Given the language:

$$L = \{ww^{R} | w \in \{0, 1\}^{*}\}$$
(1)

1

Prove that this language is non-regular

ECE-374-B: Lecture 6 - Context-Free Grammars

Instructor: Nickvash Kani

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University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign

 $L_{x^{2}} \{ oi | n > 03 = r = 0^{*} |$ Given the language: F = 20,012(2) $L = \{ww^{R} | w \in \{0, 1\}^{*}\}$ OFLR W=E OLELA Prove that this language is non-regular te representable -Asseme Lis regular. Then it must by a DFA M. - Consider the fooling at F= {(01) 1 > 03 any Z strings in F (COI)' s(or) Fis a fooling 6/c for there is a subfir y = (10)' where (01)'(10)' EL (01)ⁱ (10)ⁱ \$L -FI=00 fherefore 101=00 Contradiction - assumption is wrong

Chomsky hierarchy revisited



Example of Context-Free Languages

Regular languages could be constructed using a finite number of:

- Unions
- Concatenations
- Repetitions

With context-free languages we have a much more powerful tool:

Substitution (aka recursion)!

- · V = {S} variables / non remind
- T = {0,1} terminals / characters in the alphabet
- $P = \{S \rightarrow \epsilon \mid 0S0 \mid 1S1\}$ production values (abbrev. for $S \rightarrow \epsilon, S \rightarrow 0S0, S \rightarrow 1S1$)

5 -> 2 5 --- --- --- 00 $154 \longrightarrow 10501 \rightarrow 10501 \longrightarrow 1001$

- $V = \{S\}$
- $T = \{0, 1\}$
- $P = \{S \rightarrow \epsilon \mid 0S0 \mid 1S1\}$ (abbrev. for $S \rightarrow \epsilon, S \rightarrow 0S0, S \rightarrow 1S1$)

$S \rightsquigarrow 0S0 \rightsquigarrow 01S10 \rightsquigarrow 011S110 \rightsquigarrow 011\varepsilon 110 \rightsquigarrow 011110$

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What strings can S generate like this?

Formal definition of context-free languages (CFGs)

Definition A CFG is a quadruple G = (V, T, P, S)

• *V* is a finite set of non-terminal (variable) symbols

 $G = \left(Variables, Terminals, Productions, Start var \right)$

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- P is a finite set of productions, each of the form $\overrightarrow{A + \alpha}$

where $A \in V$ and α is a string in $(V \cup T)^*$. Formally, $P \subset V \times (V \cup T)^*$.

$$aAb \rightarrow cAAB eC$$

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Formally, $P \subset V \times (V \cup T)^*$.

• $S \in V$ is a start symbol

G = (Variables, Terminals, Productions, Start var

Example formally...

- $V = \{S\}$
- $T = \{0, 1\}$
- $P = \{S \rightarrow \epsilon \mid 0S0 \mid 1S1\}$ (abbrev. for $S \rightarrow \epsilon, S \rightarrow 0S0, S \rightarrow 1S1$)

$$G = \left(\{S\}, \{0, 1\}, \begin{cases} S \to \epsilon, \\ S \to 0S0 \\ S \to 1S1 \end{cases} \right)$$

Let G = (V, T, P, S) then

- a, b, c, d, \ldots , in T (terminals)
- A, B, C, D, \ldots , in V (non-terminals)
- u, v, w, x, y, \dots in T^* for strings of terminals
- $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \ldots$ in $(V \cup T)^*$
- X, Y, X in $V \cup T$

Formalism for how strings are derived/generated

Definition Let G = (V, T, P, S) be a CFG. For strings $\alpha_1, \alpha_2 \in (V \cup T)^*$ we say α_1 derives α_2 denoted by $\alpha_1 \rightsquigarrow_G \alpha_2$ if there exist strings β, γ, δ in $(V \cup T)^*$ such that







Examples: $S \rightsquigarrow \epsilon$, $S \rightsquigarrow 0S1$, $0S1 \rightsquigarrow 00S11$, $0S1 \rightsquigarrow 01$.

