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Vellore Institute of Technology

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CHENNAI

BCSE304L

Theory of Computation

M5L1 – Introduction of PDA

Dr. P. Saravanan

PDA - Introduction

Basic concepts:

- CFL's may be accepted by pushdown automata (PDA's)
- A PDA is an e-NFA with a stack
- The stack can be read, pushed, and popped only on the top
- Two different versions of PDA's:
 - Accepting strings by "entering an accepting state";
 - Accepting strings by "emptying the stack."

PDA - Introduction

Basic concepts:

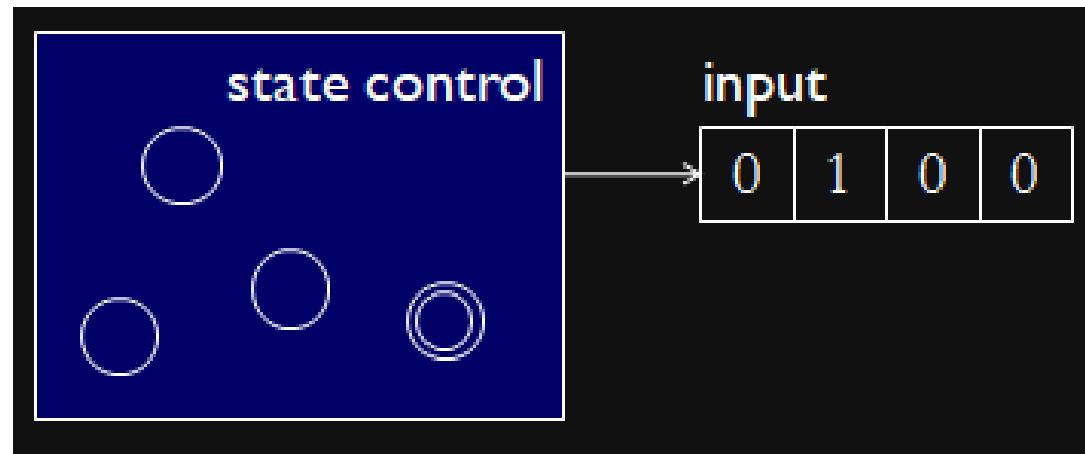
- The original PDA is *nondeterministic*.
- There is also a subclass of PDA's which are *deterministic* in nature.
- Deterministic PDA's (DPDA's) resembles parsers for CFL's in compilers.
- It is interesting to know what “language constructs” which a DPDA can accept.
- The stack is *infinite* in size, so can be used as a “memory” to eliminate the *weakness* of “finite states” of NFA's, which cannot accept languages like $L = \{a^n b^n \mid n \geq 1\}$.

PDA - Introduction

- Advantage of the stack --- the stack can “remember” an *infinite* amount of information.
- Weakness of the stack --- the stack can only be read in a *first-in-last-out* manner.
- Therefore, it can accept languages like $L_{ww^r} = \{ww^R \mid w \text{ is in } (0+1)^*\}$, but not languages like $L = \{a^n b^n c^n \mid n \geq 1\}$.

