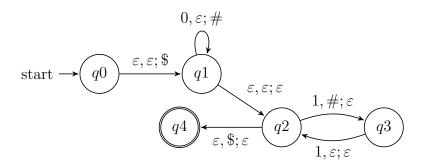
**Definition** A **pushdown automaton** (PDA) is specified by a 6-tuple  $(Q, \Sigma, \Gamma, \delta, q_0, F)$  where Q is the finite set of states,  $\Sigma$  is the input alphabet,  $\Gamma$  is the stack alphabet,

$$\delta: Q \times \Sigma_{\varepsilon} \times \Gamma_{\varepsilon} \to \mathcal{P}(Q \times \Gamma_{\varepsilon})$$

is the transition function,  $q_0 \in Q$  is the start state,  $F \subseteq Q$  is the set of accept states.

For the PDA state diagrams below,  $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$ .

$$\Gamma = \{\$, \#\}$$



$$\Gamma = \{ \circlearrowleft, 1 \}$$



$$\{0^i 1^j 0^k \mid i, j, k \ge 0\}$$

Note: alternate notation is to replace; with  $\rightarrow$  on arrow labels.



Proof idea: Declare stack alphabet to be  $\Gamma = \Sigma$  and then don't use stack at all.

Big picture: PDAs are motivated by wanting to add some memory of unbounded size to NFA. How do we accomplish a similar enhancement of regular expressions to get a syntactic model that is more expressive?

DFA, NFA, PDA: Machines process one input string at a time; the computation of a machine on its input string reads the input from left to right.

Regular expressions: Syntactic descriptions of all strings that match a particular pattern; the language described by a regular expression is built up recursively according to the expression's syntax

Context-free grammars: Rules to produce one string at a time, adding characters from the middle, beginning, or end of the final string as the derivation proceeds.

Definitions below are on pages 101-102.

Term	Typical symbol	Meaning
	or <b>Notation</b>	
Context-free grammar (CFG)	G	$G = (V, \Sigma, R, S)$
The set of variables	V	Finite set of symbols that represent phases in pro-
		duction pattern
The set of <b>terminals</b>	$\Sigma$	Alphabet of symbols of strings generated by CFG $V \cap \Sigma = \emptyset$
The set of <b>rules</b>	R	Each rule is $A \to u$ with $A \in V$ and $u \in (V \cup \Sigma)^*$
The <b>start</b> variable	S	Usually on left-hand-side of first/ topmost rule
Derivation  Language generated by the	$S \Rightarrow \cdots \Rightarrow w$ $L(G)$	Sequence of substitutions in a CFG (also written $S \Rightarrow^* w$ ). At each step, we can apply one rule to one occurrence of a variable in the current string by substituting that occurrence of the variable with the right-hand-side of the rule. The derivation must end when the current string has only terminals (no variables) because then there are no instances of variables to apply a rule to.  The set of strings for which there is a derivation in
context-free grammar $G$	,	G. Symbolically: $\{w \in \Sigma^* \mid S \Rightarrow^* w\}$ i.e. $\{w \in \Sigma^* \mid \text{there is derivation in } G \text{ that ends in } w\}$
Context-free language		A language that is the language generated by some context-free grammar

Examples of context-free grammars, derivations in those grammars, and the languages generated by those grammars

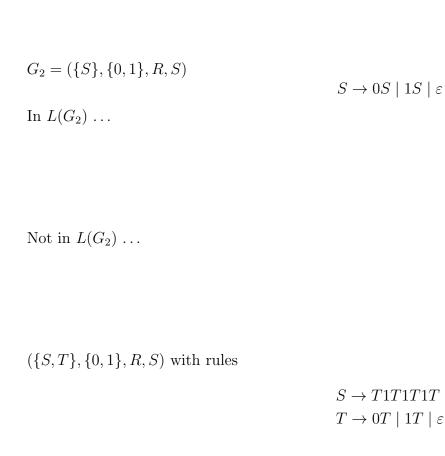
$$G_1 = (\{S\}, \{0\}, R, S)$$
 with rules

$$S \to 0 S$$

$$S \to 0$$

In  $L(G_1)$  ...

Not in  $L(G_1)$  ...



In  $L(G_3)$  ...

Not in  $L(G_3)$  ...

 $G_4 = (\{A, B\}, \{0, 1\}, R, A)$  with rules

 $A \to 0A0 \mid 0A1 \mid 1A0 \mid 1A1 \mid 1$ 

In  $L(G_4)$  ...

Not in  $L(G_4)$  ...



