# Chapter 2 Context-Free Languages

- · so far, we have looked at FA's and regular expressions
  - different, though equivalent
  - $\cdot$  some simple languages, such as  $0^n1^n$  cannot be described in these ways

- we now turn to context-free grammars (CFGs)
  - more powerful way to describe languages
    - can describe recursive structures of languages
  - first used to study human languages
    - relationships between parts of language (noun, verb, etc.) lead to recursion
      - e.g., noun phrases may appear inside verb phrases and vice versa
      - context-free grammars help organize and understand such relationships

- another important application is in the specification of programming languages
  - a grammar for a programming language can help people learn about the language syntax
  - compiler and interpreter designers often start with the grammar for a programming language
    - parser: extracts meaning from code before execution
    - some tools can automatically generate a parser from the grammar

- the collection of languages associated with context-free grammars are context-free languages
  - include all regular languages
  - plus other languages
- · we will study
  - context-free grammars
  - formal definition of context-free grammars
  - properties of context-free languages
  - pushdown automata: machines recognizing context-free languages
    - help us realize the power of context-free grammars

- example: CFG  $G_1$   $A \rightarrow 0A1$   $A \rightarrow B$  $B \rightarrow \#$
- a grammar consists of
  - substitution rules, or productions
    - each rule appears as a line in the grammar
    - Ihs: variable or nonterminal
    - derivation symbol
    - · rhs: variables or terminals
  - common notation
    - nonterminals: capital letters
    - terminals: lowercase letters, numbers, symbols

- example:  $CFG G_1$ 
  - $A \rightarrow 0A1$
  - $A \rightarrow B$
  - B → #
- start variable: Ihs of first production
- $\cdot G_1$  has
  - two variables: A, B
  - start variable: A
  - terminals: 0, 1, #

- process for generating strings in the language using the grammar
  - write down the start variable
    - · Ihs of top rule, unless otherwise stated
  - find a variable that is written down and a rule that starts with that variable
    - replace the variable with rhs of that rule
  - repeat replacements until no variable remains

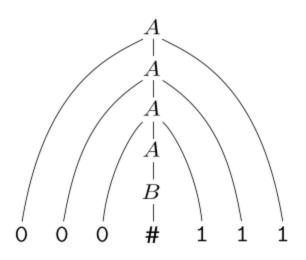
- example: CFG G<sub>1</sub>
  - $A \rightarrow 0A1$
  - $A \rightarrow B$
  - B → #
- we can generate string 000#111 with the following derivation (or sequence of substitutions)
  - $A \rightarrow 0A1$ 
    - $\rightarrow 00A11$
    - $\rightarrow 000A111$
    - → 000B111
    - → 000#111

• example:  $CFGG_1$ 

$$A \rightarrow 0A1$$

$$A \rightarrow B$$

derivation can also be shown with a parse tree



- all strings generated from derivations constitute the language of the grammar, L(G)
  - $L(G_1) = \{0^n \# 1^n \mid n \ge 0\}$
  - any language that can be generated by a CFG is called a context-free language (CFL)
- for convenience, we can replace

$$A \rightarrow 0A1$$

$$A \rightarrow B$$

with

$$A \rightarrow 0A1 \mid B$$

• example:  $CFG G_2$  describes part of the English language

```
\langle \text{SENTENCE} \rangle \rightarrow \langle \text{NOUN-PHRASE} \rangle \langle \text{VERB-PHRASE} \rangle
\langle \text{NOUN-PHRASE} \rangle \rightarrow \langle \text{CMPLX-NOUN} \rangle | \langle \text{CMPLX-NOUN} \rangle \langle \text{PREP-PHRASE} \rangle
\langle \text{VERB-PHRASE} \rangle \rightarrow \langle \text{CMPLX-VERB} \rangle | \langle \text{CMPLX-VERB} \rangle \langle \text{PREP-PHRASE} \rangle
\langle \text{PREP-PHRASE} \rangle \rightarrow \langle \text{PREP} \rangle \langle \text{CMPLX-NOUN} \rangle
\langle \text{CMPLX-NOUN} \rangle \rightarrow \langle \text{ARTICLE} \rangle \langle \text{NOUN} \rangle
\langle \text{CMPLX-VERB} \rangle \rightarrow \langle \text{VERB} \rangle | \langle \text{VERB} \rangle \langle \text{NOUN-PHRASE} \rangle
\langle \text{ARTICLE} \rangle \rightarrow \text{a} | \text{the}
\langle \text{NOUN} \rangle \rightarrow \text{boy} | \text{girl} | \text{flower}
\langle \text{VERB} \rangle \rightarrow \text{touches} | \text{likes} | \text{sees}
\langle \text{PREP} \rangle \rightarrow \text{with}
```

- 10 variables (nonterminals)
- 27 terminals (26 alphabet letters plus space)
- 18 rules

• strings in  $L(G_2)$  a boy sees the boy sees a flower a girl with a flower likes the boy

\( \text{NOUN-PHRASE} \) → \( \text{CMPLX-NOUN} \) \| \( \text{CMPLX-NOUN} \\ \) \( \text{PREP-PHRASE} \) \\
\( \text{VERB-PHRASE} \) → \( \text{CMPLX-VERB} \) \| \( \text{CMPLX-VERB} \\ \) \( \text{PREP-PHRASE} \) \\
\( \text{CMPLX-NOUN} \) → \( \text{ARTICLE} \\ \text{NOUN} \) \\
\( \text{CMPLX-VERB} \) → \( \text{VERB} \\ \) \| \( \text{VERB} \\ \) \| \( \text{VERB} \\ \) \\
\( \text{ARTICLE} \) → \( \text{a} \| \text{the} \)
\( \text{ARTICLE} \) → \( \text{a} \| \text{the} \)
\( \text{VERB} \) → \( \text{bouches} \| \text{likes} \| \text{sees} \\
\( \text{VERB} \) → \( \text{with} \)