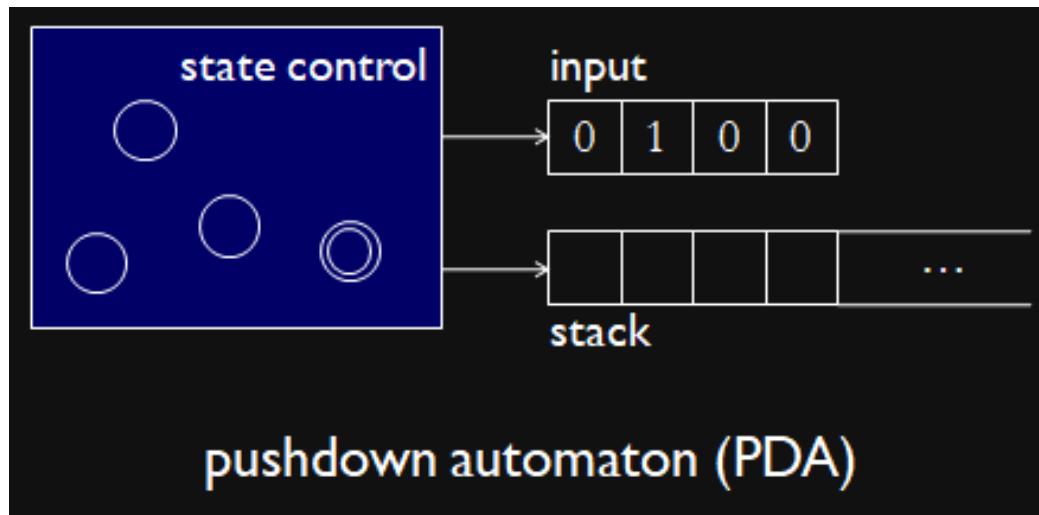
Push Down Automata Vs NFA

- Since context-free is more powerful than regular, pushdown automata must **generalize NFAs**



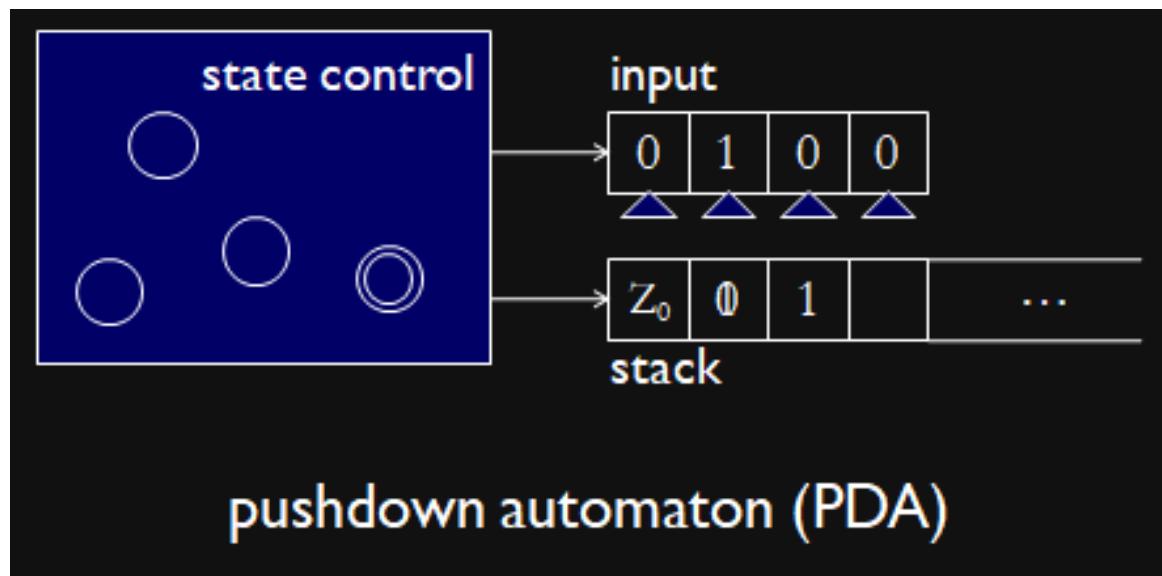
Push Down Automata Vs NFA

- A pushdown automaton has access to a **stack**, which is a potentially **infinite supply of memory**