"Derives" relation continued

Definition

For integer $k \ge 0$, $\alpha_1 \rightsquigarrow^k \alpha_2$ inductive defined:

•
$$\alpha_1 \rightsquigarrow^0 \alpha_2$$
 if $\alpha_1 = \alpha_2$

• $\alpha_1 \rightsquigarrow^k \alpha_2$ if $\alpha_1 \rightsquigarrow \beta_1$ and $\beta_1 \rightsquigarrow^{k-1} \alpha_2$.

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 \rightsquigarrow^* is the reflexive and transitive closure of \rightsquigarrow .

 $\alpha_1 \rightsquigarrow^* \alpha_2$ if $\alpha_1 \rightsquigarrow^k \alpha_2$ for some k.

Examples: $S \rightsquigarrow^* \epsilon$, $0S1 \rightsquigarrow^* 0000011111$.

Definition The language generated by CFG G = (V, T, P, S) is denoted by L(G) where $L(G) = \{w \in T^* \mid S \rightsquigarrow^* w\}.$

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The language generated by CFG G = (V, T, P, S) is denoted by L(G) where $L(G) = \{w \in T^* \mid S \rightsquigarrow^* w\}$.

Definition

A language L is context free (CFL) if it is generated by a context free grammar. That is, there is a CFG G such that L = L(G).

$$V = \xi S S$$

$$T = \{0^{n}1^{n} | n \ge 0\}$$

$$P = S - \xi [OS]$$

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P = 5 - E OSI [SI

$$L = \{0^n 1^m \mid m > n\}$$

5-75

Converting regular languages into CFL

What was the grammar for a regular language?

Let's figure it out visually!

Converting regular languages into CFL I

a, b
$$L(w) = \sum_{contain} the substring a, b
A a B b C a D b E
A a a A (A a a b a) (A a a b) (A a a b) (A a a b) (A a a b) (C a b)$$

$$G = \left(\{A, B, C, D, E\}, \{a, b\}, \left\{ \begin{array}{c} A \to aA, A \to bA, A \to aB, \\ B \to bC, \\ C \to aD, \\ D \to bE, \\ E \to aE, E \to bE, E \to \varepsilon \end{array} \right\}, A \right)$$

$$V \rightarrow tVt$$

 $M = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, s, A)$: DFA for regular language L.





Converting regular languages into CFL I

$$G = \left(\{A, B, C, D, E\}, \{a, b\}, \left\{ \begin{array}{c} A \to aA, A \to bA, A \to aB, \\ B \to bC, \\ C \to aD, \\ D \to bE, \\ E \to aE, E \to bE, E \to \varepsilon \end{array} \right\}, A \right)$$

In regular languages:

- Terminals can only appear on one side of the production string
- Only one varibale allowed in production result

Lemma

For an regular language L, there is a context-free grammar (CFG) that generates it.

Push-down automata

The machine that generates CFGs



We have NFAs from regular languages. What can we add to enable them to recognize CFLs?

 $\{0^n 1^n | n \ge 0\}$ is a CFL.

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Push-down automata example



 $\langle input read \rangle, \langle stack pop \rangle \rightarrow \langle stack push \rangle$ (3)

Push-down automata example



ſ	 L
1	

Does this machine recognize 0011?
Push-down automata example



ſ	 L
1	

Does this machine recognize 0101?

Definition

A non-deterministic push-down automata $P = (Q, \Sigma, \Gamma, \delta, s, A)$ is a **six** tuple where

- *Q* is a finite set whose elements are called states,
- $\cdot \Sigma$ is a finite set called the input alphabet,
- **Γ** is a finite set called the stack alphabet,
- $\delta: Q \times \Sigma \cup \{\varepsilon\} \times \Gamma \cup \{\varepsilon\} \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(Q \times (\Gamma \cup \{\varepsilon\}))$ is the transition function
- s is the start state
- A is the set of accepting states

Non-deterministic PDAs are more powerful than deterministic PDAs. Hence we'll only be talking about non-determinisitc PDAs.

Formal Tuple Notation of 0ⁿ1ⁿ



CFGs and PDAs

Converting a CFG to a PDA is simple (but a little tedious). Let's demonstrate via simple example:

 $S \rightarrow 0S|1$

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 $S \rightarrow 0S|1$

Idea:

- We try to recreate the string on the stack:
 - Everytime we see a non-terminal, we replace it by one of the replacement rules.
 - Everytime we see a terminal symbol, we take that symbol from the input.
- if we reach a point where there stack is empty and the input is empty, then we accept the string.