 $\langle SENTENCE \rangle \rightarrow \langle NOUN-PHRASE \rangle \langle VERB-PHRASE \rangle$ 

example derivation of 'a boy sees'

```
\langle \text{SENTENCE} \rangle \Rightarrow \langle \text{NOUN-PHRASE} \rangle \langle \text{VERB-PHRASE} \rangle
\Rightarrow \langle \text{CMPLX-NOUN} \rangle \langle \text{VERB-PHRASE} \rangle
\Rightarrow \langle \text{ARTICLE} \rangle \langle \text{NOUN} \rangle \langle \text{VERB-PHRASE} \rangle
\Rightarrow \text{a } \langle \text{NOUN} \rangle \langle \text{VERB-PHRASE} \rangle
\Rightarrow \text{a boy } \langle \text{VERB-PHRASE} \rangle
\Rightarrow \text{a boy } \langle \text{CMPLX-VERB} \rangle
\Rightarrow \text{a boy } \langle \text{VERB} \rangle
\Rightarrow \text{a boy sees}
```

formal definition of CFG

A *context-free grammar* is a 4-tuple  $(V, \Sigma, R, S)$ , where

- 1. V is a finite set called the *variables*,
- 2.  $\Sigma$  is a finite set, disjoint from V, called the *terminals*,
- **3.** *R* is a finite set of *rules*, with each rule being a variable and a string of variables and terminals, and
- **4.**  $S \in V$  is the start variable.
- in grammar  $G_1$ 
  - $V = \{A, B\}$
  - $\Sigma = \{0, 1, \#\}$
  - S = A
  - R is the collection of rules in the grammar

- formal definition of CFG notes
  - for u, v, w (strings of variables and terminals)
  - $A \rightarrow w$  is a rule
  - uAv yields uwv, or uAv ⇒ uwv
  - u derives v, or  $u \Rightarrow^* v$  if u = v or if  $u_1, u_2, ..., u_k$  exists for  $k \ge 0$  and  $u \Rightarrow u_1 \Rightarrow u_2 \Rightarrow ... \Rightarrow u_k \Rightarrow v$
  - the language of the grammar is  $\{w \in \Sigma^* \mid S \Rightarrow^* w\}$

example: grammar G<sub>2</sub>

```
V = \{\langle \text{SENTENCE} \rangle, \langle \text{NOUN-PHRASE} \rangle, \langle \text{VERB-PHRASE} \rangle, \\ \langle \text{PREP-PHRASE} \rangle, \langle \text{CMPLX-NOUN} \rangle, \langle \text{CMPLX-VERB} \rangle, \\ \langle \text{ARTICLE} \rangle, \langle \text{NOUN} \rangle, \langle \text{VERB} \rangle, \langle \text{PREP} \rangle \},
```

- $\Sigma = \{a, b, c, ..., z, ""\}$ 
  - " " represents blank space
- · can specify grammar by just writing rules
  - identify variables as appearing on lhs
  - all other symbols are terminals
  - start variable is lhs of first rule

- example: grammar G<sub>3</sub>
  - $G_3 = (\{S\}, \{a, b\}, R, S)$ 
    - · rules:

$$S \rightarrow aSb \mid SS \mid \epsilon$$

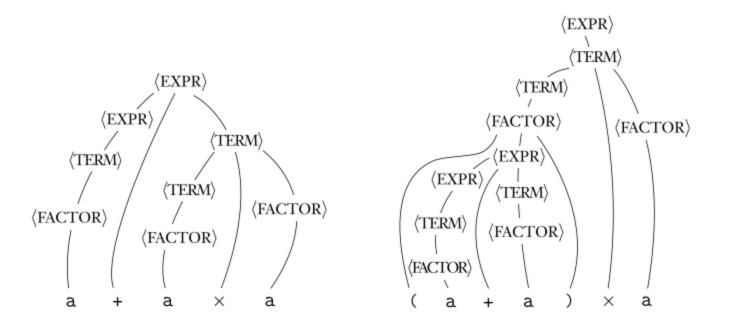
- · note ε
- example strings generated: abab, aaabbb, aababb, ε
  - can think of a and b as '(' and ')', respectively
    - strings generated are properly nested parentheses

- example: grammar  $G_4 = (V, \Sigma, R, \langle EXPR \rangle)$ 
  - V = {<EXPR>, <TERM>, <FACTOR>}
  - $\Sigma = \{a, +, \times, (, )\}$
  - · R (rules) are

 
$$\rightarrow$$
  +  |  <  
  $\rightarrow$    $\times$   |   <

 describes part of a programming language for arithmetic expressions

- example: grammar  $G_4 = (V, \Sigma, R, \langle EXPR \rangle)$ 
  - parse trees for strings a+axa and (a+a)xa
    - note precedence imposed



- designing CFGs
  - requires some creativity, as with FAs
  - helpful techniques
    - · first, many CFLs are the union of simpler CFLs
      - construct individual grammars for pieces
      - solving several simpler problems easier than solving one complicated problem
      - merge by combining rules and adding new rule where  $S_i$  are the start variables for the simpler grammars

$$S \rightarrow S_1 \mid S_2 \mid ... \mid S_k$$

- designing CFGs (cont.)
  - many CFLs are the union of simpler CFLs example: create a grammar for the language  $\{0^n1^n\mid n\geq 0\}\cup\{1^n0^n\mid n\geq 0\}$ 
    - 1. construct grammar for  $\{0^n1^n \mid n \ge 0\}$   $S_1 \to 0S_11 \mid \epsilon$
    - 2. construct grammar for  $\{1^n0^n \mid n \ge 0\}$   $S_2 \to 1S_20 \mid \epsilon$
    - 3. add rule  $S \rightarrow S_1 \mid S_2$   $S \rightarrow S_1 \mid S_2$   $S_1 \rightarrow 0S_11 \mid \epsilon$  $S_2 \rightarrow 1S_20 \mid \epsilon$

