# Intro to Analysis of Algorithms Computational Foundations: Context-Free Languages Chapter 9

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## Part I Context-free languages

A context-free grammar (CFG) is G = (V, T, P, S) — Variables, Terminals, Productions, Start variable

Ex.  $P \longrightarrow \varepsilon |0|1|0P0|1P1$ .

Ex.  $G = (\{E, I\}, T, P, E)$  where  $T = \{+, *, (,), a, b, 0, 1\}$  and P is the following set of productions:

$$E \longrightarrow I|E + E|E * E|(E)$$
  
 $I \longrightarrow a|b|Ia|Ib|I0|I1$ 

If  $\alpha A\beta \in (V \cup T)^*$ ,  $A \in V$ , and  $A \longrightarrow \gamma$  is a production, then  $\alpha A\beta \Rightarrow \alpha \gamma \beta$ . We use  $\stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow}$  to denote 0 or more steps.

$$L(G) = \{ w \in T^* | S \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} w \}$$

**Lemma:**  $L((\{P\}, \{0,1\}, \{P \longrightarrow \varepsilon | 0|1|0P0|1P1\}, P))$  is the set of palindromes over  $\{0,1\}$ .

**Proof:** Suppose w is a palindrome; show by induction on |w| that  $P \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} w$ .

BS:  $|w| \le 1$ , so  $w = \varepsilon, 0, 1$ , so use  $P \longrightarrow \varepsilon, 0, 1$ .

IS: For  $|w| \ge 2$ , w = 0x0, 1x1, and by IH  $P \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} x$ .

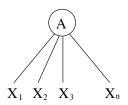
Suppose that  $P \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} w$ ; show by induction on the number of steps in the derivation that  $w = w^R$ .

BS: Derivation has 1 step.

IS:  $P \Rightarrow 0P0 \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} 0x0 = w$  (or with 1 instead of 0).

If  $S \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} \alpha$ , then  $\alpha \in (V \cup T)^*$ , and  $\alpha$  is called a *sentential form*. L(G) is the set of those sentential forms which are in  $T^*$ .

Given G = (V, T, P, S), the parse tree for (G, w) is a tree with S at the root, the symbols of w are the leaves (left to right), and each interior node is of the form:



whenever we have a rule  $A \longrightarrow X_1 X_2 X_3 \dots X_n$ 

Derivation: head  $\longrightarrow$  body

Recursive Inference: body → head

The following five are all equivalent:

- 1. Recursive Inference
- 2. Derivation
- 3. Left-most derivation
- 4. Right-most derivation
- 5. Yield of a parse tree.

#### **Ambiguity of Grammars**

$$E \Rightarrow E + E \Rightarrow E + E * E$$
  
 $E \Rightarrow E * E \Rightarrow E + E * E$ 

Two different parse trees! Different meaning.

A grammar is ambiguous if there exists a string w with two different parse trees.

A *Pushdown Automaton (PDA)* is an  $\varepsilon$ -NFA with a stack.

Two (equivalent) versions: (i) accept by final state, (ii) accept by empty stack.

PDAs describe CFLs.

The PDA pushes and pops symbols on the stack; the stack is assumed to be as big as necessary.

Ex. What is a simple PDA for  $\{ww^R|w\in\{0,1\}^*\}$ ?

Formal definition of a PDA:

$$P = (Q, \Sigma, \Gamma, \delta, q_0, Z_0, F)$$

Q finite set of states

 $\Sigma$  finite input alphabet

 $\Gamma$  finite stack alphabet,  $\Sigma \subseteq \Gamma$ 

$$\delta(q, a, X) = \{(p_1, \gamma_1), \dots, (p_n, \gamma_n)\}\$$

if  $\gamma=\varepsilon$ , then the stack is popped, if  $\gamma=X$ , then the stack is unchanged, if  $\gamma=YZ$  then X is replaced Z, and Y is pushed onto the stack

 $q_0$  initial state

 $Z_0$  start symbol

F accepting states

A *configuration* is a tuple  $(q, w, \gamma)$ : state, remaining input, contents of the stack

If 
$$(p, \alpha) \in \delta(q, a, X)$$
, then  $(q, aw, X\beta) \rightarrow (p, w, \alpha\beta)$ 

