Introduction to Formal Language Theory

Course outline

Chapter 1: Basics

Set theory

Relations & functions

Mathematical induction

Graphs & trees

Strings & languages

Chapter 2: Introduction to grammars

Chapter 3: Regular languages

Regular grammar

Automata

Regular expressions

Chapter 4 : Context Free Languages

Context free grammars

Normal forms

Chapter 5: Push Down Automata (PDA)

NPDA

DPDA

Basics: outline

- Overview of languages: natural vs formal
- Review of set theory and relations
 - Set theory
 - Relations and functions
- Mathematical induction
- Graphs and trees
- Strings and languages

Overview of languages: natural Vs formal

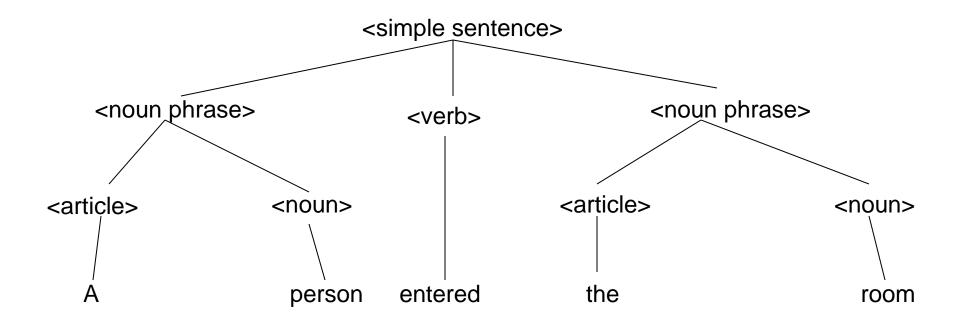
- Language is a set of strings or sentences.
- Natural Languages
 - rules come after the language
 - evolve and develop
 - highly flexible
 - quite powerful
 - no special learning effort needed
 - Disadvantages
 - vague
 - imprecise
 - ambiguous
 - user and context dependent
 - Ex. Amharic, English, French, ...

- Formal Languages
 - developed with strict rules
 - predefined syntax and semantics
 - precise
 - unambiguous
 - →can be processed by machines!
 - Disadvantages
 - unfamiliar notation
 - initial learning effort
 - Ex. Programming languages: Pascal, C++, ...

- Sentences: the basic building blocks of languages
- Sentence = Syntax + Semantics
- Grammar: the study of the structure of a sentence
- Ex:

```
<simple sentence> ::= <noun phrase><verb><noun phrase>
<noun phrase> ::= <article><noun>
```

→A person entered the room



Derivation tree for the simple sentence: A person entered the room.

In Pascal (as well as in many other languages), for example, an identifier is specified as follows:

```
<identifier> ::= <letter> | <letter> {<letter> | <digit>}* <letter> ::= a | b| c ... <digit> ::= 0 | 1| 2 | ... | 9
```

Ex. a, x1, num, count1, ...

Review of set theory and relations

- Sets
 - A well defined collection of objects (called members or elements)
 - \square Notation: a \in S \rightarrow a is an element of the set S
- Operation on sets

Let A and B be two sets and U the universal set

- Subset: A C B
- Proper subset: A c B
- □ Equality: A = B
- Union: A U B
- □ Intersection: A ∩ B
- □ Set difference: A \ B or A B
- Complement: A' or A bar
- □ Cartesian product: A X B = {(a,b) | a € A and b € B}

Note: (a,b) is called an **ordered pair**, and is different from (b,a)

Set theory and relations: cont'd

Properties

Let A, B, C be sets and U the universal set

- Associative property: A U (B U C) = (A U B) U C
- Commutative property: A U B = B U A
- □ Demorgan's laws: (A U B)' = A' ∩ B', ...
- □ Involution law: (A')' = A

Definitions:

- Let A be a set. The cardinality of a set A is a measure of the "number of elements of the set" and denoted by |A| or #(A).
- The set of all subsets of a set A is called the power set of A, denoted by 2^{A.}

Set theory and relations: cont'd

Definition:

Let S be a set. A collection $\{A_1, A_2, ..., A_n\}$ of subsets of S is called a partition if $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$, $i \neq j$ and $S = A_1 \cup A_2 \cup ... \cup A_n$.