Push Down Automata Vs NFA

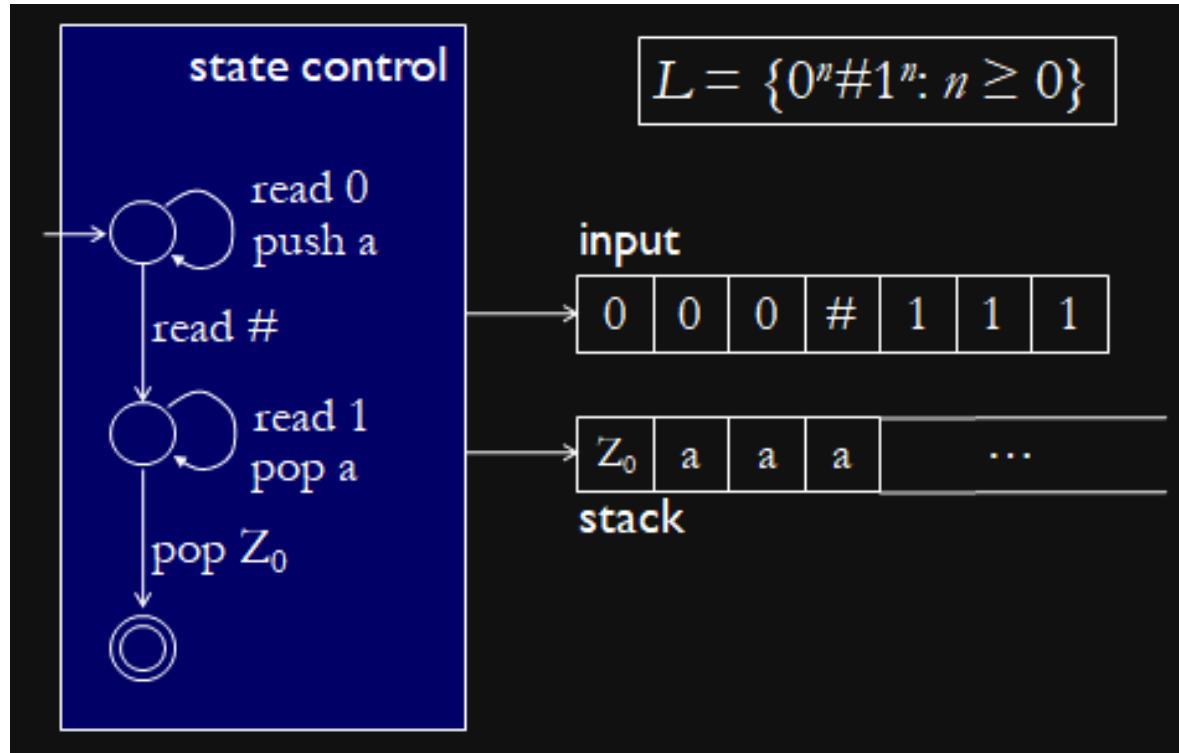
- As the PDA is reading the input, it can push / pop symbols in / out of the stack



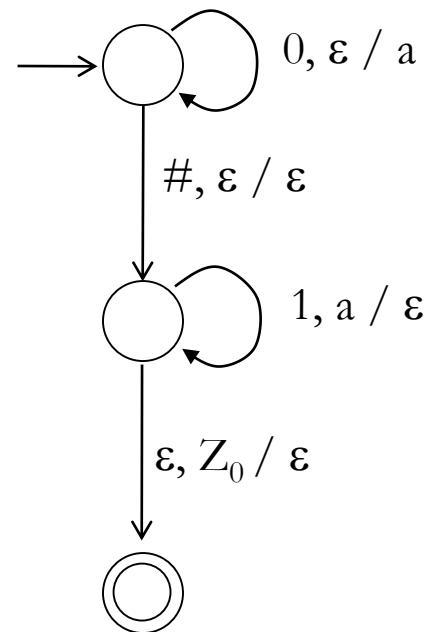
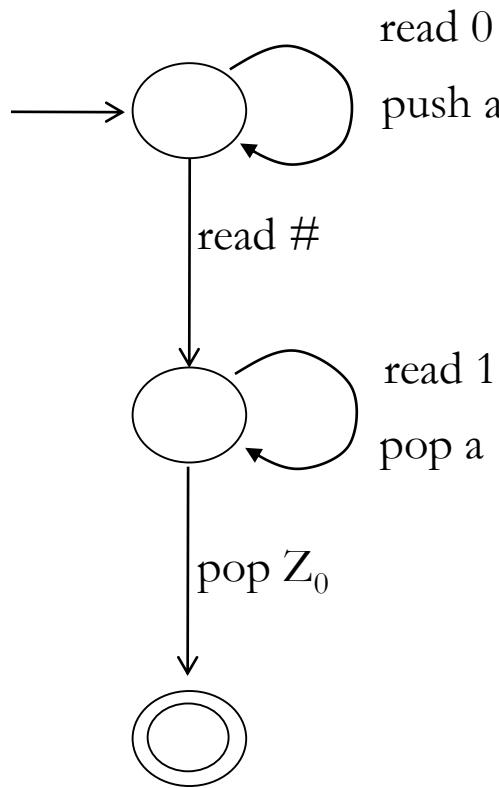
Rules for pushdown automata

