## Finite automata and formal languages (DIT323, TMV029)

Nils Anders Danielsson, partly based on slides by Ana Bove

2024-01-15/16

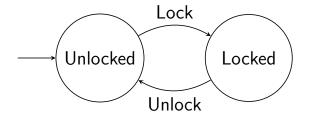
### Regular expressions

Used in text editors:

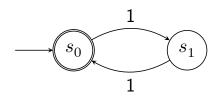
```
M-x replace-regexp RET
  add(\([^,]*\), \([^)]*\)) RET
  \1 + \2 RET
```

- Used to describe the lexical syntax of programming languages.
- Can only describe a limited class of "languages".

- Used to implement regular expression matching.
- Used to specify or model systems.
  - ▶ One kind of finite automaton is used in the specification of TCP.
- ▶ Equivalent to regular expressions.



Accepts strings of ones of even length:

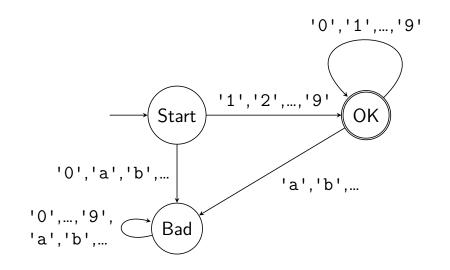


- ▶ The states are a kind of memory.
- ► Finite number of states ⇒ finite memory.

### Regular expressions

- ► A regular expression for strings of ones of even length: (11)\*.
- ► A regular expression for some keywords: while | for | if | else.
- ► A regular expression for positive natural number literals (of a certain form): [1–9][0–9]\*.

Accepts positive natural number literals:



### Conversions

- We will see how to convert between regular expressions and finite automata.
- ▶ In fact, we will discuss several kinds of finite automata, and conversions between the different kinds.

### Context-free grammars

- ▶ More general than regular expressions.
- Used to describe the syntax of programming languages.
- Used by parser generators. (Often restricted.)

### Context-free grammars

```
Expr ::= Number
\mid Expr Op Expr
\mid '('Expr')'
Op ::= '+' \mid '-' \mid '*' \mid '/'
```

### Turing machines

- ▶ A model of what it means to "compute":
  - Unbounded memory: an infinite tape of cells.
  - ► A read/write head that can move along the tape.
  - ► A kind of finite state machine with rules for what the head should do.
- Equivalent to a number of other models of computation.

### **Proofs**

- Used to make it more likely that arguments are correct.
- ▶ Used to make arguments more convincing.

### Induction

- ▶ Regular induction for  $\mathbb{N}$ .
- ▶ Complete (strong, course of values) induction for  $\mathbb{N}$ .

### Inductively defined sets

- ► An example: The natural numbers ( $\mathbb{N} = \{0, 1, 2, ...\}$ ).
- Structural induction for inductively defined sets.

### General information

See the course web pages.

# Repetition

logic

(?) of some classical

### **Propositions**

- ► A proposition is, roughly speaking, some statement that is true or false.
  - ▶ 2 = 3.
  - ► The program while true do {x := 4} terminates.
  - ightharpoonup P = NP.
  - ▶ If P = NP, then 2 = 3.
- ▶ It may not always be known what the truth value  $(\top \text{ or } \bot)$  of a proposition is.

### Some logical connectives

- ▶ And: ∧.
- ▶ Or: ∨.
- ▶ Not: ¬.
- ▶ Implies:  $\Rightarrow$ .
- ▶ If and only if (iff): ⇔.

### Some logical connectives

Truth tables for these connectives:

p	q	$p \wedge q$	$p \lor q$	$\neg p$	$p \Rightarrow q$	$p \Leftrightarrow q$
Т	Т	Т	Т	$\perp$	Т	Т
T	$\perp$	$\perp$	T		$\perp$	$\perp$
$\perp$	T	$\perp$	T	T	T	$\perp$
$\perp$	$\perp$	$\perp$	$\perp$		Т	T

Note that  $p \Rightarrow q$  is true if p is false.

### Lecture quizzes

- ▶ I will ask you questions during the lectures.
- You can reply anonymously via something called Pingo.
- First you get to discuss the answers with other students.

### Which of the following truth tables are correct for the proposition $(p \lor q) \Rightarrow p$ ?

	p	q	$(p \lor q) \Rightarrow p$		p	q	$(p \lor q) \Rightarrow p$
	Т	Т	Т		Т	Т	Т
A:	Т	$\perp$	$\perp$	B:	Т	$\perp$	Т
	$\perp$	$\top$	$\perp$		$\perp$	Т	$\perp$
	$\perp$	$\perp$	上		$\perp$	Τ	上
	p	q	$(p \vee q) \Rightarrow p$		p	q	$(p \lor q) \Rightarrow p$
6	$\frac{p}{\top}$		$\frac{(p \lor q) \Rightarrow p}{\top}$		$\frac{p}{\top}$		$\frac{(p \lor q) \Rightarrow p}{\top}$
C:		Т	$ \begin{array}{c} (p \lor q) \Rightarrow p \\ \hline \top \\ \top \end{array} $	D:		Т	$ \begin{array}{c} (p \lor q) \Rightarrow p \\ \hline \top \\ \top \end{array} $
C:	Т	Т	$\begin{array}{c} (p \lor q) \Rightarrow p \\ \hline \\ \top \\ \top \\ \bot \end{array}$	D:	Т	Т	$ \begin{array}{c} (p \lor q) \Rightarrow p \\ \hline \\ \top \\ \top \\ \top \end{array} $

Respond at https://pingo.coactum.de/729558.

### **Validity**

- ▶ A proposition is *valid*, or a *tautology*, if it is satisfied for all assignments of truth values to its variables.
- ► Examples:
  - $ightharpoonup p \Rightarrow p.$
  - $ightharpoonup p \lor \neg p$ .

### Logical equivalence

- ▶ Two propositions p and q are *logically* equivalent if they have the same truth tables, i.e. if  $p \Leftrightarrow q$  is valid.
- Examples:
  - $ightharpoonup \neg \neg p \Leftrightarrow p.$

  - $\blacktriangleright p \wedge q \iff q \wedge p.$

  - $\blacktriangleright p \land (p \lor q) \Leftrightarrow p.$

### Which of the following propositions are valid?

- 1.  $(p \Rightarrow q) \Leftrightarrow \neg p \lor q$ .
- 2.  $(p \Rightarrow q) \Leftrightarrow p \vee \neg q$ .
- 3.  $\neg (p \land q) \Leftrightarrow \neg p \land \neg q$ .
- 4.  $\neg (p \land q) \Leftrightarrow \neg p \lor \neg q$ . 5.  $((p \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow q) \Rightarrow p$ .
- 6.  $((p \Rightarrow q) \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow p$ .
- Respond at https://pingo.coactum.de/729558.

### **Predicates**

A predicate is, roughly speaking, a function to propositions.

- P(n) = "n is a prime number".
- $Q(a,b) = "(a+b)^2 = a^2 + 2ab + b^2$ ".

### Quantifiers

#### Quantifiers:

- ► For all: ∀.
  - $\blacktriangleright \ \forall x. \ x = x.$
  - $\forall a, b \in \mathbb{R}. \ (a+b)^2 = a^2 + 2ab + b^2.$
- ► There exists: ∃.
  - $\blacktriangleright \exists n \in \mathbb{N}. \ n = 2n.$

### Which of the following propositions, involving predicate variables, are valid?

- 1.  $(\neg \forall n \in \mathbb{N}. \ P(n)) \Leftrightarrow (\forall n \in \mathbb{N}. \ \neg P(n)).$
- $2. \ (\neg \forall n \in \mathbb{N}. \ P(n)) \Leftrightarrow (\exists n \in \mathbb{N}. \ \neg P(n)).$
- 3.  $(\forall m \in \mathbb{N}. \exists n \in \mathbb{N}. P(m, n)) \Leftrightarrow (\exists n \in \mathbb{N}. \forall m \in \mathbb{N}. P(m, n)).$

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## Repetition (?) of some set theory

### Sets

- ► A set is, roughly speaking, a collection of elements.
- ▶ Some notation for defining sets:
  - ► { 0, 1, 2, 4, 8 }.
  - $\blacktriangleright \{ n \in \mathbb{N} \mid n > 2 \}.$
  - $\blacktriangleright \{ 2^n \mid n \in \mathbb{N} \}.$

### Members, subsets

- ► Membership: ∈.
  - $\bullet \ 4 \in \{ \ 2^n \mid n \in \mathbb{N} \ \}.$
  - $\blacktriangleright \ 2 \notin \{ \ n \in \mathbb{N} \mid n > 2 \ \}.$
- ▶ Two sets are equal if they have the same elements:  $(A = B) \Leftrightarrow (\forall x. \ x \in A \Leftrightarrow x \in B)$ .
- ▶ Subset relation:

$$(A \subseteq B) \Leftrightarrow (\forall x. \ x \in A \Rightarrow x \in B).$$

- $\blacktriangleright \{ 2^n \mid n \in \mathbb{N} \} \subseteq \mathbb{N}.$
- $\{0,1,2,4,8\} \nsubseteq \{n \in \mathbb{N} \mid n > 2\}.$

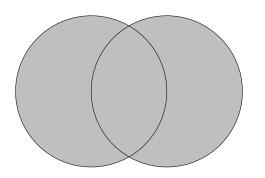
### An aside

- Unrestricted naive set theory can be inconsistent.
- ► Russell's paradox:
  - ▶ Define  $S = \{ X \mid X \notin X \}$ , where X ranges over all sets.
  - ▶ We have  $S \in S \Leftrightarrow S \notin S!$
  - ▶ One can fix this problem by imposing rules that ensure that *S* is not a set.

The empty set:  $\emptyset$ .

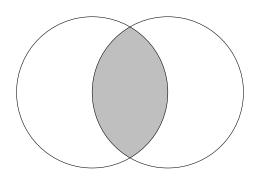
Union:

$$A \cup B = \{ x \mid x \in A \lor x \in B \}.$$



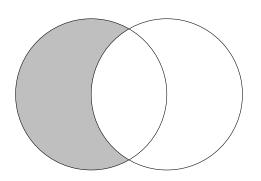
Intersection:

$$A \cap B = \{ \ x \mid x \in A \land x \in B \ \} \ .$$



Set difference:

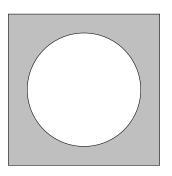
$$A \setminus B = A - B = \{ x \in A \mid x \notin B \}.$$



Complement:

$$\overline{A} = U \setminus A$$

(if U is fixed in advance and  $A \subseteq U$ ).



#### Set operations

#### Cartesian product:

$$A \times B = \{ (x, y) \mid x \in A \land y \in B \}.$$

$$\{ a, b \} \times \{ 0, 1 \} =$$

$$\{ (a, 0), (a, 1), (b, 0), (b, 1) \}$$

#### Set operations

Power set:

```
\begin{split} \wp(S) &= 2^S = \{\, A \mid A \subseteq S \,\}\,. \\ \wp(\{\,0,1,2\,\}) &= \\ \{\emptyset, \\ \{\,0\,\}\,, \{\,1\,\}\,, \{\,2\,\}\,, \\ \{\,0,1\,\}\,, \{\,0,2\,\}\,, \{\,1,2\,\}\,, \\ \{\,0,1,2\,\} \} \end{split}
```

#### Set operations

The set of all finite subsets of a set:

$$\operatorname{Fin}(S) = \{\, A \mid A \subseteq S, A \text{ is finite} \,\} \,.$$

# Which of the following propositions are valid? Variables range over sets. U is non-empty.

1. 
$$\overline{A \cap B} = \overline{A} \cap \overline{B}$$
.  
2.  $\overline{A \cap B} = \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$ .

$$3. \emptyset = \{\emptyset\}.$$

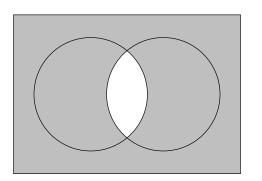
$$4. \ A \in \wp(A).$$

5. 
$$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap C$$
.

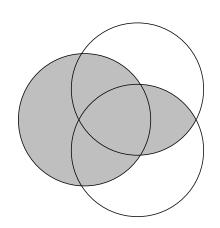
6.  $A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$ .

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#### $\overline{A \cap B} = \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$



#### $A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$



#### Relations

- ▶ A binary relation R on A is a subset of  $A^2 = A \times A$ :  $R \subseteq A^2$ .
- ▶ Notation: xRy means the same as  $(x,y) \in R$ .
- ▶ Can be generalised from  $A \times A$  to  $A \times B \times C \times \cdots$ .

# Some binary relation properties

#### For $R \subseteq A \times B$ :

- ▶ Total (left-total):  $\forall x \in A$ .  $\exists y \in B$ . xRy.
- ► Functional/deterministic:

$$\forall x \in A. \ \forall y, z \in B. \ xRy \land xRz \Rightarrow y = z.$$

#### **Functions**

- ▶ The set of *functions* from the set A to the set B is denoted by  $A \rightarrow B$ .
- ▶ It is sometimes defined as the set of total and functional relations  $f \subseteq A \times B$ .
- ▶ Notation: f(x) = y means  $(x, y) \in f$ .
- ▶ If the requirement of totality is dropped, then we get the set of *partial* functions,  $A \rightharpoonup B$ .
- ▶ The *domain* is A, and the *codomain* B.
- ▶ The *image* is  $\{ y \in B \mid x \in A, f(x) = y \}$ .

```
Which of the following relations on \{a, b\}
```

```
are functions?
 1. { }.
 2. \{(a,a)\}.
 3. \{(a,a),(a,b)\}.
```

5.  $\{(a,a),(b,a),(b,b)\}.$ 

4.  $\{(a,a),(b,a)\}.$ 

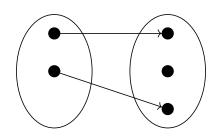
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#### Identity, composition

- ▶ The *identity function* id on a set A is defined by id(x) = x.
- ▶ For functions  $f \in B \to C$  and  $g \in A \to B$  the composition  $f \circ g \in A \to C$  is defined by  $(f \circ g)(x) = f(g(x))$ .

# Injections

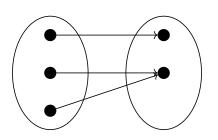
The function  $f \in A \to B$  is injective if  $\forall x, y \in A$ .  $f(x) = f(y) \Rightarrow x = y$ .



- Every input is mapped to a unique output.
- ightharpoonup A is "no larger than" B.
- ▶ Holds if f has a left inverse  $g \in B \to A$ :  $g \circ f = id$ .

## Surjections

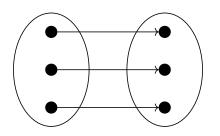
The function  $f \in A \to B$  is surjective if  $\forall y \in B$ .  $\exists x \in A$ . f(x) = y.



- ► The function "targets" every element in the codomain.
- $\blacktriangleright$  A is "no smaller than" B.
- ▶ Holds if f has a right inverse  $g \in B \to A$ :  $f \circ g = id$ .

#### **Bijections**

The function  $f \in A \to B$  is bijective if it is both injective and surjective.



- ▶ A and B have the same "size".
- ▶ Holds if and only if f has a left and right inverse  $g \in B \rightarrow A$ .

# Which of the following functions are injective? Surjective?

Injective? Surjective?

• 
$$f \in \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$$
,  $f(n) = n + 1$ .

•  $g \in \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $g(i) = i + 1$ .

•  $h \in \mathbb{N} \to Bool$ ,  $h(n) = \begin{cases} \text{true,} & \text{if } n \text{ is even,} \\ \text{false,} & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$ 

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# The pigeonhole principle

- ▶ If there are n pigeonholes, and m > n pigeons in these pigeonholes, then at least one pigeonhole must contain more than one pigeon.
- ▶ If  $f \in \{ k \in \mathbb{N} \mid k < m \} \rightarrow \{ k \in \mathbb{N} \mid k < n \}$  for  $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$ , and m > n, then f is not injective.

# More binary relation properties

#### For $R \subseteq A^2$ :

- ▶ Reflexive:  $\forall x \in A. \ xRx$ .
- ▶ Symmetric:  $\forall x, y \in A. \ xRy \Rightarrow yRx.$
- ▶ Transitive:  $\forall x, y, z \in A$ .  $xRy \land yRz \Rightarrow xRz$ .
- ► Antisymmetric:  $\forall x, y \in A. \ xRy \land yRx \Rightarrow x = y.$

#### Partial orders

A *partial order* is reflexive, antisymmetric and transitive.

- ▶  $\leq$  for  $\mathbb{N}$ .
- ▶ Not <.

```
Which of the following sets are partial orders on \{0,1\}?
```

```
on { 0, 1 }?

1. { (0,0) }.
```

2. { (0,0), (1,1) }. 3. { (0,0), (0,1), (1,1) }.

4.  $\{(0,0),(0,1),(1,0)\}.$ 

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#### Equivalence relations

An equivalence relation is reflexive, symmetric and transitive.

- $\blacktriangleright \{ (n,n) \mid n \in \mathbb{N} \} \subseteq \mathbb{N}^2.$
- ▶ Not  $\{(n,n) \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}\subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$ .

```
Which of the following sets are equivalence relations on \{0,1\}?
```

```
relations on \{0,1\}?

1. \{(0,0)\}.
```

2. { (0,0), (1,1) }. 3. { (0,0), (0,1), (1,0) }.

4.  $\{(0,0),(0,1),(1,0),(1,1)\}.$ 

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#### **Partitions**

A partition of the set A is a set  $P \subseteq \wp(A)$  satisfying the following properties:

- ▶ Every element is non-empty:  $\forall B \in P. \ B \neq \emptyset$ .
- ▶ The elements cover A:  $\bigcup_{B \in P} B = A$ .
- ▶ The elements are mutually disjoint:  $\forall B, C \in P. \ B \neq C \Rightarrow B \cap C = \emptyset.$

#### **Partitions**

Example:

$$\{ \{ 1,2 \}, \{ 3,5 \}, \{ 4 \} \}$$

is a partition of

$$\{1,2,3,4,5\}$$
.

#### Equivalence classes

- ▶ The equivalence classes of an equivalence relation R on A:  $[x]_R = \{ y \in A \mid xRy \}$ .
- ▶ Note that  $\forall x, y \in A$ .  $[x]_R = [y]_R \Leftrightarrow xRy$ . Proof sketch:
  - $\Rightarrow$ : Assume  $[x]_R = [y]_R$ . We have yRy, so  $y \in [y]_R$ ,  $y \in [x]_R$ , and xRy.
  - $\blacktriangleright \Leftarrow$ : Assume xRy.
    - ▶  $[x]_R \subseteq [y]_R$ : If  $z \in [x]_R$ , then xRz, so yRz, and thus  $z \in [y]_R$ .
    - $[y]_R \subseteq [x]_R$ : Similar.

#### Equivalence classes

- ▶ The equivalence classes of an equivalence relation R on A:  $[x]_R = \{ y \in A \mid xRy \}$ .
- ▶ The set of equivalence classes  $\{ [x]_R \mid x \in A \}$  partitions A. Proof sketch:
  - $[x]_R \neq \emptyset$  because  $x \in [x]_R$ .

  - Assume that  $z \in [x]_R \cap [y]_R$ . We get that xRz and yRz, so we have xRy and thus  $[x]_R = [y]_R$ .

#### Equivalence classes

- ▶ The equivalence classes of an equivalence relation R on A:  $[x]_R = \{ y \in A \mid xRy \}$ .
- ▶ The quotient set  $A/R = \{ [x]_R \mid x \in A \}.$

#### Quotients

- ▶ Can one define  $\mathbb{Z} = \mathbb{N}^2$ , with the intention that (m,n) stands for m-n?
- ▶ No, (0,1) and (1,2) would both represent -1.
- ▶ Instead one can use a quotient set:

$$\mathbb{Z}=\mathbb{N}^2/\sim_{\mathbb{Z}}$$
 ,

where

$$(m_1, n_1) \sim_{\mathbb{Z}} (m_2, n_2) \Leftrightarrow m_1 + n_2 = m_2 + n_1.$$

#### Quotients

#### Another example:

$$\mathbb{Q}=\{\,(m,n)\mid m\in\mathbb{Z}, n\in\mathbb{N}\smallsetminus\{\,0\,\}\,\}\,/\sim_{\mathbb{Q}}$$
 ,

where

$$(m_1,n_1)\sim_{\mathbb{Q}}(m_2,n_2)\Leftrightarrow m_1n_2=m_2n_1.$$

## Functions from quotients

Sometimes you see functions defined in the following way:

$$f \in A/\sim \to B$$
$$f([x]) = g(x)$$

- ▶ If  $x \sim y$ , then [x] = [y], so we should have f([x]) = f([y]).
- ▶ This follows if  $x \sim y$  implies that g(x) = g(y).

## Functions from quotients

► An example:

$$\begin{array}{l} -\underline{\quad} \in \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z} \\ -[(m,n)] = [(n,m)] \end{array}$$

- ▶ Take  $p_1 = (m_1, n_1)$  and  $p_2 = (m_2, n_2)$ .
- ▶ If  $p_1 \sim_{\mathbb{Z}} p_2$ , i.e. if  $(m_1,n_1) \sim_{\mathbb{Z}} (m_2,n_2)$ , then  $(n_1,m_1) \sim_{\mathbb{Z}} (n_2,m_2)$ , and thus  $-[p_1] = -[p_2]$ .

# Which of the following propositions are true?

1. 
$$[(2,5)]_{\sim_{\pi}} = [(0,3)]_{\sim_{\pi}}$$
.

2. 
$$[(2,5)]_{\sim_{\mathbb{Z}}} = [(3,0)]_{\sim_{\mathbb{Z}}}$$
.  
3.  $[(2,5)]_{\sim_{\mathbb{Q}}} = [(4,10)]_{\sim_{\mathbb{Q}}}$ .

4.  $[(2,5)]_{\sim_{\mathbb{Q}}} = [(10,4)]_{\sim_{\mathbb{Q}}}$ 

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#### Next lecture

- Proofs.
- ▶ Induction for the natural numbers.
- Inductively defined sets.
- Recursive functions.

