Grammars (part III)

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1 Length-Increasing vs. Context-Sensitive Grammars

Closure Properties of Classes of Languages

3 Properties of Type-2 Grammars

The class \mathcal{L}_1 equals the class of length-increasing languages.

Proof

Clearly, every type-1 grammar is length-increasing. Therefore, as we observed earlier, \mathcal{L}_1 is included in the class of length-increasing languages. To prove the converse inclusion, consider a length-increasing grammar $G = (A_N, A_T, S, P)$. We can assume that every production of P that contains a terminal symbol is of the form $X \to a$.

Let $\pi: \alpha \to \beta \in P$ be a production such that $\alpha = X_0 \cdots X_{n-1}$, $\beta = Y_0 \cdots Y_{m-1}$. If n=1, then π is already a context-sensitive production. Therefore, suppose that $2 \le n \le m$. By hypothesis, $X_0, \ldots, X_{n-1}, Y_0, \ldots, Y_{m-1}$ are nonterminals. Consider n new nonterminals $Z_0^{\pi}, \ldots, Z_{n-1}^{\pi}$ and the set of productions P_{π} that consists of:

$$X_{0} \cdots X_{n-1} \to Z_{0}^{\pi} X_{1} \cdots X_{n-1}$$

$$Z_{0}^{\pi} X_{1} \cdots X_{n-1} \to Z_{0}^{\pi} Z_{1}^{\pi} X_{2} \cdots X_{n-1}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$Z_{0}^{\pi} Z_{1}^{\pi} \cdots Z_{n-2}^{\pi} X_{n-1} \to Z_{0}^{\pi} Z_{1}^{\pi} \cdots Z_{n-1}^{\pi} Y_{n} \cdots Y_{m-1}$$

$$Z_{0}^{\pi} Z_{1}^{\pi} \cdots Z_{n-1}^{\pi} Y_{n} \cdots Y_{m-1} \to Y_{0} Z_{1}^{\pi} \cdots Z_{n-1}^{\pi} Y_{n} \cdots Y_{m-1}$$

$$Y_{0} Z_{1}^{\pi} \cdots Z_{n-1}^{\pi} Y_{n} \cdots Y_{m-1} \to Y_{0} Y_{1} \cdots Z_{n-1}^{\pi} Y_{n} \cdots Y_{m-1}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$Y_{0} Y_{1} \cdots Z_{n-1}^{\pi} Y_{n} \cdots Y_{m-1} \to Y_{0} Y_{1} \cdots Y_{n-1} Y_{n} \cdots Y_{m-1} .$$

The set P_{π} consists of context-sensitive productions.

Let P_1 be the set of productions that consists of $\bigcup \{P_{\alpha \to \beta} \mid 2 \le |\alpha| \le |\beta|\}$ and the productions of the form $X \to \beta$ or $S \to \lambda$ (whenever such productions belong to P). Consider the context-sensitive grammar $G_1 = (A_N \cup A, A_T, S, P_1)$, where A consists of all new nonterminal symbols introduced when the production sets P_{π} were constructed.

Note that a derivation step in G that consists of the application of a production $\pi: \alpha \to \beta$ with $2 \le |\alpha| \le |\beta|$ corresponds to the successive application of the productions of P_π in G_1 ; conversely, the productions of P_π can be applied only in this order in a derivation in G_1 , and they simulate a step in a derivation in G that makes use of the production G. A step that uses a production G or G or G or G or G is the same in both G and G or G if and only if G if G if G is the same in both G and the class of length-increasing languages is included in G included in G or G included in G included incl

Example

Let

$$G' = (\{S, X, Y, X_a, X_b, X_c\}, \{a, b, c\}, S, P')$$

be the length-increasing previously constructed grammar. The set of productions P_1 consists of:

• The context-sensitive productions in P', namely:

Example (cont'd)

Each remaining production in P' generates the following productions:

• For $\pi_2': XX_b \to X_bX$, include the productions:

$$\pi'_{10} : XX_b \to Z_0X_b
\pi'_{11} : Z_0X_b \to Z_0Z_1
\pi'_{12} : Z_0Z_1 \to X_bZ_1
\pi'_{13} : X_bZ_1 \to X_bX$$

