

CONTEXT FREE GRAMMARS / LANGUAGES

and PUSH DOWN AUTOMATA

We'll now study the class of "context free languages" (CFLs). This class

- includes the class of regular languages.
- is characterized by "context free grammars" (CFGs) in syntactic manner
- is characterized (equivalently) by "push down automata" (PDAs) in computational manner.

We start with grammars (CFGs).

Motivating example from natural language (English)

Sentence \rightarrow Subject Verb Object

Sentence \rightarrow Sentence and Sentence

Subject \rightarrow Jim | Lisa

Verb \rightarrow ate | threw | killed

Object \rightarrow apple | ball | rat

This grammar generates sentences such as

- Jim ate apple

- Jim ate apple and Lisa threw ball

- Lisa threw apple and Jim killed rat
and Jim ate ball

Fact Programming Languages (such as C) are described by a grammar that generates all syntactically correct programs.

Exercise Look up the C-grammar.

Example of a CFG

$$\begin{aligned} G: \quad S &\rightarrow A \\ A &\rightarrow OA1 \\ A &\rightarrow \# \end{aligned}$$

- 3 "rules".
- S, A variables
- S: start variable
- O, I, # terminals

Idea Start with the string S.

At any step, replace a variable var by string α if $\text{var} \rightarrow \alpha$ is a rule.
Stop if the string only has terminals and no variable.

Eg. $S \rightarrow A \rightarrow \underline{\underline{OA1}} \rightarrow \underline{\underline{OOA11}} \rightarrow \underline{\underline{OO\#11}}$

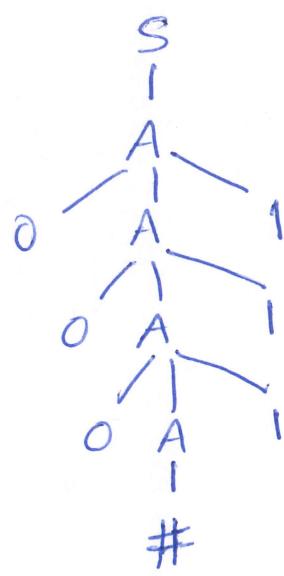
We say that grammar G derives string 00#11 generates

Clearly this grammar generates precisely the set of strings (referred to as the language $L(G)$) generated by the grammar described

$$L(G) = \{ 0^n \# 1^n \mid n \geq 0 \}.$$

Note that $L(G)$ is not regular.

Parse tree



The parse tree shows graphical (and structural) representation of the derivation.
(of string 000#111 here).

Formal Definition of CFG

Def A CFG G is a 4-tuple $G = (\mathcal{V}, \Sigma, R, S)$

where

- \mathcal{V} is a finite set of variables of terminals,
- Σ " disjoint from \mathcal{V} .
- $S \in \mathcal{V}$ is the start variable.

- \mathcal{R} is a finite set of rules of type
Variable \rightarrow String of variables and terminals

i.e. $A \rightarrow (\mathcal{V} \cup \Sigma)^*$, $A \in \mathcal{V}$.

Usually the start variable appears as the
left side of the topmost/first rule.

Def Suppose $u, v, w \in (\mathcal{V} \cup \Sigma)^*$ and
 $A \rightarrow w$ is a rule. Then we say that
 $uAv \Rightarrow uwv$ "uAv yields uwv".

I.e. one substitutes A by the right side of
the rule w.

Def $u \xrightarrow{*} v$ if there is a (finite)
sequence of strings $u_1, \dots, u_k \in (\mathcal{V} \cup \Sigma)^*$
such that

$$u_1 = u \Rightarrow u_1 \Rightarrow u_2 \Rightarrow \dots \Rightarrow u_k = v.$$

Def Language generated by grammar G is
 $L(G) = \{w \in \Sigma^* \mid s \xrightarrow{*} w\}.$

Note. $L(G)$ is (only) over the alphabet Σ of terminals.