Deadline for the first quiz: 2024-01-18, 13:00.

# Finite automata and formal languages (DIT323, TMV029)

Nils Anders Danielsson, partly based on slides by Ana Bove

# Today

- ▶ Proofs.
- ▶ Induction for the natural numbers.
- Inductively defined sets.
- ▶ Recursive functions.

# Some basic proof methods

# Some basic proof methods

- ▶ To prove  $p \Rightarrow q$ , assume p and prove q.
- ▶ To prove  $\forall x \in A$ . P(x), assume that we have an  $x \in A$  and prove P(x).
- ▶ To prove  $p \Leftrightarrow q$ , prove both  $p \Rightarrow q$  and  $q \Rightarrow p$ .
- ▶ To prove  $\neg p$ , assume p and derive a contradiction.
- ▶ To prove p, prove  $\neg \neg p$ .
- ▶ To prove  $p \Rightarrow q$ , assume  $\neg q$  and prove  $\neg p$ .

(There may be other ways to prove these things.)

# Induction

#### Mathematical induction

For a natural number predicate P we can prove  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ . P(n) in the following way:

- ▶ Prove P(0).
- For every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , prove that P(n) implies P(n+1).

With a formula:

$$P(0) \land (\forall n \in \mathbb{N}. \ P(n) \Rightarrow P(n+1)) \Rightarrow \forall n \in \mathbb{N}. \ P(n)$$

### Which of the following variants of induction are valid?

- 1.  $P(0) \land (\forall n \in \mathbb{N}. \ n \ge 1 \land P(n) \Rightarrow P(n+1)) \Rightarrow \forall n \in \mathbb{N}. \ n \ge 1 \Rightarrow P(n).$ 2.  $P(1) \land (\forall n \in \mathbb{N}. \ n \ge 1 \land P(n) \Rightarrow P(n+1)) \Rightarrow \forall n \in \mathbb{N}. \ n > 1 \Rightarrow P(n).$
- 2.  $P(1) \land (\forall n \in \mathbb{N}. \ n \ge 1 \land P(n) \Rightarrow P(n+1)) \Rightarrow \forall n \in \mathbb{N}. \ n \ge 1 \Rightarrow P(n).$ 3.  $P(1) \land P(2) \land (\forall n \in \mathbb{N}. \ n \ge 2 \land P(n) \Rightarrow P(n+1)) \Rightarrow$

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 $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}. \ n > 1 \Rightarrow P(n).$ 

#### Counterexamples

- ▶ One can sometimes prove that a statement is invalid by using a counterexample.
- ▶ Example: The following statement does not hold for  $P(n) := n \neq 1$  and n = 1:

$$P(0) \land (\forall n \in \mathbb{N}. \ n \ge 1 \land P(n) \Rightarrow P(n+1)) \Rightarrow \forall n \in \mathbb{N}. \ n \ge 1 \Rightarrow P(n)$$

The hypotheses hold, but not the conclusion.

#### Counterexamples

#### More carefully:

▶ Let us prove

$$\neg (\forall \text{ natural number predicates } P.\ P(0) \land \\ (\forall n \in \mathbb{N}.\ n \geq 1 \land P(n) \Rightarrow P(n+1)) \Rightarrow \\ \forall n \in \mathbb{N}.\ n \geq 1 \Rightarrow P(n)).$$

We assume

$$\forall \ \text{natural number predicates} \ P. \ P(0) \land \\ (\forall n \in \mathbb{N}. \ n \geq 1 \land P(n) \Rightarrow P(n+1)) \Rightarrow \\ \forall n \in \mathbb{N}. \ n \geq 1 \Rightarrow P(n),$$

and derive a contradiction.

#### Counterexamples

- ▶ Let us use the predicate  $P(n) := n \neq 1$ .
- We have P(0), i.e.  $0 \neq 1$ .
- ▶ We also have  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}. \ n \geq 1 \land P(n) \Rightarrow P(n+1), \text{ i.e.}$   $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}. \ n \geq 1 \land n \neq 1 \Rightarrow n+1 \neq 1.$
- ▶ Thus we get  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}. \ n \geq 1 \Rightarrow P(n).$
- ▶ Let us use n = 1.
- ▶ We have  $1 \ge 1$ .
- ▶ Thus we get P(1), i.e.  $1 \neq 1$ .
- ▶ This is a contradiction, so we are done.

#### Complete induction

We can also prove  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ . P(n) in the following way:

- ▶ Prove P(0).
- ▶ For every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , prove that if P(i) holds for every natural number  $i \leq n$ , then P(n+1) holds.

With a formula:

$$\begin{split} P(0) & \wedge \\ (\forall n \in \mathbb{N}. \ (\forall i \in \mathbb{N}. \ i \leq n \Rightarrow P(i)) \Rightarrow P(n+1)) \Rightarrow \\ \forall n \in \mathbb{N}. \ P(n) \end{split}$$

### Which of the following variants of complete induction are valid?

1. 
$$(\forall n \in \mathbb{N}. \ (\forall i \in \mathbb{N}. \ i < n \Rightarrow P(i)) \Rightarrow P(n)) \Rightarrow \forall n \in \mathbb{N}. \ P(n).$$

2. 
$$P(1) \land (\forall n \in \mathbb{N}. \ n \geq 1 \land (\forall i \in \mathbb{N}. \ i \leq n \Rightarrow P(i)) \Rightarrow P(n+1)) \Rightarrow \forall n \in \mathbb{N}. \ P(n).$$

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#### An example

#### Lemma

Every natural number  $n \ge 8$  can be written as a sum of multiples of 3 and 5.

#### An example

#### Proof.

Let P(n) be  $n \geq 8 \Rightarrow \exists i, j \in \mathbb{N}$ . n = 3i + 5j. We prove that P(n) holds for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  by complete induction on n:

- ▶ Base cases (n = 0, ..., 7): Trivial.
- ▶ Base cases (n = 8, n = 9, n = 10): Easy.
- ▶ Step case  $(n \ge 10$ , inductive hypothesis  $\forall i \in \mathbb{N}. \ i \le n \Rightarrow P(i)$ , goal P(n+1): Because  $n-2 \ge 8$  the inductive hypothesis for n-2 implies that there are  $i, j \in \mathbb{N}$  such that
  - n-2=3i+5j. Thus we get 1+n=3+(n-2)=3(i+1)+5j.

## Proofs

#### How detailed should a proof be?

- ▶ Depends on the purpose of the proof.
- ▶ Who or what do you want to convince?
  - ▶ Yourself?
  - A fellow student?
  - ▶ An examiner?
  - ► An experienced researcher?
  - ► A computer program (a proof checker)?

Discuss the following proof of  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}. \ \sum_{i=0}^n i = n \frac{n+1}{2}.$  Would you like to add/remove/change anything?

By induction on 
$$n$$
:

$$n = 0: \sum_{i=0}^{0} i = 0 = 0 \frac{0+1}{2}.$$

 $(k+1) + k \frac{k+1}{2} =$ 

 $(k+1)\left(1+\frac{k}{2}\right)=(k+1)\frac{k+2}{2}.$  Respond at https://pingo.coactum.de/729558.

# Inductively

defined sets

#### Inductively defined sets

The natural numbers:

$$\frac{n\in\mathbb{N}}{\mathrm{zero}\in\mathbb{N}} \qquad \qquad \frac{n\in\mathbb{N}}{\mathrm{suc}(n)\in\mathbb{N}}$$

Compare:

data Nat = Zero | Suc Nat

#### Inductively defined sets

Booleans:

 $\mathsf{true} \in \mathit{Bool}$ 

 $\mathsf{false} \in \mathit{Bool}$ 

Compare:

data Bool = True | False

#### Inductively defined sets

Finite lists:

$$\frac{x \in A \quad xs \in List(A)}{\mathsf{cons}(x, xs) \in List(A)}$$

Compare:

data List a = Nil | Cons a (List a)

## Which of the following expressions are lists of natural numbers (members of $List(\mathbb{N})$ )?

nil.
 cons(nil, 5).

3. cons(5, nil).

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#### Lists

#### Alternative notation for lists:

- ▶ [] instead of nil.
- x : xs instead of cons(x, xs).
- ► [1,2,3] instead of cons(1, cons(2, cons(3, nil))).

#### An example:

```
\begin{aligned} length &\in List(A) \to \mathbb{N} \\ length(\mathsf{nil}) &= \mathsf{zero} \\ length(\mathsf{cons}(x,xs)) &= \mathsf{suc}(length(xs)) \end{aligned}
```

```
\begin{array}{ll} length([1,2,3]) &= \\ length(\mathsf{cons}(1,\mathsf{cons}(2,\mathsf{cons}(3,\mathsf{nil})))) &= \\ \mathsf{suc}(length(\mathsf{cons}(2,\mathsf{cons}(3,\mathsf{nil})))) &= \\ \mathsf{suc}(\mathsf{suc}(length(\mathsf{cons}(3,\mathsf{nil})))) &= \\ \mathsf{suc}(\mathsf{suc}(\mathsf{suc}(length(\mathsf{nil})))) &= \\ \mathsf{suc}(\mathsf{suc}(\mathsf{suc}(\mathsf{suc}(\mathsf{zero}))) &= \\ 3 &= \\ \end{array}
```

#### Not well-defined:

```
\begin{array}{ll} bad \in List(A) \rightarrow \mathbb{N} \\ bad(\mathsf{nil}) &= \mathsf{zero} \\ bad(\mathsf{cons}(x,xs)) = bad(\mathsf{cons}(x,xs)) \end{array}
```

#### Another example:

$$\begin{split} f \in List(A) \times List(A) &\to List(A) \\ f(\mathsf{nil}, & ys) = ys \\ f(\mathsf{cons}(x, xs), ys) &= \mathsf{cons}(x, f(xs, ys)) \end{split}$$

#### What is the result of f([1,2],[3,4])?

- 1. [1, 2, 3, 4].
- 2. [4, 3, 2, 1].
- 3. [2, 1, 4, 3]. **4**. [1, 3, 2, 4].

**5**. [1, 4, 2, 3].

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$$\begin{aligned} &append \in List(A) \times List(A) \rightarrow List(A) \\ &append(\mathsf{nil}, \qquad ys) = ys \\ &append(\mathsf{cons}(x, xs), ys) = \mathsf{cons}(x, append(xs, ys)) \end{aligned}$$

► Two mutually defined functions:

```
egin{aligned} odd, even &\in \mathbb{N} 
ightarrow Bool \ odd(\mathsf{zero}) &= \mathsf{false} \ odd(\mathsf{suc}(n)) &= even(n) \ even(\mathsf{zero}) &= \mathsf{true} \ even(\mathsf{suc}(n)) &= odd(n) \end{aligned}
```

Another function:

```
odd' \in \mathbb{N} \to Bool

odd'(\mathsf{zero}) = \mathsf{false}

odd'(\mathsf{suc}(n)) = not(odd'(n))
```

▶ Can we prove  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}.odd(n) = odd'(n)$ ?

#### First attempt:

- ▶ Let us use mathematical induction.
- ► Inductive hypothesis:

$$P(n) \coloneqq odd(n) = odd'(n)$$

▶ Base case (P(zero)):

```
odd(zero) = false = odd'(zero)
```

Step case  $(\forall n \in \mathbb{N}.P(n) \Rightarrow P(\operatorname{suc}(n)))$ :

▶ Given  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , let us assume odd(n) = odd'(n):

```
egin{array}{ll} odd(\operatorname{suc}(n)) &= \ even(n) &= \{???\} \ not(odd'(n)) &= \ odd'(\operatorname{suc}(n)). \end{array}
```

Step case  $(\forall n \in \mathbb{N}.P(n) \Rightarrow P(\operatorname{suc}(n)))$ :

▶ Given  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , let us assume odd(n) = odd'(n):

```
egin{array}{ll} odd(\operatorname{suc}(n)) &= \ even(n) &= \{?\ref{eq:suc} \ not(odd'(n)) &= \ odd'(\operatorname{suc}(n)). \end{array}
```

▶ Let us generalise the inductive hypothesis:

$$P(n) \coloneqq odd(n) = odd'(n) \land \\ even(n) = not(odd'(n))$$

```
Base case (P(zero)):
```

First part:

```
odd({\sf zero}) = \\ {\sf false} = \\ odd'({\sf zero})
```

► Second part:

```
even(zero) = true = not(false) = not(odd'(zero))
```

#### Step case $(\forall n \in \mathbb{N}.P(n) \Rightarrow P(\operatorname{suc}(n)))$ :

- ▶ Given  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , let us assume odd(n) = odd'(n) and even(n) = not(odd'(n)).
- First part:

```
egin{array}{ll} odd(\operatorname{suc}(n)) &= \\ even(n) &= \{ \operatorname{By the second IH.} \} \\ not(odd'(n)) &= \\ odd'(\operatorname{suc}(n)) \end{array}
```

```
Step case (\forall n \in \mathbb{N}.P(n) \Rightarrow P(\operatorname{suc}(n))):
```

- ▶ Given  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , let us assume odd(n) = odd'(n) and even(n) = not(odd'(n)).
- ► Second part:

```
\begin{array}{ll} even(\operatorname{suc}(n)) &= \\ odd(n) &= \{\operatorname{By \ the \ first \ IH.}\} \\ odd'(n) &= \\ not(not(odd'(n))) &= \\ not(odd'(\operatorname{suc}(n))) \end{array}
```

## Discuss how you would prove $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}. \ even(n) = nots(n, true).$

```
nots \in \mathbb{N} \times Bool \rightarrow Bool
nots(zero, b) = b
nots(suc(n), b) = nots(n, not(b))
odd, even \in \mathbb{N} \to Bool
odd(zero) = false
odd(suc(n)) = even(n)
even(zero) = true
even(suc(n)) = odd(n)
```

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#### Today

- ▶ Proofs.
- Proofs by induction.
- ► Inductively defined sets.
- ▶ Recursive functions.

#### Next lecture

- ► Structural induction.
- ▶ Some concepts from automata theory.

# Finite automata and formal languages (DIT323, TMV029)

Nils Anders Danielsson, partly based on slides by Ana Bove

#### Today

- ► Structural induction.
- ▶ Some concepts from automata theory.
- ► Inductively defined subsets (if we have time).

- ► For a given inductively defined set we have a corresponding induction principle.
- ► Example:

$$\frac{n\in\mathbb{N}}{\mathrm{zero}\in\mathbb{N}}\qquad \frac{n\in\mathbb{N}}{\mathrm{suc}(n)\in\mathbb{N}}$$

In order to prove  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ . P(n):

- ▶ Prove P(zero).
- ▶ For all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , prove that P(n) implies  $P(\operatorname{suc}(n))$ .

- ► For a given inductively defined set we have a corresponding induction principle.
- ► Example:

$$\overline{\mathsf{true} \in Bool} \qquad \qquad \overline{\mathsf{false} \in Bool}$$

In order to prove  $\forall b \in Bool. \ P(b)$ :

- ▶ Prove P(true).
- ▶ Prove  $P(\mathsf{false})$ .

- ► For a given inductively defined set we have a corresponding induction principle.
- Example:

$$\frac{x \in A \quad xs \in List(A)}{\mathsf{cons}(x, xs) \in List(A)}$$

In order to prove  $\forall xs \in List(A)$ . P(xs):

- ▶ Prove  $P(\mathsf{nil})$ .
- For all  $x \in A$  and  $xs \in List(A)$ , prove that P(xs) implies P(cons(x, xs)).

#### **Pattern**

► An inductively defined set:

$$\dots \qquad \frac{x \in A \quad \dots \quad d \in D(A)}{\mathsf{c}(x, \dots, d) \in D(A)} \qquad \dots$$

Note that x is a non-recursive argument, and that d is recursive.

- ▶ In order to prove  $\forall d \in D(A)$ . P(d):
  - •
  - For all  $x \in A$ , ...,  $d \in D(A)$ , prove that ... and P(d) imply P(c(x, ..., d)).
  - ;

One inductive hypothesis for each *recursive* argument.

 $\begin{array}{l} 1. \ \, \big( \forall n \in \mathbb{N}. \ P(\mathsf{leaf}(n)) \big) \wedge \\ \, \big( \forall l, r \in \mathit{Tree}. \ P(l) \wedge P(r) \Rightarrow P(\mathsf{node}(l,r)) \big). \\ \\ 2. \ \, \big( \forall n \in \mathbb{N}. \ P(\mathsf{leaf}(n)) \big) \wedge \\ \, \big( \forall l, r \in \mathit{Tree}. \ P(l) \wedge P(r) \Rightarrow P(\mathsf{node}(l,r)) \big) \Rightarrow \\ \, \big( \forall t \in \mathit{Tree}. \ P(t) \big). \\ \\ 3. \ \, \big( \forall n \in \mathbb{N}. \ P(\mathsf{leaf}(n)) \big) \wedge \\ \end{array}$ 

 $l, r \in \mathit{Tree}$ 

 $\mathsf{node}(l,r) \in \mathit{Tree}$ 

What is the induction principle for

 $n \in \mathbb{N}$ 

 $leaf(n) \in Tree$ 

 $(\forall t \in Tree. P(t)).$ 

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 $(\forall t \in \mathit{Tree}.\ P(t) \Rightarrow P(\mathsf{node}(t,t))) \Rightarrow$ 

#### Some functions

#### Recall from last lecture:

```
\begin{split} length &\in List(A) \to \mathbb{N} \\ length(\mathsf{nil}) &= \mathsf{zero} \\ length(\mathsf{cons}(x,xs)) &= \mathsf{suc}(length(xs)) \\ append &\in List(A) \times List(A) \to List(A) \\ append(\mathsf{nil}, \qquad ys) &= ys \\ append(\mathsf{cons}(x,xs),ys) &= \mathsf{cons}(x,append(xs,ys)) \end{split}
```

 $\forall xs, ys \in List(A).$ length(append(xs, ys)) = length(xs) + length(ys).

#### Proof.

Let us prove the property

```
P(xs) := \forall ys \in List(A).

length(append(xs, ys)) =

length(xs) + length(ys)
```

by induction on the structure of the list.

 $\forall xs, ys \in List(A).$ length(append(xs, ys)) = length(xs) + length(ys).

#### Proof.

Case nil:

```
\mathit{length}(\mathit{append}(\mathsf{nil}, \mathit{ys}))
```

length(nil) + length(ys)

 $\forall xs, ys \in List(A).$ length(append(xs, ys)) = length(xs) + length(ys).

#### Proof.

Case nil:

```
length(append(nil, ys)) = length(ys)
```

length(nil) + length(ys)

 $\forall xs, ys \in List(A)$ . length(append(xs, ys)) = length(xs) + length(ys).

#### Proof.

Case nil:

```
length(append(nil, ys)) =
```

0 + length(ys) =

length(nil) + length(ys)

length(ys)

```
\forall xs, ys \in List(A).
 length(append(xs, ys)) = length(xs) + length(ys).
```

#### Proof.

Case nil:

```
length(append(nil, ys)) = length(ys) =
```

0 + length(ys) =

length(nil) + length(ys)

 $\forall xs, ys \in List(A).$ length(append(xs, ys)) = length(xs) + length(ys).

#### Proof.

Case cons(x, xs):

```
length(append(\mathsf{cons}(x,xs),ys))
```

 $\forall \textit{xs}, \textit{ys} \in \textit{List}(\textit{A}). \\ \textit{length}(\textit{append}(\textit{xs}, \textit{ys})) = \textit{length}(\textit{xs}) + \textit{length}(\textit{ys}).$ 

#### Proof.

Case cons(x, xs):

```
length(append(\mathsf{cons}(x,xs),ys)) = \\ length(\mathsf{cons}(x,append(xs,ys)))
```

 $\forall \textit{xs}, \textit{ys} \in List(\textit{A}). \\ \textit{length}(\textit{append}(\textit{xs}, \textit{ys})) = \textit{length}(\textit{xs}) + \textit{length}(\textit{ys}).$ 

#### Proof.

Case cons(x, xs):

```
length(append(\mathsf{cons}(x,xs),ys)) = \\ length(\mathsf{cons}(x,append(xs,ys))) = \\ 1 + length(append(xs,ys))
```

 $\forall xs, ys \in List(A).$ length(append(xs, ys)) = length(xs) + length(ys).

#### Proof.

Case cons(x, xs):

```
length(append(cons(x, xs), ys)) = \\ length(cons(x, append(xs, ys))) = \\ 1 + length(append(xs, ys))
```

(1 + length(xs)) + length(ys) =length(cons(x, xs)) + length(ys)

 $\forall xs, ys \in List(A).$ length(append(xs, ys)) = length(xs) + length(ys).

#### Proof.

Case cons(x, xs):

```
length(append(cons(x, xs), ys)) =
length(cons(x, append(xs, ys))) =
1 + length(append(xs, ys))
1 + (length(xs) + length(ys)) =
(1 + length(xs)) + length(ys) =
```

 $\forall xs, ys \in List(A).$ length(append(xs, ys)) = length(xs) + length(ys).

#### Proof.

```
Case cons(x, xs):
```

```
length(append(\mathsf{cons}(x,xs),ys)) = \\ length(\mathsf{cons}(x,append(xs,ys))) = \\ 1 + length(append(xs,ys)) = \{\mathsf{By the IH},\ P(xs).\} \\ 1 + (length(xs) + length(ys)) = \\ (1 + length(xs)) + length(ys) =
```

### Prove $\forall xs \in List(A).append(xs, nil) = xs$ and $\forall xs \in List(A).append(nil, xs) = xs$ .

1. The first.

Which proof is "easiest"?

2. The second.

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#### Induction/recursion

- Inductively defined sets: inference rules with constructors.
- Recursion (primitive recursion): recursive calls only for recursive arguments (f(c(x,d)) = ... f(d)...).
- ▶ Structural induction: inductive hypotheses for recursive arguments  $(P(d) \Rightarrow P(c(x,d)))$ .

## Some concepts

theory

from automata

#### Alphabets and strings

- ► An *alphabet* is a finite, nonempty set.
  - $ightharpoonup \{ a, b, c, ..., z \}.$
  - ► { 0, 1, ..., 9 }.
- ▶ A string (or word) over the alphabet  $\Sigma$  is a member of  $List(\Sigma)$ .