**Theorem 2.20**: A language is generated by some context-free grammar if and only if it is recognized by some push-down automaton.

Definition: a language is called **context-free** if it is the language generated by a context-free grammar. The class of all context-free language over a given alphabet  $\Sigma$  is called **CFL**.

#### Consequences:

- Quick proof that every regular language is context free
- To prove closure of the class of context-free languages under a given operation, we can choose either of two modes of proof (via CFGs or PDAs) depending on which is easier
- To fully specify a PDA we could give its 6-tuple formal definition or we could give its input alphabet, stack alphabet, and state diagram. An informal description of a PDA is a step-by-step description of how its computations would process input strings; the reader should be able to reconstruct the state diagram or formal definition precisely from such a descripton. The informal description of a PDA can refer to some common modules or subroutines that are computable by PDAs:
  - PDAs can "test for emptiness of stack" without providing details. How? We can always push a special end-of-stack symbol, \$, at the start, before processing any input, and then use this symbol as a flag.
  - PDAs can "test for end of input" without providing details. How? We can transform a PDA to one where accepting states are only those reachable when there are no more input symbols.

Suppose  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  are context-free languages over  $\Sigma$ . Goal:  $L_1 \cup L_2$  is also context-free.

Approach 1: with PDAs

Let  $M_1 = (Q_1, \Sigma, \Gamma_1, \delta_1, q_1, F_1)$  and  $M_2 = (Q_2, \Sigma, \Gamma_2, \delta_2, q_2, F_2)$  be PDAs with  $L(M_1) = L_1$  and  $L(M_2) = L_2$ .

Define M =

Approach 2: with CFGs

Let  $G_1 = (V_1, \Sigma, R_1, S_1)$  and  $G_2 = (V_2, \Sigma, R_2, S_2)$  be CFGs with  $L(G_1) = L_1$  and  $L(G_2) = L_2$ .

Define G =

Suppose  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  are context-free languages over  $\Sigma$ . Goal:  $L_1 \circ L_2$  is also context-free.

Approach 1: with PDAs

Let  $M_1 = (Q_1, \Sigma, \Gamma_1, \delta_1, q_1, F_1)$  and  $M_2 = (Q_2, \Sigma, \Gamma_2, \delta_2, q_2, F_2)$  be PDAs with  $L(M_1) = L_1$  and  $L(M_2) = L_2$ .

Define M =

 $Approach\ 2:\ with\ CFGs$ 

Let  $G_1 = (V_1, \Sigma, R_1, S_1)$  and  $G_2 = (V_2, \Sigma, R_2, S_2)$  be CFGs with  $L(G_1) = L_1$  and  $L(G_2) = L_2$ .

Define G =

Summary								
Over a fixed alphabet $\Sigma$ , a language $L$ is <b>regular</b>								
iff it is described by some regular expression iff it is recognized by some DFA iff it is recognized by some NFA								
Over a fixed alphabet $\Sigma$ , a language $L$ is <b>context-free</b>								
iff it is generated by some CFG iff it is recognized by some PDA								
Fact: Every regular language is a context-free language.								
Fact: There are context-free languages that are nonregular.								
Fact: There are countably many regular languages.								
Fact: There are countably infinitely many context-free languages.								

 ${\it Consequence} . \ {\it Most languages are } \ {\bf not} \ {\it context-free!}$ 

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#### Examples of non-context-free languages

$$\begin{split} &\{a^nb^nc^n\mid 0\leq n, n\in\mathbb{Z}\}\\ &\{a^ib^jc^k\mid 0\leq i\leq j\leq k, i\in\mathbb{Z}, j\in\mathbb{Z}, k\in\mathbb{Z}\}\\ &\{ww\mid w\in\{0,1\}^*\} \end{split}$$

(Sipser Ex 2.36, Ex 2.37, 2.38)

There is a Pumping Lemma for CFL that can be used to prove a specific language is non-context-free: If A is a context-free language, there is a number p where, if s is any string in A of length at least p, then s may be divided into five pieces s = uvxyz where (1) for each  $i \ge 0$ ,  $uv^ixy^iz \in A$ , (2) |uv| > 0, (3)  $|vxy| \le p$ . We will not go into the details of the proof or application of Pumping Lemma for CFLs this quarter.

Recall: A set X is said to be **closed** under an operation OP if, for any elements in X, applying OP to them gives an element in X.

