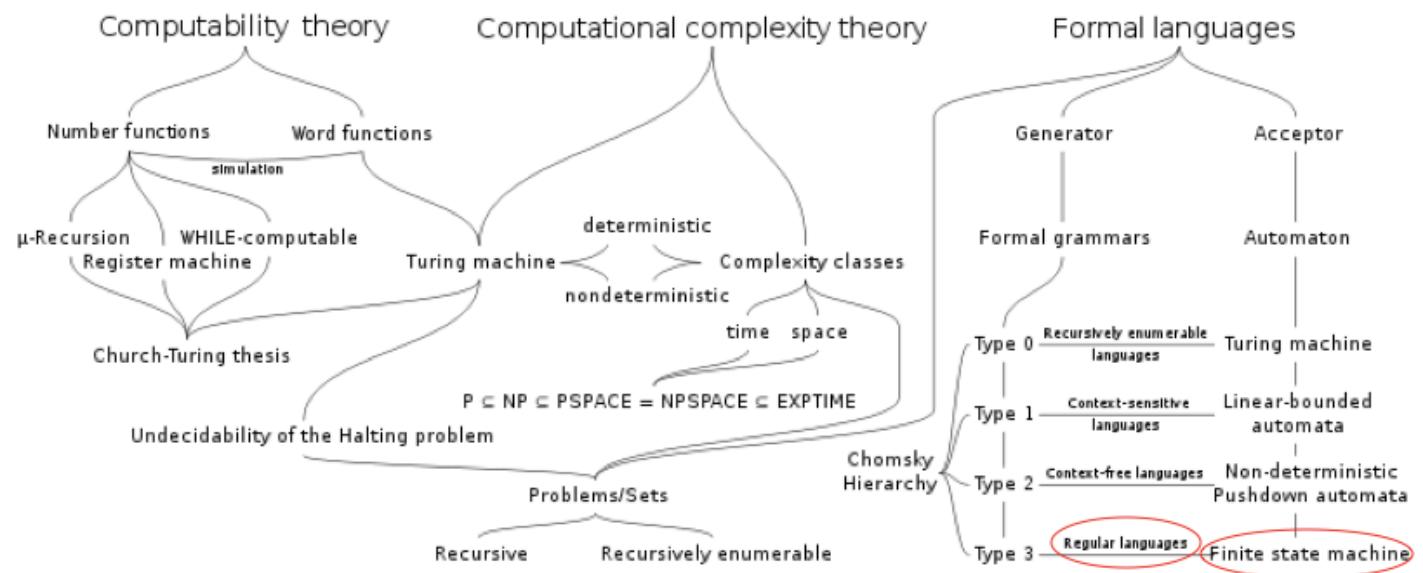


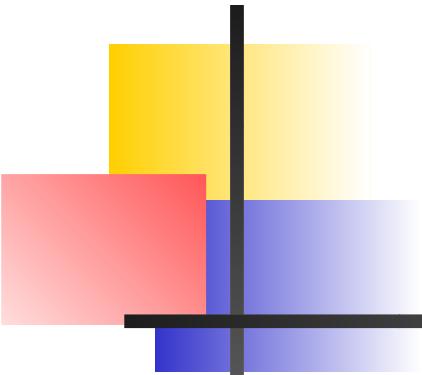
# Generators vs. Recognizers

Up to now we have only described languages in terms of machines that **recognize** a particular language.

But we could also imagine describing a language by a system that is able to **generate** all the strings in a language.



Type 3: Regular Expressions



# Rewriting Systems

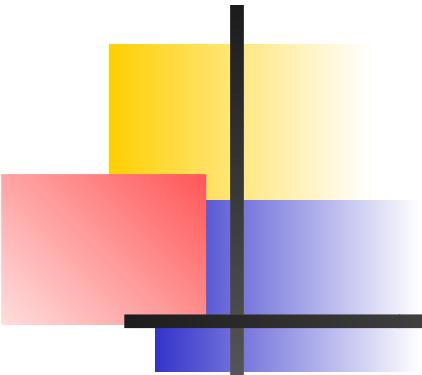
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In order to define a system that generates a language we introduce a new model of computation: Rewriting Systems.

Informally, a rewriting system consists of an alphabet and a set of rules over that alphabet.

You are already familiar with a very powerful rewriting system: Algebra!

Here, the alphabet are the numerals and variable names in addition to operator names. The rules consist of your standard algebraic laws.



# Rewriting Systems

**Example:** Consider the set of algebraic laws:

$$x + x = 2 \times x \quad (1)$$

$$y + 0 = y \quad (2)$$

$$x + y = y + x \quad (3)$$

We can apply these rules to strings formed from the alphabet. Consider:

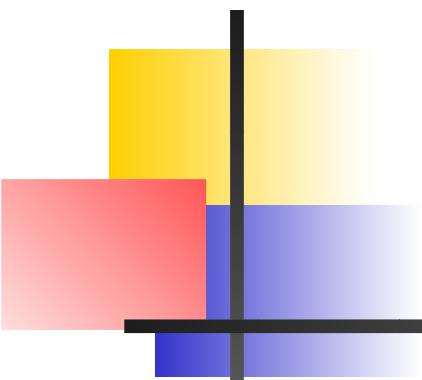
$$5 + 3 + 5 + 0 = 5 + 3 + 5 \quad (\text{rule 2})$$

$$= 5 + 5 + 3 \quad (\text{rule 3})$$

$$= 2 \times 5 + 3 \quad (\text{rule 1})$$

The string that we start with is called the **input string** and the string that we end up with is called the **normal form** because no other rules apply to this final string.