#### Some conventions

#### Following the course text book:

- $\blacktriangleright$   $\Sigma$ : An alphabet.
- ▶ a, b, c: Elements of alphabets.
- ightharpoonup u, v, w: Words over an alphabet.

#### **Notation**

- ▶  $\Sigma^*$  instead of  $List(\Sigma)$ .
- $\blacktriangleright$   $\varepsilon$  instead of nil or [].
- aw instead of cons(a, w).
- a instead of cons(a, nil) or [a].
- ▶ abc instead of [a, b, c].
- uv instead of append(u, v).
- ▶ |w| instead of length(w).
- $\qquad \qquad \Sigma^+ \colon \text{Nonempty strings, } \{ \ w \in \Sigma^* \mid w \neq \varepsilon \ \}.$

#### Exponentiation

- ▶  $\Sigma^n$ : Strings of length n, {  $w \in \Sigma^* \mid |w| = n$  }.
- $\blacktriangleright \text{ An example: } \left\{ \, a,b \, \right\}^2 = \left\{ \, aa,ab,ba,bb \, \right\}.$
- ▶ Alternative definition of  $\Sigma^n \subseteq \Sigma^*$ :

$$\Sigma^{0} = \{ \varepsilon \}$$
  
$$\Sigma^{n+1} = \{ aw \mid a \in \Sigma, w \in \Sigma^{n} \}$$

#### Exponentiation

- $w^n$ : w repeated n times.
- An example:  $(ab)^3 = ababab$ .
- ▶ A recursive definition:

$$w^0 = \varepsilon$$
$$w^{n+1} = ww^n$$

## Which of the following propositions are valid? The alphabet is $\{a,b,c\}$ .

- 1. |uv| = |u| + |v|. 2. |uv| = |u||v|.
  - $-|a||\iota$
  - 3.  $|w^n| = n$ .
  - 4. uv = vu.

5.  $\varepsilon v = v \varepsilon$ .

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#### Languages

A *language* over an alphabet  $\Sigma$  is a set  $L \subseteq \Sigma^*$ .

- ► Typical programming languages.
- Typical natural languages? (Are they well-defined?)
- ▶ Other examples, for instance the odd natural numbers expressed in binary notation (without leading zeros), which is a language over { 0, 1 }.

#### Another convention

Following the course text book:

ightharpoonup L, M, N: Languages.

- ▶ Concatenation:  $LM = \{ uv \mid u \in L, v \in M \}.$
- ► An example:

```
\{a, bc\}\{de, f\} = \{ade, af, bcde, bcf\}
```

Exponentiation:

$$L^0 = \{ \varepsilon \}$$
  
$$L^{n+1} = LL^n$$

An example:

```
{a, bc}^2 =
{a, bc}({a, bc}^1) =
{a, bc}({a, bc}^1) =
{a, bc}({a, bc}^1) =
{a, bc}({a, bc}^1) =
{a, bc}^1
{a, bc}^1
{a, bc}^1
```

Exponentiation:

$$L^0 = \{ \varepsilon \}$$
$$L^{n+1} = LL^n$$

► This definition is consistent with a previous one:

$$\Sigma^n = \left\{ w \in \Sigma^* \mid |w| = 1 \right\}^n$$

- ▶ The Kleene star  $L^* = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} L^n$ .
- ► An example:

```
{a, bc}^* = {a, bc}^0 \cup {a, bc}^1 \cup {a, bc}^2 \cup ... = {\varepsilon, a, bc, aa, abc, bca, bcbc, ...}
```

► This definition is consistent with a previous one:

$$\Sigma^* = \{ w \in \Sigma^* \mid |w| = 1 \}^*$$

#### Which of the following propositions are valid? The alphabet is $\{0,1,2\}$ .

- 1.  $\forall w \in L^n$ . |w| = n.
- 2. LM = ML
- 3.  $L(M \cup N) = LM \cup LN$ .
- **4**.  $LM \cap LN \subset L(M \cap N)$ . 5.  $L^*L^* \subset L^*$ .
- Respond at https://pingo.coactum.de/729558.

Which of the following propositions are valid? The alphabet is  $\{\,0,1,2\,\}$ .

1.  $\forall w \in L^n$ . |w| = n.

No. Counterexample:  $L = \{ \varepsilon \}, n = 1.$ 

Which of the following propositions are valid? The alphabet is  $\{\,0,1,2\,\}$ .

No. Counterexample:  $L = \{0\}, M = \{1\}.$ 

2. LM = ML.

Which of the following propositions are valid? The alphabet is  $\{\,0,1,2\,\}$ .

 $3. \ L(M \cup N) = LM \cup LN.$ 

Yes. The set  $L(M \cup N)$  consists exactly of the strings in LM and the strings in LN.

Which of the following propositions are valid? The alphabet is  $\{0,1,2\}$ .

4.  $LM \cap LN \subseteq L(M \cap N)$ .

No. With  $L=\{\, \varepsilon,1\,\}$ ,  $M=\{\,1\,\}$  and  $N=\{\,\varepsilon\,\}$  we get that

$$LM \cap LN = \{1,11\} \cap \{\varepsilon,1\} = \{1\} \quad \nsubseteq \\ \emptyset = L\emptyset = \\ L(M \cap N).$$

Which of the following propositions are valid? The alphabet is  $\{0, 1, 2\}$ .

5.  $L^*L^* \subseteq L^*$ .

Yes. Any string in  $L^*L^*$  consists of

- ightharpoonup a string in  $L^*$  followed by a string in  $L^*$ ,
- i.e. m strings in L followed by n strings in L (for some  $m,n\in\mathbb{N}$ ),
- i.e. m+n strings in L,
  - $\blacktriangleright$  and such a string is a member of  $L^*$ .

In fact,  $(L^*)^* = L^*$ .

# Inductively defined

subsets

#### Inductively defined subsets

- ▶ One can define subsets of (say)  $\Sigma^*$  inductively.
- ▶ For instance, for  $L \subseteq \Sigma^*$  we can define  $L^* \subseteq \Sigma^*$  inductively:

$$\frac{u \in L \quad v \in L^*}{\varepsilon \in L^*}$$

Note that there are no constructors (but in some cases it might make sense to name the rules).

$$\frac{u \in L \quad v \in L^*}{\varepsilon \in L^*}$$

$$\frac{u \in L \quad v \in L^*}{uv \in L^*}$$

#### $aba \in \{a, ab\}^*$

Proof:

$$\cfrac{ab \in \set{a,ab}}{\cfrac{a \in \set{a,ab}}{\cfrac{\varepsilon \in \set{a,ab}^*}{}}} \cfrac{\varepsilon \in \set{a,ab}^*}{\cfrac{a \in \set{a,ab}^*}{}}}{aba \in \set{a,ab}^*}$$

#### $bab \notin \{a, ab\}^*$

#### Proof:

▶ Because  $bab \neq \varepsilon$  a derivation of  $bab \in \{a, ab\}^*$  would have to end in the following way, with uv = bab:

$$\frac{u \in \{a, ab\} \qquad v \in \{a, ab\}^*}{uv \in \{a, ab\}^*}$$

- ▶ Because  $u \in \{a, ab\}$  we get that u = a or u = ab.
- In either case we get a contradiction, because u must be empty or start with b.

#### Inductively defined subsets

▶ What about recursion?

$$\begin{array}{l} f \in L^* \to Bool \\ f(\varepsilon) &= \mathsf{false} \\ f(uv) = not(f(v)) \end{array}$$

• If  $\varepsilon \in L$ , do we have

$$f(\varepsilon) = f(\varepsilon \varepsilon) = not(f(\varepsilon))$$
?

#### Inductively defined subsets

- Induction works (assuming "proof irrelevance").
- $P(\varepsilon) \wedge (\forall u \in L, v \in L^*. \ P(v) \Rightarrow P(uv)) \Rightarrow \forall w \in L^*. \ P(w).$

#### Another example

 $L\subseteq \{\ a,b\ \}^*$  is defined inductively in the following way:

$$\frac{u, v \in L}{ubv \in L}$$

An induction principle for L:

$$P(a) \land (\forall u, v \in L. \ P(u) \land P(v) \Rightarrow P(ubv)) \Rightarrow \forall w \in L. \ P(w)$$

Which of the following propositions are valid?  $1. \ \varepsilon \in L.$   $2. \ aba \in L.$ 

 $u,v\in L$ 

 $ubv \in L$ 

 $L \subseteq \{a, b\}^*$  is defined inductively in the

following way:

3.  $bab \in L$ .

4.  $aabaa \in L$ .

5.  $ababa \in L$ .

 $a \in L$ 

Respond at https://pingo.coactum.de/729558.

#### Today

- ▶ Structural induction.
- ▶ Some concepts from automata theory.
- Inductively defined subsets.

#### Next lecture

▶ Deterministic finite automata.

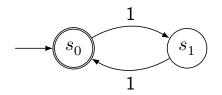
### Finite automata and formal languages (DIT323, TMV029)

Nils Anders Danielsson, partly based on slides by Ana Bove

#### Today

▶ Deterministic finite automata.

Recall from the first lecture:

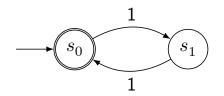


- A DFA specifies a language.
- ▶ In this case the language  $\{11\}^* = \{\varepsilon, 11, 1111, \dots\}.$
- ▶ DFAs are for instance used to implement regular expression matching.

#### A DFA can be given by a 5-tuple $(Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$ :

- ▶ A finite set of states (Q).
- An alphabet  $(\Sigma)$ .
- ▶ A transition function  $(\delta \in Q \times \Sigma \to Q)$ .
- ▶ A start state  $(q_0 \in Q)$ .
- ▶ A set of accepting states  $(F \subseteq Q)$ .

The diagram



corresponds to the 5-tuple

$$\mathit{Even} = \left( \left\{ \right. s_0, s_1 \left. \right\}, \left\{ \right. 1 \left. \right\}, \delta, s_0, \left\{ \right. s_0 \left. \right\} \right) \text{,}$$

where  $\delta$  is defined in the following way:

$$\delta \in \{ s_0, s_1 \} \times \{ 1 \} \to \{ s_0, s_1 \}$$

$$\delta(s_0, 1) = s_1$$

$$\delta(s_1, 1) = s_0$$

### Which of the following 5-tuples can be seen as DFAs?

```
1. (\mathbb{N}, \{0,1\}, \delta, 0, \{13\}),
where \delta(n,m) = n + m.
```

2. 
$$(\{0,1\},\emptyset,\delta,0,\{1\})$$
, where  $\delta(n,\underline{\ })=n$ .

3. 
$$(\{q_0, q_1\}, \{0, 1\}, \delta, q_0, \{1\}),$$

where 
$$\delta(\underline{\ },\underline{\ })=q_0.$$
 4.  $(\{\ q_0,q_1\}\,,\{\ 0,1\ \}\,,\delta,q_0,\{\ q_0\ \}),$ 

where 
$$\delta(q, \underline{\ }) = q.$$
 5.  $(\{\ q_0, q_1\ \}, \{\ 0, 1\ \}, \delta, q_0, \{\ q_0\ \}),$  where  $\delta(\ ,\ ) = 0.$ 

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## Semantics

#### The language of a DFA

The language L(A) of a DFA  $A=(Q,\Sigma,\delta,q_0,F)$  is defined in the following way:

► A transition function for strings is defined by recursion:

$$\begin{split} \hat{\delta} &\in Q \times \Sigma^* \to Q \\ \hat{\delta}(q,\,\varepsilon) &= q \\ \hat{\delta}(q,\,aw) &= \hat{\delta}(\delta(q,a),w) \end{split}$$

 $\blacktriangleright \ \ \text{The language is} \ \left\{ \ w \in \Sigma^* \ \middle| \ \widehat{\delta}(q_0,w) \in F \ \right\}.$ 

#### The language of a DFA

#### For Even:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \hat{\delta}(s_0,11) &= \\ \hat{\delta}(\delta(s_0,1),1) &= \\ \hat{\delta}(s_1,1) &= \\ \hat{\delta}(\delta(s_1,1),\varepsilon) &= \\ \hat{\delta}(s_0,\varepsilon) &= \\ s_0 &= \end{array}$$

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 $\delta(s_0,b)=s_2$ 

5. abbaab.

6. bbaaaa.

Which strings are members of the language

of  $(\{s_0, s_1, s_2, s_3\}, \{a, b\}, \delta, s_0, \{s_0\})$ ?

Here  $\delta$  is defined in the following way:

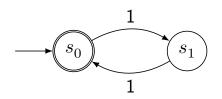
 $\delta(s_0, a) = s_1$ 

2. *aab*.

3. *aba*.

## I ransition diagrams

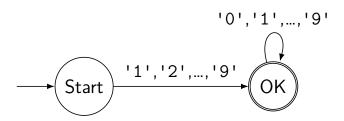
#### Transition diagrams



- One node per state.
- ▶ An arrow "from nowhere" to the start state.
- ▶ Double circles for accepting states.
- For every transition  $\delta(s_1, a) = s_2$ , an arrow marked with a from  $s_1$  to  $s_2$ .
  - Multiple arrows can be combined.

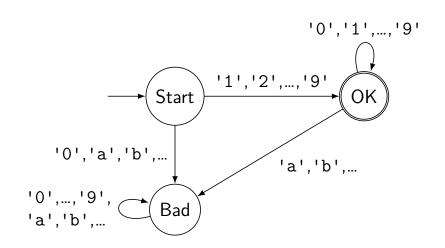
#### A variant

Diagrams with "missing transitions":



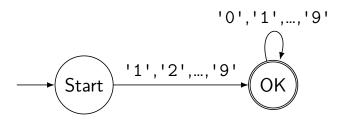
#### A variant

Every missing transition goes to a new state (that is not accepting):



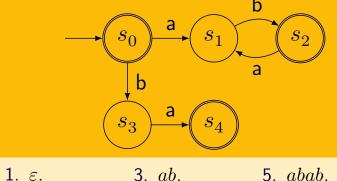
#### A variant

Note that diagrams with missing transitions do not define the alphabet unambiguously:



The alphabet must be a (finite) superset of  $\{ '0', '1', ..., '9' \}$ , but which one?

Which strings are members of the language of the DFA defined by the following transition diagram? The alphabet is  $\{a, b\}$ .



2. aa. 4. ba. 6. baba.

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## Transition tables

#### Transition tables

	0	1
$\rightarrow *s_0$	$s_2$	$s_1$
$s_1$	$s_2$	$s_0$
$s_2$	$s_2$	$s_2$

- ▶ States: Left column.
- ► Alphabet: Upper row.
- ► Start state: Arrow.
- ► Accepting states: Stars.
- ▶ Transition function: Table.

Which strings are members of the language of the DFA defined by the following transition table?

	0	
$\rightarrow s_0$	$s_2$	$s_1$
$*s_1$	$s_2$	$s_0$
$*s_2$	$s_2$	$s_2$

5. 111. 1.  $\varepsilon$ . 3. 1. 2. 0. 4 11 **6**. 1010.

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# Constructions

Given a DFA  $A=(Q,\Sigma,\delta,q_0,F)$  we can construct a DFA  $\overline{A}$  that satisfies the following property:

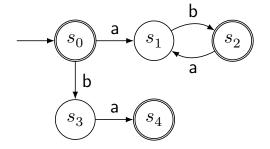
$$L(\overline{A}) = \overline{L(A)} \coloneqq \Sigma^* \smallsetminus L(A).$$

Construction:

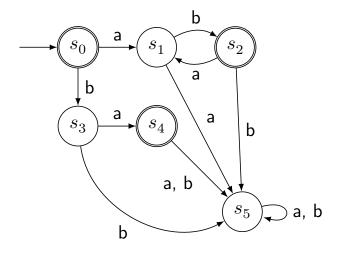
$$(Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, Q \setminus F)$$
.

We accept if the original automaton doesn't.

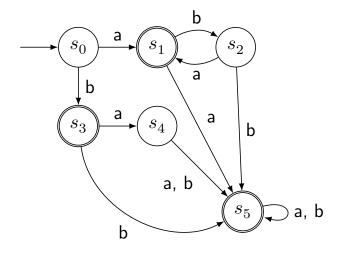
A =



A =



 $\overline{A} =$ 



#### Product

Given two DFAs  $A_1=(Q_1,\Sigma,\delta_1,q_{01},F_1)$  and  $A_2=(Q_2,\Sigma,\delta_2,q_{02},F_2)$  with the same alphabet we can construct a DFA  $A_1\otimes A_2$  that satisfies the following property:

$$L(A_1 \otimes A_2) = L(A_1) \cap L(A_2).$$

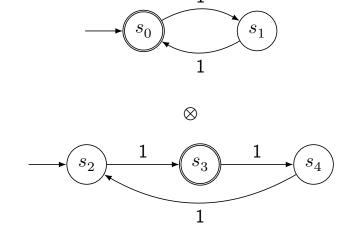
Construction:

$$(Q_1 \times Q_2, \Sigma, \delta, (q_{01}, q_{02}), F_1 \times F_2), \text{ where } \\ \delta((s_1, s_2), a) = (\delta_1(s_1, a), \delta_2(s_2, a)).$$

We basically run the two automatons in parallel and accept if both accept.

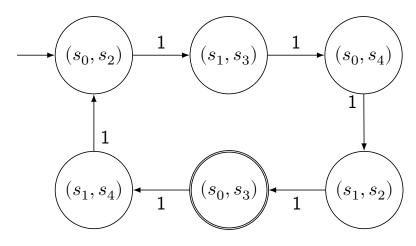
### **Product**

 $\{\ 2n\mid n\in\mathbb{N}\ \}\cap\{\ 1+3n\mid n\in\mathbb{N}\ \}$  (in unary notation, with  $\varepsilon$  standing for 0):



### **Product**

 $\{ 4 + 6n \mid n \in \mathbb{N} \}$ :



We can also construct a DFA  $A_1 \oplus A_2$  that satisfies the following property:  $L(A_1 \oplus A_2) = L(A_1) \cup L(A_2).$ 

The construction is basically that of  $A_1 \otimes A_2$ , but with a different set of accepting states. Which one?

1.  $F_1 \cup F_2$ .

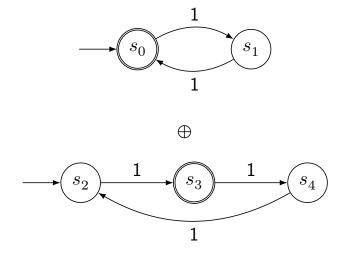
2. 
$$F_1 \cap F_2$$
. 5.  $F_1 \times Q_2 \cap Q_1 \times F_2$ . 3.  $Q_1 \times Q_2$ .

4.  $F_1 \times Q_2 \cup Q_1 \times F_2$ .

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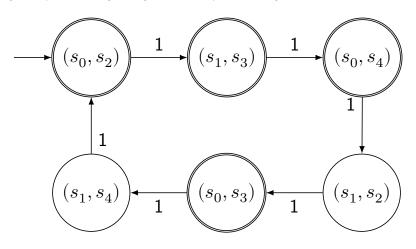
### Sum

 $\{\; 2n \mid n \in \mathbb{N} \;\} \cup \{\; 1+3n \mid n \in \mathbb{N} \;\}:$ 



### Sum

 $\{ 2n \mid n \in \mathbb{N} \} \cup \{ 1 + 6n \mid n \in \mathbb{N} \}:$ 



### Accessible states

- ▶ Let  $A = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$  be a DFA.
- ▶ The set  $Acc(q) \subseteq Q$  of states that are accessible from  $q \in Q$  can be defined in the following way:

$$Acc(q) = \left\{ \left. \hat{\delta}(q, w) \mid w \in \Sigma^* \right. \right\}$$

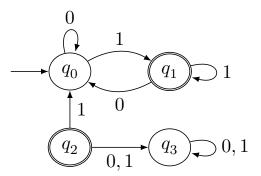
► A possibly smaller DFA:

$$\begin{split} A' &= (A\operatorname{cc}(q_0), \Sigma, \delta', q_0, F \cap A\operatorname{cc}(q_0)) \\ \delta'(q, a) &= \delta(q, a) \end{split}$$

• We have L(A') = L(A).

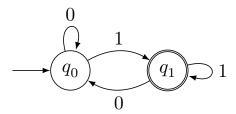
### Accessible states

Note that some states cannot be reached from the start state:



### Accessible states

The following DFA defines the same language:



# Regular languages

# Regular languages

- ▶ A language  $M \subseteq \Sigma^*$  is *regular* if there is some DFA A with alphabet  $\Sigma$  such that L(A) = M.
- ▶ Note that if M and N are regular, then  $M \cap N$ ,  $M \cup N$  and  $\overline{M}$  are also regular.
- We will see later that if M and N are regular, then MN is regular.

### Which of the following languages are regular? $(\Sigma = \{0, 1\}.)$

- 1.  $\{ w \in \Sigma^* \mid |w| \le 7 \}$ .
- 2.  $\{ w \in \Sigma^* \mid |w| > 7 \}$ .
- 3.  $\Sigma^* \{ 11 \} \Sigma^*$ .
- **4.**  $\{ w \in \Sigma^* \mid \exists u, v \in \Sigma^* . w = u11v \}.$

5.  $\{ w \in \Sigma^* \mid |w| \le 7 \lor \exists u, v \in \Sigma^* . w = u11v \}.$ 6.  $\{ w \in \Sigma^* \mid |w| > 7 \land \nexists u, v \in \Sigma^* . w = u 11v \}.$ 

# **Today**

#### Deterministic finite automata:

- ► 5-tuples.
- Semantics.
- ► Transition diagrams.
- ► Transition tables.
- ► Constructions.
- ► Regular languages.

### Next lecture

- ▶ Nondeterministic finite automata (NFAs).
- ► The subset construction (turns NFAs into DFAs).

# Finite automata and formal languages (DIT323, TMV029)

Nils Anders Danielsson, partly based on slides by Ana Bove

### Today

- Nondeterministic finite automata (NFAs).
- Equivalence of NFAs and DFAs.
- ▶ Perhaps something about how one can model things using finite automata.

