# University of Houston

# Notes

# ${\color{red}{\rm COSC~3340}}$ Intro. to Automata and Computability

Ernst Leiss

Khalid Hourani

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# 1 Formal Languages

# 1.1 Regular Languages

#### 1.1.1 Introduction

**Definition 1.1.1.** An **Alphabet** is a finite, non-empty set of atomic symbols.

**Definition 1.1.2.** A word or string is any finite sequence of symbols from an alphabet.

**Definition 1.1.3.** The **length** of a string, s, denoted |s|, is the number of symbols in s.

**Definition 1.1.4.** Given strings  $s = s_1 s_2 \dots s_n$  and  $t = t_1 t_2 \dots t_m$ , their **concatenation** is defined

$$s \cdot t = s_1 s_2 \cdots s_n t_1 t_2 \cdots t_m$$

We denote by  $\varepsilon$  the **empty string**, the unique string of 0 characters.

**Definition 1.1.5.** Let A be any alphabet. The **Kleene Closure** of A, denoted  $A^*$ , is the set of all strings of any length over A.

**Theorem 1.1.1.** Let A be any finite set. Then  $A^*$  is countably infinite.

*Proof.* That  $A^*$  is infinite is straightforward: since A is non-empty, take  $a \in A$ . Then

$$\{a, aa, aaa, \ldots\} \subseteq A^*$$

To see that it is countable, we first write |A| = n. Now, consider the set of all strings of length 0. This is simply  $\{\varepsilon\}$ . Moreover, there are n strings of length 1,  $n^2$  strings of length 2,  $n^3$  strings of length 3, and so on. Thus, we map  $\varepsilon$  to 0, the strings of length 1 to  $1, 2, \ldots, n$ , the strings of length 2 to  $n+1, n+2, \ldots, n+n^2$ , the strings of length 3 to  $n+n^2+1, n+n^2+2, \ldots, n+n^2+n^3$ , and so on. This is a bijection from  $A^*$  to  $\mathbb{N}$ , which completes the proof.

**Definition 1.1.6.** Given an alphabet A, a **formal language** or simply **language** L is any subset of  $A^*$ .

**Theorem 1.1.2.** Given an alphabet A, the set of languages over A is uncountable.

*Proof.* Suppose, by way of contradiction, that the set of languages were countable, i.e., that we can enumerate the set as  $\{L_1, L_2, L_3, \ldots\}$ . Consider the set of all strings  $\{s_1, s_2, s_3, \ldots\}$ . Let L be the language defined as follows:

$$s_i \in L$$
 if and only if  $s_i \notin L_i$ 

To see that L is not in the above list, consider  $s_i$ . If  $s_i$  is in L, then  $s_i$  is not in  $L_i$ , by construction, and  $L \neq L_i$ . Similarly, if  $s_i$  is not in L, then  $s_i$  must be in  $L_i$ , by construction, and  $L \neq L_i$ . In other words, for all  $i, L \neq L_i$ . Then L is not in the above list, which is a contradiction. Hence, the set of languages is uncountable.

All set operations, such as union, intersection, complement, set-difference, etc. can be applied to languages, since languages are simply subsets of a Kleene Closure of an alphabet.

**Definition 1.1.7.** Given two languages  $L_1$  and  $L_2$ , the concatenation  $L_1 \cdot L_2$  is given by

$$L_1 \cdot L_2 = \{ s \cdot t | s \in L_1 \text{ and } t \in L_2 \}$$

Clearly, we have

$$L \cdot \emptyset = \emptyset = \emptyset \cdot L$$
$$L \cdot \{\varepsilon\} = L = \{\varepsilon\} \cdot L$$

Note that  $L_1 \cdot L_2$  is not the same as  $L_1 \times L_2$ . Let  $L_1 = L_2 = \{\varepsilon, 0, 00\}$ . Then

$$L_1 \times L_2 = \{(\varepsilon, \varepsilon), (\varepsilon, 0), (\varepsilon, 00), (0, \varepsilon), (0, 0), (0, 00), (00, \varepsilon), (00, 0), (00, 00)\}$$

whereas

$$L_1 \cdot L_2 = \{\varepsilon, 0, 00, 000, 0000\}$$

**Definition 1.1.8.** Given a language L, the Kleene Closure of L,  $L^*$ , is

$$L^* = \bigcup_{i=0}^{\infty} L^i$$

where

$$L^{i} = \begin{cases} \{\varepsilon\} & \text{if } i = 0 \\ L \cdot L^{i-1} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Note that, while  $0^0$  is normally left undefined, we define  $\emptyset^0 = \{\varepsilon\}$ .

**Theorem 1.1.3.**  $L^*$  is finite if and only if  $L = \emptyset$  or  $L = \{\varepsilon\}$ .

*Proof.* If  $L = \emptyset$ , then  $L^i = \emptyset^i = \emptyset$  for i > 0. Then

$$\begin{split} \emptyset^* &= \bigcup_{i=0}^\infty \emptyset^i \\ &= \emptyset^0 \cup \bigcup_{i=1}^\infty \emptyset^i \\ &= \{\varepsilon\} \cup \bigcup_{i=1}^\infty \emptyset \\ &= \{\varepsilon\} \end{split}$$

Similarly, if  $L = \{\varepsilon\}$ , then  $L^i = \{\varepsilon\}$  for all i, and

$$\{\varepsilon\}^* = \bigcup_{i=0}^{\infty} \{\varepsilon\}^i$$
$$= \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} \{\varepsilon\}$$
$$= \{\varepsilon\}$$

However, if L is neither  $\emptyset$  nor  $\{\varepsilon\}$ , then there exists a string  $s \in L$  with length at least 1. Then  $s, ss, sss, \ldots$ , are in  $L^*$ , hence  $L^*$  is infinite.

#### 1.1.2 Finite Automata

**Definition 1.1.9.** A **Deterministic Finite-State Automata** (DFA) or **Finite-State Machine** is a quintuple  $(A, Q, \tau, q_0, \mathcal{F})$  where

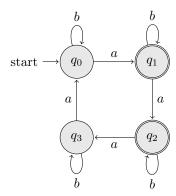
A is the alphabet Q is a finite, non-empty set of states  $\tau: Q \times A \to Q$  is the transition function  $q_0$  is the initial state  $\mathcal{F} \subseteq Q$  is the set of final states

We can extend  $\tau$  as follows:

$$\tau^*:Q\times A^*\to Q$$

$$\tau^*(q, s) = \begin{cases} q & \text{if } s = \varepsilon \\ \tau^*(\tau(q, s_0), s') & \text{if } s = s_0 \cdot s' \end{cases}$$

We proceed informally and use  $\tau$  to refer to  $\tau^*$ . Consider the following DFA:



The figure indicates that we begin at state  $q_0$ . The double-circles for states  $q_1$  and  $q_2$  indicate that they are accepting or final states. An arrow indicates the state to move to after receiving an input. For example, if we receive the input string abba, we begin at state  $q_0$  and receive a, so we move to state  $q_1$ . We then receive b and stay in  $q_1$ . We repeat this for the next symbol, b, and then move to  $q_2$  upon receiving the final a. Since  $q_2$  is a final state, we say that this DFA **accepts** the string abba.

We can represent the above DFA using a table, as follows:

	a	b	
$\rightarrow q_0$	$q_1$	$q_0$	0
$q_1$	$q_2$	$q_1$	1
$q_2$	$q_3$	$q_2$	1
$q_3$	$q_0$	$q_3$	0

The first column indicates the states, while the first row indicates the symbols. The final column indicates whether a state is accepting: 0 refers to a non-final state, 1 to a final state. The remaining values indicate the transition function  $\tau$ , e.g.  $\tau(q_0, a) = q_1$ , indicated by the entry corresponding to row  $q_0$  and column a. Finally, the arrow pointing to  $q_0$  indicates that it is the starting position.

