

COMS3261: Computer Science Theory

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CLOSURE PROPERTIES OF CFL's

- CFLs closed under Concatenation:

$$L_1, L_2 \text{ CFL} \Rightarrow L_1 \cdot L_2 \text{ CFL}$$

Proof: Given CFGs G_1, G_2 for L_1, L_2 .

Wlog assume G_1, G_2 have disjoint sets of variables V_1, V_2 and start symbols S_1, S_2

New grammar G :

Variable set $V = V_1 \cup V_2 +$ new start variable S

Productions = union of the productions and $S \rightarrow S_1 S_2$

Examples: Concatenation

1. $L = \{ a^n b^n c^m \mid n, m \geq 0 \}$ is a CFL:

concatenation of $L_1 = \{ a^n b^n \mid n \geq 0 \}$ and $L_2 = \{ c^m \mid m \geq 0 \} = c^*$

Grammar: $S \rightarrow S_1 S_2$

$S_1 \rightarrow \varepsilon \mid aS_1b$

$S_2 \rightarrow \varepsilon \mid cS_2$

2. $L = \{ a^i b^j a^k \mid j = i + k; i, j, k \geq 0 \}$ is CFL:

concatenation of $L_1 = \{ a^i b^i \mid i \geq 0 \}$ and $L_2 = \{ b^k a^k \mid k \geq 0 \}$

Grammar: $S \rightarrow S_1 S_2$

$S_1 \rightarrow \varepsilon \mid aS_1b$

$S_2 \rightarrow \varepsilon \mid bS_2a$

Closure under Union

- CFLs closed under Union: $L_1, L_2 \text{ CFL} \Rightarrow L_1 \cup L_2 \text{ CFL}$

Proof: Similar to concatenation

Given CFGs G_1, G_2 for L_1, L_2 .

Wlog assume G_1, G_2 have disjoint sets of variables V_1, V_2 and start symbols S_1, S_2

New grammar G :

Variable set $V = V_1 \cup V_2 +$ new start variable S

Productions = union of the productions and $S \rightarrow S_1 \mid S_2$

Example : Union

- Example: $L = \{ a^i b^j c^k \mid i=j \text{ or } j=k ; i,j,k \geq 0 \}$ is CFL
 $L = \{ a^i b^j c^k \mid i = j \} \cup \{ a^i b^j c^k \mid j = k \}$
- Grammar for $L_1 = \{ a^i b^j c^k \mid i = j \}$ (a shorter version)

$$S_1 \rightarrow T \mid S_1 c$$

$$T \rightarrow \varepsilon \mid a T b \quad [T \text{ derives all strings of form } a^i b^i]$$
- Grammar for $L_2 = \{ a^i b^j c^k \mid j = k \}$

$$S_2 \rightarrow R \mid a S_2$$

$$R \rightarrow \varepsilon \mid b R c \quad [R \text{ derives all strings of form } b^k c^k]$$
- Grammar for L

$$S \rightarrow S_1 \mid S_2$$

$$S_1 \rightarrow T \mid S_1 c$$

$$T \rightarrow \varepsilon \mid a T b$$

$$S_2 \rightarrow R \mid a S_2$$

$$R \rightarrow \varepsilon \mid b R c$$

Closure Under Star

- CFLs closed under Star *: $L_1 \text{ CFL} \Rightarrow (L_1)^* \text{ CFL}$
 Proof: Take grammar G_1 for L_1 with start symbol S_1
 Add new start symbol S and production $S \rightarrow \varepsilon \mid S_1 S$

Example: The set of strings of the form

$$a^{n1} b^{n1} a^{n2} b^{n2} a^{n3} b^{n3} \dots a^{nk} b^{nk} \text{ is CFL}$$

$$= \{ a^n b^n \mid n \geq 0 \}^*$$

Grammar: $S \rightarrow \varepsilon \mid S_1 S$
 $S_1 \rightarrow \varepsilon \mid a S_1 b$

Closure under Homomorphism

- **Homomorphism:** Mapping h from an alphabet Σ to set of strings over an alphabet T (same or different)
- $\forall a \in \Sigma, h(a) \in T^*$
- Extend map to strings: $h(a_1 \dots a_n) = h(a_1) \dots h(a_n) \in T^*$
- Extend to languages L over Σ : $h(L) = \{ h(w) \mid w \in L \}$