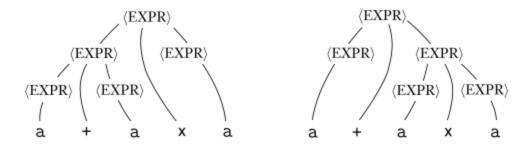
- designing CFGs (cont.)
  - helpful techniques
    - second, constructing a CFG for a regular language is easy if you can construct a DFA first
      - convert DFA into CFG
        - make a variable R for each state q<sub>i</sub> of the DFA
        - •add rule  $R_i \rightarrow aR_j$  if  $\delta(q_i, a) = q_j$  is transition in DFA
        - •add rule  $R_i \rightarrow \epsilon$  if  $q_i$  is an accept state of the DFA
        - $\cdot R_0$  is the start variable where  $q_0$  is the start state

- designing CFGs (cont.)
  - helpful techniques
    - third, certain CFLs contain strings with two substrings that are linked in such a way that a FA would need to remember
      - e.g.,  $\{0^n1^n \mid n \geq 0\}$
      - construct a CFG to handle this situation by using a rule of the form  $R \to uRv$  where the numbers of u's and v's are the same

- designing CFGs (cont.)
  - helpful techniques
    - finally, in more complex languages, the strings may contain certain structures that appear recursively as part of other (or the same) structures
      - e.g.,  $G_4$  that generates arithmetic expressions
        - any time an a appears, an entire parenthesized expression might appear recursively instead
        - place the variable symbol generating the structure in the location of the rules corresponding to where that structure may recursively appear

- ambiguity
  - sometimes a grammar can generate a string in several different ways
    - must be different parse trees
    - undesirable in certain applications, such as programming languages, since a program should have only one interpretation
    - string is derived ambiguously
    - if grammar generates strings ambiguously, grammar is ambiguous

- ambiguity (cont.)
  - example: grammar  $G_5$   $\langle EXPR \rangle \rightarrow \langle EXPR \rangle + \langle EXPR \rangle \mid \langle EXPR \rangle \mid \langle EXPR \rangle \mid \langle example \rangle \mid a$ 
    - generates string a+axa ambiguously



note precedence

- ambiguity (cont.)
  - $G_4$  generates the same language as  $G_5$ , but every string has a unique parse tree
    - $G_4$  is unambiguous whereas  $G_5$  is ambiguous
  - $G_2$  is ambiguous because the following sentence has two different derivations resulting in different parse trees the girl touches the boy with the flower

- ambiguity (cont.)
  - formally, a grammar is ambiguous if there is more than one parse tree for deriving the same string
    - not just more than one derivation
      - derivations may differ only in order of replacements, not structure
      - we can focus on structure by replacing variables in a fixed order
        - •leftmost derivation: replace the leftmost variable in each step of the derivation

A string w is derived *ambiguously* in context-free grammar G if it has two or more different leftmost derivations. Grammar G is *ambiguous* if it generates some string ambiguously.

- ambiguity (cont.)
  - sometimes we can find an unambiguous grammar that generates the same language as an ambiguous one
  - some CFLs can only be generated by ambiguous grammars

- Chomsky normal form
  - convenient to have CFGs in simplified form

A context-free grammar is in *Chomsky normal form* if every rule is of the form

$$A \to BC$$
  
 $A \to a$ 

where a is any terminal and A, B, and C are any variables—except that B and C may not be the start variable. In addition, we permit the rule  $S \to \varepsilon$ , where S is the start variable.

- Chomsky normal form
  - any context-free language is generated by a contextfree grammar in Chomsky normal form
    - proof idea
      - conversion has several stages where rules that violate the conditions are replaced with equivalent ones that fulfill the requirements
        - add a new start variable
        - •eliminate all  $\varepsilon$ -rules of the form  $A \to \varepsilon$
        - •eliminate all unit rules  $A \rightarrow B$
        - convert remaining rules into proper form
        - verify that new grammar generates same language

- Chomsky normal form (cont.)
  - any context-free language is generated by a contextfree grammar in Chomsky normal form
    - proof
      - add a new start variable,  $S_0$  and the rule  $S_0 \rightarrow S$  where S was the original start state
        - •guarantees that the start variable does not appear on the rhs of a rule

- Chomsky normal form (cont.)
  - any context-free language is generated by a contextfree grammar in Chomsky normal form
    - proof
      - eliminate all  $\epsilon$ -rules of the form  $A \to \epsilon$  (where A is not the start variable)
        - wherever A appears on the rhs of a rule, add a new rule with that occurrence deleted
        - if  $R \rightarrow uAv$  is a rule, add rule  $R \rightarrow uv$
        - •add rule for each occurrence of A, so R  $\rightarrow$  uAvAw results in adding R  $\rightarrow$  uvAw, R  $\rightarrow$  uAvw, and R  $\rightarrow$  uvw
        - •if we had  $R \rightarrow A$ , add  $R \rightarrow \epsilon$  unless we already removed that rule
        - •repeat until all ε-rules removed not using start var

- Chomsky normal form (cont.)
  - any context-free language is generated by a contextfree grammar in Chomsky normal form
    - proof
      - remove unit rules  $A \rightarrow B$ 
        - •when a rule B  $\rightarrow$  u appears, add rule A  $\rightarrow$  u unless this unit rule was previously removed
        - repeat until all unit rules removed

- Chomsky normal form (cont.)
  - any context-free language is generated by a contextfree grammar in Chomsky normal form
    - proof
      - convert all remaining rules into proper form
        - •replace rule  $A \rightarrow u_1u_2...u_k$  where  $k \ge 3$  and each  $u_i$  is a variable or terminal symbol with the rules  $A \rightarrow u_1A_1, A_1 \rightarrow u_2A_2, A_2 \rightarrow u_3A_3, ... A_{k-2} \rightarrow u_{k-1}u_k$
        - Ai's are new variables
        - •replace any terminal  $u_i$  in the preceding rule(s) with new variable  $U_i$  and add rule  $U_i \rightarrow u_i$