**Definition 1.1.10.** Let  $D \in \mathcal{D}$  be some DFA. Then L(D), the language accepted by the DFA, is

$$\{s \in A^* | \tau(q_0, s) \in \mathcal{F}\}$$

**Definition 1.1.11.** A language is **regular** if and only if there exists a DFA that accepts it.

Definition 1.1.12. A Non-Deterministic Finite-State Automata (NFA) is a quintuple

$$(A, Q, \tau, q_0, \mathcal{F})$$

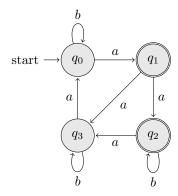
where

A is the alphabet Q is a finite, non-empty set of states  $\tau: Q \times A \to 2^Q$  is the transition function  $q_0$  is the initial state  $\mathcal{F} \subseteq Q$  is the set of final states

We can extend  $\tau$  as follows:  $\tau^*: 2^Q \times A^* \to 2^Q$ 

$$\tau^*(P, s) = \begin{cases} P & \text{if } s = \varepsilon \\ \tau^* \left( \bigcup_{q \in P} \tau(q, s_0), s' \right) & \text{if } s = s_0 \cdot s' \end{cases}$$

We proceed informally and use  $\tau$  to refer to  $\tau^*$ . Consider the following NFA:



The diagrams for an NFA and DFA follow the same notation. However, the notation for the table differs slightly:

	a	b	
$\rightarrow q_0$	$q_1$	$q_0$	0
$q_1$	$q_2q_3$	Ø	1
$q_2$	$q_3$	$q_2$	1
$q_3$	$q_0$	$q_3$	0

The values of the transition function are now sets. We informally refer to the set  $\{q_0\}$  by  $q_0$ , and similarly the set  $\{q_2, q_3\}$  by  $q_2q_3$ . In some cases, to avoid ambiguity, we will use commas, e.g. we may represent  $\{q_2, q_3\}$  as  $q_2, q_3$ . We similarly say, given a string s, if there exists a path through an NFA that ends in a final state, we say that the NFA **accepts** s.

Similarly, we define the set of languages accepted by an NFA N, L(N), as

$$L(N) = \{ s \in A^* | \tau(q_0, s) \cap \mathcal{F} \neq \emptyset \}$$

It should be clear that each DFA is an NFA, but the reverse is not true. However, we can convert an NFA to a DFA on the powerset  $2^{\mathcal{Q}}$  by using the **subset construction**: begin with the initial state and traverse the NFA, adding unseen states to the left-most column until all paths have been exhausted. For example, with our NFA above, we begin with:

 $q_0$  has already been seen, so we ignore it.  $q_1$  is new, so we add it to the table:

$$\begin{array}{cccc}
 & a & b \\
 & \rightarrow q_0 & q_1 & q_0 \\
 & q_1 & & & \\
\end{array}$$

We now visit the corresponding states of  $q_1$ , which are  $q_2q_3$  and  $\emptyset$ , both of which have not yet been visited.

$$\begin{array}{c|cccc} & a & b \\ \hline \rightarrow q_0 & q_1 & q_0 \\ q_1 & q_2q_3 & \emptyset \\ q_2q_3 & \emptyset & \end{array}$$

When  $q_2$  receives a, it transitions to state  $q_3$ . When  $q_3$  receives a, it transitions to state  $q_0$ , so  $q_2q_3$  transitions to  $q_0q_3$ . Similarly,  $q_2q_3$  transitions to state  $q_2q_3$  when it receives b.

$$\begin{array}{c|cccc} & a & b \\ \hline \rightarrow q_0 & q_1 & q_0 \\ q_1 & q_2q_3 & \emptyset \\ q_2q_3 & q_0q_3 & q_2q_3 \\ \emptyset & & & \end{array}$$

The empty set transitions to the empty set, by definition.

	a	b	
$\rightarrow q_0$	$q_1$	$q_0$	
$q_1$	$q_2q_3$	Ø	
$q_2q_3$	$q_0q_3$	$q_2q_3$	
Ø	Ø	Ø	

 $q_0q_3$  has not yet been visited, so we add it to the left-most column:

	a	b	
$\rightarrow q_0$	$q_1$	$q_0$	
$q_1$	$q_2q_3$	Ø	
$q_{2}q_{3}$	$q_0q_3$	$q_2q_3$	
Ø	Ø	Ø	
$q_0q_3$			

Then we visit its corresponding states:

	a	b	
$\rightarrow q_0$	$q_1$	$q_0$	
$q_1$	$q_2q_3$	Ø	
$q_2q_3$	$q_0q_3$	$q_2q_3$	
Ø	Ø	Ø	
$q_0q_3$	$q_0q_1$	$q_0q_3$	

Continuing, we end with the following DFA:

	a	b	
$\rightarrow q_0$	$q_1$	$q_0$	
$q_1$	$q_2q_3$	Ø	
$q_2q_3$	$q_0q_3$	$q_2q_3$	
Ø	Ø	Ø	
$q_0q_3$	$q_0q_1$	$q_0q_3$	
$q_0q_1$	$q_1q_2q_3$	$q_0$	
$q_1 q_2 q_3$	$q_0q_2q_3$	$q_2q_3$	
$q_0q_2q_3$	$q_0q_1q_3$	$q_0 q_2 q_3$	
$q_0q_1q_3$	$q_0q_1q_2q_3$	$q_0q_3$	
$q_0q_1q_2q_3$	$q_0q_1q_2q_3$	$q_0 q_2 q_3$	

However, we need to include the accepting states. The accepting states of the NFA are  $q_1$  and  $q_2$ , and thus any state including either state is accepting:

	a	b	
$\rightarrow q_0$	$q_1$	$q_0$	0
$q_1$	$q_2q_3$	Ø	1
$q_2q_3$	$q_0q_3$	$q_2q_3$	1
Ø	Ø	Ø	0
$q_0q_3$	$q_0q_1$	$q_0q_3$	0
$q_0q_1$	$q_1q_2q_3$	$q_0$	1
$q_1q_2q_3$	$q_0 q_2 q_3$	$q_2q_3$	1
$q_0q_2q_3$	$q_0q_1q_3$	$q_0q_2q_3$	1
$q_0q_1q_3$	$q_0q_1q_2q_3$	$q_0q_3$	1
$q_0q_1q_2q_3$	$q_0q_1q_2q_3$	$q_0 q_2 q_3$	1

Note that an NFA does not necessarily admit a DFA with as many states. Consider the following example:

	a	b	
$\rightarrow 0$	$\{1,2,\ldots,n\}$	0	0
1	2	1	0
2	3	2	0
:	:	:	:
i	i+1	i	0
:	:	:	:
n-1	n	n-1	0
n	1	n	1

The NFA above admits the following DFA:

The above DFA contains only 2 states, despite the NFA containing n+1 states.

That every NFA admits a DFA which accepts the same language shows that the class of languages denoted by DFAs,  $\mathcal{L}_{DFA}$ , is the same as the class of languages denoted by NFAs,  $\mathcal{L}_{NFA}$ , i.e, that

$$\mathcal{L}_{ ext{DFA}} = \mathcal{L}_{ ext{NFA}}$$

For an NFA, there is no guarantee of a unique smallest NFA which accepts the same strings. However, for a DFA, such a notion exists.

Consider two states, p and q, and corresponding  $L_p$  and  $L_q$ , where  $L_p$  has initial state p and  $L_q$  has initial state q. We say that p and q are distinguishable if there exists a string s such that s is in  $L_p$  and not in  $L_q$ , or vice-versa. We use this notion to **reduce** a DFA.

Begin with a partition of Q into subsets  $\mathcal{F}$  and  $Q - \mathcal{F}$ , i.e., the accepting and rejecting states. For a pair of states p, q if the result of transitioning p and q falls into different partitions, we partition the subset and continue.

For example, given the following DFA:

	a	b	
$\rightarrow 0$	1	2	0
1	2	3	1
2	3	4	0
3	0	5	1
4	5	6	0
5	6	7	1
6	7	0	0
7	4	1	1

We have two partitions:

Now, 0 gets sent to the accepting partition by a and to the rejecting partition by b. Similarly, 2, 4, and 6 get sent to the accepting partition by a and to the rejecting partition by b. Thus, they belong to the same partition.

In the same vein, 1 gets sent to the rejecting partition by a and to the accepting partition by b. Similarly, 3, 5, and 7 get sent to the rejecting partition by a and to the accepting partition by b. Thus, our next partition is

That our row is the same as the preceding one indicates that we have finished, and now have a minimal DFA. Call the first subset p and the second q. When an element in p receives a, it is sent to q. When it receives b, it is sent to p. Similar logic for q gives our new DFA:

Recall that p began as a subset of the rejecting elements and q the accepting elements, which informs the last column of the above table.