- The transitions are **nondeterministic**
- Stack is always accessed **from the top**
- Each transition can **pop** a symbol from the stack and / or **push** another symbol onto the stack
- Transitions **depend** on input symbol and on last symbol popped from stack
- Automaton **accepts** if after reading whole input, it can reach an accepting state

Example



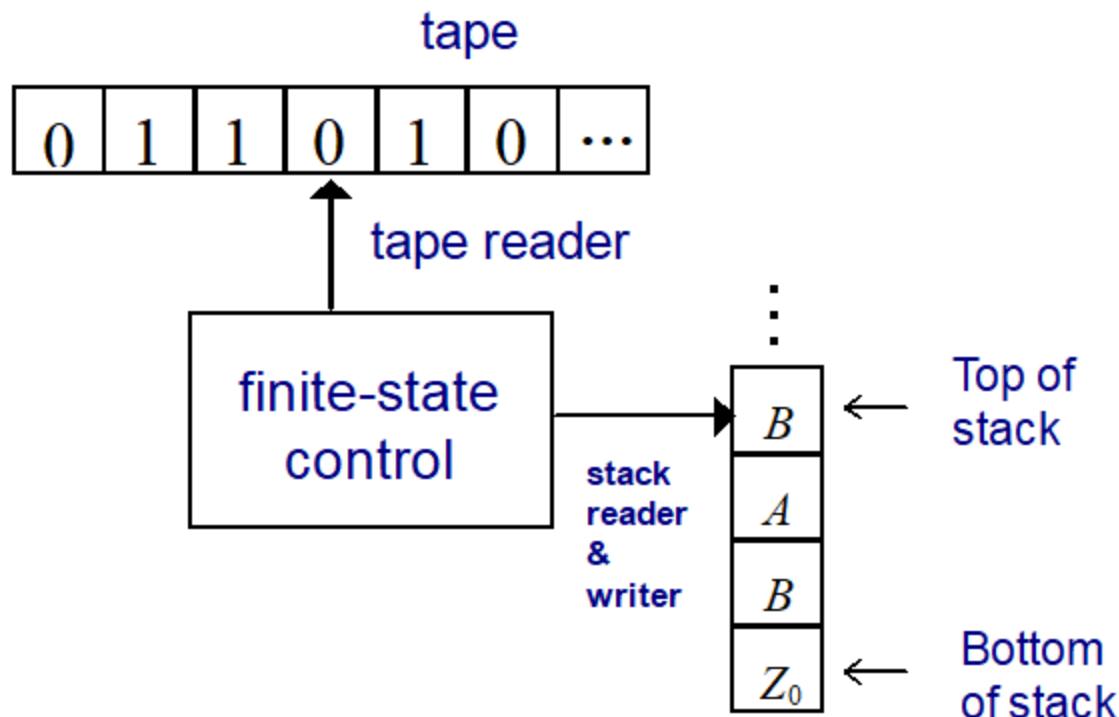
Shorthand notation



read, pop / push

Graphical Model of PDA

- A graphic model of a PDA



A graph model of a PDA

Formal Definition

A PDA is a 7-tuple $P = (Q, \Sigma, \Gamma, \delta, q_0, Z_0, F)$ where

- Q : a finite set of states
- Σ : a finite set of input symbols
- Γ : a finite stack alphabet