For our purposes we introduce a special rewriting system called a **String Rewriting System**.



# String Rewriting Systems

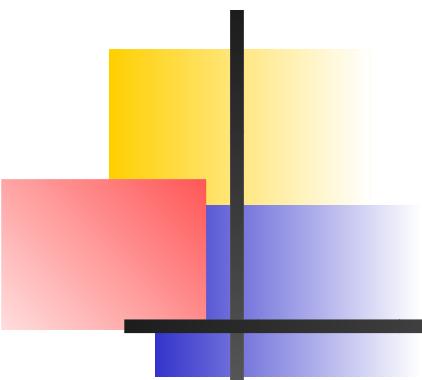
**Definition:** [String Rewriting System (SRS)] A *string rewriting system* is a tuple  $(\Sigma, R)$  where,

- $\Sigma$  is a finite *alphabet* where  $\Sigma^*$  is the set of (possibly empty) strings over  $\Sigma$ .<sup>a</sup>
- $R$  is a binary relation on  $\Sigma^*$ , i.e.,  $R \subseteq \Sigma^* \times \Sigma^*$ . Each element  $(u, v) \in R$  is called a rewriting rule and is usually written as  $u \rightarrow v$ .

An inference step in this formal system is: given a string  $u$  and a rule  $u \rightarrow v$  with  $u, v \in \Sigma^*$  and  $u \rightarrow v \in R$  then the string  $u$  can be *rewritten* as the string  $v$ .

---

<sup>a</sup>The set  $\Sigma^*$  is a convenient short hand to describe all the strings over the alphabet  $\Sigma$ .



# String Rewriting Systems

---

In order for an SRS  $(\Sigma, R)$  to be useful we allow rules to be applied to substrings of given strings; let  $s = xuy, t = xvy$ , and  $u \rightarrow v \in R$  with  $x, y, u, v \in \Sigma^*$ , then we say that  $s$  *rewrites to*  $t$  and we write,

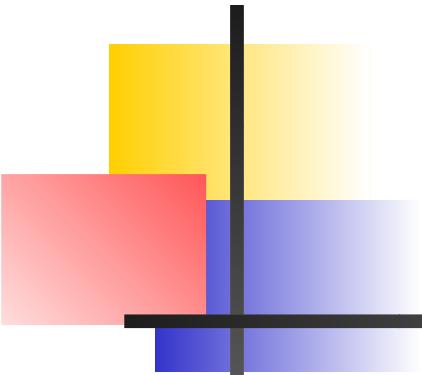
$$s \Rightarrow t.$$

More formally,

**Definition:** [one-step rewriting relation] Let  $(\Sigma, R)$  be a string rewriting system, then the *one-step rewriting relation*  $RW$  is defined as the set  $\Sigma^* \times \Sigma^*$  with  $s \Rightarrow t \in RW$  for strings  $s, t \in \Sigma^*$  if and only if there exist  $x, y, u, v \in \Sigma^*$  such that  $s = xuy, t = xvy$ , and  $u \rightarrow v \in R$ .

In plain English: any two string  $s, t$  belong to the relation  $RW$  if and only if they can be related by a rewrite rule in the rule set  $R$ .

**Exercise:**  $R \subseteq RW$ . Why? (spoiler alert, next page holds the solution)



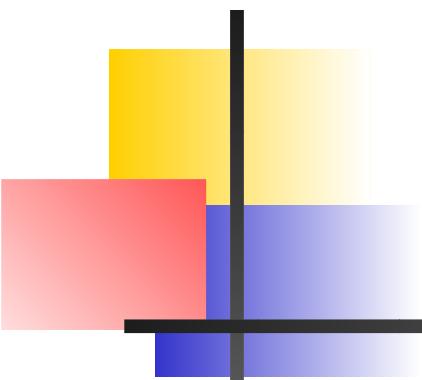
# String Rewriting Systems

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**Proposition:**  $R \subseteq RW$ .

**Proof:** We use the definition of a subset,  $R \subseteq RW$  iff  $\forall e \in R. e \in RW$ , for our proof. There is nothing to prove for the ‘only if’ direction. More interesting is the ‘if’ direction, if we can show that all elements of  $R$  are also elements of  $RW$  then it follows from the definition that  $R \subseteq RW$ .

An element of  $R$  is the pair  $(u, v)$  with  $u, v \in \Sigma^*$  if the rewriting system contains the rule  $u \rightarrow v$ . An element of  $RW$  is the pair  $(xuy, xvy)$  with  $u, v, x, y \in \Sigma^*$  if the rewriting system contains the rule  $u \rightarrow v$ . Thus,  $RW$  contains pairs of strings where the first string contains a substring that is the left side of a rule in the rewriting system. Observe that  $(u, v) \in RW$  with  $x$  and  $y$  the empty strings. It follows that all elements of  $R$  are members of  $RW$ .  $\square$



# String Rewriting Systems

Given a string rewriting system  $(\Sigma, R)$ , we can obviously apply the rewriting rules to the results of a rewriting step. This gives rise to *derivations*

$$s_n \Rightarrow s_{n-1} \Rightarrow \dots \Rightarrow s_1 \Rightarrow s_0,$$

with  $s_k \in \Sigma^*$ .