• For $\pi'_3: XX_c \to YX_bX_cX_c$, include the productions:

$$\pi'_{14}: XX_c \to Z_2X_c$$
 $\pi'_{15}: Z_2X_c \to Z_2Z_3X_cX_c$
 $\pi'_{16}: Z_2Z_3X_cX_c \to YZ_3X_cX_c$
 $\pi'_{17}: YZ_3X_cX_c \to YX_bX_cX_c$

Example (cont'd)

• For $\pi'_{4}: X_{b}Y \to YX_{b}$, include the productions:

$$\pi'_{18} : X_b Y \to Z_4 Y
\pi'_{19} : Z_4 Y \to Z_4 Z_5
\pi'_{20} : Z_4 Z_5 \to Y Z_5
\pi'_{21} : Y Z_5 \to Y X_b$$

• For $\pi'_5: X_aY \to X_aX_aX$, include the productions:

$$\begin{array}{lll} \pi'_{22} & : & X_aY \to Z_6Y \\ \pi'_{23} & : & Z_6Y \to Z_6Z_7X \\ \pi'_{24} & : & Z_6Z_7X \to X_aZ_7X \\ \pi'_{25} & : & X_aZ_7X \to X_aX_aX \end{array}$$

• Finally, for $\pi_6': X_aY \to X_aX_a$, include the productions:

$$\pi'_{26} : X_a Y \to Z_8 Y$$
 $\pi'_{27} : Z_8 Y \to Z_8 Z_9$
 $\pi'_{28} : Z_8 Z_9 \to X_a Z_9$
 $\pi'_{29} : X_a Z_9 \to X_a X_a$

This gives the context-sensitive grammar:

$$G_1 = \{\{S, X, Y, X_a, X_b, X_c\} \cup \{Z_i \mid 0 \le i \le 10\}, \{a, b, c\}, S, \{\pi'_0, \pi'_1, \pi'_7, \pi'_8, \pi'_9\} \cup \{\pi'_i \mid 10 \le j \le 29\}.$$

that generates the language $L = \{a^n b^n c^n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$. This implies that L is a context-sensitive language.

The classes $\mathcal{L}_0, \mathcal{L}_1, \mathcal{L}_2$ are closed with respect to the reversal operation; in other words, if $L \in \mathcal{L}_i$, then $L^R \in \mathcal{L}_i$ for $i \in \{0, 1, 2\}$.

Proof

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Let G = (A_N, A_T, S, P) be a grammar, and let P^R = \{\alpha^R \to \beta^R \mid \alpha \to \beta \in P\}. Define G^R = (A_N, A_T, S, P^R). If G is of type i, then so is G^R for i \in \{0, 1, 2\}. Further, we have \gamma \overset{*}{\underset{G}{\Rightarrow}} \gamma' if and only if \gamma^R \overset{*}{\underset{G^R}{\Rightarrow}} \gamma'^R, as can be shown by induction on the length of the two derivations. Thus, S \overset{*}{\underset{G}{\Rightarrow}} w if and only if S = S^R \overset{*}{\underset{G^R}{\Rightarrow}} w^R. This shows that L(G^R) = L(G)^R, so L(G)^R has the same type as the language L(G).
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Each of the classes \mathcal{L}_i of Chomsky's hierarchy contains the class of finite languages, for $i \in \{0,1,2\}$.

Proof.

Let $L = \{u_0, \dots, u_{n-1}\}$ be a finite, nonempty language over an alphabet A. The grammar

$$G = (\{S\}, A, S, \{S \rightarrow u_0, \dots, S \rightarrow u_{n-1}\})$$

is of type 3 and, therefore, of type 2, 1, and 0. If $L=\emptyset$, then L is generated by the grammar $G=(\{S\},A,S,\{S\to S\})$ that is, again, of type 3.

If L is a language of type i, where $i \in \{0,1\}$, then so is the language K, where $K = L - \{\lambda\}$.

Proof.

If L is a type-1 language, then there exists a type-1 grammar $G = (A_N, A_T, S, P)$ such that L(G) = L. If $\lambda \in L$, the production $S \to \lambda$ belongs to P, and S does not occur in the right member of any production. The language K is generated by the type-1 grammar $G' = (A_N, A_T, S, P - \{S \to \lambda\})$. If $\lambda \notin L$, we have K = L. If L is of type 0 and $\lambda \in L$, let P' be the set of productions obtained from P by replacing all erasure productions $\alpha \to \lambda$ with $Y\alpha \to Y$ and $\alpha Y \to Y$ for every $Y \in A_N \cup A_T$. The grammar (A_N, A_T, S, P') generates the language K, so K is a type-0 language.

