#### **Automata Theory and Formal Grammars: Lecture 6**

**Context Free Languages** 



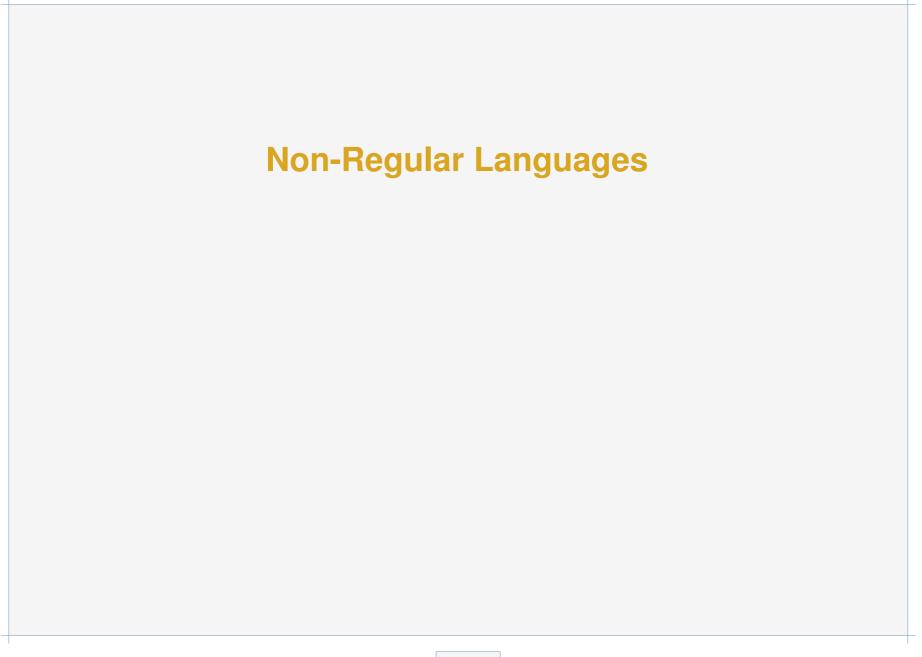
# **Context Free Languages**

#### Last Time

- Decision procedures for FAs
- Minimum-state DFAs

Today

- The Myhill-Nerode Theorem
- The Pumping Lemma
- Context-free grammars and languages
- Closure properties of CFLs
- Relating regular languages and CFLs

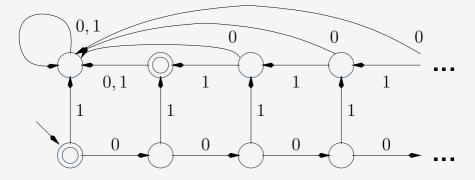


# **Languages That Are Not Regular**

So far we have only seen regular languages. Do nonregular ones exist?

Yes! Consider  $L = \{ 0^n 1^n \mid n \ge 0 \}.$ 

What would a "FA" look like for this language?



• What can you say about the strings  $0^i$  and  $0^j$  if  $i \neq j$ ? If  $i \neq j$  then  $0^i \not > 0^j$ !

In this case  $\bowtie^{L}$  has an infinite number of equivalence classes!

# **The Myhill-Nerode Theorem**

Theorem (Myhill-Nerode)Let  $L \subseteq \Sigma^*$  be a language. Then L isregular if and only if  $\stackrel{L}{\bowtie}$  has a finite number of equivalence classes.

So how do you prove that a language *L* is not regular using Myhill-Nerode?

- Must show that  $\stackrel{L}{\bowtie}$  has an infinite number of equivalence classes.
- Suffices to give an *infinite* set  $S \subseteq \Sigma^*$  whose elements are *pairwise distinguishable* with respect to *L*: for every  $x, y \in S$  with  $x \neq y$ ,  $x \not\bowtie^L y$ .

Why does this condition suffice?

- If S is pairwise distinguishable, then every element of S must belong to a different equivalence class of  $\bowtie^{L}$ .
- Since S is infinite, there must be an infinite number of equivalence classes!



