FORMAL LANGUAGES, AUTOMATA AND COMPUTATION

CONTEXT FREE LANGUAGES

Carnegie Mellon University in Qatar

WHERE ARE WE?



A NONREGULAR LANGUAGE

- We showed that $L = \{a^n b^n \mid n \ge 0\}$ was not regular.
 - No DFA
 - No Regular Expression
- How can we describe such languages?
- Remember: the description has to be finite!

A NONREGULAR LANGUAGE

- Consider $L = \{a^n b^n \mid n \ge 0\}$ again.
- How can we generate such strings?
 - Remember DFAs did recognition, not generation.
- Consider the following inductive way to generate elements of *L*
 - **Basis**: ϵ is in the language
 - Recursion: If the string *w* is in the language, then so is the string *awb*.
- $\epsilon \rightarrow ab \rightarrow aabb \cdots \rightarrow a^{55}b^{55} \cdots$
- Looks like we have simple and finite length process to generate all the strings in *L*
- How can we generalize this kind of description?

ANOTHER NONREGULAR LANGUAGE

- Consider L = {w | n_a(w) = n_b(w)}.
 Now consider the following inductive way to
- Now consider the following inductive way to generate elements of L
 - Basis: ϵ is in the language
 - Recursion 1: If the string *w* is in the language, then so are *awb* and *bwa*
 - Recursion 2: If the strings *w* and *v* are in the language, so is *wv*.
- The first recursion rules makes sure that the a's and b's are generated in the same number (regardless of order)
- The second recursion takes any two strings each with equal number of *a*'s and *b*'s and generates a new such string by concatenating them.

(CARNEGIE MELLON UNIVERSITY IN QATAR)

SLIDES FOR 15-453 LECTURE 7

GRAMMARS

- Grammars provide the generative mechanism to generate all strings in a language.
- A grammar is essentially a collection of substitution rules, called productions
- Each production rule has a left-hand-side and a right-hand-side.

GRAMMARS - AN EXAMPLE

- Consider once again $L = \{a^n b^n \mid n \ge 0\}$
- Basis: ϵ is in the language
 - Production: $S \rightarrow \epsilon$
- Recursion: If *w* is in the language, then so is the string *awb*.
 - Production: $S \rightarrow aSb$
- S is called a variable or a nonterminal symbol
- *a*, *b* etc., are called terminal symbols
- One variable is designated as the start variable or start symbol.

HOW DOES A GRAMMAR WORK?

- Consider the set of rules $R = \{S \rightarrow \epsilon, S \rightarrow aSb\}$
- Start with the start variable S
- Apply the following until all remaining symbols are terminal.
 - Choose a production in *R* whose left-hand sides matches one of the variables.
 - Replace the variable with the rule's right hand side.
- $S \Rightarrow aSb \Rightarrow aaSbb \Rightarrow aaaSbbb \Rightarrow aaaaSbbbb \Rightarrow aaaabbbb$
- The string *aaaabbbb* is in the language L
- The sequence of rule applications above is called a derivation.

PARSE TREES



The terminals concatenated

from left to right give us the

string.

- Derivations can also be represented with a parse tree.
- The leaves constitute the yield of the tree.
- Terminal symbols can occur only at the leaves.
- Variables can occur only at the internal nodes.

(CARNEGIE MELLON UNIVERSITY IN QATAR)

SLIDES FOR 15-453 LECTURE 7

LANGUAGE OF A GRAMMAR

- All strings generated this way starting with the start variable constitute the language of the grammar.
- We write L(G) for the language of the grammar G.

A GRAMMAR FOR A FRAGMENT OF ENGLISH

$$S \rightarrow NP VP$$

- $NP \rightarrow CN \mid CN PP$
- $VP \rightarrow CV \mid CV PP$
- $PP \rightarrow PNP$
- $CN \rightarrow DTN$

$$CV \rightarrow V \mid VNP$$

- $DT \rightarrow a \mid the$
 - $N \rightarrow boy | girl | flower | telescope$
 - $V \hspace{.1in}
 ightarrow \hspace{.1in}$ touches | likes | sees | gives
 - $P \rightarrow \text{with} \mid \text{to}$

Nomenclature:

- S: Sentence
- NP: Noun Phrase
- *CN*: Complex Noun
- *PP*: Prepositional Phrase
- VP: Verb Phrase
- CV: Complex Verb
- P: Preposition
- DT: Determiner

A GRAMMAR FOR A FRAGMENT OF ENGLISH

S

- $S \rightarrow NP VP$
- $NP \rightarrow CN \mid CN PP$
- $VP \rightarrow CV | CV PP$
- $PP \rightarrow PNP$
- $CN \rightarrow DTN$
- $CV \rightarrow V \mid V NP$
- $DT \rightarrow a \mid the$

$$N \rightarrow boy | girl | flower | telescope$$

 $V \rightarrow ext{touches} | ext{likes} |$ sees | gives

 $P \rightarrow \text{with} \mid \text{to}$

- \Rightarrow NP VP
 - \Rightarrow CN PP VP
 - \Rightarrow DT N PP VP
 - ⇒ a N PP VP
 - $\Rightarrow \cdots$
 - \Rightarrow a boy with a flower *VP*
 - \Rightarrow a boy with a flower *CV PP*

 $\Rightarrow \cdots$

⇒ a boy with a flower sees a girl with a telescope

ENGLISH PARSE TREE



• This structure is for the interpretation where the boy is seeing with the telescope!

