

Chapter 6

Pushdown automata

Outline

- ◆ 6.0 Introduction
- ◆ 6.1 Definition of PDA
- ◆ 6.2 The Language of a PDA
- ◆ 6.3 Equivalence of PDA's and CFG's
- ◆ 6.4 Deterministic PDA's

6.0 Introduction

◆ Basic concepts:

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

6.0 Introduction

◆ Basic concepts (cont'd)

- 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.

6.0 Introduction

◆ Basic concepts (cont'd)

- 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 $L = \{a^n b^n \mid n \geq 1\}$.

6.1 Definition of PDA

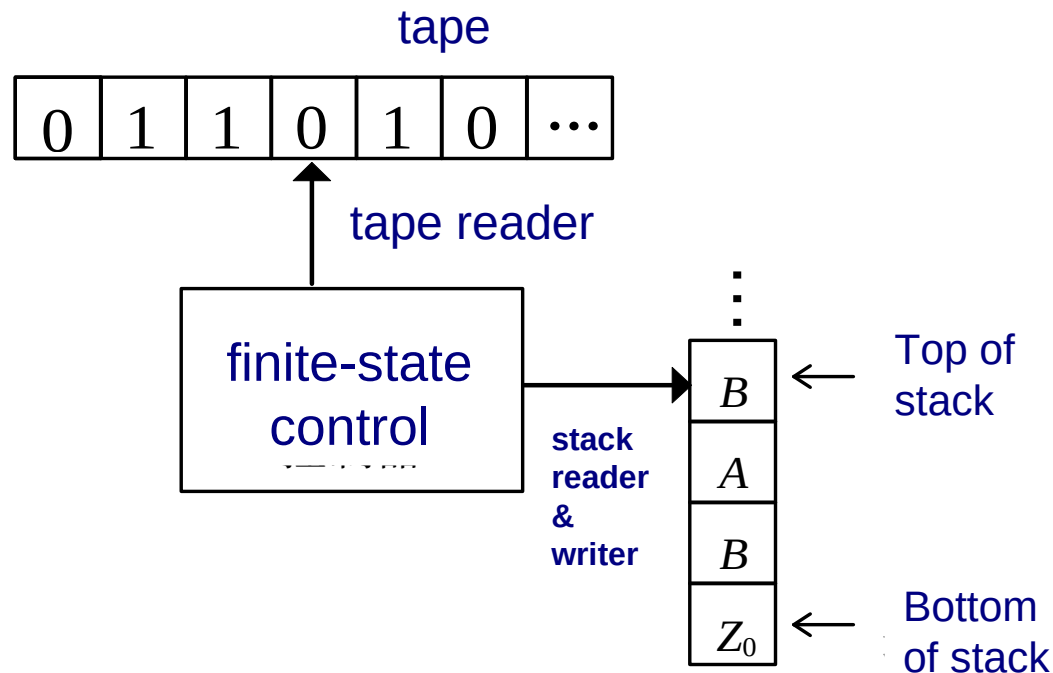
◆ 6.1.1 Informal Introduction

- 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 $L = \{a^n b^n c^n \mid n \geq 1\}$.

6.1 Definition of PDA

◆ 6.1.1 Informal Introduction

- A graphic model of a PDA



A graph model of a PDA

6.1 Definition of PDA

◆ 6.1.1 Informal Introduction

- The input string on the “tape” can only be **read**.
- But operations applied to the stack is complicated;
we may **replace the top symbol** by any **string** ---
 - ◆ By a single symbol
 - ◆ By a string of symbols
 - ◆ By the empty string ε which means the top stack symbol is “popped up (eliminated).”

6.1 Definition of PDA

◆ 6.1.1 Informal Introduction

– **Example 6.1** - Design a PDA to accept the language $L_{ww^R} = \{ww^R \mid w \text{ is in } (0 + 1)^*\}$.

- ◆ 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.

6.1 Definition of PDA

◆ 6.1.2 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)

(cont'd in the next page)

6.1 Definition of PDA

◆ 6.1.2 Formal Definition

(continued from last page)

- ◆ $\gamma \in \Gamma^*$ which replaces X on the top of the stack:
 - when $\gamma = \varepsilon$, 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

6.1 Definition of PDA

◆ 6.1.2 Formal Definition

– **Example 6.2** (cont'd from Example 6.1) - 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

$$\square \delta(q_0, 0, Z_0) = \{(q_0, 0Z_0)\}, \delta(q_0, 1, Z_0) = \{(q_0, 1Z_0)\}$$

(initial pushing steps with Z_0 to mark stack bottom)

$$\square \delta(q_0, 0, 0) = \{(q_0, 00)\}, \delta(q_0, 0, 1) = \{(q_0, 01)\}, \delta(q_0, 1, 0) = \{(q_0, 10)\}, \delta(q_0, 1, 1) = \{(q_0, 11)\}$$