# **Example: Proving Nonregularity of** $\{0^n 1^n \mid n \ge 0\}$

#### Theorem $L = \{ 0^n 1^n \mid n \ge 0 \}$ is not regular.

**Proof** On the basis of the Myhill-Nerode Theorem, it suffices to give an infinite set  $S \subseteq \{0, 1\}^*$  that is pairwise distinguishable with respect to *L*. Consider

$$S = \{ 0^i \mid i \ge 1 \}.$$

Clearly S is infinite.

We now must show that *S* is pairwise distinguishable. So consider strings  $x = 0^i$  and  $y = 0^j$  where  $i \neq j$ ; we must show that  $x \not\bowtie^L y$ , which requires that we find a *z* such that  $xz \in L$  and  $yz \notin L$  (or vice versa). Consider  $z = 1^i$ . Then  $xz = 0^i 1^i \in L$ , but  $yz = 0^j 1^i \notin L$ . Thus  $x \not\bowtie^L y$ , and *S* is pairwise distinguishable.

# **Another Example: Even-Length Palindromes**

**Recall** If  $x \in \Sigma^*$  then  $x^r$  is the "reverse" of x.

**E.g.**  $abb^r = bba.$ 

A *palindrome* is a word that is the same backwards as well as forwards.

abba

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Any *even-length* palindrome can be written as  $x \cdot x^r$  for some string x. **E.g.**  $abba = ab \cdot ba = ab \cdot (ab)^r$ .

Even-length palindromes over  $\{a, b\}$  form a nonregular language.

#### Proving Even-Length Palindromes To Be Nonregular

**Theorem** Let  $E = \{x \cdot x^r \mid x \in \{a, b\}^*\}$ . Then *E* is not regular.

**Proof** On the basis of the Myhill-Nerode Theorem it suffices to come up with an infinite set  $S \subseteq \{a, b\}^*$  that is pairwise distinguishable with respect to *E*. Consider

$$S = \{ a^i b \mid i \ge 0 \}.$$

Clearly *S* is infinite.

To show pairwise distinguishability, consider  $x = a^i b$  and  $y = a^j b$  where  $i \neq j$ ; we must show  $x \not\bowtie^E y$ , i.e. we must find a z with  $xz \in L$  and  $yz \notin L$ , or vice versa. Consider

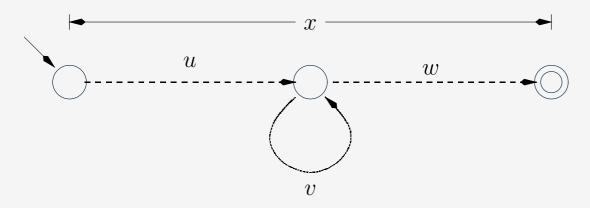
$$z = x^r = ba^i.$$

By definition  $xz \in L$ . However,  $yz = a^j bba^i \notin L$  since  $j \neq i$ .

# The Pumping Lemma: Another Way of Proving Nonregularity

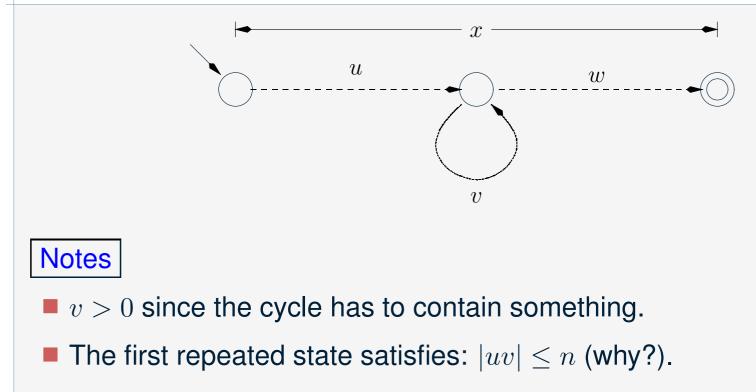
By way of introduction, consider the following.

- If a language L is regular, there is a minimum-state DFA accepting L. Let n be the number of states in this DFA.
- What happens if  $x \in L$  is at least n symbols long?



Some state must be visited twice, i.e. "cycled through"!

