Unit-3

22. Explain rightmost derivation and left most derivation with an suitable examples.

Leftmost and Rightmost Derivation of a String

- **Leftmost derivation** A leftmost derivation is obtained by applying production to the leftmost variable in each step.
- **Rightmost derivation** A rightmost derivation is obtained by applying production to the rightmost variable in each step.

Example

Let any set of production rules in a CFG be

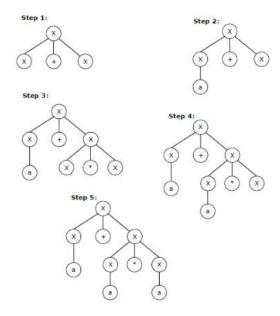
$$X \rightarrow X+X \mid X*X \mid X \mid a$$

over an alphabet {a}.

The leftmost derivation for the string "a+a*a" may be -

$$X \rightarrow X+X \rightarrow a+X \rightarrow a + X*X \rightarrow a+a*X \rightarrow a+a*a$$

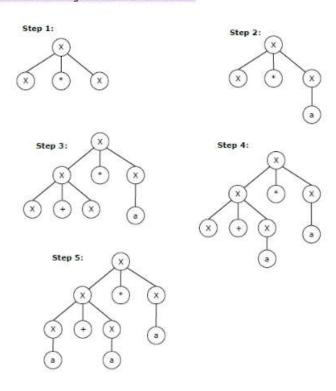
The stepwise derivation of the above string is shown as below -



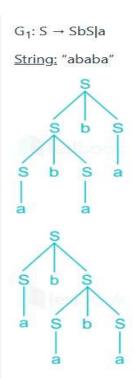
The rightmost derivation for the above string "a+a*a" may be -

$$X \rightarrow X^*X \rightarrow X^*a \rightarrow X+X^*a \rightarrow X+a^*a \rightarrow a+a^*a$$

The stepwise derivation of the above string is shown as below -

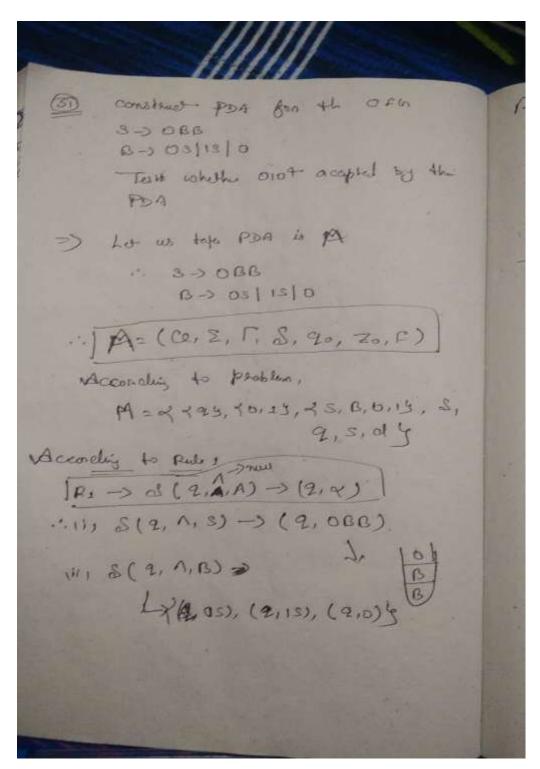


23. Show that the following grammar is ambiguous: $S \rightarrow SbS/a$



Two derivation trees (parse tree) is possible. So, grammar G_1 is ambiguous

31.