Ex.
$$S = \{1, 2, ..., 10\}$$

Let $A_1 = \{1, 3, 5, 7, 9\}$ and $A_2 = \{2, 4, 6, 8, 10\}$, then $\{A_1, A_2\} = \{\{1, 3, 5, 7, 9\}, \{2, 4, 6, 8, 10\}\}$ is a partition of S.

Q. Find other partitions of S

Countability

- A finite set is countable
- If the elements of set A can be associated with 1st,2nd, ..., ith, ... elements of the set of Natural Numbers, then A is countable.

Note: that in this case A may not be finite.

Ex.

- 1. N = {1, 2, ..., ith, ...} is countable
- 2. $Z = \{..., -3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, ...\} = \{0, 1, -1, 2, -2, 3, -3, ...\}$ is countable
- 3. [0, 3] is uncountable (not countable)

Relations and functions

Relations

- <u>Definition</u>: A relation R is a set of ordered pairs of elements in S. (i.e is a subset of S X S)
 - Notation: $(x, y) \in R$ or x R y
- Properties of relations
 - Let R be a relation on a set A, then
 - a. R is **reflexive** if for all a E A, a R a or (a, a) E R
 - b. R is **symmetric** if a R b => b R a
 - c. R is **transitive** if a R b and b R c => a R c, for all a, b, c E R
 - d. R is an **equivalence relation** if (a), (b) and (c) above hold.
 - Let R be an equivalence relation on set A and let a C A, then the equivalence class of a, denoted by [a], is defined as:

$$[a] = \{b \in A \mid a \in B\}$$

Relations and functions: cont'd

Examples:

Check whether the following relations are reflexive, symmetric, and transitive

- Let R be a relation in {1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6} is given by {(1,2), (2, 3), (3, 4), (4, 4), (4, 5)}
- 2. Let R be a relation in {1, 2, 3, ..., 10} defined as a R b if a divides b
- 3. Let R be defined on a set S such that aRb if a=b
- Let R be defined on all people in Addis Ababa by aRb if a and b have the same date of birth.

Relations and functions: cont'd

Functions

- Definition: A function f from a set X to a set Y is a rule that associates to every element x in X a unique element in Y, which is denoted by f(x).
 - The element f(x) is called the image of x under f.
 - The function is denoted by f: X → Y
- Functions can be defined in the following two ways:
 - 1. By giving the images of all elements of X Ex. $f:\{1, 2, 3, 4\} \rightarrow \{2, 4, 6\}$ can be defined by f(1) = 2, f(2) = 4, f(3) = 6, f(4) = 6
 - By a computational rule which computes f(x) once x is given Ex. $f:R \rightarrow R$ can be defined by $f(x) = x^2 + 2x + 1$, $x \in R$ (R = the set of all real numbers)

Relations and functions: cont'd

- Let f: A → B be a function
 - f is an **into** function if R_f C B
 - _{2.} f is an **onto** function if $R_f = B$
 - f is a **one-to-one** function if for $x_1 \& x_2 \in A$, $x_1 \neq x_2 => f(x_1) \neq f(x_2)$
 - f is bijective (one-to-one correspondence) if it satisfies (2) and (3) above.

Ex. $f:Z \rightarrow Z$ is given by f(x) = 2xShow that f is one-to-one but not onto.

Definition: A set A is said to be countable iff there exists a function f:A → N such that f is bijective. (N=the set of natural numbers)

Mathematical induction

- Let P_n be a proposition that depends on $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$. Then P_n is true for all +ve n provided that:
 - i. P_i is true
 - If P_k is true, so is P_{k+1} , for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$.

Three steps:

- Base case: verify that P₁ holds
- Inductive hypothesis: assume that P_k holds, for some kEZ⁺
- Inductive step: show that P_{k+1} holds
- Ex. Show that 1+2+...+n = n(n+1)/2, for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$.