6.1 Definition of PDA

◆ 6.1.2 Formal Definition

– Example 6.2 (cont'd)

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

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

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

(check the string's middle)

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

(matching pairs)

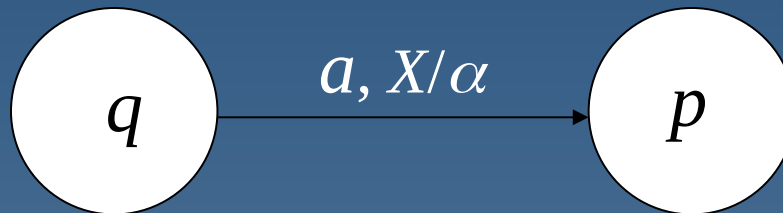
$$\sqcap \delta(q_1, \varepsilon, Z_0) = \{(q_2, Z_0)\}$$

(entering final state)₁₃

6.1 Definition of PDA

◆ 6.1.3 A Graphic Notation for PDA's

- The transition diagram of a PDA is easier to follow.
- We use “ $a, X/\alpha$ ” on an arc from state p to q to represent that “transition $\delta(q, a, X)$ contains (p, α) ”



- **Example 6.3** The transition diagram of the PDA of Example 6.2 is as shown in Fig. 6.2 (see next page) (in p. 230 of the textbook).

6.1 Definition of PDA

◆ 6.1.3 A Graphic Notation for PDA's

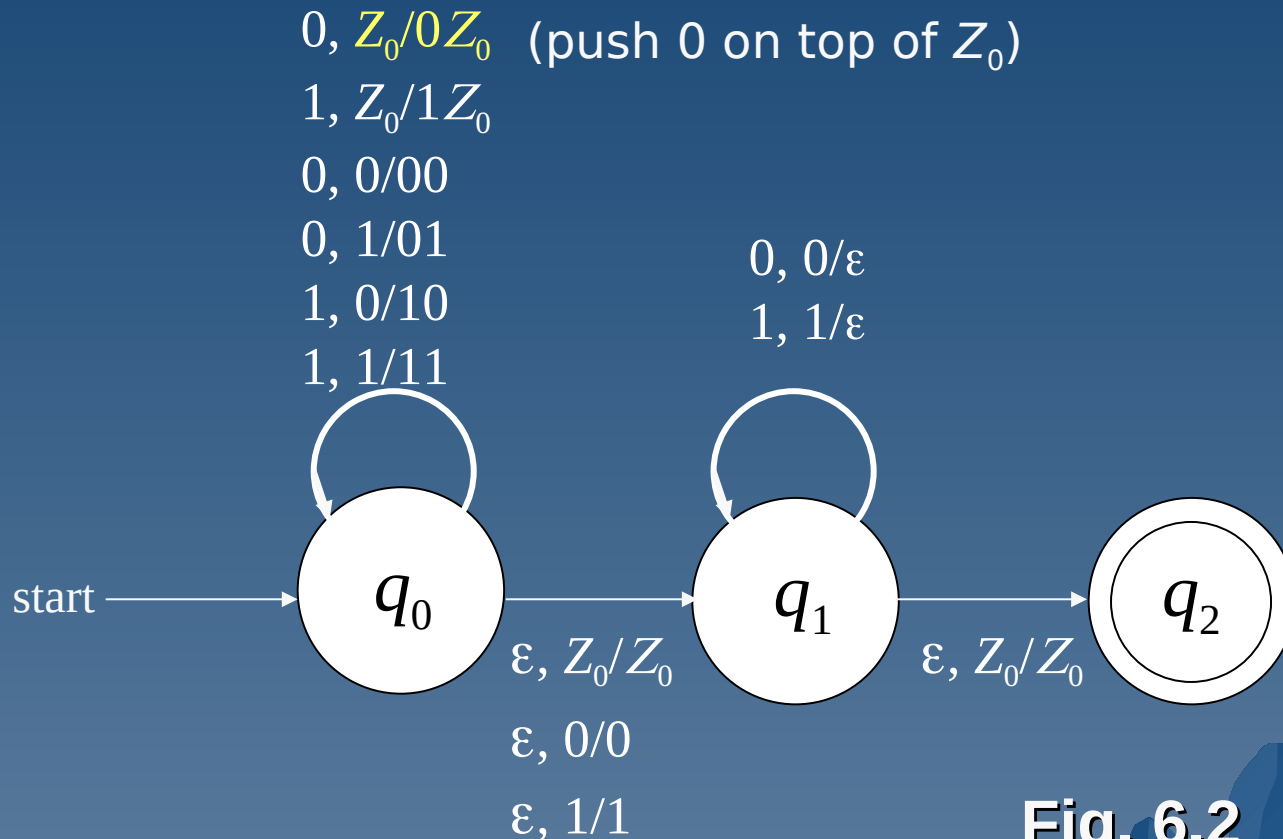


Fig. 6.2

- Where is the nondeterminism?

