nullable, with no empty rule)

defined as the condition that no nonterm. other than the axiom is nullable

The axiom is nullable only if the empty string ε is in the language

CONSTRUCTION OF THE NON-NULLABLE NORMAL FORM:

- 1) compute the *Null* set
- 2) for each rule $\in P$ add as alternatives those obtained by deleting, in the right part, **in all possible ways (NB: combinatorial effect)**, the nullable nonterm.
- 3) remove all empty rules $A \rightarrow \varepsilon$, except for $A = S$
- 4) clean the grammar and remove any circularity

Example (follows)

		delete A and B in all possible ways, remove rules of type $X \rightarrow \varepsilon$	delete rule $S \rightarrow S$
<i>Nullable</i>	original G	G'' to be cleaned	G'' with no empty rules
F	$S \rightarrow SAB \mid$ $\mid AC$	$S \rightarrow SAB \mid SA \mid SB \mid$ $\mid S \mid AC \mid C$	$S \rightarrow SAB \mid SA \mid SB \mid$ $\mid AC \mid C$
T	$A \rightarrow aA \mid \varepsilon$	$A \rightarrow aA \mid a$	$A \rightarrow aA \mid a$
T	$B \rightarrow bB \mid \varepsilon$	$B \rightarrow bB \mid b$	$B \rightarrow bB \mid b$
F	$C \rightarrow cC \mid c$	$C \rightarrow cC \mid c$	$C \rightarrow cC \mid c$

COPY (or CATEGORIZATION) RULES AND THEIR ELIMINATION

A typical example: $\text{iterative_phrase} \rightarrow \text{while_phrase} \mid \text{for_phrase} \mid \text{repeat_phrase}$

NB: copy rules factorize common parts \Rightarrow they reduce the grammar size

That's why they are often present in grammars of technical languages

However copy elimination shortens derivations and reduces the height of syntax trees

A typical *tradeoff*

Define $\text{Copy}(A) \subseteq V$

set of n.t. into which the n.t. A can be copied, possibly transitively

$$\text{Copy}(A) = \{B \in V \mid \text{there exists a derivation } A \xRightarrow{*} B\}$$

1) Computation of *Copy* (assume a **grammar with non empty rules**) by applying logical clauses until a fixpoint is reached

(it is simply the reflexive, transitive closure of the «copy» relation defined by copy rules)

$$\begin{array}{l} A \in Copy(A) \\ C \in Copy(A) \text{ if } (B \in Copy(A)) \wedge (B \rightarrow C \in P) \end{array}$$

(NB: since there is no empty rule, cases such as $B \rightarrow CD$ and $D \xRightarrow{*} \varepsilon$ can be ruled out)

2) Definition of the rules of a grammar G' , equivalent to G but without copy rules

$$P' := P \setminus \{A \rightarrow B \mid A, B \in V\} \quad \text{--cancel copy rules}$$

$$P' := P' \cup \{A \rightarrow \alpha \mid \exists B (B \in Copy(A) \wedge (B \rightarrow \alpha) \in P)\} \quad \text{--add new "compensating" rules}$$

(NB: for each removed copy rule, **many** other (non-copy) rules may be added
 \Rightarrow the set of rules may increase considerably in size

The derivation $A \xRightarrow{*} B \Rightarrow \alpha$ shrinks to $A \xRightarrow{*} \alpha$

Example – Eliminating copy rules from a grammar of arithmetic expressions

$$\begin{aligned}
 E &\rightarrow E + T \mid T \mid T \times C \mid C \\
 C &\rightarrow 0 \mid 1 \mid 2 \mid 3 \mid 4 \mid 5 \mid 6 \mid 7 \mid 8 \mid 9 \\
 \text{Copy}(E) &= \{E, T, C\} \quad \text{Copy}(T) = \{T, C\} \\
 \text{Copy}(C) &= \{C\}
 \end{aligned}$$

Equivalent grammar without copy rules: remove rules $E \rightarrow T$ and $T \rightarrow C$, then ...

