# Turning Automata Theory into a Hands-on Course \*

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#### **ABSTRACT**

We present a hands-on approach to problem solving in the formal languages and automata theory course. Using the tool JFLAP, students can solve a wide range of problems that are tedious to solve using pencil and paper. In combination with the more traditional theory problems, students study a wider-range of problems on a topic. Thus, students explore the formal languages and automata concepts computationally and visually with JFLAP, and theoretically without JFLAP. In addition, we present a new feature in JFLAP, Turing machine building blocks. One can now build complex Turing machines by using other Turing machines as components or building blocks.

## **Categories and Subject Descriptors**

F.4.3 [Theory of Computation]: Mathematical Logic and Formal Languages Formal Languages; D.1.7 [Software]: Programming Techniques Visual Programming

#### **General Terms**

Theory

#### Keywords

JFLAP, automata, pushdown automata, Turing machine, grammar, SLR parsing, LL parsing, L-system

#### 1. INTRODUCTION

Traditionally, the formal languages and automata (FLA) courses have assigned pencil and paper homework exercises of two types: proofs and construction exercises. The second of these types of problems are limited to small examples. Even on a moderate-size example of constructing an automaton with eight states, students are unlikely to do much

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SIGCSE'06 March 1–5, 2006, Houston, Texas, USA. Copyright 2006 ACM 1-59593-259-3/06/0003 ...\$5.00. testing as it is tedious to trace by hand. Grading such problems is similarly slow and error prone.

We describe a hands-on approach to the FLA course that allows students to explore many of the FLA concepts computationally and visually using the tool JFLAP. We are not advocating to remove the proof type of exercises from the course, but rather to supplement them with hands-on explorations of related topics. For example, consider the problem of proving that if a language L is regular, then so is the language  $L^{R}$  (the language with all strings from L reversed). This is a common proof-type problem given in this course. For some students, before proving this, it might be helpful to visualize an example first. They start with some regular language L, build a deterministic finite automaton (DFA) for it, and then convert this DFA into a DFA for  $L^R$ . They must create test data for both DFA to convince themselves that the DFA are correct. This approach relates the FLA course more in line with the majority of their computer science courses which are hands on and involve constructing, debugging and testing.

Others have taken similar hands-on approaches to the FLA course, but focus on a smaller number of topics. Turing's World[1] allows one to create and experiment with Turing machines and automata. The focus is on Turing machines and submachines. Taylor[8] uses the software Deus Ex Machina letting users experiment with Turing machines, finite automata, pushdown automata, and several other types of automata. Forlan[7] is a toolset used in conjunction with Standard ML for creating and experimenting with finite automata, regular expressions and grammars. Language Emulator[9] is a toolkit for a number of forms of regular languages including Moore and Mealy machines, and many types of translations between the forms. Grinder[4] has developed the FSA Simulator for experimenting with finite state automata. It is part of Webworks[3], an extensive hypertextbook under development that will cover many topics in automata theory. It incorporates text, sound, pictures, illustrations, slide shows, video clips and active learning models.

In this paper we present an overview of JFLAP and then give several examples of how it can be used computationally and visually to explore FLA concepts in depth. We then present new features of JFLAP including the ability to build more interesting Turing machines with building blocks. Turing machines built can be named and reused as a component in another Turing machine. We conclude with an evaluation of JFLAP's use around the world and a description of future work.

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#### 2. AN OVERVIEW OF JFLAP

JFLAP[5, 6, 2] is an instructional tool for creating and experimenting with several types of nondeterministic automata, grammars, regular expressions, L-systems, and experimenting with the conversion from one structure to another. With JFLAP one can build a finite automaton (FA), a pushdown automaton (PDA), or a multi-tape Turing machine (TM) and observe its simulation on several inputs. One can enter a regular grammar, a context-free grammar (CFG), or an unrestricted grammar and observe the brute-force parsing of strings in this grammar with the result shown either as a derivation or a parse tree.