**Theorem:** If  $(q, x, \alpha) \rightarrow^* (p, y, \beta)$ , then  $(q, xw, \alpha\gamma) \rightarrow^* (p, yw, \beta\gamma)$ 

Acceptance by final state:

$$L(P) = \{ w | (q_0, w, Z_0) \rightarrow^* (q, \varepsilon, \alpha), q \in F \}$$

Acceptance by empty stack:  $L(P) = \{w | (q_0, w, Z_0) \rightarrow^* (q, \varepsilon, \varepsilon)\}$ 

**Theorem:** *L* is accepted by PDA by final state iff it is accepted by PDA by empty stack.

**Proof:** When  $Z_0$  is popped, enter an accepting state. For the other direction, when an accepting state is entered, pop all the stack.

**Theorem:** CFGs and PDAs are equivalent.

**Proof:** From Grammar to PDA: A left sentential form is  $\underbrace{x}_{\in T^*} \widehat{A\alpha}$ 

The tail appears on the stack, and x is the prefix of the input that has been consumed so far.

Total input is w = xy, and hopefully  $A\alpha \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} y$ .

Suppose PDA is in  $(q, y, A\alpha)$ . It guesses  $A \longrightarrow \beta$ , and enters  $(q, y, \beta\gamma)$ .

The initial segment of  $\beta$ , if it has any terminal symbols, they are compared against the input and removed, until the first variable of  $\beta$  is exposed on top of the stack.

Accept by empty stack.

tail

#### Ex. Consider $P \longrightarrow \varepsilon |0|1|0P0|1P1$

The PDA has transitions:

$$\begin{split} &\delta(q_0,\varepsilon,Z_0) = \{(q,PZ_0)\} \\ &\delta(q,\varepsilon,P) = \{(q,0P0),(q,0),(q,\varepsilon),(q,1P1),(q,1)\} \\ &\delta(q,0,0) = \delta(q,1,1) = \{(q,\varepsilon)\} \\ &\delta(q,0,1) = \delta(q,1,0) = \emptyset \\ &\delta(q,\varepsilon,Z_0) = (q,\varepsilon) \end{split}$$

Consider:  $P \Rightarrow 1P1 \Rightarrow 10P01 \Rightarrow 100P001 \Rightarrow 100001$ 

From PDA to grammar:

Idea: "net popping" of one symbol of the stack, while consuming some input.

Variables:  $A_{[pXq]}$ , for  $p, q \in Q$ ,  $X \in \Gamma$ .

 $A_{[pXq]} \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} w$  iff w takes PDA from state p to state q, and pops X off the stack.

Productions: for all  $p, S \longrightarrow A_{[q_0Z_0p]}$ , and whenever we have:

$$(r, Y_1 Y_2 \dots Y_k) \in \delta(q, a, X)$$

 $A_{[qXr_k]} \longrightarrow aA_{[rY_1r_1]}A_{[r_1Y_2r_2]}\dots A_{[r_{k-1}Y_kr_k]}$  where  $a \in \Sigma \cup \{\varepsilon\}$ ,  $r_1, r_2, \dots, r_k \in Q$  are all possible lists of states.

If  $(r, \varepsilon) \in \delta(q, a, X)$ , then we have  $A_{[qXr]} \longrightarrow a$ .

Claim:  $A_{[qXp]} \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} w \iff (q, w, X) \rightarrow^* (p, \varepsilon, \varepsilon).$ 

A PDA is deterministic if  $|\delta(q, a, X)| \leq 1$ , and the second condition is that if for some  $a \in \Sigma$   $|\delta(q, a, X)| = 1$ , then  $|\delta(q, \varepsilon, X)| = 0$ .

**Theorem:** If L is regular, then L = L(P) for some deterministic PDA P.

Proof: ignore the stack.

DPDAs that accept by final state are **not** equivalent to DPDAs that accept by empty stack.

L has the *prefix property* if there exists a pair (x, y),  $x, y \in L$ , such that y = xz for some z.

Ex.  $\{0\}^*$  has the prefix property.

**Theorem:** L is accepted by a DPDA by empty stack  $\iff L$  is accepted by a DPDA by final state **and** L does not have the prefix property.