# The Pumping Lemma (cont.)



 $\blacksquare uv^m w \in L \text{ all } m \ge 0!$ 

# Formalizing the Pumping Lemma

Lemma (Pumping Lemma) If  $L \subseteq \Sigma^*$  is regular, then there exists n > 0 such that for any  $x \in L$ , if  $|x| \ge n$  then there exist  $u, v, w \in \Sigma^*$  such that

$$x = uvw \tag{1}$$

$$|uv| \leq n$$
 (2)

$$|v| > 0 \tag{3}$$

$$uv^m w \in L$$
 for any  $m \ge 0$  (4)

This lemma can be used to prove nonregularity! Look at its logical structure.

$$\begin{array}{l} L \text{ is regular } \Longrightarrow \ \exists \, n > 0. \\ \forall \, x \in L. |x| \geq n \implies \\ \exists \, u, v, w \in \Sigma^*. \ x = uvw \wedge |uv| \leq n \wedge |v| > 0 \wedge \\ \forall \, m \geq 0. uv^m w \in L \end{array}$$

# **Using the Pumping Lemma to Prove Nonregularity**

Recall form of Pumping Lemma:

 $\begin{array}{l} L \text{ is regular } \Longrightarrow \ \exists \, n > 0. \\ \forall \, x \in L. |x| \geq n \implies \\ \exists \, u, v, w \in \Sigma^*. \ x = uvw \wedge |uv| \leq n \wedge |v| > 0 \wedge \\ \forall \, m \geq 0. uv^m w \in L \end{array}$ 

What is contrapositive?  $\neg(\exists n > 0...) \implies L$  is not regular! If we drive the negation inside the antecedent we get:

$$\begin{aligned} \forall n > 0. \exists x \in L. \ |x| \geq n \land \\ \forall u, v, w \in \Sigma^*. (x = uvw \land |uv| \leq n \land |v| > 0) \implies \\ \exists m \geq 0. uv^m w \notin L \end{aligned}$$

So if we can prove this statement of a language L, then L is not regular!

# **Example: Proving** $\{ww \mid w \in \{a, b\}^*\}$ **Is Not Regular**

Theorem 
$$L = \{ww \mid w \in \{a, b\}^*\}$$
 is not regular.

**Proof** On the basis of the Pumping Lemma it suffices to prove the following.

$$\begin{split} \forall n > 0. \exists \, x \in L. \; |x| \geq n \; \wedge \\ \forall \, u, v, w \in \Sigma^*. (x = uvw \; \wedge \; |uv| \leq n \; \wedge \; |v| > 0) \implies \\ \exists \, m \geq 0. uv^m w \not\in L \end{split}$$

So fix n > 0 and consider  $x = a^n b^n a^n b^n$ . Clearly  $x \in L$  and |x| > n. Now fix  $u, v, w \in \Sigma^*$  and assume that x = uvw,  $|uv| \le n$ , and |v| > 0. We have the following picture.

$$\underbrace{a \cdots a}_{u} \underbrace{a \cdots a}_{v} \underbrace{a \cdots a}_{w} \underbrace{b \cdots b}_{w} \underbrace{a \cdots a}_{w} \underbrace{b \cdots b}_{w} \underbrace{a \cdots a}_{w} \underbrace{b \cdots b}_{w}$$