JFLAP allows the conversion from one form to another. One can convert an NFA to a DFA to a minimal state DFA, convert between NFA and regular grammars, or convert between NFA and regular expressions. One can convert a nondeterministic PDA (NPDA) to a CFG or a CFG to an NPDA. One can convert a CFG to Chomsky Normal Form, along the way removing  $\lambda$ -productions, unit productions and useless productions. One can convert a CFG to either an LL(1) or SLR(1) parse table and then parse strings in the language. Finally, one can create an L-system, a different type of grammar that can be used for modeling the growth of plants and fractals.

#### 3. PROBLEM SOLVING WITH JFLAP

The previous section described the construction and testing of automata and grammars in JFLAP, and the conversion from one form to another. That in itself allows for users to build and test automata more easily than can be created using pencil and paper.

We now describe several other types of problem solving with JFLAP that are tedious to do with pencil and paper.

## 3.1 Comparison of Finite Automata

Given two different FA, determine if they are equivalent and if not, then show that they do not accept the same language. A student can either be given the two FA in files, or can build them with JFLAP. The student must determine a good set of test data and then run simulations on the input strings. The multiple run window allows for the testing of multiple inputs simultaneously. Alternatively, they can minimize the two FA and compare their results. Finally, JFLAP's Compare Equivalence will announce if the two FA are equivalent. If the two FA are not equivalent, a student needs to determine one string that is accepted in one FA and not in the other.

## 3.2 Comparison of Regular Expressions

Given two regular expressions, determine if they are equivalent or not. In JFLAP one cannot test strings for a regular expression. However, one can convert a regular expression to an equivalent FA and then run a series of test strings similar to the comparison of two FA.

## 3.3 Working Backwards - DFA to NFA

This problem shows the understanding of how an NFA is transformed into a DFA, but works backwards. The students are given a DFA from JFLAP that was transformed from an NFA. The DFA has each state labeled with the numbers of the states from the NFA. The problem is to create the original NFA. There is an assumption that the original NFA did not have any  $\lambda$ -transitions. Once the original NFA

has been created, students can use the *Compare Equivalence* option with the DFA to determine if they have created the correct NFA.

## 3.4 Creating Automata Based on Properties

JFLAP can be used to construct examples that illustrate the properties of languages. For example, given two automata, build an automaton that represents the union of the two. The two automata may already be constructed. Using the Combine Automata option, both automaton are placed in the same window, one of them losing its start state status as only one state can retain this status. The user can then connect and modify them. In this case, a new start state is created and  $\lambda$ -productions are added from the new start state to each of the previous start states. The user can then test the new automaton on multiple inputs.

A more complicated example is to consider the property called SwapFirstLast(L), which takes the first letter of each string in L and swaps it with the last letter of that string. Students are to show that if L is regular, than SwapFirstLast(L) is regular. Students would approach this problem in two ways. First, using JFLAP they would construct a simple DFA M with language L, and then convert it to the DFA M2 for the language SwapFirstLast(L). Second, without JFLAP they would formally prove SwapFirstLast(L) is regular.

## 3.5 Determining Distinguishable States

One of the transformations in JFLAP is converting a DFA to a minimal state DFA. The algorithm in JFLAP assumes initially that all the final states are indistinguishable and all the nonfinal states are indistinguishable, grouping indistinguishable states into two sets, one for final states and one for non-final states. The algorithm then attempts to determine if some of the states in a set are distinguishable, thus splitting a set into two or more sets. If a user suspects that two states in the same set are distinguishable, they can modify the DFA to make each of these states a start state (at different times) and determine a string that is accepted by one of the modified DFAs and not the other. If there is such a string, then these states are distinguishable and need to be placed into separate sets.

#### 3.6 Exploring with Nondeterminism

Most students are used to thinking sequentially. When given a problem that can only be solved nondeterministically, many students struggle. The problem of determining if a string is a palindrome can be solved by a nondeterministic PDA (NPDA), and not by a deterministic PDA (DPDA). Students taking the sequential approach to this problem want to find the middle and then determine if the right and left half match up. But this approach does not work with a DPDA. With JFLAP, students can build an NPDA for this problem and then observe how the nondeterminism works. When running the simulation with JFLAP, each current configuration is shown. For a valid input string, one of those configurations reaches the middle of the string and the simulation begins matching the left and right halves, continuing to acceptance.

#### 3.7 Exponential Growth in Grammars

JFLAP can show the exponential growth in grammars, and the result of transforming the grammar. For example,

students are given the grammar on the left that contains a  $\lambda$ -production and asked to transform it into an equivalent grammar with no lambda-productions or unit-productions, the resulting CFG shown on the right. They are then asked to compare brute-force parsing of the two grammars. For input aaababaabbb, the grammar on the left takes a long time to accept, generating 13286 nodes in the derivation tree. The grammar on the right accepts quickly after generating 335 nodes in the derivation tree.

$$\begin{array}{lll} S \rightarrow aB & S \rightarrow aB \\ S \rightarrow Ba & S \rightarrow Ba \\ B \rightarrow aBb & S \rightarrow a \\ B \rightarrow BB & B \rightarrow aBb \\ B \rightarrow bBa & B \rightarrow BB \\ B \rightarrow \lambda & B \rightarrow bBa \\ B \rightarrow ab & B \rightarrow ba \end{array}$$

Similar examples can be shown with unrestricted grammars. Those grammars with more items on the left side of a production will proceed more quickly in parsing.

## 3.8 Determining the Language of a Grammar

JFLAP can be used in determining the language of a given CFG. In one approach, the CFG can be tested on multiple inputs. In another approach, the user can divide the problem into smaller components. For each variable, enter its productions to determine the capability of that variable (replacing other variables with temporary terminals). For example, consider the grammar below with seven productions. The user can enter all the B productions in a new grammar window, with a small s for S (otherwise derivations are not possible). The user then derives strings  $\{b, ab, bs, aabs, absa, \ldots\}$  and determines that  $B \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} a^*b(\lambda +$  $S)a^*$ . Entering only S productions with a special terminal to represent the variable B, the user can determine that  $S \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} a^*bBa^*$ . Putting them together,  $S \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} a^*ba^*b(\lambda + S)a^*$ or  $(a^*ba^*b)^*a^*$ . The user can then test the language by developing a set of test strings.

#### 3.9 In Depth Study of FOLLOW sets

One of the early steps in LL or SLR parsing is to compute the FOLLOW set for each variable in the grammar. The FOLLOW set of a variable is the set of all terminals that can follow this variable in some derivation. Students are given an algorithm for computing the FOLLOW sets, and many can follow the algorithm, but it is not clear that they really understand the meaning of the FOLLOW sets. For this problem, students are given a grammar and are asked to compute the FIRST and FOLLOW sets for the variables in the grammar. Then they are asked to show the sentential form in a derivation for each symbol in a FOLLOW set that shows that terminal immediately following the corresponding variable. They can solve this problem partially using JFLAP by parsing strings with the brute-force parser. A derivation is shown for each string and one can observe the sentential forms in the derivation. Several strings may be needed and a few sentential forms may not be found due to the order JFLAP replaces productions when given a choice.

## 3.10 Parsing Algorithms: Two Approaches

We show how JFLAP can be used to extensively study SLR parsing from two approaches. A similar approach applies to LL parsing. Given an SLR(1) grammar, the first approach is to convert the grammar to an NPDA using the SLR parsing method. The resulting NPDA has three states and is likely to be nondeterministic. Students then run the NPDA on several inputs, making the run deterministic by choosing the lookahead each time and freezing configurations that are not chosen. Next students view the parsing from a second approach. They build an SLR(1) parse table for the grammar and step through the parsing of the same inputs with the same lookaheads.

## 3.11 Parsing grammars that are not SLR(1)

With JFLAP one can build an SLR(1) parse table even if there is a conflict in the table. For each entry that has a conflict, the user chooses one of them. Then the user can proceed and parse strings using the parse table. Not all strings in the grammar can be parsed using the choices chosen. Here is a problem given to students to test their understanding of the parse table. Given a CFG that is not SLR(1) and a given input string, find the correct choices for conflicts in the parse table so the string can be parsed.

## 3.12 Running a Universal Turing machine

With JFLAP's 3-tape Turing machine, we have constructed a Universal Turing machine that has 34 states. Using the Universal Turing machine, a student can encode a simple Turing machine with a few transitions, each encoded transition will be a string of 0's and 1's of about length 15. A student can then enter an input consisting of the encoded machine followed by an encoded input string and observe the simulation.

#### 3.13 Comparison of one-tape and two-tape TM

Students are given the language  $a^nb^nc^n$  and asked to build a one-tape TM in JFLAP for this language, and then to build a two-tape TM in JFLAP for this language. They then compare the running of several input strings of different lengths on each TM. In this example, an efficient one-tape TM will run in  $O(n^2)$  time and an efficient two-tape TM will run in O(n) time.

#### 4. NEW FEATURE: BUILDING BLOCKS

A new feature of JFLAP is Turing machine building blocks. A building block is a Turing machine with a specific purpose that can be used as a component in building Turing machines. One can build a complex Turing machine more easily using building blocks than states.

#### 4.1 Creation of Building Blocks

To create a building block, create a Turing machine using states and transitions, and save it in a file. The Turing machine can then be read in as a building block by selecting the *Building Block Creator*. The building block appears as a box and can be connected with transitions. We provide special transitions for hooking up building blocks more easily. Building blocks can also be formed using a combination of states and building blocks.

With building blocks one wants to start with a simple foundation. We list simple Turing machines that can form

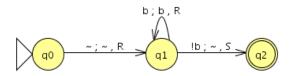


Figure 1: Building Block for Rnot\_b

a library with which to build more complicated Turing machines. These building blocks can be provided for students to use or they can build some or all of them.

R Move right once
R\_a move right once, keep
moving right until an a
Rnot\_a move right once, keep
moving right until not an a
a write an a (don't move)
start starting block
halt halting block

Each of these represent a simple Turing machine. There are analogous machines for moving left L, L\_a and Lnot\_a and analogous machines for other symbols of the alphabet.

Building blocks can be connected using standard Turing machine transitions. In JFLAP the standard TM transition a; b, R means to read the symbol a, write the symbol b and move right. We have created special symbols for transitions and a new type of transition. The symbol  $\sim$  means to ignore a read or write. The transition  $\sim$ ;  $\sim$ , R means to ignore the symbol to read, ignore the symbol to write and move right. The symbol !x used in the read position means to match any terminal that is not the terminal x. For example, Figure 1 is a Turing machine for moving right once and then continuing to move right until there is a symbol that is not a b. We have named this Turing machine Rnot\_b and will use it as a building block.

One may want to connect two building blocks in one of two ways. First, one may want to connect them so they execute in sequence, connecting them with  $\sim; \sim, S$  (S means stay put). Second, one may want to move to a second building block depending on the current symbol after processing the first building block. For example  $a; \sim, S$  means if a is the current symbol on the tape then enter this building block and do not move on the tape head. To further simplify the connection between two building blocks, we have created a Block Transition Creator that only shows the read and assumes the write is  $\sim$  and the move is S. To reduce the duplication of code that is similar except for one symbol, we allow the notation  $a_1, a_2, \ldots a_n \} v$ . This means if one of the  $a_i$  is read, any occurence of v later is replaced by  $a_i$ .

Figure 2 shows a Turing machine built solely with building blocks to represent the transducer f(w) = w' such that w' has all the a's from w listed first, followed by all the b's in w. For example, f(babba) = aabbb. The Turing machine starts in a start building block, which represents a simple Turing machine of one state that is a start state and a final state. It then repeatedly moves right finding the first a past a b, replaces it with a b and then replaces the leftmost b with an a. When all the a's are to the left of all the b's, the tape head moves to the leftmost symbol and enters the halt building block. In this Turing machine, all the transitions

were created with the *Block Transition Creator*. For example, the *start* block has an a transition to the  $Rnot\_a$  block. This a transition means "if there is an a on the tape head, do not write on the tape and do not move the tape head, but go to the  $Rnot\_a$  block for the next instruction."