 \mathcal{L}_i is closed with respect to union, for $i \in \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$.

Proof.

Suppose that L, L' are two languages of type i that are generated by the grammars $G = (A_N, A_T, S, P)$ and $G' = (A'_N, A_T, S', P')$, respectively, where $A_N \cap A'_N = \emptyset$.

Consider the grammar

 $G_{\cup}=(A_N\cup A_N'\cup \{S_0\},A_T,S,P\cup P'\cup \{S_0\to S,S_0\to S'\})$, where S_0 is a new nonterminal symbol such that $S_0\not\in A_N\cup A_N'$. Note that the grammar G_{\cup} is of the same type i as the grammars G and G'. To complete the proof, we need to show that $L\cup L'=L(G_{\cup})$.

Let $x \in L \cup L'$. If $x \in L$, then $S \stackrel{*}{\underset{G}{\rightleftharpoons}} x$, so $S_0 \stackrel{*}{\underset{G_{\cup}}{\Rightarrow}} S \stackrel{*}{\underset{G_{\cup}}{\Rightarrow}} x$ which shows that $x \in L(G_{\cup})$. The case when $x \in L'$ is entirely similar and is left to the reader. Thus, $L \cup L' \subseteq L(G_{\cup})$.

Conversely, suppose that $x \in L(G_{\cup})$. We have $S_0 \stackrel{*}{\Longrightarrow} x$. If the first production applied in this derivation is $S_0 \to S$, then the derivation can be written as $S_0 \stackrel{*}{\Longrightarrow} S \stackrel{*}{\Longrightarrow} x$. The last part of this derivation $S \stackrel{*}{\Longrightarrow} x$ uses only productions from P since $A_N \cap A'_N = \emptyset$ implies $P \cap P' = \emptyset$. Therefore, we have $S \stackrel{*}{\Longrightarrow} x$, so $x \in L(G)$. Similarly, if the first production applied is $S_0 \to S'$, then $x \in L(G')$. Therefore, $L(G_{\cup}) \subseteq L(G) \cup L(G')$, hence $L(G_{\cup}) = L(G) \cup L(G')$.

Closure with respect to *

Lemma

The classes \mathcal{L}_0 and \mathcal{L}_1 are closed with respect to the * operation.

Proof.

We must prove that if $L \in \mathcal{L}_i$, then $L^* \in \mathcal{L}_i$ for $i \in \{0,1\}$. Let us assume initially that $\lambda \notin L$.

Let $G = (A_N, A_T, S, P)$ be a grammar of type 0 or type 1 that generates the language L. We can assume that terminal symbols do not occur in the left member of any production of P.

Let S_0, S_1 be new symbols such that $S_0, S_1 \not\in A_N$, and let $G_* = (A_N \cup \{S_0, S_1\}, A_T, S_0, P_*)$ be the grammar whose set of productions is

$$P_* = P \cup \{S_0 \to \lambda, S_0 \to S, S_0 \to S_1 S\} \cup \{S_1 a \to S_1 S a \mid a \in A_T\} \cup \{S_1 a \to S a \mid a \in A_T\}.$$

If G is of type 1, then so is G_* .

We have $L^n \subseteq L(G_*)$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Let $x \in L^n$. If n = 0 we have $x = \lambda$, and $x \in L(G_*)$ because $S_0 \to \lambda$ is in P_* . Suppose now that $x = x_0x_1 \dots x_{n-1}$, where $x_0, \dots, x_{n-1} \in L$ for $n \ge 1$.

We have $S \stackrel{*}{\underset{G}{\longrightarrow}} x_j$ for $0 \le j \le n-1$, and the same derivations are valid in G_* because $P \subset P_*$. Thus, we can put together the following derivation in the grammar G_* :

$$S_{0} \quad \stackrel{\Rightarrow}{\Rightarrow} \quad S_{1}S \stackrel{\stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow}}{\underset{G_{*}}{\Rightarrow}} S_{1}x_{n-1}$$

$$\stackrel{\Rightarrow}{\Rightarrow} \quad S_{1}Sx_{n-1} \stackrel{*}{\underset{G_{*}}{\Rightarrow}} S_{1}x_{n-2}x_{n-1}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\stackrel{\Rightarrow}{\Rightarrow} \quad S_{1}Sx_{2}\cdots x_{n-1} \stackrel{*}{\underset{G_{*}}{\Rightarrow}} S_{1}x_{1}\cdots x_{n-1}$$

$$\stackrel{\Rightarrow}{\Rightarrow} \quad Sx_{1}\cdots x_{n-1} \stackrel{*}{\underset{G_{*}}{\Rightarrow}} x_{0}x_{1}\cdots x_{n-1} = x.$$