ENGLISH PARSE TREE

ALTERNATE STRUCTURE



(CARNEGIE MELLON UNIVERSITY IN QATAR) SLIDES FOR 15-453 LECTURE 7

STRUCTURAL AMBIGUITY

- A set of rules can assign multiple structures to the same string.
- Which rule one chooses determines the eventual structure.
 - $VP \rightarrow CV \mid CV PP$
 - $CV \rightarrow V \mid VNP$
 - $NP \rightarrow CN \mid CN PP$
 - \cdots [_{VP} [_{CV} sees [_{NP} a girl] [_{PP} with a telescope]].
 - \cdots [_{VP} [_{CV} sees] [_{NP} [_{CN} a girl] [_{PP} with a telescope]].
 - (Not all brackets are shown!)

OTHER EXAMPLES OF GRAMMAR APPLICATIONS

Programming Languages

- Users need to how to "generate" correct programs.
- Compilers need to know how to "check" and "translate" programs.
- XML Documents
 - Documents need to have a structure defined by a DTD grammar.

Natural Language Processing, Machine Translation

FORMAL DEFINITION OF A GRAMMAR

- A Grammar is a 4-tuple $G = (V, \Sigma, R, S)$ where
 - V is a finite set of variables
 - Σ is a finite set of terminals, disjoint from *V*.
 - *R* is a set of rules of the $X \rightarrow Y$
 - $S \in V$ is the start variable
- In general $X \in (V \cup \Sigma)^+$ and $Y \in (V \cup \Sigma)^*$
- A context-free grammar is a grammar where all rules have X ∈ V (remember V ⊂ (V ∪ Σ)⁺)
 - The substitution is independent of the context V appears in.
- The right hand side of the rules can be any combination of variables and terminals, including *ε* (hence *Y* ∈ (*V* ∪ Σ)*).

FORMAL DEFINITION OF A GRAMMAR

- If u, v and w are strings of variables and terminals and A → w is a rule of the grammar, we say uAv yields uwv, notated as uAv ⇒ uwv
- We say *u* derives *v*, notated as, $u \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} v$, if either
 - *u* = *v*, or
 - a sequence u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_k , $k \ge 0$ exists such that $u \Rightarrow u_1 \Rightarrow u_2, \cdots, \Rightarrow u_k \Rightarrow v$.
 - We call *u*, *v*, and all *u_i* as sentential forms.
- The language of the grammar is $\{w \in \Sigma^* \mid S \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} w\}$

• Consider once again the language

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

• The grammar for this language is $G = (\{S\}, \{a, b\}, R, S)$ with R as follows:

$$lacksymbol{D}$$
 $S o aSb$

2)
$$S
ightarrow bSa$$

$$S \to SS$$

$$S \to \epsilon$$

- From now we will only list the productions, the others will be implicit.
- We will also combine productions with the same left-hand side using | symbol.

•
$$S \rightarrow aSb \mid bSa \mid SS \mid \epsilon$$

- $L = \{w \mid n_a(w) = n_b(w)\}.$
- $S \rightarrow aSb \mid bSa \mid SS \mid \epsilon$
- Clearly the strings generated by *G* have equal number of *a*'s and *b*'s. (Obvious from the rules!)
- We also have to show that all strings in *L* can be generated with this grammar.

ASSERTION

Grammar G with
$$R = \{S \rightarrow aSb \mid bSa \mid SS \mid \epsilon\}$$

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

PROOF (BY INDUCTION)

- The grammar generates the basis strings of ϵ , *ab* and *ba*.
- All other strings in *L* have even length and can be in one of the 4 possible forms:

• awb (
$$w \in \Sigma^*$$
)

- 2 bwa
- 🗿 awa
- bwb

PROOF (CONTINUED)

- Assume that *G* generates all strings of equal number of *a*'s and *b*'s of (even) length *n*.
- Consider a string like *awb* of length n + 2.
- *awb* will be generated from *w* by using the rule $S \rightarrow aSb$ provided $S \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} w$.
- But *w* is of length *n*, so $S \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} w$ by the induction hypothesis.
- There is a symmetric argument for strings like *bwa*.

PROOF (CONTINUED)

Consider a string like *awa*. Clearly *w* ∉ *L*. Consider (symbols of) this string annotated as follows

$$_0a_1\cdots_{-1}a_0$$

where the subscripts after a prefix v of *awa* denotes $n_a(v) - n_b(v)$.

- Think of this as count starting as 0, each *a* adding one and each *b* subtracting 1. We should end with 0 at the end.
- Note that right after the first symbol we have 1 and right before the last *a* we must have -1.
- Somewhere along the string (in *w*) the counter crosses 0.

(CARNEGIE MELLON UNIVERSITY IN QATAR)

SLIDES FOR 15-453 LECTURE 7

PROOF (CONTINUED)

• Somewhere along the string (in *w*) the counter crosses 0.

$$\underset{v}{\overset{u}{\overbrace{a_{1}\cdots x_{0}}}} \underbrace{y\cdots_{-1}a}_{v} a_{0} \quad x,y \in \{a,b\}$$

- So *u* and *v* have equal numbers of *a*'s and *b*'s and are shorter.
- *u*, *v* ∈ *L* by the induction hypothesis and the rule *S* → *SS* generates *awa* = *uv*, given *S* ^{*}⇒ *u* and *S* ^{*}⇒ *v*
- There is a symmetric argument for strings like *bwb*.