

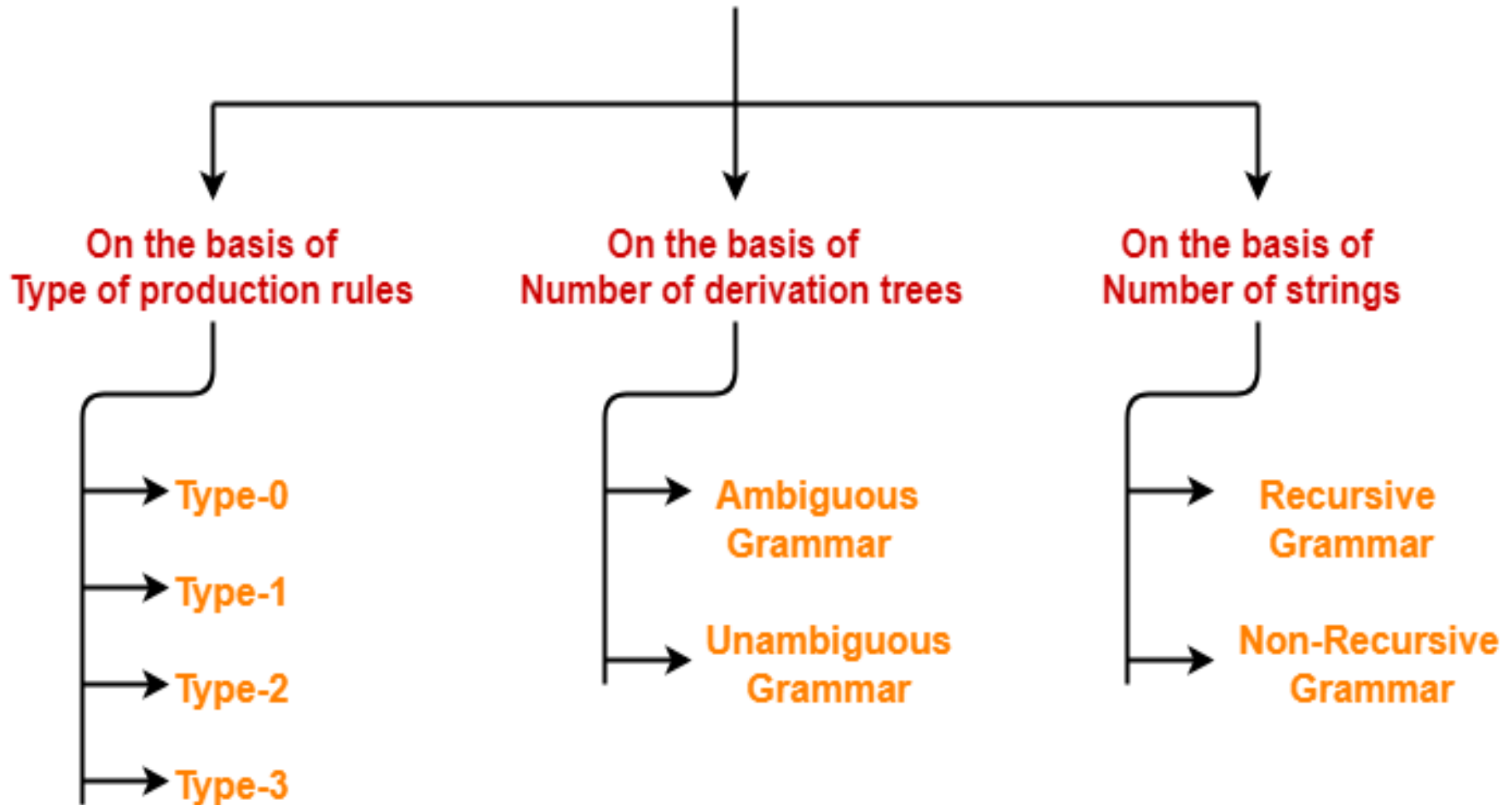
Chomsky Hierarchy and Closure Properties of CFL

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About Chomsky :

- Linguistics have attempted to define grammars since the inception of natural languages like English, Sanskrit, Mandarin, etc.
- Noam Chomsky was a Philosopher of Languages
- He was a Professor of Linguistics
- **Noam Chomsky** gave a mathematical model of grammar in 1956 which is effective for writing computer languages.
- The theory of formal languages finds its applicability extensively in the fields of Computer Science.....Formally called as Chomsky Hierarchy