### The first assignment

In the first assignment you are given an inductively defined subset of  $\{a,b\}^*$ :

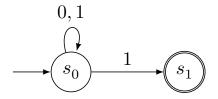
$$\frac{u, v \in S}{\varepsilon \in S} \qquad \frac{u, v, w \in S}{buavaw \in S}$$

For this set we get the following induction principle (assuming "proof irrelevance"):

$$\begin{array}{l} P(\varepsilon) \wedge \\ (\forall u,v \in S.P(u) \wedge P(v) \Rightarrow P(auavb)) \wedge \\ (\forall u,v,w \in S.P(u) \wedge P(v) \wedge P(w) \Rightarrow P(buavaw)) \\ \Rightarrow \\ \forall w \in S.P(w) \end{array}$$

- Like DFAs, but multiple transitions may be possible.
- ▶ An NFA can be in multiple states at once.
- ► Can be easier to "program".
- Can be much more compact.

Strings over  $\{0,1\}$  that end with a one:

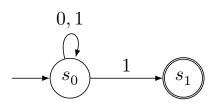


When a one is read the NFA "guesses" whether it should stay in  $s_0$  or go to  $s_1$ .

An NFA can be given by a 5-tuple  $(Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$ :

- ▶ A finite set of states (Q).
- ▶ An alphabet  $(\Sigma)$ .
- ▶ A transition function  $(\delta \in Q \times \Sigma \to \wp(Q))$ .
- ▶ A start state  $(q_0 \in Q)$ .
- ▶ A set of accepting states  $(F \subseteq Q)$ .

If the alphabet is  $\{0,1\}$ , then the diagram



corresponds to the 5-tuple

$$Ends\text{-}with\text{-}one = (\{s_0, s_1\}, \{0, 1\}, \delta, s_0, \{s_1\}),$$

where  $\delta$  is defined in the following way:

$$\begin{array}{l} \delta \in \{\,s_0,s_1\,\} \times \{\,0,1\,\} \rightarrow \wp(\{\,s_0,s_1\,\}) \\ \delta(s_0,0) = \{\,s_0\,\} \qquad \delta(s_1,\underline{\ }) = \emptyset \\ \delta(s_0,1) = \{\,s_0,s_1\,\} \end{array}$$

The language L(A) of an NFA  $A=(Q,\Sigma,\gamma,q_0,F)$  is defined in the following way:

► A transition function for strings is defined by recursion:

$$\begin{array}{l} \hat{\gamma} \in Q \times \Sigma^* \to \wp(Q) \\ \hat{\gamma}(q,\varepsilon) &= \{ \ q \ \} \\ \hat{\gamma}(q,aw) = \bigcup_{r \in \gamma(q,a)} \hat{\gamma}(r,w) \end{array}$$

▶ The language is

$$\{\ w\in\Sigma^*\mid \widehat{\gamma}(q_0,w)\cap F\neq\emptyset\ \}\ .$$

$$\hat{\delta}(s_0,10)$$

$$\hat{\delta}(s_0, 10)$$

$$\textstyle\bigcup_{q\,\in\,\delta(s_0,1)}\,\hat{\delta}(q,0)$$

$$\hat{\delta}(s_0, 10)$$
 
$$\bigcup_{q \in \{s_0, s_1\}} \hat{\delta}(q, 0)$$

$$\begin{split} \hat{\delta}(s_0, 10) &= \\ \bigcup_{q \in \{s_0, s_1\}} \hat{\delta}(q, 0) &= \\ \bigcup_{q \in \{s_0, s_1\}} \bigcup_{r \in \delta(q, 0)} \hat{\delta}(r, \varepsilon) &= \\ \end{split}$$

$$\begin{split} \hat{\delta}(s_0, 10) &= \\ &\bigcup_{q \in \{s_0, s_1\}} \hat{\delta}(q, 0) &= \\ &\bigcup_{q \in \{s_0, s_1\}} \bigcup_{r \in \delta(q, 0)} \hat{\delta}(r, \varepsilon) &= \\ &\bigcup_{r \in \bigcup_{q \in \{s_0, s_1\}} \delta(q, 0)} \hat{\delta}(r, \varepsilon) \end{split}$$

$$\begin{split} \hat{\delta}(s_0, 10) &= \\ \bigcup_{q \in \{s_0, s_1\}} \hat{\delta}(q, 0) &= \\ \bigcup_{q \in \{s_0, s_1\}} \bigcup_{r \in \delta(q, 0)} \hat{\delta}(r, \varepsilon) &= \\ \bigcup_{r \in \bigcup_{q \in \{s_0, s_1\}} \delta(q, 0)} \hat{\delta}(r, \varepsilon) &= \\ \bigcup_{r \in \delta(s_0, 0) \cup \delta(s_1, 0)} \hat{\delta}(r, \varepsilon) &= \\ \end{split}$$

$$\begin{split} \hat{\delta}(s_0, 10) &= \\ \bigcup_{q \in \{s_0, s_1\}} \hat{\delta}(q, 0) &= \\ \bigcup_{q \in \{s_0, s_1\}} \bigcup_{r \in \delta(q, 0)} \hat{\delta}(r, \varepsilon) &= \\ \bigcup_{r \in \bigcup_{q \in \{s_0, s_1\}} \delta(q, 0)} \hat{\delta}(r, \varepsilon) &= \\ \bigcup_{r \in \{s_0\} \cup \emptyset} \hat{\delta}(r, \varepsilon) &= \\ \end{split}$$

$$\begin{split} \hat{\delta}(s_0, 10) &= \\ \bigcup_{q \in \{s_0, s_1\}} \hat{\delta}(q, 0) &= \\ \bigcup_{q \in \{s_0, s_1\}} \bigcup_{r \in \delta(q, 0)} \hat{\delta}(r, \varepsilon) &= \\ \bigcup_{r \in \bigcup_{q \in \{s_0, s_1\}} \delta(q, 0)} \hat{\delta}(r, \varepsilon) &= \\ \bigcup_{r \in \{s_0\}} \hat{\delta}(r, \varepsilon) &= \\ \end{split}$$

#### The language of an NFA

For *Ends-with-one*:

$$\begin{split} \hat{\delta}(s_0, 10) &= \\ \bigcup_{q \in \{s_0, s_1\}} \hat{\delta}(q, 0) &= \\ \bigcup_{q \in \{s_0, s_1\}} \bigcup_{r \in \delta(q, 0)} \hat{\delta}(r, \varepsilon) &= \\ \bigcup_{r \in \bigcup_{q \in \{s_0, s_1\}} \delta(q, 0)} \hat{\delta}(r, \varepsilon) &= \\ \bigcup_{r \in \{s_0\}} \hat{\delta}(r, \varepsilon) &= \\ \bigcup_{r \in \{s_0\}} \{r\} \end{split}$$

#### The language of an NFA

For Ends-with-one:

$$\begin{split} \hat{\delta}(s_0, 10) &= \\ &\bigcup_{q \in \{s_0, s_1\}} \hat{\delta}(q, 0) &= \\ &\bigcup_{q \in \{s_0, s_1\}} \bigcup_{r \in \delta(q, 0)} \hat{\delta}(r, \varepsilon) &= \\ &\bigcup_{r \in \bigcup_{q \in \{s_0, s_1\}} \delta(q, 0)} \hat{\delta}(r, \varepsilon) &= \\ &\bigcup_{r \in \{s_0\}} \hat{\delta}(r, \varepsilon) &= \\ &\bigcup_{r \in \{s_0\}} \{r\} &= \\ &\{s_0\} \end{split}$$

#### Transition diagrams

#### As for DFAs, but with one change:

For every transition  $\delta(s_1,a)=S$ and every state  $s_2\in S$ , an arrow marked with a from  $s_1$  to  $s_2$ .

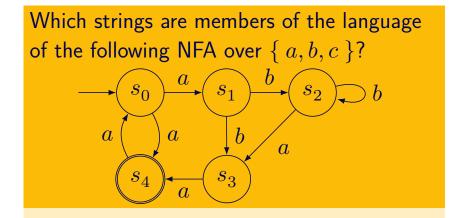
#### Note:

- ► The alphabet is not defined unambiguously.
- No need for special treatment of missing transitions, because  $\delta(s_1, a)$  can be empty.

#### Transition tables

As for DFAs, but with one change:

► The result of a transition is a set of states instead of a state.



abbaca.
 aaaabaa.
 abbaaaabaaa.
 abbaaaabaaa.

1. abba.

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4. aaabaaa.

#### Some conventions

At least partly following the course text book:

- ▶ *q*, *r*, *s*: A state.
- $\blacktriangleright$   $\delta$ : A transition function.

- 1.  $\hat{\delta}(q, a) = \delta(q, a)$ .
- 2.  $\hat{\delta}(q, uv) = \hat{\delta}(q, vu)$ .
- 3.  $\hat{\delta}(q, uv) = \bigcup_{r \in \hat{\delta}(q,v)} \hat{\delta}(r,u)$ .
- 4.  $\hat{\delta}(q, uv) = \bigcup_{r \in \hat{\delta}(q,u)} \hat{\delta}(r, v)$ .

You may want to use the following lemma:

$$\bigcup_{y \in \bigcup_{x \in X} F(x)} G(y) = \bigcup_{x \in X} \bigcup_{y \in F(x)} G(y)$$

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1. 
$$\hat{\delta}(q, a) = \delta(q, a)$$
.

Yes:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \hat{\delta}(q,a) & = \\ \bigcup_{r \in \delta(q,a)} \hat{\delta}(r,\varepsilon) = \\ \bigcup_{r \in \delta(q,a)} \left\{ \right. r \left. \right\} & = \\ \delta(q,a) & \end{array}$$

2. 
$$\hat{\delta}(q, uv) = \hat{\delta}(q, vu)$$
.

No. Counterexample:

$$\longrightarrow \begin{array}{c} s_0 & 0 \\ \hline \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{c} s_1 & 1 \\ \hline \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{c} s_2 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

Denote the transition function by  $\delta$ .

$$\hat{\delta}(s_0,01) = \{\,s_2\,\} \neq \emptyset = \hat{\delta}(s_0,10)$$

4. 
$$\hat{\delta}(q, uv) = \bigcup_{r \in \hat{\delta}(q, u)} \hat{\delta}(r, v)$$
.

Yes. Proof by induction on the structure of the string u:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \hat{\delta}(q, \varepsilon v) & = \\ \hat{\delta}(q, v) & = \\ \bigcup_{r \in \{q\}} \hat{\delta}(r, v) & = \\ \bigcup_{r \in \hat{\delta}(q, \varepsilon)} \hat{\delta}(r, v) \end{array}$$

4. 
$$\hat{\delta}(q, uv) = \bigcup_{r \in \hat{\delta}(q, u)} \hat{\delta}(r, v)$$
.

Yes. Proof by induction on the structure of the string u:

$$\begin{split} \hat{\delta}(q,auv) &= \\ \bigcup_{r' \in \delta(q,a)} \hat{\delta}(r',uv) &= \\ \bigcup_{r' \in \delta(q,a)} \bigcup_{r \in \hat{\delta}(r',u)} \hat{\delta}(r,v) &= \\ \bigcup_{r \in \bigcup_{r' \in \delta(q,a)}} \hat{\delta}(r',u) &\hat{\delta}(r,v) &= \\ \bigcup_{r \in \hat{\delta}(q,au)} \hat{\delta}(r,v) &= \\ \end{split}$$

3. 
$$\hat{\delta}(q, uv) = \bigcup_{r \in \hat{\delta}(q,v)} \hat{\delta}(r,u)$$
.

No. we have

$$\bigcup_{r \in \hat{\delta}(q,v)} \hat{\delta}(r,u) = \hat{\delta}(q,vu),$$

which in general is not equal to  $\delta(q,uv)$ .

## NFAs versus

**DFAs** 

#### NFAs versus DFAs

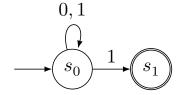
- ▶ Every DFA can be seen as an NFA:
  - $\blacktriangleright \ \, {\rm Turn} \,\, \delta(s_1,a) = s_2 \,\, {\rm into} \,\, \delta(s_1,a) = \{\, s_2\,\}.$
- ► Thus every language that can be defined by a DFA can also be defined by an NFA.
- What about the other direction? Are NFAs more powerful?
- ► No.

Given an NFA  $N=(Q,\Sigma,\delta,q_0,F)$  we can define a DFA D with the same alphabet in such a way that L(N)=L(D):

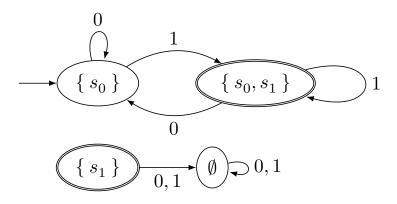
$$\begin{split} D &= \left(\wp(Q), \Sigma, \delta', \left\{\right. q_0 \left.\right\}, \left\{\right. S \subseteq Q \mid S \cap F \neq \emptyset \left.\right\}\right) \\ \delta'(S, a) &= \bigcup_{s \in S} \delta(s, a) \end{split}$$

- ► The DFA keeps track of exactly which states the NFA is in.
- ▶ It accepts if at least one of the NFA states is accepting.

An NFA:



If we apply the subset construction we get the following DFA:

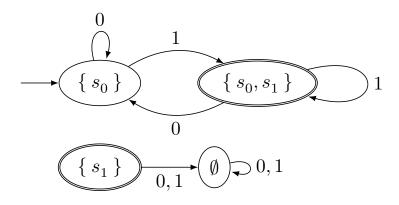


If an NFA has 10 states, and we use the subset construction to build a corresponding DFA, how many states does the DFA have?

Respond at https://pingo.coactum.de/729558.

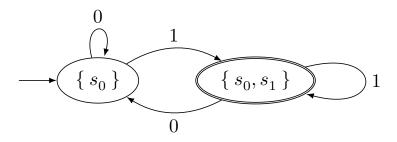
#### Accessible states

Note that some states cannot be reached from the start state:



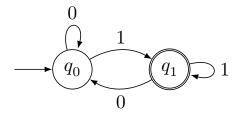
#### Accessible states

If we remove non-accessible states, then we get a DFA which defines the same language:

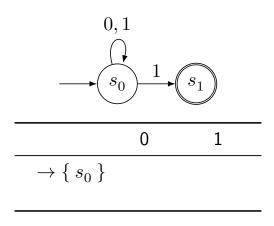


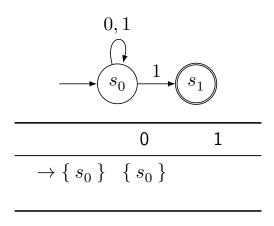
#### Accessible states

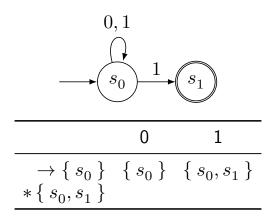
One can also rename the states:

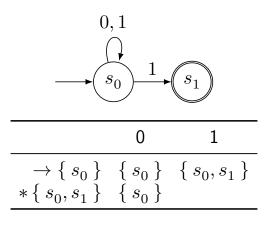


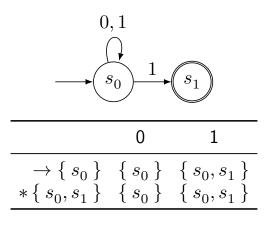
- Note that one does not have to first construct a DFA with 2<sup>|Q|</sup> states, and then remove inaccessible states.
- One can instead construct the DFA without inaccessible states right away:
  - Start with the start state.
  - Add new states reachable from the start state.
  - Add new states reachable from those states.
  - And so on until there are no more new states.



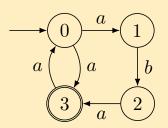








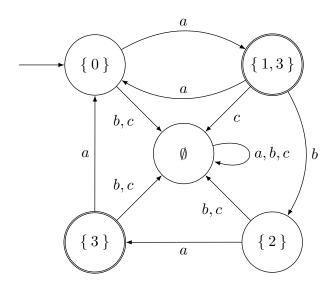
If the subset construction is used to build a DFA corresponding to the following NFA over  $\{a,b,c\}$ , and inaccessible states are removed, how many states are there in the resulting DFA?



Respond at https://pingo.coactum.de/729558.

#### How many states are there in the resulting DFA?

5:



Recall the subset construction for  $N = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$ :

$$\begin{split} D &= \left(\wp(Q), \Sigma, \delta', \left\{ \right. q_0 \left. \right\}, \left\{ \right. S \subseteq Q \mid S \cap F \neq \emptyset \left. \right\} \right) \\ \delta'(S, a) &= \bigcup_{s \in S} \delta(s, a) \end{split}$$

How would you prove L(N) = L(D)?

$$\begin{split} L(N) &= \left\{ \left. w \in \Sigma^* \; \middle| \; \widehat{\delta}(q_0, w) \cap F \neq \emptyset \right. \right\} \\ L(D) &= \left\{ \left. w \in \Sigma^* \; \middle| \; \widehat{\delta'}(\left\{ \left. q_0 \right. \right\}, w) \in \right. \right. \\ &\left. \left\{ \left. S \subseteq Q \; \middle| \; S \cap F \neq \emptyset \right. \right\} \right. \right\} \end{split}$$

Recall the subset construction for  $N = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$ :

$$\begin{split} D &= \left(\wp(Q), \Sigma, \delta', \left\{ \right. q_0 \left. \right\}, \left\{ \right. S \subseteq Q \mid S \cap F \neq \emptyset \left. \right\} \right) \\ \delta'(S, a) &= \bigcup_{s \in S} \delta(s, a) \end{split}$$

How would you prove L(N) = L(D)?

$$\begin{split} L(N) &= \left\{ \right. w \in \Sigma^* \mid \widehat{\delta}(q_0, w) \cap F \neq \emptyset \left. \right\} \\ L(D) &= \left\{ \right. w \in \Sigma^* \mid \widehat{\delta'}(\left\{ \right. q_0 \left. \right\}, w) \cap F \neq \emptyset \left. \right\} \end{split}$$

This follows from

$$\forall w \in \Sigma^*. \ \forall q \in Q. \ \widehat{\delta}(q,w) = \widehat{\delta'}(\left\{\ q\ \right\},w),$$

which can be proved by induction on the structure of the string, using the following lemma:

$$\forall w \in \Sigma^*. \ \forall S \subseteq Q. \ \widehat{\delta'}(S, w) = \bigcup_{s \in S} \widehat{\delta'}(\{\ s\ \}, w)$$

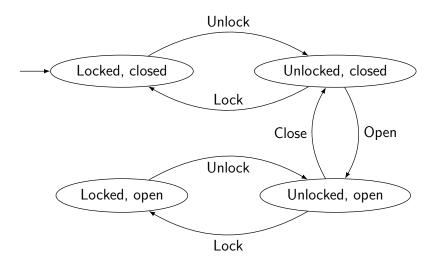
The lemma can also be proved by induction on the structure of the string.

#### Regular languages

- ▶ Recall that a language  $M \subseteq \Sigma^*$  is regular if there is some DFA A with alphabet  $\Sigma$  such that L(A) = M.
- ▶ A language  $M \subseteq \Sigma^*$  is also regular if there is some *NFA* A with alphabet  $\Sigma$  such that L(A) = M.

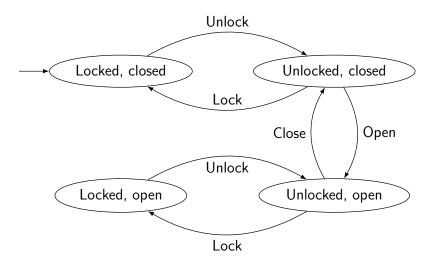
# Models

#### A model of a door



Alphabet: { Lock, Unlock, Open, Close }.

#### A model of a door



What happens if we try to lock a locked door? Does the system "crash"?

#### Try to model something as a finite automaton:

- ► The traffic lights of an intersection.
- ► A coin-operated vending machine.
- •

How well does your model work? Does it make sense to model the phenomenon as a finite automaton?

#### Today

- ► Nondeterministic finite automata (NFAs).
- ▶ The subset construction.
- ► Models.

#### Consultation time

- ► Tomorrow.
- ▶ You decide what you want to work on.

#### Next lecture

Nondeterministic finite automata with  $\varepsilon$ -transitions.

## Finite automata and formal languages (DIT323, TMV029)

Nils Anders Danielsson

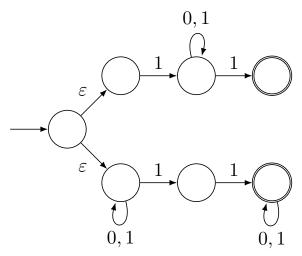
2024-01-29

#### Today

- ▶ NFAs with  $\varepsilon$ -transitions.
- ► Exponential blowup.

- Like NFAs, but with  $\varepsilon$ -transitions: The automaton can "spontaneously" make a transition from one state to another.
- ► Can be used to convert regular expressions to finite automata.

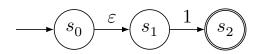
Strings over  $\{0,1\}$  that start and end with a one, or that contain two consecutive ones:



An  $\varepsilon$ -NFA can be given by a 5-tuple  $(Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$ :

- ▶ A finite set of states (Q).
- An alphabet ( $\Sigma$  with  $\varepsilon \notin \Sigma$ ).
- ▶ A transition function  $(\delta \in Q \times (\Sigma \cup \{ \varepsilon \}) \to \wp(Q)).$
- ▶ A start state  $(q_0 \in Q)$ .
- ▶ A set of accepting states  $(F \subseteq Q)$ .

If the alphabet is  $\{1\}$ , then the diagram



corresponds to the 5-tuple

$$One = \left( \left\{ \right. s_0, s_1, s_2 \left. \right\}, \left\{ \right. 1 \left. \right\}, \delta, s_0, \left\{ \right. s_2 \left. \right\} \right),$$

where  $\delta$  is defined in the following way:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \delta \in \{\; s_0, s_1, s_2\;\} \times \{\; \varepsilon, 1\;\} \rightarrow \wp(\{\; s_0, s_1, s_2\;\}) \\ \delta(s_0, \varepsilon) = \{\; s_1\;\} & \delta(s_1, \varepsilon) = \emptyset & \delta(s_2, \underline{\ \ \ }) = \emptyset \\ \delta(s_0, 1) = \emptyset & \delta(s_1, 1) = \{\; s_2\;\} \end{array}$$

#### Transition diagrams

As for NFAs, but arrows can be labelled with  $\varepsilon$ .

