

## CS 3100 – Models of Computation – Fall 2011 – Notes for L19

Design a CFG for  $L_1 = \{a^i b^j c^k \mid i, j, k \geq 0, \text{ if } \text{odd}(i) \text{ then } j = k\}$

- Do case analysis at the top level

Cases are:  $i$  is odd and  $i$  is even

- Write down productions for each case, naming *parsing subgoals* through non-terminals

$S \rightarrow \text{Odd Mbc} \mid \text{Even Nbc}$

$\text{Even} \rightarrow \text{epsilon} \mid a a \text{ Even}$

$\text{Odd} \rightarrow a \text{ Even}$

$\text{Mbc} \rightarrow b \text{ Mbc } c \mid \text{epsilon}$

$\text{Nbc} \rightarrow \text{Bs Cs}$

$\text{Bs} \rightarrow b \text{ Bs} \mid \text{epsilon}$

$\text{Cs} \rightarrow c \text{ Cs} \mid \text{epsilon}$

Design a CFG for  $L_2 = \{a^i b^j c^k \mid i, j, k \geq 0, \text{ if } (i = 1) \text{ then } 0 \leq j - k \leq 1\}$

Design a PDA for  $L_1$

Design a PDA for  $L_2$

Direct conversion of CFG to PDA for  $L_1$

Direct conversion of CFG to PDA for  $L_2$

**CFG for**  $L_3 = \{w_11w_2 \mid |w_1| = |w_2|, w_1, w_2 \in \{0, 1\}^*\}$

**CFG for**  $L_{wwc} = \overline{L_{ww}}$  **where**  $L_{ww} = \{ww \mid w \in \{0, 1\}^*\}$

Note that  $L_{ww}$  is not context free! So CFLs are not closed under complementation. They are closed under union. Thus, they can't be closed under intersection.

Show that  $G_1$  below is consistent and complete with respect to language  $L_{eqab} = \{w \mid w \in \{a, b\}^*, \text{ and } \#_a(w) = \#_b(w)\}$

$G_1: S \rightarrow a S b S \mid b S a S \mid \text{epsilon}$

Guess the language  $G_2$  is generating and show it is consistent and complete

$G_2: S \rightarrow ( W S \mid \text{epsilon}$   
 $W \rightarrow ( W W \mid )$

**Simplify the grammar  $G_3$  below, stating the steps**

G3:

S  $\rightarrow$  A B | D  
A  $\rightarrow$  0 A | 1 B | C  
B  $\rightarrow$  2 | 3 | A  
D  $\rightarrow$  A C | B D  
E  $\rightarrow$  0

By bottom-up marking, locate all generating symbols. Eliminate those that are not. A generating non-terminal is one which has at least one production where all the RHS non-terminals are generating. Then through graph-search (BFS or DFS or others) from S, locate those that are generating and reachable. The rest can go.

**Simplify the grammar  $G_4$  below, stating the steps**

G4:

S  $\rightarrow$  A | B  
A  $\rightarrow$  ( W A | ( X C  
B  $\rightarrow$  ( W B | ( X D  
W  $\rightarrow$  ( W W | ( X Y  
X  $\rightarrow$  ( W X | ( X Z  
W  $\rightarrow$  )  
B  $\rightarrow$  epsilon

Purely left-linear, purely right-linear, NFAs: Convert  $G_5$  into an NFA

$G_5$ :

$S \rightarrow 0 A \mid 1 B \mid \text{epsilon}$

$A \rightarrow 1 C \mid 0$

$B \rightarrow 0 C \mid 1$

$C \rightarrow 1 \mid 0 C$

Present the NFA for “second from last is a 1” as a CFG

Mixed left and right linearity *does not guarantee* that things are regular

Example: This is context-free.

$S \rightarrow 0 T \mid \epsilon$

$T \rightarrow S 1$

Reverse the CFG  $G_4$ , presenting the result as a CFG

Note that this approach can be used to render a purely left-linear grammar as a purely right-linear one, and then one can draw the NFA.



Present  $G_6$  as an equivalent regular expression

$S \rightarrow T T$

$T \rightarrow U T \mid U$

$U \rightarrow 0 U \mid 1 U \mid \text{epsilon}$

Can we simplify  $G_7$  as an equivalent regular expression?

$S \rightarrow T T \mid U$

$T \rightarrow 0 T \mid T 0 \mid \#$

$U \rightarrow 0 U 0 0 \mid \#$

Argue the cases underlying this example.