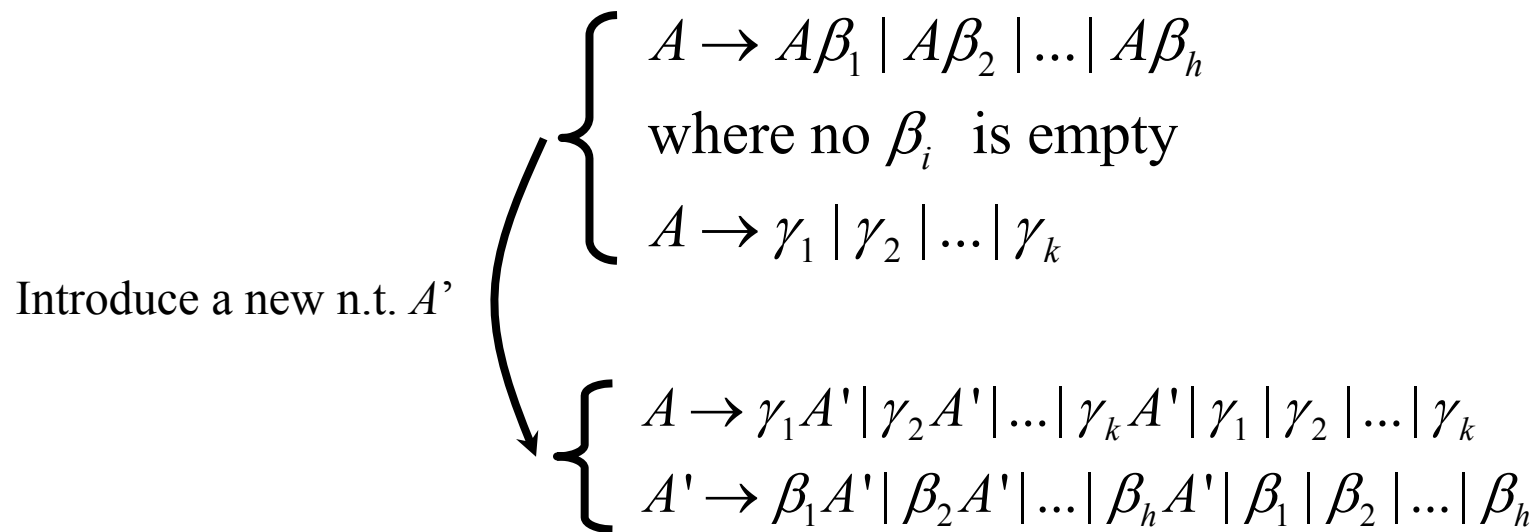
$$\begin{aligned}
 &T \in \text{Copy}(E) \qquad C \in \text{Copy}(E) \\
 E &\rightarrow E + T \mid T \times C \mid 0 \mid 1 \mid 2 \mid 3 \mid 4 \mid 5 \mid 6 \mid 7 \mid 8 \mid 9 \\
 T &\rightarrow T \times C \mid 0 \mid 1 \mid 2 \mid 3 \mid 4 \mid 5 \mid 6 \mid 7 \mid 8 \mid 9 \\
 C &\rightarrow 0 \mid 1 \mid 2 \mid 3 \mid 4 \mid 5 \mid 6 \mid 7 \mid 8 \mid 9
 \end{aligned}$$

$C \in \text{Copy}(T)$

Conversion of Left recursions to Right recursions

Grammars with no left recursion (l-recursion) are necessary for designing *top down parsers*

Case 1 (simple): Conversion of **IMMEDIATE** L-RICURSIONS



in the “new” derivation the prefix γ is generated **first**, the succeeding parts of type β **afterwards**
left recursion: string generated from the **right**; **right** recursion: string generated from the **left**;

derivation in the grammar with l-recursion $\rightarrow A \Rightarrow A\beta_2 \Rightarrow A\beta_3\beta_2 \Rightarrow \gamma_1\beta_3\beta_2$

deriv. in the gramm. without l-recursion $\longrightarrow A \Rightarrow \gamma_1 A' \Rightarrow \gamma_1 \beta_3 A' \Rightarrow \gamma_1 \beta_3 \beta_2$

Example – Conversion from l-recursion to r-recursion for arithmetic expressions

$$E \rightarrow E + T \mid T \quad T \rightarrow T * F \mid F \quad F \rightarrow (E) \mid i$$

E and T are left immediately recursive

$$\begin{aligned} E &\rightarrow TE' \mid T & E' &\rightarrow +TE' \mid +T \\ T &\rightarrow FT' \mid F & T' &\rightarrow *FT' \mid *F & F &\rightarrow (E) \mid i \end{aligned}$$

Case 2 : non immediate left recursion

it is more complex, not treated here,
see textbook, §2.5.13.8

CHOMSKY NORMAL FORM: two types of rules

1. *homogeneous binary rules*: $A \rightarrow BC$ with $B, C \in V$
2. *Terminal rules with singleton right part* $A \rightarrow a$, $a \in \Sigma$

NB: Syntax trees have internal nodes of degree 2 and leaf parent nodes of degree 1

Procedure to obtain from G (assumed without nullable n.t.) its Chomsky normal form

If the empty string is in the language, add rule: $S \rightarrow \varepsilon$

Then apply iteratively the following process

for each rule of type $\longrightarrow A_0 \rightarrow A_1 A_2 \dots A_n$

add a rule of type ... $\longrightarrow A_0 \rightarrow \langle A_1 \rangle \langle A_2 \dots A_n \rangle \longleftarrow \langle A_2 \dots A_n \rangle$ a new ancillary n.t.
introduced for this purpose

... and also another rule ... $\longrightarrow \langle A_2 \dots A_n \rangle \rightarrow A_2 \dots A_n$

finally, soon or late ... \longrightarrow if A_1 is terminal $\langle A_1 \rangle \rightarrow A_1$

Example: Conversion to Chomsky normal form

$$S \rightarrow dA \mid cB \quad A \rightarrow dAA \mid cS \mid c \quad B \rightarrow cBB \mid dS \mid d$$

$$S \rightarrow \langle d \rangle A \mid \langle c \rangle B$$

$$A \rightarrow \langle d \rangle \langle AA \rangle \mid \langle c \rangle S \mid c$$

$$B \rightarrow \langle c \rangle \langle BB \rangle \mid \langle d \rangle S \mid d$$

$$\langle d \rangle \rightarrow d \quad \langle c \rangle \rightarrow c$$

$$\langle AA \rangle \rightarrow AA \quad \langle BB \rangle \rightarrow BB$$

Real-time and Greibach normal forms

Real-time normal form: the right part of any rule has a terminal symbol as a prefix

$$A \rightarrow a\alpha \quad \text{with } a \in \Sigma, \alpha \in \{\Sigma \cup V\}^*$$

Greibach normal form is a special case:

Every right part consists of a terminal followed by zero or more nonterminals

$$A \rightarrow a\alpha \quad \text{with } a \in \Sigma, \alpha \in V^*$$

“REAL - TIME” - the term refers to a property of syntax analysis:

Every step reads and consumes one terminal symbol

Number of steps of the analysis = length of the string