#### Transition tables

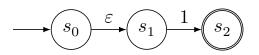
As for NFAs, but with one column for  $\varepsilon$ .

The  $\varepsilon$ -closure of a state q consists of those states that one can reach from q by following zero or more  $\varepsilon$ -transitions.

Given an  $\varepsilon$ -NFA  $A=(Q,\Sigma,\delta,q_0,F)$  one can, for each state  $q\in Q$ , define the  $\varepsilon$ -closure of q (a subset of Q) inductively in the following way:

$$\frac{q' \in \varepsilon\text{-}closure(q)}{q'' \in \varepsilon\text{-}closure(q)}$$
 
$$\frac{q' \in \varepsilon\text{-}closure(q)}{q'' \in \varepsilon\text{-}closure(q)}$$

Consider the following  $\varepsilon$ -NFA again:



The set  $\varepsilon$ - $closure(s_0)$  contains two states:

$$\overline{s_0 \in \varepsilon\text{-}closure(s_0)}$$
 
$$\overline{s_0 \in \varepsilon\text{-}closure(s_0)} \quad \overline{s_1 \in \delta(s_0, \varepsilon)}$$
 
$$s_1 \in \varepsilon\text{-}closure(s_0)$$

#### Some notation

The  $\varepsilon$ -closure of a set  $S \subseteq Q$ :

$$\varepsilon\text{-}closure(S) = \bigcup_{s \in S} \varepsilon\text{-}closure(s)$$

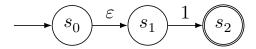
Transition functions applied to a set  $S \subseteq Q$ :

$$\delta(S, a) = \bigcup_{s \in S} \delta(s, a)$$
$$\hat{\delta}(S, w) = \bigcup_{s \in S} \hat{\delta}(s, w)$$

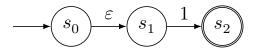
The  $\varepsilon$ -closure of q can be computed (perhaps not very efficiently) in the following way:

- ▶ Initialise C to  $\{q\}$ .
- ▶ Repeat until  $\delta(C, \varepsilon) \subseteq C$ :
  - ▶ Set C to  $C \cup \delta(C, \varepsilon)$ .
- ▶ Return *C*.

Let us compute  $\varepsilon\text{-}closure(s_0)$  for the following  $\varepsilon\text{-NFA}$ :

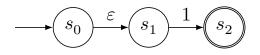


Let us compute  $\varepsilon\text{-}closure(s_0)$  for the following  $\varepsilon\text{-NFA}$ :



▶ Initialise C to  $\{s_0\}$ .

Let us compute  $\varepsilon\text{-}closure(s_0)$  for the following  $\varepsilon\text{-NFA}$ :

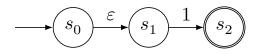


▶ We have  $\delta(C, \varepsilon) \nsubseteq C$ :

$$\begin{array}{l} \delta(C,\varepsilon) = \delta(\left\{\,s_{0}\,\right\},\varepsilon) = \delta(s_{0},\varepsilon) = \\ \left\{\,s_{1}\,\right\} \;\; \not\subseteq \left\{\,s_{0}\,\right\} \qquad = C. \end{array}$$

 $\blacktriangleright \ \, \mathrm{Set} \,\, C \,\, \mathrm{to} \,\, C \cup \delta(C,\varepsilon) = \{\, s_0,s_1\,\}.$ 

Let us compute  $\varepsilon\text{-}closure(s_0)$  for the following  $\varepsilon\text{-NFA}$ :

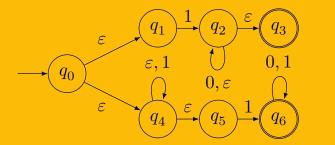


▶ We have  $\delta(C, \varepsilon) \subseteq C$ :

$$\begin{array}{ll} \delta(C,\varepsilon) &= \delta(\left\{\,s_0,s_1\,\right\},\varepsilon) = \\ \delta(s_0,\varepsilon) \cup \delta(s_1,\varepsilon) = \left\{\,s_1\,\right\} \cup \emptyset &= \\ \left\{\,s_1\,\right\} &\subseteq \left\{\,s_0,s_1\,\right\} &= C. \end{array}$$

▶ Return *C*.

Which of the following propositions hold for the following  $\varepsilon\text{-NFA}$  over  $\{\,0,1\,\}$ ?



1. 
$$q_0 \in \varepsilon$$
-closure $(q_0)$ . 4.  $q_6 \in \varepsilon$ -closure $(q_0)$ .  
2.  $q_5 \in \varepsilon$ -closure $(q_0)$ . 5.  $q_3 \in \varepsilon$ -closure $(q_1)$ .

3.  $\varepsilon$ -closure $(q_4) \subseteq$  6.  $\varepsilon$ -closure $(q_4) \subseteq$   $\varepsilon$ -closure $(q_5)$ .

Respond at https://pingo.coactum.de/729558.

# Semantics

#### The language of an $\varepsilon$ -NFA

The language L(A) of an  $\varepsilon\text{-NFA}$   $A=(Q,\Sigma,\delta,q_0,F)$  is defined in the following way:

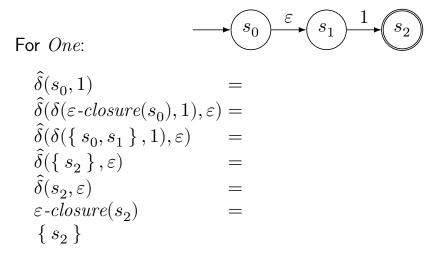
► A transition function for strings is defined by recursion:

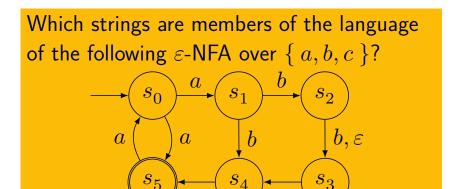
$$\begin{split} \hat{\delta} &\in Q \times \Sigma^* \to \wp(Q) \\ \hat{\delta}(q,\varepsilon) &= \varepsilon\text{-}closure(q) \\ \hat{\delta}(q,aw) &= \hat{\delta}(\delta(\varepsilon\text{-}closure(q),a),w) \end{split}$$

The language is

$$\left\{\;w\in\Sigma^*\;\middle|\;\widehat{\delta}(q_0,w)\cap F\neq\emptyset\;\right\}.$$

#### The language of an $\varepsilon$ -NFA





abbaca.
 aaaabaa.
 abbaaaabaa.
 abbaaaabaa.

1. abba.

Pospond at https://pingo.constum.do/720559

4. aaabaaa.

Respond at https://pingo.coactum.de/729558.

#### Which of the following propositions are valid?

1. 
$$\varepsilon$$
-closure( $\varepsilon$ -closure( $q$ )) =  $\varepsilon$ -closure( $q$ ).

2. 
$$\hat{\delta}(q, w) = \hat{\delta}(\varepsilon \text{-}closure(q), w)$$
.

3. 
$$\hat{\delta}(\delta(\varepsilon\text{-}closure(q), a), w) =$$

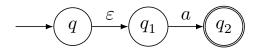
 $\hat{\delta}(\varepsilon\text{-}closure(\delta(q,a)), w).$ 

Respond at https://pingo.coactum.de/729558.

#### Which of the following propositions are valid?

3. 
$$\hat{\delta}(\delta(\varepsilon\text{-}closure(q), a), w) = \hat{\delta}(\varepsilon\text{-}closure(\delta(q, a)), w).$$

#### No. Counterexample:



Denote the transition function by  $\delta$ .

$$\begin{split} \hat{\delta}(\delta(\varepsilon\text{-}closure(q),a),\varepsilon) &= \{\ q_2\ \} \neq \\ \emptyset &= \hat{\delta}(\varepsilon\text{-}closure(\delta(q,a)),\varepsilon) \end{split}$$

## Constructions

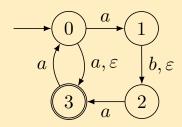
#### Subset construction

Given an  $\varepsilon\text{-NFA }N=(Q,\Sigma,\delta,q_0,F)$  we can define a DFA D with the same alphabet in such a way that L(N)=L(D):

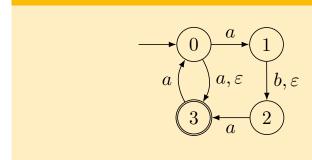
$$\begin{split} D &= (\wp(Q), \Sigma, \delta', \varepsilon\text{-}closure(q_0), F') \\ \delta'(S, a) &= \varepsilon\text{-}closure(\delta(S, a)) \\ F' &= \{ \ S \subseteq Q \mid S \cap F \neq \emptyset \ \} \end{split}$$

Every accessible state S is  $\varepsilon$ -closed (i.e.  $S = \varepsilon$ -closure(S)).

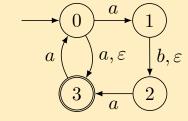
If the subset construction is used to build a DFA corresponding to the following  $\varepsilon$ -NFA over  $\{a,b\}$ , and inaccessible states are removed, how many states are there in the resulting DFA?



Respond at https://pingo.coactum.de/729558.



	a	b
$\rightarrow * \{ 0, 3 \}$	$\{0, 1, 2, 3\}$	Ø
* { 0, 1, 2, 3 }	$\{0, 1, 2, 3\}$	$\{2\}$
$\emptyset$	Ø	Ø
$\{2\}$	{ 3 }	$\emptyset$
* { 3 }	$\{\stackrel{.}{0},\stackrel{.}{3}\}$	Ø



	a	b
$\rightarrow *A$	B	C
*B	B	D
C	C	C
D	E	C
*E	A	C

#### Regular languages

- ▶ Recall that a language  $M \subseteq \Sigma^*$  is regular if there is some DFA (or NFA) A with alphabet  $\Sigma$  such that L(A) = M.
- ▶ For alphabets  $\Sigma$  with  $\varepsilon \notin \Sigma$  a language  $M \subseteq \Sigma^*$  is also regular if and only if there is some  $\varepsilon$ -NFA A with alphabet  $\Sigma$  such that L(A) = M.

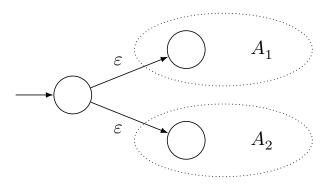
#### Recall:

▶ One can use  $\varepsilon$ -NFAs to convert regular expressions to finite automata.

Given two  $\varepsilon$ -NFAs  $A_1$  and  $A_2$  with the same alphabet we can construct an  $\varepsilon$ -NFA  $A_1 \oplus A_2$  that satisfies the following property:

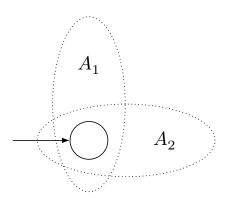
$$L(A_1 \oplus A_2) = L(A_1) \cup L(A_2).$$

#### Construction:



- ▶ The transitions go to the start states.
- ▶ States are renamed if the state sets overlap.

Can one do something similar for NFAs by "merging" the start states?



 $A_2 = (Q_2, \Sigma, \delta_2, q_{02}, F_2)$  satisfying  $Q_1 \cap Q_2 = \emptyset$  and  $q_0 \notin Q_1 \cup Q_2$ , is the language of the NFA  $(f(Q_1 \cup Q_2), \Sigma, \delta, q_0, f(F_1 \cup F_2)),$  where

Given two NFAs  $A_1 = (Q_1, \Sigma, \delta_1, q_{01}, F_1)$  and

$$\begin{split} f(S) &= (S \smallsetminus \{ \ q_{01}, q_{02} \ \}) \cup \{ \ q_0 \ | \ q_{01} \in S \vee q_{02} \in S \ \} \,, \\ \delta(s,a) &= \begin{cases} f(\delta_1(q_{01},a) \cup \delta_2(q_{02},a)), & \text{if } s = q_0, \\ f(\delta_1(s,a)), & \text{if } s \in Q_1, \\ f(\delta_2(s,a)), & \text{if } s \in Q_2 \end{cases} \end{split}$$

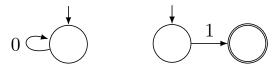
1. Yes, always. 3. No, not always, but sometimes. 2. No, never.

equal to  $L(A_1) \cup L(A_2)$ ?

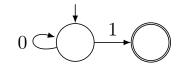
Respond at https://pingo.coactum.de/729558.

### Can one do something similar for NFAs by "merging" the start states?

- lacktriangle Sometimes. For instance if  $F_1$  and  $F_2$  are empty.
- ▶ Not always. The following NFAs over  $\{0,1\}$  accept  $\emptyset$  and  $\{1\}$ :



The combination accepts  $\{0^n1 \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ :



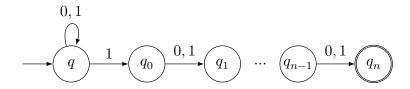
Consider the following family of languages:

$$A \in \mathbb{N} \to \wp(\{0,1\}^*)$$
  
 $A(n) = \{u1v \mid u, v \in \{0,1\}^*, |v| = n\}$ 

The family:

$$A(n) = \{ u1v \mid u, v \in \{0, 1\}^*, |v| = n \}$$

For every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  the NFAs for A(n) with the least number of states have at most n+2 states:



#### Furthermore one can prove:

▶ For every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  the DFAs for A(n) with the least number of states have at least  $2^{n+1}$  states.

A key part of the proof in the course text book uses the pigeonhole principle:

▶ A DFA over  $\{0,1\}$  with less than  $2^k$  states has to end up in the same state for at least two distinct k-bit strings.

Thus it might be inefficient to check if a string belongs to a language represented by an NFA (or  $\varepsilon$ -NFA) by using the following method:

- ► Translate the NFA to a corresponding DFA.
- Use the DFA to check if the string belongs to the language.

- ▶ This method is used in practice by some tools.
- ▶ It seems to work fine in many practical cases.
- Exercise (optional): Make such a tool "blow up" by giving it a short piece of carefully crafted input.

#### Today

- $\triangleright$   $\varepsilon$ -NFAs.
- $\triangleright$   $\varepsilon$ -closure.
- Semantics.
- Constructions.
- ► Exponential blowup.

#### Next lecture

- ► Regular expressions.
- ► Translation from finite automata to regular expressions.

# Finite automata and formal languages (DIT323, TMV029)

Nils Anders Danielsson

2024-02-01

#### Today

- Regular expressions.
- ► Translation from finite automata to regular expressions.

# Syntax of regular expressions

The set  $RE(\Sigma)$  of regular expressions over the alphabet  $\Sigma$  can be defined inductively in the following way:

$$\begin{aligned} & \overline{\operatorname{empty}} \in RE(\Sigma) & \overline{\operatorname{nil}} \in RE(\Sigma) \\ & \frac{a \in \Sigma}{\operatorname{sym}(a) \in RE(\Sigma)} & \frac{e_1, e_2 \in RE(\Sigma)}{\operatorname{seq}(e_1, e_2) \in RE(\Sigma)} \\ & \frac{e_1, e_2 \in RE(\Sigma)}{\operatorname{alt}(e_1, e_2) \in RE(\Sigma)} & \frac{e \in RE(\Sigma)}{\operatorname{star}(e) \in RE(\Sigma)} \end{aligned}$$

Typically we use the following concrete syntax:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \overline{\emptyset} \in RE(\Sigma) & \overline{\varepsilon} \in RE(\Sigma) \\ \\ \overline{a} \in \Sigma & \underline{e_1, e_2 \in RE(\Sigma)} \\ \\ \underline{e_1, e_2 \in RE(\Sigma)} & \underline{e_1, e_2 \in RE(\Sigma)} \\ \\ \underline{e_1, e_2 \in RE(\Sigma)} & \underline{e \in RE(\Sigma)} \\ \\ \underline{e_1, e_2 \in RE(\Sigma)} & \underline{e \in RE(\Sigma)} \\ \end{array}$$

(Sometimes  $e_1 \mid e_2$  instead of  $e_1 + e_2$ .)

- ▶ What if, say,  $\varepsilon \in \Sigma$ ?
- ▶ Does  $\varepsilon$  stand for sym( $\varepsilon$ ) or nil?
- ▶ One option: Require that  $\emptyset, \varepsilon, +, * \notin \Sigma$ .

- ▶ What does 01 + 2 mean, (01) + 2 or 0(1 + 2)?
- ▶ Sequencing "binds tighter" than alternation, so it means (01) + 2.
- ▶ Parentheses can be used to get the other meaning: 0(1+2).
- ▶ The Kleene star operator binds tighter than sequencing, so  $01^*$  means  $0(1^*)$ , not  $(01)^*$ .

- ▶ What does 0 + 1 + 2 mean, 0 + (1 + 2) or (0 + 1) + 2?
- ► The latter two expressions denote the same language, so the choice is not very important.
- ▶ One option (taken by the book): Make the operator left associative, i.e. choose (0+1)+2.
- ▶ Similarly 012 means (01)2.

#### A convention:

• *e*: A regular expression.

#### An abbreviation:

- $ightharpoonup e^+$  means  $ee^*$ .
- ► This operator binds as tightly as the Kleene star operator.

### Which of the following statements are correct?

```
correct?

1. 01 + 23 means (01) + (23).
```

2.  $01 + 23^*$  means  $((01) + (23))^*$ .

3.  $0 + 1^*2 + 3^*$  means  $((0+1)^*)((2+3)^*)$ . 4.  $0 + 1^*2 + 3^*$  means  $(0 + ((1^*)2)) + (3^*)$ .

5. 012\*34 means ((((01)(2\*))3)4).

Respond at https://pingo.coactum.de/729558.

# Semantics

#### **Semantics**

$$\begin{array}{ll} L \in \mathit{RE}(\Sigma) \to \wp(\Sigma^*) \\ L(\emptyset) &= \emptyset \\ L(\varepsilon) &= \{\, \varepsilon \,\} \\ L(a) &= \{\, a \,\} \\ L(e_1 e_2) &= L(e_1) L(e_2) \\ L(e_1 + e_2) &= L(e_1) \cup L(e_2) \\ L(e^*) &= (L(e))^* \end{array}$$

#### **Semantics**

#### An example:

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

### Which of the following statements are correct?

- 1.  $abcabc \in L(abc^*)$ .
- $2. \ xyyxxy \in L(x(y+x)^*y).$
- 3.  $\varepsilon \in L(\emptyset^*)$ .
- 4.  $110 \in L((\emptyset 1 + 10)^*).$
- 5.  $\varepsilon \in L((\varepsilon + 10)^+)$ .
- 6.  $11100 \in L((1(0+\varepsilon))^*)$ .

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# Regular expression

algebra

#### Regular expression equivalences

- ▶ The equation  $e_1 = e_2$  stands for  $L(e_1) = L(e_2)$ .
- Recall that two languages are equal if they contain the same strings.

## Which of the following propositions are valid? The alphabet is $\{\ 0,1\ \}$ .

- $1. \ e + \emptyset = e.$
- $2. \ e\emptyset = e.$ 
  - 3.  $\varepsilon e = e$ .
- 4.  $e_1e_2 = e_2e_1$ .
- 5.  $e_1 + e_2 = e_2 + e_1$ .
- 6. e + e = e.
- 7.  $e_1(e_2 + e_3) = e_1e_2 + e_1e_3$ . 8.  $e_1 + e_2e_3 = (e_1 + e_2)(e_1 + e_3)$ .

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#### Regular expression algebra

Regular expressions form a semiring:

$$\begin{aligned} e + \emptyset &= \emptyset + e = e \\ e_1 + e_2 &= e_2 + e_1 \\ e_1 + (e_2 + e_3) &= (e_1 + e_2) + e_3 \end{aligned}$$

$$e\varepsilon = \varepsilon e = e \\ e_1(e_2 e_3) &= (e_1 e_2) e_3$$

$$e\emptyset = \emptyset e = \emptyset \\ e_1(e_2 + e_3) &= e_1 e_2 + e_1 e_3$$

 $(e_1 + e_2)e_3 = e_1e_2 + e_2e_3$ 

#### Regular expression algebra

The semiring is idempotent:

$$e + e = e$$

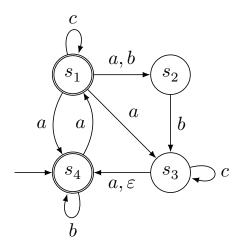
## Translating FAs

to regular

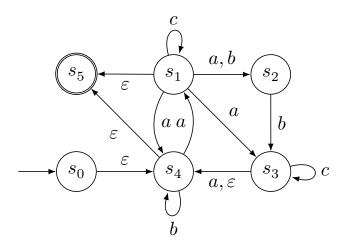
expressions, I

#### Method one

Consider the following  $\varepsilon$ -NFA over  $\{a,b,c\}$ :

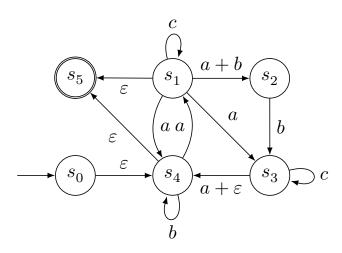


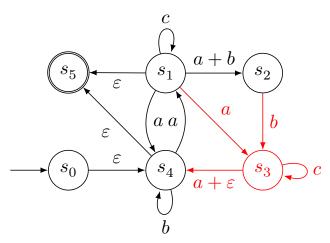
Switch to an equivalent  $\varepsilon$ -NFA:

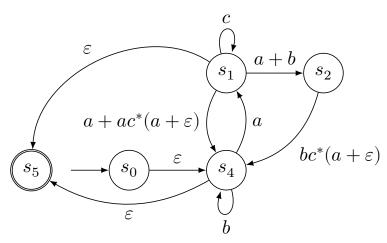


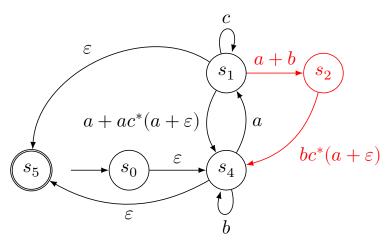
(I found this trick in slides due to Klaus Sutner.)