- example: convert the CFG  $G_6$  into Chomsky normal form
  - 1. add new start state (old on left; new on right)

$$\begin{array}{c} S \rightarrow ASA \mid \mathtt{a}B \\ A \rightarrow B \mid S \\ B \rightarrow \mathtt{b} \mid \varepsilon \end{array}$$

$$S_0 o S$$
  
 $S o ASA \mid aB$   
 $A o B \mid S$   
 $B o b \mid \varepsilon$ 

2. remove  $\epsilon$ -rules:  $B \to \epsilon$  on left,  $A \to \epsilon$  on right

$$S_0 o S$$
  
 $S o ASA \mid aB \mid a$   
 $A o B \mid S \mid \varepsilon$   
 $B o b \mid \varepsilon$ 

$$S_0 o S$$
  $S o ASA \mid aB \mid a$   $S_0 o S$   $S o ASA \mid aB \mid a \mid SA \mid AS \mid S$   $A o B \mid S \mid \varepsilon$   $A o B \mid S \mid \varepsilon$   $A o B \mid S \mid \varepsilon$   $B o b \mid \varepsilon$ 

### Context-Free Grammars

• example: convert the CFG  $G_6$  into Chomsky normal form 3a. remove unit rules:  $S \to S$  on left, and  $S_0 \to S$  on right

3b. remove unit rules:  $A \rightarrow B$  on left, and  $A \rightarrow S$  on right

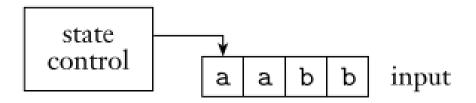
#### Context-Free Grammars

- $\cdot$  example: convert the CFG  $G_6$  into Chomsky normal form
  - 4. convert remaining rules into proper form by adding variables and rules; final grammar is equivalent to  $G_6$ ; final grammar simplified

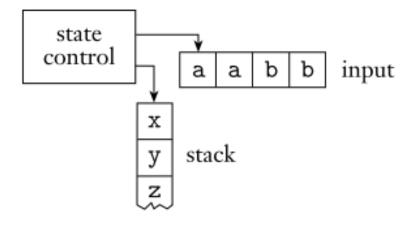
$$S_0 \rightarrow AA_1 \mid UB \mid \mathtt{a} \mid SA \mid AS \\ S \rightarrow AA_1 \mid UB \mid \mathtt{a} \mid SA \mid AS \\ A \rightarrow \mathtt{b} \mid AA_1 \mid UB \mid \mathtt{a} \mid SA \mid AS \\ A_1 \rightarrow SA \\ U \rightarrow \mathtt{a} \\ B \rightarrow \mathtt{b}$$

- pushdown automata (PDA)
  - like NFA, but includes a stack
    - provides additional memory
    - therefore allows PDA to recognize some nonregular languages
  - equivalent to CFGs
    - now we have two options for proving a language is context-free by providing either
      - CFG generating the language
      - PDA recognizing the language
    - some languages are more easily described by generators, while others by recognizers

- schematic of a finite automaton
  - control represents states and transition function
  - tape contains the input string
  - arrow is the input head, which points at the next input symbol to be read



- · schematic of a PDA
  - add a stack to preceding schematic



- PDA can write symbols on the stack and read them back later
  - writing a symbol pushes other symbols on the stack
  - reading a symbol pops it from the stack
  - all access to the stack takes place at the top (LIFO)
    - analogy: cafeteria plate dispenser



- stacks are useful in PDAs
  - hold an unlimited amount of information
  - FAs typically have very little memory
  - example: the language  $\{0^n1^n \mid n \ge 0\}$  cannot be recognized by a FA, but can by a PDA
    - PDA uses its stack to store the number of Os it has seen (can store numbers of unlimited size)
      - push Os on the stack as they are read
      - pop off a O for each 1 that is read
      - if reading is finished exactly when the stack becomes empty, accept
      - if empty while 1s remain, or if 1s are finished and 0s remain on stack, or 0s in input after the 1s, reject

- nondeterministic PDAs
  - not equivalent in power to deterministic PDAs
  - recognize certain languages no deterministic PDA can
  - DFAs and NFAs recognize the same class of languages
    - · so, PDAs are different
  - our focus is on nondeterministic PDAs since they are equivalent in power to CFGs

- PDA formal definition
  - similar to FA, except for the stack
  - stack: device containing symbols from an alphabet
    - · may be different from symbols in input
    - input alphabet: Σ
    - stack alphabet:

- PDA formal definition (cont.)
  - transition function
    - $\Sigma_{\varepsilon} = \Sigma \cup \{\varepsilon\}$
    - $\Gamma_{\varepsilon} = \Gamma \cup \{\varepsilon\}$
    - domain:  $Q \times \Sigma_{\varepsilon} \times \Gamma_{\varepsilon}$
    - current state, next input symbol read, and top symbol of the stack determine the next transition
    - $\bullet$  either symbol may be  $\epsilon$ , causing the machine to move without reading a symbol from the input or from the stack

- PDA formal definition (cont.)
  - transition function
    - what can the automaton do in transitions?
      - enter a new state and write a symbol on the stack
      - $\delta$  can return a member of Q and a member of  $\Gamma_{\epsilon}$
    - domain:  $Q \times \Sigma_{\varepsilon} \times \Gamma_{\varepsilon}$
    - due to nondeterminism, several legal next moves may be possible
      - a set of members from  $Q \times \Gamma_{\epsilon}$  may be returned
      - i.e., a member of  $P(Q \times \Gamma_{\epsilon})$
    - therefore,  $\delta: Q \times \Sigma_{\varepsilon} \times \Gamma_{\varepsilon} \to P(Q \times \Gamma_{\varepsilon})$

PDA formal definition (cont.)

A **pushdown automaton** is a 6-tuple  $(Q, \Sigma, \Gamma, \delta, q_0, F)$ , where  $Q, \Sigma$ ,  $\Gamma$ , and F are all finite sets, and

- **1.** Q is the set of states,
- 2.  $\Sigma$  is the input alphabet,
- **3.**  $\Gamma$  is the stack alphabet,
- **4.**  $\delta: Q \times \Sigma_{\varepsilon} \times \Gamma_{\varepsilon} \longrightarrow \mathcal{P}(Q \times \Gamma_{\varepsilon})$  is the transition function,
- **5.**  $q_0 \in Q$  is the start state, and
- **6.**  $F \subseteq Q$  is the set of accept states.

- PDA formal definition (cont.)
  - a PDA M =  $(Q, \Sigma, \Gamma, \delta, q_0, F)$  computes as follows
    - accepts input w if it can be written as  $w = w_1 w_2 ... w_m \quad \text{where each } w_i \in \Sigma_\epsilon \text{ and sequences of states}$

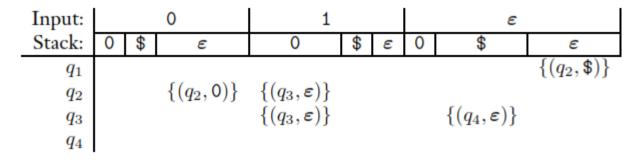
 $r_0, r_1, \dots, r_m \in Q$ 

and strings

 $s_0,s_1,\dots,s_m\in\Gamma$  (sequence of stack contents) exist that satisfy the following three conditions

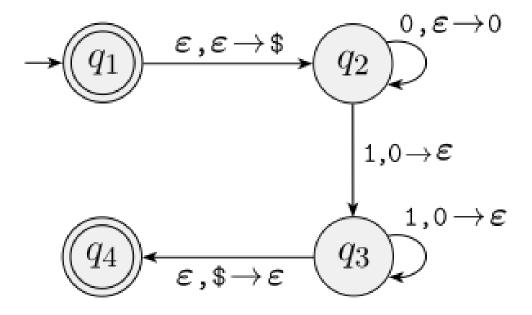
- $r_0 = q_0$  and  $s_0 = \varepsilon$ 
  - i.e., M starts at the start state with an empty stack
- for i = 0,...,m-1,  $(r_{i+1}, b) \in \delta(r_i, w_{i+1}, a)$  where  $s_i$  = at and  $s_{i+1}$  = bt for some  $a,b \in \Gamma_\epsilon$  and  $t \in \Gamma^*$ 
  - i.e., M moves properly according to state, stack, and next input symbol
- $r_m \in F$ 
  - i.e., an accept state occurs at the end of input

- example: PDA that recognizes  $\{0^n1^n \mid n \ge 0\}$ 
  - let  $M_1 = (Q, \Sigma, \Gamma, \delta, q_1, F)$  where
    - Q =  $\{q_1, q_2, q_3, q_4\}$
    - $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$
    - $\cdot \Gamma = \{0, \$\}$
    - $F = \{q_1, q_4\}$
    - $\bullet$   $\delta$  is given by the table where blank entries are  $\varnothing$



- example: PDA that recognizes  $\{0^n1^n \mid n \ge 0\}$ 
  - we can use a state diagram to describe the PDA
    - similar to state diagrams for FA, but modified for stack updates
      - a,b  $\rightarrow$  c means when a is read from input, it may replace b on the top of the stack with c
      - a,b, or c may be ε
        - if  $a = \varepsilon$ , no symbol read from input
        - if  $b = \varepsilon$ , no symbol popped from stack
        - if  $c = \varepsilon$ , no symbol written on stack

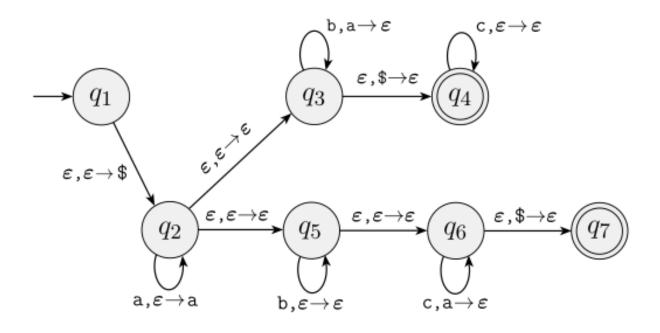
- example: PDA that recognizes  $\{0^n1^n \mid n \ge 0\}$  (cont.)
  - state diagram



- PDA formal definition contains no test for empty stack
  - instead, initially place a \$ on the stack
  - if \$ is seen again, the stack is empty
- PDAs cannot test explicitly for reaching end of input string
  - accept state takes effect only when machine is at end of input
  - thus, we assume that PDAs can check for end of input

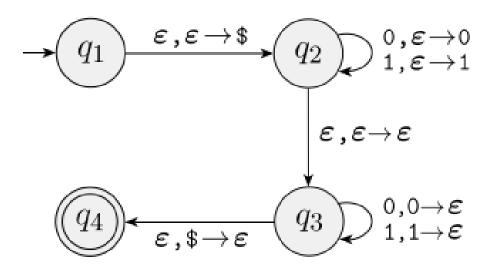
- example: PDA that recognizes  $\{a^ib^jc^k| i,j,k \ge 0 \text{ and } i=j \text{ or } i=k\}$ 
  - first read and push a's
  - now it can match them with the b's or c's
    - but don't know which to match
    - using nondeterminism, PDA can guess whether to match b's or c's
      - · use two branches: one for each possible guess
      - if either matches, that branch accepts

- example: PDA that recognizes  $\{a^ib^jc^k| i,j,k \ge 0 \text{ and } i=j \text{ or } i=k\}$  (cont.)
  - state diagram



- example: PDA  $M_3$  recognizes  $\{ww^R \mid w \in \{0, 1\}^*\}$ 
  - · w<sup>R</sup> means w written backwards
  - begin by pushing read symbols on stack
  - at each point, nondeterministically guess that the middle of the string has been reached
    - change into popping off the stack for each symbol
    - check to see if popped symbol is the same as read symbol
    - if all are the same, and stack empties when input is finished, accept
    - otherwise, reject