Generalization: Closure under Substitution

- **Substitution:** Mapping s from an alphabet Σ to set of languages over an alphabet T (same or different)
- $\forall a \in \Sigma, s(a) = L_a$, a language over T
- Extend map to strings: $s(a_1 \dots a_n) = s(a_1) \dots s(a_n) = L_{a_1} \dots L_{a_n}$
 - Note: $s(\text{string})$ is a language, not a string
- Extend to languages L over Σ : $s(L) = \bigcup_{w \in L} s(w)$
- **Example:** $\Sigma = \{1, 2\}$, $T = \{a, b, c\}$, $s(1) = \{a^n b^n \mid n \geq 1\}$, $s(2) = \{bc\}$
 $s(12) = \{a^n b^{n+1} c \mid n \geq 1\}$,
 $s(11) = \{a^{n_1} b^{n_1} a^{n_2} b^{n_2} \mid n_1, n_2 \geq 1\}$
 $s(1^*) = \{a^{n_1} b^{n_1} a^{n_2} b^{n_2} \dots a^{n_k} b^{n_k} \mid k \geq 0, n_i \geq 1\}$

Substitution examples

Union, Concatenation, Star are special cases of Substitution applied to languages

$$\Sigma = \{1,2\}, s(1) = L_1, s(2) = L_2$$

$$\text{Union: } s(\{1,2\}) = L_1 \cup L_2$$

$$\text{Concatenation: } s(\{12\}) = L_1 L_2$$

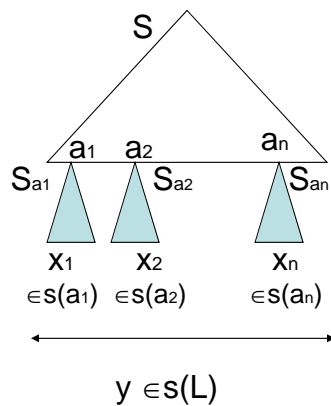
$$\text{Star: } s(\{1\}^*) = (L_1)^*$$

CFL Closure under Substitution

- Theorem: If L is a cfl over alphabet Σ , and $s(a)=L_a$ is cfl for all $a \in \Sigma$, then $s(L)$ is cfl.
- Proof: Take grammars $G=(V,\Sigma,P,S)$ for L , and grammars (V_a,T,P_a,S_a) for each L_a . Assume wlog all variable sets disjoint by renaming them if necessary.
- Replace each occurrence of each terminal a in productions of G by S_a .
- Resulting cfg $G'=(V',T,P',S)$ where $V' = V \cup \bigcup_{a \in \Sigma} V_a$,
 $P' = \text{modified } P \cup \bigcup_a P_a$
- Example: 1^* generated by $S \rightarrow \varepsilon \mid 1S$
 $s(1) = L_1 = \{a^n b^n \mid n \geq 0\}$ generated by $S_1 \rightarrow \varepsilon \mid aS_1b$
CFG for $(L_1)^*$: $S \rightarrow \varepsilon \mid S_1 S, \quad S_1 \rightarrow \varepsilon \mid aS_1b$

Proof of Theorem

- **Parse trees of G' :** Take a parse tree T of G , replace each leaf labeled $a \in \Sigma$ by a parse tree T_a in G_a (several leaves of T may have same label a , but the trees can be different)



$$y \in s(L) \Leftrightarrow y \in L(G')$$

Both ways:

$y \in s(L) \Rightarrow \exists a_1 \dots a_n \in L,$
 $\exists x_1 \in L_{a_1}, x_n \in L_{a_n} \text{ s.t. } y = x_1 \dots x_n \Rightarrow$
 can construct a parse tree like that

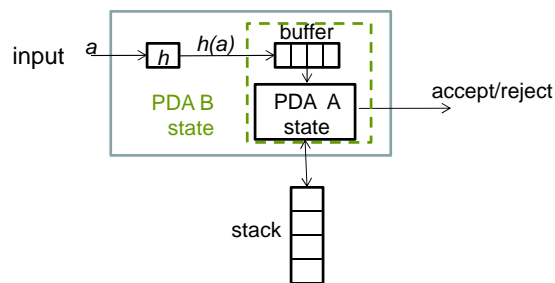
$y \in L(G') \Rightarrow$ its parse tree can be
 decomposed like that

Closure under Reversal

- Can't show with substitution theorem, but can show directly
- Given grammar $G = (V, T, P, S)$, define $G^R = (V, T, P^R, S)$, where P^R reverses the bodies of all the productions of P , i.e. $A \rightarrow \alpha$ becomes $A \rightarrow \alpha^R$
- Then every derivation of G , $S \Rightarrow \dots \Rightarrow w$ yields a corresponding derivation in G^R where all sentential forms are reversed $S \Rightarrow \dots \Rightarrow w^R$

Closure under Inverse Homomorphism

- If $h: \Sigma \rightarrow T^*$ is a homomorphism and L a language, then $h^{-1}(L) = \{ w \in \Sigma^* \mid h(w) \in L \}$
- Theorem: If L is a CFL then $h^{-1}(L)$ is also a CFL
- Proof:
- Use a PDA A for L to construct a PDA B for $h^{-1}(L)$



NON-CLOSURE Properties of CFLs

- Not closed under: Intersection, Complement, Difference
- Intersection:
 - $L_1 = \{ a^n b^n c^i \mid n \geq 0, i \geq 0 \}$ is CFL,
 - $L_2 = \{ a^i b^n c^n \mid n \geq 0, i \geq 0 \}$ is CFL, but
 - $L_1 \cap L_2 = \{ a^n b^n c^n \mid n \geq 0 \}$ is not CFL

CFL Nonclosure ctd.