Example

$G:$

$$S \rightarrow (S)$$

$$S \rightarrow SS$$

$$S \rightarrow \epsilon$$

$$\Sigma = \{(,)\}.$$

E.g. $\underline{S} \rightarrow (\underline{S}) \rightarrow (\underline{SS}) \rightarrow ((\underline{S}) \underline{S})$

$$\rightarrow ((\underline{S}) (S)) \rightarrow ((\underline{)}) (\underline{))) \rightarrow ((\underline{X}))$$

$L(G)$ is the language of all "matched parentheses".

The substituted variable is underlined in each step above.

Example

$G:$
Add

$$E \rightarrow E+E$$

$$\Sigma = \{+, 1, 2, 3\}$$

$$E \rightarrow 1|2|3$$

$L(G_{\text{Add}})$ is all expressions of type

$|$

$1+2$

$1+2+3$

$2+1+1+3+2$ etc.

Example

$$G_{\text{Add-Mult}} : \quad \begin{array}{l} E \rightarrow E+E \\ E \rightarrow E \times E \\ E \rightarrow 1|2|3 \end{array} \quad \Sigma = \{ +, \times, 1, 2, 3 \}$$

$L(G_{\text{Add-Mult}})$ has arithmetic expressions such as $1+2 \times 3$ $2+3 \times 1+2$ etc.

$$\underline{E} \rightarrow \underline{E} \times E \rightarrow \underline{E+E} \times E \rightarrow 1+\underline{E} \times E \\ \rightarrow 1+\underline{E} \times 3 \rightarrow 1+2 \times 3$$

Example

$$G_{\text{Arith}} : \quad \begin{array}{l} E \rightarrow (E+E) \\ E \rightarrow E \times E \\ E \rightarrow 1|2|3 \end{array} \quad \Sigma = \{ +, \times, (,), 1, 2, 3 \}$$

$L(G_{\text{Arith}})$ has arithmetic expressions with parentheses, e.g. $(1+2) \times 3$

$$\underline{E} \rightarrow \underline{E} \times E \rightarrow (\underline{E+E}) \times E \rightarrow (1+\underline{E}) \times E \\ \rightarrow (1+2) \times \underline{E} \rightarrow (1+2) \times 3$$

Example

$$G_{\text{Arith-Int}} : E \rightarrow (E+E)$$

$$E \rightarrow EXE$$

$$E \rightarrow I$$

$$I \rightarrow 0 \mid 1T \mid 2T \mid \dots \mid 9T$$

$$T \rightarrow \epsilon \mid T0 \mid T1 \mid \dots \mid T9$$

This generates expressions with decimal integers

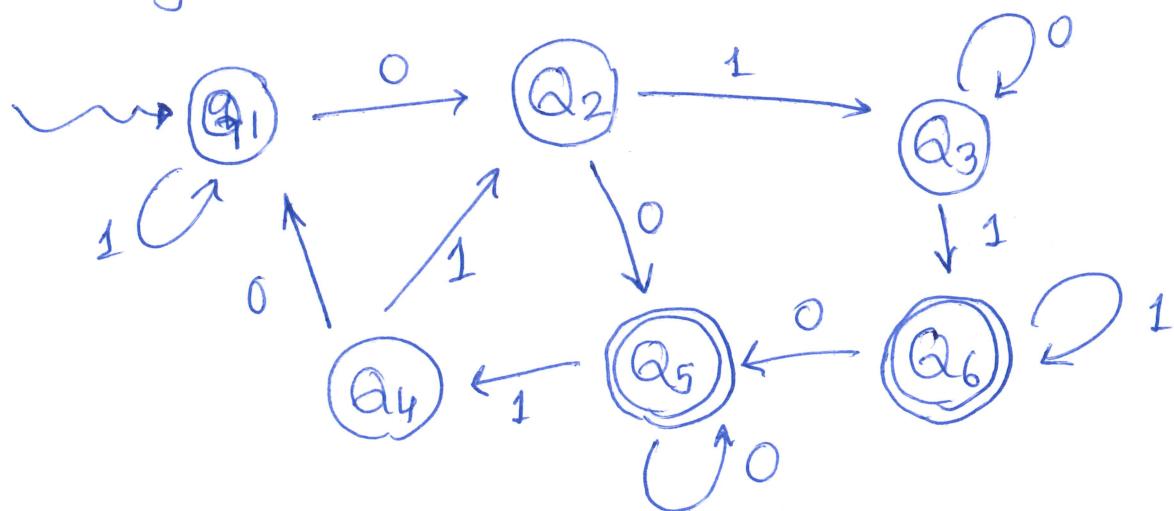
$$\text{e.g. } (214 + 109) \times (51080 + 76541)$$

