Chapter 2: Context-Free Languages

Context Free Languages

• The class of regular language is a subset of the class of context free languages



Context Free Grammar Definition

- A CFG G = (V, Σ , R, S) where V $\cap \Sigma = \emptyset$,
 - V is a finite set of symbols called nonterminals
 - $-\Sigma$ is a finite set of symbols called terminals.
 - R is a finite set of rules, which is a subset of V $X(V \cup \Sigma)^*$.
 - <nonterminal symbol> \rightarrow a string over terminals and nonterminals.
 - write $A \rightarrow w$ if $(A, w) \in R$.
 - $-S \in V$ is the start nonterminal.

A CFG for some sentences

 $\langle \text{Sentence} \rangle \rightarrow \langle \text{noun} \rangle \langle \text{verb} \rangle \langle \text{object} \rangle$

<noun $> \rightarrow$ Mike | Jean

 $\langle verb \rangle \rightarrow likes | sees$

<object $> \rightarrow$ flowers | zoo

Example for the grammar to generate the sentence Jean likes flowers:

<Sentence> \Rightarrow <noun> <verb> <object> \Rightarrow Jean <verb> <object>

 \Rightarrow Jean likes <object> \Rightarrow Jean likes flowers

A CFG for arithmetic expressions

- $E \rightarrow E + E \mid E * E \mid (E) \mid a \mid b$
- The start nonterminal: E.
- The set of terminals: {a, b, +, *, (,)}
- The set of nonterminals: {E}
- A derivation for generating a+a*b: $E \Rightarrow E + E \Rightarrow a + E \Rightarrow a + E \Rightarrow a + a * E$ $\Rightarrow a + a * b$

Another grammar for arithmetic expressions

- $\mathsf{E} \to \mathsf{E} + \mathsf{T} \mid \mathsf{T}$
- $\mathsf{T} \to \mathsf{T} * \mathsf{F} \mid \mathsf{F}$
- $F \rightarrow (E) \mid a \mid b$

A derivation for a + a * b:

 $E \Rightarrow E + T \Rightarrow T + T \Rightarrow F + T \Rightarrow x + T \Rightarrow a + T * F$ $\Rightarrow a + F * F \Rightarrow a + a * F \Rightarrow x + a * b$

Derivations and the language of the grammar G: L(G)

• One step derivation:

ightarrow u \Rightarrow v if u = xAy, v = xwy and A \rightarrow w in R

- 0 or more steps derivation: $> u \Rightarrow^* v \text{ if } u \Rightarrow u_1 \Rightarrow \Rightarrow u_n = v (n \ge 0)$
- $L(G) = \{ w \text{ in } T^* \mid S \Rightarrow^* w \}.$
- A language L is a <u>context-free language</u> if there is a CFG G such that L(G) = L.

Example:

- CFG: S \rightarrow aSb | ϵ
- Derivations for generating aabb:

 $S \Rightarrow aSb \Rightarrow aaSbb \Rightarrow aa\epsilon bb=aabb$

• $L(G) = \{a^n b^n \mid n \ge 0 \}$

Parse trees

In general, for a rule $A \rightarrow w_0 w_1 \dots w_n$, each node for w_i is placed as a child of the node labeled with A following the order.



Parse trees (cont'd)

- All derivations can be shown with parse trees.
- The order of rule applications may be lost.



$E \Rightarrow E + E \Rightarrow E + E * E \Rightarrow a + E * E \Rightarrow a + a * E \Rightarrow a + a * b$



Leftmost and Rightmost Derivations

- A derivation is a leftmost derivation if at every step the leftmost remaining nonterminal is replaced.
 - Consider $E \Rightarrow E + E \Rightarrow a + E$
- A derivation is a rightmost derivation if at every step the leftmost remaining nonterminal is replaced.

 $- E \Rightarrow E + E \Rightarrow E + a$

Ambiguity

- A string *w* is derived ambiguously in context-free grammar G if it has two or more different leftmost derivations.
- A CFG is ambiguous if it generates some string ambiguously.
- A CFL is inherently ambiguous if it can only be generated by ambiguous grammars.

