# Context Free Grammars and Languages

5DV037 — Fundamentals of Computer Science Umeå University Department of Computing Science

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## Relevance

- Context-free grammars (CFGs) are the most important class of grammars in computer science.
- The main syntactic structure of virtually all modern programming languages is expressed using them.
- Modern parsers for programming languages are based upon them.
- Tools have been developed which generate parsers automatically from CFGs, and such tools are widely used.
- Many approaches to the modelling and understanding of natural language are also based upon context-free "backbones".
- In short, CFGs are a central notion in practical as well as theoretical computer science.

# A Review of the Notion of a Grammar

#### Definition: A (phrase-structure) grammar is a four-tuple

$$G = (V, \Sigma, S, P)$$

in which

- V is a finite alphabet, called the *variables* or *nonterminal symbols*;
- $\Sigma$  is a finite alphabet, called the set of *terminal symbols*;
- $S \in V$  is the *start symbol*;
- P is a finite subset of (V ∪ Σ)<sup>+</sup> × (V ∪ Σ)<sup>\*</sup> called the set of productions or rewrite rules;
- $V \cap \Sigma = \emptyset$ ;
- The production  $(w_1, w_2) \in P$  is typically written  $w_1 \xrightarrow[G]{} w_2$ , or just  $w_1 \to w_2$  if the context G is clear.
- The meaning of  $w_1 
  ightarrow w_2$  is that  $w_1$  may be replaced by  $w_2$  in a string.
- Note that  $w_1$  may be any nonempty string in this definition.

# **Context-Free Grammars**

- In a *context-free grammar*, the left-hand side of each production must be a single nonterminal symbol.
  - Thus, the replacement is independent of the context in which the nonterminal occurs.

Definition: A context-free grammar or CFG is a four-tuple

$$G = (V, \Sigma, S, P)$$

in which

- V is a finite alphabet, called the *variables* or *nonterminal symbols*;
- $\Sigma$  is a finite alphabet, called the set of *terminal symbols*;
- $S \in V$  is the *start symbol*;
- P is a finite subset of V × (V ∪ Σ)\* called the set of productions or rewrite rules;
- $V \cap \Sigma = \emptyset$ ;
- Productions are thus of the form  $A \rightarrow w$

for some  $A \in V$  and  $w \in (V \cup \Sigma)^*$ .

## Derivation in the Context of a CFG

*Context:*  $G = (V, \Sigma, S, P)$  a CFG.

• Let  $A \underset{G}{\rightarrow} w$ , and let  $\beta \in (V \cup \Sigma)^+$  be a string which contains A;

*i.e.*,  $\beta = \alpha_1 A \alpha_2$  for some  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2 \in (V \cup \Sigma)^*$ .

- A possible *single-step derivation* on *w* replaces *A* with *w*.
- Write  $\alpha_1 A \alpha_2 \Rightarrow \alpha_1 w \alpha_2$  (or just  $\alpha_1 A \alpha_2 \Rightarrow \alpha_1 w \alpha_2$ ).
- Note that many derivation steps may be possible on a given string.
- This process is thus inherently nondeterministic.
- Write  $w \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow}_{G} u$  (or just  $w \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} u$ ) if w = u or else there is a sequence

$$w = \alpha_0 \underset{G}{\stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow}} \alpha_1 \underset{G}{\stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow}} \alpha_2 \dots \underset{G}{\stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow}} \alpha_k = u$$

called a *derivation* of u from w (for G).

- Write  $w \stackrel{+}{\underset{G}{\Rightarrow}} u$  (or just  $w \stackrel{+}{\Rightarrow} u$ ) if the derivation is at least one step long.
- The language of G is  $\mathcal{L}(G) = \{ w \in \Sigma^* \mid S \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} w \}.$
- A language L is context free (or a CFL) if  $L = \mathcal{L}(G)$  for some CFG G.
- The CFGs  $G_1$  and  $G_2$  are *equivalent* if  $\mathcal{L}(G_1) = \mathcal{L}(G_2)$ .