Not all DFAs can be reduced. An obvious example is the above reduced DFA. For a less trivial example, consider the following DFA:

	a	b	
$\rightarrow 0$	1	2	0
1	2	3	1
2	3	4	0
3	0	5	1
4	5	6	0
5	6	7	1
6	7	0	0
7	4	2	1

Begin, as in the previous problem, with two partitions:

As in the previous problem, 0, 2, 4, and 6 get sent to the same partition under a and b, respectively. Under a, 1, 3, 5, and 7 go to the rejecting partition. However, under b, 7 goes to the rejecting partition while 1, 3, and 5 go to the accepting partition, which means we must create a new partition for 7.

Rejecting	Accepting
0, 2, 4, 6	1, 3, 5, 7
0, 2, 4, 6	1, 3, 5   7

We continue the process, noting that there is no need to consider singletones, i.e., the partition  $\{7\}$  is already in its finale state. Under a, 0, 2, and 4 get sent to the  $\{1, 3, 5\}$  partition. Under b, they get sent to the  $\{0, 2, 4, 6\}$  partition. However, 6 gets sent to the  $\{7\}$  partition, and so it must be partitioned separately. Similarly, 1 and 3 get sent to the  $\{0, 2, 4, 6\}$  partition under a, and to the  $\{1, 3, 5\}$  partition under b. 5, on the other hand, gets sent to the  $\{7\}$  partition, and must be partitioned separately. In total, we have:

Rejecting	Accepting				
0, 2, 4, 6	1, 3, 5, 7				
0, 2, 4, 6	1, 3, 5   7				
0, 2, 4 6	1, 3   5   7				

We continue:

Reje	$\operatorname{ctin}$	g	Accepting				
0, 2	, 4, (	6	1, 3, 5, 7				
0, 2	, 4, (	6	1, 3, 5 7				
0, 2,	4	6	1,	3	5	7	
0, 2	4	6	1	3	5	7	
0 2	4	6	1	3	5	7	

Notice that the reduced DFA has 8 states, like the original! This means that the original DFA is already reduced, and cannot be reduced further.

# 1.1.3 Regular Expressions

**Definition 1.1.13.** Given an alphabet A, we define a **regular expression** 

- (a)  $a \in A$  is a regular expression denoting the language  $\{a\}$ 
  - $\varepsilon$  is a regular expression denoting  $\{\varepsilon\}$
  - $\emptyset$  is a regular expression denoting  $\emptyset$
- (b) If  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are regular expressions denoting the languages  $L(\alpha)$  and  $L(\beta)$ , respectively, then
  - $\alpha \cup \beta$  denotes  $L(\alpha) \cup L(\beta)$
  - $\alpha \cdot \beta$  denotes  $L(\alpha) \cdot L(\beta)$
  - $\alpha^*$  denotes  $L(\alpha)^*$

By convention, we define precedence of the operations  $\cup$ ,  $\cdot$ , and \* in that order. Thus,

$$b \cdot a^* \cup c = (b \cdot (a^*)) \cup c$$

A regular expression  $\alpha$  over an alphabet A denotes the set of languages which accept  $\alpha$ . Thus, we would like to construct an NFA N such that  $L(N) = L(\alpha)$ .

The following NFA rejects all strings but a:

An NFA for only  $\varepsilon$  would appear as:

$$\begin{array}{c|c} c \in A \\ \hline \rightarrow q_0 & \emptyset & 1 \end{array}$$

And finally, an NFA for only  $\emptyset$  is:

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
c \in A \\
\hline
\rightarrow q_0 & \emptyset & 0
\end{array}$$

Now, suppose we have an NFA for  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ . We wish to determine NFAs for  $\alpha \cup \beta$ ,  $\alpha \cdot \beta$ , and  $\alpha^*$ .

We define

$$N_{\alpha} = (A, Q_{\alpha}, \tau_{\alpha}, q_{0}, \mathcal{F}_{\alpha})$$

$$N_{\beta} = (A, Q_{\beta}, \tau_{\beta}, q_{0}, \mathcal{F}_{\beta})$$

such that

$$L(N_{\alpha}) = L(\alpha)$$

$$L(N_{\beta}) = L(\beta)$$

$$\sim$$

$$Q_{\alpha} \cap Q_{\beta} = \{q_0\}$$

and clarify that these automata are non-returning, i.e., that  $q_0 \notin \tau(q_0, s)$  for any s of length 1 or greater.

We construct the **Union** 

$$N_{\alpha \cup \beta} = (A, Q_{\alpha \cup \beta}, \tau_{\alpha \cup \beta}, q_0, \mathcal{F}_{\alpha \cup \beta})$$

where  $Q_{\alpha \cup \beta} = Q_{\alpha} \cup Q_{\beta}$ ,  $\mathcal{F}_{\alpha \cup \beta} = \mathcal{F}_{\alpha} \cup F_{\beta}$  and, for all  $q \in Q_{\alpha \cup \beta}$  and  $a \in A$ 

$$\tau_{\alpha \cup \beta}(q, a) = \begin{cases} \tau_{\alpha}(q_0, a) \cup \tau_{\beta}(q_0, a) & \text{if } q = q_0 \\ \tau_{\alpha}(q, a) & \text{if } q \in Q_{\alpha} - \{q_0\} \\ \tau_{\beta}(q, a) & \text{if } q \in Q_{\beta} - \{q_0\} \end{cases}$$

The Concatenation is constructed

$$N_{\alpha\beta} = (A, Q_{\alpha\beta}, \tau_{\alpha\beta}, q_0, \mathcal{F}_{\alpha\beta})$$

where  $Q_{\alpha\beta} = Q_{\alpha} \cup Q_{\beta}$ ,

$$\mathcal{F}_{\alpha\beta} = \begin{cases} \mathcal{F}_{\beta} & \text{if } q_0 \notin \mathcal{F}_{\beta} \\ \mathcal{F}_{\alpha} \cup (\mathcal{F}_{\beta} - \{q_0\}) & \text{if } q_0 \in \mathcal{F}_{\beta} \end{cases}$$

and, for all  $q \in Q_{\alpha\beta}$  and  $a \in A$ 

$$\tau_{\alpha\beta}(q,a) = \begin{cases} \tau_{\alpha}(q,a) \cup \tau_{\beta}(q_0,a) & \text{if } q \in \mathcal{F}_{\alpha} \\ \tau_{\alpha}(q,a) & \text{if } q \in Q_{\alpha} - \mathcal{F}_{\alpha} \\ \tau_{\beta}(q,a) & \text{if } q \in Q_{\beta} - \{q_0\} \end{cases}$$

Finally, the Kleene Closure is constructed

$$N_{\alpha^*} = (A, Q_{\alpha^*}, \tau_{\alpha^*}, q_0, \mathcal{F}_{\alpha^*})$$

where  $Q_{\alpha^*} = Q_{\alpha}$ ,  $\mathcal{F}_{\alpha^*} = \mathcal{F}_{\alpha} \cup \{q_0\}$  and, for all  $q \in Q_{\alpha^*}$  and  $a \in A$ 

$$\tau_{\alpha^*}(q, a) = \begin{cases} \tau_{\alpha}(q, a) \cup \tau_{\alpha}(q_0, a) & \text{if } q \in \mathcal{F}_{\alpha} \\ \tau_{\alpha}(q, a) & \text{if } q \in Q_{\alpha} - \mathcal{F}_{\alpha} \end{cases}$$

This allows us to construct NFAs from a regular expression. Suppose we have a regular expression ab over  $\{a,b\}$ . Then we have

Applying the above construction for concatenation gives

# 1.1.4 Solutions of Certain Language Equations

Given a regular expression, we can form an NFA which admits the same language by solving **Language Equations**. We show the following lemma before proceeding to examples:

**Lemma 1.** If  $X = L \cdot X \cup M$  then  $X = L^* \cdot M$  is a solution, and is unique if  $\varepsilon \notin L$ .