Types of Grammar



(Chomsky Hierarchy)

- 
- (LHS) $a \rightarrow b$ (RHS) is a production rule.
 - And, that is the basis of classification in Chomsky Hierarchy

Chomsky Hierarchy :

- Comprises four types of languages and their associated grammars and machines.
 - Type 3: Regular Languages
 - Type 2: Context-Free Languages
 - Type 1: Context-Sensitive Languages
 - Type 0: Recursively Enumerable Languages

Type 3 : Regular Grammar

- **Type-3 grammars** generate regular languages.
- Type-3 grammars must have a single non-terminal on the left-hand side and a right-hand side consisting of a single terminal or single terminal followed by a single non-terminal.
- The productions must be in the form $X \rightarrow a$ or $X \rightarrow aY$
where $X, Y \in N$ (Non terminal)
and $a \in T$ (Terminal)

- These languages generated by these grammars are be recognized by a **Finite Automaton**.

- **Example**

$$X \rightarrow \varepsilon, X \rightarrow a \mid aY, Y \rightarrow b$$

Type 2 : Context Free Grammar

- **Type-2 grammars** generate context-free languages.
- The productions must be in the form $A \rightarrow \gamma$
where $A \in N$ (Non terminal)
and $\gamma \in (T \cup N)^*$ (String of terminals and non-terminals).
- These languages generated by these grammars are be recognized by a **Pushdown Automaton**.
- **Example :**
$$S \rightarrow X a \quad X \rightarrow a X \rightarrow aX \quad X \rightarrow abc \quad X \rightarrow \epsilon$$

Type 1 : Context Sensitive Grammar

- **Type-1 grammars** generate context-sensitive languages. The productions must be in the form

$$\alpha A \beta \rightarrow \alpha \gamma \beta$$

where $A \in N$ (Non-terminal)

and $\alpha, \beta, \gamma \in (T \cup N)^*$ (Strings of terminals and non-terminals)

- The strings α and β may be empty, but γ must be non-empty.
- $|LHS| \leq |RHS|$ productions
- The start variable S cannot appear on the RHS
- The languages generated by these grammars are recognized by a **Linear bounded automaton**.
- **Example**

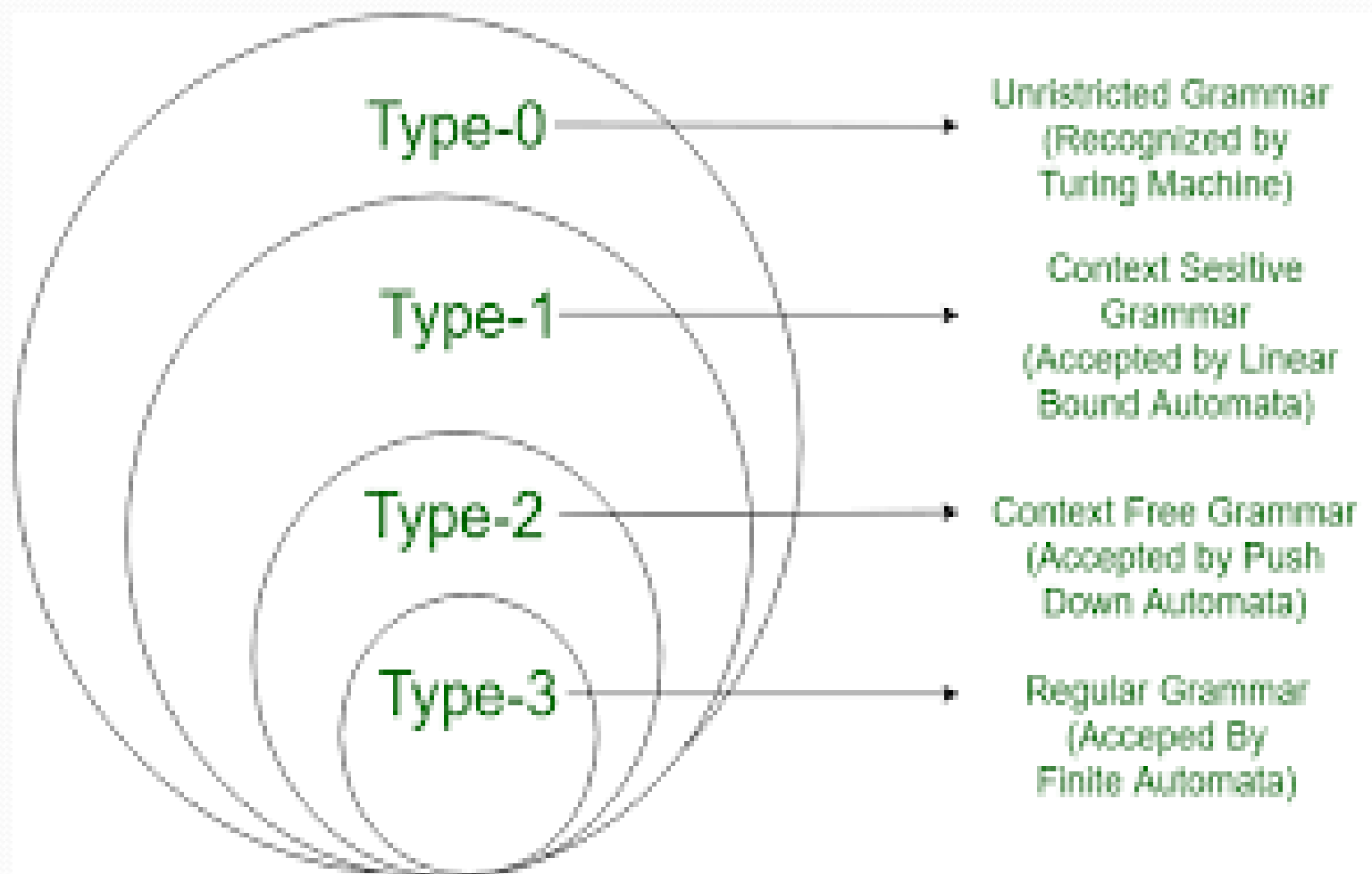
$$AB \rightarrow AbBc, A \rightarrow bcA, B \rightarrow b$$