6.1 Definition of PDA

◆ 6.1.4 Instantaneous Descriptions of a PDA

- The *configuration* of a PDA is represented by a 3-tuple (q, w, γ) where
 - ◆ q is the state;
 - ◆ w is the remaining input; and
 - ◆ γ is the stack content.
- Such a 3-tuple is called an *instantaneous description (ID)* of the PDA.

6.1 Definition of PDA

◆ 6.1.4 Instantaneous Descriptions of a PDA

- The change of an ID into another is called a *move*, denoted by the symbol \vdash_p , or \vdash when P is understood.
- So, if $\delta(q, a, X)$ contains (p, α) , then the following is a corresponding move:

$$(q, aw, \vdash X\beta) \quad (p, w, \alpha\beta)$$

- We use \vdash_p^* or \vdash^* to indicate zero or more moves.

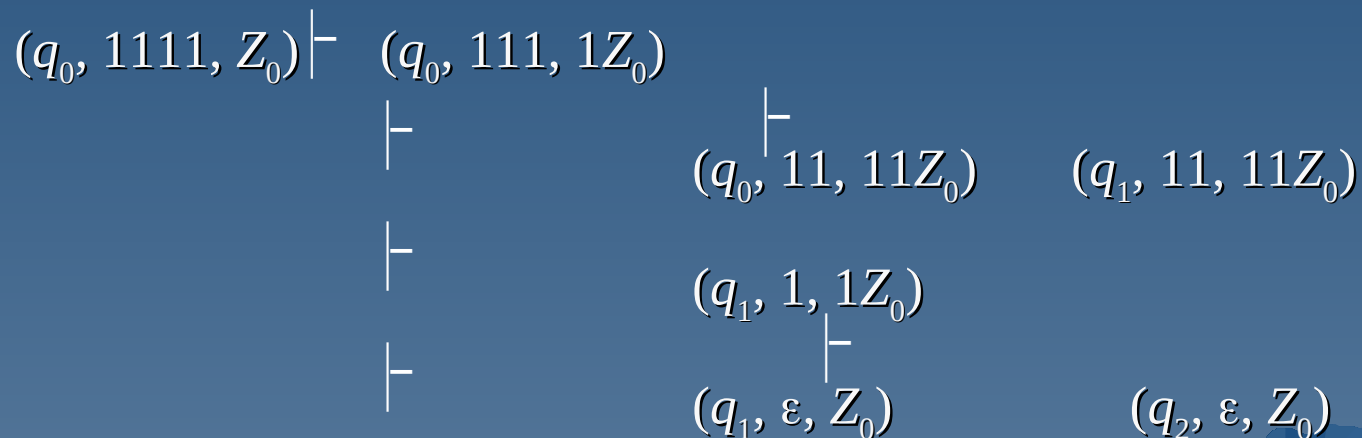
6.1 Definition of PDA

◆ 6.1.4 Instantaneous Descriptions of a PDA

– **Example 6.4** (cont'd from Example 6.2) -

◆ See Fig. 6.3

◆ Moves for the PDA to accept input $w = 1111$:



◆ There are other paths entering dead ends (not shown).

6.1 Definition of PDA

◆ 6.1.4 Instantaneous Descriptions of a PDA – Theorem 6.5

If $P = (Q, \Sigma, \Gamma, \delta, q_0, Z_0, F)$ is a PDA, and

$$(q, x, \alpha) \vdash_p^* (p, y, \beta),$$

then for any string w in Σ^* and γ in Γ^* , it is also true that

$$(q, xw, \alpha\gamma) \vdash_p^* (p, yw, \beta\gamma).$$

6.1 Definition of PDA

◆ 6.1.4 Instantaneous Descriptions of a PDA – Theorem 6.6

If $P = (Q, \Sigma, \Gamma, \delta, q_0, Z_0, F)$ is a PDA, and

$$(q, xw, \alpha) \Big|_P^* (p, yw, \beta),$$

then it is also true that

$$(q, x, \alpha) \Big|_P^* (p, y, \beta).$$

6.2 The Language of a PDA

◆ Some important facts:

- Two ways to define languages of PDA's: by final state and by empty stack, as mentioned before.
- It can be proved that a language L has a PDA that accepts it by final state *if and only if* L has a PDA that accepts it by empty stack.
- For a given PDA P , the language that P accepts by final state and by empty stack are usually *different*.
- In this section, we show *conversions* between the two ways of language acceptances.

6.2 The Language of a PDA

◆ 6.2.1 Acceptance by Final State

– Definition:

If $P = (Q, \Sigma, \Gamma, \delta, q_0, Z_0, F)$ is a PDA. Then $L(P)$, the language accepted by P by final state, is

$$\{w \mid (q_0, w, Z_0) \xrightarrow{*} (q, \varepsilon, \alpha), q \in F\}$$

for any α .