Mathematical induction: cont'd

Solution:

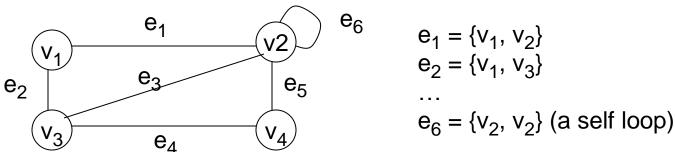
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Let P_n: 1+2+...+n = n(n+1)/2
Step1: for n = 1, P_1 holds
Step2: for some kEZ^+, assume P_k is true
i.e. P_k: 1+2+...+k = k(k+1)/2
Step3: WTS P_{k+1} is true
     P_{k+1}: 1+2+...+k+(k+1) = (k+1)(k+2)/2
             P_{k} + (k+1) = (k+1)(k+2)/2
             k(k+1)/2 + (k+1) = (k+1)(k+2)/2
             [k(k+1) + 2(k+2)]/2 = (k+1)(k+2)/2
             (k+1)(k+2)/2 = (k+1)(k+2)/2
Therefore, Pn holds for all n EZ+
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Ex. Show that $Pn = \sum (i=1,n)(i^2) = (n+1)(n)(2n+1)/6$ for all n

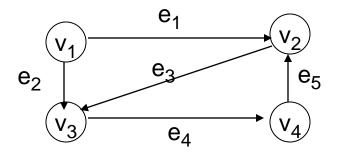
Graphs and trees

Graphs

- Definition: A graph (undirected graph) consists of:
 - A non-empty set v called the set of vertices,
 - A set E called the set of edges, and
 - с. A map Ф (phi) which assigns to every edge a unique unordered pair of vertices



- Definition: A directed graph (digraph) consists of:
 - A non-empty set v called the set of vertices,
 - A set E called the set of edges, and
 - A map Ф (phi) which assigns to every edge a unique ordered pair of vertices



 $e_1 = (v_1, v_2)$

v₁: a predecessor of v₂

v₂: a successor of v₁

Definition: The degree of a vertex v in a graph (directed or undirected) is the number of edges with v as an end vertex.
 Note: that a self loop is counted twice when calculating the degree of a vertex.

Ex. In the previous graph, $deg(v_1) = ? deg(v_2) = ?$

Definition: A path in a graph (directed or undirected) is an alternating sequence of vertices and edges of the form v₁e₁v₂e₂...e_{n-1}v_n, beginning and ending with vertices such that e_i has v_i and v_{i+1} as its end vertices and no edge or vertex is repeated in the sequence.

The path is said to be from v_1 to v_n .

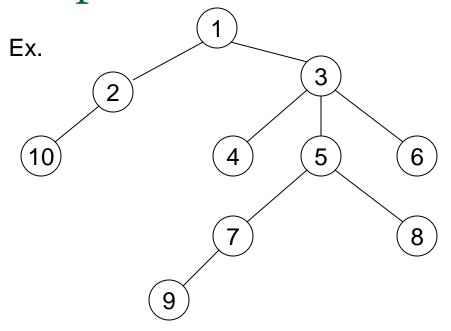
Ex. In the previous graph, $v_1e_1v_2e_3v_3e_4v_4$ is a path from v_1 to v_4 . Note: that a path may be directed (if all the edges in the path have the same direction.)

- Definition: A graph (directed or undirected) is connected if there is a path between every pair of vertices.
 - Q. Are the previous two graphs connected?
- Definition: A circuit in a graph is an alternating sequence v₁e₁v₂e₂...e_{n-1}v₁ of vertices and edges starting and ending with the same vertex such that e_i has v_i and v_{i+1} as end vertices and no edge or vertex other than v₁ is repeated.
 - Ex. $V_2e_3v_3e_4v_4e_5v_2$ is a circuit in the previous graph

Trees

- Definition: A graph (directed or undirected) is called a tree if it is connected and has no circuits.
 - Q. Are the previous two graphs trees?
- Properties of trees:
 - In a tree there is one and only one path between every pair of vertices (nodes)
 - A tree with n vertices has n-1 edges
 - A leaf in a tree can be defined as a vertex of degree one
 - Vertices other than leaves are called internal vertices

- Definition: An ordered directed tree is a digraph satisfying the following conditions:
 - There is one vertex called the **root** of the tree which is distinguished from all other vertices and the root has no predecessors.
 - There is a directed path from the root to every other vertex.
 - Every vertex except the root has exactly one predecessor.
 (For the sake of simplicity, we refer to ordered directed trees as simply trees.)
- The number of edges in a path is called the length of the path.
- The height of a tree is the length of the longest path from the root.
- A vertex v in a tree is at level k if there is a path of length k from the root to the vertex v.
 - Q. what is the maximum possible level in a tree?
- There are several types of trees: binary, balanced binary, binary search tree, heap, general tree, ...