Ambiguity (cont'd)

- An ambiguous CFG:
 - $-E \rightarrow E + E \mid E * E \mid (E) \mid a \mid b$
 - For string a + a*b, two leftmost derivations:
 - $E \Rightarrow E + E \Rightarrow a + E \Rightarrow a + E * E \Rightarrow a + a * E \Rightarrow a + a * b$

or

- $E \Rightarrow E * E \Rightarrow E + E * E \Rightarrow a + E * E \Rightarrow a + a * b$
- An inherently ambiguous CFL: $\{a^n b^m c^m d^n \mid n, m > 0\} \cup \{a^n b^n c^m d^m \mid n, m > 0\}$

Chomsky Normal Form (CNF)

- Every rule in the CFG G is of one of the two forms:
 - 1) $A \rightarrow a$

2) A \rightarrow BC, B \neq S and C \neq S (S is the start symbol)

3) Only $S \rightarrow \varepsilon$ is allowed if $\varepsilon \in L(G)$.

• All grammars can be converted into CNF

Closure properties of CFLs

- CFLs are closed under:
 - 1) Union
 - 2) Concatenation
 - 3) Star
- CFLs are NOT closed under intersection or complement

Given two CFGs

•
$$L_1 = L(G_1)$$
 where
 $G_1 = (V_1, \Sigma, R_1, S_1)$
• $L_2 = L(G_2)$ where
 $G_2 = (V_2, \Sigma, R_2, S_2)$

- Without loss of generality, we assume that $V_1 \cap V_2 = \emptyset$

General construction of the CFG for the CFL after union

- Let $G = (V, \Sigma, R, S)$ where
 - $-V = V_1 \cup V_2 \cup \{S\}$, (S is a new start symbol) $-S \notin V_1 \cup V_2$
 - $\mathsf{R} = \mathsf{R}_1 \cup \mathsf{R}_2 \cup \{ \mathsf{S} \to \mathsf{S}_1 \mid \mathsf{S}_2 \}$

Example

- $L_1 = \{ a^n b^n \mid n \ge 0 \}$
 - $G_1: S_1 \to aS_1b \mid \varepsilon$
- $L_2 = \{ b^n a^n \mid n \ge 0 \}$ - $G_2: S_2 \rightarrow bS_2 a \mid \varepsilon$
- The grammar for $L_1 \cup L_2$
 - Add a new start symbol S and rules $S \rightarrow S_1 \mid S_2$, so the new grammar is:

$$\begin{split} & S \rightarrow S_1 \mid S_2 \\ & S_1 \rightarrow aS_1 b \mid \epsilon \\ & S_2 \rightarrow bS_2 a \mid \epsilon \end{split}$$

General construction of the CFG for the CFL after concatenation

- Let $G = (V, \Sigma, R, S)$ where
 - $-V = V_1 \cup V_2 \cup \{ S \},$
 - $-S \notin V_1 \cup V_2$
 - $-\operatorname{\mathsf{R}}=\operatorname{\mathsf{R}}_1\cup\operatorname{\mathsf{R}}_2\cup\{\operatorname{\hspace{0.1cm}S}\to\operatorname{\hspace{0.1cm}S}_1\operatorname{\hspace{0.1cm}S}_2\}$

S is a new start symbol and $S \rightarrow S_1S_2$ is a new rule.

Example

- $L_1 = \{ a^n b^n \mid n \ge 0 \}$, $L_2 = \{ b^n a^n \mid n \ge 0 \}$
- $L_1.L_2 = \{ a^n b^{\{n+m\}} a^m \mid n, m \ge 0 \}$
- The CFG for $L_1.L_2$:
 - Add a new start symbol S and rule S \rightarrow S₁S₂ so the CFG for L₁.L₂ is:

$$S \rightarrow S_1 S_2$$
$$S_1 \rightarrow a S_1 b \mid \varepsilon$$
$$S_2 \rightarrow b S_2 a \mid \varepsilon$$

General construction of the CFG for the CFL after Star

- Let $G = (V, \Sigma, R, S)$ where
 - $-V = V_1 \cup \{S\},$ $-S \notin V_1$
 - $R = R_1 \cup \{ S \rightarrow SS_1 | \epsilon \}$

Examples

• $L_1 = \{a^n b^n \mid n \ge 0\}$

- $L_1^* = \{a^{n1}b^{n1} \dots a^{nk}b^{nk} \mid k \ge 0 \text{ and } n_i \ge 0 \text{ for all } i \}$

- $L_2 = \{ a^{n^2} | n \ge 1 \}$ - $L_2^* = a^*$
- The CFG for L_1^* :
 - Add a new start symbol S and rules $S \rightarrow SS_1 \mid \epsilon$.
 - The CFG for L_1^* is:

$$S \rightarrow SS_1 \mid \varepsilon$$
$$S_1 \rightarrow aS_1b \mid \varepsilon$$

Push Down Automaton (PDA)

- PDA is a language acceptor model for CFLs.
- Similar to NFA but has an extra component called a stack



PDA (cont'd)

- In one move, a PDA can :
 - change state,
 - read a symbol from the input tape or ignore it,
 - Write a symbol to the top (push) of the stack and the rest in the stack are "push down", or
 - Remove a symbol from the top (pop) of the stack and other symbols in the stack are moved up.