- δ : a transition function such that $\delta(q, a, X)$ is a set of pairs (p, γ) where
 - $q \in Q$ (the current state)
 - $a \in \Sigma$ or $a = \varepsilon$ (an input symbol or an empty string)
 - $X \in \Gamma$
 - $p \in Q$ (the next state)

Formal Definition...

- $\gamma \in \Gamma^*$ which replaces X on the top of the stack:
 - when $\gamma = \epsilon$, the top stack symbol is popped up
 - when $\gamma = X$, the stack is unchanged
 - when $\gamma = YZ$, X is replaced by Z , and Y is pushed to the top
 - when $\gamma = \alpha Z$, X is replaced by Z and string α is pushed to the top
- q_0 : the start state
- Z_0 : the start symbol of the stack
- F : the set of accepting or final states

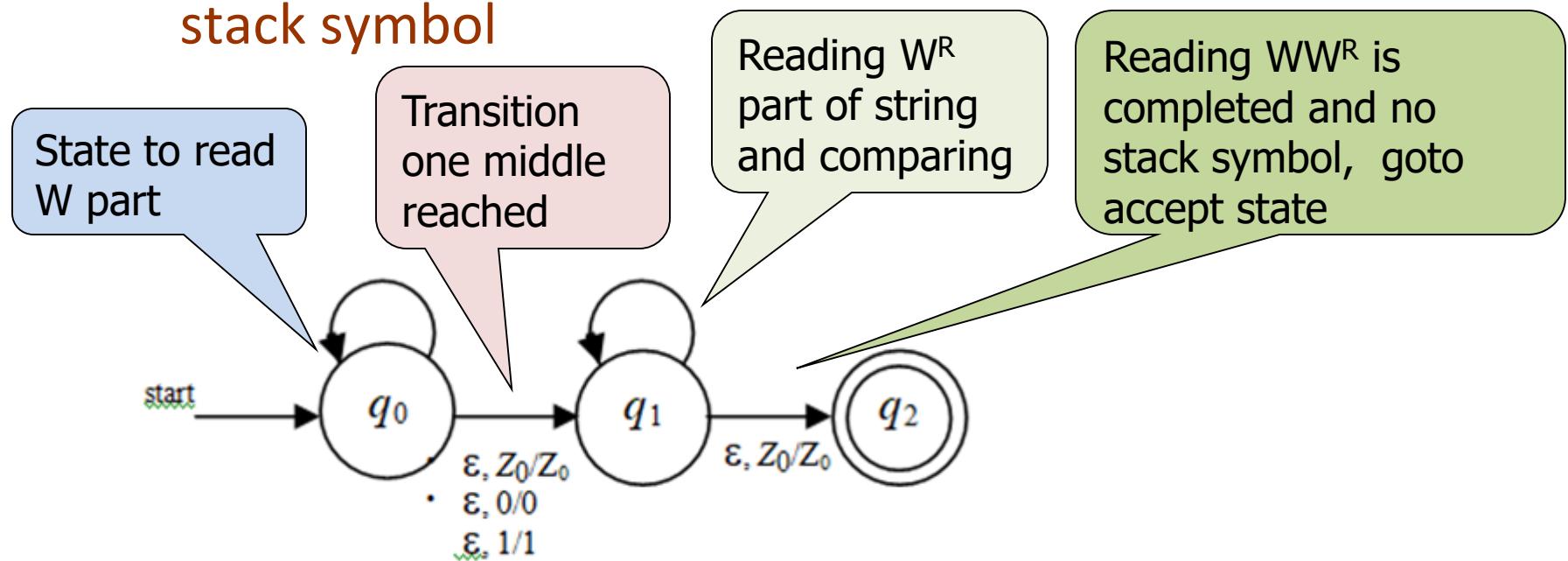
Designing PDA means defining all these elements

