

Chap 1

Introduction to the theory
of computation

1.2 Three Basic Concepts

① Languages

② Grammars

③ Automata

[1] Languages

① Σ : (alphabet)

finite, nonempty set of symbols

e.g. $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$

② w : (string over Σ)

finite sequences of symbols from Σ

e.g. $w = abaaa$

Usually we use a, b, c, \dots for elements of Σ
and u, v, w, \dots for string names

③ Σ^* : the set of all strings including empty
string λ

$$\Sigma^+ : \Sigma^* - \{\lambda\}$$

The **concatenation** of two strings w and v is the string obtained by appending the symbols of v to the right end of w , that is, if

$$w = a_1 a_2 \cdots a_n$$

and

$$v = b_1 b_2 \cdots b_m,$$

then the concatenation of w and v , denoted by wv , is

$$wv = a_1 a_2 \cdots a_n b_1 b_2 \cdots b_m.$$

The **reverse** of a string is obtained by writing the symbols in reverse order; if w is a string as shown above, then its reverse w^R is

$$w^R = a_n \cdots a_2 a_1.$$

The **length** of a string w , denoted by $|w|$, is the number of symbols in the string. We will frequently need to refer to the **empty string**, which is a string with no symbols at all. It will be denoted by λ . The following simple relations

$$|\lambda| = 0,$$

$$\lambda w = w\lambda = w$$

hold for all w .

Any string of consecutive symbols in some w is said to be a **substring** of w . If

$$w = vu,$$

then the substrings v and u are said to be a **prefix** and a **suffix** of w , respectively. For example, if $w = abbab$, then $\{\lambda, a, ab, abb, abba, abbab\}$ is the set of all prefixes of w , while bab, ab, b are some of its suffixes.

Simple properties of strings, such as their length, are very intuitive and probably need little elaboration. For example, if u and v are strings, then the length of their concatenation is the sum of the individual lengths, that is,

$$|uv| = |u| + |v|. \quad (1.6)$$

If w is a string, then w^n stands for the string obtained by repeating w n times. As a special case, we define

$$w^0 = \lambda,$$

for all w .

④ L : (language over Σ)

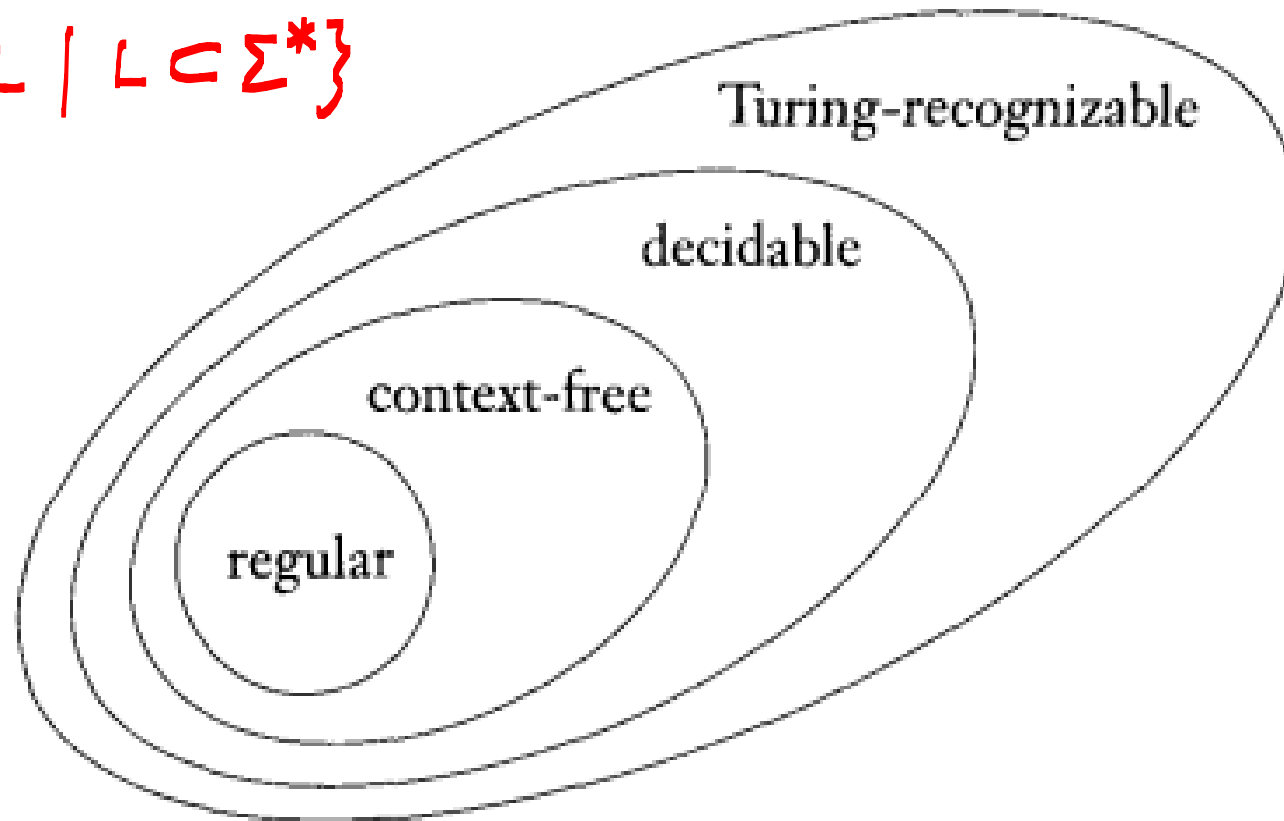
$$L \subset \Sigma^*$$

⑤ $w \in L$: (a string in L)

: a sentence of L

$$2^{\Sigma^*} = \{L \mid L \subset \Sigma^*\}$$

all languages



< Classes of languages >

Example 1.9

Let $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$. Then

$$\Sigma^* = \{\lambda, a, b, aa, ab, ba, bb, aaa, aab, \dots\}.$$

The set

$$\{a, aa, aab\}$$

is a language on Σ . Because it has a finite number of sentences, we call it a finite language. The set

$$L = \{a^n b^n : n \geq 0\}$$

is also a language on Σ . The strings $aabb$ and $aaaabbbb$ are in the language L , but the string abb is not in L . This language is infinite. Most interesting languages are infinite.

Since languages are sets, the union, intersection, and difference of two languages are immediately defined. The complement of a language is defined with respect to Σ^* ; that is, the complement of L is

$$\bar{L} = \Sigma^* - L.$$

The reverse of a language is the set of all string reversals, that is,

$$L^R = \{w^R : w \in L\}.$$

The concatenation of two languages L_1 and L_2 is the set of all strings obtained by concatenating any element of L_1 with any element of L_2 ; specifically,

$$L_1 L_2 = \{xy : x \in L_1, y \in L_2\}.$$

We define L^n as L concatenated with itself n times, with the special cases

$$L^0 = \{\lambda\}$$

and

$$L^1 = L$$

for every language L .

Finally, we define the **star-closure** of a language as

$$L^* = L^0 \cup L^1 \cup L^2 \dots$$

and the **positive closure** as

$$L^+ = L^1 \cup L^2 \dots$$

Example 1.10

If

$$L = \{a^n b^n : n \geq 0\},$$

then

$$L^2 = \{a^n b^n a^m b^m : n \geq 0, m \geq 0\}.$$

Note that n and m in the above are unrelated; the string $aabbbaabbb$ is in L^2 .

The reverse of L is easily described in set notation as

$$L^R = \{b^n a^n : n \geq 0\},$$

but it is considerably harder to describe \bar{L} or L^* this way. A few tries will quickly convince you of the limitation of set notation for the specification of complicated languages.

[2] Grammars

Definition 1.1

A grammar G is defined as a quadruple

$$G = (V, T, S, P),$$

where V is a finite set of objects called **variables**,
 T is a finite set of objects called **terminal symbols**,
 $S \in V$ is a special symbol called the **start variable**,
 P is a finite set of **productions**.

It will be assumed without further mention that the sets V and T are non-empty and disjoint.

The production rules are the heart of a grammar; they specify how the grammar transforms one string into another, and through this they define a language associated with the grammar. In our discussion we will assume that all production rules are of the form

$$x \rightarrow y,$$

where x is an element of $(V \cup T)^+$ and y is in $(V \cup T)^*$. The productions are applied in the following manner: Given a string w of the form

$$w = uxv,$$

we say the production $x \rightarrow y$ is applicable to this string, and we may use it to replace x with y , thereby obtaining a new string

$$z = uyv.$$

This is written as

$$w \Rightarrow z.$$

We say that w **derives** z or that z is derived from w . Successive strings are derived by applying the productions of the grammar in arbitrary order. A production can be used whenever it is applicable, and it can be applied as often as desired. If

$$w_1 \Rightarrow w_2 \Rightarrow \cdots \Rightarrow w_n,$$

we say that w_1 derives w_n and write

$$w_1 \xRightarrow{*} w_n.$$

The $*$ indicates that an unspecified number of steps (including zero) can be taken to derive w_n from w_1 .

Definition 1.2

Let $G = (V, T, S, P)$ be a grammar. Then the set

$$L(G) = \{w \in T^* : S \Rightarrow^* w\}$$

is the language generated by G .

If $w \in L(G)$, then the sequence

$$S \Rightarrow w_1 \Rightarrow w_2 \Rightarrow \dots \Rightarrow w_n \Rightarrow w$$

is a **derivation** of the sentence w . The strings S, w_1, w_2, \dots, w_n , which contain variables as well as terminals, are called **sentential forms** of the derivation.