- **Example 6.7** - Proving the PDA shown in Example 6.2 indeed accepts the language L_{ww^R} (see the detail in the textbook by yourself).

6.2 The Language of a PDA

◆ 6.2.2 Acceptance by Empty Stack

– Definition:

If $P = (Q, \Sigma, \Gamma, \delta, q_0, Z_0, F)$ is a PDA. Then $N(P)$, the language accepted by P by empty stack, is

$$\{w \mid (q_0, w, Z_0) \xrightarrow{*} (q, \varepsilon, \varepsilon)\}$$

for any q .

- The set of final states F may be dropped to form a 6-tuple, instead of a 7-tuple, for a PDA.

6.2 The Language of a PDA

◆ 6.2.2 Acceptance by Empty Stack

– Example 6.8

The PDA of Example 6.2 may be modified to accept L_{ww^R} by empty stack:

simply change the original transition

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

to be

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

(just eliminate Z_0)

6.2 The Language of a PDA

◆ 6.2.3 From Empty Stack to Final State

– Theorem 6.9 (1/3)

If $L = N(P_N)$ for some PDA $P_N = (Q, \Sigma, \Gamma, \delta_N, q_0, Z_0)$, then there is a PDA P_F such that $L = L(P_F)$.

Proof. The idea is to use Fig. 6.4 below.

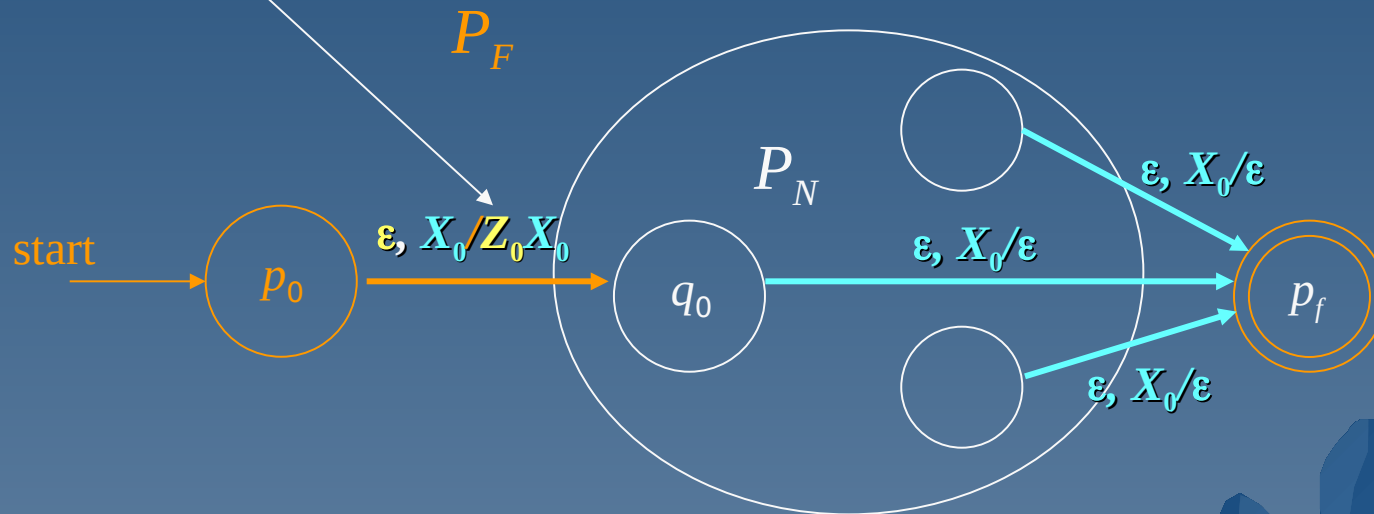


Fig. 6.4 P_F simulating P_N and accepts if P_N empties its stack

6.2 The Language of a PDA

◆ 6.2.3 From Empty Stack to Final State

– Theorem 6.9 (2/3)

If $L = N(P_N)$ for some PDA $P_N = (Q, \Sigma, \Gamma, \delta_N, q_0, Z_0)$, then there is a PDA P_F such that $L = L(P_F)$.

Proof. (cont'd)

Define $P_F = (Q \cup \{p_0, p_f\}, \Sigma, \Gamma \cup \{X_0\}, \delta_F, p_0, X_0, \{p_f\})$ where δ_F is such that

□ $\delta_F(p_0, \varepsilon, X_0) = \{(q_0, Z_0 X_0)\}$. (用 X_0 墊底).

– For all $q \in Q$, $a \in \Sigma$ or $a = \varepsilon$, and $Y \in \Gamma$, $\delta_F(q, a, Y)$ contains all the pairs in $\delta_N(q, a, Y)$.