Type 0 : Unrestricted Grammar

- **Type-0 grammars** generate recursively enumerable languages.
- The productions have no restrictions.
- They are any phase structure grammar including all formal grammars.
- They generate the languages that are recognized by a **Turing machine**.
- The productions can be in the form of $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ where α is a string of terminals and non terminals with at least one non-terminal and α cannot be null. β is a string of terminals and non-terminals.
- **Example**

$S \rightarrow ACaB$, $Bc \rightarrow acB$, $CB \rightarrow DB$, $aD \rightarrow Db$

Grammar Type	Grammar Accepted	Language Accepted	Automaton
Type 0	Unrestricted grammar	Recursively enumerable language	Turing Machine
Type 1	Context-sensitive grammar	Context-sensitive language	Linear-bounded automaton
Type 2	Context-free grammar	Context-free language	Pushdown automaton
Type 3	Regular grammar	Regular language	Finite state automaton



Closure Properties of CFL

Closure properties of CFL

- **Closure properties** consider operations on CFL that are guaranteed to produce a CFL
- The CFL's are closed under *union, concatenation, closure*

Union

- Let L_1 and L_2 be two context free languages. Then $L_1 \cup L_2$ is also context free.
- Use $L = \{a, b\}$, $s(a) = L_1$ and $s(b) = L_2$. $s(L) = L_1 \cup L_2$
- To get grammar for $L_1 \cup L_2$?
 - Add new start symbol S and rules $S \rightarrow S_1 | S_2$
 - We get grammar $G = (V, T, P, S)$ where
 $V = V_1 \cup V_2 \cup \{S\}$, where $S \notin V_1 \cup V_2$
 $P = P_1 \cup P_2 \cup \{S \rightarrow S_1 | S_2\}$
- Example:
 - $L_1 = \{a^n b^n \mid n \geq 0\}$, $L_2 = \{b^n a^n \mid n \geq 0\}$
 - $G_1 : S_1 \rightarrow aS_1b \mid \varepsilon$, $G_2 : S_2 \rightarrow bS_2a \mid \varepsilon$
 - $L_1 \cup L_2$ is $G = (\{S_1, S_2, S\}, \{a, b\}, P, S)$ where $P = \{P_1 \cup P_2 \cup \{S \rightarrow S_1 \mid S_2\}\}$