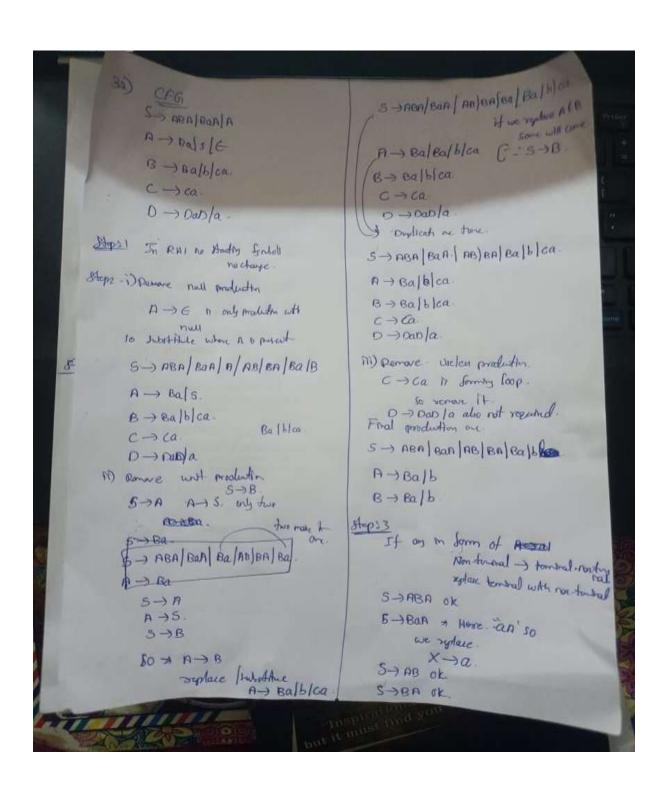
```
According to Rule 2
    [R2-) d(m,n)-) &(2,2)]
(in, & (9,0,0) -) (9,5)
14, as(2,1,1) -> (2, E)
- Noufication
 d(2,010+,5)=&(2,010+,0BB)
         pop 1 .. (S > OBB)
           = 05 (2,104, BB)
     = &(2, 10+, 130)
            = S(2,04,SB)
            2 "'S-) UBB
            = & (2,0000,0000)
                   1, pop
            = as (2,000, BBB)
                 Naple 0-)B
           = & ( 2,000,0BB)
            = d(2,00,BB)
```

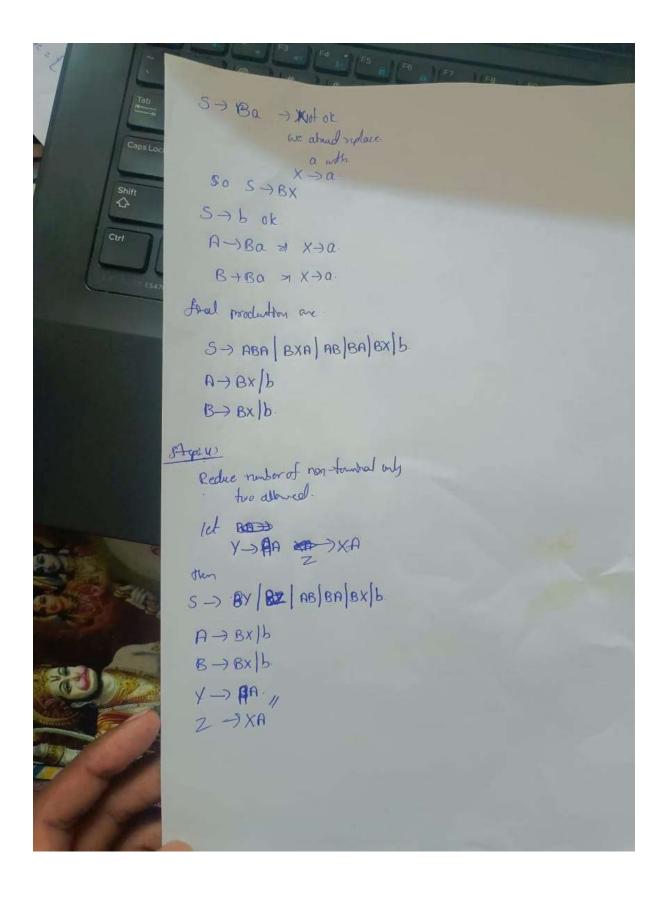
J. 2/16c 0-33 = &(2,00,00) In pep = 05(2,0,3) J, seple 0-) B. = 05 (9,0,0) Jep = os (9,8,8) Thus, 0104 accepted

32. Convert the following CFG into Chomsky's

Normal Form (CNF) $S \rightarrow A B A | B a A | A$ $A \rightarrow B a | S | E$ $B \rightarrow B a | b | Ca$ $C \rightarrow C a$

 $D \rightarrow D a D | a$





33. Difference Between PDA and DPDA

A PDA and a DPDA are both computational models used to recognize **context-free** languages (CFLs), but they differ mainly in how they handle transitions — **nondeterminism** vs determinism.