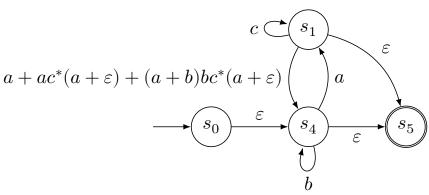
Turn edge labels into regular expressions:



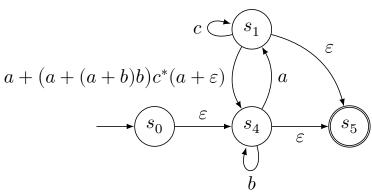




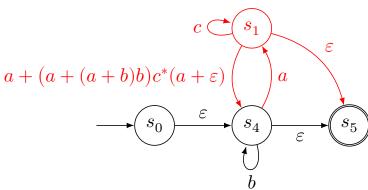




Eliminate non-accepting states distinct from the start state:



It is fine to simplify expressions.



$$b + ac^* \Big( a + (a + (a + b)b)c^*(a + \varepsilon) \Big)$$

$$c + ac^* \Big( s_4 + (a + b)b + ac^* \Big)$$

$$c + ac^* \Big( s_5 + ac^* \Big)$$

$$b + ac^* \Big( a + \big( a + (a+b)b \big) c^* (a+\varepsilon) \Big)$$

$$c + ac^*$$

$$c + ac^*$$

$$c + ac^*$$

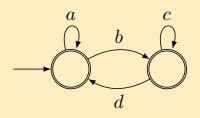
$$c + ac^*$$

Eliminate non-accepting states distinct from the start state:

$$\left(b + ac^* \left(a + (a + (a + b)b)c^*(a + \varepsilon)\right)\right)^* (\varepsilon + ac^*)$$

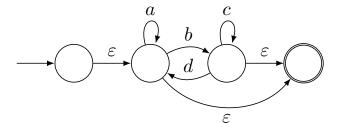
Done.

Turn the following  $\varepsilon$ -NFA over  $\{a,b,c,d\}$  into a regular expression.

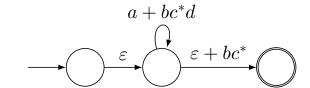


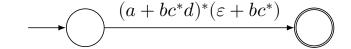
Respond at https://pingo.coactum.de/729558.

#### The result of the first step:



The result of one possible second step:





This is not the only correct solution. Another one:

$$a^*(\varepsilon + b(c + da^*b)^*(\varepsilon + da^*))$$

# Translating FAs

expressions, II

to regular

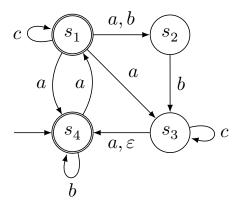
#### One form of Arden's lemma:

- ▶ Let  $A, B \subseteq \Sigma^*$  for some alphabet  $\Sigma$ .
- ▶ Consider the equation  $X = AX \cup B$ , where X is restricted to be a subset of  $\Sigma^*$ .
- ▶ The equation has the solution  $X = A^*B$ :

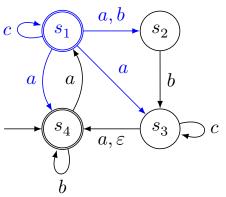
$$A(A^*B) \cup B = (AA^* \cup \{\,\varepsilon\,\})B = A^*B$$

- ▶ This solution is the least one (for every other solution Y we have  $A^*B \subseteq Y$ ).
- ▶ If  $\varepsilon \notin A$ , then this solution is unique.

Consider the following  $\varepsilon\text{-NFA}$  again:

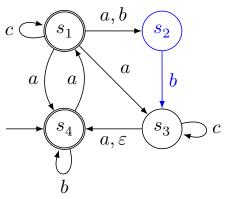


We can turn this  $\varepsilon$ -NFA into a set of equations.



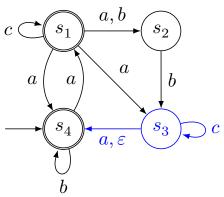
$$e_1=\varepsilon+ce_1+(a+b)e_2+ae_3+ae_4$$

We can turn this  $\varepsilon$ -NFA into a set of equations.



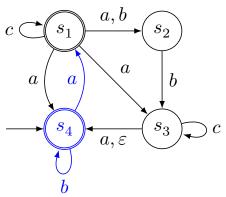
$$e_2 = be_3$$

We can turn this  $\varepsilon\text{-NFA}$  into a set of equations.



$$e_3 = ce_3 + (a+\varepsilon)e_4$$

We can turn this  $\varepsilon$ -NFA into a set of equations.



$$e_4 = \varepsilon + ae_1 + be_4$$

Goal: Find the *least* solution for  $e_4$ . (Note that  $e_4$  corresponds to the start state.)

$$\begin{split} e_1 &= \varepsilon + ce_1 + (a+b)e_2 + ae_3 + ae_4 \\ e_2 &= be_3 \\ e_3 &= ce_3 + (a+\varepsilon)e_4 \\ e_4 &= \varepsilon + ae_1 + be_4 \end{split}$$

Goal: Find the *least* solution for  $e_4$ . (Note that  $e_4$  corresponds to the start state.)

$$\begin{split} e_1 &= ce_1 + \left(\varepsilon + (a+b)e_2 + ae_3 + ae_4\right) \\ e_2 &= be_3 \\ e_3 &= ce_3 + (a+\varepsilon)e_4 \\ e_4 &= be_4 + (\varepsilon + ae_1) \end{split}$$

Eliminate  $e_2$ .

Goal: Find the *least* solution for  $e_4$ . (Note that  $e_4$  corresponds to the start state.)

$$\begin{split} e_1 &= ce_1 + \left(\varepsilon + (a+b)be_3 + ae_3 + ae_4\right) \\ e_3 &= ce_3 + (a+\varepsilon)e_4 \\ e_4 &= be_4 + \left(\varepsilon + ae_1\right) \end{split}$$

Goal: Find the *least* solution for  $e_4$ . (Note that  $e_4$  corresponds to the start state.)

$$\begin{split} e_1 &= ce_1 + \Big(\varepsilon + \big(a + (a+b)b\big)e_3 + ae_4\Big) \\ e_3 &= ce_3 + (a+\varepsilon)e_4 \\ e_4 &= be_4 + \big(\varepsilon + ae_1\big) \end{split}$$

Eliminate  $e_3$ .

Goal: Find the *least* solution for  $e_4$ . (Note that  $e_4$  corresponds to the start state.)

$$\begin{split} e_1 &= ce_1 + \Big(\varepsilon + \big(a + (a+b)b\big)e_3 + ae_4\Big) \\ e_3 &= c^*(a+\varepsilon)e_4 \\ e_4 &= be_4 + (\varepsilon + ae_1) \end{split}$$

Eliminate  $e_3$ .

Goal: Find the *least* solution for  $e_4$ . (Note that  $e_4$  corresponds to the start state.)

$$\begin{split} e_1 &= ce_1 + \Big(\varepsilon + \big(a + (a+b)b\big)c^*(a+\varepsilon)e_4 + ae_4\Big) \\ e_4 &= be_4 + (\varepsilon + ae_1) \end{split}$$

Goal: Find the *least* solution for  $e_4$ . (Note that  $e_4$  corresponds to the start state.)

$$\begin{split} e_1 &= ce_1 + \bigg(\varepsilon + \Big(a + \big(a + (a+b)b\big)c^*(a+\varepsilon)\Big)e_4\bigg)\\ e_4 &= be_4 + (\varepsilon + ae_1) \end{split}$$

Eliminate  $e_1$ .

Goal: Find the *least* solution for  $e_4$ . (Note that  $e_4$  corresponds to the start state.)

$$\begin{split} e_1 &= c^* \bigg( \varepsilon + \Big( a + \big( a + (a+b)b \big) c^* (a+\varepsilon) \Big) e_4 \bigg) \\ e_4 &= b e_4 + (\varepsilon + a e_1) \end{split}$$

Eliminate  $e_1$ .

Goal: Find the *least* solution for  $e_4$ . (Note that  $e_4$  corresponds to the start state.)

$$\begin{aligned} e_4 &= be_4 + \varepsilon + \\ ∾^* \bigg( \varepsilon + \Big( a + \big( a + (a+b)b \big) c^*(a+\varepsilon) \Big) e_4 \bigg) \end{aligned}$$

Solve the final equation.

Goal: Find the *least* solution for  $e_4$ . (Note that  $e_4$  corresponds to the start state.)

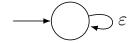
$$e_4 = \left(b + ac^* \Big(a + \big(a + (a+b)b\big)c^*(a+\varepsilon)\Big)\right)e_4 + (\varepsilon + ac^*)$$

Solve the final equation.

Goal: Find the *least* solution for  $e_4$ . (Note that  $e_4$  corresponds to the start state.)

$$e_4 = \\ \left(b + ac^* \Big(a + \big(a + (a+b)b\big)c^*(a+\varepsilon)\Big)\right)^* (\varepsilon + ac^*)$$

- ▶ Why the least solution?
- ▶ Consider the following  $\varepsilon$ -NFA:



- ▶ The corresponding equation:  $e = \varepsilon e$ .
- ▶ This equation has infinitely many solutions.
- ▶ The least solution gives the right answer:

$$e = \varepsilon^* \emptyset = \emptyset$$

# Be careful

#### Consider the following equations:

$$\begin{aligned} e_0 &= e_1 \\ e_1 &= ae_1 + be_2 \\ e_2 &= \varepsilon + be_1 \end{aligned}$$

An incorrect elimination of  $e_1$ :

$$\begin{split} e_0 &= e_1 \\ e_1 &= e_0 \\ e_2 &= \varepsilon + b e_1 \end{split}$$

# Be careful

#### Consider the following equations:

$$\begin{aligned} e_0 &= e_1 \\ e_1 &= ae_1 + be_2 \\ e_2 &= \varepsilon + be_1 \end{aligned}$$

An incorrect elimination of  $e_1$ :

$$\begin{aligned} e_0 &= e_0 \\ e_2 &= \varepsilon + b e_0 \end{aligned}$$

#### Be careful

Consider the following equations:

$$\begin{aligned} e_0 &= e_1 \\ e_1 &= ae_1 + be_2 \\ e_2 &= \varepsilon + be_1 \end{aligned}$$

Use Arden's lemma:

$$e_0=\varepsilon^*\emptyset=\emptyset$$

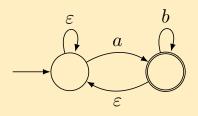
A correct solution:

$$e_0 = a^*b(ba^*b)^*$$

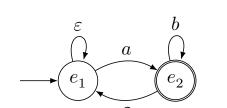
# A warning

- ▶ A variable stands for the set of strings that take you from the corresponding state to any accepting state.
- ▶ Some online videos use a different method, in which a variable corresponding to state *s* stands for the strings that take you from the start state to state *s*.

# Turn the following $\varepsilon\textsc{-NFA}$ over $\{\,a,b\,\}$ into a regular expression.

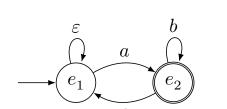


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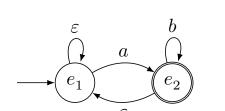
$$e_1 = \varepsilon e_1 + a e_2$$

$$e_2 = \varepsilon + b e_2 + \varepsilon e_1$$

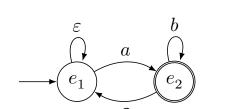


$$e_1 = e_1 + ae_2$$

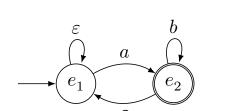
$$e_2 = be_2 + \varepsilon + e_1$$



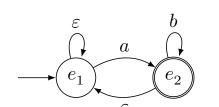
$$\begin{aligned} e_1 &= e_1 + ae_2 \\ e_2 &= b^*(\varepsilon + e_1) \end{aligned}$$



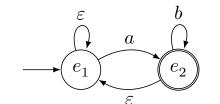
 $e_1 = e_1 + ab^*(\varepsilon + e_1)$ 



 $e_1 = (\varepsilon + ab^*)e_1 + ab^*$ 

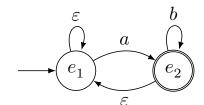


$$e_1 = (\varepsilon + ab^*)^*ab^*$$



Note that  $(\varepsilon + e)^* = e^*$ :

$$e_1 = (ab^*)^*ab^*$$



Note that  $e^*e = e^+$ :

$$e_1=(ab^*)^+$$

## **Today**

- Syntax of regular expressions.
- ► Semantics of regular expressions.
- ► Regular expression algebra.
- ► Two methods for translating finite automata to regular expressions.

#### Next lecture

- ► Translation from regular expressions to finite automata.
- ▶ More about regular expression algebra.
- ► The pumping lemma for regular languages.
- ▶ Some closure properties for regular languages.

# Finite automata and formal languages (DIT323, TMV029)

Nils Anders Danielsson

2024-02-05

# Today

- ► Translation from regular expressions to finite automata.
- ▶ More about regular expression algebra.
- ► The pumping lemma for regular languages.
- ► Some closure properties for regular languages.

# Translating

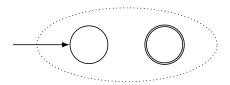
expressions

to automata

regular

## Regular expressions to automata

Given a regular expression in  $RE(\Sigma)$  we construct an  $\varepsilon$ -NFA (with alphabet  $\Sigma$ ) with exactly one accepting state, no transitions from the accepting state, and no transitions to the start state:



The translation is defined recursively.

# The empty language

$$\varepsilon\text{-NFA}(\emptyset) =$$



# The empty string

$$\varepsilon\text{-NFA}(\varepsilon) = \underbrace{\hspace{1cm}}_{\varepsilon}$$

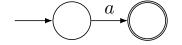
# The empty string

$$\varepsilon \text{-NFA}'(\varepsilon) =$$



# A symbol

$$\varepsilon$$
-NFA $(a) =$ 



#### **Alternation**

$$\varepsilon\text{-NFA}(e_1 + e_2) =$$

$$\varepsilon\text{-NFA}(e_1)$$

$$\varepsilon$$

$$\varepsilon\text{-NFA}(e_2)$$

#### **Alternation**

$$\varepsilon\text{-NFA'}(e_1 + e_2) =$$

$$\varepsilon\text{-NFA'}(e_1)$$

$$\varepsilon\text{-NFA'}(e_2)$$

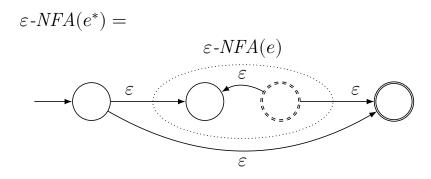
# Sequencing

$$\varepsilon\text{-NFA}(e_1e_2) = \\ \varepsilon\text{-NFA}(e_1) \qquad \varepsilon\text{-NFA}(e_2)$$

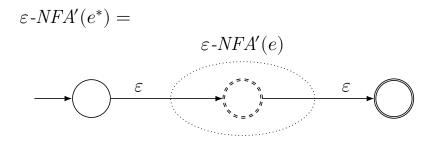
# Sequencing

$$\varepsilon\text{-NFA'}(e_1e_2) = \\ \varepsilon\text{-NFA'}(e_1) \quad \varepsilon\text{-NFA'}(e_2)$$

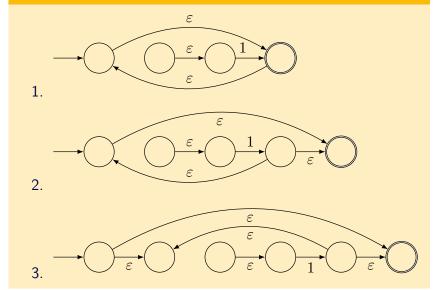
### Kleene star



#### Kleene star



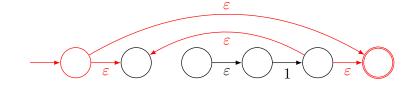
Which of the following  $\varepsilon$ -NFAs is equal to  $\varepsilon$ -NFA $((\emptyset 1)^*)$  (ignoring the alphabet and the names of the states)?



Respond at https://pingo.coactum.de/729558.

$$\varepsilon\text{-NFA}(\emptyset 1) =$$

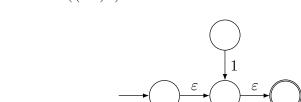
### $\varepsilon\text{-}NFA((\emptyset 1)^*) =$



$$\varepsilon$$
-NFA'( $\emptyset$ 1) =



$$\varepsilon\text{-NFA'}((\emptyset 1)^*) =$$



# Regular languages

- ▶ Recall that a language  $M \subseteq \Sigma^*$  is regular if there is some DFA A with alphabet  $\Sigma$  such that L(A) = M.
- ▶ A language  $M \subseteq \Sigma^*$  is also regular if and only if there is some regular expression  $e \in RE(\Sigma)$  such that L(e) = M.

# More about

regular expression

algebra

# Discovering and proving laws

- ▶ In the last lecture I mentioned that  $(\varepsilon + e)^* = e^*$ .
- ▶ How can you figure out that this holds?
- And how can you prove it?

# Proving laws

- $\blacktriangleright \ \mbox{ Recall that } e_1=e_2 \ \mbox{means that } L(e_1)=L(e_2).$
- $\begin{array}{l} \blacktriangleright \mbox{ We can prove } L(e_1) = L(e_2) \mbox{ by proving} \\ L(e_1) \subseteq L(e_2) \mbox{ and } L(e_2) \subseteq L(e_1) \mbox{, i.e. that} \\ \forall w \in L(e_1). \mbox{ } w \in L(e_2) \mbox{ and} \\ \forall w \in L(e_2). \mbox{ } w \in L(e_1). \end{array}$

#### Let $e \in RE(\Sigma)$ . Then $(\varepsilon + e)^* = e^*$ .

$$L((\varepsilon + e)^*) \subseteq L(e^*)$$
:

- ▶ If  $w \in L((\varepsilon + e)^*)$ , then there is some  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $w = w_1 \cdots w_n$  and each string  $w_i$  is either  $\varepsilon$  or a member of L(e).
- Remove the strings  $w_i$  that are equal to  $\varepsilon$ .
- ▶ Remove the strings  $w_i$  that are equal to  $\varepsilon$ . ▶ We get a string  $w' = w_k, \cdots w_k$ , for some
- natural numbers m and  $k_1 < \cdots < k_m$ .

   Because all strings  $w_{k_i}$  belong to L(e) we get
- Because all strings  $w_{k_i}$  belong to L(e) we get that  $w' \in L(e^*)$ .
  - Furthermore w = w', so  $w \in L(e^*)$ .

Let  $e \in RE(\Sigma)$ . Then  $(\varepsilon + e)^* = e^*$ .

 $L(e^*) \subset L((\varepsilon + e)^*)$ :

- $\blacktriangleright \ \ \text{We have that} \ L(e) \subseteq L(\varepsilon) \cup L(e) = L(\varepsilon + e).$
- The result follows by monotonicity of -\*.

#### Monotonicity

- ▶  $M \subseteq N$  implies that  $M^* \subseteq N^*$ .
- $\blacktriangleright \ M_1 \subseteq N_1 \ \text{and} \ M_2 \subseteq N_2 \ \text{imply:}$ 
  - $\blacktriangleright \ M_1 \cup M_2 \subseteq N_1 \cup N_2.$
  - $\blacktriangleright M_1 \cap M_2 \subseteq N_1 \cap N_2.$
  - $\blacktriangleright \ M_1M_2 \subseteq N_1N_2.$

#### Discovering (and proving) laws

- ▶ A regular expression proposition  $e_1 = e_2$  is valid iff the equation obtained by replacing each variable e by a *fresh* symbol a is true.
- Examples:
  - $(\varepsilon + e)^* = e^*$  is valid iff  $(\varepsilon + 1)^* = 1^*$  is true.
  - $e_1 1 e_2 = e_2 1 e_1$  is valid iff 012 = 210 is true.
- ► Next lecture: An algorithm for checking if two regular languages are equal.

#### Discovering (and proving) laws

- ► This "trick" is rather syntactic.
- ▶ It does not work if we include intersection among the regular expression operators. The proposition

$$L \cap M = L \cap N$$

is not valid, but

$$\{a\} \cap \{b\} = \{a\} \cap \{c\}$$

- is true.
- ▶ One can construct similar counterexamples for = and - \ -.

### Which of the following regular expression equivalences are valid?

```
1. \emptyset^* e = e.
2. (e_1 + e_2)^* = e_1^* + (e_1 e_2)^* + e_2^*.
```

3. 
$$e_1(e_2e_1)^* = (e_1e_2)^*e_1$$
.

4. 
$$(e_1 + e_2)^* = (e_1^* e_2)^* e_1^*$$
.

```
5. (e_1 + e_2)^* = e_1^* (e_2 e_1^* e_2)^* e_1^*.
```

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#### The shifting and denesting rules

- 1. The shifting rule:  $e_1(e_2e_1)^* = (e_1e_2)^*e_1$ .
- 2. The denesting rule:  $(e_1 + e_2)^* = (e_1^* e_2)^* e_1^*$ .

#### The denesting rule

Consider the following equations:

$$e_1 = e_2$$

$$e_2 = 0e_1 + 1e_2 + \varepsilon$$

One way to find a solution for  $e_1$ , using Arden's lemma:

$$\begin{aligned} e_2 &= (0+1)e_2 + \varepsilon \\ e_2 &= (0+1)^*\varepsilon = (0+1)^* \\ e_1 &= (0+1)^* \end{aligned}$$

Another way:

$$\begin{aligned} e_2 &= 1^*(0e_1 + \varepsilon) \\ e_1 &= 1^*0e_1 + 1^* \\ e_1 &= (1^*0)^*1^* \end{aligned}$$

#### One can combine methods

Is it the case that  $((\varepsilon + e)^*)^* \subseteq (1 + e)^*$ ?

- We know that  $(\varepsilon+e)^*=e^*$ , so  $((\varepsilon+e)^*)^*=(e^*)^*$ .
- ▶ We also have  $e \subseteq 1 + e$ , and thus, by monotonicity,  $e^* \subseteq (1 + e)^*$ .
- We can conclude if  $(e^*)^* = e^*$ .
- ▶ This holds if  $(1^*)^* = 1^*$ .
- We have  $1^* \subseteq (1^*)^*$ .
- ▶ We also have  $(1^*)^* \subseteq 1^*$ , because a string in  $(1^*)^*$  consists of an arbitrary number of 1s, and is thus a member of  $1^*$ .