- **Complement:**

Proof 1: By DeMorgan's law $L_1 \cap L_2 = (L_1^c \cup L_2^c)^c$

If CFL were closed under complement, and since they are closed under \cup , then they would be also closed under \cap

Proof 2: $\{ a^n b^n c^n \mid n \geq 0 \}$ is not CFL

complement = $(a^* b^* c^*)^c \cup \{ a^i b^j c^k \mid i \neq j \} \cup \{ a^i b^j c^k \mid j \neq k \}$ is CFL

- **Difference:** $L_1 - L_2$

Proof: Take $L_1 = \Sigma^*$. Then $(L_2)^c = L_1 - L_2$

- **DCFLs are closed under complement**

Switch final, nonfinal states of DPDA & eliminate first nonterminating computations (nontrivial)

CFL CLOSURE under \cap with Regular

- If L is CFL and R is a regular language then $L \cap R$ is CFL
Also $L - R$ is CFL (caution: but $R - L$ is not necessarily CFL)

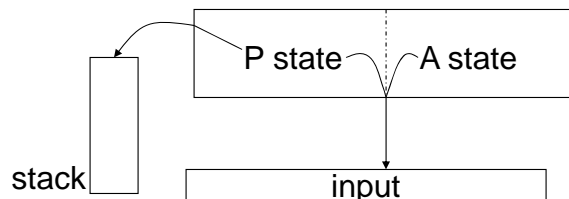
- Proof: Take PDA P for L, FA A for R.

- **Product construction:**

Construct PDA M that follows in parallel the computation of both on a given input w (similar to \cap of regular languages).

State of M keeps track of both the state of P and R

$M = P \times A$ has state set $Q_M = Q_P \times Q_A$, Final set $F_M = F_P \times F_A$



ALGORITHMS for CFLs

- We saw already several algorithms:
- Conversion between PDAs that accept by final state or empty stack: Linear time, size
- Conversion from CFG to PDA: Linear time, size
- Conversion from PDA to CFG: $O(n^3)$, where n is the size of the description of the PDA (states, all transitions)

ALGORITHMS for CFLs

- We will discuss algorithms for:
- Emptiness of a language of a CFG:
Given CFG G , is $L(G) = \emptyset$?
 - If CFL given by PDA, can convert to CFG and test the CFG
- Cleaning algorithms for CFG
e.g. elimination of useless variables and productions
- Transformation to a simple form: Chomsky Normal Form
- Membership / Parsing problem
Given CFG G , string w , does $w \in L(G)$?

Testing Emptiness of CFG

- Given CFG $G=(V,T,P,S)$, is $L(G) = \emptyset$?
- A variable X is called **generating** if $X \Rightarrow^* w$ for some terminal string w
- $L(G) \neq \emptyset$ iff the start variable S is generating
- We will compute all the generating variables

Algorithm for Computing the Generating Variables

- **Initialization (Basis):** $K := T$
- **Loop (Induction):** while $(\exists \text{ production } X \rightarrow \beta \text{ such that } X \notin K \text{ but all symbols of } \beta \in K)$ $K := K \cup \{X\}$
- **Return** the variables in K

- **Time:** straightforward: $O(|G|^2)$, where $|G|$ is the size of the grammar (includes sum of lengths of the productions)
- Can do in $O(|G|)$ time with more care with appropriate data structure – see book, Sec 7.4.3

Example

- $S \rightarrow ABE \mid AC$
 $A \rightarrow 1B \mid 0C$
 $B \rightarrow 0D$
 $C \rightarrow 1$
 $D \rightarrow AB$
 $E \rightarrow 0$
- $K = \{0, 1\}$
- Add C, E, A, S
- \Rightarrow B, D not generating

Correctness of Generating Algorithm

- 1. If $X \in$ final set K then X generating
- Proof: by induction on the iteration i that added X to K
 $X \rightarrow \beta$ such that all symbols of $\beta \in K$ in earlier iteration or because they are terminals. By i.h. they can each derive a terminal string $\Rightarrow X$ too.
- 2. If X generating then $X \in$ final set K
Proof: By induction on length of shortest derivation $X \Rightarrow^* w$
Derivation starts as $X \Rightarrow \beta \Rightarrow^* w$
Every variable of β has a shorter derivation \Rightarrow in K by i.h.
 \Rightarrow will add also X to K .