This proves that $x \in L(G_*)$. Thus, $L^* = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} L^n \subseteq L(G_*)$. Observe that the "regeneration" of the symbol S is made possible in the above derivation by the fact that the words x_j are not null (which puts S_1 adjacent with terminal symbols, thereby allowing the application of the productions $S_1 a \to S_1 S_a$).

Conversely, let $x \in L(G_*)$. There exists a derivation $S_0 \stackrel{*}{\underset{G_*}{\Longrightarrow}} x$. If we write this derivation explicitly,

$$S_0 \underset{G_*}{\Rightarrow} \alpha_1 \underset{G_*}{\Rightarrow} \cdots \underset{G_*}{\Rightarrow} \alpha_{n-1} = x,$$

we have to consider three cases:

Case 1: If the first production applied in this derivation is $S_0 \to \lambda$, then $x = \lambda$, so $x \in L^*$.

Case 2: If the first production applied is $S_0 \to S$, then we have $S \stackrel{\hat{\longrightarrow}}{\underset{G_*}{\longrightarrow}} x$, and the same derivation is valid in G, which shows that $x \in L(G) = L$.

Case 3: If the first production applied is $S_0 \to S_1 S$, then each word α_ℓ in the above derivation falls into one of the following two cases:

Case 3a: α_{ℓ} is of the form $S_1\beta_1\cdots\beta_k$, where $k\geq 1$, $S\stackrel{*}{\underset{G}{\rightleftharpoons}}\beta_q$ for $1\leq q\leq k$, and the first symbol of each of the words β_2,\ldots,β_k is a terminal.

Case 3b: α_{ℓ} is of the form $\beta_0\beta_1\cdots\beta_k$, where $k\geq 1$, the first symbol of each β_p is a terminal for $p\geq 1$, and $S\stackrel{*}{\underset{G}{\rightleftharpoons}}\beta_p$ for $0\leq p\leq k$.

This argument is by induction on $\ell \geq 1$. It is clear that α_1 falls in Case 3a. Suppose that α_h satisfies the conditions of either Case 3a or Case 3b. Since the productions of P do not have terminal symbols in their left members, their application may involve only one word β_i . This guarantees that if α_{h+1} was obtained through the application of a production in P, then α_{h+1} satisfies one of the conditions of the previous cases. The same conclusion can be reached if α_{h+1} was obtained by applying a production of the form $S_1a \longrightarrow S_1S_a$ or $S_1a \longrightarrow S_a$.

The existence of the derivation $S_0 \stackrel{*}{\underset{G_*}{\longrightarrow}} x \in A_T^*$ implies that x is a word of the form 3b. Therefore x can be written as a product, $x = \beta_0 \cdots \beta_k$, where $k \geq 1$, and $S \stackrel{*}{\underset{G}{\longrightarrow}} \beta_p$ for $0 \leq p \leq k$. Since every word $\beta_0, \beta_1, \ldots, \beta_k \in A_T^*$ it follows that $\beta_0, \beta_1, \ldots, \beta_k \in L(G)$. Thus, $x \in (L(G))^{k+1} \subseteq L(G)^*$ which implies $L(G_*) \subseteq L(G)^*$. If $\lambda \in L$, then consider the language $K = L - \{\lambda\}$. The language K is of the same type as L and, by the above argument, so is K^* . Since $K^* = L^*$ we obtain the desired closure property.

Lemma

The class \mathcal{L}_2 is closed with respect to the * operation.

Proof.

Let L be a context-free language generated by the type-2 grammar $G=(A_N,A_T,S,P)$. Suppose that S_0 is a new nonterminal symbol and consider the type-2 grammar

 $G_* = (A_N \cup \{S_0\}, A_T, S_0, P \cup \{S_0 \to \lambda, S_0 \to S_0 S\})$. It is easy to verify that $L(G_*) = L^*$, so $L^* \in \mathcal{L}_2$.