PDA (cont'd)

 If read a, transit from state p to state q, pop x from the stack, and push b into the stack, it is showed as



Definition of PDA

- A PDA is a 6-tuple (Q, Σ, Γ, δ, q0, F), where Q, Σ, Γ, δ, F are finite sets:
 - 1. Q is the set of states
 - 2. Σ is the input alphabet
 - 3. Γ is the stack alphabet
 - 4. $\delta: (Q X \sum_{\varepsilon} X \Gamma_{\varepsilon}) \longrightarrow (Q X \Gamma_{\varepsilon})$
 - 5. $q0 \in Q$ is the start state, and
 - 6. $F \subseteq Q$ is the set of accept states

Example of a PDA

• PDA for $L = \{0^n 1^n | n \ge 0\}$



FIGURE **2.15** State diagram for the PDA M_1 that recognizes $\{0^n 1^n | n \ge 0\}$

Initially place a special symbol \$ on the stack and then pop it at the end before acceptance.

This figure is taken from the book *Introduction to Theory of Computation, Michael Sipser,* page 115.

Definition of L(M)

• The language that PDA M accepts:

 $-L(M) = \{w \in \Sigma^* \mid M \text{ accepts } w\}$

Example



What is the language of the above PDA?

This figure is taken from the book *Introduction to Theory of Computation, Michael Sipser,* page 116.

Equivalence with CFGs

- For every CFG G there is a PDA M such that L(G) = L(M)
- For every PDA M there is a CFG G such that L(M) = L(G)

$CFG \rightarrow PDA$

- Given CFG G = (V, Σ , R, S)
 - Let PDA M = (Q, Σ , $\Sigma \cup V \cup \{\$\}$, δ , q_{start} , $\{q_{accept}\}$)
 - $\begin{array}{l} \ \mathsf{Q} = \{\mathsf{q}_{\mathsf{start}}, \, \mathsf{q}_{\mathsf{loop}}, \mathsf{q}_{\mathsf{accept}}\} \\ 1. \ ((\mathsf{q}_{\mathsf{start}}, \, \epsilon, \, \epsilon), \, (\mathsf{q}_{\mathsf{loop}}, \, \mathsf{S}\})) \in \delta \\ 2. \ \mathsf{For each rule} \ \mathsf{A} \to \mathsf{W}, \\ \ ((\mathsf{q}_{\mathsf{loop}}, \epsilon, \, \mathsf{A}), \, (\mathsf{q}_{\mathsf{loop}}, \, \mathsf{W})) \in \delta \\ 3. \ \mathsf{For each symbol} \ \sigma \in \Sigma \\ \ ((\mathsf{q}_{\mathsf{loop}}, \, \sigma, \, \sigma), \, (\mathsf{q}_{\mathsf{loop}}, \, \epsilon)) \in \delta \\ 4. \ ((\mathsf{q}_{\mathsf{loop}}, \, \epsilon, \, \$), \, (\mathsf{q}_{\mathsf{accept}}, \, \epsilon)) \in \delta \end{array}$



Example





This figure is taken from the book *Introduction to Theory of Computation, Michael Sipser,* page 120.

$\mathsf{PDA} \mathrel{\mathsf{P}} \xrightarrow{} \mathsf{CFG} \mathrel{\mathsf{G}}$

- First, we simplify our task by modifying P slightly to give it the following three features:
 - 1. It has a single accept state, q_{accept}.
 - 2. It empties its stack before accepting.
 - 3. Each transition either pushes a symbol onto the stack (a *push* move) or pops one off the stack (a *pop* move), but it does not do both at the same time.

PDA P \rightarrow CFG G (cont'd)

- For $P = \{Q, \Sigma, \Gamma, \delta, q_0, \{q_{accept}\}\}$, to construct G:
- The variables of G are $\{A_{pq} \mid p, q \in Q\}$.
- The start variable is Aq₀q_{qaccept}
 Type 1: For each p, q, r, s ∈ Q, u ∈ Γ, and a, b ∈ Σ_ε, if ((p, a, ε), (r, u)) is in δ and ((s, b, u), (q, ε)) is in δ, put the rule A_{pq}→ aA_{rs}b in G.