*Proof.* Clearly,  $L^* \cdot M$  is a solution, since

$$L^* \cdot M = L \cdot (L^* \cdot M) \cup M$$

To prove uniqueness, suppose  $s_1$  and  $s_2$  are distinct solutions. There must exist a shortest-length string in  $s_1$ , say s.

Consider the following NFA:

This admits the following set of equations

$$X_1 = aX_2 \cup bX_1 \cup bX_3 \tag{1}$$

$$X_2 = bX_3 \tag{2}$$

$$X_3 = aX_2 \cup aX_3 \cup bX_1 \cup \varepsilon \tag{3}$$

We substitute (2) into (1) and (3):

$$X_1 = abX_3 \cup bX_1 \cup bX_3$$
  
$$X_3 = abX_3 \cup aX_3 \cup bX_1 \cup \varepsilon$$

which we rewrite as

$$X_1 = (ab \cup b)X_3 \cup bX_1$$
  
$$X_3 = (ab \cup a)X_3 \cup bX_1 \cup \varepsilon$$

We now apply our lemma to the equation for  $X_3$ 

$$X_1 = (ab \cup b)X_3 \cup bX_1$$
  
$$X_3 = (ab \cup a)^*(bX_1 \cup \varepsilon)$$

We substitute  $X_3$  into the equation for  $X_1$ 

$$X_{1} = (ab \cup b)(ab \cup a)^{*}(bX_{1} \cup \varepsilon) \cup bX_{1}$$

$$= ((ab \cup b)(ab \cup a)^{*} \cup b) X_{1} \cup (ab \cup b)(ab \cup a)^{*} \cup bX_{1}$$

$$= ((ab \cup b)(ab \cup a)^{*} \cup b) X_{1} \cup (ab \cup b)(ab \cup a)^{*}$$

$$= ((ab \cup b)(ab \cup a)^{*} \cup b)^{*}(ab \cup b)(ab \cup a)^{*}$$

Consider the example:

This admits the following system of equations:

$$X_1 = aX_2 \cup bX_3$$

$$X_2 = aX_2 \cup bX_3$$

$$X_3 = aX_2 \cup bX_3 \cup \varepsilon$$

From our lemma, we have  $X_2 = a^*bX_3$ :

$$X_1 = aa^*bX_3 \cup bX_3$$
$$X_3 = aa^*bX_3 \cup bX_3 \cup \varepsilon$$

which can be simplified:

$$X_1 = (aa^*b \cup b)X_3$$
$$X_3 = (aa^*b \cup b)X_3 \cup \varepsilon$$

Applying our lemma to  $X_3$ , we have

$$X_3 = (aa^*b \cup b)^*$$

Substituting into  $X_1$  gives

$$X_1 = (aa^*b \cup b)(aa^*b \cup b)^*$$

One final example:

$$X_1 = bX_1 \cup bX_2 \cup \varepsilon$$
$$X_2 = aX_1 \cup \varepsilon$$

Substituting our equation for  $X_2$  into  $X_1$  gives

$$X_1 = bX_1 \cup b(aX_1 \cup \varepsilon) \cup \varepsilon$$
  
=  $(b \cup ba)X_1 \cup b \cup \varepsilon$   
=  $(b \cup ba)^*(b \cup \varepsilon)$ 

#### 1.1.5 Extended Regular Expressions

The languages we have discussed so far are regular languages. That is,

- Deterministic Finite Automaton
- Non-Deterministic Finite Automaton
- Regular Expression
- Solution of Languages Equations

are all regular languages. The following are Closure Properties of a regular language:

**Theorem 1.1.4.** Let  $\mathcal{L}_{\infty}$  and  $\mathcal{L}_{\in}$  be regular languages in some alphabet A. Then

- 1.  $\mathcal{L}_1 \cup \mathcal{L}_2$
- 2.  $\mathcal{L}_1 \cdot \mathcal{L}_2$
- 3.  $\mathcal{L}_{1}^{*}$
- 4.  $\overline{\mathcal{L}_1}$

are all regular languages in A.

Proof. 1, 2, and 3 follow from the definitions of regular expressions. For 4, consider a DFA  $D = (A, Q, \tau, q_0, \mathcal{F})$  and consider any word  $s \in A^*$ . Further, let  $D' = (A, Q, \tau, q_0, Q - \mathcal{F})$ . If  $w \in L(D)$ , then  $w \notin L(D)$ . On the other hand, if  $w \notin L(D)$ , then  $w \in L(D)$ . Then  $L(D) = \overline{L(D)}$ .

This allows us to define the regular expression  $\overline{\alpha}$ :

**Definition 1.1.14.** Let  $\alpha$  be any regular expression in some alphabet A. Then the regular expression  $\overline{\alpha}$  is defined by

$$\overline{\alpha} = \overline{L(\alpha)}$$

If a regular expression contains a complement, it is an extended regular expression.

We can construct the DFA of the complement of a regular expression by finding the corresponding DFA and swapping the accepting and rejecting states. For example, consider the regular expression  $\overline{01^*} \cap \overline{10^*}$  over  $\{0,1\}$ .

$$\overline{01^*} \cap \overline{10^*} = \overline{\overline{01^*} \cup \overline{10^*}}$$

Similarly, we consider the example  $\overline{(\overline{01^*0})^*}$  over  $\{0,1,2\}$ .

It should be noted that the above process of swapping accepting and rejecting states *only works* on a DFA. Thus, if you wish to take the complement of an NFA, you must first convert it to a DFA.

### 1.1.6 Non-Regular Languages

Suppose we have a DFA

$$D = (A, Q, \tau, q_0, \mathcal{F})$$

with |Q| = n. Consider the following set of equations

$$q_{1} = \tau(q_{0}, a_{1})$$

$$q_{2} = \tau(q_{1}, a_{2})$$

$$\vdots$$

$$q_{i} = \tau(q_{i-1}, a_{i})$$

$$\vdots$$

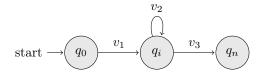
$$q_{n-1} = \tau(q_{n-2}, a_{n-1})$$

$$q_{n} = \tau(q_{n-1}, a_{n})$$

Notice that we have n+1 states above, but only n states in Q. Then, by the Pidgeonhole Principle, there must be some state  $q_i$  that is visited twice. In other words, there exist an i, j with i < j such that  $q_i = q_j$ . We then consider a string  $s = a_1 a_2 \dots a_n$ . Let  $v_1 = a_1 a_2 \dots a_i$ ,  $v_2 = a_{i+1} a_{i+2} \dots a_j$ , and  $v_3 = a_{j+1} a_{j+2} \dots a_n$ . We see that

$$\tau(q_0, s) = \tau(q_0, v_1 v_2^k v_3)$$

for all  $k \geq 0$ .



Thus, we state **The Pumping Lemma** and provide a proof:

**Theorem 1.1.5** (The Pumping Lemma). Let L be any regular language with corresponding DFA  $(A, Q, \tau, q_0, \mathcal{F})$ . Then there exists a p > 0 (called the **pumping length**) such that, for any string s of length p or longer, we can write  $s = s_1 s_2 s_3$  and

- $|s_2| \ge 1$
- $|s_1 s_2| \le p$
- $\tau(q_0, s) = \tau(q_0, s_1 s_2^n s_3)$  for all  $n \ge 0$

We can use the above theorem to prove that certain languages are not regular.

# **Theorem 1.1.6.** The language given by

$$L = \{a^i b^i | i \ge 0\}$$

is not regular.

*Proof.* Suppose, by way of contradiction, that L is regular with pumping length p. Consider the string  $s=a^pb^p$ . By the pumping lemma, we can write  $s=s_1s_2s_3$  with  $|s_1s_2| \leq p$  and  $|s_2| \geq 1$ . Then  $s_1=a^p-k$  and  $s_2=a^k$  for some  $1\leq k\leq p$ . Further, we have

$$s_1 s_2^n s_3 = a^{p-k} (a^k)^n b^p$$
  
=  $a^{p-k} a^{kn} b^p$   
=  $a^{p+(n-1)k} b^p \in L$ 

Taking n=2 gives  $a^{p+k}b^p\in L$ , a contradiction. Thus, L is not regular.

# 1.2 Context-Free Languages

# 1.2.1 Context-Free Grammars

**Definition 1.2.1.** A Context-Free Grammar is a quartuple G = (N, T, P, S) where

N is a finite, non-empty set of variables (also called non-terminals)

T is an alphabet of terminals

 $P \subseteq N \times (N \cup T)^*$  is a finite set of productions

 $S \in N$  is the starting symbol

For any  $(A, \gamma) \in P$ , we write  $A \to \gamma$ , and say A **produces**  $\gamma$ .

By convention, we use upper-case letters to denote variables, lower-case to denote terminals and strings over the terminals, and Greek letters to denote strings over variables and terminals.

**Definition 1.2.2.** Given strings  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ , we say  $\alpha$  derives  $\beta$  if there exist  $A, \alpha_1, \alpha_2, \gamma$  such that

$$\alpha = \alpha_1 A \alpha_2$$
$$\beta = \alpha_1 \gamma \alpha_2$$
$$A \to \gamma \in P$$

and we write this  $\alpha \Rightarrow \beta$ .

We can define the language of a context-free grammar:

**Definition 1.2.3.** Given a context-free grammar G, the corresponding **context-free language** is

$$L(G) = \{w | S \Rightarrow w\}$$

**Theorem 1.2.1.** Every regular language is a context-free language.

*Proof.* Let L be a regular language and let  $N=(Q,A,\tau,q_0,\mathcal{F})$  be its corresponding minimum DFA.

However, not every context-free language is regular. For example, the language  $\{a^nb^n|n\geq 0\}$  is not regular, but is a context-free language given by

# 1.3 Preprocessing a CFG

For any CFG G, we preprocess the language:

- Eliminate useless symbols
- Eliminate  $\varepsilon$  productions:  $A \to \varepsilon$
- Eliminate unit productions:  $A \to B$

# 1.3.1 Eliminating Useless Symbols

For example, suppose G is a context-free grammar given by:

$$S \to aSb \mid cAd$$
$$A \to aSc \mid bAd$$

Then  $L(G) = \emptyset$ , since every terminal produces a string with a terminal. Thus, we can eliminate S and A. In general, for any context-free grammar G, if no string s exists such that  $A \Rightarrow s$ , then we can eliminate A.

Consider the following example:

$$\begin{split} S &\rightarrow aS \mid bA \mid \varepsilon \\ A &\rightarrow cAA \mid dBB \\ B &\rightarrow aBA \mid bAA \mid cAC \\ C &\rightarrow aCb \mid S \end{split}$$

Notice that S produces  $\varepsilon$ , and so we cannot eliminate it. Similarly, C produces S, so we cannot eliminate it. At this point, it should be apparent that A and B do not produce terminals, and therefore can be eliminated. Further, we can eliminate terminals c and d since they are not involved in the productions of C or S. Graphically, we have

S A B C

Now note that C cannot be reached from S, the starting state. Thus, we can eliminate C, and similarly eliminate b. Thus, our grammar can be reduced to

$$S \to aS \mid \varepsilon$$

To summarize: if a terminal string cannot be reached from a variable, or a variable cannot be reached from the starting symbol, it can be eliminated.

# 1.3.2 Eliminating $\varepsilon$ Productions

To remove  $\varepsilon$  productions, we find the nullable non-terminals (variables). These are the non-terminals from which  $\varepsilon$  can be derived. Specifically, a variable A is nullable if it is of the form

$$A \to \varepsilon$$

or

$$A \rightarrow A_1 A_2 A_3 \dots A_n$$

where each  $A_i$  is nullable. Then, simply replace each combination of nullable variables with  $\varepsilon$  and eliminate  $\varepsilon$  from the right-hand side.

For example, consider the grammar

$$\begin{split} S &\to ABCd \\ A &\to BC \\ B &\to bB \mid \varepsilon \\ C &\to cC \mid \varepsilon \end{split}$$

Clearly, B and C are nullable. Then A is nullable because it produces BC. We then have

$$S o ABCd \mid AB$$

which becomes

$$\begin{split} S &\to ABCd \mid BCd \mid ACd \mid ABd \mid Cd \mid Bd \mid Ad \mid d \\ A &\to BC \mid C \mid B \\ B &\to bB \mid b \\ C &\to cC \mid c \end{split}$$

# 1.3.3 Eliminating Unit Productions

To eliminate a unit production, simply replace any unit production

$$A \to B$$

with the productions for B. For example, consider the following grammar:

$$S \to Aa \mid B$$
$$A \to b \mid B$$
$$B \to A \mid a$$

We see that  $S \to B$ ,  $A \to B$ , and  $B \to A$  are unit rules, and replace them

$$S \rightarrow Aa \mid A \mid a$$
$$A \rightarrow b \mid A \mid a$$
$$B \rightarrow b \mid B \mid a$$

# 1.4 Normal Forms

# 1.4.1 Chomsky Normal Form

**Definition 1.4.1.** A context-free language G is in Chomsky Normal Form<sup>1</sup> if all of its productions are of the form

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

**Theorem 1.4.1.** If G is a context-free grammar, there exists a Chomsky Normal Form grammar for  $L(G) - \{\varepsilon\}$ 

Proof.

### 1.4.2 Greibach Normal Form

**Definition 1.4.2.** A context-free language is in **Greibach Normal Form**<sup>2</sup> if all of its productions are of the form

$$A \to aA_1A_2 \dots A_n$$

# 1.5 Pumping Lemma for Context-Free Languages

# 2 Exercise Sets

# 2.1 Exercise Set 1

Exercise 1: Construct DFAs for the following NFAs using the subset construction:

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>This is also called **Chomsky Reduced Form**. Sometimes, Chomsky Normal Form includes the production  $S \to \varepsilon$ . In our usage, CNF and CRF are identical and do not include a  $\varepsilon$  production.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Sometimes, the production  $S \to \varepsilon$  is incuded. In our use, there is no  $\varepsilon$  production.

(a)		a		(b)		a	b	c		(c)		a	b	c	
	$\rightarrow 1$	2	0		$\rightarrow 1$	2	2	2	1		$\rightarrow 1$	2	2	2	1
	2	3	0		2	3	1	1, 2	1		2	3	1	2,  3	1
	3	4	0		3	4	3	Ø	1		3	4	3	Ø	1
	4	5	0		4	5	4	4	1		4	5	4	4	1
	5	6	0		5	1	5	5	1		5	1	5	5	1
	6	7	0												
	7	1, 2	1												

# Solution.

(a)		a	
	$\rightarrow 1$	2	0
	2	3	0
	3	4	0
	4	5	0
	5	6	0
	6	7	0
	7	1, 2	1
	1, 2	2, 3	0
	2, 3	3, 4	0
	3, 4	4, 5	0
	4, 5	5, 6	0
	5, 6	6, 7	0
	6, 7	1, 2, 7	1
	1, 2, 7	1, 2, 3	1
	1, 2, 3	2, 3, 4	0
	2, 3, 4	3, 4, 5	0
	3, 4, 5	4, 5, 6	0
	4, 5, 6	5, 6, 7	0
	5, 6, 7	1, 2, 6, 7	1
	1, 2, 6, 7	1, 2, 3, 7	1
	1, 2, 3, 7	1, 2, 3, 4	1
	1, 2, 3, 4	2, 3, 4, 5	0
	2, 3, 4, 5	3, 4, 5, 6	0
	3, 4, 5, 6	4, 5, 6, 7	0
	4, 5, 6, 7	1, 2, 5, 6, 7	1
	$1, 2, 5, 6, 7 \\ 1, 2, 3, 6, 7$	1, 2, 3, 6, 7	1 1
	$1, 2, 3, 6, 7 \\ 1, 2, 3, 4, 7$	$1, 2, 3, 4, 7 \\ 1, 2, 3, 4, 5$	1
	1, 2, 3, 4, 7 $1, 2, 3, 4, 5$	2, 3, 4, 5 $2, 3, 4, 5, 6$	0
	2, 3, 4, 5, 6	3, 4, 5, 6, 7	0
	3, 4, 5, 6, 7	1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 7	1
	1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 7	1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 7	1
	1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 7	1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 7	1
	1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 7	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7	1
	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6	1
	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6	2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7	0
	2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 7	1
	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7	1
	, , , , , , , ,	. , , , , , , ,	

