Describing Languages

- We've seen two models for the regular languages:
 - **Finite automata** accept precisely the strings in the language.
 - **Regular expressions** describe precisely the strings in the language.
- Finite automata *recognize* strings in the language.
 - Perform a computation to determine whether a specific string is in the language.
- Regular expressions *match* strings in the language.
 - Describe the general shape of all strings in the language.

- A *context-free grammar* (or *CFG*) is an entirely different formalism for defining a class of languages.
- **Goal:** Give a description of a language by recursively describing the structure of the strings in the language.
- CFGs are best explained by example...

Arithmetic Expressions

- Suppose we want to describe all legal arithmetic expressions using addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division.
- Here is one possible CFG:

$\mathbf{E} \rightarrow \texttt{int}$
$\mathbf{E} \rightarrow \mathbf{E} \ \mathbf{Op} \ \mathbf{E}$
$\mathbf{E} \rightarrow (\mathbf{E})$
$\mathbf{Op} \rightarrow \mathbf{+}$
Op → -
Op → ★
Op → /

	Ε
\Rightarrow	E Op E
\Rightarrow	E Op (E)
\Rightarrow	E Op (E Op E)
\Rightarrow	E * (E Op E)
\Rightarrow	<pre>int * (E Op E)</pre>
\Rightarrow	<pre>int * (int Op E)</pre>
\Rightarrow	<pre>int * (int Op int)</pre>
\Rightarrow	<pre>int * (int + int)</pre>

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$\mathbf{Op} \rightarrow \mathbf{+}$
Op → -
$\mathbf{Op} \rightarrow \mathbf{\star}$
Op → /

 $E \Rightarrow E Op E \\ \Rightarrow E Op int \\ \Rightarrow int Op int \\ \Rightarrow int / int$

- Formally, a context-free grammar is a collection of four items:
 - A set of *nonterminal symbols* (also called *variables*),



 $E \rightarrow int$ $\mathbf{E} \rightarrow \mathbf{E} \ \mathbf{Op} \ \mathbf{E}$ $\mathbf{E} \rightarrow (\mathbf{E})$ $\mathbf{Op} \rightarrow \mathbf{+}$ $\mathbf{Op} \rightarrow$ $\mathbf{Op} \rightarrow \star$ $\mathbf{Op} \rightarrow /$

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- Formally, a context-free grammar is a collection of four items:
 - A set of *nonterminal symbols* (also called *variables*),
 - A set of *terminal symbols* (the *alphabet* of the CFG)
 - A set of *production rules* saying how each nonterminal can be replaced by a string of terminals and nonterminals, and
 - A *start symbol* (which must be a nonterminal) that begins the derivation.

 $E \rightarrow int$ $\mathbf{E} \rightarrow \mathbf{E} \ \mathbf{Op} \ \mathbf{E}$ $\mathbf{E} \rightarrow (\mathbf{E})$

Some CFG Notation

- In today's slides, capital letters in **Bold Red Uppercase** will represent nonterminals.
 - e.g. **A**, **B**, **C**, **D**
- Lowercase letters in **blue monospace** will represent terminals.
 - e.g. **t**, **u**, **v**, **w**
- Lowercase Greek letters in *gray italics* will represent arbitrary strings of terminals and nonterminals.
 - e.g. **α**, **γ**, **ω**
- You don't need to use these conventions on your own; just make sure whatever you do is readable. ☺

A Notational Shorthand

$$E \rightarrow int$$

$$E \rightarrow E \ Op \ E$$

$$E \rightarrow (E)$$

$$Op \rightarrow +$$

$$Op \rightarrow -$$

$$Op \rightarrow *$$

$$Op \rightarrow /$$

A Notational Shorthand

$$E \rightarrow int \mid E \text{ Op } E \mid (E)$$
$$Op \rightarrow + \mid - \mid * \mid /$$