 \times

It is easy to show that every regular language is context free.

Theorem Every regular language is context free.

Proof (by example). Suppose a language L is recognized by a DFA such as



The following grammar G "simulates" the DFA.

$$G: \begin{array}{l} Q_1 \rightarrow 0Q_2 \mid 1Q_1 \\ Q_2 \rightarrow 0Q_5 \mid 1Q_3 \\ Q_3 \rightarrow 0Q_3 \mid 1Q_6 \\ Q_4 \rightarrow 0Q_1 \mid 1Q_2 \\ Q_5 \rightarrow 0Q_5 \mid 1Q_4 \\ Q_6 \rightarrow 0Q_5 \mid 1Q_6 \end{array}$$

simulate
transitions
of the DFA

$Q_5 \rightarrow \epsilon$
 $Q_6 \rightarrow \epsilon$

Add these only
for accept states
of the DFA.

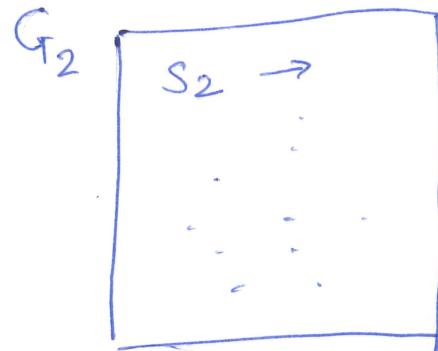
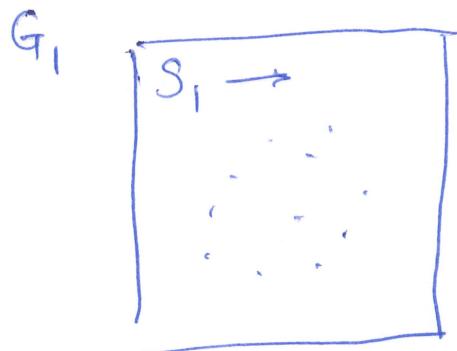
Here Q_1, Q_2, \dots, Q_6 are variables of the grammar
and Q_1 is the start variable (state).

Exercise Convince yourself that $L = L(G)$!

It is easily seen that the class of CFLs
is closed under $\cup, \circ, ^*$.

Theorem If L_1, L_2 are context free languages,
then so are $L_1 \cup L_2, L_1 \circ L_2, L_1^*$.

Proof Let the grammars for L_1, L_2 be G_1, G_2 respectively.



where S_1, S_2 are their start variables respectively.

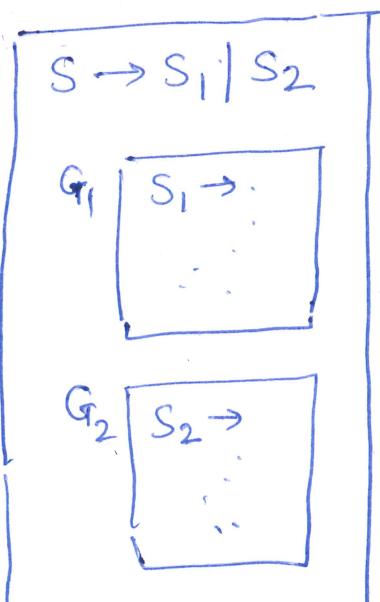
We may assume that their sets of variables are disjoint (but the set of terminals Σ is

the same and L_1, L_2 are languages over Σ).