- example: PDA  $M_3$  recognizes  $\{ww^R \mid w \in \{0, 1\}^*\}$ 
  - state diagram



- context-free grammars and pushdown automata are equivalent in power
  - both capable of describing class of context-free languages
  - · can convert any CFG into a PDA and vice versa
  - recall that a CFL is any language that can be described with a CFG

- theorem: a language is context-free if and only if some PDA recognizes it
  - · for if and only if, we have to prove in both directions

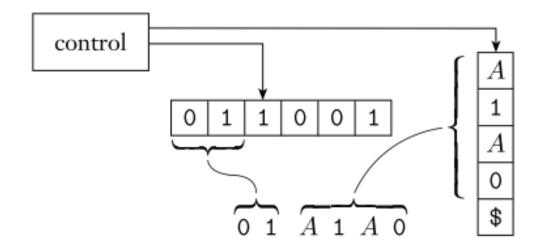
- · lemma: if a language is context-free, a PDA recognizes it
  - proof idea
    - · let A be a CFL
    - therefore, a CFG G generates it
    - convert G into equivalent PDA P
      - P will accept input w if G generates it by determining if there is a derivation for w
        - derivation: a sequence of substitutions made as a grammar generates a string
        - each step yields an intermediate string of variables and terminals
        - •P determines whether some series of substitutions from G can lead from the start variable to w

- · lemma: if a language is context-free, a PDA recognizes it
  - proof idea (cont.)
    - a difficulty in testing if a derivation for w exists is figuring out which substitutions to make
    - PDA's nondeterminism allows it to guess the sequence of correct substitutions
    - for each step, one of the rules for a particular variable is selected nondeterministically for the substitution

- · lemma: if a language is context-free, a PDA recognizes it
  - proof idea (cont.)
    - P begins by writing the start variable on its stack
    - P then goes through intermediate strings, making substitutions
    - if it arrives at a string with only terminal symbols, it has derived a string in the language
    - P accepts this string if it is identical to the one it received as input

- · lemma: if a language is context-free, a PDA recognizes it
  - proof idea (cont.)
    - how does the PDA store the intermediate strings as it goes from one state to another?
      - could just store it on the stack
      - won't work because P needs to find variables to replace and make substitutions
      - PDA can only access the top symbol on the stack, which may just be a terminal
    - · instead, keep only part of the string on the stack
      - the symbols starting with the first variable in the intermediate string
      - any terminals before the first variable are matched immediately with symbols in the input string

- · lemma: if a language is context-free, a PDA recognizes it
  - proof idea (cont.)
    - P representing the intermediate string 01A1A0

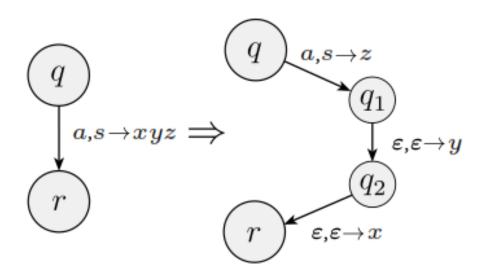


- · lemma: if a language is context-free, a PDA recognizes it
  - proof idea (cont.)
    - informal description of processing in P
      - push marker symbol \$ and start variable on stack
      - repeat the following forever
        - •if the top of the stack is a variable symbol A, nondeterministically select one of the rules for A and substitute with the rhs of the rule
        - •if the top of the stack is a terminal a, read the next symbol from the input and compare it to a; if they match, repeat; otherwise, reject on this branch of nondeterminism
        - •if the top of the stack is \$, enter accept state

- · lemma: if a language is context-free, a PDA recognizes it
  - proof
    - let P = (Q,  $\Sigma$ ,  $\Gamma$ ,  $\delta$ ,  $q_{\text{start}}$ , F)
    - for clarity, use shorthand notation for  $\delta$ 
      - provides a way to write an entire string on the stack in one step
      - simulate by adding states to write the string one symbol at a time
        - ·let q and r be states of the PDA
        - •let  $a \in \Sigma_{\epsilon}$  and  $s \in \Gamma_{\epsilon}$
        - •go from q to r when a is read and s is popped
        - •push string  $u = u_1...u_1$  on stack at the same time

- · lemma: if a language is context-free, a PDA recognizes it
  - proof (cont.)
    - implement by adding new states  $q_1,...q_{l-1}$  and setting the transition function as follows
      - • $\delta(q, a, s)$  to contain  $(q_1, u_1)$
      - $\delta(q_1, \epsilon, \epsilon) = \{(q_2, u_{l-1})\}$
      - • $\delta(q_2, \epsilon, \epsilon) = \{(q_3, u_{l-2})\}$  ...
      - $\bullet \delta(q_{l-1}, \, \varepsilon, \, \varepsilon) = \{(r, \, u_1)\}$
    - $(r, u) \in \delta(q, a, s)$  means when q is the state of the automaton, a is the next input symbol and s is the symbol on top of the stack
    - PDA may read a and pop s, then push u on the stack and go to state r

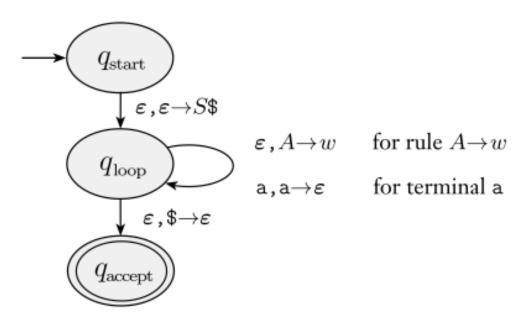
- · lemma: if a language is context-free, a PDA recognizes it
  - proof (cont.)
    - implementing shorthand  $(r, xyz) \in \delta(q, a, s)$