Derivations

$$E \rightarrow E \text{ Op } E \mid \texttt{int} \mid (E)$$
$$Op \rightarrow + \mid * \mid - \mid /$$

- E
- $\Rightarrow \mathbf{E} \mathbf{Op} \mathbf{E}$
- $\Rightarrow E Op (E)$
- $\Rightarrow E Op (E Op E)$
- \Rightarrow E * (E Op E)
- \Rightarrow int * (E Op E)
- \Rightarrow int * (int **Op E**)
- \Rightarrow int * (int **Op** int)
- \Rightarrow int * (int + int)

- A sequence of steps where nonterminals are replaced by the right-hand side of a production is called a *derivation*.
- If string $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ derives string $\boldsymbol{\omega}$, we write $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \Rightarrow^* \boldsymbol{\omega}$.
- In the example on the left, we see $\mathbf{E} \Rightarrow^* \mathbf{int} * (\mathbf{int} + \mathbf{int})$.

 If G is a CFG with alphabet Σ and start symbol S, then the *language of G* is the set

$$\mathscr{L}(G) = \{ \boldsymbol{\omega} \in \Sigma^* \mid \mathbf{S} \Rightarrow^* \boldsymbol{\omega} \}$$

• That is, $\mathscr{L}(G)$ is the set of strings of terminals derivable from the start symbol.

If G is a CFG with alphabet Σ and start symbol **S**, then the **language of G** is the set

$$\mathscr{L}(G) = \{ \boldsymbol{\omega} \in \Sigma^* \mid \mathbf{S} \Rightarrow^* \boldsymbol{\omega} \}$$

Consider the following CFG G over $\Sigma = \{a, b, C, d\}$: $S \rightarrow Sa \mid dT$ $T \rightarrow bTb \mid C$ How many of the following strings are in $\mathcal{L}(G)$? dc dca cad **bcb d**Taa

Answer at **PollEv.com/cs103** or text **CS103** to **22333** once to join, then **a number**.

Context-Free Languages

- A language *L* is called a *context-free language* (or CFL) if there is a CFG *G* such that $L = \mathscr{L}(G)$.
- Questions:
 - What languages are context-free?
 - How are context-free and regular languages related?

- CFGs consist purely of production rules of the form $A \rightarrow \omega$. They do not have the regular expression operators * or \cup .
- However, we can convert regular expressions to CFGs as follows:

 $S \rightarrow a*b$

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Regular Languages and CFLs

- **Theorem:** Every regular language is context-free.
- **Proof Idea:** Use the construction from the previous slides to convert a regular expression for *L* into a CFG for *L*. ■
- **Problem Set 8 Exercise:** Instead, show how to convert a DFA/NFA into a CFG.

• Consider the following CFG *G*:

 $S \rightarrow aSb \mid \epsilon$

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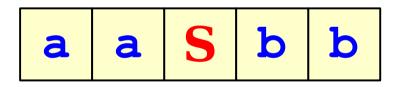
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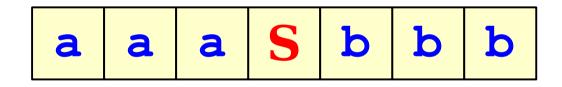
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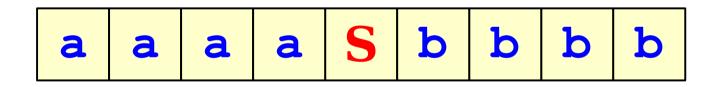
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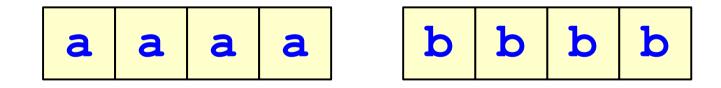
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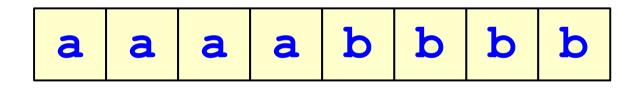
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• Consider the following CFG G:

 $S \rightarrow aSb \mid \epsilon$

• What strings can this generate?