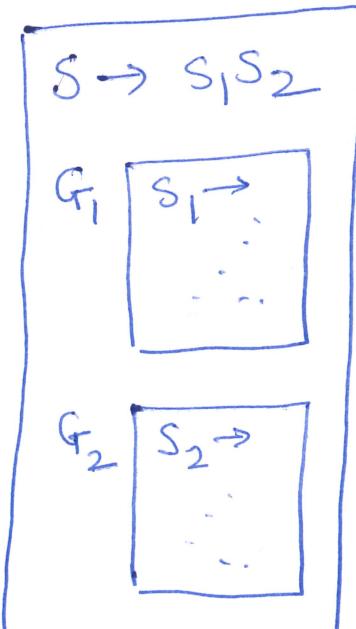
The grammar G , with a new start variable

S , for languages $L_1 \cup L_2, L_1 \circ L_2, L_1^*$ (as the case may be) is :

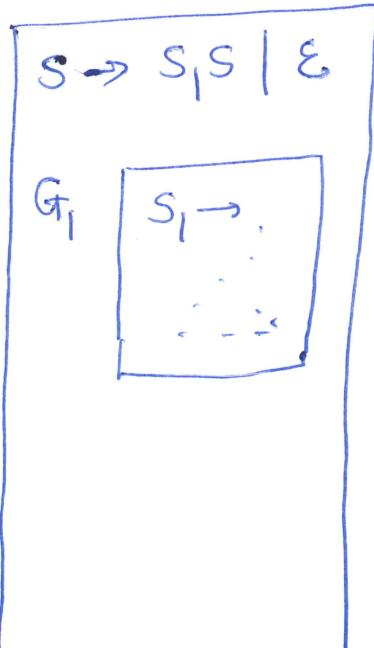
$L_1 \cup L_2$



$L_1 \circ L_2$



L_1^*



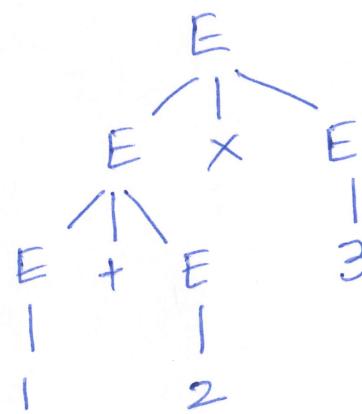
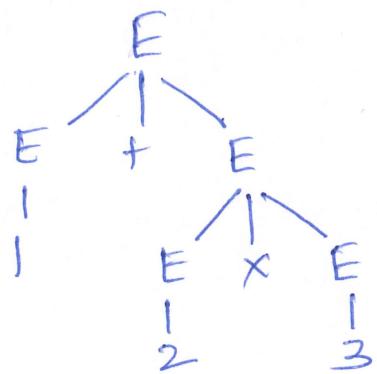
Ambiguity of Grammars

Consider the grammar:

$$G_{\text{Add-Mult}} : \begin{aligned} E &\rightarrow E+E \\ E &\rightarrow E \times E \\ E &\rightarrow 1|2|3 \end{aligned}$$

and the string $1+2 \times 3$ generated by it.

There are two distinct parse trees that yield this string.



It is not difficult to see that every parse tree corresponds to a unique "leftmost derivation" and vice versa. Here:

Def A derivation is said to be a leftmost derivation if at every step, the leftmost variable is substituted for using a grammar rule.