Example 1.11

Consider the grammar

$$G = (\{S\}, \{a, b\}, S, P),$$

with P given by

$$S \rightarrow aSb,$$

$$S \rightarrow \lambda.$$

Then

$$S \Rightarrow aSb \Rightarrow aaSbb \Rightarrow aabb,$$

so we can write

$$S \xRightarrow{*} aabb.$$

The string $aabb$ is a sentence in the language generated by G , while $aaSbb$ is a sentential form.

Example 1.12

Find a grammar that generates

$$L = \{a^n b^{n+1} : n \geq 0\}.$$

The idea behind the previous example can be extended to this case. All we need to do is generate an extra b . This can be done with a production $S \rightarrow Ab$, with other productions chosen so that A can derive the language in the previous example. Reasoning in this fashion, we get the grammar $G = (\{S, A\}, \{a, b\}, S, P)$, with productions

$$S \rightarrow Ab,$$

$$A \rightarrow aAb,$$

$$A \rightarrow \lambda.$$

Derive a few specific sentences to convince yourself that this works.

Example 1.13

Take $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$, and let $n_a(w)$ and $n_b(w)$ denote the number of a 's and b 's in the string w , respectively. Then the grammar G with productions

$$S \rightarrow SS,$$

$$S \rightarrow \lambda,$$

$$S \rightarrow aSb,$$

$$S \rightarrow bSa$$

generates the language

$$L = \{w : n_a(w) = n_b(w)\}.$$

Normally, a given language has many grammars that generate it. Even though these grammars are different, they are equivalent in some sense. We say that two grammars G_1 and G_2 are **equivalent** if they generate the same language, that is, if

$$L(G_1) = L(G_2).$$

As we will see later, it is not always easy to see if two grammars are equivalent.

Example 1.14

Consider the grammar $G_1 = (\{A, S\}, \{a, b\}, S, P_1)$, with P_1 consisting of the productions

$$S \rightarrow aAb|\lambda,$$

$$A \rightarrow aAb|\lambda.$$

Here we introduce a convenient shorthand notation in which several production rules with the same left-hand sides are written on the same line, with alternative right-hand sides separated by $|$. In this notation $S \rightarrow aAb|\lambda$ stands for the two productions $S \rightarrow aAb$ and $S \rightarrow \lambda$.

This grammar is equivalent to the grammar G in Example 1.11. The equivalence is easy to prove by showing that

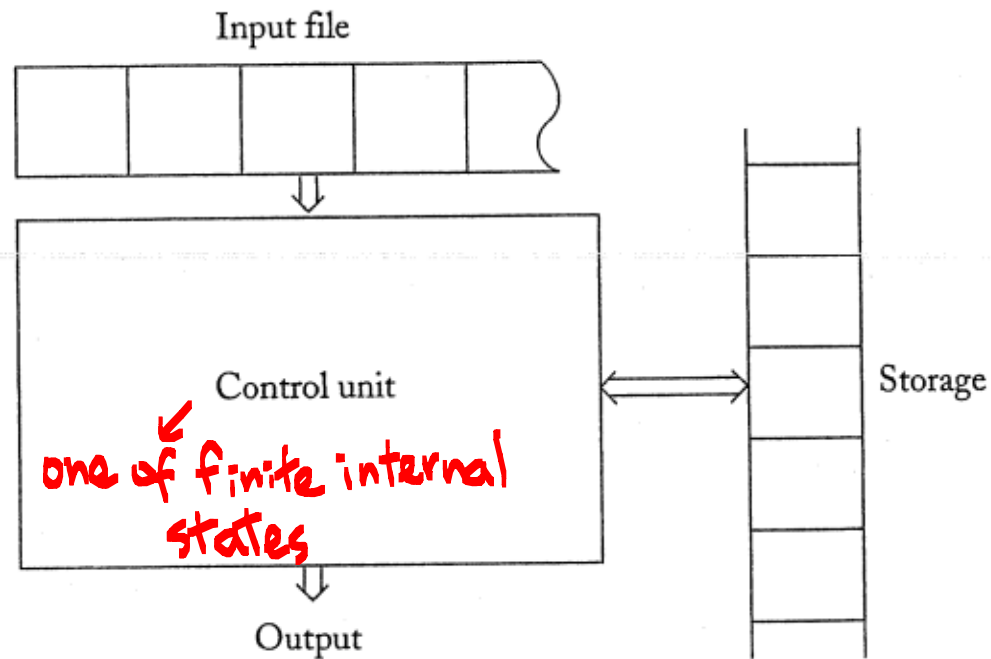
$$L(G_1) = \{a^n b^n : n \geq 0\}.$$

We leave this as an exercise.

[3] Automata

An automaton is an abstract model of a digital computer.

Figure 1.4



① next state is determined by transition function.

② configuration is used to refer to a particular state of the control unit, input file, and temporary storage.

③ a move: $\text{config.} \Rightarrow \text{config.}$

④ deterministic automaton
nondeterministic automaton

⑤ accepter: (output response is "yes" or "no".)
transducer: (others)