 $\mathscr{A}(G) = \{ a^n b^n \mid n \in \mathbb{N} \}$



All Languages

- Why do CFGs have more power than regular expressions?
- **Intuition:** Derivations of strings have unbounded "memory."

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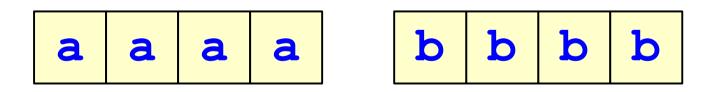
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- **Intuition:** Derivations of strings have unbounded "memory."

- Like designing DFAs, NFAs, and regular expressions, designing CFGs is a craft.
- When thinking about CFGs:
 - **Think recursively:** Build up bigger structures from smaller ones.
 - *Have a construction plan:* Know in what order you will build up the string.
 - **Store information in nonterminals:** Have each nonterminal correspond to some useful piece of information.

- Let $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$ and let $L = \{w \in \Sigma^* \mid w \text{ is a palindrome }\}$
- We can design a CFG for *L* by thinking inductively:
 - Base case: ε, a, and b are palindromes.
 - If $\boldsymbol{\omega}$ is a palindrome, then **a** $\boldsymbol{\omega}$ **a** and **b** $\boldsymbol{\omega}$ **b** are palindromes.
 - No other strings are palindromes.

 $\mathbf{S} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{\epsilon} \mid \mathbf{a} \mid \mathbf{b} \mid \mathbf{aSa} \mid \mathbf{bSb}$

- Let $\Sigma = \{(,)\}$ and let $L = \{w \in \Sigma^* \mid w \text{ is a string of balanced parentheses }\}$
- Some sample strings in *L*:

- Let $\Sigma = \{(,)\}$ and let $L = \{w \in \Sigma^* \mid w \text{ is a string of balanced parentheses }\}$
- Let's think about this recursively.
 - Base case: the empty string is a string of balanced parentheses.
 - Recursive step: Look at the closing parenthesis that matches the first open parenthesis.

(()())())())()))()))

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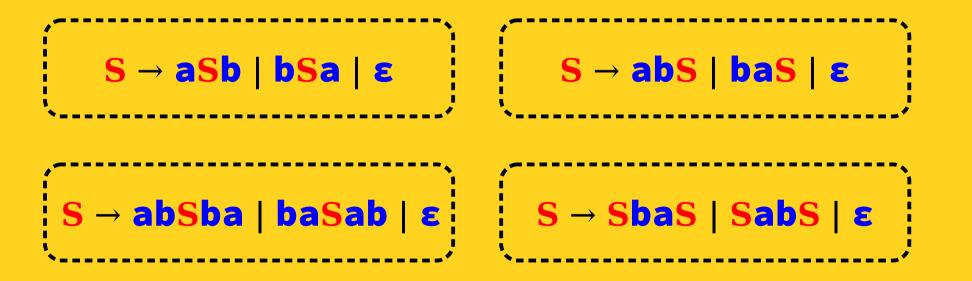
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- Let's think about this recursively.
 - Base case: the empty string is a string of balanced parentheses.
 - Recursive step: Look at the closing parenthesis that matches the first open parenthesis. Removing the first parenthesis and the matching parenthesis forms two new strings of balanced parentheses.

• Let $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$ and let $L = \{w \in \Sigma^* \mid w has the same number of a's and b's \}$

How many of the following CFGs have language *L*?