Building block machines can be quite complicated. Turing machines built with building blocks can be named and saved in a file and used as a building block. Once a building block is read in using the Building Block Creator, a copy of its definition is stored in the new Turing machine. If the same building block is read in a second time, then it's old definition in the file is used. Once a building block is part of a Turing machine, it can be modified. When the Attribute Editor is selected, one can click on a block and then select the option Edit Block. The Turing machine for that block appears in a new tab and can be modified. Be cautious: if there are multiple uses of this block in a TM, modifying one creates a new definition only for that block. It is best to build and test a block before using it in Turing machines so that it does not need to be modified later.

The default name of a building block is the name of the file when the building block is read in. This name can be changed with the  $Set\ Name$  option.

## 4.2 Simulation with Building Blocks

There are five options for the simulation of input strings with Turing machines containing building blocks. One option, Step, provides a trace through the Turing machine one state at a time. When the trace enters a building block, the building block is highlighted as long as the trace is in a state within the building block. Selecting the Focus option will automatically change the view to display the transition diagram for the current building block, with the current state highlighted. Selecting the Defocus option changes the display back to the original Turing machine with its building block highlighted.

A second option, Step by Building Block displays the transition diagram of the original Turing machine and each block is considered one step in the simulation. Thus, the Turing machine moves quickly through a trace. If a block represents "Move right until a blank is seen," then in one step the tape head moves to the right to a blank. There are three fast run options. The Fast Run takes one input string and gives the result of acceptance or not without a trace. Multiple Run and Multiple Run (Transducer) return the result of several strings without providing a trace.

#### 4.3 Other New Features

There are other new features of JFLAP. One is the ability to change the name of a state for all types of automata in JFLAP. The default names for states for all types of automata are qX where X is the number of the state starting with 0. Figure 1 shows the default naming of states q0, q1 and q2. Figure 3 shows a Turing machine in which the four states have been renamed to start, 1, 2, and 3. This Turing machine is a transducer for f(w) = w' in which w must start with an a and have at least one b. The output is a string of b's equal in length to the first group of a's. Another new feature is that Turing machines that are transducers can be run with multiple inputs. Figure 4 shows the simulation of several input strings and the output of those strings. The fourth input string is invalid as it does not contain a b.

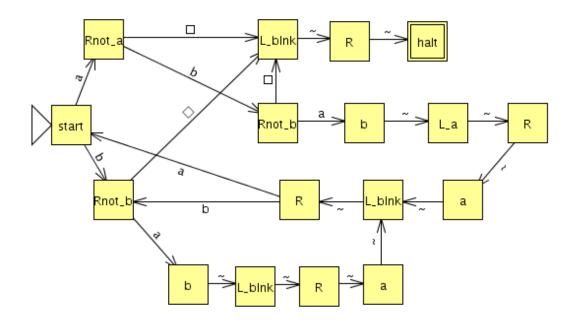


Figure 2: Turing machine to put a's first

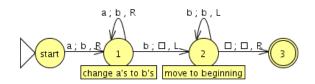


Figure 3: Change first group of a's to b's

Input	Output	Result
aaaaab	bbbbb	Accept
aaabab	bbb	Accept
ab	b	Accept
aaa		Reject

Figure 4: Multiple input for TM transducer

#### 5. JFLAP'S USE AROUND THE WORLD

Since January 2003, JFLAP has been downloaded over 25,000 times in over 120 countries. The type of user was 29% undergraduate student, 18% graduate student, and 16% faculty. JFLAP was required use by 33% and not required by 36%. The type of use of JFLAP was 48% as a resource, 25% for homework, 15% as lecture and 12% as lab. The reason for using JFLAP was 46% taking a course, 14% teaching a course, and 6% research. These statistics do not add up to 100% as some users elected not to respond.

# 6. CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE WORK

We are continuing to develop JFLAP with additional algorithms and ways to use JFLAP in the FLA course. We recently started a two-year study to evaluate JFLAP's effectiveness as a learning tool. A dozen universities are using JFLAP and participating in the study. A two-day JFLAP

workshop was held in June 2005 and we received feedback on the use of JFLAP and now have many ideas for improvements that we plan to implement.

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