- · lemma: if a language is context-free, a PDA recognizes it
  - proof (cont.)
    - P = (Q,  $\Sigma$ ,  $\Gamma$ ,  $\delta$ ,  $q_{\text{start}}$ , F) where
      - Q =  $\{q_{\text{start}}, q_{\text{loop}}, q_{\text{accept}}\} \cup E$ 
        - ·E is the states needed for implementing shorthand
      - q<sub>start</sub> is the start state
      - $F = \{q_{accept}\}$

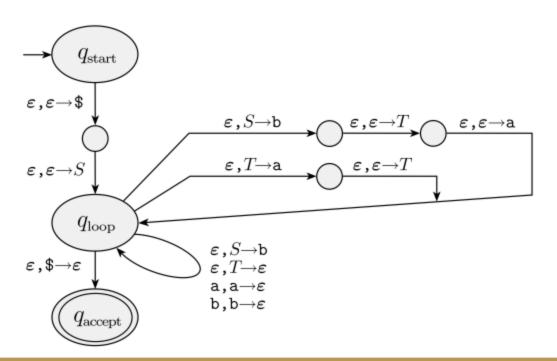
- lemma: if a language is context-free, a PDA recognizes it
  - proof (cont.)
    - P = (Q,  $\Sigma$ ,  $\Gamma$ ,  $\delta$ ,  $q_{\text{start}}$ , F) where
      - $\delta$  is defined as follows
        - • $\delta(q_{\text{start}}, \epsilon, \epsilon) = \{(q_{\text{loop}}, S\$)\}$ 
          - initialize stack to contain \$ and \$, implementing step 1 in the informal description
        - • $\delta(q_{loop}, \epsilon, A) = \{(q_{loop}, w) \mid where A \rightarrow w \text{ is a rule in R}\}$ 
          - the top of the stack contains a variable
        - $\delta(q_{loop}, \alpha, \alpha) = \{(q_{loop}, \epsilon)\}$ 
          - the top of the stack contains a terminal
        - • $\delta(q_{loop}, \epsilon, \$) = \{(q_{accept}, \epsilon)\}$ 
          - empty stack marker \$ is on the top of the stack

- · lemma: if a language is context-free, a PDA recognizes it
  - proof (cont.)
    - state diagram of P



- · lemma: if a language is context-free, a PDA recognizes it
  - $\cdot$  example: use the procedure to construct a PDA P from the following CFG G

$$S \rightarrow aTb \mid b$$
  
 $T \rightarrow Ta \mid \epsilon$ 

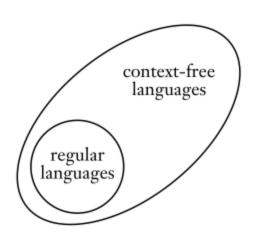


#### Pushdown Automata

- · lemma: if a PDA recognizes a language, it is context-free
  - proof idea
    - harder
    - we have PDA P and want to make CFG G that generates all the strings P accepts
      - or, G should generate a string if it causes the PDA to go from its start state to an accept state

#### Pushdown Automata

- we have shown that PDAs recognize the class of CFLs
  - we can now establish a relationship between the regular languages and the CFLs
  - since every regular language is recognized by a FA and every FA is automatically a PDA that ignores its stack, every regular language must also be a CFL

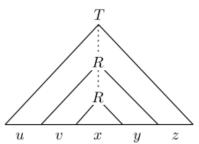


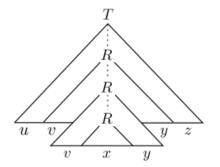
- we want to able to prove that some languages are noncontext-free
  - use pumping lemma for CFLs
    - every CFL has a pumping length such that all longer strings in the language can be pumped
      - string divided into 5 parts
      - 2<sup>nd</sup> and 4<sup>th</sup> parts may be repeated together any number of times with the resulting string in the language

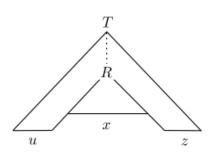
- pumping lemma for CFLs
  - if A is a context-free language, there is a number p
     (the pumping length) where if s is any string in A of
     length at least p, then s may be divided into five pieces,
     s = uvxyz, satisfying the following conditions
    - for each  $i \ge 0$ ,  $uv^i x y^i z \in A$
    - |vy| > 0
    - |vxy| ≤ p
  - condition 2: either v or y is not ε
    - otherwise, theorem trivially true
  - condition 3: max length useful in proving certain languages are not context-free

- pumping lemma for CFLs
  - proof idea
    - let A be a CFL and G be a CFG that generates it
    - show that any sufficiently long string s in A can be pumped and remain in A
    - let s be a very long string in A
    - s is derivable from G and therefore has a parse tree
      - parse tree is very tall because s is very long
      - parse tree contains some long path from the start variable at the root of the tree to one of the terminal symbols at a leaf
      - on this path, some R must repeat due to the pigeonhole principle

- pumping lemma for CFLs
  - · proof idea
    - this repetition allows us to replace the subtree under the second R with the subtree under the first R
    - therefore, we can cut s into 5 pieces uvxyz and repeat the  $2^{nd}$  and  $4^{th}$  pieces to obtain a string in the language





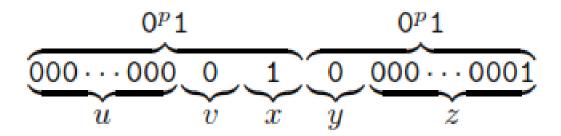


- pumping lemma for CFLs
  - example: use the pumping lemma to show  $B = \{a^nb^nc^n \mid n \ge 0\}$  is not context-free
    - assume B is context-free with pumping length p
    - select string a<sup>p</sup>b<sup>p</sup>c<sup>p</sup>
      - s is a member of B and of length at least p
      - show that no matter how we divide s into uvxyz, one of the three conditions of the lemma is violated
      - condition 2 ensures that either v or y is not  $\epsilon$  consider 2 cases
        - when both v and y contain only one type of symbol, v does not contain both a's and b's or b's and c's, and same for y
          - the string  $uv^2xy^2z$  cannot contain an equal number of a's, b's, and c's
        - · when either v or y contain more than one type of symbol
          - the string  $uv^2xy^2z$  can contain an equal number of a's, b's, and c's, but in the wrong order
      - one of these cases must occur, but both result in a contradiction
      - therefore, B is not a CFL