The leftmost derivations corresponding to the parse trees above are, respectively:

$$\begin{array}{c} E \\ \downarrow \\ E + E \\ | \quad \downarrow \\ I + \underline{E} \\ \downarrow \\ I + \underline{E} \times E \\ \downarrow \\ I + 2 \times \underline{E} \\ \downarrow \\ I + 2 \times 3 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c} E \\ \downarrow \\ E \times E \\ \downarrow \\ E + E \times E \\ | \quad \downarrow \\ I + \underline{E} \times E \\ \downarrow \\ I + 2 \times \underline{E} \\ \downarrow \\ I + 2 \times 3 \end{array}$$

The two derivations are "intrinsically different". If semantics are attached to the terminals $+$, \times then these amount to whether in the expression $I + 2 \times 3$, the addition is evaluated first or the multiplication.

The grammar is said to be ambiguous -

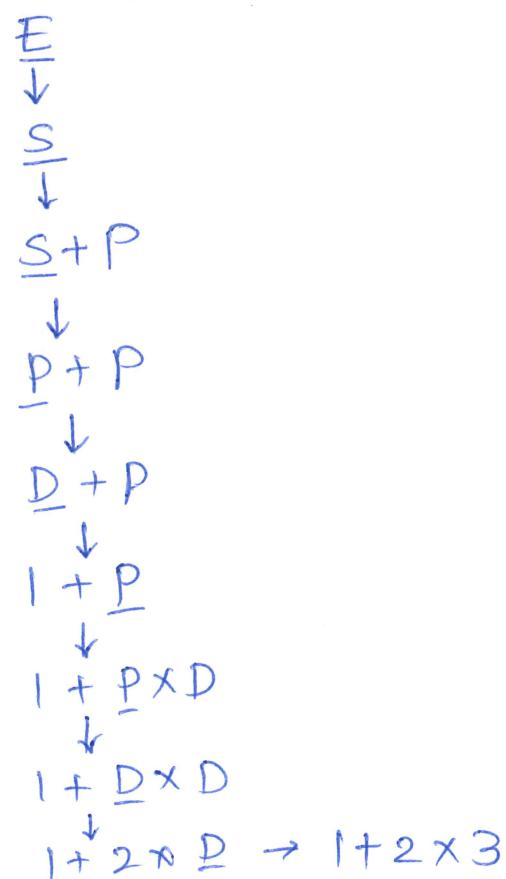
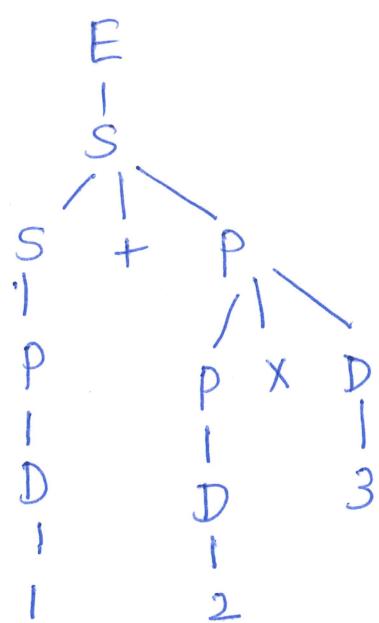
Def. A grammar G is ambiguous if there is some string $w \in L(G)$ that has two (or more) different leftmost derivations (or equivalently parse trees).

It is possible to rewrite this grammar as below so that the new grammar is unambiguous.

$$G'_{\text{Add.mult}} : \begin{array}{l} E \rightarrow S \\ S \rightarrow S + P \mid P \\ P \rightarrow P \times D \mid D \\ D \rightarrow 1 \mid 2 \mid 3 \end{array}$$

'S' = 'sum'
 'P' = 'Product'
 'D' = 'Digit'

The interpretation is that the overall arithmetic expression is viewed as "sum of products". Now the string $1+2\times 3$ has only one parse tree and a leftmost derivation:



I.e. the parse tree on the left (before) is "preferred".

Exercise Convince yourself that

- $L(G'_{\text{Add-Mult}}) = L(G)$ and
- $G'_{\text{Add-Mult}}$ is unambiguous.