□ $\delta_F(q, \varepsilon, X_0)$ contains (p_f, ε) for every state q in Q .

6.2 The Language of a PDA

◆ 6.2.3 From Empty Stack to Final State

- Theorem 6.9 (3/3)

If $L = N(P_N)$ for some PDA $P_N = (Q, \Sigma, \Gamma, \delta_N, q_0, Z_0)$, then there is a PDA P_F such that $L = L(P_F)$.

Proof. (cont'd)

- ◆ It can be proved that w is in $L(P_F)$ if and only if w is in $N(P_N)$ (see the textbook).

6.2 The Language of a PDA

◆ 6.2.3 From Empty Stack to Final State

- **Example 6.10** - Design a PDA which accepts the **if/else errors** by empty stack.

- ◆ Let *i* represents **if**; *e* represents **else**.
- ◆ The PDA is designed in such a way that

if the number of **else** (*#else*) > the number of **if** (*#if*),
then the stack will be emptied.

6.2 The Language of a PDA

◆ 6.2.3 From Empty Stack to Final State

– Example 6.10 (cont'd)

- ◆ A PDA *by empty stack* for this is as follows:

$$P_N = (\{q\}, \{i, e\}, \{Z\}, \delta_N, q, Z)$$

when an “*if*” is seen, push a “*Z*”;

when an “*else*” is seen, pop a “*Z*”;

when $(\#else) > (\#if + 1)$, the stack is emptied and the input string is accepted.

- ◆ For example, for input string $w = iee$, the moves are:

$$(q, iee, Z) \vdash (q, ee, ZZ) \vdash (q, e, Z) \vdash (q, \varepsilon, \varepsilon) \text{ accept !}$$

(how about $w = eei$?)

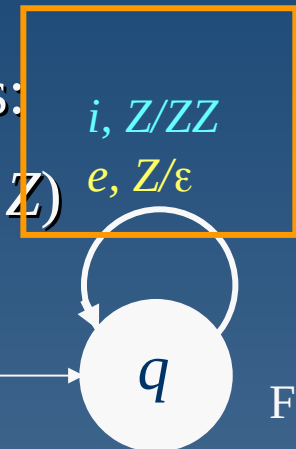


Fig. 6.5

6.2 The Language of a PDA

◆ 6.2.3 From Empty Stack to Final State

– Example 6.10 (cont'd)

◆ A PDA *by final state* as follows:

$$P_F = (\{p, q, r\}, \{i, e\}, \{Z, X_0\}, \delta_F, p, X_0, \{r\})$$

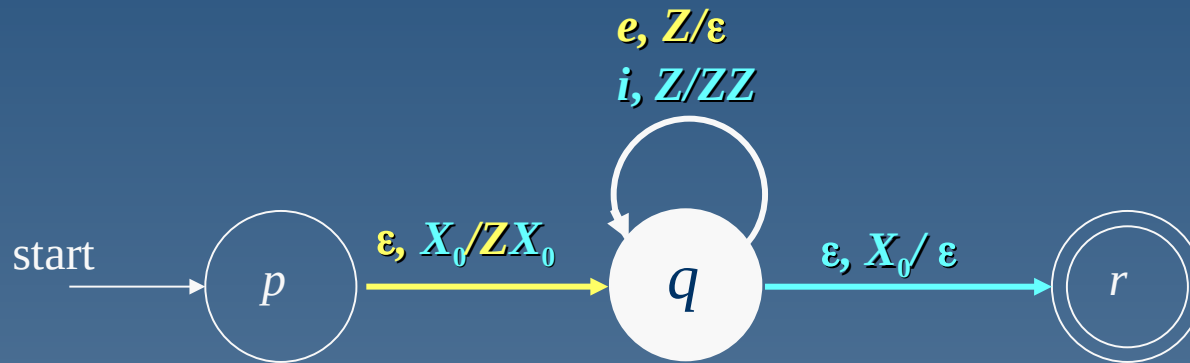


Fig. 6.6

◆ For input $w = iee$, the moves are:

$(p, iee, X_0) \vdash (q, iee, ZX_0) \vdash (q, ee, ZZX_0) \vdash (q, e, ZX_0) \vdash (q, \epsilon, X_0) \vdash (r, \epsilon, \epsilon)$ accept **30**

6.2 The Language of a PDA

◆ 6.2.4 From Final State to Empty Stack

– Theorem 6.11

Let L be $L(P_F)$ for some PDA $P_F = (Q, \Sigma, \Gamma, \delta_F, q_0, Z_0, F)$. Then there is a PDA P_N such that $L = N(P_N)$.

Proof. The idea is to use Fig. 6.7 below (in final states of P_F , pop up the remaining symbols in the stack).

