

# 1 Chomsky Hierarchy

## Grammars for each task

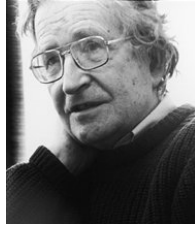


Figure 1: Noam Chomsky

- Different types of rules, allow one to describe different aspects of natural language
- These grammars form a hierarchy

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## Grammars in General

All grammars we consider will be of the form  $G = (V, \Sigma, R, S)$

- $V$  is a finite set of variables
- $\Sigma$  is a finite set of terminals
- $R$  is a finite set of rules
- $S$  is the start symbol

The different grammars will be determined by the form of the rules in  $R$ .

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## 1.1 Regular Languages

### Type 3 Grammars

The rules in a type 3 grammar are of the form

$$A \rightarrow aB \quad \text{or} \quad A \rightarrow a$$

where  $A, B \in V$  and  $a \in \Sigma \cup \{\epsilon\}$ .

We say  $\alpha A \beta \Rightarrow_G \alpha \gamma \beta$  iff  $A \rightarrow \gamma \in R$ .  $\mathbf{L}(G) = \{w \in \Sigma^* \mid S \xRightarrow{*}_G w\}$

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### 1.1.1 Type 3 Grammars and Regularity

#### Type 3 Grammars and Regularity

**Proposition 1.** *If  $G$  is Type 3 grammar then  $\mathbf{L}(G)$  is regular. Conversely, if  $L$  is regular then there is a Type 3 grammar  $G$  such that  $L = \mathbf{L}(G)$ .*

*Proof.* Let  $G = (V, \Sigma, R, S)$  be a type 3 grammar. Consider the NFA  $M = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$  where

- $Q = V \cup \{q_F\}$ , where  $q_F \notin V$
- $q_0 = S$
- $F = \{q_F\}$
- $\delta(A, a) = \{B \mid \text{if } A \rightarrow aB \in R\} \cup \{q_F \mid \text{if } A \rightarrow a \in R\}$  for  $A \in V$ . And  $\delta(q_F, a) = \emptyset$  for all  $a$ .

$\mathbf{L}(M) = L(G)$  as  $\forall A \in V, \forall w \in \Sigma^*, A \xRightarrow{*}_G w$  iff  $A \xrightarrow{w}_M q_F$ .

Conversely, let  $M = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$  be a NFA recognizing  $L$ . Consider  $G = (V, \Sigma, R, S)$  where

- $V = Q$
- $S = q_0$
- $q_1 \rightarrow aq_2 \in R$  iff  $q_2 \in \delta(q_1, a)$  and  $q \rightarrow \epsilon \in R$  iff  $q \in F$ .

We can show, for any  $q, q' \in Q$  and  $w \in \Sigma^*$ ,  $q \xrightarrow{w}_M q'$  iff  $q \xRightarrow{*}_G wq'$ . Thus,  $\mathbf{L}(M) = \mathbf{L}(G)$ .  $\square$

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## 1.2 Context-free Languages

### Type 2 Grammars

The rules in a type 2 grammar are of the form

$$A \rightarrow \beta$$

where  $A \in V$  and  $\beta \in (\Sigma \cup V)^*$ .

We say  $\alpha A \beta \Rightarrow_G \alpha \gamma \beta$  iff  $A \rightarrow \gamma \in R$ .  $\mathbf{L}(G) = \{w \in \Sigma^* \mid S \xRightarrow{*}_G w\}$

By definition, Type 2 grammars describe exactly the class of context-free languages.

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## 1.3 Beyond Context-Free Languages

### 1.3.1 Type 0 Grammars

#### Type 0 Grammars

The rules in a type 0 grammar are of the form

$$\alpha \rightarrow \beta$$

where  $\alpha, \beta \in (\Sigma \cup V)^*$ .

We say  $\gamma_1\alpha\gamma_2 \Rightarrow_G \gamma_1\beta\gamma_2$  iff  $\alpha \rightarrow \beta \in R$ .  $\mathbf{L}(G) = \{w \in \Sigma^* \mid S \xRightarrow{*}_G w\}$

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#### Example of Type 0 Grammar

*Example 2.* Consider the grammar  $G$  with  $\Sigma = \{a\}$  with

$$\begin{array}{lll} S \rightarrow \$Ca\# \mid a \mid \epsilon & Ca \rightarrow aaC & \$D \rightarrow \$C \\ C\# \rightarrow D\# \mid E & aD \rightarrow Da & aE \rightarrow Ea \\ \$E \rightarrow \epsilon & & \end{array}$$

The following are derivations in this grammar

$$\begin{array}{l} S \Rightarrow \$Ca\# \Rightarrow \$aaC\# \Rightarrow \$aaE \Rightarrow \$aEa \Rightarrow \$Eaa \Rightarrow aa \\ S \Rightarrow \$Ca\# \Rightarrow \$aaC\# \Rightarrow \$aaD\# \Rightarrow \$aDa\# \Rightarrow \$Daa\# \Rightarrow \$Caa\# \\ \Rightarrow \$aaCa\# \Rightarrow \$aaaaC\# \Rightarrow \$aaaaE \Rightarrow \$aaaEa \Rightarrow \$aaEaa \\ \Rightarrow \$aEaaa \Rightarrow \$Eaaaa \Rightarrow aaaa \end{array}$$

$$\mathbf{L}(G) = \{a^i \mid i \text{ is a power of } 2\}$$

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#### Expressive Power of Type 0 Grammars

Recall that any decision problem can be thought of as a formal language  $L$ , where  $x \in L$  iff the answer on input  $x$  is “yes”.

**Proposition 3.** *A decision problem  $L$  can be “solved on computers” iff  $L$  can be described by a Type 0 grammar.*

*Proof.* Need to develop some theory, that we will see in the next few weeks. □

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### 1.3.2 Type 1 Grammars

#### Type 1 Grammars

The rules in a type 1 grammar are of the form

$$\alpha \rightarrow \beta$$

where  $\alpha, \beta \in (\Sigma \cup V)^*$  and  $|\alpha| \leq |\beta|$ .

We say  $\gamma_1\alpha\gamma_2 \Rightarrow_G \gamma_1\beta\gamma_2$  iff  $\alpha \rightarrow \beta \in R$ .  $\mathbf{L}(G) = \{w \in \Sigma^* \mid S \xRightarrow{*}_G w\}$

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#### Normal Form for Type 1 Grammars

We can define a normal form for Type 1 grammars where all rules are of the form

$$\alpha_1 A \alpha_2 \rightarrow \alpha_1 \beta \alpha_2$$

Thus, the rules in Type 1, can be seen as rules of a CFG where a variable  $A$  is replaced by a string  $\beta$  in one step, with the only difference being that rule can be applied only in the context  $\alpha_1 \square \alpha_2$ .

Thus, languages described by Type 1 grammars are called *context-sensitive languages*.

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### 1.3.3 Hierarchy

#### Chomsky Hierarchy

**Theorem 4.** *Type 0, Type 1, Type 2, and Type 3 grammars define a strict hierarchy of formal languages.*

*Proof.* Clearly a Type 3 grammar is a special Type 2 grammar, a Type 2 grammar is a special Type 1 grammar, and a Type 1 grammar is special Type 0 grammar.

Moreover, there is a language that has a Type 2 grammar but no Type 3 grammar ( $L = \{0^n 1^n \mid n \geq 0\}$ ), a language that has a Type 1 grammar but no Type 2 grammar ( $L = \{a^n b^n c^n \mid n \geq 0\}$ ), and a language with a Type 0 grammar but no Type 1 grammar.  $\square$

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#### Overview of Languages