Lemma

The class \mathcal{L}_3 is closed with respect to the * operation.

Proof.

Let $L \in \mathcal{L}_3$ such that L = L(G), where $G = (A_N, A_T, S, P)$ is a type-3 grammar. Define the set of productions $P_1 = \{X \to uS \mid X \to u \in P\}$. Consider the type-3 grammar

$$G_* = (A_N \cup \{S_0\}, A_T, S_0, P \cup P_1 \cup \{S_0 \to \lambda, S_0 \to S\}),$$

where S_0 be a new nonterminal symbol, $S_0 \notin A_N$. It is easy to verify that $L(G_*) = L^*$, so $L^* \in \mathcal{L}_3$.

The classes \mathcal{L}_i are closed with respect to the * operation for $i \in \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$.

Proof.

This follows from the previous lemmas.



Corollary

The classes \mathcal{L}_i are closed with respect to the + operation for $i \in \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$.

Proof.

Let \mathcal{L}_i be one of the classes of Chomsky's hierarchy, and let $L \in \mathcal{L}_i$. Note that

$$L^{+} = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} L^{*} & \text{if } \lambda \in L \\ L^{*} - \{\lambda\} & \text{if } \lambda \notin L. \end{array} \right.$$

In all cases $L^+ \in \mathcal{L}_i$.

Lemma

The classes \mathcal{L}_0 and \mathcal{L}_2 are closed with respect to the product operation.

Proof.

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Let L, L' be two languages of type i, and let G = (A_N, A_T, S, P), G' = (A'_N, A_T, S', P') be two grammars of type i such that L(G) = L and L(G') = L', where i \in \{0, 2\}. Without any loss of generality, we can assume that A_N \cap A'_N = \emptyset. If S_0 is a new symbol, S_0 \not\in A_N \cup A'_N, then the grammar G_p = (A_N \cup A'_N \cup \{S_0\}, A_T, S_0, P \cup P' \cup \{S_0 \to SS'\}) is also of type i. We claim that L(G_p) = LL'.
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Let $x \in LL'$. We can write x = uv for some $u \in L$ and $v \in L'$. By hypothesis, $S \underset{G}{\overset{*}{\Rightarrow}} u$ and $S' \underset{G'}{\overset{*}{\Rightarrow}} v$, so

$$S_0 \underset{G_p}{\Rightarrow} SS' \overset{*}{\underset{G_p}{\Rightarrow}} uS' \overset{*}{\underset{G_p}{\Rightarrow}} uv = x.$$

Thus, $x \in L(G_p)$.

Conversely, suppose that $x \in L_p$. There is a derivation

$$S_0 \underset{G_p}{\Rightarrow} SS' \underset{G_p}{\stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow}} x.$$

Since A_N and A'_N are disjoint sets, the sets of productions P and P' are disjoint. Therefore, the productions of G_P used to transform S into a word over A_T belong to P, while the ones used to rewrite S' belong to P'. Thus, we can write x = uv, where $S \stackrel{*}{\rightleftharpoons} u$ and $S' \stackrel{*}{\rightleftharpoons} v$, which implies $x \in LL'$.

Lemma

The class \mathcal{L}_1 is closed with respect to the product operation.

Proof.

Let L, L' be two languages in \mathcal{L}_1 . If neither L nor L' contains the null word, we may assume that both languages are generated by type-1 grammars that have no erasure rules. It is easy to see that, in this case, the construction of the grammar G_p given in the proof of previous Lemma yields a type-1 grammar, so LL' belongs to \mathcal{L}_1 .

Suppose now that $\lambda \in L$ or $\lambda \in L'$. By The languages $L_1 = L - \{\lambda\}$ and $L'_1 = L' - \{\lambda\}$ also belong to \mathcal{L}_1 and, by the previous argument $L_1L'_1 \in \mathcal{L}_1$. We need to consider the cases summarized below.

Case	$\lambda \in \mathcal{L}$	$\lambda \in L'$	L	L'	LL'
1	yes	no	$L_1 \cup \{\lambda\}$	L_1'	$L_1L_1'\cup L_1'$
2	no	yes	L_1	$L_1' \cup \{\lambda\}$	$L_1L_1'\cup L_1$
3	yes	yes	$L_1 \cup \{\lambda\}$	$L_1' \cup \{\lambda\}$	$L_1L_1'\cup L_1\cup L_1'\cup \{\lambda\}$

In each case, we have $LL' \in \mathcal{L}_1$.