True/False	Closure claim							
True	The set of integers is closed under multiplication.							
	$\forall x \forall y  (\ (x \in \mathbb{Z} \land y \in \mathbb{Z}) \to xy \in \mathbb{Z}\ )$							
True	For each set $A$ , the power set of $A$ is closed under intersection.							
	$\forall A_1 \forall A_2 ( (A_1 \in \mathcal{P}(A) \land A_2 \in \mathcal{P}(A) \in \mathbb{Z}) \to A_1 \cap A_2 \in \mathcal{P}(A) )$							
	The class of regular languages over $\Sigma$ is closed under complementation.							
	The class of regular languages over $\Sigma$ is closed under union.							
	The class of regular languages over $\Sigma$ is closed under intersection.							
	The class of regular languages over $\Sigma$ is closed under concatenation.							
	The class of regular languages over $\Sigma$ is closed under Kleene star.							
	The class of context-free languages over $\Sigma$ is closed under complementation.							
	The class of context-free languages over $\Sigma$ is closed under union.							
	The class of context-free languages over $\Sigma$ is closed under intersection.							
	The class of context-free languages over $\Sigma$ is closed under concatenation.							
	The class of context-free languages over $\Sigma$ is closed under Kleene star.							

**Definition and Theorem**: For an alphabet  $\Sigma$ , a language L over  $\Sigma$  is called **regular** exactly when L is recognized by some DFA, which happens exactly when L is recognized by some NFA, and happens exactly when L is described by some regular expression

We saw that: The class of regular languages is closed under complementation, union, intersection, set-wise concatenation, and Kleene star.

Extra practice:

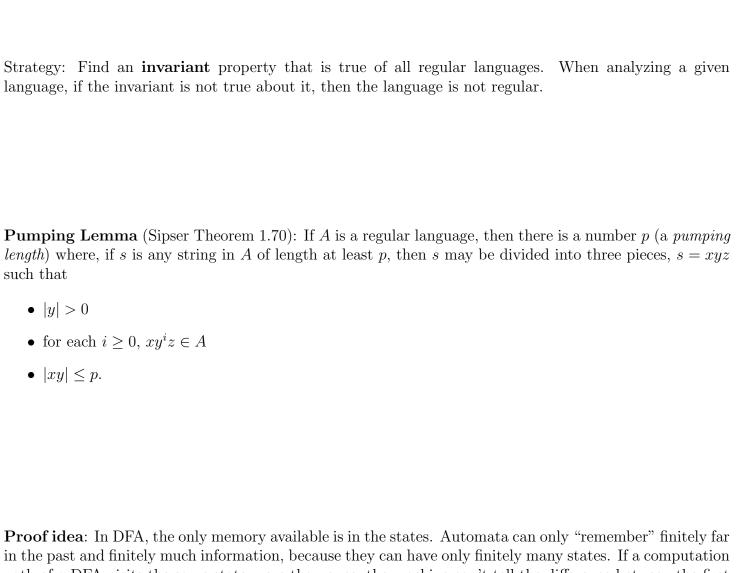
**Disprove**: There is some alphabet  $\Sigma$  for which there is some language recognized by an NFA but not by any DFA.

**Disprove**: There is some alphabet  $\Sigma$  for which there is some finite language not described by any regular expression over  $\Sigma$ .

**Disprove**: If a language is recognized by an NFA then the complement of this language is not recognized by any DFA.

#### Fix alphabet $\Sigma$ . Is every language L over $\Sigma$ regular?

Set	Cardinality
$\{0, 1\}$	
$\{0,1\}^*$	
$\mathcal{P}(\{0,1\})$	
The set of all languages over $\{0,1\}$	
The set of all regular expressions over $\{0,1\}$	
The set of all regular languages over $\{0,1\}$	



**Proof idea**: In DFA, the only memory available is in the states. Automata can only "remember" finitely far in the past and finitely much information, because they can have only finitely many states. If a computation path of a DFA visits the same state more than once, the machine can't tell the difference between the first time and future times it visits this state. Thus, if a DFA accepts one long string, then it must accept (infinitely) many similar strings.

**Proof illustration** 

True or False: A pumping length for  $A = \{0, 1\}^*$  is p = 5.

True or False: A pumping length for  $A = \{0, 1\}^*$  is p = 2.

True or False: A pumping length for  $A = \{0, 1\}^*$  is p = 105.

Restating **Pumping Lemma**: If L is a regular language, then it has a pumping length.

Contrapositive: If L has no pumping length, then it is nonregular.

The Pumping Lemma cannot be used to prove that a language is regular.

The Pumping Lemma can be used to prove that a language is not regular.

Extra practice: Exercise 1.49 in the book.