Note We emphasize that $G'_{\text{Add-Mult}}$ may yield two different derivations for the same string,

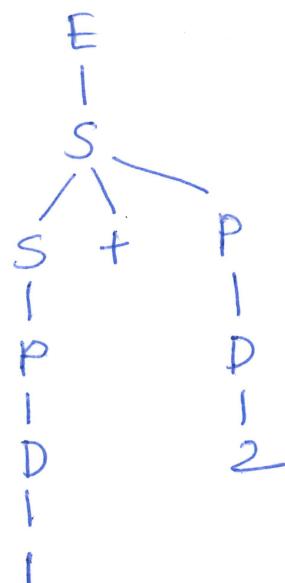
e.g. for the string $1+2$

$$E \rightarrow S \rightarrow \underline{S} + P \rightarrow \underline{P} + P \rightarrow D + \underline{P} \rightarrow D + \underline{D} \rightarrow \underline{D} + 2 \rightarrow 1 + 2$$

$$E \rightarrow S \rightarrow S + \underline{P} \rightarrow S + \underline{D} \rightarrow \underline{S} + 2 \rightarrow P + 2 \rightarrow \underline{D} + 2 \rightarrow 1 + 2$$

However, there is only one leftmost derivation and a parse tree, i.e.

$$\begin{array}{c} E \\ \downarrow \\ S \\ \downarrow \\ \underline{S} + P \\ \downarrow \\ \underline{P} + P \\ \downarrow \\ \underline{D} + P \\ \downarrow \\ 1 + \underline{P} \\ \downarrow \\ 1 + \underline{D} \\ \downarrow \\ 1 + 2 \end{array}$$

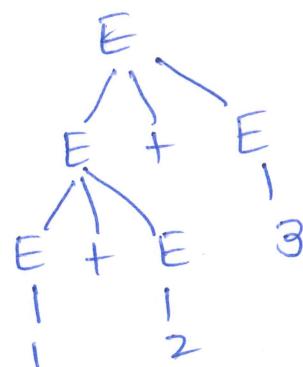
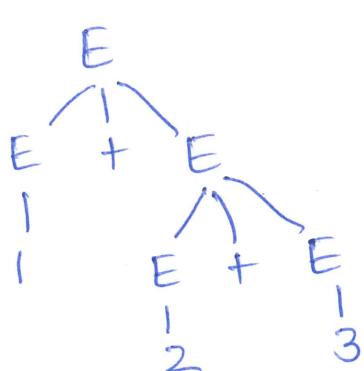


This is why we insist on leftmost derivations (or parse trees).

Example This grammar is ambiguous.

$$G_{\text{Add}} : \begin{aligned} E &\rightarrow E+E \\ E &\rightarrow 1|2|3. \end{aligned}$$

Since $1+2+3$ has two parse trees:



If it is easy to rewrite an equivalent, unambiguous grammar.

$$G'_{\text{Add}} : \begin{aligned} E &\rightarrow E+D \mid D \\ D &\rightarrow 1|2|3 \end{aligned}$$

Example If-then-else grammar as below is ambiguous.

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

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

$$S \rightarrow \text{other}$$

Here if, then, else, other are terminals.
'S' stands for Statement, 'other' stands for
other statement, 'E' stands for expression (or

logical condition) that we don't really care about.
Consider the following statement.