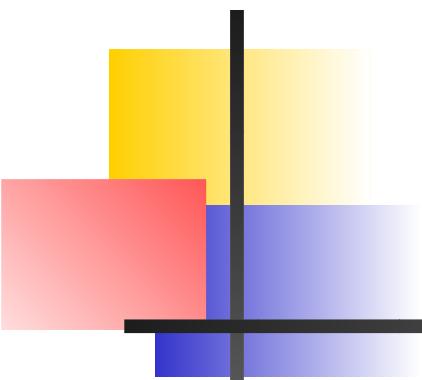
We say that  $s_0$  is a *normal form* if  $s_0$  cannot be rewritten any further.

The *transitive closure*  $\Rightarrow^*$  of the one-step rewriting relation is the set all pairs of strings that are related to each other via zero or more rewriting steps, e.g.,

$$s_n \Rightarrow^* s_0,$$

and

$$s_i \Rightarrow^* s_i.$$



# String Rewriting Systems

**Example:** The urn game. An urn contains black and white beads. The game has the following rules:

- if you remove two black beads you have to replace them with a black bead.
- if you remove two white beads you have to replace them with a black bead.
- if you remove a white and a black bead you have to replace them with a white bead.

Given the contents of an urn, what is the outcome of the game?

The game can be set up as a string rewriting system  $(\Sigma, R)$ . Let  $\Sigma = \{\text{black, white}\}$  and let  $R$  be the following set of rules,

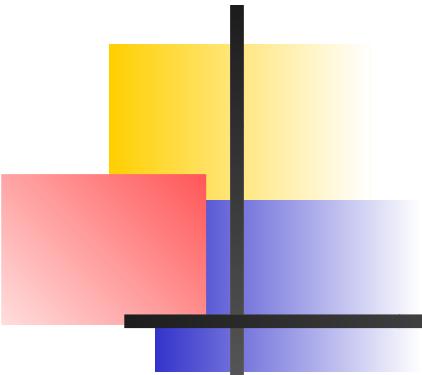
$$\begin{array}{lll} \text{black black} & \rightarrow & \text{black} \\ \text{white white} & \rightarrow & \text{black} \\ \text{black white} & \rightarrow & \text{white} \\ \text{white black} & \rightarrow & \text{white} \end{array}$$

black white black white  $\Rightarrow$  black white white  $\Rightarrow$  white white  $\Rightarrow$  black

black black white white  $\Rightarrow$  black white white  $\Rightarrow$  white white  $\Rightarrow$  black

black black white  $\Rightarrow$  black white  $\Rightarrow$  white

black white black  $\Rightarrow$  black white  $\Rightarrow$  white



# String Rewriting Systems

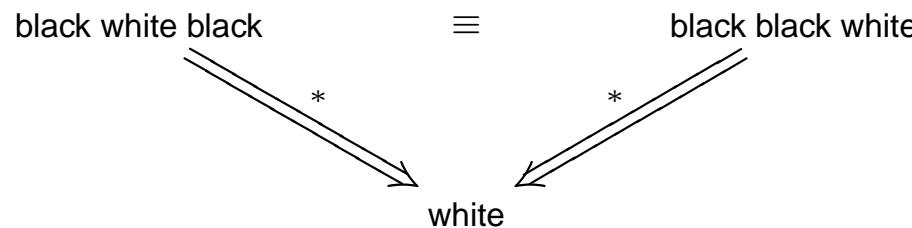
## Observations:

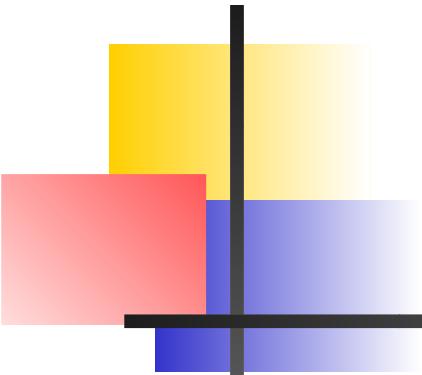
- It can be shown that for each urn there exists a unique normal form, the order of rule application does not matter.
- If we interpret a rewrite rule  $u \rightarrow v$  as specifying that  $u$  is the same as  $v$  then we can interpret the normal form as a 'value' for an urn. Consider,

black white black  $\Rightarrow$  black white  $\Rightarrow$  white,

the normal form 'white' can be considered the value for the urn.

- We say that two urns are equivalent if they have the same normal form,





# String Rewriting Systems

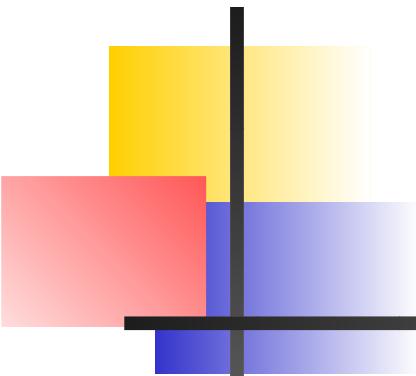
**Example:** Palindrome generator. We construct a string rewriting system  $(\Sigma, R)$  with  $\Sigma = \{a, b, \dots, z, \alpha\}$  and  $R$  the set of rules,

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \alpha & \rightarrow & a\alpha a \\ \alpha & \rightarrow & b\alpha b \\ & \vdots & \\ \alpha & \rightarrow & z\alpha z \\ a\alpha a & \rightarrow & a \\ b\alpha b & \rightarrow & b \\ & \vdots & \\ z\alpha z & \rightarrow & z \\ \alpha & \rightarrow & \epsilon \end{array}$$

$$\alpha \Rightarrow r\alpha r \Rightarrow raa\alpha ar \Rightarrow rad\alpha dar \Rightarrow radar$$