Lemma

The class \mathcal{L}_3 is closed with respect to the product operation.

Proof.

Let L,L' be two languages in \mathcal{L}_3 and assume that L,L' are generated by the grammars $G=(A_N,A_T,S,P)$ and $G'=(A'_N,A'_T,S',P')$, respectively. Without loss of generality, we may assume that $A_N\cap A'_N=\emptyset$; this also implies $P\cap P'=\emptyset$. Consider the set of productions $P_1=\{X\to uY\mid X\to uY\in P\}\cup\{X\to uS'\mid X\to u\in P\}$, which is obtained from P by replacing every production $X\to uS'$.

The type-3 grammar $G_1=(A_N\cup A'_N,A_T\cup A'_T,S,P_1\cup P')$ generates the language LL'. Indeed, if $x\in L(G)$ and $y\in L(G')$, then $S\overset{*}{\underset{G}{\rightarrow}}x$ and $S'\overset{*}{\underset{G'}{\rightarrow}}y$. Since P was replaced by P_1 in G_1 , we have $S\overset{*}{\underset{G_1}{\rightarrow}}xS'$. Note that we also have $S'\overset{*}{\underset{G_1}{\rightarrow}}y$. Combining the last two derivations we can write $S\overset{*}{\underset{G_1}{\rightarrow}}xy$, so $LL'\subseteq L(G_1)$.

Proof cont'd

Conversely, let $z \in L(G_1)$. We have $S \stackrel{*}{\underset{G_1}{\Longrightarrow}} z$. This derivation begins with a symbol from A_N and must eventually use a production from P' since, otherwise, nonterminal symbols cannot be erased. Therefore, the last derivation can be written as

$$S \stackrel{*}{\underset{G_1}{\Rightarrow}} uS' \stackrel{*}{\underset{G_1}{\Rightarrow}} uv = z,$$

where $u \in A_T^*$ and $v \in {A_T'}^*$. This implies the existence of the derivations $S \overset{*}{\underset{G_1}{\Rightarrow}} uS'$ and $S' \overset{*}{\underset{G_1}{\Rightarrow}} v$. Note that the first derivation corresponds to $S \overset{*}{\underset{G}{\Rightarrow}} u$; the second corresponds to $S' \overset{*}{\underset{G'}{\Rightarrow}} v$. Thus, $u \in L(G)$, $v \in L(G')$, and this implies $z = uv \in LL'$. Therefore, $L(G_1) \subseteq LL'$.

Theorem

Each of the classes \mathcal{L}_i is closed with respect to the product operation.

Proof.

Follows from previous lemmas.



Theorem

(The Localization Theorem) Let $G = (A_N, A_T, S, P)$ be a context-free grammar. If

$$X_0 \cdots X_{k-1} \stackrel{n}{\underset{G}{\Rightarrow}} \alpha,$$

where $X_0, \ldots, X_{k-1} \in A_N \cup A_T$ and $\alpha \in (A_N \cup A_T)^*$, then we can write $\alpha = \alpha_0 \cdots \alpha_{k-1}$, where $X_i \stackrel{n_i}{\rightleftharpoons} \alpha_i$ for $0 \le i \le k-1$ and $\sum_{0 \le i \le k-1} n_i = n$.

Proof.

We use an argument by induction on n, $n \ge 0$. For n = 0, we have $\alpha_i = X_i$ for $0 \le i \le k - 1$, and the statement is obviously true; in this case, $n_0 = \cdots = n_{k-1} = 0$.

Proof cont'd

Assume that the statement is true for derivations of length n, and let

$$X_0 \cdots X_{k-1} \stackrel{n+1}{\underset{G}{\Rightarrow}} \alpha.$$

If $X_0 \cdots X_{k-1} \stackrel{n}{\underset{G}{\rightleftharpoons}} \gamma \stackrel{\Rightarrow}{\underset{G}{\rightleftharpoons}} \alpha$, by the inductive hypothesis, we have $\gamma = \gamma_0 \cdots \gamma_{k-1}$, where $X_i \stackrel{n_i}{\underset{G}{\rightleftharpoons}} \gamma_i$ for $0 \le i \le k-1$ and $\sum \{n_i \mid 0 \le i \le k-1\} = n$.