- First let's put in a \$ to mark the end of the string
- Also let's put in the start symbol on the stack.







Next we want to add a loop for every non-terminla symbol that replaces that non-terminal with the result. Consider the rule: $S \rightarrow 0S$

- So we got to pop the S non-terminal,
- Add a S non-terminal to the stack.
- And add a 0 terminal to the stack.







 $S \rightarrow 0S|1|\epsilon$









 $S \rightarrow 0S|1|\epsilon$

If we see a non-terminal symbol on the stack, then we can cross that symbol from the input. Got to add transitions to do that.



$$S \rightarrow 0S|1|\epsilon$$

Let's go over the operation again:



 $S \rightarrow 0S|1|\epsilon$

Let's go over the operation again:

• Does this automata accept 001?



```
S \rightarrow 0S|1|\epsilon
```

Let's go over the operation again:

- Does this automata accept 001?
- Does this automata accept 010?





Let's do a harder example:

 $S \rightarrow 0T1|1$ $T \rightarrow T0|\varepsilon$





 $S \rightarrow 0T1|1$ $T \rightarrow T0|\varepsilon$

- First we need to mark the start of the stack.
- Then we put the start variable on the stack.



 $S \rightarrow 0T1|1$ $T \rightarrow T0|\varepsilon$

- We create a loop for each production rule.
- If we read a terminal that matches the input we pop it.



 $S \rightarrow 0T1|1$ $T \rightarrow T0|\varepsilon$

Computation ends when all the variables/terminals have been popped off the stack and the input is empty. As you remember, deterministic finite automata (DFAs) and nondeterministic finite automata (NFAs) are equivalent in language recognition power.

Not so for PDAs. The previous PDA could not be completed using a deterministic PDA because we need to know where the middle of the input string is for determinism!

 $L = \{0^n 1^n | n \ge 0\}$ can be modeled with a deterministic-PDA.

Learn more in CS 475 (Beyond the scope of this class.)

Closure properties of CFLs

 $G_1 = (V_1, T, P_1, S_1)$ and $G_2 = (V_2, T, P_2, S_2)$ Assumption: $V_1 \cap V_2 = \emptyset$, that is, non-terminals are not shared $G_1 = (V_1, T, P_1, S_1)$ and $G_2 = (V_2, T, P_2, S_2)$ Assumption: $V_1 \cap V_2 = \emptyset$, that is, non-terminals are not shared $G_1 = (V_1, T, P_1, S_1)$ and $G_2 = (V_2, T, P_2, S_2)$ Assumption: $V_1 \cap V_2 = \emptyset$, that is, non-terminals are not shared.

Theorem

CFLs are closed under union. L_1, L_2 CFLs implies $L_1 \cup L_2$ is a CFL. $PDA_{\frac{2}{5}} \notin PDA_2$

 $V_{U} = \{U, V_{z}, S\}$ $PDA_{U} = \begin{cases} \mathcal{Q} = \mathcal{Q}_{1} \cup \mathcal{Q}_{2} \cup \mathbf{s} \\ \mathcal{S} = \frac{\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{E}, \mathbf{s}) \longrightarrow (\mathcal{S}_{1}, \mathbf{z})}{\mathcal{S} = (\mathcal{S}_{2}, \mathbf{z})} \end{cases}$ G., = S= Su T=T $P_{u} = P_{i}P_{z}$ $S_{u} \rightarrow S_{i}|S_{z}$

Theorem

CFLs are closed under concatenation. L_1, L_2 CFLs implies $L_1 \cdot L_2$ is a CFL.

$$G_{0} = V_{0} = \{U_{1}, V_{2}, \}$$

$$S = S_{u}$$

$$T = T$$

$$P_{v} = P_{v} P_{v}$$

$$S_{u} \rightarrow S_{v} S_{u}$$

Theorem

CFLs are closed under Kleene star.

If L is a CFL \implies L* is a CFL.