**Exercise:** Derive the normal form: *racecar*

**Exercise:** Derive the normal form: *redder*



# Grammars

## Observations:

- We have seen in the case of the palindrome generator that SRSs are well suited for generating strings with structure.
- By modifying the standard SRS just slightly we obtain a convenient framework for generating strings with desirable structure – *Grammars*

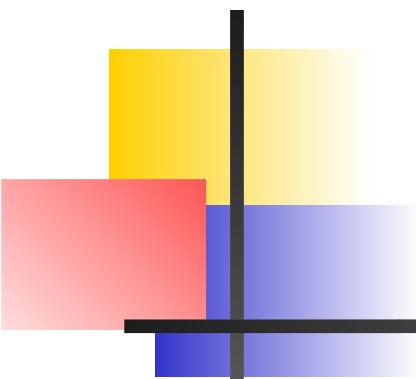
**Definition:** [Grammar] A *grammar* is a 4-tuple  $(V, \Sigma, R, s)$  such that,

- $V$  is a set of variables called the *non-terminals*,
- $\Sigma$  with  $V \cap \Sigma = \emptyset$ , is a set of symbols called the *terminals*,<sup>a</sup>
- $R$  is a set of rules of the form  $u \rightarrow v$  with  $u, v \in (V \cup \Sigma)^*$ ,<sup>b</sup>
- $s$  is called the *start symbol* and  $s \in V$ .

---

<sup>a</sup>The fact that  $V$  and  $\Sigma$  are non-overlapping means that there will never be confusion between terminals and non-terminals.

<sup>b</sup>All sets in this definition are considered to be *finite*.



# Grammars

**Example:** Grammar for arithmetic expressions. We define the grammar  $(V, \Sigma, R, s)$  as follows:

- $V = \{E\}$ ,
- $\Sigma = \{a, b, c, +, *, (, )\}$ ,
- $R$  is the set of rules,

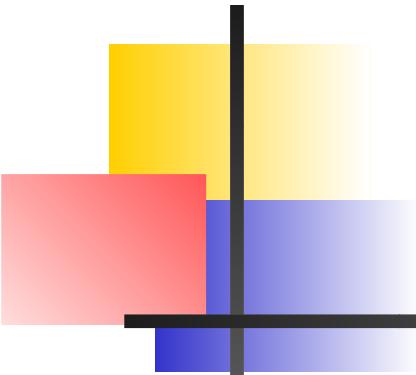
$$\begin{array}{lcl} E & \rightarrow & E + E \\ E & \rightarrow & E * E \\ E & \rightarrow & (E) \\ E & \rightarrow & a \\ E & \rightarrow & b \\ E & \rightarrow & c \end{array}$$

- $s = E$  (clearly this satisfies  $s \in V$ ).

With grammars, derivations always start with the start symbol. Consider,

$$E \Rightarrow E * E \Rightarrow (E) * E \Rightarrow (E + E) * E \Rightarrow (a + E) * E \Rightarrow (a + b) * E \Rightarrow (a + b) * c.$$

Here,  $(a + b) * c$  is a normal form often also called a *terminal* or *derived string*.



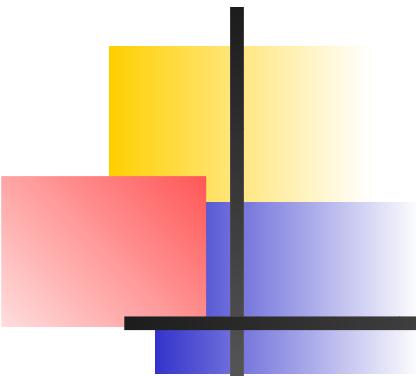
# Grammars

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**Exercise:** Identify the rule that was applied at each rewrite step in the above derivation.

**Exercise:** Derive the string  $((a))$ .

**Exercise:** Derive the string  $a + b * c$ .



# Grammars

**Example:** Grammar for strings of a's and b's with at least one b in them. We define the grammar  $(V, \Sigma, R, s)$  as follows:

- $V = \{S, A, B\}$ ,
- $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$ ,
- $R$  is the set of rules,

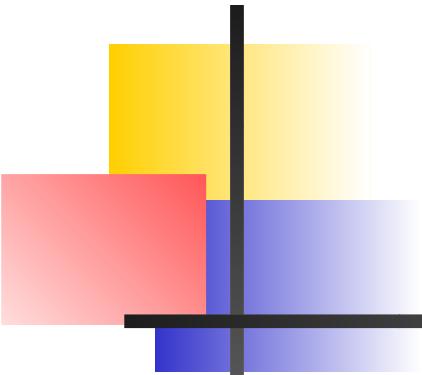
$$\begin{array}{lcl} S & \rightarrow & A \ b \ B \\ A & \rightarrow & \epsilon \\ A & \rightarrow & a \ A \\ A & \rightarrow & b \ A \\ B & \rightarrow & \epsilon \\ B & \rightarrow & a \ B \\ B & \rightarrow & b \ B \end{array}$$

- $s = S$ .

**Exercise:** Derive string aba.

**Exercise:** Derive string bbb.

**Exercise:** Derive string b.



# Grammars

---

We are now in the position to define exactly what we mean by the *language of a grammar*.

**Definition:** [Language of a Grammar] Let  $G = (V, \Sigma, R, s)$  be a grammar, then we define the *language of grammar G* as the set of all terminal strings that can be derived from the start symbol  $s$  by rewriting using the rules in  $R$ . Formally,

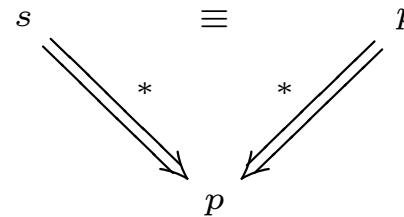
$$L(G) = \{q \mid s \Rightarrow^* q \wedge q \in \Sigma^*\}.$$

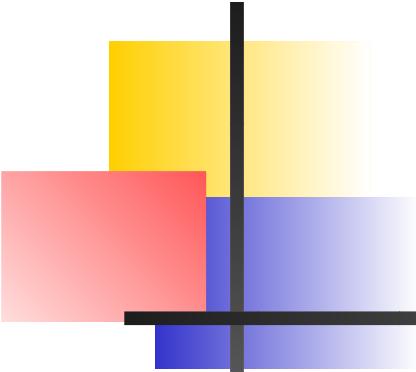
**Example:** Let  $J = (V, \Sigma, R, s)$  be the grammar of Java, then  $L(J)$  is the set of all possible Java programs.

# Grammars

## Observations:

- With the concept of a language we can now ask interesting questions. For example, given a grammar  $G = (V, \Sigma, R, s)$  and some sentence  $p \in \Sigma^*$ , does  $p$  belong to  $L(G)$ ?
- If we let  $J$  be the grammar of Java, then asking whether some string  $p \in \Sigma^*$  is in  $L(J)$  is equivalent to asking whether  $p$  is a *syntactically correct program*.
- We can prove language membership by showing that the sentence  $p$  in question can be derived from the start symbol. Graphically,





# Grammars

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## Observations:

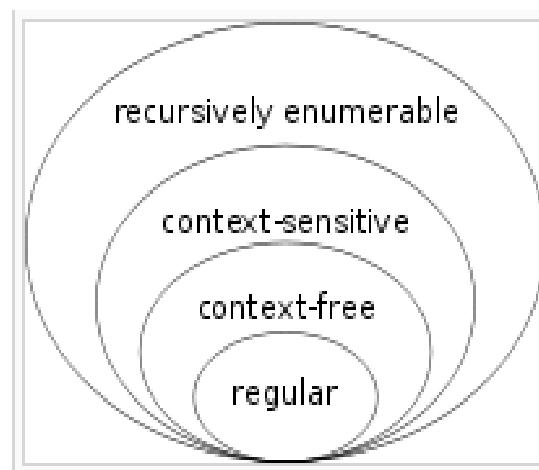
- By restricting the shape of the rewrite rules in a grammar we obtain different language *classes*.
- The most famous set of language classes is the *Chomsky Hierarchy*.

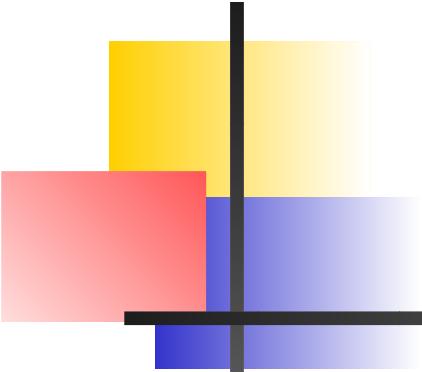
# The Chomsky Hierarchy

Let  $G = (V, \Sigma, R, s)$  be a grammar. Restricting the shape of the rules in  $R$  gives rise to the following hierarchy.

Rules	Grammar	Language	Machine
$\alpha \rightarrow \beta$	Type-0	Recursively Enumerable	Turing machine
$\alpha A \beta \rightarrow \alpha \gamma \beta$	Type-1	Context-sensitive	Linear-bounded Turing machine
$A \rightarrow \gamma$	Type-2	Context-free	Pushdown automaton
$A \rightarrow a$ and $A \rightarrow aB$	Type-3	Regular	Finite state automaton

where  $\alpha, \beta, \gamma \in (V \cup \Sigma)^*$ ,  $A, B \in V$ ,  $a \in \Sigma$ . In Type-1  $\gamma$  is not allowed to be the empty string.





# Type 3: Regular Grammars

A grammar  $G = (V, \Sigma, R, s)$  is called regular (type 3) if and only if the rules in  $R$  are of the form <sup>a</sup>

$$A \rightarrow a B$$

or

$$A \rightarrow a$$

with  $A, B \in V$  and  $a \in \Sigma$ .

---

<sup>a</sup>If the language include the empty string then the rule  $s \rightarrow \epsilon$  will need to be added to the grammar.

# Type 3: Regular Grammars

**Example:** Grammar for strings of one or more 1's followed by a single 0. We define the grammar  $(V, \Sigma, R, s)$  as follows:

- $V = \{A, S\}$ ,
- $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$ ,
- $R$  is the set of rules,

$$\begin{array}{lcl} S & \rightarrow & 1 A \\ A & \rightarrow & 1 A \\ A & \rightarrow & 0 \end{array}$$

- $s = S$ .

# Type 3: Regular Grammars

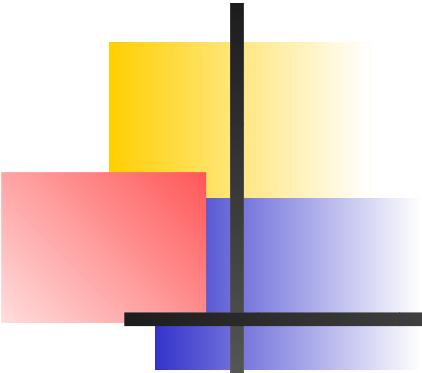
**Example:** Grammar for strings of a's and b's with at least one b in them. We define the grammar  $(V, \Sigma, R, s)$  as follows:

- $V = \{A, B\}$ ,
- $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$ ,
- $R$  is the set of rules,

$$\begin{array}{lcl} A & \rightarrow & a A \\ A & \rightarrow & b A \\ A & \rightarrow & b B \\ A & \rightarrow & b \\ B & \rightarrow & a B \\ B & \rightarrow & b B \\ B & \rightarrow & a \\ B & \rightarrow & b \end{array}$$

- $s = A$ .

This shows that the language of strings of a's and b's with at least one b in them is a regular language.

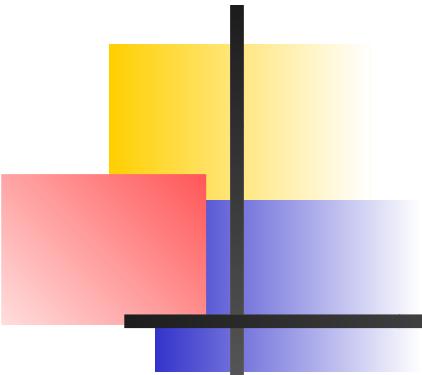


# Regular Languages and Regular Grammars

**Lemma:** If a language is recognized by a FA then it is generated by a type-3 grammar.

**Proof:** We show that if a language is recognized by a DFA then we can construct a type-3 grammar that generates it. Let  $M = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$  be a DFA that recognizes language  $L(M)$ . We now construct the type-3 grammar  $G = (V, \Sigma, R, s)$  that simulates the computations of the DFA :

- For each state  $q \in Q$  we construct the non-terminal symbol  $\langle q \rangle \in V$ ,
- The terminal set  $\Sigma$  in the grammar is the same as the alphabet of the machine,
- We construct the rule set  $R$  as follows, let  $q, p \in Q$  and let  $a \in \Sigma$ ,
  - add a rule of the form  $\langle q \rangle \rightarrow a \langle p \rangle$  for each transition  $\delta(q, a) = p$ ,
  - add a rule of the form  $\langle q \rangle \rightarrow a$  for each transition  $\delta(q, a) = p$  where  $p \in F$ ,
  - add a rule of the form  $\langle q_0 \rangle \rightarrow \epsilon$  if the initial state is an accepting state, i.e.,  $q_0 \in F$ .
- We let  $s = \langle q_0 \rangle$ .



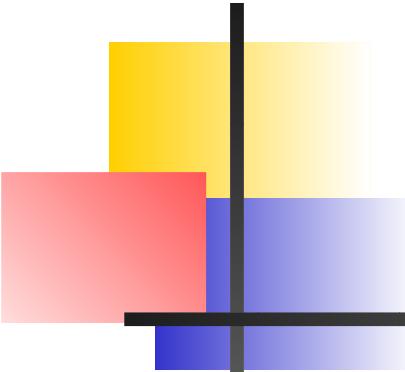
# Regular Languages and Regular Grammars

Now, for any string  $w = w_1 w_2 \dots w_n \in L(M)$  the machine  $M$  will perform the computation

$$q_0 w_1 w_2 \dots w_n \vdash w_1 q_1 w_2 \dots w_n \vdash \dots \vdash w_1 w_2 \dots q_{n-1} w_n \vdash w_1 w_2 \dots w_n q_n$$

with  $q_n \in F$ . We can show by induction on  $n$  that the input string is generated by the grammar with the derivation

$$\langle q_0 \rangle \Rightarrow w_1 \langle q_1 \rangle \Rightarrow w_1 w_2 \langle q_2 \rangle \Rightarrow \dots \Rightarrow w_1 w_2 \dots w_{n-1} \langle q_{n-1} \rangle \Rightarrow w_1 w_2 \dots w_{n-1} w_n$$



# Regular Languages and Regular Grammars

Consider:

1.  $s = \epsilon$  – in the machine this gives rise to the computation  $q_0$  which is also an accepting state, the grammar derives the empty string via the rule  $\langle q_0 \rangle \rightarrow \epsilon$ .
2.  $s = w_1$  – this gives rise to the computation  $q_0 w_1 \vdash w_1 q_1$  where  $q_1$  is an accepting state; the grammar derives string  $w_1$  via the rule  $\langle q_0 \rangle \rightarrow w_1$ .
3. Any substring  $s = w_1 w_2 \dots w_k$  of string  $w = w_1 w_2 \dots w_n \in L(M)$  with  $k \leq n$  – then the machine performs the computation

$$q_0 w_1 w_2 \dots w_n \vdash w_1 q_1 w_2 \dots w_n \vdash \dots \vdash w_1 w_2 \dots q_{k-1} w_k \vdash w_1 w_2 \dots w_k q_k$$

where  $q_k$  might or might not be an accepting state; as inductive hypothesis we assume that the grammar derives the string  $w_1 w_2 \dots w_{k-1}$  with the following derivation

$$\langle q_0 \rangle \Rightarrow w_1 \langle q_1 \rangle \Rightarrow w_1 w_2 \langle q_2 \rangle \Rightarrow \dots \Rightarrow w_1 w_2 \dots w_{k-1} \langle q_{k-1} \rangle$$

then it follows from the inductive hypothesis and the fact that by construction there has to exist at least one of the following rules

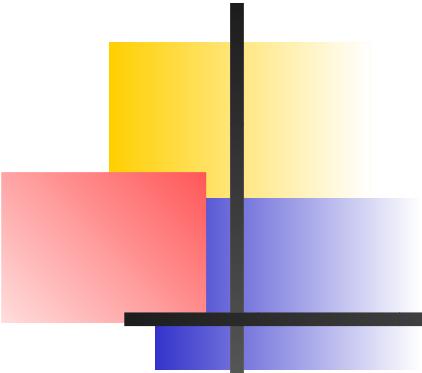
$$\langle q_{k-1} \rangle \rightarrow w_k$$

if  $q_k$  is an accepting state or

$$\langle q_{k-1} \rangle \rightarrow w_k \langle q_k \rangle$$

if not, that the grammar can generate the string  $s = w_1 w_2 \dots w_k$ .



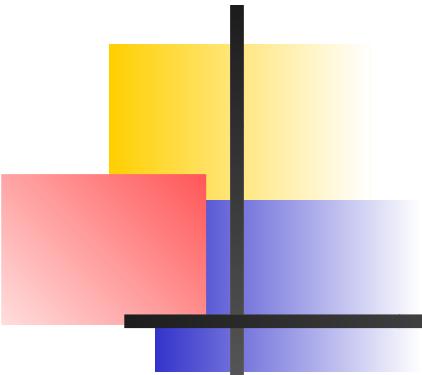


# Regular Languages and Regular Grammars

**Lemma:** if a language is generated by a type-3 grammar then it is recognized by a FA.

**Proof:** We show that if a language is generated by a type-3 grammar then it is recognized by a DFA. Let  $G = (V, \Sigma, R, s)$  be a type-3 grammar, then we construct the machine  $M = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$  as follows,

- For each  $A \in V$  in grammar  $G$  we construct the state  $q_A \in Q$  in machine  $M$ ,
- The terminal set  $\Sigma$  in  $G$  becomes the alphabet  $\Sigma$  for the machine,
- Construct the transition function  $\delta$  as follows,
  - for each rule of the form  $A \rightarrow a B \in R$  we construct the transition  $\delta(q_A, a) = q_B$ ,
  - for each rule of the form  $A \rightarrow a \in R$  we construct the transition  $\delta(q_A, a) = q_F$  with  $q_F \in F$ ,
  - for each rule of the form  $A \rightarrow \epsilon \in R$  we add the state  $q_A$  to the set of accepting states,  $F$ .
- the initial state  $q_s = q_0$ .



# Regular Languages and Regular Grammars

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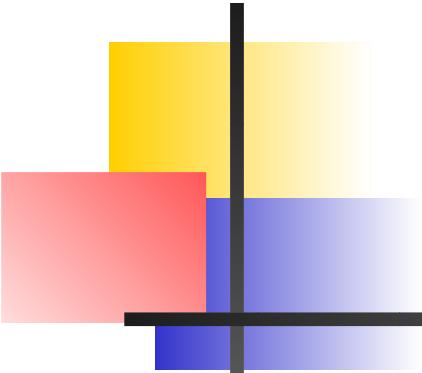
Now, for any string  $w = w_1 w_2 \dots w_n \in L(G)$ , we can show by induction that a derivation in  $G$ ,

$$\langle q_0 \rangle \Rightarrow w_1 \langle q_1 \rangle \Rightarrow w_1 w_2 \langle q_2 \rangle \Rightarrow \dots \Rightarrow w_1 w_2 \dots w_{n-1} \langle q_{n-1} \rangle \Rightarrow w_1 w_2 \dots w_{n-1} w_n$$

has an equivalent computation for the machine  $M$ , the machine  $M$  will perform the computation,

$$q_0 w_1 w_2 \dots w_n \vdash w_1 q_1 w_2 \dots w_n \vdash \dots \vdash w_1 w_2 \dots q_{n-1} w_n \vdash w_1 w_2 \dots w_n q_n$$

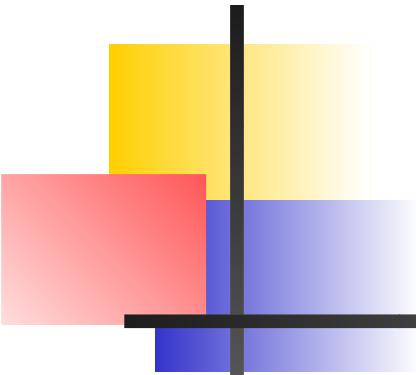
with  $q_n \in F$ .  $\square$ .



# Regular Languages and Regular Grammars

**Theorem:** A language is recognized by a FA if and only if it is generated by a type-3 grammar.

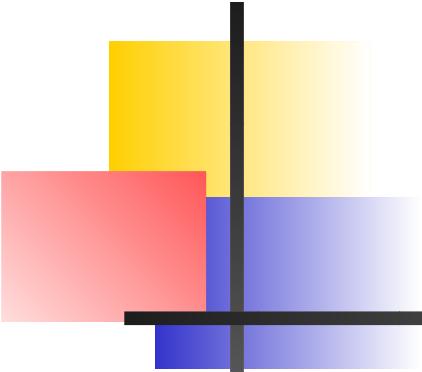
**Proof:** Follows directly from the two previous lemmas.