**Theorem:** If L is accepted by a DPDA, then L is unambiguous.

Eliminating useless symbols from CFG:

 $X \in V \cup T$  is *useful* if there exists a derivation such that  $S \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} \alpha X \beta \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} w \in T^*$ 

X is generating if  $X \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} w \in T^*$ 

*X* is *reachable* if there exists a derivation  $S \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} \alpha X \beta$ 

A symbol is useful if it is generating and reachable.

Generating symbols: Every symbol in T is generating, and if  $A \longrightarrow \alpha$  is a production, and every symbol in  $\alpha$  is generating (or  $\alpha = \varepsilon$ ) then A is also generating.

Reachable symbols: S is reachable, and if A is reachable, and  $A \longrightarrow \alpha$  is a production, then every symbol in  $\alpha$  is reachable.

If L has a CFG, then  $L-\{\varepsilon\}$  has a CFG without productions of the form  $A\longrightarrow \varepsilon$ 

A variable is *nullable* if  $A \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} \varepsilon$ 

To compute nullable variables: if  $A \longrightarrow \varepsilon$  is a production, then A is nullable, if  $B \longrightarrow C_1 C_2 \dots C_k$  is a production and all the  $C_i$ 's are nullable, then so is B.

Once we have all the nullable variables, we eliminate  $\varepsilon$ -productions as follows: eliminate all  $A \longrightarrow \varepsilon$ .

If  $A \longrightarrow X_1 X_2 \dots X_k$  is a production, and  $m \le k$  of the  $X_i$ 's are nullable, then add the  $2^m$  versions of the rule the hullable variables present/absent (if m = k, do not add the case where they are *all* absent).

Eliminating unit productions:  $A \longrightarrow B$ If  $A \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} B$ , then (A, B) is a unit pair.

Find all unit pairs: (A, A) is a unit pair, and if (A, B) is a unit pair, and  $B \longrightarrow C$  is a production, then (A, C) is a unit pair.

To eliminate unit productions: compute all unit pairs, and if (A,B) is a unit pair and  $B \longrightarrow \alpha$  is a non-unit production, add the production  $A \longrightarrow \alpha$ . Throw out all the unit productions.

A CFG is in *Chomsky Normal Form* if all the rules are of the form  $A \longrightarrow BC$  and  $A \longrightarrow a$ .

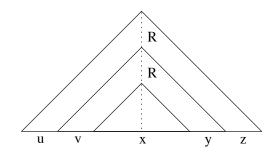
**Theorem:** Every CFL without  $\varepsilon$  has a CFG in CNF.

**Proof:** Eliminate  $\varepsilon$ -productions, unit productions, useless symbols. Arrange all bodies of length  $\geq 2$  to consist of only variables (by introducing new variables), and finally break bodies of length  $\geq 3$  into a cascade of productions, each with a body of length exactly 2.

**Pumping Lemma for CFLs:** There exists a p so that any s,  $|s| \ge p$ , can be written as s = uvxyz, and:

- 1.  $uv^i x y^i z$  is in the language, for all  $i \ge 0$ ,
- 2. |vy| > 0,
- 3.  $|vxy| \leq p$

#### Proof:



Ex. The lang  $\{0^n1^n2^n|n\geq 1\}$  is not CF.

So CFL are not closed under intersection:  $L_1 = \{0^n 1^n 2^i | n, i \ge 1\}$  and  $L_2 = \{0^i 1^n 2^n | n, i \ge 1\}$  are CF, but  $L_1 \cap L_2 = \{0^n 1^n 2^n | n \ge 1\}$  is not.

**Theorem:** If L is a CFL, and R is a regular language, then  $L \cap R$  is a CFL.

 $L=\{ww:w\in\{0,1\}^*\}$  is not CF, but  $L^c$  is CF. So CFLs are not close under complementation either.

We design a CFG for  $L^c$ . First note that no odd strings are of the form ww, so the first rule should be:

$$S \longrightarrow O|E$$
 $O \longrightarrow a|b|aaO|abO|baO|bbO$ 

here O generates all the odd strings.