- Example
- Let $L_1 = \{ a^n b^n, n > 0 \}$. Corresponding grammar G_1 will have P: $S_1 \rightarrow aAb | ab$
- Let $L_2 = \{ c^m d^m, m \geq 0 \}$. Corresponding grammar G_2 will have P: $S_2 \rightarrow cBb | \epsilon$
- Union of L_1 and L_2 , $L = L_1 \cup L_2 = \{ a^n b^n \} \cup \{ c^m d^m \}$
- The corresponding grammar G will have the additional production $S \rightarrow S_1 \mid S_2$

Concatenation

- If L_1 and L_2 are context free languages, then L_1L_2 is also context free.
- Let $L = \{ab\}$, $s(a) = L_1$ and $s(b) = L_2$. Then $s(L) = L_1L_2$
- To get grammar for L_1L_2 ?
 - Add new start symbol and rule $S \rightarrow S_1S_2$
 - We get $G = (V, T, P, S)$ where
$$V = V_1 \cup V_2 \cup \{S\}, \text{ where } S \notin V_1 \cup V_2$$
$$P = P_1 \cup P_2 \cup \{S \rightarrow S_1S_2\}$$
- Example:
 - $L_1 = \{a^n b^n \mid n \geq 0\}$ with $G_1: S_1 \rightarrow aS_1b \mid \epsilon$
 - $L_2 = \{b^n a^n \mid n \geq 0\}$ with $G_2: S_2 \rightarrow bS_2a \mid \epsilon$
 - $L_1L_2 = \{a^n b^{\{n+m\}} a^m \mid n, m \geq 0\}$ with $G = (\{S, S_1, S_2\}, \{a, b\}, \{S \rightarrow S_1S_2, S_1 \rightarrow aS_1b \mid \epsilon, S_2 \rightarrow bS_2a\}, S)$

- Example
- Concatenation of the languages L_1 and L_2 ,
$$L = L_1 L_2 = \{ a^n b^n c^m d^m \}$$
- The corresponding grammar G will have the additional production $S \rightarrow S_1 S_2$

Kleene Closure

- If L is a context free language, then L^* is also context free.
- Use $L = \{a\}^*$ or $L = \{a\}^+$, $s(a) = L_1$. Then $s(L) = L_1^*$
- Example:
 - Let $L = \{a^n b^n, n \geq 0\}$. Corresponding grammar G will have P :
 $S \rightarrow aAb \mid \varepsilon$
 - Kleene Star $L_1 = \{a^n b^n\}^*$
 - The corresponding grammar G_1 will have additional productions $S_1 \rightarrow SS_1 \mid \varepsilon$
- To get grammar for $(L_1)^*$
 - Add new start symbol S and rules $S \rightarrow SS_1 \mid \varepsilon$.
 - We get $G = (V, T, P, S)$ where
 $V = V_1 \cup \{S\}$, where $S \notin V_1$
 $P = P_1 \cup \{S \rightarrow SS_1 \mid \varepsilon\}$

Ambiguous Grammar

A grammar is said to be ambiguous if for at least one string generated by it, it produces more than one-

- parse tree
- or derivation tree
- or syntax tree
- or leftmost derivation
- or rightmost derivation

For ambiguous grammar, leftmost derivation and rightmost derivation represents different parse trees.

Ambiguous grammar contains less number of non-terminals.

Unambiguous Grammar

A grammar is said to be unambiguous if for all the strings generated by it, it produces exactly one-

- parse tree
- or derivation tree
- or syntax tree
- or leftmost derivation
- or rightmost derivation

For unambiguous grammar, leftmost derivation and rightmost derivation represents the same parse tree.

Unambiguous grammar contains more number of non-terminals.

For ambiguous grammar, length of parse tree is less.	For unambiguous grammar, length of parse tree is large.
<p>Ambiguous grammar is faster than unambiguous grammar in the derivation of a tree.</p> <p>(Reason is above 2 points)</p>	<p>Unambiguous grammar is slower than ambiguous grammar in the derivation of a tree.</p>
<p><u>Example-</u></p> $E \rightarrow E + E / E \times E / id$ <p>(Ambiguous Grammar)</p>	<p><u>Example-</u></p> $E \rightarrow E + T / T$ $T \rightarrow T \times F / F$ $F \rightarrow id$ <p>(Unambiguous Grammar)</p>