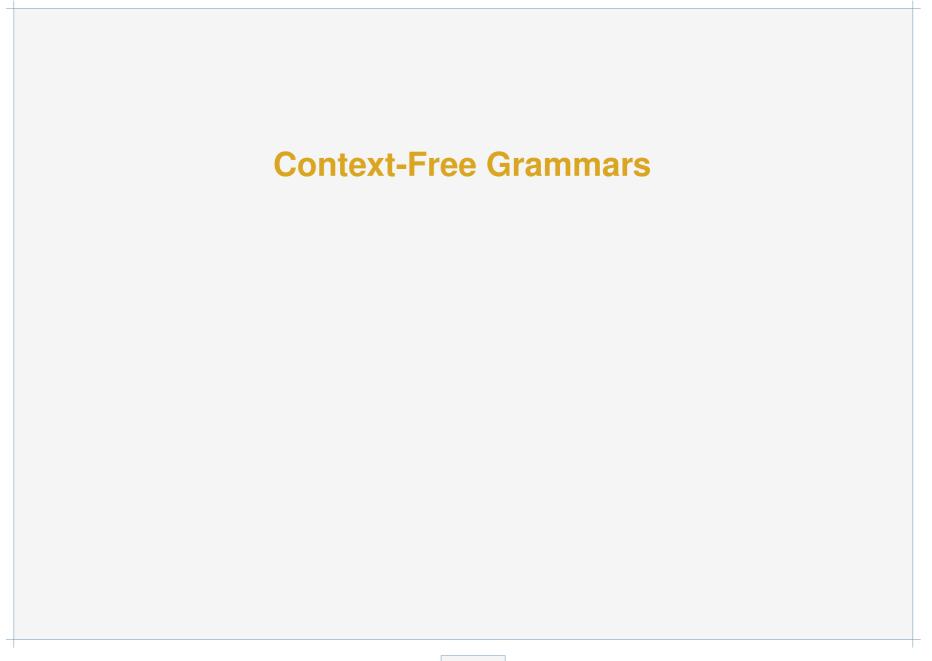
# **Proof (cont.)**

That is,  $v = a^i$  some i > 0. Now let m = 2, and consider

$$uv^m w = uv^2 w = a^{n+i}b^n a^n b^n.$$

This word is not an element of *L*; consequently, *L* cannot be regular.





#### **Context-Free Grammars and Languages**

Regular languages have a nice theory:

- Regular expressions give a "syntax" for defining them.
- FAs provide the computational means for processing them.

However, some "simple" languages are not regular, e.g.  $L = \{ 0^n 1^n \mid n \ge 0 \}.$ 

■ No FA exists for *L*.

On the other hand, it's easy to give a recursive definition of *L*.

 $\blacksquare \ \varepsilon \in L$ 

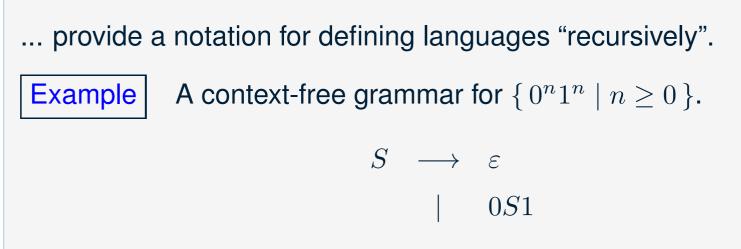
If  $w \in L$  then  $0w1 \in L$ .

#### **Observations**

- Some "easy to process languages" like  $L = \{ 0^n 1^n \mid n \ge 0 \}$  are nevertheless not recognizable using FAs alone.
- So there must be computing devices that are "better" than FAs when it comes to recognizing languages.
- There must also be "more general" classes of languages than regular languages that are still amenable to automatic analysis.

*Context-free* languages represent the next, broader class of languages we will study. They are defined using *context-free grammars*.

#### **Context-Free Grammars**



- S is a nonterminal (think "variable").
- The grammar has two productions saying how variable S may be rewritten.
- One generates words by applying productions beginning from the start symbol (always a nonterminal, here S):

 $S \Rightarrow 0S1 \Rightarrow 00S11 \Rightarrow 00\varepsilon 11 = 0011$ 

# **Defining Context-Free Grammars**

**Definition** A *context-free grammar* (CFG) is a quadruple  $\langle V, \Sigma, S, P \rangle$ , where:

- *V* is a finite set of *variables* (aka *nonterminals*).
- $\Sigma$  is an alphabet, with  $V \cap \Sigma = \emptyset$ . Elements of  $\Sigma$  are sometimes called *terminals*.
- $S \in V$  is a distinguished *start symbol*.
- P is a finite set of *productions* of the form  $A \longrightarrow \alpha$ , where  $A \in V$ and  $\alpha \in (V \cup \Sigma)^*$ .

#### **Notational Conventions for CFGs**

•  $A \longrightarrow \alpha_1 | \cdot | \alpha_n$  is shorthand for *n* productions of form  $A \longrightarrow \alpha_i$ . • Start symbol is first one written down. E.g. In CFG  $S \longrightarrow \varepsilon$  | 0S1 $V = \{S\}, \Sigma = \{0, 1\}, S$  is start symbol, and  $P = \{S \longrightarrow \varepsilon, S \longrightarrow 0S1\}$ .