#### More laws related to the Kleene star

- 1.  $e^* = \varepsilon + ee^*$ .
- 2.  $e^*e^* = e^*$ .
- 3.  $(e^*)^* = e^*$ .

# The pumping lemma

#### The pumping lemma for regular languages

For every regular language L over the alphabet  $\Sigma$ :

```
\exists m \in \mathbb{N}.
\forall w \in L. \ |w| \ge m \Rightarrow
\exists t, u, v \in \Sigma^*.
w = tuv \land |tu| \le m \land u \ne \varepsilon \land
\forall n \in \mathbb{N}. \ tu^n v \in L
```

#### The pumping lemma for regular languages

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```
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w = tuv \land |tu| \le m \land u \ne \varepsilon \land
\forall n \in \mathbb{N}. \ tu^n v \in L
```

#### The pumping lemma for regular languages

#### Proof sketch:

- ▶ There is at least one DFA  $A = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$  such that L(A) = L.
- Let m = |Q|.
- ▶ If a string  $w \in \Sigma^*$  with  $|w| \ge |Q|$  is accepted by A, then, by the pigeonhole principle,  $\hat{\delta}(q_0, w_1 \cdots w_i) = \hat{\delta}(q_0, w_1 \cdots w_j)$  for some  $i, j \in \{0, ..., |Q|\}, i < j$ .
- $\text{Let } t = w_1 \cdots w_i, \ u = w_{i+1} \cdots w_j, \\ v = w_{i+1} \cdots w_{|w|}.$
- ▶ Note that tuv = w,  $|tu| \le |Q|$  and  $u \ne \varepsilon$ .
- ▶ Furthermore  $tv \in L$ ,  $tu^2v \in L$ ,  $tu^3v \in L$ , ...

#### New notation:

•  $w^{R}$ : The string w with the elements in reverse order.

Is the language  $\{ ww^{\mathsf{R}} \mid w \in \Sigma^* \}$  regular?

- It is if  $|\Sigma| = 1$ .
- ▶ But not if  $|\Sigma| \ge 2$ . We can prove this using the pumping lemma.

- ▶ For simplicity, let  $\Sigma = \{ a, b \}$ .
- ▶ Denote the language by *L*:

$$L = \{ ww^{\mathsf{R}} \mid w \in \Sigma^* \}$$

#### L is not regular:

- $\blacktriangleright$  Assume that L is regular.
- ▶ By the pumping lemma there is some  $m \in \mathbb{N}$  such that, for all  $w \in L$  for which  $|w| \geq m$ , there are strings  $t, u, v \in \Sigma^*$  such that w = tuv,  $|tu| \leq m$ ,  $u \neq \varepsilon$  and, for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $tu^n v \in L$ .
- Let w be the string  $a^m b^{2m} a^m$ .
- ▶ Note that  $w \in L$  and  $|w| \ge m$ .

- We get that there are strings  $t, u, v \in \Sigma^*$  such that  $a^m b^{2m} a^m = tuv$ ,  $|tu| \leq m$ ,  $u \neq \varepsilon$  and, for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $tu^n v \in L$ .
- ▶ Because  $a^mb^{2m}a^m = tuv$  and  $|tu| \le m$  we know that u consists only of a's, and because  $u \ne \varepsilon$  we know that u consists of at least one a.
- We also know that  $tv \in L$ . However, this is contradictory, because  $tv = a^n b^{2m} a^m$  for some n < m.

Is the language 
$$P\subseteq \{\,(,)\,\}^*$$
 regular? 
$$w\in P$$

 $\varepsilon \in P$ 

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 $(w) \in P$ 

#### Necessary, not sufficient

- ▶ I have seen students try to use the pumping lemma to prove that a language *is* regular.
- ▶ However, there are non-regular languages that satisfy the pumping lemma's formula (" $\exists m \in \mathbb{N}....$ ").

### properties

Closure

#### Closure properties

Let  $M, N \subseteq \Sigma^*$  be regular languages. Then

- ▶  $M^*$  is regular,
- ightharpoonup MN is regular,
- ▶  $M \cup N$  is regular,
- ▶  $M \cap N$  is regular,
- $ightharpoonup \Sigma^* \setminus N$  is regular, and
- ▶  $M \setminus N$  is regular. (Note that  $M \setminus N = M \cap (\Sigma^* \setminus N)$ .)

For which of the following definitions of M is  $M \setminus \{ 1^n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}, n > 0 \}$  regular? 1.  $M = \{ 1 \} \cup L((21)^*).$ 

2.		$w \in M$
	$\overline{\varepsilon \in M}$	$\overline{1w2 \in M}$
3.		$w \in M$

 $\varepsilon \in M$ 

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 $1w1 \in M$ 

#### Today

- ► Translation from regular expressions to finite automata.
- ▶ More about regular expression algebra.
- ► The pumping lemma for regular languages.
- ► Some closure properties for regular languages.

#### Next lecture

- ► Various algorithms.
- ► Equivalence of states.

## Finite automata and formal languages (DIT323, TMV029)

Nils Anders Danielsson

2024-02-08

#### Today

- ► Various algorithms.
- ► Equivalence of states.

# Some old algorithms

#### Some algorithms we have already seen

- ▶  $(\varepsilon$ -)NFA to DFA. (Can be slow.)
- ▶ DFA to  $(\varepsilon$ -)NFA. (Fast.)
- ► FA to RE. (Can be slow.)
- ▶ RE to  $\varepsilon$ -NFA. (Fast.)

### Empty?

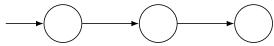
#### Is the language empty?

- ► For an FA: If there is no path from the start state to an accepting state.
- ► For a regular expression:

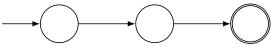
```
\begin{array}{ll} empty \in RE(\Sigma) \rightarrow Bool \\ empty(\emptyset) &= \mathsf{true} \\ empty(\varepsilon) &= \mathsf{false} \\ empty(a) &= \mathsf{false} \\ empty(e_1e_2) &= empty(e_1) \vee empty(e_2) \\ empty(e_1+e_2) &= empty(e_1) \wedge empty(e_2) \\ empty(e^*) &= \mathsf{false} \end{array}
```

#### Is the language empty?

► Empty:



► Not empty:



#### Is the language empty?

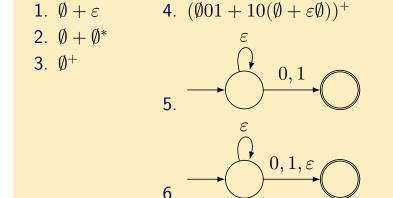
► Empty:

```
\begin{array}{ll} \mathit{empty}(\emptyset 0^*) & = \\ \mathit{empty}(\emptyset) \lor \mathit{empty}(0^*) = \\ \mathsf{true} \lor \mathsf{false} & = \\ \mathsf{true} \end{array}
```

► Not empty:

```
\begin{array}{ll} empty(\emptyset + 0^*) & = \\ empty(\emptyset) \wedge empty(0^*) = \\ \text{true} \wedge \text{false} & = \\ \text{false} \end{array}
```

Which of the following regular expressions/ $\varepsilon$ -NFAs over  $\{\,0,1\,\}$  represent the empty language?



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# Member?

#### Is the string a member of the language?

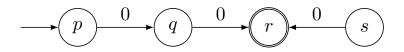
- ► For a DFA: Move from state to state, check if the last state is accepting.
- ▶ For an NFA or  $\varepsilon$ -NFA:
  - Keep track of a set of states.
  - Or convert to a DFA.
     (This could be much less efficient.)
- ▶ For a regular expression: Convert to an  $\varepsilon$ -NFA.

#### For a DFA $(Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$ :

lacktriangledown Two states  $p,r\in Q$  are equivalent  $(p\sim r)$  if

$$\forall w \in \Sigma^*. \ \hat{\delta}(p, w) \in F \Leftrightarrow \hat{\delta}(r, w) \in F.$$

► Two states that are not equivalent are distinguishable.



- ▶ The state p is equivalent to p.
- ▶ The state q is equivalent to q and s.
- ▶ The state r is equivalent to r.
- ▶ The state s is equivalent to q and s.

# Which of the following properties does the $\sim$ relation always satisfy?

- 1. It is reflexive.
- 2. It is symmetric.
- 3. It is antisymmetric.
- 4. It is transitive.

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To find out which states are equivalent:

Create a matrix where rows and columns are labelled by states:

	$s_0$	$s_1$	$s_2$	$s_3$
$s_0$				
$s_0 \\ s_1$				
$s_2$				
$s_3$				

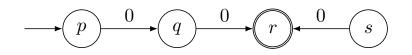
To find out which states are equivalent:

- Create a matrix where rows and columns are labelled by states.
- Mark every accepting state as distinguishable from every non-accepting state.
- Repeat until no further changes are possible:
  - ▶ Mark two states  $p,q \in Q$  as distinguishable if there is some  $a \in \Sigma$  for which  $\delta(p,a)$  and  $\delta(q,a)$  have already been marked as distinguishable.
- States that have not been marked as distinguishable are equivalent.

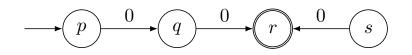
If row and column labels are ordered in the same way:

- ▶ The  $\sim$  relation is reflexive, so one can skip the diagonal.
- ▶ The  $\sim$  relation is symmetric, so one can skip, say, the elements below the diagonal.

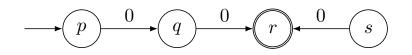
	$s_0$	$s_1$	$s_2$	$s_3$
$s_0$	•			
$s_1$				
$s_2$	•	•	•	
$s_3$	•		•	•



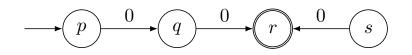
	p	q	r	s
p				
q				
r				
s				



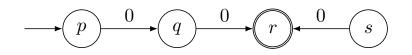
	p	q	r	s
p			X	
q			X	
r				X
s				



	p	q	r	s
p		X	Х	
q			Χ	
r				Χ
s				



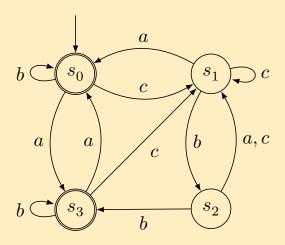
	p	q	r	s
p		Х	Х	X
q			Χ	
r				X
s			•	



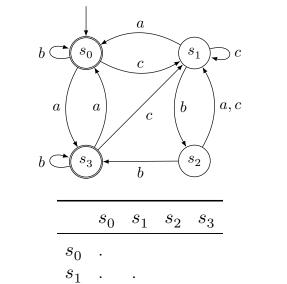
	p	q	r	s
p		Х	Х	Х
q			Χ	
r				X
s				

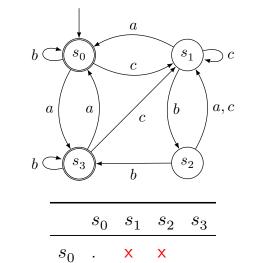
- ▶ The  $\sim$  relation is an equivalence relation.
- ► The equivalence classes partition the set of states.

How many equivalence classes does the  $\sim$  relation for the following DFA have?



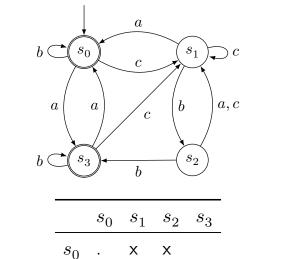
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X X

 $s_1$ 



Χ

X X

 $s_1$ 

# Equality of languages

# **Equality of languages**

To find out if two languages, represented by the DFAs  $(Q_1,\Sigma,\delta_1,q_{01},F_1)$  and  $(Q_2,\Sigma,\delta_2,q_{02},F_2)$  with  $Q_1\cap Q_2=\emptyset$ , are equal:

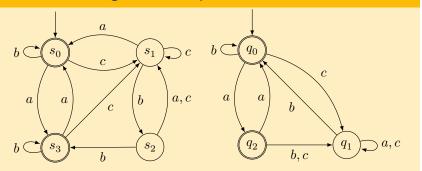
- $\label{eq:create the DFA} \ (Q_1 \cup Q_2, \Sigma, \delta, q_{01}, F_1 \cup F_2), \\ \text{where } \delta(q) = \delta_i(q) \ \text{for} \ q \in Q_i.$
- ▶ The languages are equal iff  $q_{01} \sim q_{02}$ .

### **Equality of languages**

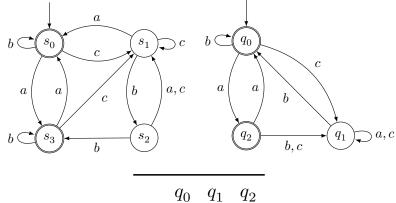
#### Note:

▶ If the "matrix method" above is used to decide whether  $q_{01} \sim q_{02}$ , then one can skip entries for which the row label and column label belong to the same DFA.

# Are the languages over $\{a,b,c\}$ denoted by the following DFAs equal?



Respond at https://pingo.coactum.de/729558.



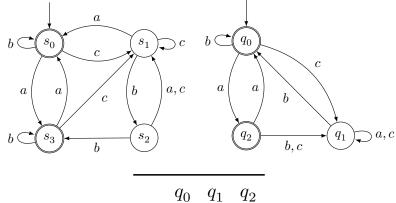
 $s_0 \\ s_1$ 

 $s_2$ 

 $s_3$ 

Χ

$q_1$	$q_2$
X	
	Χ
	Χ
Х	



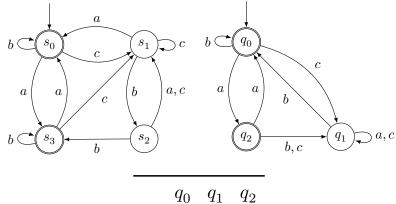
 $s_0 \\ s_1$ 

 $s_2$ 

 $s_3$ 

Χ

$q_1$	$q_2$
X	
X	X
	X
X	



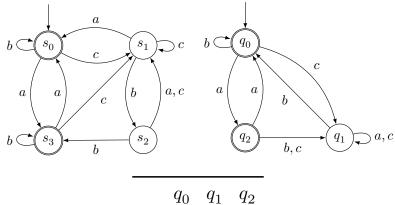
 $s_0$ 

 $s_2$ 

 $s_3$ 

X X

$q_1$	$q_2$
X	
Χ	Χ
	X
Х	



 $s_0$ 

 $s_1$ 

 $s_2$ 

 $s_3$ 

Χ

Χ

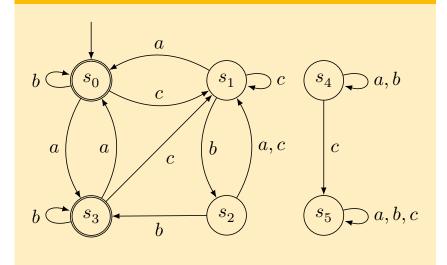
Χ

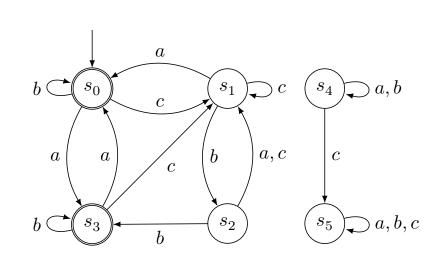
$q_1$	$q_2$
X	X
X	Χ
X	Χ
X	X

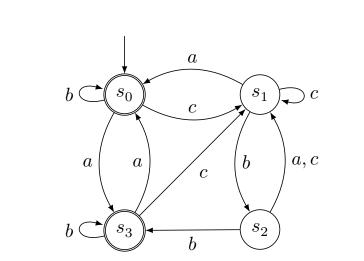
Given a DFA  $A=(Q,\Sigma,\delta,q_0,F)$  one can construct a minimal (in terms of the number of states) DFA that represents the same language.

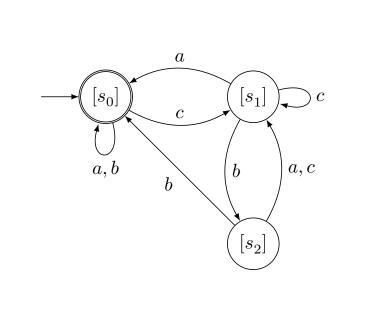
- 1. Remove non-accessible states.
- 2. Merge equivalent states.

#### Minimise the following DFA.









1. Remove non-accessible states:

$$\begin{split} A' &= (A\,cc(q_0), \Sigma, \delta', q_0, F \cap A\,cc(q_0)) \\ \delta'(q, a) &= \delta(q, a) \end{split}$$

2. Replace the set of states with equivalence classes of equivalent states:

$$\begin{split} A'' &= (Acc(q_0)/{\sim}, \Sigma, \delta'', [q_0], F'') \\ \delta''([q], a) &= [\delta(q, a)] \\ F'' &= \{ \ [q] \mid q \in F \cap Acc(q_0) \ \} \end{split}$$

Exercise: Check that A'' is a well-formed DFA. Prove that it accepts the same language as A.

#### Why is the constructed DFA minimal?

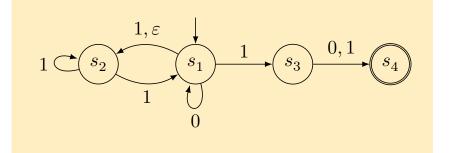
- ▶ Take any DFA  $B=(Q_B,\Sigma,\delta_B,q_B,F_B)$  that represents the same language.
- ► Combine A" and B like in the language equality checking algorithm (renaming states if necessary).
- We have  $[q_0] \sim q_B$ .
- ▶ Hence every accessible state  $\widehat{\delta''}([q_0], w)$  of A'' is equivalent to a state of B,  $\widehat{\delta_B}(q_B, w)$ .

Why is the constructed DFA minimal?

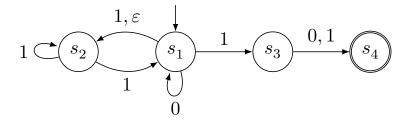
- Every accessible state of A'' is equivalent to a state of B.
- Note that every state of A" is accessible, so every state of A" is equivalent to some state of B.
- Furthermore states of A'' that are not equal are not equivalent, so the equivalence classes of  $\sim$  for the combined automaton contain at most one state from A'' and at least one state from B.
- ▶ Thus  $Q_B$  is at least as large as  $Acc(q_0)/\sim$ .

In fact, the minimised DFA is equal (up to renaming of states) to every other minimal DFA for the same language.

Consider the following  $\varepsilon$ -NFA over  $\{0,1\}$ . How many states does a minimal  $\varepsilon$ -NFA for the same language have? (Count only the number of states, not the number of edges.)



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If we define  $p \sim q$  by

$$\forall w \in \Sigma^*. \ \hat{\delta}(p,w) \cap F = \emptyset \ \Leftrightarrow \ \hat{\delta}(q,w) \cap F = \emptyset \text{,}$$

then we see that  $\sim$  has four equivalence classes. However, the  $\varepsilon\textsc{-NFA}$  is not minimal:

## Today

- ▶ Is the language empty?
- ▶ Is the string a member of the language?
- ► Equivalence of states.
- Are the languages equal?
- Minimisation of DFAs.

### Next lecture

► Context-free grammars.

## Finite automata and formal languages (DIT323, TMV029)

Nils Anders Danielsson

2024-02-12

## Today

#### Context-free grammars:

- Syntax.
- ► Semantics.

# Context-free grammars

## Context-free grammars (CFGs)

- ► The context-free languages are those that can be described by CFGs.
- ► Every regular language is context-free.
- ▶ Some context-free languages are not regular.
- CFGs are for instance used to specify the syntax of some programming languages.
  - ▶ One example: Haskell.
- Parser generators often use (restricted) CFGs.

## Syntax

## Context-free grammars

A context-free grammar has the form  $(N, \Sigma, P, S)$ :

- ▶ *N* is a finite set of *nonterminals*.
- ▶  $\Sigma$  is a finite set of *terminals* satisfying  $\Sigma \cap N = \emptyset$ .
- $P \subseteq N \times (N \cup \Sigma)^*$  is a finite set of *productions*.
- ▶ The start symbol  $S \in N$ .

#### **Notation**

- ▶ A production  $(A, \alpha)$  can be written  $A \to \alpha$ .
- ▶ Multiple productions  $A \to \alpha_1$ , ...,  $A \to \alpha_n$  can be written  $A \to \alpha_1 \mid \cdots \mid \alpha_n$  (if  $n \ge 2$ ).

## Which of the following expressions are well-formed context-free grammars?

- 1.  $(\mathbb{N}, \{a, b\}, P, 0)$ , where P contains the following productions:  $0 \to a1$ ,  $1 \to b$ .
- 2.  $(\{0,1\},\{a,b\},P,0)$ , where P contains the following productions:  $0 \to a1$ ,  $1 \to b$ .
- 3.  $(\{0,1\},\{0,1\},P,0)$ , where P contains the following productions:  $0 \to 01$ ,  $1 \to 1$ .
- 4.  $(\{0,1\},\{0',1'\},P,0)$ , where P contains the following productions:  $0 \to 01$ ,  $1 \to 1 \mid 0$ . 5.  $(\{0,1\},\{0',1'\},P,2)$ , where P contains the following productions:  $0 \to 01$ ,  $1 \to 1 \mid 0$ .

Respond at https://pingo.coactum.de/729558.

## Examples

### An example

A context-free grammar for the non-regular language  $\{ 0^n 1^n \mid n \in \mathbb{N} \}$  over  $\{ 0, 1 \}$ :

$$(\{S\},\{0,1\},S\to 0S1\mid \varepsilon,S)$$

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$$(\{S\},\{0,1\},S \rightarrow 0S1 \mid \varepsilon,S)$$

Generated strings:

- **ε**.
- $\bullet 0\varepsilon 1 = 01.$
- **▶** 0011.
- **•** :

## An example

A context-free grammar for the non-regular language  $\{ 0^n 1^n \mid n \in \mathbb{N} \}$  over  $\{ 0, 1 \}$ :

$$\left(\left\{\,S\,\right\},\left\{\,0,1\,\right\},S\rightarrow0S1\mid\varepsilon,S\right)$$

An inductive definition of the language  $L\subseteq \{\ 0,1\ \}^*$  generated by the grammar:

$$\frac{w \in L}{0w1 \in L} \qquad \qquad \frac{\varepsilon \in L}{\varepsilon \in L}$$

## Another example

Consider the grammar  $(\{S,A\},\{0,1\},P,S)$ , where P is defined in the following way:

$$S \to 0A1 \mid \varepsilon$$

$$A \to 1A0 \mid S \mid \varepsilon$$

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Sentential forms:

- ► S.
- **ε**.
- ► 0*A*1.
- ► 01*A*01.
- ► 01*S*01.
- **▶** 0101.
- •

## Another example

Consider the grammar  $(\{S,A\},\{0,1\},P,S)$ , where P is defined in the following way:

$$S \to 0A1 \mid \varepsilon$$

$$A \to 1A0 \mid S \mid \varepsilon$$

An inductive definition of the languages  $L_S, L_A \subseteq \{0,1\}^*$  generated by S and A:

$$\frac{w \in L_A}{0w1 \in L_S} \qquad \qquad \frac{\varepsilon \in L_S}{\varepsilon}$$

$$\frac{w \in L_A}{1w0 \in L_A} \qquad \frac{w \in L_S}{w \in L_A} \qquad \frac{\varepsilon \in L_A}{\varepsilon}$$

Construct a context-free grammar for the language  $\{0^{3n}1^{2n}\mid n\in\mathbb{N}\}$  over  $\{0,1\}$  by filling in the missing part of the following

 $(\{S\},\{0,1\},S \to ???,S)$ 

definition

Respond at https://pingo.coactum.de/729558.

## Semantics

#### Some conventions

#### Following the course text book:

- ▶ *A*, *B*, *C*: Nonterminals.
- $\blacktriangleright$  a, b, c: Terminals.
- ▶ X, Y, Z: Nonterminals or terminals.
- ightharpoonup u, v, w: Lists of terminals.
- $ightharpoonup \alpha$ ,  $\beta$ ,  $\gamma$ : Lists of terminals and/or nonterminals.

#### **Derivations**

For the grammar  $G=(N,\Sigma,P,S)$  one can define the following two binary relations on  $(N\cup\Sigma)^*$  inductively:

$$\frac{\alpha, \beta \in (N \cup \Sigma)^* \qquad A \in N \qquad (A, \gamma) \in P}{\alpha A \beta \Rightarrow \alpha \gamma \beta}$$

$$\frac{\alpha \Rightarrow \beta \qquad \beta \Rightarrow^* \gamma}{\alpha \Rightarrow^* \alpha}$$

The language  $L(G) = \{ w \in \Sigma^* \mid S \Rightarrow^* w \}.$ 

#### **Derivations**

Consider the following grammar:

$$(\{S\},\{0,1\},S\rightarrow 0S1\mid \varepsilon,S)$$

Some derivations:

$$S \Rightarrow 0S1$$

$$0S1 \Rightarrow 01$$

$$S \Rightarrow^* S$$

$$S \Rightarrow^* 0S1$$

$$S \Rightarrow^* 01$$

$$0S1 \Rightarrow^* 01$$

#### Leftmost derivations

#### A variant:

$$\frac{w \in \Sigma^* \qquad A \in N \qquad \alpha \in (N \cup \Sigma)^*}{(A,\beta) \in P}$$

$$\frac{(A,\beta) \in P}{wA\alpha \Rightarrow_{\operatorname{Im}} w\beta\alpha}$$

$$\frac{\alpha \Rightarrow_{\operatorname{Im}} \beta \qquad \beta \Rightarrow_{\operatorname{Im}}^* \gamma}{\alpha \Rightarrow_{\operatorname{Im}}^* \gamma}$$

## Leftmost derivations

Consider the grammar  $(\{S, A, B\}, \{a, b\}, P, S)$ , where P is defined in the following way:

 $S \to AB$ 

 $A \rightarrow a$ 

 $B \rightarrow b$ 

Some examples:

 $S \Rightarrow_{\mathsf{lm}} AB$  $AB \Rightarrow_{\mathsf{Im}} aB$  $aB \Rightarrow_{\mathsf{Im}} ab$ 

 $AB \Rightarrow_{\mathsf{Im}} Ab$ 

 $S \Rightarrow_{\mathsf{Im}}^* ab$  $AB \Rightarrow_{\mathsf{lm}}^{**} ab$ 

## Which of the following propositions are valid?

1. 
$$A \Rightarrow^* \beta \Leftrightarrow A \Rightarrow^*_{\operatorname{Im}} \beta$$
  
2.  $A \Rightarrow^* w \Leftrightarrow A \Rightarrow^*_{\operatorname{Im}} w$ 

Respond at https://pingo.coactum.de/729558.

## Which of the following propositions are valid?

1. 
$$A \Rightarrow^* \beta \Leftrightarrow A \Rightarrow^*_{\mathsf{Im}} \beta$$

#### Counterexample:

$$\begin{split} G &= \left( \left\{ \right. S, A, B, C \left. \right\}, \emptyset, \left\{ \right. S \to AB, B \to C \left. \right\}, S \right) \\ S &\Rightarrow AB \Rightarrow AC \\ \neg \left( S \Rightarrow_{\mathsf{lm}}^* AC \right) \end{split}$$

## A bug

The course text book states that

$$A \Rightarrow^* \beta \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad A \Rightarrow^*_{\mathsf{Im}} \beta$$

holds. Do not trust everything that you read.

## Which of the following propositions are valid?

2. 
$$A \Rightarrow^* w \Leftrightarrow A \Rightarrow^*_{\mathsf{Im}} w$$

Consider the following grammar again:

$$G = \left( \left\{ \right. S, A, B, C \left. \right\}, \emptyset, \left\{ \right. S \rightarrow AB, B \rightarrow C \left. \right\}, S \right)$$

The derivation

$$S \Rightarrow AB \Rightarrow Ab \Rightarrow ab$$

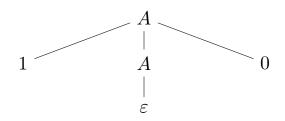
is not a leftmost derivation, but one can reorder it:

$$S \Rightarrow_{\mathsf{Im}} AB \Rightarrow_{\mathsf{Im}} aB \Rightarrow_{\mathsf{Im}} ab$$

Recall the grammar  $(\{S,A\},\{0,1\},P,S)$ , where P is defined in the following way:

$$S \to 0A1 \mid \varepsilon$$
  $A \to 1A0 \mid S \mid \varepsilon$ 

A parse tree:



The *yield* of this parse tree is the string 10.

An inductive definition of parse trees (for  $G = (N, \Sigma, P, S)$ ):

▶ P(G, A): Parse trees for G with the nonterminal  $A \in N$  in the root.

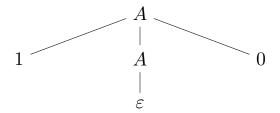
$$\frac{(A,\alpha) \in P \qquad ts \in P_{\mathbf{L}}(G,\alpha)}{\mathsf{node}(A,ts) \in P(G,A)}$$

An inductive definition of parse trees (for  $G = (N, \Sigma, P, S)$ ):

•  $P_{\rm L}(G,\alpha)$ : Lists of parse trees and terminals for G matching  $\alpha \in (N \cup \Sigma)^*$ .

$$\frac{a \in \Sigma \qquad ts \in P_{\mathrm{L}}(G,\alpha)}{\mathrm{term}(a,ts) \in P_{\mathrm{L}}(G,a\alpha)}$$
 
$$\frac{A \in N \qquad t \in P(G,A) \qquad ts \in P_{\mathrm{L}}(G,\alpha)}{\mathrm{nonterm}(t,ts) \in P_{\mathrm{L}}(G,A\alpha)}$$

Recall:



A corresponding parse tree in P(G, A):

 $\mathsf{node}(A,\mathsf{term}(1,\mathsf{nonterm}(\mathsf{node}(A,\mathsf{nil}),\mathsf{term}(0,\mathsf{nil}))))$ 

The yield of a parse tree (for  $G = (N, \Sigma, P, S)$ ):