Designing PDA: Example

- Example: 6.1 - Design a PDA to accept the language
 $L_{wwr} = \{ww^R \mid w \text{ is in } (0 + 1)^*\}$
- In start state q_0 , copy input symbols onto the stack
- At any time, nondeterministically guess whether the middle of ww^R is reached and enter q_1 , or continue copying input symbols.
- In q_1 , compare remaining input symbols with those on the stack one by one.
- If the stack can be so emptied, then the matching of w with w^R succeeds.

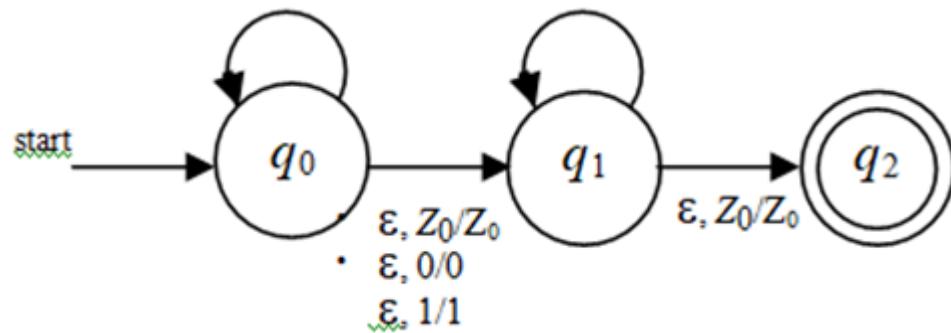
Designing PDA Example

- Designing a PDA to accept the language L_{ww^R} . Where $\Sigma = \{0,1\}$ and $\Gamma = \{a,b\}$
 - With stack symbol – use a for 0 and use b for 1
 - Without stack symbol – use 0 for 0 and use 1 for 1 as stack symbol



Designing PDA Example

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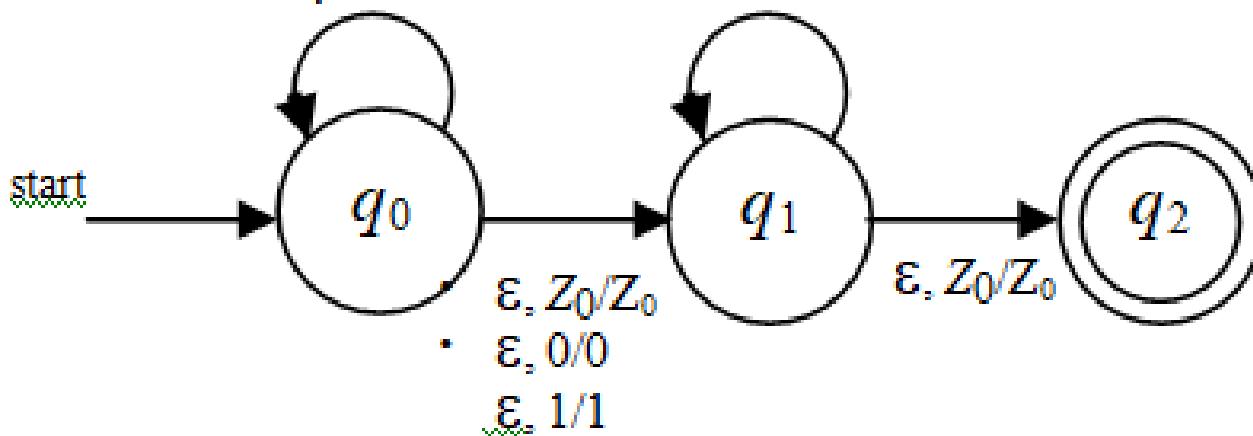


Designing PDA Example

- Designing a PDA to accept the language L_{ww^R} .