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# Degrees of Ambiguity for CFGs

- There are four possible levels of ambiguity with respect to derivations in a CFG  $G = (V, \Sigma, S, P)$ .
- First, these will be listed, and then an example of each will be presented.
   Unique derivations: For each α ∈ L(G), there is exactly one derivation for α.
  - Essentially unique derivations: The various derivations of each
    - $\alpha \in \mathcal{L}(G)$  differ only in the order in which the variables are replaced.
      - Unique derivation tree.
  - Non-unique derivations but repairable: There is some  $\alpha \in \mathcal{L}(G)$  with at least two distinct derivation trees, but there is another CFG G' with  $\mathcal{L}(G) = \mathcal{L}(G')$  for which each  $\alpha \in \mathcal{L}(G')$  has a unique derivation tree.
  - Inherently non-unique derivations: For every CFG G' with  $\mathcal{L}(G') = \mathcal{L}(G)$ , there is some string  $\alpha \in \mathcal{L}(G)$  which has at least two distinct derivation trees in G'.

## An Example of Unique Derivation

Let  $G = (V, \Sigma, S, P) = (\{S\}, \{a, b\}, S, \{S \to aSb \mid ab\}$ 

- It is easy to see that  $\mathcal{L}(G) = \{a^n b^n \mid n \ge 1\}.$
- The string *aaabbb* has the unique derivation

$$S \Rightarrow aSb \Rightarrow aaSbb \Rightarrow aaabbb$$

and hence is in  $\mathcal{L}(G)$ .

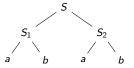
• In general, the string  $a^k b^k$  has the unique derivation

$$S \Rightarrow aSb \Rightarrow aaSbb \Rightarrow \ldots \Rightarrow a^{i}Sb^{i} \ldots \Rightarrow a^{k-1}Sb^{k-1} \Rightarrow a^{k}b^{k}$$

- Thus, every string in  $\mathcal{L}(G)$  has a unique derivation in G.
- This type of uniqueness is very rare in practice.

#### Inessential Non-Uniqueness in Derivation

- Let  $G = (V, \Sigma, S, P) = (\{S, S_1, S_2\}, \{a, b\}, S, \{S \to S_1S_2, S_1 \to aS_1b \mid ab, S_2 \to aS_2b \mid ab\}.$ 
  - Here  $\mathcal{L}(G) = \{a^{n_1}b^{n_1}a^{n_2}b^{n_2} \mid n_1, n_2 \ge 1\}.$
  - In this case even the simple string *abab* has two distinct derivations:  $S \Rightarrow S_1S_2 \Rightarrow abS_2 \Rightarrow abab$ 
    - $S \Rightarrow S_1S_2 \Rightarrow S_1ab \Rightarrow abab$
  - However, there is only one tree-like representation of the derivation.



- Such a tree, called a *derivation tree*, provides more useful information than just a linear derivation using ⇒.
- In this setting, it is only the *order* of replacements of the variables, and not the replacements themselves, which is not unique.
- This idea will be formalized shortly.

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#### Inessential Non-uniqueness of derivations

A CFG G is *ambiguous* if there is some α ∈ L(G) which has two distinct derivation trees.

Example: Let 
$$G = (V, \Sigma, S, P) = (\{S, S_1, S_2\}, \{a, b\}, S, \{S \rightarrow S_1S_2, S_1 \rightarrow aS_1b \mid \lambda, S_2 \rightarrow aS_2b \mid \lambda\}.$$

• Here 
$$\mathcal{L}(G) = \{a^{n_1}b^{n_1}a^{n_2}b^{n_2} \mid n_1, n_2 \ge 0\}.$$

- For any k > 0, the string  $a^k b^k$  has two distinct derivations.
- Here are the two derivations for *ab*, represented as trees:



• This non-uniqueness issue may easily be repaired.

# A Repair of the Non-Uniqueness Example

- The original grammar  $G = (V, \Sigma, S, P) = (\{S, S_1, S_2\}, \{a, b\}, S, \{S \rightarrow S_1S_2, S_1 \rightarrow aS_1b \mid \lambda, S_2 \rightarrow aS_2b \mid \lambda\}.$
- The repaired grammar:  $\begin{aligned} G' &= (V, \Sigma, S, P') = (\{S, S_1, S_2\}, \{a, b\}, S, \\ &\{S \rightarrow \lambda \mid S_1 \mid S_1 S_2, \ S_1 \rightarrow aS_1 b \mid ab, \ S_2 \rightarrow aS_2 b \mid ab \}. \end{aligned}$
- The only derivation of *ab*:



• Unfortunately, it can be shown that there is no algorithm which takes as input an arbitrary CFG and decides whether or not it is ambiguous, much less construct a CFG which is equivalent.