(b)		a	b	c	
	$\rightarrow 1$	2	2	2	1
	2	3	1	1, 2	1
	3	4	3	Ø	1
	1, 2	2, 3	1, 2	1, 2	1
	4	5	4	4	1
	Ø	Ø	Ø	Ø	0
	2, 3	3, 4	1,  3	1, 2	1
	5	1	5	5	1
	3, 4	4, 5	3, 4	4	1
	1, 3	2, 4	2,  3	2	1
	4, 5	1, 5	4, 5	4, 5	1
	2, 4	3, 5	1, 4	1,2,4	1
	1, 5	1, 2	2, 5	2, 5	1
	3, 5	1, 4	3, 5	5	1
	1, 4	2, 5	2, 4	2, 4	1
	1, 2, 4	2, 3, 5	1,  2,  4	1,2,4	1
	2, 5	1,  3	1, 5	1, 2, 5	1
	2, 3, 5	1,  3,  4	1, 3, 5	1, 2, 5	1
	1, 2, 5	1, 2, 3	1, 2, 5	1, 2, 5	1
	1, 3, 4	2, 4, 5	2, 3, 4	2, 4	1
	1, 3, 5	1,  2,  4	2, 3, 5	2, 5	1
	1, 2, 3	2, 3, 4	1, 2, 3	1, 2	1
	2, 4, 5	1, 3, 5	1, 4, 5	1, 2, 4, 5	1
	2, 3, 4	3, 4, 5	1, 3, 4	1, 2, 4	1
	1, 4, 5	1, 2, 5	2, 4, 5	2, 4, 5	1
	1, 2, 4, 5	1, 2, 3, 5	1, 2, 4, 5	1, 2, 4, 5	1
		1, 4, 5	3, 4, 5	4, 5	1
	1, 2, 3, 5		1, 2, 3, 5	1, 2, 5	1
	1, 2, 3, 4	2, 3, 4, 5	1, 2, 3, 4	1, 2, 4	1
	2, 3, 4, 5	1, 3, 4, 5	1, 3, 4, 5	1, 2, 4, 5	1
	1, 3, 4, 5	1, 2, 4, 5	2, 3, 4, 5	2, 4, 5	1

# Exercise 2: Reduce the following DFAs:

(c) Your result of 1(b).

(d) Your result of 1(c).

# Solution.

(a)			
( )	Rejecting	Accepting	
	1, 3, 5, 7	2, 4, 6, 8	
	1, 3, 5, 7	2, 4, 6, 8	
	Setting $p =$	$\{1, 3, 5, 7\}$ an	d $q = \{2, 4, 6, 8\}$ :
	a	b	
	$\rightarrow p$ q	$\overline{p}$ 0	
	a - n	a = 1	

(b)						
	Rejecting	Accepting				
	1, 3, 5, 7	2, 4, 6, 8				
	1, 3, 5, 7	2, 4, 6   8				
	1, 3, 5 7	2, 6   4   8				
	1 3 5 7	2 6 4 8				

The DFA is already reduced.

**Exercise 3:** Construct NFAs for the following regular expressions using the construction given in class; then find the corresponding DFAs; then reduce them:

(a) 
$$(a^2 \cup a^3 \cup a^5)^*$$
 over  $\{a\}$ 

(c) 
$$(abc \cup ab)^* aa^* (ab)^*$$
 over  $\{a, b, c\}$ 

(b) 
$$(a^2)^*(a^3)^*(a^5)^*$$
 over  $\{a\}$ 

(d) 
$$0*(00 \cup 11)*(01 \cup 10)*1*$$
 over  $\{0,1\}$ 

Solution.

(a) NFA for 
$$a$$

$$a$$

$$\rightarrow q_0 \quad q_1 \quad 0$$

$$q_1 \quad \emptyset \quad 1$$

NFA for 
$$a$$

$$a$$

$$\rightarrow q_0 \quad q_2 \quad 0$$

$$q_2 \quad \emptyset \quad 1$$

Concatenate these to get  $a^2$ 

NFA for 
$$a^2$$

$$a$$

$$\rightarrow q_0 \quad q_1 \quad 0$$

$$q_1 \quad q_2 \quad 0$$

$$q_2 \quad \emptyset \quad 1$$

Similarly, we have

NFA for 
$$a^5$$
 $a$ 
 $\rightarrow q_0 \quad q_6 \quad 0$ 
 $q_6 \quad q_7 \quad 0$ 
 $q_7 \quad q_8 \quad 0$ 
 $q_8 \quad q_9 \quad 0$ 
 $q_9 \quad \emptyset \quad 1$ 

(b)

Exercise 4: Construct regular expressions for the languages accepted by the following automata:

# Solution. (a)

$$\begin{split} X_1 &= aX_2 \cup bX_2 \cup cX_2 \cup \varepsilon \\ X_2 &= aX_3 \cup bX_1 \cup c(X_2 \cup X_3) \cup \varepsilon \\ X_3 &= aX_4 \cup bX_3 \cup \varepsilon \\ X_4 &= aX_1 \cup bX_4 \cup cX_4 \cup \varepsilon \end{split}$$

Solving for  $X_4$ 

$$X_4 = aX_1 \cup bX_4 \cup cX_4 \cup \varepsilon$$
  
=  $aX_1 \cup (b \cup c)X_4 \cup \varepsilon$   
=  $(b \cup c)X_4 \cup aX_1 \cup \varepsilon$   
=  $(b \cup c)^*(aX_1 \cup \varepsilon)$   
=  $(b \cup c)^*aX_1 \cup (b \cup c)^*$ 

Similarly,

$$X_3 = aX_4 \cup bX_3 \cup \varepsilon$$

$$= a\left((b \cup c)^* aX_1 \cup (b \cup c)^*\right) \cup bX_3 \cup \varepsilon$$

$$= a(b \cup c)^* aX_1 \cup a(b \cup c)^* \cup bX_3 \cup \varepsilon$$

$$= bX_3 \cup a(b \cup c)^* aX_1 \cup a(b \cup c)^* \cup \varepsilon$$

$$= b^* (a(b \cup c)^* aX_1 \cup a(b \cup c)^* \cup \varepsilon)$$

$$= b^* a(b \cup c)^* aX_1 \cup b^* a(b \cup c)^* \cup b^*$$

Solving  $X_2$ :

$$\begin{split} X_2 &= aX_3 \cup bX_1 \cup c(X_2 \cup X_3) \cup \varepsilon \\ &= (a \cup c)X_3 \cup bX_1 \cup cX_2 \cup \varepsilon \\ &= (a \cup c)(b^*a(b \cup c)^*aX_1 \cup b^*a(b \cup c)^* \cup b^*) \cup bX_1 \cup cX_2 \cup \varepsilon \\ &= cX_2 \cup (a \cup c)(b^*a(b \cup c)^*aX_1 \cup b^*a(b \cup c)^* \cup b^*) \cup bX_1 \cup \varepsilon \\ &= c^*((a \cup c)(b^*a(b \cup c)^*aX_1 \cup b^*a(b \cup c)^* \cup b^*) \cup bX_1 \cup \varepsilon) \\ &= c^*(a \cup c)(b^*a(b \cup c)^*aX_1 \cup c^*b^*a(b \cup c)^* \cup c^*b^*) \cup c^*bX_1 \cup c^* \\ &= c^*(a \cup c)b^*a(b \cup c)^*aX_1 \cup c^*(a \cup c)(c^*b^*a(b \cup c)^* \cup c^*b^*) \cup c^*bX_1 \cup c^* \\ &= (c^*(a \cup c)b^*a(b \cup c)^*a \cup c^*b)X_1 \cup c^*(a \cup c)(c^*b^*a(b \cup c)^* \cup c^*b^*) \cup c^*b^*) \cup c^*b^*) \cup c^*b^*) \cup c^*b^*) \cup c^*b^* \cup c^*b^* \cup c^*b^* \cup c^*b^* \cup c^*b^*) \cup c^*b^* \cup c^*b^* \cup c^*b^* \cup c^*b^*) \cup c^*b^* \cup c^*b^* \cup c^*b^* \cup c^*b^* \cup c^*b^*) \cup c^*b^* \cup c^*$$