#### **Other CFG Examples**

Palindromes over  $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$ 

Sample word:  $S \Rightarrow aSa \Rightarrow abSba \Rightarrow ababa$ 

Nonpalindromes over  $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$ 

Sample word:  $S \Rightarrow aSa \Rightarrow aaAba \Rightarrow aa\varepsilon ba = aaba$ 

# Languages of CFGs

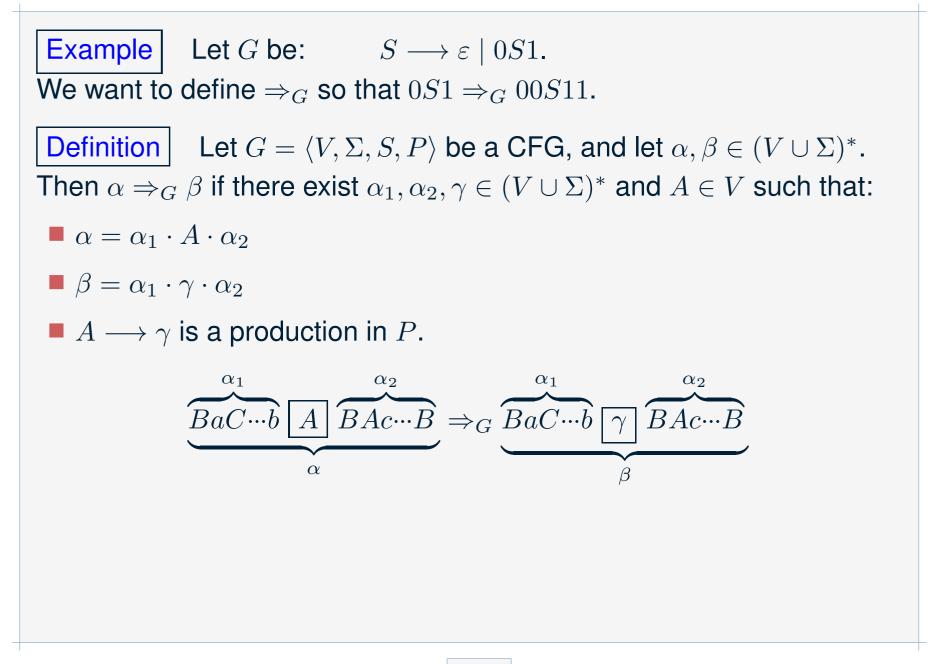
CFGs are be used to generate strings of terminals and nonterminals.

- Productions are used as "rewrite rules" to replace variables by strings.
- So what should the language of a CFG be? The sequences of terminals that can be generated from the start variable.

How do we make this precise?

- Given a grammar *G* we'll define a "rewrite relation"  $\Rightarrow_G$ :  $\alpha \Rightarrow_G \beta$ should hold if  $\alpha$  can be "rewritten" into  $\beta$  by applying one production.
- Then  $w \in \Sigma^*$  is in the language of G if  $S \Rightarrow_G \alpha \Rightarrow_G \cdots \Rightarrow_G w$ .

# **Defining** $\Rightarrow_G$



# **Generating Words in CFGs**

 $\Rightarrow_G$  defines the valid "one-step" derivations in a CFG. We can use this to define "multi-step" derivations via the relation  $\Rightarrow_G^*$ .

**Example** Let G be:  $S \longrightarrow \varepsilon \mid 0S1$ . Then we want  $S \Rightarrow^*_G 0011$  to hold.

**Definition** Let  $G = \langle V, \Sigma, S, P \rangle$  be a CFG, and let  $\alpha, \beta \in (V \cup \Sigma)^*$ . Then  $\alpha \Rightarrow_G^* \beta$  if there exists  $n \ge 0$  and  $\alpha_0, ... \alpha_n \in (V \cup \Sigma)^*$  such that: •  $\alpha = \alpha_0$ •  $\beta = \alpha_n$ • For all  $i < n \alpha_i \Rightarrow_G \alpha_{i+1}$ . In other words,  $\alpha = \alpha_0 \Rightarrow_G \alpha_1 \Rightarrow_G \cdot \Rightarrow_G \alpha_n = \beta$ .