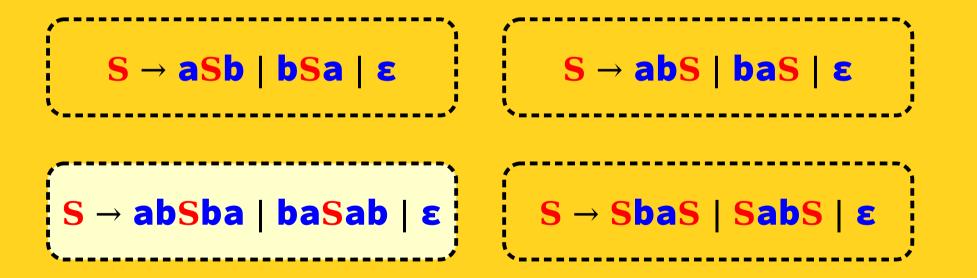
• Let $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$ and let $L = \{w \in \Sigma^* \mid w\}$ has the same number of a's and b's } How many of the following CFGs have language *L*? $S \rightarrow aSb \mid bSa \mid \epsilon$ $S \rightarrow abS \mid baS \mid \epsilon$ S → SbaS | SabS | ε $S \rightarrow abSba \mid baSab \mid \epsilon$

 Let Σ = {a, b} and let L = {w ∈ Σ* | w has the same number of a's and b's }
 How many of the following CFGs have language L?

 $S \rightarrow aSb \mid bSa \mid \epsilon$ $S \rightarrow abS \mid baS \mid \epsilon$ $S \rightarrow abSba \mid baSab \mid \epsilon$ $S \rightarrow abSba \mid baSab \mid \epsilon$ $S \rightarrow SbaS \mid SabS \mid \epsilon$

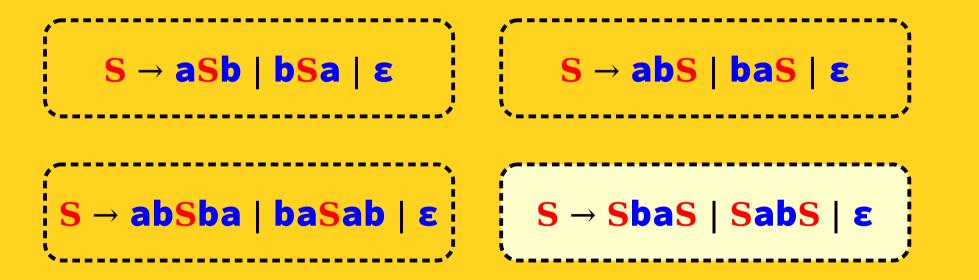
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How many of the following CFGs have language *L*?



Designing CFGs: A Caveat

- When designing a CFG for a language, make sure that it
 - generates all the strings in the language and
 - never generates a string outside the language.
- The first of these can be tricky make sure to test your grammars!
- You'll design your own CFG for this language on Problem Set 8.

CFG Caveats II

• Is the following grammar a CFG for the language { $a^n b^n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}$ }?

$\mathbf{S} \rightarrow \mathbf{aSb}$

- What strings in {a, b}* can you derive?
 - Answer: **None!**
- What is the language of the grammar?
 - Answer: Ø
- When designing CFGs, make sure your recursion actually terminates!

- When designing CFGs, remember that each nonterminal can be expanded out independently of the others.
- Let $\Sigma = \{a, \stackrel{?}{=}\}$ and let $L = \{a^n \stackrel{?}{=} a^n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$.
- Is the following a CFG for *L*?

$\mathbf{S} \to \mathbf{X}^{\underline{?}}\mathbf{X}$	S
$\mathbf{X} \rightarrow \mathbf{aX} \mid \mathbf{\epsilon}$	$\Rightarrow \mathbf{X}^{\underline{?}}\mathbf{X}$
	$\Rightarrow \mathbf{aX}^{?}\mathbf{X}$
	⇒ aaX≟X
	⇒ aa≟X
	⇒ aa≟aX