Finally, solving for  $X_1$ :

$$\begin{split} X_1 &= aX_2 \cup bX_2 \cup cX_2 \cup \varepsilon \\ &= (a \cup b \cup c)X_2 \cup \varepsilon \\ &= (a \cup b \cup c)((c^*(a \cup c)b^*a(b \cup c)^*a \cup c^*b)X_1 \cup c^*(a \cup c)(c^*b^*a(b \cup c)^* \cup c^*b^*) \cup c^*) \cup \varepsilon \\ &= (a \cup b \cup c)(c^*(a \cup c)b^*a(b \cup c)^*a \cup c^*b)X_1 \cup (a \cup b \cup c)c^*(a \cup c)(c^*b^*a(b \cup c)^* \cup c^*b^*) \cup c^* \cup \varepsilon \\ &= \left((a \cup b \cup c)(c^*(a \cup c)b^*a(b \cup c)^*a \cup c^*b)\right)^*((a \cup b \cup c)c^*(a \cup c)(c^*b^*a(b \cup c)^* \cup c^*b^*) \cup c^*) \cup \varepsilon \end{split}$$

(b)

$$X_A = aX_B \cup bX_C$$

$$X_B = aX_A \cup bX_C$$

$$X_C = aX_B \cup bX_A \cup \varepsilon$$

Plugging in the equation for  $X_C$  into  $X_B$ 

$$X_B = aX_A \cup b(aX_B \cup bX_A \cup \varepsilon)$$

$$= aX_A \cup baX_B \cup b^2X_A \cup b$$

$$= baX_B \cup (ba \cup b^2)X_A \cup b$$

$$= (ba)^*((ba \cup b^2)X_A \cup b)$$

$$= (ba)^*(ba \cup b^2)X_A \cup (ba)^*b$$

We substitute back into  $X_C$ :

$$X_C = aX_B \cup bX_A \cup \varepsilon$$
  
=  $a((ba)^*(ba \cup b^2)X_A \cup (ba)^*b) \cup bX_A \cup \varepsilon$ 

We now substitute the new equations for  $X_B$  and  $X_C$  into the equation for  $X_A$ 

$$X_{A} = aX_{B} \cup bX_{C}$$

$$= a((ba)^{*}(ba \cup b^{2})X_{A} \cup (ba)^{*}b) \cup b(a((ba)^{*}(ba \cup b^{2})X_{A} \cup (ba)^{*}b) \cup bX_{A} \cup \varepsilon)$$

$$= a(ba)^{*}(ba \cup b^{2})X_{A} \cup a(ba)^{*}b \cup ba((ba)^{*}(ba \cup b^{2})X_{A} \cup b(ba)^{*}b) \cup b^{2}X_{A} \cup b$$

$$= (a(ba)^{*}(ba \cup b^{2}) \cup ba(ba)^{*}(ba \cup b^{2}) \cup b^{2})X_{A} \cup bab(ba)^{*}b \cup b^{2}X_{A} \cup b$$

$$= (a(ba)^{*}(ba \cup b^{2}) \cup ba(ba)^{*}(ba \cup b^{2}) \cup b^{2})^{*}bab(ba)^{*}b \cup b$$

2.2 Exercise Set 2

Exercise 1: Prove that the following languages are not regular:

- (a)  $L = \{x \in (0 \cup 1)^* | 2(0 \cup 1)^* | \text{number of 0s before } 2 = \text{number of 1s after } 2\}$
- (b)  $L = \{x \in (0 \cup 1)^* | 2(0 \cup 1)^* | \text{number of 0s before } 2 \neq \text{number of 1s after 2} \}$
- (c)  $L = \{a^{i^2} | i \ge 1\}$
- (d)  $L = \{a^{2^i} | i > 1\}$

Solution.

(a) Suppose, by way of contradiction, that L is regular and that p is its pumping length. Consider the string  $s=0^p21^p$ . Clearly,  $|s|\geq p$ . Thus, by the **Pumping Lemma**, there exist strings  $s_1,s_2,s_3$  such that  $s=s_1s_2s_3$  with  $|s_1s_2|\leq p$  and  $|s_2|\geq 1$  and, for all  $n\geq 1$ ,  $s_1s_2^ns_3\in L$ . Observe that  $s_1s_2=0^k$  for some  $k\leq p$  (for otherwise  $|s_1s_2|>p$ ), hence  $s_3=0^{p-k}21^p$ . Thus, we write  $s_1=0^{k-q}$  and  $s_2=0^q$  for some  $q\geq 1$ . By the pumping lemma,

$$s_1 s_2^n s_3 = 0^{k-q} (0^q)^n 0^{p-k} 21^p$$
$$= 0^{k-q} 0^{qn} 0^{p-k} 21^p$$
$$= 0^{p+q(n-1)} 21^p$$

is in L. However, for  $n \geq 2$ , there are more 0s before the 2 than 1s after, hence  $s_1 s_2^n s_3 \notin L$ . A contradiction. Thus, L is not regular.

(b) Suppose, by way of contradiction, that L is regular and that p is its pumping length. Consider the string  $s=0^p21^{p+p!}$ . Clearly,  $|s|\geq p$ . Thus, by the **Pumping Lemma**, there exist strings  $s_1,\ s_2,\ s_3$  such that  $s=s_1s_2s_3$  with  $|s_1s_2|\leq p$  and  $|s_2|\geq 1$  and, for all  $n\geq 1,\ s_1s_2^ns_3\in L$ . Observe that  $s_1s_2=0^k$  for some  $k\leq p$  (for otherwise  $|s_1s_2|>p$ ), hence  $s_3=0^{p-k}21^{p+p!}$ . Thus, we write  $s_1=0^{k-q}$  and  $s_2=0^q$  for some  $q\geq 1$ . By the pumping lemma,

$$s_1 s_2^n s_3 = 0^{k-q} (0^q)^n 0^{p-k} 21^{p+p!}$$

$$= 0^{k-q} 0^{qn} 0^{p-k} 21^{p+p!}$$

$$= 0^{p+q(n-1)} 21^{p+p!}$$

is in L. Now, since  $q \leq p, q \mid p!$ . Thus, taking  $n = \frac{p!}{q} + 1$ , we have

$$s_1 s_2^n s_3 = 0^{p+q(\frac{p!}{q}+1-1)} 21^{p+p!}$$

$$= 0^{p+q(\frac{p!}{q})} 21^{p+p!}$$

$$= 0^{p+p!} 21^{p+p!}$$

Thus,  $s_1 s_2^n s_3 \notin L$ , a contradiction. Therefore L is not regular.

(c) In order to reach a contradiction, suppose L is regular and that p is its pumping length. Consider the string  $s = a^{p^2}$ . By the pumping lemma, we have  $s = s_1 s_2 s_3$ . Since  $|s_1 s_2| \le p$ , this forces  $s_1 s_2 = a^k$  for some  $0 < k \le p$  and  $s_3 = a^{p^2 - k}$ . Then  $s_1 = a^{k-r}$  and  $s_2 = a^r$  for some  $0 < r \le k$ . Then

$$s_1 s_2^n s_3 = a^{k-r} (a^r)^n a^{p^2 - k}$$

$$= a^{k-r} a^{rn} a^{p^2 - k}$$

$$= a^{p^2 + rn - r}$$

$$= a^{p^2 + r(n-1)}$$

Take n=2. Then  $s_1s_2^ns_3=a^{p^2+r}\in L$ . However,  $p^2+r$  cannot be a perfect square: since  $r\leq p$ , we have

$$p^{2} + r \le p^{2} + p$$
  
 $< p^{2} + p + 1$   
 $= (p+1)^{2}$ 

Thus,  $s_1 s_2^n s_3 \notin L$ , a contradiction. Therefore L is not regular.