## A Pumping Lemma for CFLs

For example, consider the CFG

$S \rightarrow ( S ) \mid T \mid e$

$T \rightarrow [ T ] \mid T T \mid e.$

Here is an example derivation:

$S \Rightarrow ( S ) \Rightarrow (( \overset{\wedge}{T} )) \Rightarrow (( [ \overset{\wedge}{T} ] )) \Rightarrow (( [ ] ))$

Occurrence-1    Occurrence-2

Occurrence-1 involves Derivation-1:  $T \Rightarrow [ T ] \Rightarrow [ ]$

Occurrence-2 involves Derivation-2:  $T \Rightarrow e$

Here, the second  $T$  arises because we took  $T$  and expanded it into  $[ T ]$  and then to  $[ ]$ . Now, the basic idea is that we can use Derivation-1 used in the first occurrence in place of Derivation-2, to obtain a longer string:

$S \Rightarrow (S) \Rightarrow ((\overset{\wedge}{T})) \Rightarrow (( [ \overset{\wedge}{T} ] )) \Rightarrow (( [ [ T ] ] )) \Rightarrow (( [ [ ] ] ))$

Occurrence-1 Use Derivation-1 here

In the same fashion, we can use Derivation-2 in place of Derivation-1 to obtain a shorter string, as well:

$S \Rightarrow ( S ) \Rightarrow ( ( \overset{\wedge}{T} ) ) \Rightarrow ( ( ) )$

Use Derivation-2 here

When all this happens, we can find a repeating non-terminal that can be pumped up or down. In our present example, it is clear that we can manifest  $(([{}^i]{}^i))$  for  $i \geq 0$  by either applying **Derivation-2** directly, or by applying some number of **Derivation-1**s followed by **Derivation-2**. In order to conveniently capture the conditions mentioned so far, it is good to resort to parse trees. Consider a CFG with  $|V|$  non-terminals, and with the right-hand side of each rule containing at most  $b$  syntactic elements (terminals or non-terminals). Consider a  $b$ -ary tree built up to height  $|V| + 1$ , as shown in Figure 1. The string yielded on the frontier of the tree  $w = uvxyz$ . If there are two such parse trees for  $w$ , pick the one that has the fewest number of nodes. Now, if we avoid having the same non-terminal used in any path from the root to a leaf, basically each path will “enjoy” a growth up to height at most  $|V|$  (recall that the leaves are terminals). The string  $w = uvxyz$  is, in this case, of length at most  $b^{|V|}$ . This implies that *if we force the string to be of length  $b^{|V|+1}$  (called  $p$  hereafter)*, a parse tree for this string will have some path that repeats a non-terminal. Call the higher occurrence  $V_1$  and the lower occurrence (contained within  $V_1$ )  $V_2$ . Pick the lowest two such repeating pair of non-terminals. Now, we have these facts:

- $|vxy| \leq p$ ; if not, we would find two other non-terminals that exist lower in the parse tree than  $V_1$  and  $V_2$ , thus violating the fact that  $V_1$  and  $V_2$  are the lowest two such.
- $|vx| \geq 1$ ; if not, we will in fact have  $w = uxz$ , for which a shorter parse tree exists (namely, the one where we directly employ  $V_2$ ).
- Now, by pumping, we can obtain the desired repetitions of  $v$  and  $y$ , as described in Theorem 0.1.

**Theorem 0.1** *Given any CFG  $G = (N, \Sigma, P, S)$ , there exists a number  $p$  such that given a string  $w$  in  $L(G)$  such that  $|w| \geq p$ , we can split  $w$  into  $w = uvxyz$  such that  $|vy| > 0$ ,  $|vxy| \leq p$ , and for every  $i \geq 0$ ,  $uw^i xy^i z \in L(G)$ .*

We can apply this Pumping Lemma for CFGs in the same manner as we did for regular sets. For example, let us sketch that  $L_{ww}$  of page ?? is not context-free.

**Illustration 0.1** Suppose  $L_{ww}$  were a CFL. Then the CFL Pumping Lemma would apply. Let  $p$  be the pumping length associated with a CFG of this language. Consider the string  $0^p 1^p 0^p 1^p$  which is in  $L_{ww}$ . The segments  $v$  and  $y$  of the Pumping Lemma are contained within the first  $0^p 1^p$  block, in the middle  $1^p 0^p$  block or in the last  $0^p 1^p$  block, and in each of these cases, it could also have fallen entirely within a  $0^p$  block or a  $1^p$  block. By pumping up or down, we will then obtain a string that is not within  $L_{ww}$ .