#### **Examples**

Let *G* be the nonpalindrome CFG:

- 1. Does  $S \Rightarrow_G abaa$ ?
- 2. Does  $aSAa \Rightarrow^*_G aabAa$ ?
- 3. Does  $S \Rightarrow^*_G S$ ?
- 4. Does  $S \Rightarrow_G^* A$ ?

# The Language of a CFG

The language of a CFG G can now be defined using  $\Rightarrow_G^*$ .

**Definition** Let  $G = \langle V, \Sigma, S, P \rangle$  be a CFG. Then the *language* of G,  $\mathcal{L}(G) \subseteq \Sigma^*$ , is defined as follows.

$$\mathcal{L}(G) = \{ w \in \Sigma^* \mid S \Rightarrow^*_G w \}$$

Context-free languages (CFLs) are those for which one can give CFGs.

**Definition** A language  $L \subseteq \Sigma^*$  is *context-free* if there is a CFG G with  $L = \mathcal{L}(G)$ .

#### **Another CFG/CFL Example**

A CFG for the valid arithmetic expressions over the natural numbers.

$$S \longrightarrow N$$

$$\mid SOS$$

$$\mid (S)$$

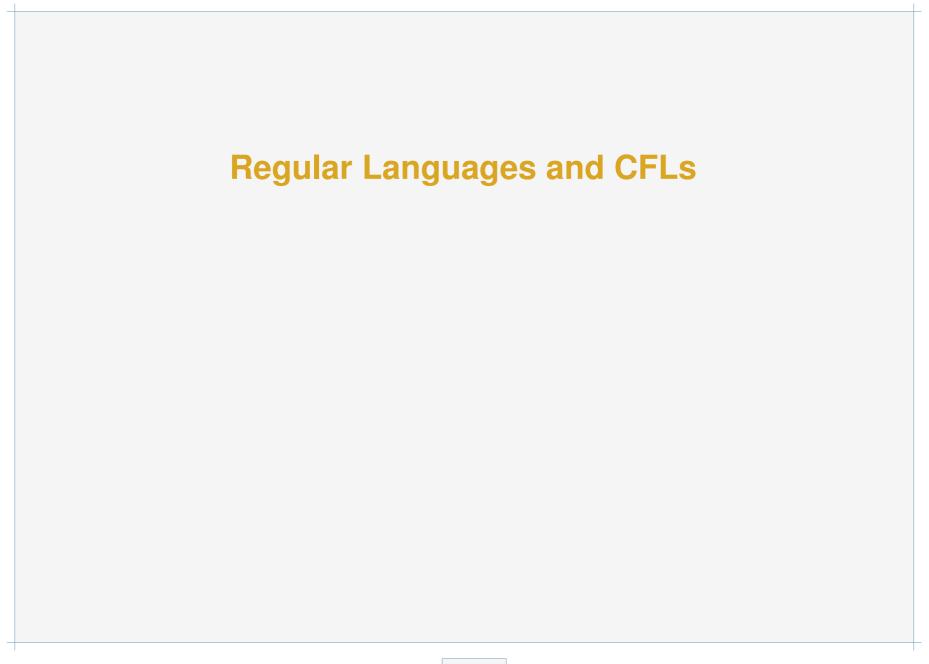
$$N \longrightarrow D \mid PR$$

$$D \longrightarrow 0 \mid P$$

$$P \longrightarrow 1 \mid 2 \mid 3 \mid 4 \mid 5 \mid 6 \mid 7 \mid 8 \mid 9$$

$$R \longrightarrow D \mid DR$$

$$O \longrightarrow + \mid - \mid * \mid /$$



# **Regular Languages and CFLs**

Theorem Every regular language is context-free.

How can we prove this? By giving any one of several different translations:

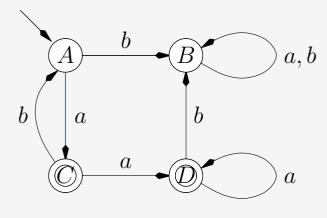
- 1. Regular expressions  $\Rightarrow$  CFGs
- 2. FAs  $\Rightarrow$  CFGs
- 3. NFAs  $\Rightarrow$  CFGs

We will pursue (2).