(d) In order to reach a contradiction, suppose L is regular and that p is its pumping length. Consider the string  $s = a^{2^p}$ . By the pumping lemma, we have  $s = s_1 s_2 s_3$ . Since  $|s_1 s_2| \le p$ , this forces  $s_1 s_2 = a^k$  for some  $0 < k \le p$  and  $s_3 = a^{2^p - k}$ . Then  $s_1 = a^{k-r}$  and  $s_2 = a^r$  for some  $0 < r \le k$ . Then

$$s_1 s_2^n s_3 = a^{k-r} (a^r)^n a^{2^p - k}$$

$$= a^{k-r} a^{rn} a^{2^p - k}$$

$$= a^{2^p + rn - r}$$

$$= a^{2^p + r(n-1)}$$

Take n=2. Then  $s_1s_2^ns_3=a^{2^p+r}\in L$ . However,  $2^p+r$  cannot be a power of 2: since  $r\leq p$ , we have

$$2^{p} + r \le 2^{p} + p$$
$$< 2^{p} + 2^{p}$$
$$= 2^{p+1}$$

Thus,  $s_1s_2^ns_3 \not\in L$ , a contradiction. Therefore L is not regular.

Exercise 2: Construct DFAs for the following extended regular expressions:

(a) 
$$\left[ \overline{(000)^*} \cap ((01)^* \cup (10)^*) \right] \cap \overline{(11)^*}$$
 over  $\{0, 1\}$ 

(b) 
$$\overline{(0 \cup 1)^* 01^* 10^* 01^* 1(0 \cup 1)^*} - (10 \cup 01)^*$$
 over  $\{0, 1, 2\}$ 

**Exercise 3:** Construct Chomsky Normal Form grammars for  $L(G) - \varepsilon$  for the following cfgs G:

(a) 
$$G = (\{a, b\}, \{S, A\}, S, \{S \rightarrow aAAaS \mid a, A \rightarrow bAA \mid aSSSA \mid \varepsilon\})$$

(b) 
$$G = (\{a, b, c\}, \{S, A, B\}, S, \{S \rightarrow aAA \mid A, A \rightarrow bBBB \mid B \mid \varepsilon, B \rightarrow bSSS \mid S \mid \varepsilon\})$$

Solution.

(a)

$$\begin{split} S &\to aAAaS \mid a \\ A &\to bAA \mid aSSSA \mid \varepsilon \end{split}$$

There are no useless productions, since  $S \Rightarrow a$  and  $A \Rightarrow b$ . A is clearly nullable, so we get

$$S 
ightarrow aAAaS \mid aAAaS \mid aAAaS \mid a$$
  
 $A 
ightarrow bAA \mid bAA \mid bAA \mid aSSSA \mid aSSSA$ 

which reduces to

$$S \rightarrow aAAaS \mid aAaS \mid aaS \mid a$$
 
$$A \rightarrow bAA \mid bA \mid b \mid aSSSA \mid aSSS$$

There are no unit productions. Setting  $X_a \to a$  and  $X_b \to b$ , we have

$$S \to X_a AA X_a S \mid X_a A X_a S \mid X_a X_a S \mid a$$
  
 $A \to X_b AA \mid X_b A \mid b \mid X_a SSSA \mid X_a SSS$ 

Finally, we decompose:

$$\begin{split} S &\to X_a S_1 \mid X_a S_2 \mid X_a S_3 \mid a \\ A &\to X_b A_1 \mid X_b A \mid b \mid X_a A_2 \mid X_a A_5 \\ S_1 &\to A S_2 \\ S_2 &\to A S_3 \\ S_3 &\to X_a S \\ A_1 &\to A A \\ A_2 &\to S A_3 \\ A_3 &\to S A_4 \\ A_4 &\to S A \\ A_5 &\to S A_6 \\ A_6 &\to S S \end{split}$$

(b)

$$\begin{split} S &\to aAA \mid A \\ A &\to bBBB \mid B \mid \varepsilon \\ B &\to bSSS \mid S \mid \varepsilon \end{split}$$

There are no useless productions, since  $S \Rightarrow a, A \Rightarrow b$  and  $B \Rightarrow b$ . Clearly, S, A, and B are all nullable. Thus, we have

$$S \rightarrow aAA \mid aA \mid aAA \mid A$$

which reduces to

$$\begin{split} S &\rightarrow aAA \mid a \mid aA \mid A \\ A &\rightarrow bBBB \mid bBB \mid bB \mid B \\ B &\rightarrow bSSS \mid bSS \mid bS \mid b \mid S \end{split}$$

We eliminate the unit productions  $S \to A$ ,  $A \to B$  and  $B \to S$ .

$$\begin{split} S &\to aAA \mid a \mid aA \mid bBBB \mid bBB \mid bB\\ A &\to bBBB \mid bBB \mid bB \mid bSSS \mid bSS \mid bS \mid b\\ B &\to bSSS \mid bSS \mid bS \mid b \mid aAA \mid a \mid aA \mid bBBB \mid bBB \mid bB \end{split}$$

We now set  $X_a \to a$  and  $X_b \to b$ :

$$S \rightarrow X_aAA \mid a \mid X_aA \mid X_bBBB \mid X_bBB \mid X_bB$$
 
$$A \rightarrow X_bBBB \mid X_bBB \mid X_bB \mid X_bSSS \mid X_bSS \mid X_bS \mid b$$
 
$$B \rightarrow X_bSSS \mid X_bSS \mid X_bS \mid b \mid X_aAA \mid a \mid X_aA \mid X_bBBB \mid X_bBB \mid X_bB$$

Finally, we decompose:

$$S \to X_a S_1 \mid a \mid X_a A \mid X_b S_2 \mid X_b S_3 \mid X_b B$$

$$A \to X_b S_2 \mid X_b S_3 \mid X_b B \mid X_b A_1 \mid X_b A_2 \mid X_b S \mid b$$

$$B \to X_b A_1 \mid X_b A_2 \mid X_b S \mid b \mid X_a S_1 \mid a \mid X_a A \mid X_b S_2 \mid X_b S_3 \mid X_b B$$

$$S_1 \to AA$$

$$S_2 \to BS_3$$

$$S_3 \to BB$$

$$A_1 \to SA_2$$

$$A_2 \to SS$$

**Exercise 4:** Construct Greibach Normal Form grammars for  $L(G) - \varepsilon$  for the following cfgs G:

(a) 
$$G = (\{a,b\}, \{S,A,B\}, S, \{S \rightarrow SaS \mid A,A \rightarrow AAAb \mid B \mid \varepsilon, B \rightarrow SSS \mid a\})$$

(b) 
$$G = (\{a,b\}, \{S,A,B,C\}, S, \{S \rightarrow ASS \mid a,A \rightarrow bBBB \mid BAA \mid \varepsilon, B \rightarrow CSS \mid SSC, C \rightarrow SS \mid b\})$$

# 3 Exam Cheatsheets

#### 3.1 Exam 1

# 3.1.1 Converting an NFA to a DFA

Begin with the initial state. Apply the transitions and add any newly visited states. Stop when no new states can be visited.

#### 3.1.2 Reducing a DFA

Partition all states into accepting vs rejecting. Apply all transitions to a "representative" from a partition, then apply the transitions to the remaining members of the partition. If a member differs, move it to a new partition.

# 3.1.3 Converting a Regular Expression to an NFA

NFA for 
$$a: \begin{array}{c|cccc} & a & b \neq a \\ \hline \rightarrow q_0 & q_1 & \emptyset & 0 \\ q_1 & \emptyset & \emptyset & 1 \\ \hline \end{array}$$
NFA for  $\varepsilon: \begin{array}{c|cccc} c \in A \\ \hline \rightarrow q_0 & \emptyset & 1 \\ \hline \end{array}$ 
NFA for  $\emptyset: \begin{array}{c|cccc} c \in A \\ \hline \rightarrow q_0 & \emptyset & 0 \\ \hline \end{array}$ 
Union

Union initial states, copy remaining states from  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ . Final states are final states from  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ .

#### Concatenation

For final states of  $\alpha$ , union the state from  $\alpha$  with the initial state from  $\beta$ . Copy non-final states from  $\alpha$  and non-initial states from  $\beta$ . Final states:

If the initial state is rejecting in  $\beta$ , final states are final states from  $\beta$ .

If the initial state is accepting in  $\beta$ , final states are final states from  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ , except the initial state in  $\beta$ .

#### Kleene Closure

Union final states with the initial state. Copy non-final states. Final states are final states from  $\alpha$  and the initial state.

# 3.1.4 Converting an NFA to a Regular Expression

Set up system of equations. Solve for equation corresponding to initial state. Remember the lemma: if

$$X = LX \cup M$$

then

$$X = L^*M$$