Proof cont'd

Let $Y \to \beta$ be the production applied in the last step $\gamma \underset{G}{\Rightarrow} \alpha$. Y occurs in one of the words $\gamma_0, \ldots, \gamma_{k-1}$, say, γ_j . In this case, we can write $\gamma_j = \gamma_j' Y \gamma_j''$ and α can be written as $\alpha = \alpha_0 \cdots \alpha_{k-1}$, where $\alpha_i = \gamma_i$ for $0 \le i \le j-1$, and $j+1 \le i \le k-1$, $X_j \overset{n_j}{\rightleftharpoons} \gamma_j \overset{n_j}{\rightleftharpoons} \gamma_j' \beta \gamma_j'' = \alpha_j$, which proves the statement.

Definition

A derivation $\gamma_0 \underset{G}{\Rightarrow} \gamma_1 \underset{G}{\Rightarrow} \cdots \underset{G}{\Rightarrow} \gamma_n$ in a context-free grammar $G = (A_N, A_T, S, P)$ is *complete* if $\gamma_n \in A_T^*$.

Note that if $X_0\cdots X_{k-1}\underset{G}{\Rightarrow}\cdots\underset{G}{\Rightarrow}\alpha$ is a complete derivation in G, then every derivation that results from "splitting" this derivation is also complete.

Example

Let $G = (A_N, A_T, S_0, P)$ be a context-free grammar, where $A_N = \{S_0, S_1, S_2\}$, $A_T = \{a, b\}$, and P contains the following productions:

$$S_0 \rightarrow aS_2, S_0 \rightarrow bS_1, S_1 \rightarrow a, S_1 \rightarrow aS_0, S_1 \rightarrow bS_1S_1, S_2 \rightarrow b, S_2 \rightarrow bS_0, S_2 \rightarrow aS_2S_2.$$

We prove that L(G) consists of all nonnull words over $\{a,b\}$ that contain an equal number of a's and b's. Recall that $n_X(\alpha)$ is the number of occurrences of symbol X in the word α . We will show by strong induction on $p, p \geq 1$, that

- if $n_a(u) = n_b(u) = p$, then $S_0 \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} u$;
- $\bullet \ \, \text{if} \, \, n_b(u) = n_a(u) + 1 = p, \, \text{then} \, \, S_2 \stackrel{*}{\underset{G}{\Rightarrow}} \, u.$

In the first case, for p=1, we have either u=ab or u=ba; hence, we have either $S_0 \underset{G}{\Rightarrow} aS_2 \underset{G}{\Rightarrow} ab$ or $S_0 \underset{G}{\Rightarrow} bS_1 \underset{G}{\Rightarrow} ba$. For the second case, u=a, and we have $S_1 \underset{G}{\Rightarrow} a$; the third case, for u=b, is similar.

Suppose that the statement holds for $p \le n$. Again, we consider three cases for the word u:

- $n_a(u) = n_b(u) = n+1;$
- ② if $n_a(u) = n_b(u) + 1 = n + 1$;
- **3** if $n_b(u) = n_a(u) + 1 = n + 1$.

In the first case, we may have four situations:

- 1_1 . u = abt, where $t \in \{a, b\}^*$ and $n_a(t) = n_b(t) = n$,
- 1_2 . u = bat, where $t \in \{a, b\}^*$ and $n_a(t) = n_b(t) = n$,
- 13. u = aav with $n_b(v) = n + 1$ and $n_a(v) = n 1$, or
- 14. u = bbw with $n_a(w) = n + 1$ and $n_b(w) = n 1$.

By the inductive hypothesis, we have $S_0 \stackrel{*}{\underset{G}{\longrightarrow}} t$, and therefore, we obtain one of the following derivations:

$$S_0 \underset{G}{\Rightarrow} aS_2 \underset{G}{\Rightarrow} abS_0 \underset{G}{\overset{*}{\Rightarrow}} abt = u,$$

$$S_0 \underset{G}{\Rightarrow} bS_1 \underset{G}{\Rightarrow} baS_0 \underset{G}{\overset{*}{\Rightarrow}} bat = u,$$

for the cases (1_1) and (1_2) , respectively.