- 0, $Z_0/0Z_0$ (push 0 on top of Z_0)
- 1, $Z_0/1Z_0$
- 0, 0/00
- 0, 1/01
- 1, 0/10
- 1, 1/11

- 0, 0/ ϵ
- 1, 1/ ϵ



Designing PDA: Example

- Designing a PDA to accept the language L_{ww^R} .
 - Need a start symbol Z of the stack and a 3rd state q_2 as the accepting state.
 - $P = (\{q_0, q_1, q_2\}, \{0, 1\}, \{0, 1, Z_0\}, \delta, q_0, Z_0, \{q_2\})$ such that
 - $\delta(q_0, 0, Z_0) = \{(q_0, 0Z_0)\}, \delta(q_0, 1, Z_0) = \{(q_0, 1Z_0)\}$
(initial pushing steps with Z_0 to mark stack bottom)
 - $\delta(q_0, 0, 0) = \{(q_0, 00)\}, \quad \delta(q_0, 0, 1) = \{(q_0, 01)\},$
 $\delta(q_0, 1, 0) = \{(q_0, 10)\}, \quad \delta(q_0, 1, 1) = \{(q_0, 11)\}$

Rules for pushdown automata

- $\delta(q_0, \varepsilon, Z_0) = \{(q_1, Z_0)\}$

(check if input is ε which is in L_{ww^R})

- $\delta(q_0, \varepsilon, 0) = \{(q_1, 0)\}, \delta(q_0, \varepsilon, 1) = \{(q_1, 1)\}$

(check the string's middle)

- $\delta(q_1, 0, 0) = \{(q_1, \varepsilon)\}, \delta(q_1, 1, 1) = \{(q_1, \varepsilon)\}$

(matching pairs)

- $\delta(q_1, \varepsilon, Z_0) = \{(q_2, Z_0)\}$

(entering final state)

Summary

- Definition of PDA
- Designing of PDA

References

- John E. Hopcroft, Rajeev Motwani and Jeffrey D. Ullman, *Introduction to Automata Theory, Languages, and Computation*, Pearson, 3rd Edition, 2011.
- Peter Linz, *An Introduction to Formal Languages and Automata*, Jones and Bartle Learning International, United Kingdom, 6th Edition, 2016.

Next Class:

ID, Language, Equivalence

THANK YOU.

Pumping Lemma for CFL

- **Theorem** (pumping lemma for CFL's)
 - Let L be a CFL. There exists an integer constant n such that if $z \in L$ with $|z| \geq n$, then we can write $z = uvwxy$, subject to the following conditions:
 1. $|vwx| \leq n$;
 2. $v, x \neq \epsilon$ (that is, v, x are not both ϵ);
 3. for all $i \geq 0$, $uv^iwx^iy \in L$.
- Used to prove that the given language is not a context-free language

Example 1

- Prove by contradiction the language $L = \{0^m 1^m 2^m \mid m \geq 1\}$ is not a CFL by the pumping lemma.

■ *Proof.*

- Step 1: an integer constant $n=9$
 - Step 2: such that if $z \in L$ with $|z| \geq 9$, then we can write $z = 000111222,$
 - Step 3: Divide the string z into $z = uvwxy$ such that

$|vwx| \leq n$; and $v, x \neq \varepsilon$ (that is, v, x are not both ε);

z = 00 01 11 2 22
U V W X Y

- Step 4: for all $i \geq 0$, $uv^iwx^i y \in L$

For $i=0 \Rightarrow uv^0wx^0y \Rightarrow 001122 \in L$
 For $i=1 \Rightarrow uv^1wx^1y \Rightarrow 000111222 \in L$
 For $i=2 \Rightarrow uv^2wx^2y \Rightarrow 00\ 0101\ 11\ 22\ 22 \notin L$

So the given language is not a CFL

Example 2:

- Prove that $L=\{ww \mid w \in \{0, 1\}^*\}$ is not a CFL.

Closure Properties of CFL's

- Some differences between CFL's and RL's
 - CFL's are *not* closed under *intersection, difference, or complementation*
 - But the intersection or difference of a CFL and an RL is still a CFL.
 - We will introduce a new operation --- substitution.

Substitution

■ Definitions:

- A *substitution* s on an alphabet S is a function such that for each $a \in S$, $s(a)$ is a language L_a over any alphabet (not necessarily S)
- For a string $w = a_1a_2\dots a_n \in S^*$, $s(w) = s(a_1)s(a_2)\dots s(a_n) = L_{a1}L_{a2}\dots L_{an}$, i.e., $s(w)$ is a language which is the concatenation of all L_{ai} 's
- Given a language L , $s(L) = \bigcup_{w \in L} s(w)$

Substitution Example

- A substitution s on an alphabet

$S = \{0, 1\}$ is defined as

$$S(0) = \{a^n b^n \mid n \geq 1\}, S(1) = \{aa, bb\}.$$

- Let $w = 01$, then

- $s(w) = s(0)s(1)$
- $= \{a^n b^n \mid n \geq 1\}\{aa, bb\}$
- $= \{a^n b^n aa \mid n \geq 1\} \cup \{a^n b^{n+2} \mid n \geq 1\}.$

Closure properties of CFL

The CFL's are closed under the following operations:

- 1. Union
- 2. Concatenation
- 3. Closure (*), and positive closure (+)
- 4. Homomorphism
- 5. Inverse Homomorphism
- 6. Reversal

Not Closed

- 1. Intersection
- 2. Difference and
- 3. Complementation

Intersection with an RL

- **Theorem 7.27**
 - If L is a CFL and R is an RL, then $L \cap R$ is a CFL.
- The following are true about CFL's L , L_1 , and L_2 , and an RL R :
 - 1. $L - R$ is a CFL;
 - 2. \overline{L} is *not* necessarily a CFL;
 - 3. $L_1 - L_2$ is *not* necessarily a CFL.

Decision Properties of CFL's

■ Facts:

- Unlike RLs' decision problems which are all solvable, *very little* can be said about CFL's.
- Only two problems *can be decided* for CFL's:
 - whether the language is empty;
 - whether a given string is in the language.
- Computational complexity for conversions between CFG's and PDA's will be investigated.

Decision Properties of CFL's

- Testing Emptiness of CFL's
- The problem of **testing emptiness** of a CFL L is *decidable*.
- Testing Membership in a CFL
- A way for solving the **membership problem** for a CFL L is to use the CNF of the CFG G for L in the following way:
 - The parse tree of an input string w of length n using the CNF grammar G has $2n - 1$ nodes.
 - We can generate all possible parse trees and check if a yield of them is w .
- The number of such trees is *exponential* in n .

Preview of Un-decidable CFL Problems

- The following are undecidable CFL problems ---
 - Is a given CFL inherently ambiguous?
 - Is the intersection of two CFL's empty?
 - Are two CFL's the same?
 - Is a given CFL equal to S^* , where S is the alphabet of this language?

Summary

- Recap of previous class
 - Normal Forms
- Pumping Lemma for CFL
 - Definition
 - Examples
- Closure Properties
- Decision Properties

References

- John E. Hopcroft, Rajeev Motwani and Jeffrey D. Ullman, *Introduction to Automata Theory, Languages, and Computation*, Pearson, 3rd Edition, 2011.
- Peter Linz, *An Introduction to Formal Languages and Automata*, Jones and Bartle Learning International, United Kingdom, 6th Edition, 2016.