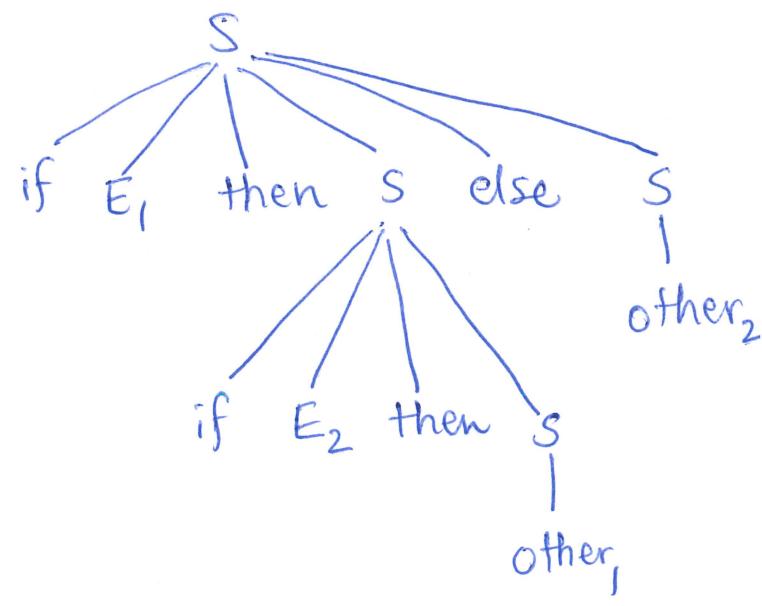
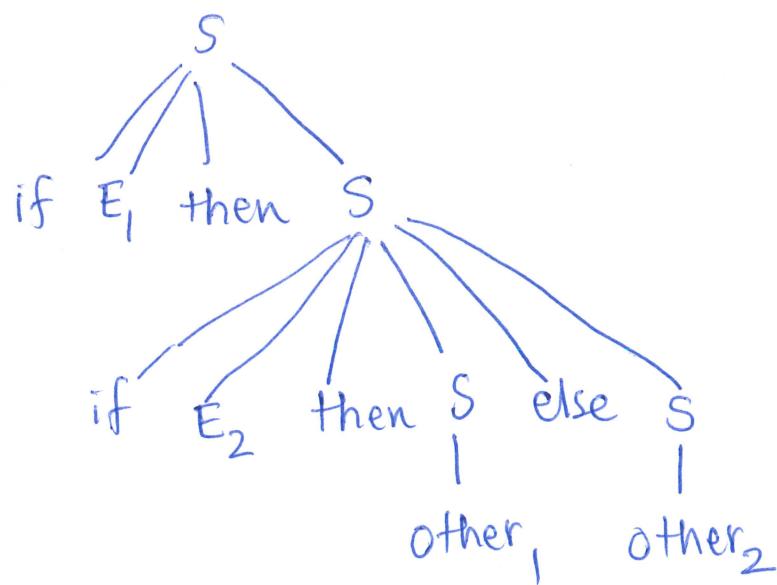
if E_1 then if E_2 then other₁ else other₂

There are two ways to (semantically)
interpret the statement:

if E_1 then {if E_2 then other₁ else other₂}

if E_1 then {if E_2 then other₁} else other₂

These lead to two different parse trees:



Hence the grammar is ambiguous.