Type 2: For each p, q, r \in Q, put the rule $A_{pq} \rightarrow A_{pr}A_{rq}$ in G.

Type 3: Finally, for each $p \in Q$, put the rule $A_{pp} \rightarrow \epsilon$ in G.

Example

- Let M be the PDA for $\{a^nb^n \mid n > 0\}$
 - $-M = \{\{p, q\}, \{a, b\}, \{a\}, \delta, p, \{q\}\}, where$ $<math>-\delta = \{((p, a, \epsilon), (p, a)), ((p, b, a), (q, \epsilon)), ((q, b, a), (q, \epsilon)))$
 - a),(q, ϵ))}



Example (cont'd)

- CFG, G = (V, {a, b}, A_{pq}, R), A_{pq} is the start variable – V = {A_{pp}, A_{pq}, A_{qp}, A_{qq}}
- R contains the following rules:
 - Type 1: • $A_{pq} \rightarrow aA_{pp}b$ • $A_{pq} \rightarrow aA_{pq}b$ - Type 2: • $A_{pp} \rightarrow A_{pp} A_{pp} | A_{pq} A_{qp}$ • $A_{pq} \rightarrow A_{pp} A_{pq} | A_{pq} A_{qq}$ • $A_{qp} \rightarrow A_{qp} A_{pp} | A_{qq} A_{qq}$ • $A_{qq} \rightarrow A_{qp} A_{pq} | A_{qq} A_{qq}$ - Type 3:
 - $A_{pp} \rightarrow \varepsilon$
 - $A_{qq} \rightarrow \epsilon$

We can discard all rules containing the variables A_{qq} and A_{qp} . And we can also simplify the rules containing A_{pp} and get the grammar with just two rules

 $A_{pq} \rightarrow ab and A_{pq} \rightarrow aA_{pq}b.$

Non-context free languages

- Pumping lemma for context-free languages:
 - If A is an infinite context-free language, then there is a number p (the pumping length) where, if s is any string in A of length at least p, then s may be divided into five pieces s = uvxyz satisfying the conditions:
 - 1. |vy| > 0,
 - 2. |*vxy*| <= *p*, and
 - 3. For each $i \ge 0$, $uv^i xy^i z \in A$.

Some non context-free languages

- The following languages are not contextfree.
 - 1. $\{a^n b^n c^n \mid n \ge 0 \}$.
 - 2. {ww | w in {a, b}*}
 - 3. $\{a^{n^2} \mid n \ge 0\}$
 - 4. {w in {a, b, c}* | w has equal a's, b's and c's}.

Prove L= $\{a^nb^nc^n \mid n \ge 0\}$ is not a CFI

- Assume L is a CFL. L is infinite.
- Let $w = a^{p}b^{p}c^{p}$, where p is the pumping length

$$|w| = 3p \ge p$$
$$|vy| > 0$$
$$|vxy| \le p$$

$$\mathcal{W}=a \dots ab \dots bc \dots c$$

 \cap

Example (contd.)

- Case 1:
 - Both v and y contain only one type of alphabet symbols, such that v does not contain both a's and b's or both b's and c's and the same holds for y. Two possibilities are shown below.

$$a \dots a \underbrace{b \dots b}_{\mathsf{y}/\mathsf{v}} \underbrace{c \dots}_{\mathsf{y}} c$$

- In this case the string uv^2xy^2z cannot contain equal number of *a*'s, *b*'s and *c*'s. Therefore, $uv^2xy^2z \notin L$.

Example (cont'd)

Case 2:

 Either v or y contain more than one type of alphabet symbols. Two possibilities are shown below.

$$a.\underbrace{\ldots a}_{\mathsf{v}} \underbrace{a \underbrace{\ldots a}_{\mathsf{y/v}} \underbrace{b }_{\mathsf{y/v}} \underbrace{b }_{\mathsf{y}} c}_{\mathsf{y}} c$$

- In this case the string uv^2xy^2z may contain equal number of the three alphabet symbols but won't contain them in the correct order. Therefore, $uv^2xy^2z \notin L$.

CFL is not closed under intersection or complement

• Let $\Sigma = \{a, b, c\}$. Both L and L' are CFLs

 $-L = \{w \text{ over } \Sigma \mid w \text{ has equal a's and b's} \}$

 $- L' = \{w \text{ over } \Sigma \mid w \text{ has equal b's and c's} \}.$

- L ∩ L' = {w over Σ | w has equal a's, b's and c's}, it is not a CFL.
- Because of CFLs are closed under Union and the DeMorgan's law, we can see that CFLs are not closed under complement either.