*E* generates even length strings not of the form *ww*, i.e., all strings of the form:

We need the rule:

$$E \longrightarrow X|Y$$

and now

$$X \longrightarrow PQ$$
  $Y \longrightarrow VW$   
 $P \longrightarrow RPR$   $V \longrightarrow SVS$   
 $P \longrightarrow a$   $V \longrightarrow b$   
 $Q \longrightarrow RQR$   $W \longrightarrow SWS$   
 $Q \longrightarrow b$   $W \longrightarrow a$   
 $R \longrightarrow a|b$   $S \longrightarrow a|b$ 

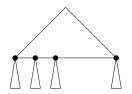
Ex.

and now the R's can be replaced at will by a's and b's.

CFL are closed under substitution: for every  $a \in \Sigma$  we choose  $L_a$ , which we call s(a). For any  $w \in \Sigma^*$ , s(w) is the language of  $x_1x_2...x_n$ ,  $x_i \in s(a_i)$ .

**Theorem:** If L is a CFL, and s(a) is a CFL  $\forall a \in \Sigma$ , then  $s(L) = \bigcup_{w \in L} s(w)$  is also CF.

#### **Proof:**



CFL are closed under union, concatenation, \* and +, homomorphism (just define  $s(a) = \{h(a)\}$ , so h(L) = s(L)), and reversal (just replace each  $A \longrightarrow \alpha$  by  $A \longrightarrow \alpha^R$ ).

We can test for emptiness: just check whether S is generating. Test for membership: use CNF of the CYK algorithm (more efficient).

However, there are many **undecidable** properties of CFL:

- 1. Is a given CFG G ambiguous?
- 2. Is a given CFL inherently ambiguous?
- 3. Is the intersection of two CFL empty?
- 4. Given  $G_1$ ,  $G_2$ , is  $L(G_1) = L(G_2)$ ?
- 5. Is a given CFL everything?

CYK<sup>1</sup> alg: Given 
$$G$$
 in CNF, and  $w = a_1 a_2 \dots a_n$ , build an  $n \times n$  table.  $w \in L(G)$  if  $S \in (1,n)$ .  $(X \in (i,j) \iff X \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} a_i a_{i+1} \dots a_j.)$  Let  $V = \{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_m\}$ . Initialize  $T$  as follows: for  $(i = 1; i \le n; i + +)$  for  $(j = 1; j \le m; j + +)$  Put  $X_j$  in  $(i,i)$  iff  $\exists X_j \longrightarrow a_i$  Then, for  $i < j$ : for  $(k = i; k < j; k + +)$  if  $(\exists X_p \in (i,k) \& X_q \in (k+1,j) \& X_r \longrightarrow X_p X_q)$  Put  $X_r$  in  $(i,j)$ 

X	(2,2)	(2,3)	(2,4)	(2,5)
X	×			(3,5)
Х	×	×		(4,5)
Х	х	х	х	(5,5)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Cocke-Kasami-Younger

*Context-sensitive grammars (CSG)* have rules of the form:

$$\alpha \to \beta$$

where  $\alpha, \beta \in (T \cup V)^*$  and  $|\alpha| \leq |\beta|$ . A language is *context* sensitive if it has a CSG.

**Fact:** It turns out that CSL = NTIME(n)

A rewriting system (also called a Semi-Thue system) is a grammar where there are no restrictions;  $\alpha \to \beta$  for arbitrary  $\alpha, \beta \in (V \cup T)^*$ .

**Fact:** It turns out that a rewriting system corresponds to the most general model of computation; i.e., a language has a rewriting system iff it is "computable."

Enter Turing machines ...

**Chomsky-Schutzenberger Theorem:** If L is a CFL, then there exists a regular language R, an n, and a homomorphism h, such that  $L = h(PAREN_n \cap R)$ .

**Parikh's Theorem:** If  $\Sigma = \{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n\}$ , the signature of a string  $x \in \Sigma^*$  is  $(\#a_1(x), \#a_2(x), \dots, \#a_n(x))$ , i.e., the number of ocurrences of each symbol, in a fixed order. The signature of a language is defined by extension; regular and CFLs have the same signatures.



### Automata and Computability Dexter Kozen



Intro to the theory of Computation Third edition Michael Sipser



Intro to automata theory, languages and computation Second edition
John Hopcroft, Rajeev Motwani, Jeffrey Ullman
There is now a 3rd edition!