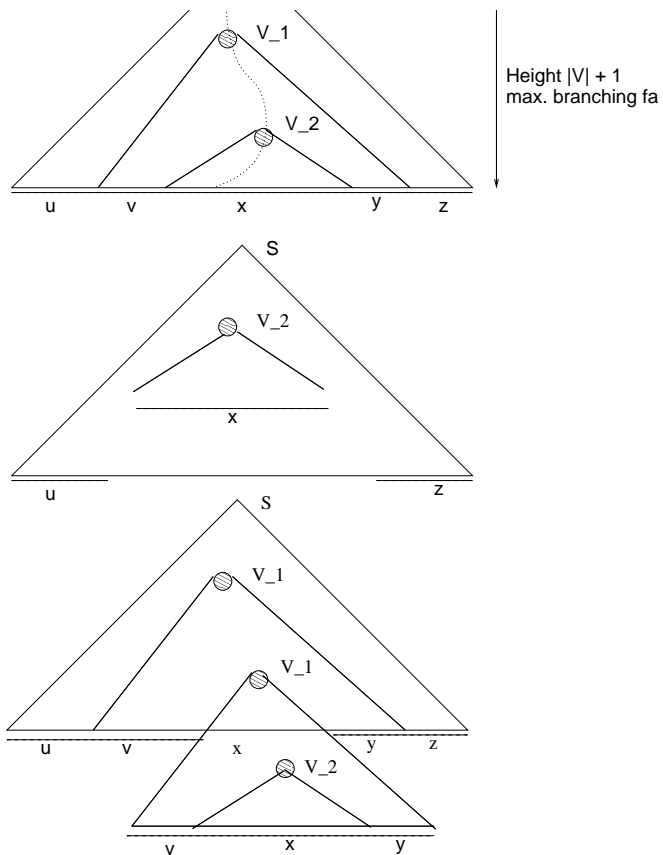


Figure 1: Depiction of a parse tree for the CFL Pumping Lemma. The upper drawing shows a very long path that repeats a non-terminal, with the lowest two repetitions occurring at  $V_2$  and  $V_1$  (similar to **Occurrence-1** and **Occurrence-2** as in the text). With respect to this drawing: (i) the middle drawing indicates what happens if the derivation for  $V_2$  is applied in lieu of that of  $V_1$ , and (ii) the bottom drawing depicts what happens if the derivation for  $V_2$  is replaced by that for  $V_1$ , which, in turn, contains a derivation for  $V_2$

## If-then-else Ambiguity

An important practical example of ambiguity arises in the context of grammars pertaining to `if` statements, as illustrated below:

```
STMT ->  if EXPR then STMT
         | if EXPR then STMT else STMT
         | OTHER

OTHER -> p

EXPR  -> q
```

The reason for ambiguity is that the `else` clause can match either of the *then* clauses. Compiler writers avoid the above if-then-else ambiguity by modifying the above grammar in such a way that the `else` matches with the closest unmatched `then`. One example of such a rewritten grammar is the following:

```
STMT ->  MATCHED | UNMATCHED

MATCHED -> if EXPR then MATCHED else MATCHED | OTHER

UNMATCHED -> if EXPR then STMT
            | if EXPR then MATCHED else UNMATCHED

OTHER -> p

EXPR  -> q
```

This forces the `else` to go with the closest previous unmatched `then`.

An example of an inherently ambiguous language is

$$\{0^i 1^j 2^k \mid i, j, k \geq 0 \wedge i = j \vee j = k\}.$$

Machines	Languages	Nature of grammar
DFA/NFA	Regular	Left-linear or Right-linear productions
DPDA	Deterministic CFL	Each LHS has one non-terminal The productions are deterministic
NPDA (or "PDA")	CFL	Each LHS has only one non-terminal
LBA	Context Sensitive Languages	LHS may have length $> 1$ , but $ LHS  \leq  RHS $ , ignoring $\varepsilon$ productions
DTM/NDTM	Recursively Enumerable	General grammars ( $ LHS  \geq  RHS $ allowed)

Figure 2: The Chomsky hierarchy and allied notions