1. Pushdown Automaton (PDA)

• Nature: Nondeterministic

A PDA can have **multiple possible transitions** for the same input, stack symbol, and state. It may explore multiple paths and accept if *any* path leads to an accepting state.

- Memory: Uses a stack to store symbols for processing.
- Formal Definition:

A PDA is defined by a 7-tuple:

 $(Q, \Sigma, \Gamma, \delta, q_0, Z_0, F)$

Where:

- o **Q**: Set of states
- Σ: Input alphabet
- Γ: Stack alphabet
- ο **δ**: Transition function
- o qo: Initial state
- o Z₀: Initial stack symbol
- o **F**: Set of accepting states
- Transition Function:

 $\delta(q, a, X) \rightarrow set$ of possible (next state, stack action)

Allows multiple options (nondeterministic).

• Language Power:

Recognizes context-free languages (CFLs).

• Example Language:

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

This language is CFL but **not** deterministic — requires guessing when to switch from reading b's to c's.

2. Deterministic Pushdown Automaton (DPDA)

• Nature: Deterministic

A DPDA must have **exactly one possible transition** for each combination of input symbol, stack symbol, and current state. No ambiguity is allowed.

- Memory: Also uses a stack like PDA.
- Formal Definition:

Also defined as a 7-tuple:

$$(Q, \Sigma, \Gamma, \delta, q_0, Z_0, F)$$

But with the restriction that δ is **deterministic**.

• Transition Function:

 $\delta(q, a, X) \rightarrow exactly \ one \ (next \ state, \ stack \ action)$

No multiple choices allowed.

• Language Power:

Recognizes **deterministic context-free languages (DCFLs)**, which are a **subset** of CFLs.

• Example Language:

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

This language can be accepted **deterministically** by matching each "a" with a "b".

Comparison Table				
Feature	PDA	DPDA		
Determinism	Nondeterministic	Deterministic		
Transitions	Multiple possible transitions	Exactly one transition		
Language Class	Context-free languages (CFLs)	Deterministic CFLs (DCFLs)		
Power	More powerful	Less powerful		
Example Language	{ a ⁿ b ⁿ c ⁿ }	{ a ⁿ b ⁿ }		

25. Explain about pumping lemma algorithm

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=KyQc054-BEU

26. Write about closure properties of context free language

1.Union Property

If you have two context-free languages, L1 and L2, the union of these two, represented as L1UL2, will also be a context-free language.

Example

Let's say $L1 = \{ axby, x > 0 \}$

The corresponding grammar G1 would be P: S1 → aAb | ab

And if $L2 = \{ czdz, z \ge 0 \}$

The corresponding grammar G2 would be P: S2 \rightarrow cBb| ϵ

The union of L1 and L2 would be $L = L1 \cup L2 = \{ axby \} \cup \{ czdz \}$

2.Concatenation Property

If L1 and L2 are CFLs, then the concatenation of these two, represented as L1L2, will also be a context-free language.

Example

The concatenation of the languages L1 and L2 would be $L = L1L2 = \{ axbyczdz \}$

The corresponding grammar G would have the additional production, that is, $S \rightarrow S1 S2$

3. Kleene Star Property

If L is a CFL, then the Kleene Star of L, represented as L*, will also be a context-free language.