# **Translating FAs into CFGs**

How do we do this? By turning:

- states into variables;
- transitions into productions; and
- **acceptance into**  $\varepsilon$ **-productions.**



Note 
$$\delta^*(A, aab) = B$$
, and  $A \Rightarrow^*_G aabB$ .

#### **Formalizing the Translation**

Given a FA  $M = \langle Q, \Sigma, q_0, \delta, A \rangle$ , we want to define CFG  $G_M = \langle V, \Sigma, S, P \rangle$  so that  $\mathcal{L}(M) = \mathcal{L}(G_M)$ . Assume without loss of generality that  $Q \cap \Sigma = \emptyset$ .

$$\blacksquare V = Q$$

$$\blacksquare S = q_0$$

$$\blacksquare P = \{ q \longrightarrow a \cdot \delta(q, a) \mid q \in Q \} \cup \{ q \longrightarrow \varepsilon \mid q \in A \}$$

To prove that  $\mathcal{L}(M) = \mathcal{L}(G_M)$  we can first argue that:

For every  $x \in \Sigma^*, q, q' \in Q$ ,  $\delta^*(q, x) = q' \text{ iff } q \Rightarrow^*_{G_M} x \cdot q'.$ Then  $x \in \mathcal{L}(M)$  iff  $x \in \mathcal{L}(G_M)$  ! (Why?)



## **Closure Properties of CFLs**

What we know:

- Every regular langauge is a CFL.
- Regular languages are closed with respect to:  $\cdot, *, \cup, \cap$ , etc.

Are CFLs automatically closed with respect to these operations also?

No! Regular languages constitute a *proper subset* of CFLs, and the closure properties do not immediately "transfer."

Nevertheless, we do have the following.

**Theorem** The set of context-free languages is closed with respect to  $\cup$ ,  $\cdot$  and \*.

Proofs rely on grammar constructions.

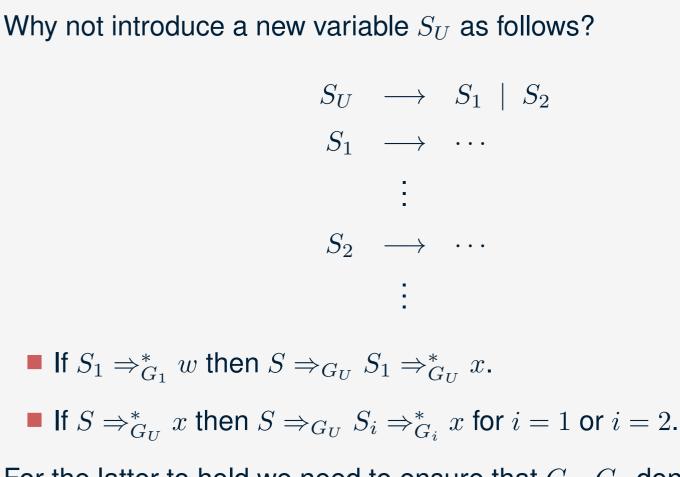


#### Proving CFLs Closed with Respect to $\cup$

into a single CFG  $G_U$  such that  $\mathcal{L}(G_U) = \mathcal{L}(G_1) \cup \mathcal{L}(G_2)$ . I.e. if  $S_U$  is start symbol of  $G_U$  then  $S_U \Rightarrow^*_{G_U} x$  iff  $S_1 \Rightarrow^*_{G_1} x$  or  $S_2 \Rightarrow^*_{G_2} x$ .



#### Idea



For the latter to hold we need to ensure that  $G_1$ ,  $G_2$  don't interfere with one another (i.e. share variables).

#### **Formal Construction of** $G_U$

Let  $G_1 = \langle V_1, \Sigma, S_1, P_1 \rangle$  and  $G_2 = \langle V_2, \Sigma, S_2, P_2 \rangle$ ; without loss of generality, assume that  $V_1 \cap V_2 = \emptyset$ . We build  $G_U = \langle V_U, \Sigma, S_U, P_U \rangle$  as follows.

- 1. Choose a new variable  $S_U \notin V_1 \cup V_2 \cup \Sigma$  to be the start symbol of  $G_U$ .
- 2. Take  $V_U = V_1 \cup V_2 \cup \{S_U\}$
- 3. Set  $P_U = P_1 \cup P_2 \cup \{S_U \longrightarrow S_1, S_U \longrightarrow S_2\}$

We can then argue that  $\mathcal{L}(G_U) = \mathcal{L}(G_1) \cup \mathcal{L}(G_2)$  by first establishing:

**Fact** 
$$S_1 \Rightarrow_{G_U} \alpha \text{ iff } S_1 \Rightarrow_{G_1} \alpha \text{ for any } \alpha \in (V_U \cup \Sigma)^*.$$

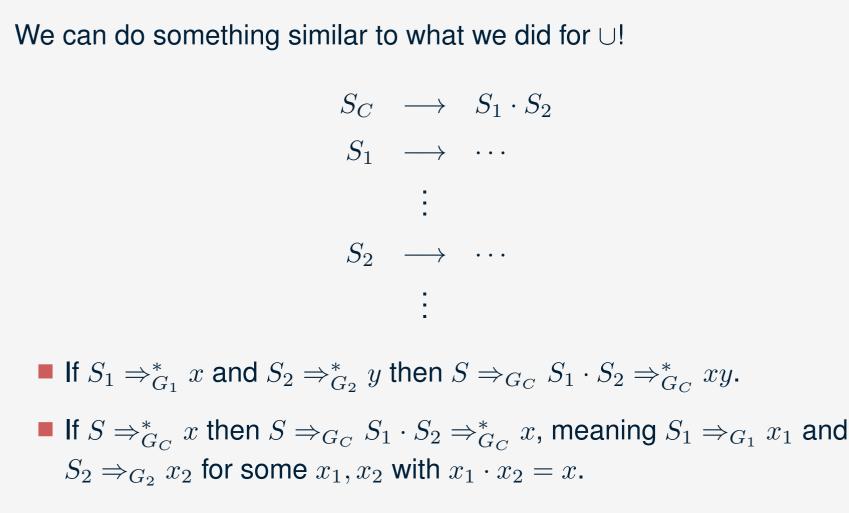
Then 
$$S_U \Rightarrow^*_{G_U} x$$
 iff  $S_1 \Rightarrow^*_{G_1} x$  or  $S_2 \Rightarrow^*_{G_2} x$ , for any  $x \in \Sigma^*$ !

#### Proving CFLs Closed with Respect to -

We need to show how to combine two CFGs  $G_1$  and  $G_2$ :  $S_1 \longrightarrow \cdots \qquad S_2 \longrightarrow \cdots$  $\vdots \qquad \vdots \qquad & \vdots \qquad &$ 

into a single CFG  $G_C$  such that  $\mathcal{L}(G_C) = \mathcal{L}(G_1) \cdot \mathcal{L}(G_2)$ . I.e. if  $S_C$  is start symbol of  $G_C$  then  $S_C \Rightarrow^*_{G_C} x$  iff  $S_1 \Rightarrow^*_{G_1} x_1, S_2 \Rightarrow^*_{G_2} x_2$ , and  $x = x_1 \cdot x_2$ , for some  $x_1, x_2$ .

#### Idea



For the latter to hold we need to ensure that  $G_1$ ,  $G_2$  don't share variables....

#### **Formal Construction of** $G_C$

Approach is similar to that for  $G_U$ : pick a new start symbol  $S_C \notin V_1 \cup V_2 \cup \Sigma$ , and construct  $G_C = \langle V, \Sigma, S_C, P_C \rangle$  where:

 $\bullet V_C = V_1 \cup V_2 \cup \{S_C\}.$ 

 $\square P_C = P_1 \cup P_2 \cup \{S_C \longrightarrow S_1 \cdot S_2\}$ 

Proof of correctness follows similar lines to  $G_U$  case.



#### **Proving CFLs Closed with Respect to \***

To build  $G_K$  from G so that  $\mathcal{L}(G_K) = (\mathcal{L}(G))^*$  we follow the same line of attack as for  $\cup, \cdot$ !