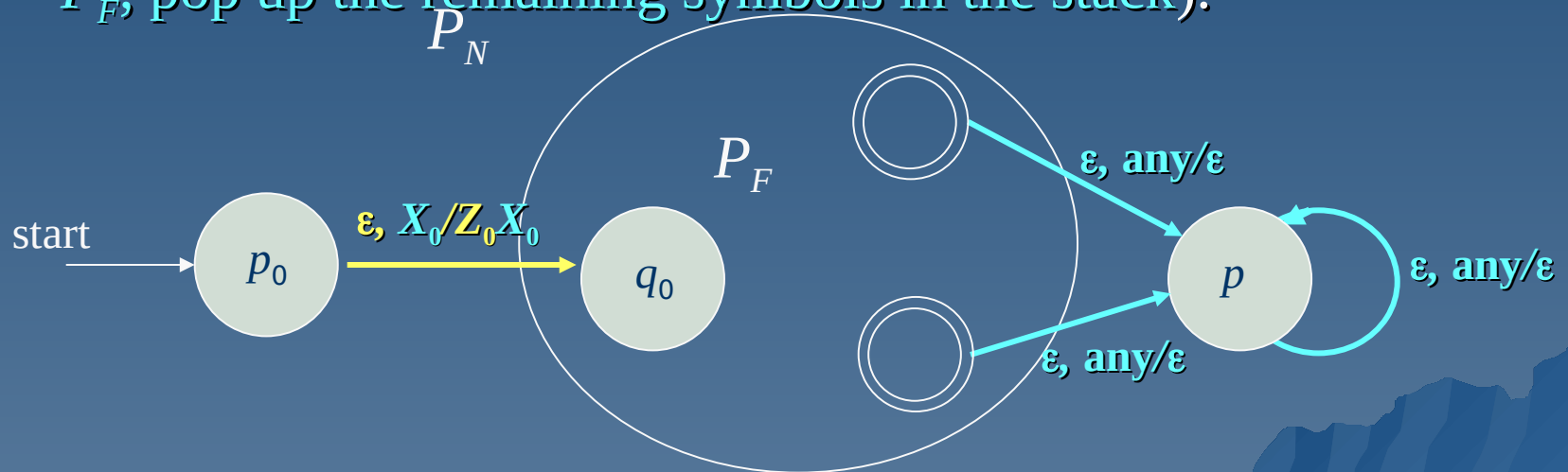


Fig. 6.7 P_N simulating P_F and empties its stack when and only when P_N enters an accepting state.

6.3 Equivalence of PDA's and CFG's

◆ **Equivalences to be proved:**

- 1) CFL's defined by CFG's
- 2) Languages accepted by final state by some PDA
- 3) Languages accepted by empty stack by some PDA

– Equivalence of 2) and 3) above have been proved.

6.3 Equivalence of PDA's and CFG's

◆ 6.3.1 From Grammars to PDA's

- Given a CFG $G = (V, T, Q, S)$, construct a PDA P that accepts $L(G)$ by empty stack in the following way:
- $P = (\{q\}, T, V \cup T, \delta, q, S)$ where the transition function δ is defined by:
 - ◆ for each nonterminal A ,
$$\delta(q, \varepsilon, A) = \{(q, \beta) \mid A \rightarrow \beta \text{ is a production of } G\};$$
 - ◆ for each terminal a , $\delta(q, a, a) = \{(q, \varepsilon)\}$.

6.3 Equivalence of PDA's and CFG's

◆ 6.3.1 From Grammars to PDA's

– Theorem 6.13

If PDA P is constructed from CFG G by the construction above, then $N(P) = L(G)$.

Proof. See the textbook.

6.3 Equivalence of PDA's and CFG's

◆ 6.3.1 From Grammars to PDA's

- **Example 6.12** - Construct a PDA from the expression grammar of Fig. 5.2:

$$\begin{aligned} I &\rightarrow a \mid b \mid Ia \mid Ib \mid I0 \mid I1; \\ E &\rightarrow I \mid E^*E \mid E+E \mid (E). \end{aligned}$$

The transition function for the PDA is as follows:

a) $\delta(q, \varepsilon, I) = \{(q, a), (q, b), (q, Ia), (q, Ib), (q, I0), (q, I1)\}$

b) $\delta(q, \varepsilon, E) = \{(q, I), (q, E+E), (q, E^*E), (q, (E))\}$

c) $\delta(q, d, d) = \{(q, \varepsilon)\}$ where d may any of the terminals
 $a, b, 0, 1, (,), +, *, \cdot$.

6.3 Equivalence of PDA's and CFG's

◆ 6.3.2 From PDA's to Grammars

– Theorem 6.14

Let $P = (Q, \Sigma, \Gamma, \delta, q_0, Z_0)$ be a PDA. Then there is a context-free grammar G such that $L(G) = N(P)$.