**Proof strategy**: To prove that a language L is **not** regular,

- ullet Consider an arbitrary positive integer p
- ullet Prove that p is not a pumping length for L
- $\bullet$  Conclude that L does not have any pumping length, and therefore it is not regular.

**Negation**: A positive integer p is **not a pumping length** of a language L over  $\Sigma$  iff

$$\exists s \ \big( \ |s| \geq p \land s \in L \land \forall x \forall y \forall z \ \big( \ (s = xyz \land |y| > 0 \land |xy| \leq p \ ) \rightarrow \exists i (i \geq 0 \land xy^iz \not\in L) \big) \ \big)$$

**Proof strategy**: To prove that a language L is **not** regular,

- $\bullet$  Consider an arbitrary positive integer p
- Prove that p is not a pumping length for L. A positive integer p is **not a pumping length** of a language L over  $\Sigma$  iff

$$\exists s \ \big( \ |s| \ge p \land s \in L \land \forall x \forall y \forall z \ \big( \ (s = xyz \land |y| > 0 \land |xy| \le p \ ) \rightarrow \exists i (i \ge 0 \land xy^iz \notin L) \big) \ \big)$$

Informally:

• Conclude that L does not have any pumping length, and therefore it is not regular.

Example:  $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}, L = \{0^n 1^n \mid n \ge 0\}.$ 

Fix p an arbitrary positive integer. List strings that are in L and have length greater than or equal to p:

Pick s =

Suppose s = xyz with  $|xy| \le p$  and |y| > 0.

Then when i =

 $, xy^{i}z =$ 

**Example**:  $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$ ,  $L = \{ww^{\mathcal{R}} \mid w \in \{0, 1\}^*\}$ . Remember that the reverse of a string w is denoted  $w^{\mathcal{R}}$  and means to write w in the opposite order, if  $w = w_1 \cdots w_n$  then  $w^{\mathcal{R}} = w_n \cdots w_1$ . Note:  $\varepsilon^{\mathcal{R}} = \varepsilon$ . Fix p an arbitrary positive integer. List strings that are in L and have length greater than or equal to p: Pick s =Suppose s = xyz with  $|xy| \le p$  and |y| > 0.  $, xy^iz =$ Then when i =**Example**:  $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}, L = \{0^j 1^k \mid j \ge k \ge 0\}.$ Fix p an arbitrary positive integer. List strings that are in L and have length greater than or equal to p: Pick s =Suppose s = xyz with  $|xy| \le p$  and |y| > 0.  $, xy^iz =$ Then when i =Example:  $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}, L = \{0^n 1^m 0^n \mid m, n \ge 0\}.$ Fix p an arbitrary positive integer. List strings that are in L and have length greater than or equal to p: Pick s =Suppose s = xyz with  $|xy| \le p$  and |y| > 0.

 $, xy^iz =$ 

Then when i =

#### $Extra\ practice:$

Language	$s \in L$	$s \notin L$	Is the language regular or nonregular?
$\{a^nb^n\mid 0\leq n\leq 5\}$			
$\{b^na^n\mid n\geq 2\}$			
$\{a^mb^n\mid 0\leq m\leq n\}$			
$\{a^mb^n\mid m\geq n+3, n\geq 0\}$			
$\{b^ma^n\mid m\geq 1, n\geq 3\}$			
$\{w \in \{a, b\}^* \mid w = w^{\mathcal{R}}\}$			
$\{ww^{\mathcal{R}} \mid w \in \{a, b\}^*\}$			

We are ready to introduce a formal model that will capture a notion of general purpose computation.

- Similar to DFA, NFA, PDA: input will be an arbitrary string over a fixed alphabet.
- Different from NFA, PDA: machine is deterministic.
- Different from DFA, NFA, PDA: read-write head can move both to the left and to the right, and can extend to the right past the original input.
- Similar to DFA, NFA, PDA: transition function drives computation one step at a time by moving within a finite set of states, always starting at designated start state.
- Different from DFA, NFA, PDA: the special states for rejecting and accepting take effect immediately.

(See more details: Sipser p. 166)

Formally: a Turing machine is  $M = (Q, \Sigma, \Gamma, \delta, q_0, q_{accept}, q_{reject})$  where  $\delta$  is the **transition function** 

$$\delta:Q\times\Gamma\to Q\times\Gamma\times\{L,R\}$$

The **computation** of M on a string w over  $\Sigma$  is:

- Read/write head starts at leftmost position on tape.
- Input string is written on |w|-many leftmost cells of tape, rest of the tape cells have the blank symbol. **Tape alphabet** is  $\Gamma$  with  $\bot \in \Gamma$  and  $\Sigma \subseteq \Gamma$ . The blank symbol  $\bot \notin \Sigma$ .
- Given current state of machine and current symbol being read at the tape head, the machine transitions to next state, writes a symbol to the current position of the tape head (overwriting existing symbol), and moves the tape head L or R (if possible).
- Computation ends if and when machine enters either the accept or the reject state. This is called halting. Note:  $q_{accept} \neq q_{reject}$ .