- pumping lemma for CFLs
  - example: use the pumping lemma to show B =  $\{a^nb^nc^n \mid n \ge 0\}$  is not context-free
    - · example strings to help explain proof
    - select string  $a^pb^pc^p$  if p = 3, string is aaabbbccc
      - since vxy must be <= 3, v and y are</li>
        - both contain one type of symbol: both a's, both b's, or both c's
        - both contain one type of symbol: v is a's and y is b's, or v is b's and y is c's
        - v or y contain more than one type of symbol: v or y straddles a boundary so v
          is a's and y is b's and c's, v is a's and b's and y is b's, v is b's and y is b's and c's,
          or v is b's and c's and y is c's
        - either v or y is  $\epsilon$  and the other is not (won't work because all three need to increase in number, but this will allow only two, at most, to do so)
    - condition 2 ensures that either v or y is not  $\epsilon$  consider 2 cases
      - when both v and y contain only one type of symbol, v does not contain both a's and b's or b's and c's, and same for y
        - -the string  $uv^2xy^2z$  cannot contain an equal number of a's, b's, and c's
          - e.g., v=a, y=b: aaaabbbbccc
      - when either v or y contain more than one type of symbol
        - -the string  $uv^2xy^2z$  can contain an equal number of a's, b's, and c's, but in the wrong order (e.g., v=ab, y=b: aaababbbbccc)

- pumping lemma for CFLs
  - example: show  $C = \{a^i b^j c^k \mid 0 \le i \le j \le k\}$  is not context-free
    - assume C is context-free with pumping length p
    - select string a<sup>p</sup>b<sup>p</sup>c<sup>p</sup>, but must pump down as well as pump up
      - s is a member of C and of length at least p
      - show that no matter how we divide s into uvxyz, one of the three conditions of the lemma is violated
      - condition 2 ensures that either v or y is not  $\epsilon$  consider 2 cases
        - when both v and y contain only one type of symbol, v does not contain both a's and b's or b's and c's, and same for y
          - · one of the symbols does not appear in v or y
          - three subcases
            - a's do not appear: try pumping down to  $uv^0xy^0z = uxz$ 
              - contains same number of a's as s, but fewer b's or fewer c's
            - b's do not appear: try pumping down to  $uv^0xy^0z = uxz$ 
              - either a's or c's must appear in v or y because both can't be  $\epsilon$
              - if a's appear,  $uv^2xy^2z$  has more a's than b's
              - if c's appear, uv<sup>0</sup>xy<sup>0</sup>z has more b's than c's
            - c's do not appear
              - $uv^2xy^2z$  contains more a's or more b's than c's
        - when either v or y contain more than one type of symbol
          - $uv^2xy^2z$  will not contain symbols in the correct order
      - · one of these cases must occur, but all result in a contradiction
      - therefore, C is not a CFL

- pumping lemma for CFLs
  - example: use the pumping lemma to show D =  $\{ww | w \in \{0,1\}^*\}$  is not context-free
    - assume D is context-free with pumping length p
    - select string Op10p1
      - ·s is a member of D and of length at least p
      - · but this string can be pumped



- pumping lemma for CFLs
  - example: use the pumping lemma to show D =  $\{ww \mid w \in \{0,1\}^*\}$  is not context-free
    - assume D is context-free with pumping length p
    - select string Op1pOp1p
      - · s is a member of D and of length at least p
      - by condition 3, |vxy| ≤ p
      - show that no matter how we divide s into uvxyz, one of the three conditions of the lemma is violated
        - •vxy must straddle the midpoint of s; otherwise, pumping s in the first half of the string up to  $uv^2xy^2z$  moves a 1 into the first position of the second half
        - if vxy occurs in the second half of s, uv<sup>2</sup>xy<sup>2</sup>z moves a 0 into the last position of the first half, so no longer in form ww
        - if vxy straddles the midpoint, pumping down to  $uv^0xy^0z$  results in  $O^p1^iO^j1^p$  where i and j can't both be p, hence not ww
      - all cases result in contradiction
      - therefore, D is not a CFL

- properties of CFLs
  - the class of CFLs is closed under
    - union
      - if A and B are context-free, so is  $A \cup B$
    - concatenation
      - if A and B are context-free, so is AB
    - star
      - if A is context-free, so is A\*
    - reverse
      - if A is context-free, so is AR

- properties of CFLs
  - · the class of CFLs is not closed under
    - intersection
      - consider  $A = \{a^nb^nc^m\}$  and  $B = \{a^mb^nc^n\}$
    - complementation
      - note that  $A \cap B = \overline{\overline{A} \cup \overline{B}}$
    - difference
      - note that  $\overline{A} = \Sigma^* A$

- properties of CFLs
  - intersection with a regular language
    - if A is context-free and B is regular, then A  $\cap$  B is context-free
  - difference from a regular language
    - if A is context-free and B is regular, then A B is context-free
    - note that  $A B = A \cap \overline{B}$

- properties of CFLs
  - use the previous properties to prove a language is context-free
  - use the previous properties to prove a language is noncontext-free if it does not pass the closure rules
    - example: prove A is not a CFL where
       A = {w ∈ {a,b,c}\* | w has an equal number of a's, b's, and c's}

```
consider L = a*b*c* (regular)
```

if A is a CFL,  $A \cap L = a^ib^ic^i$  should be a CFL, but it's not

# Deterministic Context-Free Languages

- recall that DFAs and NFAs are equivalent in power
- but nondeterministic PDAs are more powerful than deterministic PDAs
  - certain CFLs cannot be recognized by DPDAs
  - languages that can be recognized by DPDAs are called deterministic context-free languages (DCFLs)
    - useful in parsers for programming languages