Finding a Build Order

- Let $\Sigma = \{a, \stackrel{\scriptscriptstyle{\scriptscriptstyle \perp}}{=}\}$ and let $L = \{a^n \stackrel{\scriptscriptstyle{\scriptscriptstyle \perp}}{=} a^n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}.$
- To build a CFG for *L*, we need to be more clever with how we construct the string.
 - If we build the strings of a's independently of one another, then we can't enforce that they have the same length.
 - **Idea:** Build both strings of **a**'s at the same time.
- Here's one possible grammar based on that idea:

S → ≟ aSa	S
	⇒ aSa
	⇒ aaSaa
	⇒ aaaSaaa
	⇒ aaa≟aaa

Function Prototypes

- Let $\Sigma = \{$ **void**, **int**, **double**, **name**, **(**, **)**, **,**, **;** $\}$.
- Let's write a CFG for C-style function prototypes!
- Examples:
 - void name(int name, double name);
 - int name();
 - int name(double name);
 - int name(int, int name, int);
 - void name(void);

Function Prototypes

- Here's one possible grammar:
 - $S \rightarrow Ret name (Args);$
 - Ret \rightarrow Type | void
 - Type \rightarrow int | double
 - Args $\rightarrow \epsilon$ | void | ArgList
 - ArgList → OneArg | ArgList, OneArg
 - OneArg → Type | Type name
- Fun question to think about: what changes would you need to make to support pointer types?

Summary of CFG Design Tips

- Look for recursive structures where they exist: they can help guide you toward a solution.
- Keep the build order in mind often, you'll build two totally different parts of the string concurrently.
 - Usually, those parts are built in opposite directions: one's built left-to-right, the other right-to-left.
- Use different nonterminals to represent different structures.

Applications of Context-Free Grammars

CFGs for Programming Languages

BLOCK \rightarrow **STMT** | { **STMTS** }

- $\begin{array}{rcl} \text{STMTS} & \rightarrow & \boldsymbol{\epsilon} \\ & | & \text{STMT STMTS} \end{array}$
- EXPR → identifier | constant | EXPR + EXPR | EXPR - EXPR | EXPR * EXPR

Grammars in Compilers

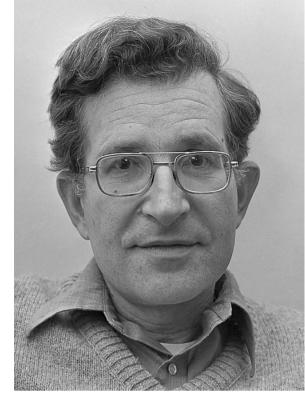
- One of the key steps in a compiler is figuring out what a program "means."
- This is usually done by defining a grammar showing the high-level structure of a programming language.
- There are certain classes of grammars (LL(1) grammars, LR(1) grammars, LALR(1) grammars, etc.) for which it's easy to figure out how a particular string was derived.
- Tools like yacc or bison automatically generate parsers from these grammars.
- Curious to learn more? Take CS143!

Natural Language Processing

- By building context-free grammars for actual languages and applying statistical inference, it's possible for a computer to recover the likely meaning of a sentence.
 - In fact, CFGs were first called *phrase-structure grammars* and were introduced by Noam Chomsky in his seminal work *Syntactic Structures*.
 - They were then adapted for use in the context of programming languages, where they were called *Backus*-*Naur forms*.
- Stanford's CoreNLP project is one place to look for an example of this.
- Want to learn more? Take CS124 or CS224N!

Biography Minute: Noam Chomsky

- Invented CFGs!
- Helped found fields of linguistics and cognitive science



PC: Hans Peters / Anefo (via Wikimedia)

- Today, perhaps more well known for political writing than linguistics
 - Made it onto President Nixon's "Enemies List"
 - Anti-capitalism, anti-imperialism, anti-war
 - Drawing on linguistics expertise, written extensively on state propaganda (*Manufacturing Consent*)

Next Time

- Turing Machines
 - What does a computer with unbounded memory look like?
 - How would you program it?