The language recognized by the Turing machine M, is  $L(M) = \{w \in \Sigma^* \mid w \text{ is accepted by } M\}$ , which is defined as

 $\{w \in \Sigma^* \mid \text{computation of } M \text{ on } w \text{ halts after entering the accept state}\}$ 



Formal definition:

Sample computation:

$q0\downarrow$						
0	0	0	J	J	J	1

The language recognized by this machine is ...

Describing Turing machines (Sipser p. 185) To define a Turing machine, we could give a

- Formal definition: the 7-tuple of parameters including set of states, input alphabet, tape alphabet, transition function, start state, accept state, and reject state; or,
- Implementation-level definition: English prose that describes the Turing machine head movements relative to contents of tape, and conditions for accepting / rejecting based on those contents.
- **High-level description**: description of algorithm (precise sequence of instructions), without implementation details of machine. As part of this description, can "call" and run another TM as a subroutine.

Fix  $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$ ,  $\Gamma = \{0, 1, \bot\}$  for the Turing machines with the following state diagrams:



Example of string accepted: Example of string rejected:

Implementation-level description

High-level description



Example of string accepted: Example of string rejected:

Implementation-level description

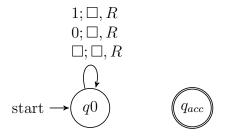
High-level description



Example	of	string	accepted:
Example	of	string	rejected:

Implementation-level description

High-level description



Example of string accepted: Example of string rejected:

Implementation-level description

High-level description

Sipser Figure 3.10

Conventions in state diagram of TM:  $b \to R$  label means  $b \to b, R$  and all arrows missing from diagram represent transitions with output  $(q_{reject}, \downarrow, R)$ 



Computation on input string 01#01

$q_1 \downarrow$						
0	1	#	0	1	٦	u
			1			ı
			I	ı	ı	
			I			
		<u> </u>	I	ı	ı	I
					I	

Implementation level description of this machine:

Zig-zag across tape to corresponding positions on either side of # to check whether the characters in these positions agree. If they do not, or if there is no #, reject. If they do, cross them off.

Once all symbols to the left of the # are crossed off, check for any un-crossed-off symbols to the right of #; if there are any, reject; if there aren't, accept.

The language recognized by this machine is

 $\{w\#w \mid w \in \{0,1\}^*\}$ 

		_			
11. 1	11	description		1	•
$H10^{\circ}N_{-}$	100001	abserintion.	OT This	machina	10
111211-	10,70,1	いしいしけいけいけ	OI UIIIO	THOWITH	- 10

#### $Extra\ practice$

Computation on input string 01#1

I						
$q_1 \downarrow 0$						
0	1	#	1	u	J	]
	l					
	1					
	l					
				I		
		<u> </u>	1	1	1	<u> </u>
	1					
		<u> </u>				<u> </u>
			r			
				l		

Recall: High-level descriptions of Turing machine algorithms are written as indented text within quotation marks. Stages of the algorithm are typically numbered consecutively. The first line specifies the input to the machine, which must be a string.

Α	language	L	is	recognized	$\mathbf{b}\mathbf{v}$	a.	Turing	machine $M$	means
1 L	ianguage	ப	TO	iccognized	IJγ	$\alpha$	1 urmg	macmin m	means

A Turing machine M recognizes a language L means

A Turing machine M is a **decider** means

A language L is **decided by** a Turing machine M means

A Turing machine M decides a language L means

Fix  $\Sigma = \{0,1\}$ ,  $\Gamma = \{0,1,\bot\}$  for the Turing machines with the following state diagrams:



A **Turing-recognizable** language is a set of strings that is the language recognized by some Turing machine. We also say that such languages are recognizable.

A **Turing-decidable** language is a set of strings that is the language recognized by some decider. We also say that such languages are decidable.

An unrecognizable language is a language that is not Turing-recognizable.

An **undecidable** language is a language that is not Turing-decidable.

True or False: Any decidable language is also recognizable.

True or False: Any recognizable language is also decidable.

True or False: Any undecidable language is also unrecognizable.

True or False: Any unrecognizable language is also undecidable.