# Regular Expressions

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As you might have noticed, regular grammars are a little awkward to construct. There is another generator for regular languages called *regular expressions*.

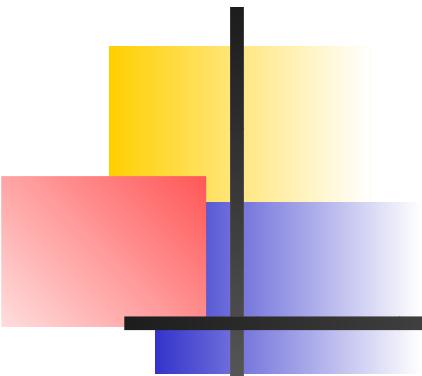


# Regular Expressions

Say that  $R$  is a *regular expression* if  $R$  is

1.  $a$  for some  $a$  in the alphabet  $\Sigma$ ,
2.  $\epsilon$ ,
3.  $\emptyset$ ,
4.  $(R_1 \cup R_2)$ , where  $R_1$  and  $R_2$  are regular expressions,
5.  $(R_1 \circ R_2)$ , where  $R_1$  and  $R_2$  are regular expressions, or
6.  $(R_1^*)$ , where  $R_1$  is a regular expression.

In items 1 and 2, the regular expressions  $a$  and  $\epsilon$  represent the languages  $\{a\}$  and  $\{\epsilon\}$ , respectively. In item 3, the regular expression  $\emptyset$  represents the empty language. In items 4, 5, and 6, the expressions represent the languages obtained by taking the union or concatenation of the languages  $R_1$  and  $R_2$ , or the star of the language  $R_1$ , respectively.



# Regular Expressions

In the following instances we assume that the alphabet  $\Sigma$  is  $\{0,1\}$ .

1.  $0^*10^* = \{w \mid w \text{ contains a single } 1\}$ .
2.  $\Sigma^*1\Sigma^* = \{w \mid w \text{ has at least one } 1\}$ .
3.  $\Sigma^*001\Sigma^* = \{w \mid w \text{ contains the string } 001 \text{ as a substring}\}$ .
4.  $(01^+)^* = \{w \mid \text{every } 0 \text{ in } w \text{ is followed by at least one } 1\}$ .
5.  $(\Sigma\Sigma)^* = \{w \mid w \text{ is a string of even length}\}.$ <sup>5</sup>
6.  $(\Sigma\Sigma\Sigma)^* = \{w \mid \text{the length of } w \text{ is a multiple of three}\}$ .
7.  $01 \cup 10 = \{01, 10\}$ .
8.  $0\Sigma^*0 \cup 1\Sigma^*1 \cup 0 \cup 1 = \{w \mid w \text{ starts and ends with the same symbol}\}$ .
9.  $(0 \cup \epsilon)1^* = 01^* \cup 1^*$ .

The expression  $0 \cup \epsilon$  describes the language  $\{0, \epsilon\}$ , so the concatenation operation adds either 0 or  $\epsilon$  before every string in  $1^*$ .

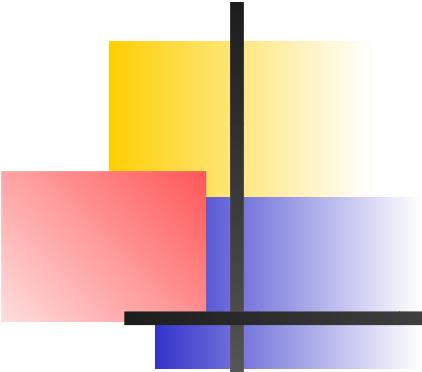
10.  $(0 \cup \epsilon)(1 \cup \epsilon) = \{\epsilon, 0, 1, 01\}$ .

11.  $1^*\emptyset = \emptyset$ .

Concatenating the empty set to any set yields the empty set.

12.  $\emptyset^* = \{\epsilon\}$ .

The star operation puts together any number of strings from the language to get a string in the result. If the language is empty, the star operation can put together 0 strings, giving only the empty string.



# Regular Languages and Regular Expressions

**Theorem:** A language is regular if and only if a regular expression generates it.

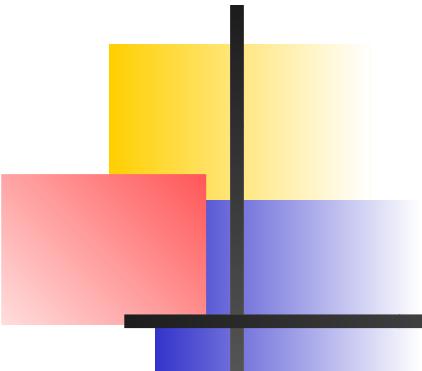
**Proof Sketch:**<sup>a</sup> Let  $L$  be some language.

**If  $L$  is regular, then a regular expression generates it.** If  $L$  is regular then some FA recognizes it. For every FA we can construct an equivalent regular expression.

**If some regular expression generates  $L$ , then it is a regular language.** For every regular expression that generates  $L$  we can construct an equivalent FA that recognizes  $L$ .

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<sup>a</sup>A formal proof of this appears in the book; pp66ff 1st & 2nd eds.



# Regular Grammars and Expressions

**Corollary:** Regular Grammars and Regular Expressions generate the same class of languages.

Follows immediately from the previous two theorems.