 $S_u \rightarrow S_u S_u | S_1 | S_2$

Theorem $L = \{a^n b^n c^n \mid n \ge 0\} \text{ is not context-free.}$

Proof based on pumping lemma for CFLs. See supplemental for the proof.

More bad news: CFL not closed under intersection

Theorem CFLs are **not** closed under intersection.



 $L_{1} = \{a, b, m, m, m, n, m, 0\}$ $L_{2} = \{a, b, m, m, n, m, 0\}$

 $2, RL_2 = zabucn$

Theorem CFLs are not closed under complement.

The more you know!



We're making our way up the Chompsky hierarchy!

Next stop: context-sensitive, and decidable languages.

Parse trees and ambiguity

A tree to represent the derivation $S \rightsquigarrow^* w$.

- Rooted tree with root labeled S
- Non-terminals at each internal node of tree
- Terminals at leaves
- Children of internal node indicate how non-terminal was expanded using a production rule

A tree to represent the derivation $S \rightsquigarrow^* w$.

- Rooted tree with root labeled S
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- Children of internal node indicate how non-terminal was expanded using a production rule

A picture is worth a thousand words

Example



 $S \rightarrow aSb \rightarrow abSab \rightarrow abSSab \rightarrow abbaab$

Definition A CFG G is ambiguous if there is a string $w \in L(G)$ with two different parse trees. If there is no such string then G is unambiguous.

Example: $S \to S - S | 1 | 2 | 3$



Ambiguity in CFLs

- Original grammar: $S \rightarrow S S \mid 1 \mid 2 \mid 3$
- Unambiguous grammar:

$$S \rightarrow S - C \mid 1 \mid 2 \mid 3$$
$$C \rightarrow 1 \mid 2 \mid 3$$



The grammar forces a parse corresponding to left-to-right evaluation.

Definition A CFL *L* is inherently ambiguous if there is no unambiguous CFG *G* such that L = L(G).
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• There exist inherently ambiguous CFLs. Example: $L = \{a^n b^m c^k \mid n = m \text{ or } m = k\}$ **Definition** A CFL *L* is inherently ambiguous if there is no unambiguous CFG *G* such that L = L(G).

- There exist inherently ambiguous CFLs. Example: $L = \{a^n b^m c^k \mid n = m \text{ or } m = k\}$
- Given a grammar G it is undecidable to check whether L(G) is inherently ambiguous. No algorithm!

Supplemental: Why aⁿbⁿcⁿ is not CFL

 $L = \{a^n b^n c^n \mid n \ge 0\}.$

- For the sake of contradiction assume that there exists a grammar:
 - G a CFG for L.
- T_i : minimal parse tree in G for $a^i b^i c^i$.

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- For the sake of contradiction assume that there exists a grammar:
 - G a CFG for L.
- T_i : minimal parse tree in G for $a^i b^i c^i$.
- $h_i = \text{height}(T_i)$: Length of longest path from root to leaf in T_i .
- For any integer t, there must exist an index j(t), such that $h_{j(t)} > t$.
- There an index *j*, such that $h_j > (2 * \# \text{ variables in } G)$.

Repetition in the parse tree...



Repetition in the parse tree...



$$xyzvw = a^j b^j c^j$$

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Repetition in the parse tree...



 $xyzvw = a^j b^j c^j \implies xy^2 zv^2 w \in L$

- We know: $xyzvw = a^{j}b^{j}c^{j}$ |y| + |v| > 0.
- We proved that $\tau = xy^2 z v^2 w \in L$.

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- Similarly, not possible that y contains both b and c.
- Similarly, not possible that v contains both a and b.
- Similarly, not possible that v contains both b and c.
- If y contains only as, and v contains only bs, then...
 #_(a)(τ) ≠ #_(c)(τ).
 Not possible.

Now for some case analysis...

Similarly, not possible that y contains only as, and v contains only cs.
 Similarly, not possible that y contains only bs, and v contains only cs.

Now for some case analysis...

- Similarly, not possible that y contains only as, and v contains only cs.
 Similarly, not possible that y contains only bs, and v contains only cs.
- Must be that $\tau \notin L$. A contradiction.

Lemma The language $L = \{a^n b^n c^n \mid n \ge 0\}$ is not CFL (i.e., there is no CFG for it).