Proof. Construct $G = (V, T, P, S)$ where the set of nonterminals consists of:

- ◆ the special symbol S as the start symbol;
- ◆ all symbols of the form $[pXq]$ where p and q are states in Q and X is a stack symbol in Γ .

6.3 Equivalence of PDA's and CFG's

◆ 6.3.2 From PDA's to Grammars

– Theorem 6.14

Proof. (cont'd)

The productions of G are as follows.

(a) For all states p , G has the production $S \rightarrow [q_0 Z_0 p]$.

(b) Let $\delta(q, a, X)$ contain the pair $(r, Y_1 Y_2 \dots Y_k)$, where

– a is either a symbol in Σ or $a = \varepsilon$;

– k can be any number, including 0, in which case the pair is (r, ε) .

Then for all lists of states r_1, r_2, \dots, r_k , G has the production

$$[q X r_k] \rightarrow a[r Y_1 r_1][r_1 Y_2 r_2] \dots [r_{k-1} Y_k r_k].$$

6.3 Equivalence of PDA's and CFG's

◆ 6.3.2 From PDA's to Grammars

- **Example 6.15** --- Convert the PDA of Example 6.10 (below) to a grammar.

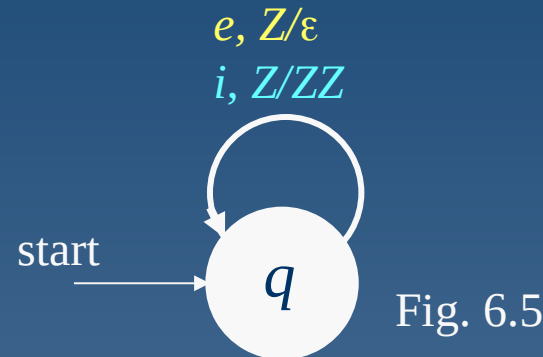


Fig. 6.5

Nonterminals include only two symbols, S and $[qZq]$.

Productions:

1. $S \rightarrow [qZq]$ (for the start symbol S);
2. $[qZq] \rightarrow i[qZq][qZq]$ (from $(q, ZZ) \in \delta_N(q, i, Z)$)
3. $[qZq] \rightarrow e$ (from $(q, \epsilon) \in \delta_N(q, e, Z)$)

6.3 Equivalence of PDA's and CFG's

◆ 6.3.2 From PDA's to Grammars

– Example 6.15 --- (cont'd)

If we replace $[qZq]$ by a simple symbol A , then the productions become

1. $S \rightarrow A$
2. $A \rightarrow iAA$
3. $A \rightarrow e$

Obviously, these productions can be simplified to be

1. $S \rightarrow iSS$
2. $S \rightarrow e$

And the grammar may be written simply as

$$G = (\{S\}, \{i, e\}, \{S \rightarrow iSS \mid e\}, S)$$

6.4 Deterministic PDA's

◆ 6.4.1 Definition of a Deterministic PDA

- Intuitively, a PDA is deterministic if there is never a choice of moves (including ε -moves) in any situation.
- Formally, a PDA $P = (Q, \Sigma, \Gamma, \delta, q_0, Z_0, F)$ is said to be deterministic (a DPDA) if and only if the following two conditions are met:
 - ◆ $\delta(q, a, X)$ has at most one element for any $q \in Q$, $a \in \Sigma$ or $a = \varepsilon$, and $X \in \Gamma$. (“一定要有”)
 - ◆ If $\delta(q, a, X)$ is nonempty for some $a \in \Sigma$, then $\delta(q, \varepsilon, X)$ must be empty. (“不能多於一個”)

6.4 Deterministic PDA's

◆ 6.4.1 Definition of a DPDA

– Example 6.16 –

- ◆ There is no DPDA for L_{ww^R} of Example 6.2.
- ◆ But there is a DPDA for a modified version of L_{ww^R} as follows, **which is not an RL (proved later)**:

$$L_{wcw^R} = \{wcw^R \mid w \in L((0 + 1)^*)\}.$$

- ◆ To recognize wcw^R , just store 0's & 1's in stack **until center marker c is seen**. Then, match the remaining input w^R with the stack content (w).
- ◆ The PDA can so be designed to be deterministic by searching the center marker *without trying matching all the time nondeterministically*.

6.4 Deterministic PDA's

◆ 6.4.1 Definition of a DPDA

- **Example 6.16** (cont'd) A desired DPDA is as follows. (The difference is just the blue c .)