# Inherent Ambiguity

- A CFG G = (V, Σ, S, P) is *inherently ambiguous* if for every CFG G' with L(G') = L(G) is ambiguous.
- A CFL *L* is *inherently ambiguous* if every CFG *G* with  $\mathcal{L}(G) = L$  is ambiguous.
- Thus, while ambiguity is a property of a grammar, inherent ambiguity is a property of a language and not of a specific grammar.
- Establishing that a CFL is inherently ambiguous is nontrivial.
- Here is a well-known example, presented without proof:

$$\{a^i b^j c^k \mid i = j \text{ or } j = k\}$$

- Do important inherently ambiguous CFLs exist in practice?
- It can be proven that there is no algorithm to decide whether or not a CFG is inherently ambiguous.

A More Formal Presentation of Derivation Trees

Context: A CFG  $G = (V, \Sigma, S, P)$ .

- A *partial derivation tree* (or *(partial) parse tree*) for *G* with root *A* ∈ *V* is a rooted tree with ordered subtrees such that
  - The root is labelled A.
  - Interior vertices are labelled with members of V.
  - Leaf vertices are labelled by members of  $V \cup \Sigma \cup \{\lambda\}$ .
  - If interior vertex x has label B with children labelled  $c_1 \dots c_k$  from left to right, then  $B \rightarrow c_1 \dots c_k \in P$ .
    - Particularly, a leaf labelled  $\lambda$  can have no siblings.
- The *yield* (or *frontier*) of a partial derivation tree is the concatenation of leaf labels, read from left to right.

Observation: Let  $A \in V$  and  $\alpha \in (V \cup \Sigma)^*$ . Then  $A \xrightarrow[G]{} \alpha$  iff there is a partial derivation tree for G with root A and frontier  $\alpha$ .  $\Box$ 

A partial derivation tree T with root S and yield α ∈ Σ\* is called a derivation tree for α.

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## Leftmost Derivations

- There is a natural correspondence between derivations which always replace the leftmost variable first and parse trees.
- Let G = (V, Σ, S, P) be a CFG with A ∈ V and α ∈ (V ∪ Σ)\*. The derivation

$$A \underset{G}{\Rightarrow} \alpha_1 \underset{G}{\Rightarrow} \alpha_2 \dots \alpha_i \Rightarrow \alpha_{i+1} \dots \alpha_n = \alpha$$

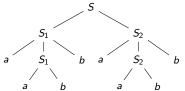
is a *leftmost* derivation of  $\alpha$  from A if in each step  $\alpha_i \underset{G}{\Rightarrow} \alpha_{i+1}$  the leftmost variable in the string  $\alpha_i$  is replaced.

• A rightmost derivation is defined analogously.

#### Leftmost and Rightmost Derivation Illustrated

Example: 
$$G' = (V, \Sigma, S, P') = (\{S, S_1, S_2\}, \{a, b\}, S, \{S \to \lambda \mid S_1 \mid S_1S_2, S_1 \to aS_1b \mid ab, S_2 \to aS_2b \mid ab\}.$$

- Here are the leftmost and rightmost derivations for aabbaabb:  $S \Rightarrow S_1S_2 \Rightarrow aS_1bS_2 \Rightarrow aabbS_2 \Rightarrow aabbaS_2b \Rightarrow aabbaabb$  $S \Rightarrow S_1S_2 \Rightarrow S_1aS_2b \Rightarrow S_1aabb \Rightarrow aaS_1bbaabb \Rightarrow aabbaabb$
- And here is the common derivation tree:



# A Practical Example — If-Then-Else Ambiguity

- Consider the grammar with the following productions:  $\langle stmt \rangle \rightarrow \langle if\_stmt \rangle | \langle nif\_stmt \rangle$   $\langle if\_stmt \rangle \rightarrow if \langle cond \rangle then \langle stmt \rangle | if \langle cond \rangle then \langle stmt \rangle else \langle stmt \rangle$   $\langle nif\_stmt \rangle \rightarrow s_1 | s_2 | s_3 | (\langle stmt \rangle)$  $\langle cond \rangle \rightarrow c_1 | c_2 | c_3$
- The bracketed names are nonterminals, with  $\langle stmt \rangle$  the start symbol.
- The terminals are {if, then, else,  $s_1$ ,  $s_2$ ,  $s_3$ ,  $c_1$ ,  $c_2$ ,  $c_3$ , (,)}.
- The statement

```
if c_1 then if c_2 then s_1 else s_2
```

has two parses, which corresponding to two distinct meanings, indicated by indentation:

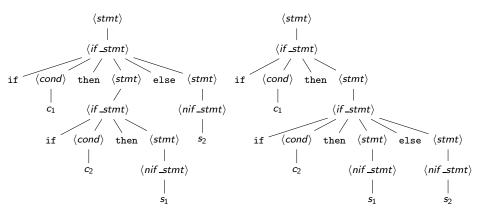
if 
$$c_1$$
 then if  $c_2$  then  $s_1$  if  $c_1$  then  
else  $s_2$  if  $c_2$  then  $s_1$  else  $s_2$ 

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# The Two Derivation Trees for If-Then-Else Ambiguity

• The corresponding derivation trees:



- In the "correct" tree, the meaning of the statement is recaptured by evaluating subtrees in a bottom-up fashion.
- The tree to the right recaptures the usual convention.
  - Else-part associated with nearest then-part.

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# Resolution of If-Then-Else-Ambiguity

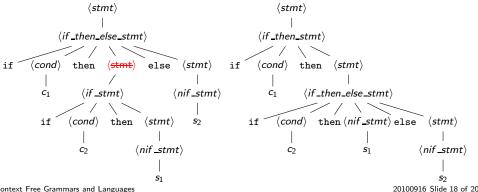
- Here is the repair of the grammar:  $\rightarrow$  (if\_stmt) (if\_then\_stmt) | (if\_then\_else\_stmt) (stmt)  $|\langle nif\_stmt \rangle$ (if\_stmt)  $\langle if\_then\_stmt \rangle \rightarrow if \langle cond \rangle then \langle stmt \rangle$  $\langle if\_then\_else\_stmt \rangle \rightarrow if \langle cond \rangle then \langle nif\_stmt \rangle else \langle stmt \rangle$  $\langle nif\_stmt \rangle$  $\rightarrow$   $s_1 \mid s_2 \mid s_3 \mid (\langle stmt \rangle)$  $\rightarrow$   $c_1 \mid c_2 \mid c_3$ (cond)
- Note in particular that  $\langle \textit{if\_stmt} \rangle$  has been replaced with
  - $\langle \textit{if\_then\_stmt} \rangle$  and
  - $\langle if\_then\_else\_stmt \rangle$ .
- An if statement in parentheses is "protected".

#### Parse Tree for the Repaired If-Then-Else Example

The statement to be parsed is:

if  $c_1$  then if  $c_2$  then  $s_1$  else  $s_2$ 

- To the right is the the unique pare tree in the repaired grammar.
- To the left is the old parse tree which is blocked by this new grammar.
- The one to the right is similar to the second one in the original grammar.

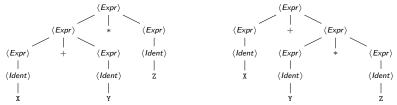


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Another Practical Example – Precedence of Operations

Here is a simple grammar for arithmetic expressions: Nonterminals: {⟨*Expr*⟩, ⟨*Ident*⟩}. Terminals: {A, B, ..., Z, (,), +, \*}. Start symbol: ⟨Expr⟩
Productions: ⟨*Ident*⟩ → A | B | ... | Y | Z ⟨*Expr*⟩ → ⟨*Expr*⟩ + ⟨*Expr*⟩ + ⟨*Expr*⟩ + ⟨*Expr*⟩ | (⟨*Expr*⟩) | ⟨*Ident*⟩

• The expression X+Y\*Z has two parse trees:



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#### Repair of the Operator-Precedence Problem

- Here is the repair using factors and terms: Productions:  $\langle Ident \rangle \rightarrow A \mid B \mid \dots \mid Y \mid Z$   $\langle Expr \rangle \rightarrow \langle Expr \rangle + \langle Term \rangle \mid \langle Term \rangle$   $\langle Term \rangle \rightarrow \langle Term \rangle * \langle Factor \rangle \mid \langle Factor \rangle$  $\langle Factor \rangle \rightarrow (\langle Expr \rangle) \mid \langle Ident \rangle$
- The unique parse tree for X+Y\*Z:

