**FORMAL LANGUAGES & AUTOMATA THEORY**

# **UNIT- III CONTEXT FREE GRAMMARS**

After going through this chapter, you should be able to understand :

- Context free grammars
- Left most and Rightmost derivation of strings
- Derivation Trees
- Ambiguity in CFGs
- . Minimization of CFGs
- Normal Forms (CNF & GNF)
- . Pumping Lemma for CFLs
- Enumeration properties of CFLs

#### **5.1 CONTEXT FREE GRAMMARS**

A grammar  $G = (V, T, P, S)$  is said to be a CFG if the productions of G are of the form:

$$
A \rightarrow \alpha
$$
, where  $\alpha \in (V \cup T)^*$ 

The right hand side of a CFG is not restricted and it may be null or a combination of variables and terminals. The possible length of right hand sentential form ranges from 0 to  $\infty$  i.e.,  $0 \le |\alpha| \le \infty$ .

As we know that a CFG has no context neither left nor right. This is why, it is known as CONTEXT - FREE. Many programming languages have recursive structure that can be defined by CFG's.

**Example 1:** Consider the grammar  $G = (V, T, P, S)$  having productions:

 $S \rightarrow aSa \mid bSb \mid \in$ . Check the productions and find the language generated.

#### Solution:

Let

 $P_1: S \rightarrow aSa$  (RHS is terminal variable terminal)

 $P_2$ :  $S \rightarrow bSb$  (RHS is terminal variable terminal)

 $P_3: S \to \in$  (RHS is null string)

Since, all productions are of the form  $A \to \alpha$ , where  $\alpha \in (V \cup T)^*$ , hence G is a CFG.

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Language Generated :  $S \implies aSa$  or  $bSb$  $\Rightarrow$  a"Sa" or b"Sb" (Using n step derivation)  $\Rightarrow$  a<sup>n</sup>b<sup>m</sup>Sb<sup>m</sup>a<sup>n</sup> or b<sup>n</sup>a<sup>m</sup>Sa<sup>m</sup>b<sup>n</sup> (Using  $m$  step derivation)  $\Rightarrow$  a"b"b"a" or b"a"a"b" (Using  $S \rightarrow \epsilon$ ) So,  $L(G) = \{ww^R: w \in (a+b)^*\}$ **Example 2 :** Let G = ( $V, T, P, S$ ) where  $V = \{S, C\}$ ,  $T = \{a, b\}$  $P = \{ S \rightarrow aCa$  $C \rightarrow aCa|b$  $\mathcal{F}$ S is the start symbol What is the language generated by this grammar? Solution: Consider the derivation  $S \Rightarrow aCa \Rightarrow$  aba (By applying the  $1^u$  and  $3^d$  production) So, the string aba  $\in L(G)$ Consider the derivation  $S \Rightarrow aCa$ **By applying**  $S \rightarrow aCa$  $\Rightarrow$  aaCaa 80 **By applying**  $C \rightarrow aCa$  $\Rightarrow$  aaaCaaa **By applying**  $C \rightarrow aCa$ ........ **TO CONTRACT**  $\Rightarrow$  a<sup>n</sup>Ca<sup>n</sup> By applying  $C \rightarrow aCa$ n times  $\Rightarrow$  a"ba" **By applying**  $C \rightarrow b$ 

So, the language L accepted by the grammar G is  $L(G) = \{a^n ba^n | n \ge 1\}$ 

i. e., the language L derived from the grammar G is "The string consisting of n number of a's followed by a 'b' followed by n number of a's.

**Example 3:** What is the language generated by the grammar

 $S \rightarrow 0A \in$ 

 $A \rightarrow 1S$ 

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**Solution :** The null string  $\in$  can be obtained by applying the production  $S \rightarrow \infty$  and the derivation is shown below:

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So, alternatively applying the productions  $S \rightarrow 0A$  and  $A \rightarrow 1S$  and finally applying the production  $S \rightarrow \infty$ , we get string consisting of only of 01's. So, both null string i.e.,  $\in$  and string consisting 01's can be generated from this grammar. So, the language generated by this grammar is

 $L = \{w | w \in \{01\}^*\}$  or  $L = \{(01)^n | n \ge 0\}$ 

**Example 4 :** Show that the language  $L = \{ a^m b^n | m \neq n \}$  is context free.

## Solution:

If it is possible to construct a CFG to generate this language then we say that the language is context free. Let us construct the CFG for the language defined. Assume that m = n i. e., m number of a's should be followed by m number of b's. The CFG for this can be

$$
S \to aSb \mid \in \quad \qquad \dots \dots (1)
$$

But,  $L = \{a^m b^n | m \neq n\}$  means, a's should be followed by b's and number of a's should not be equal to number of b's i. e.,  $m \ne n$ .

Let us see the different cases when  $m > n$  and when  $m < n$ .

#### Case 1:

 $m > n$ : This case occurs if the number of a's are more compared to number of b's. The extra a's can be generated using the production

 $A \rightarrow aA \mid a$ 

and the extra a's generated from this production should be appended towards left of the string generated from the production shown in production 1. This can be achieved by introducing one more production.

#### $S_1 \rightarrow AS$

So, even though from S we get n number of a's followed by n number of b's since it is preceded by a variable A from which we could generate extra a's, number of a's followed by number of b's are different.

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#### Case 2:

m < n : This case occurs if the number of b's are more compared to number of a's. The extra b's can be generated using the production.

 $B \rightarrow bB|b$ 

and the extra b's generated from this production should be appended towards right of the string generated from the production shown in production (1). This can be achieved by introducing one more production

 $S_1 \rightarrow SB$ 

The context free grammar  $G = (V, T, P, S)$  where

$$
V = \{S_1, S, A, B\} , T = \{a, b\}
$$
  
\n
$$
P = \{S_1 \rightarrow AS \mid SB
$$
  
\n
$$
S \rightarrow aSb \mid \epsilon
$$
  
\n
$$
A \rightarrow aA \mid a
$$
  
\n
$$
B \rightarrow bB \mid b
$$
  
\n
$$
\{S_1, S_2, S_3\} \text{ is the start symbol}
$$

generates the language  $L = \{ a^m b^n \mid m \neq n \}$ . Since a CFG exists for the language, the language is context free.

Example 5 : Draw a CFG to generate a language consisting of equal number of a's and b's.

Solution: Note that initial production can be of the form

 $S \rightarrow aB \mid bA$ 

If the first symbol is 'a', the second symbol should be a non-terminal from which we can obtain either 'b' or one more 'a' followed by two B's denoted by aBB or a 'b' followed by S denoted by **bS**.

Note that from all these symbols definitely we obtain equal number of a's and b's. The productions corresponding to these can be of the form

#### $B \rightarrow b |aBB|bS$

On similar lines we can write A - productions as

 $A \rightarrow a \mid bAA \mid aS$ 

from which we obtain a 'b' followed by either

- $1. 'a'$  or
- 2. a 'b' followed by AA's denoted by bAA or
- 3. symbol 'a' followed by S denoted by aS

The context free grammar  $G = (V, T, P, S)$  where

 $V = \{ S, A, B \}$ ,  $T = \{ a, b \}$  $P = \{ S \rightarrow aB \mid bA$  $A \rightarrow aS \mid bAA \mid a$  $B \rightarrow bS \mid aBB \mid b$ S is the start symbol Y

generates the language consisting of equal number of a's and b's.

Example 6 : Construct CFG for the language L which has all the strings which are all palindromes over  $T = \{a, b\}$ 

Solution : As we know the strings are palindrome if they posses same alphabets from forward as well as from backward.



Since the language L is over  $T = \{a, b\}$ . We want the production rules to be build a's and b's. As  $\epsilon$  can be the palindrome, a can be palindrome even b can be palindrome. So we can write the production rules as

 $G = (\{S\}, \{a, b\}, P, S)$  $S \rightarrow a S a$ P can be  $S \rightarrow b S b$  $S \rightarrow a$  $S \rightarrow b$  $S \rightarrow \in$ The string abaaba can be derived as  $S \rightarrow aSa$ 

 $\rightarrow$  ab Sba

 $\rightarrow$  ab a Saba

 $\rightarrow$  ab a ea ba

 $\rightarrow$  ab a a ba

which is a palindrome.

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**Example 7 :** Obtain a CFG to generate integers.

#### Solution:

The sign of a number can be '+' or '-' or  $\in$ . The production for this can be written as

 $S \rightarrow +|-| \in$ 

A number can be formed from any of the digits 0, 1, 2, .....9. The production to obtain these digits can be written as  $D \rightarrow 0$ |1|2|...|9

A number N can be recursively defined as follows.

1. A number N is a digit D (i.e.,  $N \rightarrow D$ )

2. The number N followed by digit D is also a number (i.e.,  $N \rightarrow ND$ )

The productions for this recursive definition can be written as

 $N \to D$  $\cdot$   $\cdot$ 

$$
N \to ND
$$
\nnumber N or the s

An integer number I can be a number N or the sign S of a number followed by number N. The production for this can be written as  $I \rightarrow N \mid SN$ 

So, the grammar G to obtain integer numbers can be written as  $G = (V, T, P, S)$  where

**Example 8:** Obtain the grammar to generate the language

 $L = \{0^m1^m2^n | m \ge 1 \text{ and } n \ge 0\}.$ 

**Solution**: In the language  $L = \{0^m1^m2^n\}$ , if  $n = 0$ , the language L contains m number of 0's and m number of 1's. The grammar for this can be of the form

 $A \rightarrow 0110A1$ 

If n is greater than zero, the language L should contain m number of 0's followed by m number of 1's followed by one or more 2's i. e., the language generated from the non-terminal A should be followed by n number of 2's. So, the resulting productions can be written as

$$
S \to A \mid S2
$$
  

$$
A \to 01 \mid 0A1
$$

Thus, the grammar G to generate the language

**Example 9 :** Obtain a grammar to generate the language  $L = \{0^n 1^{n+1} | n \ge 0\}$ . Solution:

Note: It is clear from the language that total number of 1's will be one more than the total number of 0's and all 0's precede all 1's. So, first let us generate the string 0" 1" and add the digit 1 at the end of this string.

The recursive definition to generate the string  $0<sup>n</sup> 1<sup>n</sup>$  can be written as

$$
A \rightarrow 0A1 \mid \in
$$

If the production  $A \rightarrow 0A1$  is applied n times we get the sentential form as shown below.

 $A \Rightarrow 0A1 \Rightarrow 00A11 \Rightarrow$  ......... 0<sup>n</sup> A1<sup>n</sup>

Finally if we apply the production

 $A \rightarrow \in$ 

the derivation starting from the start symbol A will be of the form

 $A \Rightarrow 0A1 \Rightarrow 00A11 \Rightarrow 0^{\circ} A1^{\circ} \Rightarrow 0^{\circ} 1^{\circ}$ 

Thus, using these productions we get the string  $0<sup>n</sup> 1<sup>n</sup>$ . But, we should get the string  $0<sup>n</sup> 1<sup>n+1</sup>$  i. e., an extra 1 should be placed at the end. This can be achieved by using the production

$$
S \rightarrow A1
$$

Note that from A we get string  $0<sup>n</sup> 1<sup>n</sup>$  and 1 is appended at the end resulting in the string  $0<sup>n</sup> 1<sup>n+1</sup>$ . So, the final grammar G to generate the language  $L = \{0^n1^{n+1} | n \ge 0\}$  will be  $G = (V, T, P, S)$  $V = \{ S, A \}$ ,  $T = \{ 0, 1 \}$ <br> $P =$ where

$$
\begin{array}{c}\n\downarrow \text{S} \rightarrow \text{A1} \\
\text{A} \rightarrow 0\text{A1} \mid \in \\
\downarrow \text{S is the start symbol}\n\end{array}
$$

**Example 10 :** Obtain the grammar to generate the language

 $L = \{w \mid n_a(w) = n_b(w)\}\$ 

#### Solution:

**Note**:  $n_a(w) = n_b(w)$  means, number of a's in the string w should be equal to number of b's in

the string w. To get equal number of a's and b's, we know that there are three cases :

1. There are no a's and b's present in the string w.

2. The symbol 'a' can be followed by the symbol 'b'

3. The symbol 'b' can be followed by the symbol a'

The corresponding productions for these three cases can be written as



Using these productions the strings of the form  $\epsilon$ , ab, ba, abab, baba etc., can be generated. But, the stirngs such as abba, baab, etc., where the string starts and ends with the same symbol, can not be generated from these productions (even though they are valid strings).

So, to obtain in the producitons to generate such strings, let us divide the string into two substrings. For example, let us take the string 'abba'. This string can be split into two substrings 'ab' and 'ba'. The substring 'ab' can be generated from S and the derivation is shown below:



Similarly, the substring  $\boldsymbol{N}$  :



i. e., the first sub string 'ab' can be generated from S as shown in the first derivation and the second sub string 'ba' can also be generated from S as shown in second derivation. So, to get the string 'abba' from S, perform the derivation in reverse order as shown below :



So, to get a string such that it starts and ends with the same symbol, the production to be used is

$$
\vec{S} \rightarrow SS
$$

So, the final grammar to generate the language  $L = \{ w \mid n_a(w) = n_b(w) \}$  is  $G = (V, T, P, S)$ where

$$
V = \{ S \} , T = \{ a, b \}
$$
  
\n
$$
P = \{ S \rightarrow \in
$$
  
\n
$$
S \rightarrow aSb
$$
  
\n
$$
S \rightarrow bSa
$$
  
\n
$$
S \rightarrow SS
$$
  
\n
$$
\} S is the start symbol
$$

#### 5.2 LEFTMOST AND RIGHTMOST DERIVATIONS

#### **Leftmost derivation:**

If  $G = (V, T, P, S)$  is a CFG and  $w \in L(G)$  then a derivation  $S \to w$  is called leftmost derivation if and only if all steps involved in derivation have leftmost variable replacement only.

#### **Rightmost derivation:**

If  $G = (V, T, P, S)$  is a CFG and  $w \in L(G)$ , then a derivation  $S \Rightarrow w$  is called rightmost derivation if and only if all steps involved in derivation have rightmost variable replacement only.

**Example 1** : Consider the grammar  $S \rightarrow S + S | S \cdot S | a | b$ . Find leftmost and rightmost derivations for string  $w = a * a + b$ .

## Solution: **Leftmost derivation** for  $w = a * a + b$



## **Rightmost derivation** for  $w = a * a + b$



**Example 2:** Consider a CFG  $S \rightarrow bA$  aB,  $A \rightarrow aS$  aAA  $a, B \rightarrow bS$  aBB  $b$ . Find leftmost and rightmost derivations for  $w = aaabbabbba$ .

#### Solution:

**Leftmost derivation** for  $w = aaabbabbba$ :



**Rightmost derivation** for  $w = aaabbabbba$ 

```
S \Rightarrow aB (Using S \rightarrow aB to generate first symbol of w)
```
 $\Rightarrow$  aaBB (We need a as the rightmost symbol and second symbol from the left side, so we use  $B \rightarrow aBB$ )

 $\Rightarrow$  aaBbS (We need a as rightmost symbol and this is obtained from A only, we use  $B \rightarrow bS$ )

(Using  $S \rightarrow bA$ )  $\Rightarrow$  aaBbbA

(Using  $A \rightarrow a$ )  $\Rightarrow$  aaBbba

(We need  $b$  as the fourth symbol from the right)  $\Rightarrow$  aaaBBbba

(Using  $B \rightarrow b$ )  $\Rightarrow$  aaaBbbba

(Using  $B \rightarrow bS$ )  $\Rightarrow$  aaabSbbba

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 $\Rightarrow$  aaabbAbbba (Using  $S \rightarrow bA$ ) (Using  $A \rightarrow a$ )  $\Rightarrow$  aaabbabbba

#### **5.3 DERIVATION TREES**

Let  $G = (V, T, P, S)$  is a CFG. Each production of G is represented with a tree satisfying the following conditions:

- 1. If  $A \to \alpha_1 \alpha_2 \alpha_3 \ldots \alpha_n$  is a production in G, then A becomes the parent of nodes labeled  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3, \ldots \alpha_n$ , and
- 2. The collection of children from left to right yields  $\alpha_1 \alpha_2 \alpha_3 \ldots \alpha_n$

**Example**: Consider a CFG  $S \rightarrow S + S | S * S | a | b$  and construct the derivation trees for all productions.



Figure (c)

Figure (d)

If  $w \in L(G)$  then it is represented by a tree called **derivation tree or parse tree** satisfying the following conditions:

- 1. The root has label  $S$  (the starting symbol),
- 2. The all internal vertices (or nodes) are labeled with variables,
- 3. The leaves or terminal nodes are labeled with  $\epsilon$  or terminal symbols,
- 4. If  $A \to \alpha_1 \alpha_2 \alpha_3 \ldots \alpha_n$  is a production in G, then A becomes the parent of nodes labeled

 $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3, \ldots \alpha_n$ , and

5. The collection of leaves from left to right yields the string  $w$ .

**Example 1 :** Consider the grammar  $S \rightarrow S + S | S \cdot S | a | b$ . Construct derivation tree for string  $w = a * b + a$ .

**Solution**: The derivation tree or parse tree is shown in below figure. **Leftmost derivation** for  $w = a * b + a$ :



 $\Rightarrow$  a \* b + S (Second symbol from the left is b, so using  $S \rightarrow b$ )



 $\Rightarrow$  a \* b + a (The last symbol from the left is a, so using  $S \rightarrow a$ )



**Figure :** Parse tree for  $a * b + a$ **Example 2:** Consider a grammar G having productions  $S \rightarrow aAS | a, A \rightarrow SbA | SS | ba$ .

Show that  $S \Rightarrow aabbaa$  and construct a derivation tree whose yield is aabbaa.

#### Solution:

 $S \Rightarrow aAS$ 

 $\Rightarrow$  aSbAS

 $\Rightarrow$ aabAS

 $\Rightarrow$  aabbaS

 $\Rightarrow$  aabbaa

Hence,  $S \Rightarrow$  aabbaa Parse tree is shown in figure.



Figure: Parse tree yielding aabbaa

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Example 3 : Consider the grammar G whose productions are

 $S \rightarrow 0B|1A, A \rightarrow 0|0S|1AA, B \rightarrow 1|1S|0BB$ . Find

(a) Leftmost and(b) Rightmost derivation for string 00110101, and construct derivation tree also.

#### Solution:

#### (a) Leftmost derivation :

 $S \Rightarrow 0B \Rightarrow 00BB$ 

- $\Rightarrow$  001B  $\Rightarrow$  0011S
- $\Rightarrow$  00110B  $\Rightarrow$  001101S
- $\Rightarrow$  0011010B  $\Rightarrow$  00110101

#### (b) Rightmost derivation :

- $S \Rightarrow 0B \Rightarrow 00BB$ 
	- $\Rightarrow$  00B1  $\Rightarrow$  001S1
	- $\Rightarrow$  001141  $\Rightarrow$  0011051
	- $\Rightarrow$  001101A1  $\Rightarrow$  00110101

## (c) Derivation tree :

Derivation tree is shown in below figure.



Figure: Derivation tree for 00110101

#### 5.4 AMBIGUITY IN CFGs

A grammar G is ambiguous if there exists some string  $w \in L(G)$  for which there are two or more distinct derivation trees, or there are two or more distinct leftmost derivations. d)

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**Example 1:** Consider the CFG  $S \rightarrow S + S | S * S | a | b$  and string  $w = a * a + b$ , and derivations as follows:

#### Solution:

**First leftmost derivation** for  $w = a * a + b$ 



Two distinct parse trees are shown in figure (a) and figure (b)



Figure(a) Parse tree for  $a * a + b$ 



Since, there are two distinct leftmost derivations (two parse trees) for string  $w$ , hence  $w$  is ambiguous and there is ambiguity in grammar G

**Example 2:** Show that the following grammars are ambiguous.

(a)  $S \rightarrow SS |a|b$ (b)  $S \rightarrow A | B | b, A \rightarrow aAB | ab, B \rightarrow abB | \in$ 

#### Solution:

(a) Consider the string  $w = bb$ , two leftmost derivations are as follows :

 $S \underset{L}{\Rightarrow} SS$  (Using  $S \rightarrow SS$ )  $S \underset{L}{\Rightarrow} SS$ (Using  $S \rightarrow SS$ )  $S \underset{L}{\Rightarrow} bS$  (Using  $S \rightarrow b$ )  $\underset{L}{\Rightarrow} SSS$  (Using  $S \rightarrow SS$ )  $\Rightarrow bSS$  (Using  $s \rightarrow ss$ )  $\Rightarrow bSS$  (Using  $s \rightarrow b$ )  $\Rightarrow_{L} bbS \qquad \text{(Using } s \rightarrow b \text{)} \qquad \Rightarrow_{L} bbS \qquad \text{(Using } s \rightarrow b \text{)}$  $\Rightarrow_{L} bbb$  (Using  $s \rightarrow b$ )  $\Rightarrow_{L} bbb$ (Using  $S \rightarrow b$ )

Two parse trees are shown in figure(a) and figure(b).





Figure (a) Parse tree for bbb



So, the given grammar is ambiguous.

- (b) Consider the string  $w = ab$ , we get two leftmost derivations for w as follows:
	- $S \underset{L}{\Rightarrow} B$  $S \supsetneq A$  $\Rightarrow_{L} abB$  (Using  $B \rightarrow abB$ )  $\Rightarrow_{L}^{ab}$  (Using  $A \rightarrow ab$ )  $\Rightarrow ab$  (Using  $B \to \epsilon$ )

Two parse trees are shown in figure (c) and figure (d).





**Figure (c)** Parse tree for  $w = ab$ So, the given grammar is ambiguous.

**Figure (d)** Parse tree for  $w = ab$ 

#### **Removal of Ambiguity**  $5.4.1$

#### 5.4.1.1 Left Recursion

A grammar can be changed from one form to another accepting the same language. If a grammar has left recursive property, it is undesirable and left recursion should be eliminated. The left recursion is defined as follows.

**Definition:** A grammar G is said to be left recursive if there is some non terminal A such that  $A \Rightarrow^+ A \alpha$ . In other words, in the derivation process starting from any non-terminal A, if a sentential form starts with the same non-terminal A, then we say that the grammar is having left recursion.

#### **Elimination of Left Recursion**

The left recursion in a grammar G can be eliminated as shown below. Consider the A-production

of the form where  $\beta$ , 's do not start with A. Then the A productions can be replaced by

$$
A \to \beta_1 A^1 | \beta_2 A^1 | \beta_3 A^1 | \dots | \beta_m A^1
$$

 $A^1 \rightarrow \alpha_1 A^1 | \alpha_2 A^1 | \alpha_3 A^1 | \dots | \alpha_n A^1 | \in$ 

Note that  $\alpha_i$ 's do not start with  $A^1$ .

**Example 1:** Eliminate left recursion from the following grammar

$$
E \to E + T | T
$$

$$
T \to T^* | F | F
$$

$$
F \to (E) | id
$$





The grammar obtained after eliminating left recursion is

$$
E \rightarrow TE^{1}
$$
  
\n
$$
E^{1} \rightarrow +TE^{1} | \in
$$
  
\n
$$
T \rightarrow FT^{1}
$$
  
\n
$$
T^{1} \rightarrow *FT^{1} | \in
$$
  
\n
$$
F \rightarrow (E) | id
$$

**Example 2:** Eliminate left recursion from the following grammar

$$
S \rightarrow Ab | a
$$
  

$$
A \rightarrow Ab | Sa
$$

#### Solution:

The non terminal S, even though is not having immediate left recursion, it has left recursion because  $S \Rightarrow Ab \Rightarrow Sab$  i.e.,  $S \Rightarrow^+ Sab$ . Substituting for S in the A-production can eliminate the indirect left recursion from S. So, the given grammar can be written as

$$
S \to Ab | a
$$
  

$$
A \to Ab | Aba | aa
$$

Now, A-production has left recursion and can be eliminated as shown below:

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The grammar obtained after eliminating left recursion is

$$
S \to Ab \mid a
$$
  

$$
A \to aaA^1
$$
  

$$
A^1 \to bd^1 \mid baA^1 \mid \in
$$

## 5.4.1.2 Left Factoring

#### Definition:

Two or more productions of a variable A of the grammar  $G = (V, T, P, S)$  are said to have left factoring if A - productions are of the form  $A \to \alpha \beta_1 | \alpha \beta_2 | \dots | \alpha \beta_n$ , where  $\beta_i \in (V \cup T)^*$  and does not start (prefix) with  $\alpha$ . All these A-productions have common left factor  $\alpha$ .

## **Elimination of Left Factoring**

Let the variable A has (left factoring) productions as follows :

 $A\to \alpha\beta_1|\alpha\beta_2\,|\alpha\beta_3\,|\,...,\,|\alpha\beta_n|\gamma_1\,|\gamma_2\,|\,.\,.|\gamma_m\>,\,\text{where}\;\;\beta_1,\beta_2,\;\beta_3\,...,\,\beta_n\,\text{and}\;\;\gamma_1,\gamma_2,...,\gamma_m\;\text{do not}$ contain  $\alpha$  as a prefix, then we replace A - productions by :

 $A \rightarrow \alpha A^{\dagger} | \gamma_1 | \gamma_2 | \dots | \gamma_m$ , where  $A^{\dagger} \rightarrow \beta_1 | \beta_2 | \dots | \beta_n$ .

**Example**: Consider the grammar  $S \rightarrow aSa$  | aa and remove the left factoring (if any).

#### Solution:

 $S \rightarrow aSa$  and  $S \rightarrow aa$  have  $\alpha = a$  as a left factor, so removing the left factoring, we get the productions:  $S \rightarrow aS'$ ,  $S' \rightarrow Sa | a$ .

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The problem associated with left factoring and left recursive grammars is back - tracking. We can find  $\alpha$  as a prefix in RHS in many ways and a string having  $\alpha$  as a prefix can create problem. In worst condition, to get appropriate remaining part of the string we have to search the entire production list. We take the first production, if it is not suitable then take second production and so on. This situation is known as back - tracking . For example, consider the above S productions  $S \rightarrow aSa$  | aa and a string w = aa. We have choice of the both productions looking at the first symbol on the RHS.



So, if we follow the iteration first, then we can not get the string w and we will have to return to the iteration second i. e. the starting symbol. The problem, in which we proceed further and do not get the desired string and we come to the previous step, is known as back - tracking. This problem is a fundamental problem in designing of compilers (parser).

#### Procedure for Removal of Ambiguity:

 $\boldsymbol{S}$ 

We have no obvious rule or method defined for removing ambiguity as we have for left recursion and left factoring. So, we will have to concentrate on heuristic approach most of the time.

Let us consider the ambiguous grammar  $S \rightarrow S + S | S * S | a | b$ . Now, if we analyze the productions, then we find that two productions are left recursive. So, first we try to remove the left recursion.

 $S \rightarrow S + S$  and  $S \rightarrow S * S$  is replaced by  $S \rightarrow aS^{\dagger}bS^{\dagger}$ ,  $S^{\dagger} \rightarrow +SS^{\dagger}S S^{\dagger} \in$ 

Now, we check the derivation for ambiguous string  $w = a * a + a$ . We have only one left most derivation or only one parse tree given as follows:

$$
\Rightarrow aS'
$$
\n
$$
\Rightarrow a * SS'
$$
\n
$$
\Rightarrow a * aS'S'
$$
\n
$$
\Rightarrow a * a + SS'S'
$$
\n
$$
\Rightarrow a * a + aS'S'S'
$$
\n
$$
\Rightarrow a * a + a \in S'S'
$$
\n
$$
\Rightarrow a * a + a \in S'
$$
\n
$$
\Rightarrow a * a + a \in S'
$$
\n
$$
\Rightarrow a * a + a \in (\equiv a * a + a)
$$

So, we conclude that removal of left recursion (and left factoring also) helps in removal of ambiguity of the ambiguous grammars.

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#### 5.5 MINIMIZATION OF CFGs

As we have seen various languages can effectively be represented by context free grammar. All the grammars are not always optimized. That means grammar may consists of some extra symbols (non - terminals). Having extra symbols unnecessary increases the length of grammar. Simplification of grammar means reduction of grammar by removing useless symbols. The properties of reduced grammar are given below:

- 1. Each variable (i.e. non-terminal) and each terminal of G appears in the derivation of some word in L.
- 2. There should not be any production as  $X \to Y$  where X and Y are non-terminals.
- 3. If  $\epsilon$  is not in the language L then there need not be the production  $X \to \epsilon$ .

#### We see the reduction of grammar as shown below:



#### 5.5.1 Removal of useless symbols

**Definition:** A symbol X is useful if there is a derivation of the form

 $S \Rightarrow^* \alpha X B \Rightarrow^* w$ 

Otherwise, the symbol X is useless. Note that in a derivation, finally we should get string of terminals and all these symbols must be reachable from the start symbol S. Those symbols and productions which are not at all used in the derivation are useless.

**Theorem 5.5.1** : Let  $G = (V, T, P, S)$  be a CFG. We can find an equivalent grammar  $G_1 = (V_1, T_1, P_1, S)$  such that for each A in  $(V_1 \cup T_1)$  there exists  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  in  $(V_1 \cup T_1)^*$  and x in T<sup>+</sup> for which  $S \Rightarrow^* \alpha A \beta \Rightarrow^* x$ .

**Proof:** The grammar  $G_1$  can be obtained from  $G$  in two stages.

#### STAGE 1:

Obtain the set of variables and productions which derive only string of terminals i.e., Obtain a grammar  $G_1 = (V_1, T_1, P_1, S)$  such that  $V_1$  contains only the set of variables A for which  $A \rightharpoonup^* x$ where  $x \in T^+$ .

The algorithm to obtain a set of variables from which only string of terminals can be derived is shown below.

**Step 1:** [ Initialize old\_variables denoted by ov to  $\phi$  ]

#### $ov = \phi$

**Step 2:** Take all productions of the form  $A \rightarrow x$  where  $x \in T^+$  i. e., if the R. H. S of the production contains only string of terminals consider those productions and corresponding non terminals on L. H. S are added to new variables denoted by nv. This can be expressed using the following statement:

 $nv = \{ A \mid A \rightarrow x \text{ and } x \in T^+ \}$ 

- Step 3: Compare ov and nv. As long as the elements in ov and nv are not equal, repeat the following statements. Otherwise goto step 4.
	- [Copy new varialbes to old variables] a.  $ov = nv$
	- b. Add all the elements in ov to nv. Also add the variables which derive a string consisting of terminals and non terminals which are in ov.

 $mv = ov \cup \{A|A \rightarrow y \text{ and } y \in (ov \cup T)^{\dagger}\}$ 

Step 4: When the loop is terminated, nv (or ov) contains all those non terminals from which only the string of terminals are derived and add those variables to  $V_1$ .

**Step 5:** [Terminate the algorithm]  
return 
$$
V_1
$$

Note that the variable  $V_1$  contains only those variables from which string of terminals are obtained. The productions used to obtain  $V_1$  are added to  $P_1$  and the terminals in these productions are added to  $T_1$ . The grammar  $G_1 = (V_1, T_1, P_1, S)$  contains those variables A in  $V_1$  such that  $A \Rightarrow^* x$ for some x in  $T^+$ . Since each derivation in  $G_1$  is a derivation of  $G_L$   $(G_1) = L(G)$ .

#### STAGE 2:

Obtain the set of variables and terminals which are reachable from the start symbol and the corresponding productions. This can be obtained as shown below:

Given a CFG  $G = (V, T, P, S)$ , we can find an equivalent grammar  $G_1 = (V_1, T_1, P_1, S)$ such that for each X in  $V_1 \cup T_1$  there exists  $\alpha$  such that  $S \Rightarrow^* \alpha$  and X is a symbol in  $\alpha$  i.e., if X is a variable  $X \in V_1$  and if X is terminal  $X \in T_1$ . Each symbol X in  $V_1 \cup T_1$  is reachable from the start symbol S. The algorithm for this is shown below.

 $V_1 = \{S\}$ 

For each A in  $V$ ,

if  $A \rightarrow \alpha$  then

Add the variables in  $A$  to  $V_1$ 

Add the terminals in  $\alpha$  to  $T_1$ 

Endif

#### Endfor

Using this algorithm all those symbols (whether variables or terminals) that are not reachable from the start symbol are eliminated. The grammar  $G_1$  does not contain any useless symbol or production. For each  $X \in L(G_1)$  there is a derivation.

 $S \Rightarrow^* \alpha X \beta \Rightarrow^* x$ 

Using these two steps we can effectively find  $G_1$  such that  $L(G) = L(G_1)$  and the two grammars  $G$  and  $G<sub>1</sub>$  are equivalent.

Example 1: Eliminate the useless symbols in the grammar S  $aA \mid bB$ A aA | a B bB  $\rightarrow$ D  $\rightarrow$  $ab$  | Ea

 $\rightarrow$ 

E

Solution:

Stage 1: Applying the algorithm shown in stage 1 of the theorem 5.5.1, we can obtain a set of variables from which we get only string of terminals and is shown below.

 $aC$  | d

'n

ţ,

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The resulting grammar  $G_1 = (V_1, T_1, P_1, S)$  where

$$
V_1 = \{A, D, E, S\}
$$
  
\n
$$
T_1 = \{a, b, d\}
$$
  
\n
$$
P_1 = \{A \rightarrow a | aA
$$
  
\n
$$
D \rightarrow a | b
$$
  
\n
$$
E \rightarrow d
$$
  
\n
$$
S \rightarrow aA
$$
  
\n
$$
S \text{ is the start symbol}
$$

contains all those variables in  $V_1$  such that  $A \Rightarrow^+ W$  where  $W \in T^+$ .

#### Stage 2:

Applying the algorithm given in stage 2 of the theorem 5.5.1, we obtain the symbols such that each symbol X is reachable from the start symbol S as shown below.



The resulting grammar  $G_1 = (V_1, T_1, P_1, S)$  where  $V_1 = \{S, A\}$ ,  $T_1 = \{a\}$ 

 $P_1$ 

$$
= \{ S \rightarrow aA
$$
  

$$
A \rightarrow a | aA
$$
  

$$
\} S \text{ is the start symbol}
$$

such that each symbol X in  $(V_1 \cup T_1)$  has a derivation of the form  $S \Rightarrow^* \alpha X \beta \Rightarrow^* w$ .

**Example 2** : Eliminate the useless symbols in the grammar



#### Solution:

#### Stage 1:

Applying the algorithm shown in stage1 of theorem 5.5.1, we can obtain a set of variables from which we get only string of terminals and is shown below.



The resulting grammar  $G_1 = (V_1, T_1, P_1, S)$  where

$$
V_1 = \{ S, B, D, A \}
$$
  
\n
$$
T_1 = \{ a, b, d \}
$$
  
\n
$$
P_1 = \{ S \rightarrow a | Bb | aA \}
$$
  
\n
$$
B \rightarrow a | Aa
$$
  
\n
$$
D \rightarrow ddd
$$
  
\n
$$
A \rightarrow aB
$$

S is the start symbol contains all those variables in  $V_1$  such that  $A \Rightarrow^* w$ .

#### Stage 2:

Applying the algorithm given in stage 2 of the theorem 5.5.1, we obtain the symbols such that each symbol X is reachable from the start symbol S as shown below.

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The resulting grammar  $G_1 = (V_1, T_1, P_1, S)$  where



such that each symbol X in  $(V_1 \cup T_1)$  has a derivation of the form  $S \Rightarrow^* \alpha X \beta \Rightarrow^* w$ .

### 5.5.2 Eliminating  $\epsilon$  - productions

A production of the form  $A \rightarrow \epsilon$  is undesirable in a CFG, unless an empty string is derived from the start symbol. Suppose, the language generated from a grammar G does not derive any empty string and the grammar consists of  $\epsilon$ -productions. Such  $\epsilon$ -productions can be removed. An  $\in$  - production is defined as follows :

**Definition 1:** Let  $G = (V, T, P, S)$  be a CFG. A production in P of the form  $A \rightarrow \in$ 

is called an  $\in$  - production or NULL production. After applying the production the variable A is erased. For each A in V, if there is a derivation of the form

 $A \Rightarrow^* \in$ 

then A is a nullable variable.

**Example:** Consider the grammar



5.26

C  $c \in$  $\rightarrow$  $\overline{D}$ d

In this grammar, the productions

 $B \rightarrow \epsilon$  $C \rightarrow \epsilon$ 

are  $\epsilon$  - productions and the variables B, C are nullable variables. Because there is a production  $A \rightarrow BC$ 

and both B and C are nullable variables, then A is also a nullable variable.

**Definition 2:** Let  $G = (V, T, P, S)$  be a CFG where V is set of variables, T is set of terminals, P is set of productions and S is the start symbol. A nullable variable is defined as follows.

- 1. If  $A \rightarrow \epsilon$  is a production in P, then A is a nullable variable.
- 2. If  $A \rightarrow B_1 B_2$ ,  $B_2$ , is a production in P, and if  $B_1 B_2$ ,  $B_2$ , are nullable variables, then A is also a nullable variable
- 3. The variables for which there are productions of the form shown in step 1 and step 2 are nullable variables.

Even though a grammar G has some  $\epsilon$  -productions, the language may not derive a language containing empty string. So, in such cases, the  $\epsilon$  - productions or NULL productions are not needed and they can be eliminated.

**Theorem 5.5.2** : Let G = (V, T, P, S) where  $L(G) \neq \epsilon$ . We can effectively find an equivalent grammar  $G_1$  with no  $\epsilon$  – productions such that  $L(G_1) = L(G) - \epsilon$ . **Proof:** The grammar  $G_1$  can be obtained from G in two steps.

Step 1: Find the set of nullable variables in the grammar G using the following algorithm.

$$
ov = \phi
$$
  
\n
$$
nv = \{A|A \rightarrow \in \}
$$
  
\nwhile (ov! = n v)  
\n
$$
\{
$$
  
\n
$$
ov = nv
$$
  
\n
$$
nv = ov \cup \{A|A \rightarrow \alpha \text{ and } \alpha \in ov^*\}
$$
  
\n
$$
\} \nV = ov
$$

Once the control comes out of the while loop, the set V contains only the nullable variables.

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**Step 2:** Construction of productions  $P_1$ . Consider a production of the form

 $A \to X_1 X_2 X_3 \dots \dots \dots X_n, n \ge 1$ 

where each  $X_i$  is in  $(V \cup T)$ . In a production, take all possible combinations of nullable variables and replace the nullable variables with  $\in$  one by one and add the resulting productions to P, If the given production is not an  $\epsilon$  – production, add it to P, .

#### Suppose, A and B are nullable variables in the production, then

- 1. First add the production to  $P_1$ .
- 2. Replace A with  $\in$  and add the resulting production to  $P_1$
- 3. Replace B with  $\in$  and the resulting production to  $P_1$ .
- 4. Replace A and B with  $\epsilon$  and add the resulting production to  $P_1$ .
- 5. If all symbols on right side of production are nullable variables, the resulting production is an  $\in$  production and do not add this to  $P_1$ .

Thus, the resulting grammar  $G_1$  obtained, generates the same language as generated by G without  $\in$  and the proof is straight forward.

**Example 1** : Eliminate all  $\in$  - productions from the grammar



Solution:

#### Step 1:

Obtain the set of nullable variables from the grammar. This can be done using step 1 of theorem 5.5.2 as shown below.



 $V = \{B, C, A\}$  are all nullable variables.

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CONTEXT FREE GRAMMARS



**Step 2:** Construction of productions  $P_1$ .

The grammar  $G_1 = (V_1, T_1, P_1, S)$  where



 $AB|1B| \in$ 



 $\rightarrow$ 

 $\rightarrow$ 

 $\bf{B}$ 

Solution:

Step 1: Obtain the set of nullable variables from the grammar. This can be done using step 1 of theorem 5.5.2 as shown below.



 $V = \{ S, A, B \}$  are all nullable variables.

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**Step 2**: Construction of productions P<sub>1</sub>. Add a non  $\epsilon$ -production in P to P<sub>1</sub>. Take all the combinations of nullable variables in a production, delete subset of nullable variables one by one and add the resulting productions to  $P_1$ .



We can delete the productions of the form  $A \rightarrow A$ . In  $P_1$ , the production  $B \rightarrow B$  can be deleted and the final grammar obtained after eliminating  $\epsilon$  -productions is shown below.

The grammar  $G_1 = (V_1, T_1, P_1, S)$  where  $=$  { S, A, B, C, D }  $V,$  ${a, b, c, d}$  $T_{\rm t}$  $\frac{1}{2}$  $S \rightarrow BABAB|AAB|BAB|BAA|AB|BB|BA|AA|A|B$  $P_{1}$  $\equiv$  $A \rightarrow 0A2 | 02 | 2A0 | 20$  $B \rightarrow AB |A| 1B | 1$ S is the start symbol

#### 5.5.3 Eliminating unit productions

Consider the production  $A \rightarrow B$ . The left hand side of the production and right hand side of the production contains only one variable. Such productions are called unit productions. Formally, a unit production is defined as follows.

**Definition**: Let  $G = (V, T, P, S)$  be a CFG. Any production in G of the form

$$
A \rightarrow B
$$

where A,  $B \in V$  is a unit production.

In any grammar, the unit productions are undesirable. This is because one variable is simply replaced by another variable.

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**CONTEXT FREE GRAMMARS** 



 $B \rightarrow b$ 

are non unit productions. Since B is generated from A, whatever is generated by B, the same things can be generated from A also. So, we can have

 $A \rightarrow aB$ 

 $A \rightarrow b$  and the production  $A \rightarrow B$  can be deleted.

**Theorem 5.5.3**: Let G = (V, T, P, S) be a CFG and has unit productions and no  $\epsilon$  – productions. An equivalent grammar  $G_1$  without unit productions can be obtained such that  $L(G) = L(G_1)$  i. e., any language generated by G is also generated by  $G_1$ . But, the grammar  $G_1$  has no unit productions. Proof:

## A unit production in grammar G can be eliminated using the following steps :

- 1. Remove all the productions of the form  $A \rightarrow A$
- 2. Add all non unit productions to  $P_1$ .
- 3. For each variable A find all variables B such that

 $A \Rightarrow B$ 

i. e., in the derivation process from A, if we encounter only one variable in a sentential form say B (no terminals should be there), obtain all such variables.

4. Obtain a dependency graph. For example, if we have the productions

$$
A \to B
$$
  

$$
B \to C
$$
  

$$
C \to B
$$

the dependency graph will be of the form

$$
\overrightarrow{A} \longrightarrow \overrightarrow{B} \longleftarrow \searrow \bigcirc
$$

5. Note from the dependency graph that

 $<sub>b</sub>$ </sub>

 $A \Rightarrow^* B$  i. e., B can be obtained from A a.

> So, all non - unit productions generated from B can also be generated from A  $A \Rightarrow^* C$  i. e., C can be obtained from A

> So, all non - unit productions generated from C can also be generated from A

c.  $B \Rightarrow^* C$  i. e., C can be obtained from B So, all non-unit productions generated from C can also be generated from B d.  $C \Rightarrow^* B$  i. e., B can be obtained from C So, all non-unit productions generated from B can also be generated from C.

6. Finally, the unit productions can be deleted from the grammar G.

7. The resulting grammar  $G_1$ , generates the same language as accepted by  $G_1$ .

 $AB$ 

**Example1**: Eliminate all unit productions from the grammar

S

 $\rightarrow$ 





Solution : The non unit productions of the grammar G are shown below :



The unit productions of the grammar G are shown below:

$$
\begin{array}{ccc}\nB & \to & C \\
C & \to & D \\
D & \to & E\n\end{array}
$$

The dependency graph for the unit productions is shown below :



It is clear from the dependency graph that all non unit productions from E can be generated from D. The non unit productions from E are

Since  $D \Rightarrow^* E$ ,

W

ij

 $D \rightarrow d \mid Ab$ 

The resulting D productions are

 $D \rightarrow bC$  (from production(1))

$$
D \rightarrow d \mid Ab
$$

From the dependency graph it is clear that,  $C \Rightarrow *E$ . So, the non unit productions from E shown in (production(2)) can be generated from C. Therefore,

 $C \rightarrow d \mid Ab$ 

From the dependency graph it is clear that,  $C \Rightarrow *D$ . So, the non unit productions from D shown in (production(3)) can be generated from C. Therefore,

$$
C \rightarrow bC
$$
  

$$
C \rightarrow d | Ab
$$
 (4)

From the dependency graph it is clear that  $B \Rightarrow ^*C$ ,  $B \Rightarrow ^*D$ ,  $D \Rightarrow ^*E$ . So, all the productions obtained from B can be obtained using (productions (1), (2), (3) and (4)) and the resulting productions are:

$$
B \to b
$$
  

$$
B \to d \mid Ab
$$
  

$$
B \to bC
$$

The final grammar obtained after eliminating unit productions can be obtained by combining the productions (Productions  $(1)$ ,  $(2)$ ,  $(3)$ ,  $(4)$ , and  $(5)$ ) and is shown below:



Example 2 : Eliminate unit productions from the grammar

$$
\begin{array}{ccc}\nS & \rightarrow & A0|B \\
B & \rightarrow & A|11 \\
A & \rightarrow & 0|12|B\n\end{array}
$$

**Solution:** The unit productions of the grammar G are shown below:

S B B A A B  $\rightarrow$ The dependency graph for the unit productions is shown below. The non unit productions are: A<sub>0</sub> S  $\bf{B}$  $11$ A  $0112$  $\mathcal{N}$ It is clear from the dependency graph that  $S \Rightarrow *B$ ,  $S \Rightarrow *A$ ,  $B \Rightarrow *A$  and  $A \Rightarrow *B$ . So, the new productions from S, A and B are  $11 | 0 | 12$ S B  $0|12$ A 11 ↘ The resulting grammar without unit productions can be obtained by combining Productions  $(1)$  and  $(2)$  and is shown below:  $\{S, A, B\}$ ,  $T_1 = \{0, 1, 2\}$  $V_1$ 

 $\rightarrow$  A0 | 11 | 0 | 12  $P_{1}$ S es (  $0|12|11$ A  $\rightarrow$  $\overline{B}$  $11 | 0 | 12$  $\rightarrow$ S is the start symbol

Note: Given any grammar, all undesirable productions can be eliminated by removing

1.  $\epsilon$  – productions using theorem 6.5.2

2. unit productions using theorem 6.5.3.

3. useless symbols and productions using theorem 6.5.1

in sequence. The final grammar obtained does not have any undesirable productions.

#### **5.6 NORMAL FORMS**

As we have seen the grammar can be simplified by reducing the  $\epsilon$  production, removing useless symbols, unit productions. There is also a need to have grammar in some specific form. As you have seen in CFG at the right hand of the production there are any number of terminal or nonterminal symbols in any combination. We need to normalize such a grammar. That means we want the grammar in some specific format. That means there should be fixed number of terminals and non-terminals, in the context free grammar.

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In a CFG, there is no restriction on the right hand side of a production. The restrictions are imposed on the right hand side of productions in a CFG resulting in normal forms. The different normal forms are:

- 1. Chomsky Normal Form (CNF)
- 2. Greiback Normal Form (GNF)

## 5.6.1 Chomsky Normal Form (CNF)

Chomsky normal form can be defined as follows.

Non - terminal  $\rightarrow$  Non - terminal Non - terminal Non-terminal  $\rightarrow$  terminal

The given CFG should be converted in the above format then we can say that the grammar is in CNF. Before converting the grammar into CNF it should be in reduced form. That means remove all the useless symbols,  $\in$  productions and unit productions from it. Thus this reduced grammar can be then converted to CNF.

#### Definition:

Let  $G = (V, T, P, S)$  be a CFG. The grammar G is said to be in CNF if all productions are of the form

$$
\begin{array}{ccc}\nA & \rightarrow & BC \\
\text{or} \\
A & \rightarrow & a\n\end{array}
$$

where A, B and  $C \in V$  and  $a \in T$ .

Note that if a grammar is in CNF, the right hand side of the production should contain two symbols or one symbol. If there are two symbols on the right hand side those two symbols must be non-terminals and if there is only one symbol, that symbol must be a terminal.

**Theorem 5.6.1**: Let  $G = (V, T, P, S)$  be a CFG which generates context free language without  $\epsilon$ . We can find an equivalent context free grammar  $G_1 = (V_1, T, P_1, S)$  in CNF such that  $L(G) = L(G_1)$  i.e., all productions in  $G_1$  are of the form

$$
\begin{array}{ccc}\nA & \rightarrow & BC \\
\text{or} \\
A & \rightarrow & a\n\end{array}
$$

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**Proof:** Let the grammar G has no  $\epsilon$  – productions and unit productions. The grammar  $G_i$  can be obtained using the following steps.

Step 1: Consider the productions of the form

 $A \rightarrow X_1 X_2 X_3 \dots X_n$ 

where  $n \ge 2$  and each  $X_i \in (V \cup T)$  i.e., consider the productions having more than two symbols on the right hand side of the production. If X is a terminal say a, then replace this terminal by a corresponding non terminal  $B<sub>a</sub>$  and introduce the production

 $B_{a} \rightarrow a$ 

The non-terminals on the right hand side of the production are retained. The resulting productions are added to  $P_1$ . The resulting context free grammar  $G_1 = (V_1, T, P_1, S)$  where each production in  $P_1$  is of the form

> $or$  $A \rightarrow a$

generates the same language as accepted by grammar G. So,  $L(G) = L(G_1)$ .

Step 2: Restrict the number of variables on the right hand side of the production. Add all the productions of  $G_1$  which are in CNF to  $P_1$ . Consider a production of the form

$$
A \rightarrow A_1 A_2 \dots \dots \dots \dots A_n
$$

where  $n \ge 3$  (Note that if  $n = 2$ , the production is already in CNF and n can not be equal to 1. Because if  $n = 1$ , there is only one symbol and it is a terminal which again is in CNF). The Aproduction can be written as

$$
A \rightarrow A_1 D_1
$$
  
\n
$$
D_1 \rightarrow A_2 D_2
$$
  
\n
$$
D_2 \rightarrow A_3 D_3
$$
  
\n...  
\n
$$
D_{n-2} \rightarrow A_{n-1} D_{n-1}
$$

These productions are added to  $P_1$  and new variables are added to  $V_1$ . The grammar thus obtained is in CNF. The resulting grammar  $G_1 = (V_1, T, P_1, S)$  generates the same language as accepted by G i. e.  $L(G)=L(G_1)$ .



#### **Solution** :

**Step 1**: All productions which are in CNF are added to  $P_1$ . The productions which are in standard form and added to  $P_1$  are:

1 A ...... $(l)$  $\mathbf{0}$  $\overline{B}$  $\rightarrow$ 

Consider the productions, which are not in CNF. Replace the terminal a on right hand side of the production by a non-terminal A and introduce the production  $A \rightarrow a$ . This step has to be carried out for each production which are not in CNF.

The table below shows the action taken indicating which terminal is replaced by the corresponding non-terminal and what is the new production introduced. The last column shows the resulting productions.



The grammar  $G_1 = (V_1, T, P_1, S)$  can be obtained by combining the productions obtained from the last column in the table and the productions shown in (1).

$$
V_1 = \{S, A, B, B_0, B_1\}
$$
  
\n
$$
P_1 = \{0, 1\}
$$
  
\n
$$
P_1 = \{S \rightarrow B_0A|B_1B
$$
  
\n
$$
A \rightarrow B_0A A|B_1S|1
$$
  
\n
$$
B \rightarrow B_1BB|B_0S|0
$$
  
\n
$$
B_0 \rightarrow 0
$$
  
\n
$$
B_1 \rightarrow 1
$$
  
\n
$$
S \text{ is the start symbol}
$$

Step 2:

Restricting the number of variables on the right hand side of the production to 2. The productions obtained after step 1 are:

$$
S \rightarrow B_0A | B_1B
$$
  
\n
$$
A \rightarrow B_0A A | B_1S | 1
$$
  
\n
$$
B \rightarrow B_1BB | B_0S | 0
$$
  
\n
$$
B_0 \rightarrow 0
$$
  
\n
$$
B_1 \rightarrow 1
$$

In the above productions, the productions which are in CNF are

$$
S \rightarrow B_0 A | B_1 B
$$
  
\n
$$
A \rightarrow B_1 S | 1
$$
  
\n
$$
B \rightarrow B_0 S | 0
$$
  
\n
$$
B_0 \rightarrow 0
$$
  
\n
$$
B_1 \rightarrow 1
$$

and add these productions to  $P_1$ . The productions which are not in CNF are

$$
\begin{array}{ccc}\nA & \to & B_0AA \\
B & \to & B_1BB\n\end{array}
$$

The following table shows how these productions are changed to CNF so that only two variables are present on the right hand side of the production.



The final grammar which is in CNF can be obtained by combining the productions in (2) and (3). The grammar  $G_1 = (V_1, T, P_1, S)$  is in CNF where

$$
V_1 = \{ S, A, B, B_0, B_1, D_1, D_2 \}
$$
  
\n
$$
T_1 = \{ 0, 1 \}
$$
  
\n
$$
P_1 = \{ S \rightarrow B_0 A | B_1 B
$$
  
\n
$$
A \rightarrow B_1 S | 1 | B_0 D_1
$$
  
\n
$$
B \rightarrow B_0 S | 0 | B_1 D_2
$$
  
\n
$$
B_0 \rightarrow 0
$$
  
\n
$$
B_1 \rightarrow 1
$$
  
\n
$$
D_1 \rightarrow AA
$$
  
\n
$$
D_2 \rightarrow BB
$$
  
\n
$$
\} S \text{ is the start symbol}
$$

Example 2 : Find a grammar in CNF equivalent to the grammar :

$$
S \rightarrow -S \mid [S \cap S] \mid a \mid b
$$

Given, grammar is: Solution:

 $S \rightarrow -S \mid [S \uparrow S] \mid a \mid b$ 

 $....(A)$ 

where, terminals are:

$$
-, [ , \uparrow, ], a
$$
 and b

In the given grammar (A) there is no any  $\in$ -production, no any unit - production and no any useless symbols.

Now, in the given grammar (A), following are the productions which is already in the form of CNF:  $S \rightarrow a$ 

$$
S \rightarrow b
$$



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We can write this production as :

- 41





Thus, the resultant grammar (D) is in the form of CNF, which is the required solution.

## 5.6.2 Greibach Normal form (GNF)

Greibach normal form can be defined as follows :

Non-terminal  $\rightarrow$  one terminal. Any number of non-terminals

## Example:



 $5.41$ 

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**Definition**: A CFG  $G = (V, T, P, S)$  is in Greibach normal form (GNF) if its all productions are of type  $A \rightarrow a\alpha$ , where  $\alpha \in V^*$  (String of variables including null string) and  $\alpha \in T$ . A grammar in GNF is the natural generalization of a regular grammar (right - linear).

**Theorem 5.6.2**: Every CFLL without  $\in$  is generated by grammar, where productions are of type  $A \rightarrow a\alpha$ , where  $\alpha \in V$  and  $\alpha \in T$ .

**Proof:** We use removal of left recursion (without null productions) as given below. Let the variable A has left recursive productions given as follows :

 $A \rightarrow A\alpha_1[A\alpha_2]A\alpha_3]...A\alpha_n[\beta_1[\beta_2][\beta_3]...B_m$ , where  $\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3, ... B_m$  do not begin with A, then we replace A - productions by the productions given below.

 $A \rightarrow \beta_1 A'|\beta_2 A'|\dots |\beta_m A'|\beta_1 |\beta_2 |\beta_3|\dots |B_m$ , where

 $A' \rightarrow \alpha_1 A'|\alpha_2 A'| \alpha_3 A'|\dots |\alpha_n A'|\alpha_1 |\alpha_2 |\alpha_3 |\dots |\alpha_n$ 

## Method for Converting a CFG into GNF :

We consider CFG  $G = (V, T, P, S)$ .

**Step 1:** Rename all the variables of G as  $A_1$ ,  $A_2$ ,  $A_3$ , ......,  $A_n$ 

**Step 2:** Repeat Step 3 and Step 4 for  $i = 1, 2, ...$ , n

**Step 3:** If  $A_i \rightarrow a\alpha_1\alpha_2\alpha_3\ldots\alpha_n$ , where  $a \in T$ , and  $\alpha_i$  is a variable or a terminal symbol, Repeat for  $j = 1, 2, \dots, m$ 

If  $\alpha_i$  is a terminal then replace it by a variable  $A_{n+j}$  and add production  $A_{n+j} \rightarrow \alpha_j$ , and

 $n = n+1$ . Consider the next  $A<sub>i</sub>$  – production and go to step 3.

**Step 4**: If  $A_i \rightarrow \alpha_1 \alpha_2 \alpha_3 \dots \dots \alpha_m$ , where  $\alpha_1$  is a variable, then perform the following:

If  $\alpha_1$  is same as  $A_i$ , then remove the left recursion and go to Step 3.

Else replace  $\alpha_1$  by all RHS of  $\alpha_1$ -productions one by one. Consider the remaining

A -productions, which are not in GNF and go to Step 3.

#### Step 5: Exit

## **Advantages of GNF:**

- 1. Avoids left recursion.
- 2. Always has terminal in leftmost position in RHS of each production.
- 3. Helps select production correctly.
- 4. Guarantees derivation length no longer than string length.

**Example 1:** Consider the CFG  $S \rightarrow S + S | S^* S | a | b$  and find an equivalent grammar in GNF.

Let  $G_i$  is the equivalent grammar in GNF. Solution: Renaming the variable, we get  $P_1: S_1 \rightarrow S_1 + S_1$ (Not in GNF)  $P_2: S_1 \rightarrow S_1 * S_1$ (Not in GNF)  $P_1: S_1 \rightarrow a$  $($  In GNF $)$  $($ In GNF $)$  $P_4: S_1 \rightarrow b$  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  are left recursive productions, so removing the left recursion, we get  $S_1 \rightarrow a S_2 | b S_2 | a | b$ , where  $S_2 \rightarrow + S_1 S_2 | ^* S_1 S_2 | + S_1 | ^* S_1$ Now, all productions are in GNF. **Example 2 :** Consider the grammar  $G = (\{A_1, A_2, A_3\}, \{a, b\}, P, A_1)$ , where P consists of following production rules.  $A_1 \rightarrow A_2 A_3$ ,  $A_2 \rightarrow A_3 A_1 | b, A_3 \rightarrow A_1 A_2 | a$  Convert it into GNF.

**Solution:** (Renaming is not required) Consider  $A_1$  – productions :



Now, consider  $A_1 \rightarrow A_1 A_2 A_1 A_3$  and removing left recursion, we get



 $(A_4)$  is a new variable and its production is not in GNF) So, now all  $A_1$  - productions are in GNF.

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Now, all  $A_4$  -productions are in GNF.

Productions in GNF are:

 $A_1 \rightarrow aA_1A_3$  |  $bA_3A_4$  |  $bA_3$  |  $aA_1A_3A_4$  |  $aA_1A_3$  $A_2 \rightarrow b | aA_1 | bA_3A_4A_2A_1 | bA_3A_2A_1 | aA_1A_3A_4A_2A_1 | aA_1A_3A_2A_1,$  $A_3 \rightarrow a \mid bA_3A_4A_2 \mid bA_3A_2 \mid aA_1A_3A_4A_2 \mid aA_1A_3A_2$  $A_4 \rightarrow bA_1A_3A_4$  |  $bA_1A_3$  |  $aA_1A_1A_2A_4$  |  $aA_1A_1A_3$  |  $bA_1A_4A_2A_1A_3A_4A_5$  $A_4 \rightarrow bA_1A_1A_1A_3A_4$  |  $aA_1A_2A_3A_1A_1A_2A_4$  |  $aA_1A_2A_2A_1A_1A_2A_3$  $A_4 \rightarrow bA_3A_4A_2A_3A_4A_5$  |  $bA_3A_2A_3A_4A_5$  |  $aA_1A_3A_2A_1A_3A_3A_1A_3A_2A_1A_1A_3$ 

**Example 3:** Find equivalent grammar in GNF.

(a)  $S \rightarrow aB \mid bA, A \rightarrow aS \mid bAA \mid a, B \rightarrow bS \mid aBB \mid b$ (b)  $S \rightarrow abSb | a | aAb, A \rightarrow bS | a AAb$ (c)  $S \rightarrow AA$  | 0, A  $\rightarrow SS$  | 1

#### Solution:

(a) Renaming S, A and B by  $A_1$ ,  $A_2$ , and  $A_3$  respectively, we get the following productions.

 $A_1 \rightarrow aA_3 | bA_2, A_2 \rightarrow aA_1 | bA_2A_2 | a, A_3 \rightarrow bA_1 | aA_3A_3 | b$ Since, all productions are in GNF, so there is no need of any modification.

(b) Renaming S, and A by  $A_1$  and  $A_2$  respectively, we get the following productions.

 $A_1 \rightarrow abA_1b_1a_1a_2b_1A_2 \rightarrow bA_1|aA_2A_2b$ 

Consider the  $A_1$  - productions one by one.

(Not in GNF)  $A_1 \rightarrow abA_1b$ Replacing all the RHS terminals except the first by new variables, we get  $($  In GNF $)$  $A_1 \rightarrow aA_3A_1A_3$  where  $A_3 \rightarrow b$ Considering the next  $A_1$  - production:  $($ In GNF $)$  $A_1 \rightarrow a$ Considering the next  $A_1$  - production : (Not in GNF)  $A_1 \rightarrow aA_2b$ Replacing b by variable  $A_3$  (since, we have already defined  $A_3 \rightarrow b$ ), we get  $($  In GNF $)$  $A_1 \rightarrow aA_2A_3$ Consider the  $A_2$  -production:  $($  In GNF $)$  $A_2 \rightarrow bA_1$ 

 $\mathbf{e}_i$ 

g)



and

 $A_1 \rightarrow 1A_2A_3|0A_3, A_2 \rightarrow 1A_2A_3A_1|0A_3A_1|1,$  $A_3 \rightarrow 1A_2 A_3 A_2 | 0 A_3 A_2 | 1 A_2 A_3 A_2 A_3 | 0 A_3 A_2 A_3$ 

## 5.7 PUMPING LEMMA FOR CFLs

The pumping lemma for CFLs states that there are always two short substrings close together that can be pumped same number of times as we like and the result is a string in the same CFL.

#### Lemma:

Let L be a CFL and a long string z is in L, then there exists a constant n such that  $|z| \ge n$  and z can be written as uvwxy such that

- $(i)$  $|vx| \ge 1$
- $(ii)$  $|vwx| \leq n$ , and
- $uv'$  wx'y is in L for  $i = 0, 1, 2, \dots$  $(iii)$

## Proof:

Let G be a CFG in CNF and generates  $L - \{ \in \}$ . Since, z is a long string, so parse tree for z must contain a long path. Suppose, the longest path in parse tree of z has length h. In the parse tree, no word can be greater that the length  $2^{h-1}$  or in other words, the maximum length word would of length  $2^{h-1}$ .

We see the proof as follows:

Since, the grammar G is in CNF (productions are of types  $A \rightarrow a$  or  $A \rightarrow XY$ ), so parse tree for z is a binary tree. The parse tree yields longest word if and only if its all levels except the last level contain two children as shown in below figure.



Since, the number of leaves is the length of longest string and it is equal to the number of nodes at level  $i-1$  as shown in above figure. The number of nodes at level  $i-1=2^{i-1}$ 

So, the longest word has the length  $2^{h-1}$ , where h is the longest path length. In other words, we say that no word can be greater than  $2^{h-1}$  length.

Let G has k variables and  $n = 2^k$ . If z is in L(G) and  $|z| \ge 2^k$ . So, the longest path in the parse tree of z has length  $k+1$  and this path contains  $k+2$  vertices ( $k+1$  internal vertices and one terminal vertex). Since, all the vertices except the terminal are variables, so the longest path contains  $k+1$  variables. It means, one variable appears twice in the longest path. Let variable A

appears twice, So  $A \Rightarrow_{\substack{z_3 \\ z_4}} A z_4 \Rightarrow_{\substack{z_4 \\ z_5}} (z_3)^t A(z_4)^t$ , where  $z_3$  and  $z_4$  are two substrings of z. Let

 $A\Rightarrow_{G} z_2$  then  $A\Rightarrow_{G} (z_3)' z_2 (z_4)'$ . We say that  $z_3$  and  $z_4$  can be pumped same number of times as we like.

**Example:** Consider a CFG  $S \rightarrow SS \mid a$  and  $z = aaaa$ . The parse tree for z is shown in figure(a).





Figure (b)

Figure (c)

From the subtree shown in figure (b), we get  $S \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} aaS \in$  or  $S \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} z_3$   $S z_4$  and considering the subtree shown in figure(c), we get  $S \rightarrow a$  or  $S \rightarrow z_2$ .

The subtree shown in figure (b) can be added as many times as we like in the parse tree shown in figure (a). So,  $S \Rightarrow z'_3 S z'_4 \Rightarrow z_3' z_2 z'_4$ 

Therefore, string z can be written as  $u_{3,2,2,4}$  for some u and y substrings of z. The substrings  $z_3$  and  $z_4$  can be pumped as many times as we like. Replacing  $z_3$ ,  $z_2$  and  $z_4$  by v, w and x respectively, we get z = uvwxy and  $S \rightarrow uv'wx'y$  for some i = 0, 1, 2, ................ Hence, the statement of theorem is proved.

#### **Application of Pumping Lemma for CFLs**

We use the pumping lemma to prove certain languages are not CFL. We proceed as we have seen in application of pumping lemma for regular sets and get contradiction. The result of this lemma is always negative.

#### Procedure for Proving Language is not Context - free

The following steps are considered to show a given language is not context - free.

## Step 1:

Suppose that  $L$  is context - free. Let 1 be the natural number obtained by using pumping lemma.

#### Step 2:

Choose a string  $x \in L$  such that  $|x| \ge 1$  using pumping lemma principle write  $z = uvwxy$ .

#### Step 3:

Find suitable i so that  $w'wx'yzL$ . This is a contradiction. So L is not context - free.

**Example 1** : Consider the language  $L = \{a^n b^n c^n : n \ge 1\}$  and prove that L is not CFL.

**Solution:** All the words of L contain equal number of a's, b's and c's. Let L is a CFL and z is a long string in L such that  $|z| \ge n$ . Using Pumping Lemma for L, we write  $z = uvwxy$  and  $uv'wx'y$ is in L for some  $i = 0, 1, 2,$  ............... and  $|vx| \ge 1$  and  $|vw \le n$ .

The substring vx may be  $a^p$ ,  $b^q$ ,  $c^r$ ,  $a^p b^q$ ,  $b^q c^r$  but not  $a^p c^r$ .

Consider  $i = 0$ , so uwy is in L.

**Case 1:**  $v_x = a^p$ , so  $z = uwy = a^{n-p}b^nc^n$  is in L.

The number of a's is fewer than the number of b's and c's for  $p \ge 1$ , which is a contradiction.

**Case 2:**  $v_x = b^q$ , so  $z = uwy = a^nb^{n-q}c^n$  is in L. The number of b's is fewer than the number of a's and c's for  $q \ge 1$ , which is a contradiction.

**Case 3 :**  $vx = c'$ , so  $z = uwy = a^n b^n c^{n-r}$  is in L.

The number of c's is fewer than the number of a's and b's for  $r \ge 1$ , which is a contradiction.

**Case 4**:  $v_x = a^p b^q$ , so  $z = u w y = a^{n-p} b^{n-q} c^n$  is in L.

The number of a's and b's are fewer than the number of c's for  $p, q \ge 1$ , which is a contradiction.

**Case 5:**  $vx = b^q c'$ , so  $z = uwy = a^n b^{n-q} c^{n-r}$  is in L.

The number of b's and c's are fewer than the number of a's for  $q, r \ge 1$ , which is a contradiction. Since, we get contradiction for all values of vx, so L is not a CFL.

**Example 2:** Prove that following languages are not CFL

(a)  $L = {a<sup>p</sup> : p is a prime number}$ (b)  $L = {a^n b^m c^n d^m : m, n \ge 1}$ (c)  $L = {a^n b^n c^m : m \ge n}$ 

#### Solution:

(a) All the words of  $L$  have length prime. Let  $L$  be a CFL and  $z$  is a long string in  $L$ . Using Pumping Lemma for L, we write  $z = uvwxy$  and  $uv^iwx^i y$  is in L for some  $i = 0, 1, 2, ...$  and  $|vx| = m$  and  $|uwy| = n$  where *n* is a prime number then  $|uv^nwx^n y| = n + mn$ . As  $n + mn$  is not a prime number, so  $uv^nwx^n y \notin L$  and this is a contradiction. Therefore, L is not a CFL.

(b) Let L be a CFL and z is a long string in L such that  $z = uvwxy$  for  $|vx| = 1$  and  $|vwx| = k$ , where  $k$  is some constant.

In  $L$ , all words have equal number of a's and c's and equal number of b's and d's. The value of vx may be combination of two consecutive symbols like  $a^Pb^q$ ,  $b^qc^r$ ,  $c^rd^s$ .

According to pumping lemma  $uv^iwx^jy$  is in L for some  $i = 0, 1, 2, ...$ 

Consider  $i = 0$ , then  $z = uwy$  is in L.

**Case 1:**  $vx = a^p b^q$ , then

 $z = a^{n-p}b^{m-q}c^n d^m$ 

The number of a's and b's are fewer than the number of c's and d's for  $p, q \ge 1$ , which is a contradiction.

**Case 2:**  $vx = b^q c^r$ , then  $z = a^nb^{m-q}c^{n-r}d^m$ 

The number of b's and c's are fewer than the number of d's and a's for  $q, r \ge 1$ , which is a contradiction.

**Case 3** :  $_{vx} = c^r d^s$ , then  $z = a^r b^m c^{n-r} d^{m-s}$ 

The number of c's and d's are fewer than number of a's and b's for  $r, s \ge 1$ , which is a contradiction.

Since, we are getting contradiction in all cases, so  $L$  is not a CFL.

(c) All the words of  $L$  contain equal number of a's, b's and number of c's is greater than number of a's (or b's). Let L is a CFL and z is a long string in L such that  $|z| \ge n$ . Using pumping lemma for L, we write  $z = uvwxy$  and  $uv^iwx^iy$ , which are in L for some  $i = 0, 1, 2, \dots$  and  $|vx| \ge 1$ and  $|vwx| \leq n$ .

The substring vx may be  $a^p$ ,  $b^q$ ,  $c^r$ ,  $a^p b^q$ ,  $b^q c^r$  but not  $a^p c^r$ .

Consider  $i = 0$ , so uwy is in L.

**Case 1:**  $vx = a^p$ , so  $z = uwy = a^{n-p}b^nc^n$  is in L.

The number of a's is fewer than the number of b's for  $p \ge 1$ , which is a contradiction.

**Case 2**:  $vx = b^q$ , so  $z = uwy = a^nb^{n-q}c^n$  is in L.

The number of b's is fewer than the number of a's for  $q \ge 1$ , which is a contradiction.

**Case 3**:  $_{vx} = c^r$ , so  $z = uwy = a^nb^nc^{n-r}$  is in L.

The number of c's may be equal or less than the number of a's (or b's) for  $r \ge 1$ , which is a contradiction.

Since, we are getting contradiction in all cases, so  $L$  is not a CFL.

**Example 3** : Show that the following language is not context free  $L = {a^n}^2/n \ge 1$  ?

#### Solution:

**Method -1:** Assume L is context - free and  $n$  is the pumping lemma constant

 $7 = a^{n^2}$ Let  $Z = u v w x y$ , where |  $v w x$  |  $\le n$  and |  $v x$  |  $\ge 1$ write  $|vx|=m, \qquad m \leq n$ Let As  $|uv^2wx^2y| > n^2$ ,  $|uv^2wx^2y| = k^2$ , where k is  $\ge n + 1$ But  $|uv^2wx^2y|=n^2+m < n^2+2n+1$ 

So |  $uv^2wx^2y$  | strictly lies between  $n^2$  and  $(n + 1)^2$  which means  $uv^2wx^2y \notin L$ , a

contradiction. Hence  $\{a^{n^2} : n \ge 1\}$  is not context-free

**Method - II:** We can also show that

 $L = \{a, a a a a, a a a a a a a a a \dots\}$  $a$  a a a a

$$
Z = \frac{-}{v} - \frac{-}{w} - \frac{1}{v}
$$

 $uv^2wx^2y = \epsilon a^2aa^2a = aaaaaaa$ 

$$
uv^2wx^2v \notin L
$$

 $\therefore$  L is not context-free.

Example 4 : Show that the following language is not context-free

$$
L = \{0^m 1^m 2^n / m \le n \le 2m \}.
$$

Solution:

#### Method - I:

Assume  $L$  is context-free and  $n$  is the pumping lemma constant.

Let  $Z = 0^m 1^m 2^n$ 

Then  $Z = uwwxy$ , where  $1 \le |vx| \le n$ 

So vx cannot contain all the three symbols 0, 1 and 2. If vx contains only 0's and 1's then we can choose *i* such that  $uv^iwx^i y$  has more than  $2n$  occurrences of a  $\theta$  (or 1) and exactly  $2n$ occurrences of L. This means  $uv^iwx^jy \notin L$ , a contradiction.

In other cases also we can get a contradiction by proper choice of i. Thus the given language is not context - free.

#### Method - II :

Consider the accepted set of strings from the given language

$$
L = \{0122, 0011222, 00112222, ...\}
$$
  
\n
$$
Z = \frac{0}{u} \frac{01}{v} \frac{1}{w} \frac{22}{x} \frac{2}{y}
$$
  
\n
$$
uv^{2}wx^{2}y = 0 (01)^{2}1 (22)^{2}2 = 0 0101122222 \ne
$$
  
\n
$$
\therefore L \text{ is not context-free.}
$$

## 5.7.2 Ogden's Lemma and Its Applications

There exist some non - context free languages which cannot be proved using the lemma of section 5.7. We need a stronger result. Ogden's lemma is more powerful than the pumping lemma. This lemma allows us to fix 'distinguished positions' in the sentence z and puts some conditions for v, x, y with respect to these positions. Proof of Ogden's lemma is beyond the scope of this book. However, we present the statement of Ogden's lemma and illustrate its application.

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## **Statement of Ogden's Lemma**

Let L be a context free language. There exists a constant n such that for any sentence  $z, |z| \ge n$ , we can fix at least n distinguished positions, and z can be written as uvwxy such that

- i vx contains at least one distinguished position,
- ii. vwx contains at most n distinguished positions; and
- iii. any string of the form  $uv'wx'y, i \ge 0$  is in L.

#### Note:

- 1. Pumping lemma of 5.7 is a special case of Ogden's lemma in which every position in z is distinguished.
- 2. In applying Ogden's lemma, choice of distinguished positions is under our control.

#### **Example:**

Prove that  $L = \{a^i b^j c^k | i \neq j, j \neq k \text{ and } i \neq k \}$  is not context free.

#### Solution:

If L is context free we can apply Ogden's lemma. Let n be the constant of the lemma. Consider the sentence  $z = a^n b^{n+n} c^{2n+n}$ . We will choose all positions in the block of a's as distinguished. z can be split as uvwxy such that (i) vx has at least one distinguished position and (ii) vwx has at most n distinguished positions : By (i), vx should contain at least one a. These are different cases.

#### Case 1:

 $v \in a^+$  and  $x \in b^*$ . Let  $u = a^p$  such that  $1 \le p < n$ . Then, p is divisor of n!. Let q be the integer such that  $pq = n!$ .

Consider  $z' = uv^{2q+1}wx^{2q+1}v$ .

y consists of  $(2n!+n) c's$  (remains unchanged).

 $v^{2q+1} = a^{2pq+p} = a^{2n+p}$  $uv^{2q+1} = a^{n-p}a^{2n+p} = a^{2n+p}$ 

Hence in  $z'$ , number of  $a's = number$  of  $c's$ .

#### Case 2:

 $v \in a^+$  and  $x \in c^+$ . Let  $v = a^p$  and pq=n!. Pumping v and x, (q+1) times, we get :  $z' = uv^{q+1}wx^{q+1}v$ .

In z', no. of a's will be  $n-p+n!+p=n!+n$ .

No. of b's in z' will remain  $n! + n$ . Hence, no. of a's = no. of b's in z'. Similarly, in other cases, we can arrive at strings not as per specification of L. Hence, L is not context free.

## 5.8 CLOSURE PROPERTIES OF CFLs

The closure properties that hold for regular languages do not always hold for context free languages. Consider those operations which preserve CFL.

The purpose of these operations are to prove certain languages are CFL and certain languages are not CFL.

## Context-free languages are closed under following properties.

1. Union

- 2. Concatenation and
- 3. Kleene Closure (Context-free languages may or may not close under following properties)
- 4. Intersection
- 5. Complementation

**Theorem 5.8.1**: If  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  are two CFLs, then union of  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  denoted by  $L_1 + L_2$ or  $L_1 \cup L_2$  is also a CFL.

#### Proof:

Let CFG  $G_1 = (V_1, T_1, P, S)$  generates  $L_1$  and CFG  $G_2 = (V_2, T_2, P, S)$  generates  $L_2$ and  $G = (V, T, P, S)$  generates  $L = L_1 + L_2$ .

We construct  $G$  as follows :

#### **Step 1:** Rename the variables of CFG  $G_1$

If  $V_1 = \{S, A, B, ..., X\}$ , then the renamed variables are  $\{S_1, A_1, B_1, ..., X_1\}$ . This modification should be reflected in productions also.

**Step 2:** Rename the variables of CFG  $G_2$ 

If  $V_2 = \{S, A, B, ..., X\}$ , then the renamed variables are  $\{S_2, A_2, B_2, ..., X_2\}$ . This modification should be reflected in production also.

**Step 3:** We get of the productions of  $G_1$  and  $G_2$  to get productions of G as follows:

 $S \to S_1 \mid S_2$ , where  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  are starting symbols of grammars  $G_1$  and  $G_2$  respectively and  $S_1$  - productions and  $S_2$  - productions remain unchanged.

$$
T = T_1 \cup T_2,
$$

 $V = \{S_1, A_1, B_1, \ldots, X_n\} \cup \{S_2, A_2, B_2, \ldots, X_n\}$ 

Since, all productions of  $G_1$  and  $G_2$  including  $S \rightarrow S_1 \mid S_2$  are in context-free form, so  $G$  is a CFG.

## Language generated by G:

 $L(G)$  = Language generated from  $(S_1 \text{ or } S_2)$ 

= Language generated from  $S_1$  or language generated from  $S_2$ 

=  $L(G_1)$  or  $L(G_2)$  (Since,  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  are starting symbols of  $G_1$  and  $G_2$  respectively.)

=  $L_1$  or  $L_2$  (Since,  $G_1$  produces  $L_1$  and  $G_2$  produces  $L_2$ .)

 $= L_1 + L_2$ 

Hence, statement of the theorem is proved.

**Example :** Consider the CFGs  $S \rightarrow aSb \mid ab$  and  $S \rightarrow cSdd \mid cdd$ , which generate languages  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  respectively. Construct grammar for  $L = L_1 + L_2$ .

#### Solution:

Let  $G_1$  generates  $L_1$  and  $G_2$  generates  $L_2$  and  $G = (V, T, P, S)$  generates  $L = L_1 + L_2$ . Renaming the variables of  $G_1$  and  $G_2$ , we get

 $V_1 = \{S_1\}$  and  $V_2 = \{S_2\}$ , where  $S_1$  - productions are  $S_1 \rightarrow aS_1b \mid ab$ , and  $S_2$  - productions are  $S_2 \rightarrow cS_2dd$  | cdd

We define  $G$  as follows:

 $V = \{S, S_1, S_2\},\$  $T = {Terminals of G<sub>1</sub> or G<sub>2</sub>} = {a, b, c, d},$ P includes:  $S \to S_1 \mid S_2$ ,  $S_1 \to aS_1b|ab$ , and  $S_2 \to cS_2dd|cdd$ .  $L = L_1 + L_2$ =  $\{a^m b^n : m, n \ge 1\} \cup \{c^n d^{2n} : n \ge 1\}$ 

**Theorem 5.8.2**: If  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  are two CFLs, then concatenation of  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  denoted by  $L_1L_2$  is also a CFL.

**Proof**: Let CFG  $G_1 = (V_1, T_1, P, S)$  generates  $L_1$  and CFG  $G_2 = (V_2, T_2, P, S)$ generates  $L_2$  and  $G = (V, T, P, S)$  generates  $L = L_1 L_2$ .

We construct  $G$  as follows:

**Step 1:** Rename the variables of CFG  $G_1$ .

If  $V_1 = \{S, A, B, ..., X\}$ , then the renamed variables are  $\{S_1, A_1, B_1, ..., X_1\}$ . This modification is reflected in productions also.

**Step 2:** Rename the variables of CFG  $G_2$ :

If  $V_2 = \{S, A, B, ..., X\}$ , then the renamed variables are  $\{S_2, A_2, B_2, ..., X_2\}$ . This modification is reflected in productions also.

**Step 3**: The productions of  $G_1$  are followed by the productions of  $G_2$  to get productions of

 $S \to S_1S_2$ , where  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  are starting symbols of grammars  $G_1$  and  $G_2$  respectively and  $S_1$  -productions and  $S_2$  -productions remain unchanged.

$$
I = T_1 \cup T_2,
$$

 $V = \{S_1, A_1, B_1, \ldots, X_1\} \cup \{S_2, A_2, B_2, \ldots, X_2\}$ 

Since, all productions of  $G_1$  and  $G_2$  including  $S \rightarrow S_1 S_2$  are in context-free form, so G is a

## Language Generated by G:

 $L(G) =$  Language generated from  $S_1$  followed by language generated from  $S_2$ 

=  $L(G_1) L(G_2)$  (Since,  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  are starting symbols of  $G_1$  and  $G_2$  respectively).

=  $L_1L_2$  (Since,  $G_1$  produces  $L_1$  and  $G_2$  produces  $L_2$ .) Hence, statement of the theorem is proved.

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**Example :** Consider the CFGs  $S \rightarrow aSb \mid ab$  and  $S \rightarrow cSdd \mid cdd$ , which generate languages  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  respectively. Construct grammar for  $L = L_1 L_2$ .

### Solution:

Let  $G_1$  generates  $L_1$  and  $G_2$  generates  $L_2$  and  $G = (V, T, P, S)$  generates  $L = L_1L_2$ . Renaming the variables of  $G_1$  and  $G_2$ , we get

 $V_1 = \{S_1\}$  and  $V_2 = \{S_2\}$ , where  $S_1$  - productions are :  $S_1 \rightarrow aS_1b \mid ab$ , and  $S_2$  productions are :  $S_2 \rightarrow cS_2dd$  | cdd.

## We define  $G$  as follows :

 $V = \{S, S_1, S_2\}$ ,  $\Sigma = \{Terminals of G_1 \text{ or } G_2\} = \{a, b, c, d\}$ , P includes :  $S \rightarrow S_1S_2$ ,  $S_1 \rightarrow aS_1b|ab$ , and  $S_2 \rightarrow cS_2dd|cdd$  $L = L_1 L_2 = \{a^m b^n : m, n \ge 1\} \{c^n d^{2n} : n \ge 1\}$ .

**Theorem 5.8.3**: If L is a CFL generated by grammar  $G = (V, T, P, S)$ , then Kleene closure of L denoted by  $L *$  is also a CFL.

**Proof:** Let grammar  $G' = (V, T, P', S')$  generates  $L^*$ . We define  $G'$  based on given  $grammar$   $G$ 

 $L^* = \{ \in, L, LL, LLL, \ldots \}$ , since  $L$  \* includes null string, so  $G'$  has production:  $S' \rightarrow \in$ and from other productions,  $G'$  has to generate multiples of  $L$ . So, we have two recursive  $S'$  - productions :  $S' \rightarrow SS' \mid S'S$ , where S is the starting symbol of G

So,  $P' = \{S' \rightarrow \in | SS' | S'S \} \cup \{S - \text{productions of grammar } G\}$ 

Since, all productions of  $G'$  are in context-free form, so  $G'$  is a CFG.

#### Language generated by  $G'$ :

 $L(G') = \{ \in, L, LL, LL, ... \} = L^*$ Thus, statement of theorem is proved.

**Example :** Consider the CFGs  $S \rightarrow aSa | aa$ , which generates  $L = \{a^{2n} : n \ge 1\}$ . Construct a grammar, which generates  $L^*$ .

## Solution:

Let  $G' = (V', T, P', S')$  generates  $L^*$ . We define the productions of  $G'$  as follows :

 $S' \rightarrow \in S'S' \mid S'S$ , where  $S \rightarrow aSa \mid aa$ 

Language generated by  $G'$ :  $S'\rightrightarrows\in$ Hence,  $\in$  is in  $L(G')$ . (Using  $S' \rightarrow S'S$ )  $S' \Rightarrow S'S$ (Using  $S' \rightarrow S'S$ )  $\Rightarrow$  S'SS ....... . . . . . . . (Using  $S' \rightarrow S'S \; n$  times)  $\Rightarrow$  S'SS ... n times  $\Rightarrow \in SS \dots n$  times (Using  $S' \rightarrow \epsilon$ )  $\Rightarrow$  SS ... *n* times  $\Rightarrow LL...$  n times (Since, G generates language L and S is the starting symbol of G.)  $\equiv L^+$ So,  $L(G') = \{ \in \} \cup L^+ = L^*$ 

**Theorem 5.8.4:** If  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  are two CFLs, then intersection of  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  denoted by  $L_1 \cap L_2$  may or may not be a CFL.

**Proof:** We will discuss some examples, which prove the theorem.

**Example 1:** Consider the CFLs  $L_1 = \{a^n b^n c^m : m, n \ge 1\}$  and  $L_2 = \{a^m b^n c^n : m, n \ge 1\}$ , then intersection of  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  is not a CFL.

#### Solution:

 $L_1 = \{abc, aabbcc, aaabbbccc,...\}$  and  $L_2 = \{abc, abbcc, aabbccc, aabbbccc, aaabbbccc,...\}$ So,  $L_1 \cap L_2 = \{abc, aabbcc, aaabbbccc,...\}$ 

=  ${a^n b^n c^n : n \ge 1}$ 

Clearly,  $L_1 \cap L_2$  is not a CFL.

**Example 2:** Consider the CFLs  $L_1 = \{a^n b^n : n \ge 1\}$  and  $L_2 = \{a^p b^q : p, q \ge 1\}$ , then intersection of  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  is a CFL.

#### Solution:

 $L_1 = \{ab, aabb, aaabbb,...\}$  and  $L_2 = \{ab, aab, aabb, abbb, aabbb, aaabbb,...\}$ 

So,  $L_1 \cap L_2 = \{ab, aabb, aaabbb,...\} = \{a^k b^k : k \ge 1\}$ Clearly,  $L_1 \cap L_2$  is a CFL.

**Theorem 5.8. 5:** If L is a CFL over some alphabet  $T$ , then complement of L denoted by  $T^{\star}$  – L may or may not be a CFL.

Proof:

We will discuss some mathematical identities to prove this theorem. Let us assume that complement of a CFL is also CFL. It means,  $\overline{L} = T^* - L$  is CFL.

Let  $R$  and  $S$  are two CFLs over  $T$ , then we know that

 $R \cap S = T^* - (\overline{R} \cup \overline{S})$ (De Morgan's law)

Since, we have assumed that complement of CFL is also a CFL, so  $\overline{R}$  and  $\overline{S}$  are CFLs and hence  $P = \overline{R} \cup \overline{S}$  is a CFL (P is union of two CFLs).

So,  $R \cap S = T^* - P$ 

or,  $R \cap S = \overline{P}$ 

Since, P is a CFL, so  $\overline{p}$  is a CFL.

Thus,  $R \cap S$  is a CFL i.e., intersection of CFLs R and S is a CFL.

But, according to Theorem 5.8.4,  $R \cap S$  may or may not be a CFL. So, our assumption about complement of a CFL is not hundred percent correct.

Since, intersection and complement are interchangeable using De Morgan's law, so whatever the truth about intersection we have proved that is also applicable to complement. Therefore, we conclude that complement of a CFL may or may not be a CFL.

We will discuss some examples, which prove the theorem.

#### Example 1:

Consider a CFL L over  $T = \{a, b\}$  which contains all the strings that not have the number of a's and b's equal or if number of a's and b's are equal then no two a's or b's are consecutive, then  $T^{\dagger}$  -  $L$  is a CFL.

#### Solution:

 $L = \{ All strings over \{a, b\} not having number of a's and b's equal \} or \{ All strings over \{a, b\}$ which have number of a's and b's equal but no two a's and b's are consecutive}

So,  $L = \{ \in, aab, baa, aaab, ...\} \cup \{ab, abab, baba, ...\}$ 

 $=\{\in, ab, aab, baa, aaab, baaa, abab, baba, ...\}$ 

Simply,  $L = (a + b) * -\{a^k b^k : k \ge 2\}$ So,  $T^* - L = (a + b)^* - ((a + b)^* - (a^n b^n : n \ge 2))$ 

= {All the words over  $\{a, b\}$  having equal number of a's and b's and all a's and b's are consecutive}

=  $\{a^kb^k : k \geq 2\}$ Clearly,  $T^* - L$  is a CFL.

### Example 2:

Consider a CFL L over  $\{a, b, c\}$  having all the strings in which number of a's, number of b's and number of c's are not equal or if number of a's, b's and c's are equal then no two a's, b's and c's are consecutive, then T\* - L is not a CFL.

## Solution:

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 $L = \{ \in, a, b, c, ab, ba, ac, ca, \ldots \} \cup \{abc, abcabc, acabcb, \ldots \}$  $= \{ \in, a, b, c, ab, ba, ac, ca, aaa, bbb, ccc, abc,... \}$ 

Simply,  $L = (a + b + c) * -\{a^n b^n c^n : n \ge 2\}$ 

Let  $T = \{a, b, c\}$  then

 $T^* - L = {aabbcc \quad , aaabbbccc \quad ...}$ 

= { All the words over  $\{a, b, c\}$  having equal number of a's, b's and c's and all a's, b's and c's are consecutive}

 $= {a^n b^n c^n : n \ge 2}$ Clearly,  $T^* - L$  is not a CFL.