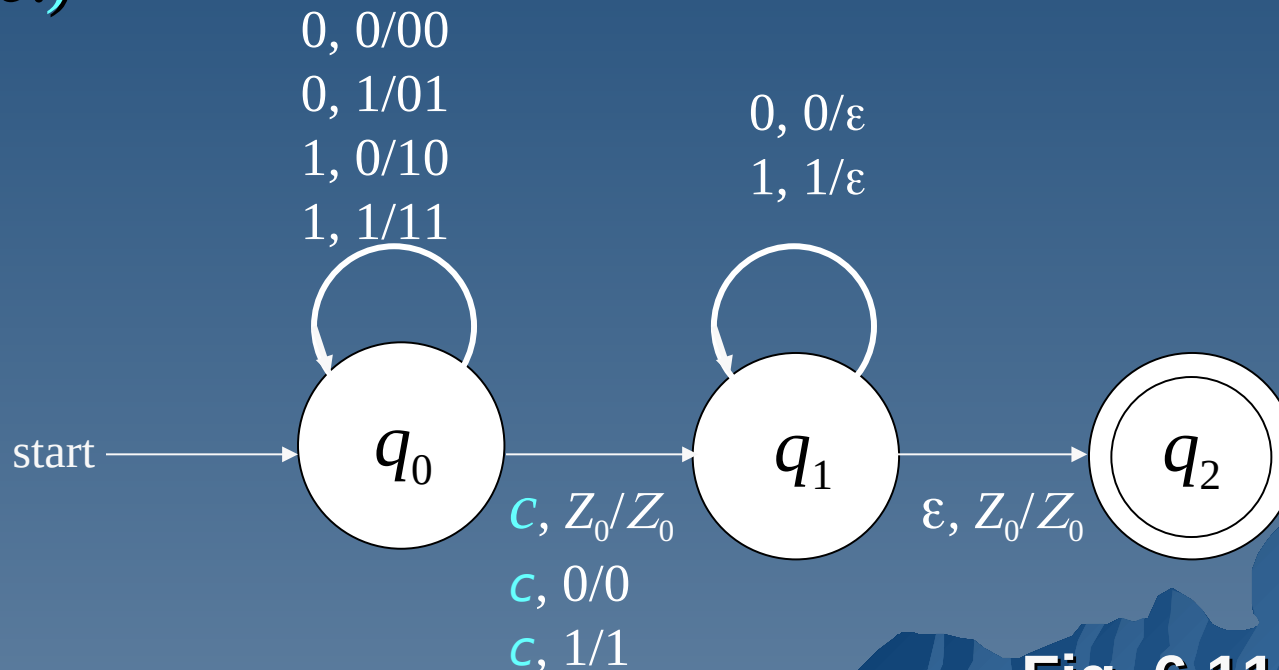


Fig. 6.11

6.4 Deterministic PDA's

◆ 6.4.2 Regular Languages and DPDA's

- The DPDA's accepts a class of languages that is *between* the RL's and the CFL's, as proved in the following.

- **Theorem 6.17**

If L is an RL, then $L = L(P)$ for some DPDA P (accepting by final state).

Proof. Easy. Just use a DPDA to simulate a DFA as follows.

If DFA $A = (Q, \Sigma, \delta_A, q_0, F)$ accepts L , then construct DPDA $P = (Q, \Sigma, \{Z_0\}, \delta_P, q_0, Z_0, F)$ where δ_P is such that $\delta_P(q, a, Z_0) = \{(p, Z_0)\}$ for all states p and q in Q such that $\delta_A(q, a) = p$.

6.4 Deterministic PDA's

◆ 6.4.2 Regular Languages and DPDA's

- The language-recognizing capability of the *DPDA by empty stack* is *rather limited*.

- **Theorem 6.19**

A language L is $N(P)$ for some DPDA P if and only if L has the **prefix property** and L is $L(P')$ for some DPDA P' (for proof, do exercise 6.4.3).

- A language L is said to have the **prefix property** if there are no two different strings x and y in L such that x is a prefix of y .

(For examples of such languages, see Example 6.18)₄₄

6.4 Deterministic PDA's

◆ 6.4.3 DPDA's and CFL's

- DPDA's can be used to accept non-RL's, for example, L_{wCw^R} mentioned before.
 - ◆ It can be proved by the pumping lemma that L_{wCw^R} is not an RL (see the textbook, pp. 254~255).
- On the other hand, DPDA's *by final state* **cannot** accept certain CFL's, for example, L_{ww^R} .
 - ◆ It can be proved that L_{ww^R} cannot be accepted by a DPDA by final state (see an informal proof in the textbook, p. 255).

6.4 Deterministic PDA's

◆ 6.4.3 DPDA's and CFL's

– *Conclusion:*

The languages accepted by DPDA's by final state properly include RL's, but are properly included in CFL's.

6.4 Deterministic PDA's

◆ 6.4.4 DPDA's and Ambiguous Grammars

– Theorem 6.20

If $L = N(P)$ (*accepting by empty stack*) for some DPDA P , then L has an unambiguous CFG.

Proof. See the textbook.

– Theorem 6.21

If $L = L(P)$ for some DPDA P (*accepting by final state*), then L has an unambiguous CFG.

Proof. See the textbook.