On the other hand, if u=aav, we can write v=v'v'', where v' is the shortest prefix of v, where the number of bs exceeds the number of as. Clearly, we must have $n_b(v')=n_a(v')+1=n'$, and therefore, $n_b(v'')=n_a(v'')+1=n''$, where n'+n''=n+1. By the inductive hypothesis, we have $S_2 \stackrel{*}{\underset{G}{\longrightarrow}} v'$, $S_2 \stackrel{*}{\underset{G}{\longrightarrow}} v''$; hence,

$$S_0 \Rightarrow_G aS_2 \Rightarrow_G aaS_2S_2 \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow}_G aav'v'' = u,$$

which concludes the argument for (1_3) . We leave to the reader the similar arguments for the remaining cases. This allows us to conclude that every word that contains an equal number of a's and b's belongs to L(G).

To prove the reverse inclusion, we justify the following implications:

- 1 If $S_0 \stackrel{n}{\underset{G}{\longrightarrow}} \alpha$, then $n_a(\alpha) + n_{S_1}(\alpha) = n_b(\alpha) + n_{S_2}(\alpha)$.

The proof is by strong induction on n, where $n \ge 1$. For n = 1, the verification is immediate. For instance, if $S_1 \underset{G}{\Rightarrow} \alpha$, we have $\alpha = a$, $\alpha = aS_0$, or $\alpha = bS_1S_1$; in every case, the equality is satisfied.

Suppose that the implications hold for derivations no longer than n. If $S_0 \stackrel{n+1}{\Longrightarrow} \alpha$, the first production applied in the derivation is $S_0 \to aS_2$ or $S_0 \to bS_1$. In the first case, we have $\alpha = a\beta$, where $S_2 \stackrel{n}{\Longrightarrow} \beta$, and by the inductive hypothesis, we have $n_a(\beta) + n_{S_1}(\beta) + 1 = n_b(\beta) + n_{S_2}(\beta)$, so

$$n_a(\alpha) + n_{S_1}(\alpha) = n_a(\beta) + 1 + n_{S_1}(\beta)$$

= $n_b(\beta) + n_{S_2}(\beta)$
= $n_b(\alpha) + n_{S_2}(\alpha)$.

The second case has a similar treatment.

If $S_1 \stackrel{n+1}{\underset{G}{\rightleftharpoons}} \alpha$, we have three possibilities.

- (a) If the first production of the derivation is $S_1 \to a$, then $\alpha = a$ and the equality corresponding to this case is obviously satisfied.
- (b) If the first production is $S_1 \to aS_0$, we can write $\alpha = a\beta$, where

$$S_0 \stackrel{n}{\underset{G}{\Rightarrow}} \beta$$
; hence, $n_a(\beta) + n_{S_1}(\beta) = n_b(\beta) + n_{S_2}(\beta)$, so

$$n_a(\alpha) + n_{S_1}(\alpha) = n_a(\beta) + 1 + n_{S_1}(\beta)$$

= $n_b(\beta) + n_{S_2}(\beta) + 1$
= $n_b(\alpha) + n_{S_2}(\alpha) + 1$.

(c) If the derivation begins with $S_1 \to bS_1S_1$ we can write $\alpha = b\beta\gamma$, where $S_1 \stackrel{p}{\underset{G}{\longrightarrow}} \beta$ and $S_1 \stackrel{q}{\underset{G}{\longrightarrow}} \gamma$, where $p, q \le n$. By the inductive hypothesis, $n_a(\beta) + n_{S_1}(\beta) = n_b(\beta) + n_{S_2}(\beta) + 1$, and $n_a(\gamma) + n_{S_1}(\gamma) = n_b(\gamma) + n_{S_2}(\gamma) + 1$. Consequently,

$$n_{a}(\alpha) + n_{S_{1}}(\alpha) = n_{a}(\beta) + n_{a}(\gamma) + n_{S_{1}}(\beta) + n_{S_{1}}(\gamma)$$

$$= n_{b}(\beta) + n_{S_{2}}(\beta) + 1 + n_{b}(\gamma) + n_{S_{2}}(\gamma) + 1$$

$$= n_{b}(\alpha) + n_{S_{2}}(\alpha) + 1.$$

The case of the derivation $S_2 \stackrel{*}{\stackrel{>}{=}} \alpha$ can be treated in a similar manner.

Let $u \in L(G)$. From the existence of the derivation $S_0 \stackrel{*}{\underset{G}{\circ}} u$ we obtain $n_a(u) = n_b(u)$, which shows that $L(G) \subseteq \{x \in \{a,b\}^* \mid n_a(x) = n_b(x)\}$.