Example

```
If L = \{ axby, x \ge 0 \}
```

Then, the corresponding grammar G would have P: S \rightarrow aAb| ϵ

Thus, the Kleene Star L1 = { axby }*

Here, the corresponding grammar G1 would have additional productions, and they are S1 \rightarrow SS1 | ϵ

However, CFLs are not closed under the following operations:

- o **Intersection** − If L1 and L2 are CFLs, then the intersection of these two, represented as L1 ∩ L2, may not be a CFL.
- o **Intersection with a regular language** − If L1 is a regular language and L2 is a CFL, then the intersection of these two, represented as L1 ∩ L2, will be a CFL.
- Complement If L1 is a CFL, the complement of L1, represented as L1', may not be a CFL

27. Enumerate normal forms for context free language

Ans:

There are two primary normal forms for Context-Free Grammars (CFGs) that are:

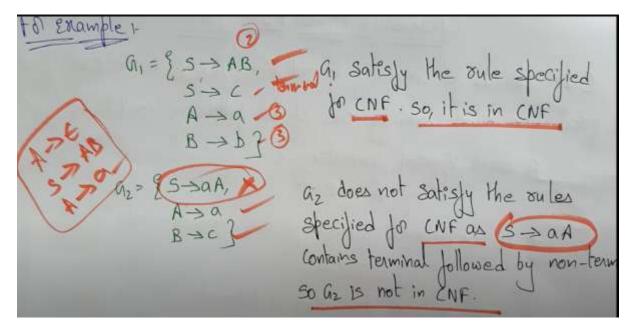
- 1. Chomsky Normal Form (CNF)
- 2. Greibach Normal Form (GNF)

1.Chomsky Normal Form(CNF)

CNF Stands for chomsky normal form. A CFG is In CNF if all production rules satisfy one of the following conditions:
A start symbol generating ϵ .

291 A $\rightarrow \epsilon$ A non terminal generating two non-terminals:

Eq. $S \rightarrow AB$ A non terminal generating a terminal.



2. Greibach Normal Form (GNF)

A CFG Es in GNF of all the production rules satisfy one of the following conditions.

A start symbol generating 6.

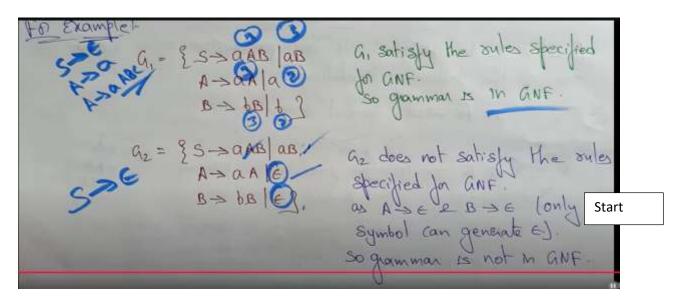
Egt 5-> 6

A non terminal generating a terminal

Egt A-> a

Jollowed by any number of non terminals.

Egt S-> aASB.



28. Convert the following context free language to

CNF

S -> **ABC**

A -> Aa/epsilon

B -> bB/epsilon

C -> cC/epsilon

29. Convert the following CFG into GNF.

S->AB

A->a

B-> CA

C->AB/b

Conver the following CFG into COINE. SAB A-Da BOCA C-J AB/b the A area is in Consider Mosmal from in the production can in the following forms. A->b A-) bc_c2/cn Aire, -- on an non-terminals and b is a terminals. asteps to comment can to conta 11'1 Convert the grammar into Onla 1111 Change the name of the non-terminals in some ascending order. 1111 for ouch production cheek the following Ineles: a. of i'm clos't change phocluction & if isis I replace is with its production = if i=i) Sliminal left grecusium.

Solution

111 Consummer et en CNP est et hes 2 mon terminal on terminal on its production. 1111 Change mames:

(A (-2

A-) Az

B-) A3

C-) Ad

-) A1-) A2A3

A2 -) a

A3 -> A4AL

A4-) A2A3/6

Convolus 4,) Az, Az (1/4) & clon't Cheny production
Az >> 4

Consider and desired a graph of the A4 -) A2A3/b (isi) Change A2 with 1 8 is production.

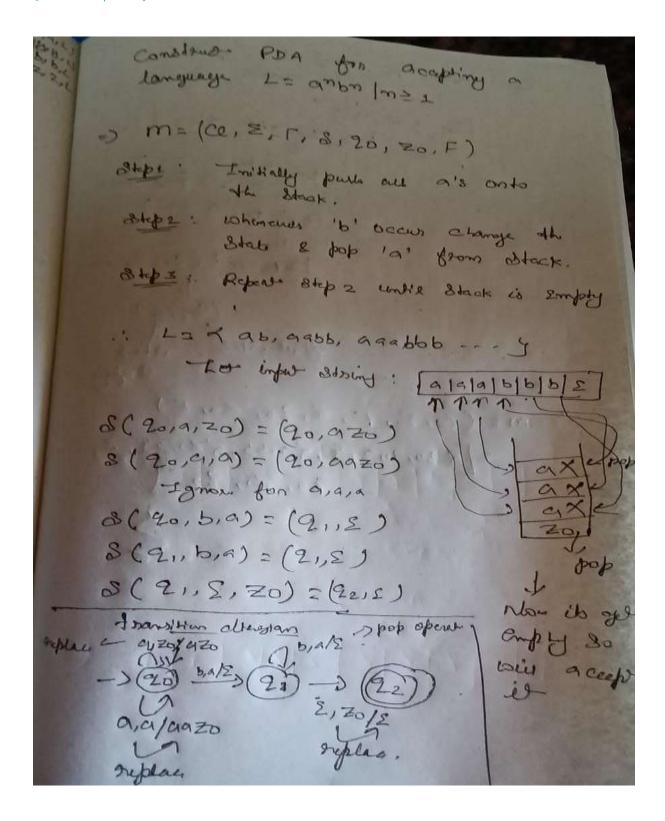
A4-) GA3/by it is in last 22-) as

Determent our up of the

CMR

30. Construct a PDA for accepting a language

 $\{L{=}a^{\scriptscriptstyle \wedge} nb^{\scriptscriptstyle \wedge} n \mid n \geq 1\}$



Lets take any Stein for injus ·· (20, aabb, 20) L) (20, 966, 920) (20, 56, 9920) Ginal State Stack 4 i m2 (6, E, F, S, 20, Zo, F) = |20,921924, 20,65, 420,05, S, 20, 20, 22 17911 - 100 - 15

31. Construct PDA for the given CFG

 $S \rightarrow 0BB$ $B \rightarrow 0S|1S|0$

Test whether 01044 is accepted by this PDA

https://www.naukri.com/code360/library/cfg-to-pda-conversion

Unit-5

40. short notes on:
i) P ii) NP iii) NP Hard iv) NP Complete with example

NP Class

The NP in NP class stands for **Non-deterministic Polynomial Time**. It is the collection of decision problems that can be solved by a non-deterministic machine (note that our computers are deterministic) in polynomial time.

Features:

- The solutions of the NP class might be hard to find since they are being solved by a non-deterministic machine but the solutions are easy to verify.
- Problems of NP can be verified by a deterministic machine in polynomial time.

Example:

Let us consider an example to better understand the **NP class**. Suppose there is a company having a total of **1000** employees having unique employee **IDs**. Assume that there are **200** rooms available for them. A selection of **200** employees must be paired together, but the CEO of the company has the data of some employees who can't work in the same room due to personal reasons.

This is an example of an **NP** problem. Since it is easy to check if the given choice of **200** employees proposed by a coworker is satisfactory or not i.e. no pair taken from the coworker list appears on the list given by the CEO. But generating such a list from scratch seems to be so hard as to be completely impractical.

It indicates that if someone can provide us with the solution to the problem, we can find the correct and incorrect pair in polynomial time. Thus for the **NP** class problem, the answer is possible, which can be calculated in polynomial time.

This class contains many problem

-Satisfiability (2-SAT) Problem

Last Updated: 29 Apr, 2024

Boolean Satisfiability Problem

Boolean Satisfiability or simply **SAT** is the problem of determining if a Boolean formula is satisfiable or unsatisfiable.

- Satisfiable: If the Boolean variables can be assigned values such that the formula turns out to be TRUE, then we say that the formula is satisfiable.
- Unsatisfiable: If it is not possible to assign such values, then we say that the formula is unsatisfiable.

Examples:

- F=A \wedge B⁻ , is satisfiable, because A = TRUE and B = FALSE makes F = TRUE.
- G=A \wedge A⁻ G=A \wedge A⁻, is unsatisfiable, because:

A A	A ⁻ <i>A</i> ⁻	G G
TRUE	FALSE	FALSE
FALSE	TRUE	FALSE

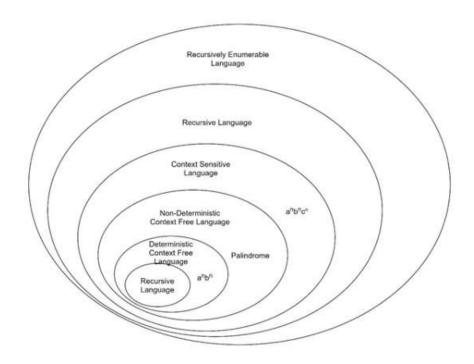
41. Illustrate the process of Recursive languages and Recursively enumerable Languages with suitable examples?

Ans:

Recursively Enumerable Languages

In simple words, a "language" is a collection of strings, like words in a dictionary. A recursively enumerable language is a language where we can create a computer program (or a Turing machine) that can systematically list out all the strings that belong to the language.

Consider a machine that can generate all the possible sentences in the English language, one by one. This machine wouldn't necessarily know which sentences are not in the English language, but it could list out all the valid sentences. This is the idea of a recursively enumerable language. It can enumerate all the strings that are part of the language.



Recursive Languages: A Subset of RE Languages

Another important subset of RE languages is recursive language. In a recursive language, the Turing machine not only accepts strings belonging to the language but also always halts for strings that are not in the language

As an example, Consider the language $L=\{anbncn|n\geq 0\}L=\{anbncn|n\geq 0\}$. This language consists of strings where the number of a's, b's, and c's are equal

- **RE Language** We can build a Turing machine that starts at the beginning of the string and systematically checks if the number of 'a's, 'b's, and 'c's are equal. If they are, it accepts the string. However, if the string is not of this form, the machine may never halt, potentially looping forever. This makes L a recursively enumerable language.
- Recursive Language We can also construct a Turing machine that checks if the number of 'a's, 'b's, and 'c's
 are equal. If they are, it accepts the string. If they are not, it reaches a "reject" state and halts. This makes L a
 recursive language as well.

Closure Properties of Recursive Languages

Recursive languages possess an interesting property called closure. This means that certain operations performed on recursive languages result in another recursive language.

Here are some key closure properties -

Union

If L1 and L2 are two recursive languages, their union (L1 \cup L2) is also recursive. Imagine a machine that checks if a string belongs to L1 or L2; if it does, it accepts. Since both machines for L1 and L2 will eventually halt, this combined machine will also halt, making the union recursive.

Concatenation

If L1 and L2 are two recursive languages, their concatenation (L1.L2) is also recursive. Imagine a machine that first checks if the first part of the string belongs to L1, and if it does, it checks the remaining part of the string for L2. Since both L1 and L2 machines halt, this combined machine will also halt.

Kleen Closure

If L1 is a recursive language, its Kleen closure ($L1^*$) is also recursive. This means the language including all possible combinations of strings from L1 concatenated together, including the empty string, is also recursive.

Intersection

If L1 and L2 are two recursive languages, their intersection (L1 \cap L2) is also recursive. Imagine a machine that checks if a string belongs to both L1 and L2. Since both L1 and L2 machines halt, this combined machine will also halt.

Complement

If L1 is a recursive language, its complement (L1') is also recursive. This means the language containing all strings *not* in L1 is also recursive.

42. Construct a Turing Machine

 $L = \{ a^n b^n c^n | n \ge 1 \}$