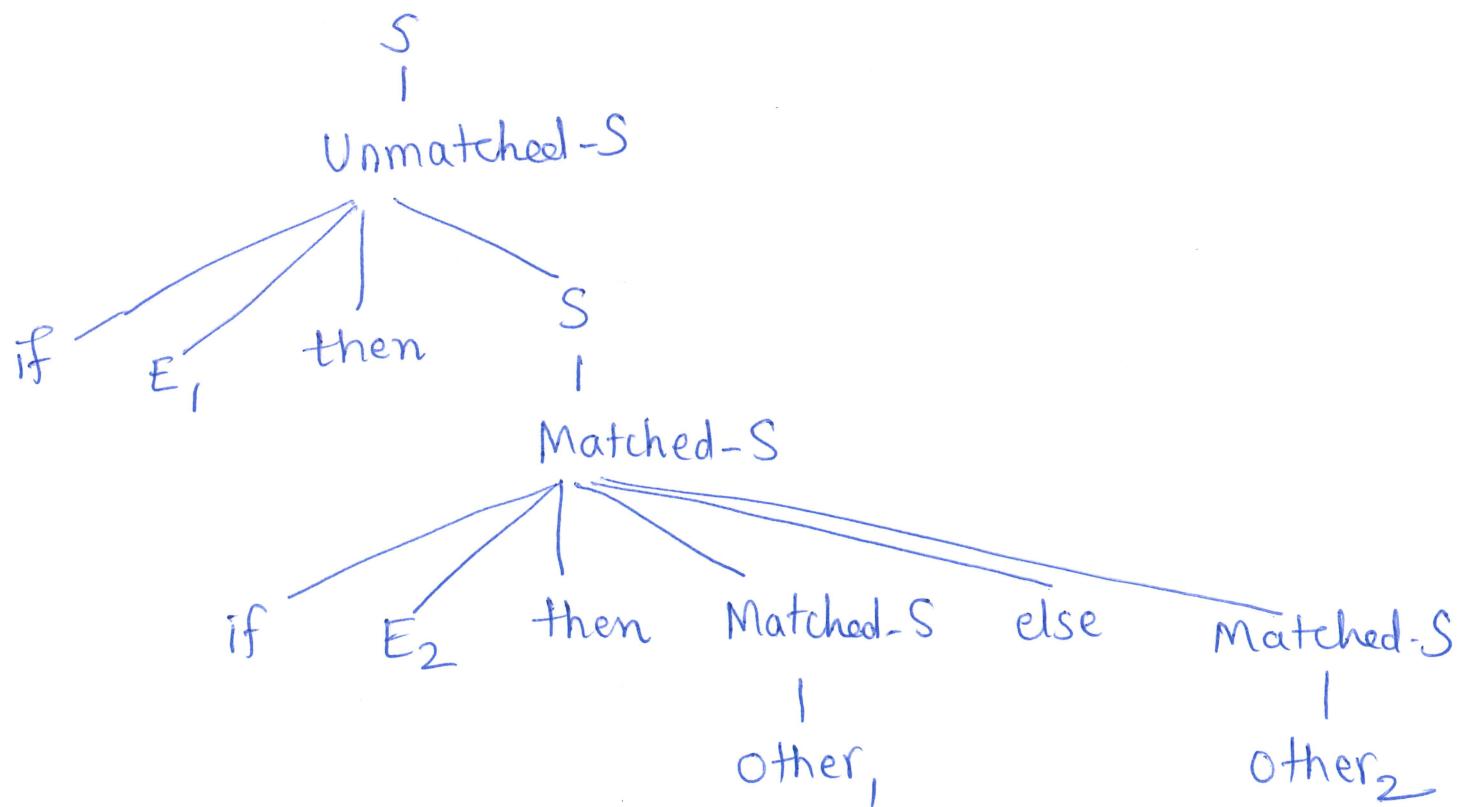
There is a text-book manner to rewrite an equivalent unambiguous grammar.

$$S \rightarrow \text{Matched-}S \mid \text{Unmatched-}S$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Matched-}S \rightarrow & \underline{\text{if}} \ E \ \underline{\text{then}} \ \text{Matched-}S \ \underline{\text{else}} \ \text{Matched-}S \\ & \mid \underline{\text{other}} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Unmatched-}S \rightarrow & \underline{\text{if}} \ E \ \underline{\text{then}} \ S \mid \\ & \underline{\text{if}} \ E \ \underline{\text{then}} \ \text{Matched-}S \ \underline{\text{else}} \ \text{Unmatched-}S \end{aligned}$$

The statement before has the parse tree:



I.e. the left parse tree (before) is "preferred".

Sometimes it is impossible to write a grammar for a CFL that is unambiguous. Def A CFL is called inherently ambiguous if every grammar for it is ambiguous.

Example $L = \{a^i b^j c^k \mid i=j \text{ or } j=k, i, j, k \geq 0\}$ is inherently ambiguous. We'll not prove this in this class.

Note $L_1 = \{a^i b^j c^k \mid i=j\}$ and $L_2 = \{a^i b^j c^k \mid j=k\}$ are both context free.

However, as we prove later, $L_1 \cap L_2 = \{a^i b^j c^k \mid i=j=k\}$ is not context free. Thus the class of CFLs is not closed under intersection and hence also not closed under complements (why? $\overline{A \cup B} = \overline{A} \cap \overline{B}$). In this regard, CFLs differ from regular languages.