- 1. List the leaves.
- 2. List the internal nodes.
- 3. What is the length of the path from 1 to 9?
- 4. What is the height of the tree?

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Note: a path from vertex (node) n₁ to node n_k can be simply expressed as the sequence of nodes n_i, i=1,...,k such that n_i is the parent (predecessor) of n_{i+1} (1<= I <=k)

Strings and languages

Strings

- \square An alphabet, Σ , is a set of finite symbols.
- \square A string over an alphabet Σ is a sequence of symbols from Σ .
- \Box An empty string is a string without symbols, and is denoted by λ .
- Let w be a string, then its length, denoted by /w/, is the number of symbols of w.
- Ex. Let $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$, the following are some strings over $\Sigma = \lambda$, $w = \lambda$, w = 0; w = 01, w = 2; w = 010110, w = 6
- Given an alphabet \sum , \sum^* denotes the set of all strings (including λ) over \sum .
- Ex. $\Sigma = \{0, 1\} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \{\lambda, 0, 1, 01, 00, 11, 111, 0101, 0000, \ldots\}$
- \Box \sum^{i} is a set of strings of length i, i = 0, 1, 2, ...
- □ Let $x \in \sum^{*}$ and /x/ = n, then $x = a_1 a_2 ... a_n$, $a_i \in \sum$

Operations on strings

- Concatenation operation
 - □ Let x, y $\in \sum^*$ and /x/ = n and /y/ = m. Then xy, concatenation of x and y, = $a_1a_2...a_nb_1b_2...b_m$, a_i , $b_i \in \sum$
 - □ The set \sum^* has an identity element λ with respect to the binary operation of concatenation.

Ex.
$$x \in \sum^{*}$$
, $x\lambda = \lambda x = x$

 \Box Σ * has left and right cancellation

For x, y,
$$z \in \sum^*$$
,

$$zx = zy => x = y$$
 (left cancellation)

$$xz = yz => x = y$$
 (right cancellation)

□ For x, y $\in \sum^*$, we have /xy/ = /x/ + /y/

- Transpose operation
 - □ For any x in \sum^{*} and a in \sum , $(xa)^{T} = a(x)^{T}$ Ex. $(aaabab)^{T} = babaaa$
 - □ A **palindrome** of even length can be obtained by the concatenation of a string and its transpose.
 - □ A **prefix** of a string is a substring of leading symbols of that string.
 - w is a prefix of y if there exists y' in \sum^* such that y=wy' Ex. y = 123, list all prefixes of y.
 - A **suffix** of a string is a substring of trailing symbols of that string.
 - w is a prefix of y if there exists y' in \sum^* such that y=y'w Ex. y = 123, list all suffixes of y.

- A terminal symbol is a unique indivisible object used in the generation of strings.
- A nonterminal symbol is a unique object but divisible, used in the generation of strings.
 Ex. In English, a, b, A, B, etc are terminals and the words boy, cat, dog, ... are nonterminals.
 In programming languages, a, A, :, ;, =, if, then, ... are terminals

Languages

- □ <u>Definition</u>: A language, L, is a set (collection) of strings over a given alphabet, ∑.
 - A string in L is called a sentence or word.

Ex.
$$\Sigma = \{0, 1\}, \ \Sigma^* = \{\lambda, 0, 1, 01, 00, 11, ...\}$$

L₁ = $\{\lambda\}, \ L_2 = \{0, 1, 01\} \text{ over } \Sigma$
L₃ = $\{a^n \mid n \ge 0\} \text{ over } \Sigma = \{a\}$

- □ Let L_1 , L_2 be languages over \sum , then
 - $L_1L_2 = \{xy \mid x \in L_1, y \in L_2\}$
 - L{λ} = {λ}L = L, for any language L

 - $L^1 = L$
 - $L^2 = LL \equiv \{xx \mid x \in L\}$
 - · ...
 - $L^{i} = L^{i}L^{i-1}$, for i > 2
 - $L^* = U(i=0,\infty)(L^i)$