```
\begin{split} yield &\in P(G,A) \rightarrow \Sigma^* \\ yield(\mathsf{node}(A,ts)) &= yield_{\mathsf{L}}(ts) \\ yield_{\mathsf{L}} &\in P_{\mathsf{L}}(G,\alpha) \rightarrow \Sigma^* \\ yield_{\mathsf{L}}(\mathsf{nil}) &= \varepsilon \\ yield_{\mathsf{L}}(\mathsf{term}(a,ts)) &= a \ yield_{\mathsf{L}}(ts) \\ yield_{\mathsf{L}}(\mathsf{nonterm}(t,ts)) &= yield(t) \ yield_{\mathsf{L}}(ts) \end{split}
```

The yield of a parse tree (for  $G = (N, \Sigma, P, S)$ ):

```
 \begin{aligned} &yield \in P(G,A) \rightarrow \Sigma^* \\ &yield(\mathsf{node}(A,ts)) = yield_{\mathrm{L}}(ts) \\ &yield_{\mathrm{L}} \in P_{\mathrm{L}}(G,\alpha) \rightarrow \Sigma^* \\ &yield_{\mathrm{L}}(\mathsf{nil}) &= \varepsilon \\ &yield_{\mathrm{L}}(\mathsf{term}(a,ts)) &= a \ yield_{\mathrm{L}}(ts) \\ &yield_{\mathrm{L}}(\mathsf{nonterm}(t,ts)) = yield(t) \ yield_{\mathrm{L}}(ts) \end{aligned}
```

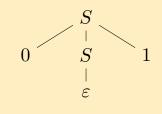
- ▶ If  $t \in P(G, S)$ , then  $yield(t) \in L(G)$ .
- $L(G) = \{ yield(t) \mid t \in P(G, S) \}.$

# Consider the grammar $C = (\{S\}, \{0, 1\}, S]$

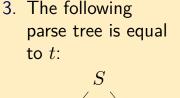
 $G = (\{S\}, \{0,1\}, S \to 0S1 \mid \varepsilon, S).$  Which of the following statements hold for

Which of the following statements hold for  $t = \mathsf{node}(S, \mathsf{term}(0, \mathsf{nonterm}(\mathsf{node}(S, \mathsf{nil}), \mathsf{term}(1, \mathsf{nil})))) \in P(G, S)?$ 

1. The following parse tree is equal to *t*:



2. yield(t) = 0S1



4. yield(t) = 01

If the grammar  $G=(N,\Sigma,P,S)$ , then one can define certain languages over  $\Sigma$  inductively:

- ▶ The language generated by the nonterminal  $A \in N$ , L(G, A).
- ▶ The language generated by a list  $\alpha \in (N \cup \Sigma)^*$ ,  $L_{\rm L}(G, \alpha)$ .

If the grammar  $G=(N,\Sigma,P,S)$ , then one can define certain languages over  $\Sigma$  inductively:

- ▶ The language generated by the nonterminal  $A \in N$ , L(G, A).
- ▶ The language generated by a list  $\alpha \in (N \cup \Sigma)^*$ ,  $L_{\mathsf{L}}(G, \alpha)$ .

This is done in such a way that

- ▶  $L(G, A) = \{ yield(t) \mid t \in P(G, A) \}$  and
- $L_{\mathbf{L}}(G,\alpha) = \{ yield_{\mathbf{L}}(ts) \mid ts \in P_{\mathbf{L}}(G,\alpha) \}.$

Consider the following definitions again:

$$\frac{(A,\alpha) \in P \qquad ts \in P_{\mathbf{L}}(G,\alpha)}{\mathsf{node}(A,ts) \in P(G,A)}$$
 
$$\frac{a \in \Sigma \qquad ts \in P_{\mathbf{L}}(G,\alpha)}{\mathsf{term}(a,ts) \in P_{\mathbf{L}}(G,a\alpha)}$$
 
$$\frac{A \in N \qquad t \in P(G,A) \qquad ts \in P_{\mathbf{L}}(G,\alpha)}{\mathsf{nonterm}(t,ts) \in P_{\mathbf{L}}(G,A\alpha)}$$

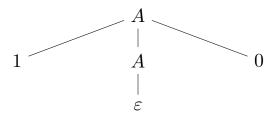
$$\frac{(A,\alpha) \in P \quad w \in L_{\mathbf{L}}(G,\alpha)}{w \in L(G,A)}$$
 
$$\frac{a \in \Sigma \quad ts \in P_{\mathbf{L}}(G,\alpha)}{\mathsf{term}(a,ts) \in P_{\mathbf{L}}(G,a\alpha)}$$
 
$$\frac{A \in N \quad t \in P(G,A) \quad ts \in P_{\mathbf{L}}(G,\alpha)}{\mathsf{nonterm}(t,ts) \in P_{\mathbf{L}}(G,A\alpha)}$$

$$\begin{split} \frac{(A,\alpha) \in P & w \in L_{\mathbf{L}}(G,\alpha)}{w \in L(G,A)} \\ \\ \frac{a \in \Sigma & ts \in P_{\mathbf{L}}(G,\alpha)}{\varepsilon \in L_{\mathbf{L}}(G,\varepsilon)} & \frac{a \in \Sigma & ts \in P_{\mathbf{L}}(G,\alpha)}{\operatorname{term}(a,ts) \in P_{\mathbf{L}}(G,a\alpha)} \\ \\ \frac{A \in N & t \in P(G,A) & ts \in P_{\mathbf{L}}(G,\alpha)}{\operatorname{nonterm}(t,ts) \in P_{\mathbf{L}}(G,A\alpha)} \end{split}$$

$$\frac{(A,\alpha) \in P \quad w \in L_{\mathbf{L}}(G,\alpha)}{w \in L(G,A)}$$
 
$$\frac{a \in \Sigma \quad w \in L_{\mathbf{L}}(G,\alpha)}{aw \in L_{\mathbf{L}}(G,a\alpha)}$$
 
$$\frac{A \in N \quad t \in P(G,A) \quad ts \in P_{\mathbf{L}}(G,\alpha)}{\mathsf{nonterm}(t,ts) \in P_{\mathbf{L}}(G,A\alpha)}$$

$$\frac{(A,\alpha) \in P \quad w \in L_{\mathbf{L}}(G,\alpha)}{w \in L(G,A)}$$
 
$$\frac{a \in \Sigma \quad w \in L_{\mathbf{L}}(G,\alpha)}{aw \in L_{\mathbf{L}}(G,a\alpha)}$$
 
$$\frac{A \in N \quad v \in L(G,A) \quad w \in L_{\mathbf{L}}(G,\alpha)}{vw \in L_{\mathbf{L}}(G,A\alpha)}$$

Recall:



Let us prove that  $10 \in L(G, A)$ :

$$\frac{A \to \alpha \in P \quad u \in L_{\mathbf{L}}(G, \alpha)}{u \in L(G, A)}$$

Let us prove that  $10 \in L(G, A)$ :

$$\frac{A \to 1A0 \in P \quad u \in L_{\mathbf{L}}(G, 1A0)}{u \in L(G, A)}$$

Let us prove that  $10 \in L(G, A)$ :

$$\frac{ v \in L_{\mathrm{L}}(G, A0) }{ 1v \in L_{\mathrm{L}}(G, 1A0) }$$

$$1v \in L(G, A)$$

I have omitted " $a \in \Sigma$ ".

Let us prove that  $10 \in L(G, A)$ :

$$\frac{v_1 \in L(G,A) \quad v_2 \in L_{\mathbf{L}}(G,0)}{v_1 v_2 \in L_{\mathbf{L}}(G,A0)} \\ \hline A \to 1A0 \in P \qquad 1v_1 v_2 \in L_{\mathbf{L}}(G,1A0) \\ \hline 1v_1 v_2 \in L(G,A) \\ \hline$$

Let us prove that  $10 \in L(G, A)$ :

$$\begin{array}{c} v_1 \in L(G,A) & \overline{\varepsilon \in L_{\mathbf{L}}(G,\varepsilon)} \\ v_1 \in L(G,A) & 0 \in L_{\mathbf{L}}(G,0) \\ \hline A \to 1A0 \in P & 1v_10 \in L_{\mathbf{L}}(G,1A0) \\ \hline 1v_10 \in L(G,A) & \end{array}$$

Let us prove that  $10 \in L(G, A)$ :

$$\begin{array}{c} w \in L(G,A) & \overline{\varepsilon \in L_{\mathbf{L}}(G,\varepsilon)} \\ w \in L(G,A) & 0 \in L_{\mathbf{L}}(G,0) \\ \hline M \rightarrow 1A0 \in P & 1w0 \in L_{\mathbf{L}}(G,1A0) \\ \hline 1w0 \in L(G,A) & \end{array}$$

Let us prove that  $10 \in L(G, A)$ :

$$\begin{array}{c|c} A \rightarrow \alpha \in P & w \in L_{\mathbf{L}}(G,\alpha) & \varepsilon \in L_{\mathbf{L}}(G,\varepsilon) \\ \hline w \in L(G,A) & 0 \in L_{\mathbf{L}}(G,0) \\ \hline w0 \in L_{\mathbf{L}}(G,A0) \\ \hline A \rightarrow 1A0 \in P & 1w0 \in L_{\mathbf{L}}(G,1A0) \\ \hline 1w0 \in L(G,A) \end{array}$$

Let us prove that  $10 \in L(G, A)$ :

$$\begin{array}{c|c} \hline A \rightarrow \varepsilon \in P & w \in L_{\mathbf{L}}(G,\varepsilon) & \overline{\varepsilon \in L_{\mathbf{L}}(G,\varepsilon)} \\ \hline w \in L(G,A) & 0 \in L_{\mathbf{L}}(G,0) \\ \hline w 0 \in L_{\mathbf{L}}(G,A0) \\ \hline A \rightarrow 1A0 \in P & 1w0 \in L_{\mathbf{L}}(G,1A0) \\ \hline 1w0 \in L(G,A) \\ \hline \end{array}$$

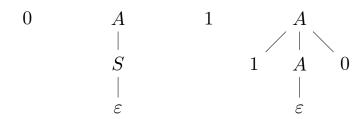
Let us prove that  $10 \in L(G, A)$ :

$$\begin{array}{c|c} \hline A \rightarrow \varepsilon \in P & \overline{\varepsilon \in L_{\mathbf{L}}(G,\varepsilon)} & \overline{\varepsilon \in L_{\mathbf{L}}(G,\varepsilon)} \\ \hline \underline{\varepsilon \in L(G,A)} & 0 \in L_{\mathbf{L}}(G,0) \\ \hline \underline{\varepsilon 0 \in L_{\mathbf{L}}(G,A0)} \\ \hline A \rightarrow 1A0 \in P & 1\varepsilon 0 \in L_{\mathbf{L}}(G,1A0) \\ \hline 1\varepsilon 0 \in L(G,A) \\ \hline \end{array}$$

Let us prove that  $10 \in L(G, A)$ :

$$\begin{array}{c|c} \hline A \rightarrow \varepsilon \in P & \overline{\varepsilon \in L_{\mathbf{L}}(G,\varepsilon)} & \overline{\varepsilon \in L_{\mathbf{L}}(G,\varepsilon)} \\ \hline \underline{\varepsilon \in L(G,A)} & 0 \in L_{\mathbf{L}}(G,0) \\ \hline \underline{0 \in L_{\mathbf{L}}(G,A0)} \\ \hline A \rightarrow 1A0 \in P & 10 \in L_{\mathbf{L}}(G,1A0) \\ \hline 10 \in L(G,A) \\ \hline \end{array}$$

- ▶ A derivation of  $w \in L_{\mathbf{L}}(G, \alpha)$  corresponds to a kind of parse forest.
- ▶ The forest corresponding to one derivation of  $0110 \in L_{\rm L}(G, 0A1A)$ :



Which of the following propositions are true?  $G = (\{S,A\},\{0,1\},P,S)$ , where P is defined in the following way:

$$S \to 0A1 \mid \varepsilon \qquad A \to 1A0 \mid S \mid \varepsilon$$

2. 
$$1010 \in L(G, A)$$
 4.  $0100 \in L_{L}(G, SA)$ 

Hint: Try to construct parse trees.

1.  $1010 \in L(G,S)$ 

Respond at https://pingo.coactum.de/729558.

3.  $010 \in L_{\rm L}(G, S0A)$ 

$$S \rightarrow 0A1 \mid \varepsilon \qquad \qquad A \rightarrow 1A0 \mid S \mid \varepsilon$$

$$1 \qquad \qquad A \qquad \qquad 0$$

$$\mid \qquad \qquad \qquad \qquad S$$

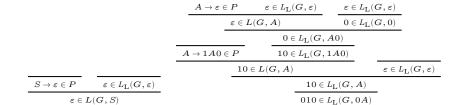
$$\mid \qquad \qquad \qquad S$$

$$\mid \qquad \qquad \qquad \qquad 0$$

$$\mid \qquad \qquad \qquad A \qquad \qquad 0$$

$$\mid \qquad \qquad \qquad \qquad \qquad \qquad \qquad \qquad 0$$

$$S \to 0A1 \mid \varepsilon$$
  $A \to 1A0 \mid S \mid \varepsilon$ 



 $010 \in L_{\mathrm{L}}(G,S0A)$ 

# Yields containing nonterminals

The inductive definitions of parse trees and recursive inference can be extended to support strings containing both terminals and nonterminals:

$$\overline{{\rm leaf}(A) \in P_{\rm N}(G,A)} \qquad \qquad \overline{A \in L_{\rm N}(G,A)}$$

```
 \begin{aligned} yield &\in P_{\mathbf{N}}(G,A) \rightarrow (N \cup \Sigma)^* \\ yield(\mathsf{leaf}(A)) &= A \\ yield(\mathsf{node}(A,ts)) &= yield_{\mathbf{L}}(ts) \\ yield_{\mathbf{L}} &\in P_{\mathbf{NL}}(G,\alpha) \rightarrow (N \cup \Sigma)^* \\ \vdots \end{aligned}
```

# Proofs about

grammars

Recall:

$$G = \left( \left\{ \right. S \right. \right\}, \left\{ \right. 0, 1 \left. \right\}, S \to 0S1 \mid \varepsilon, S \right)$$
 
$$\frac{w \in L}{0w1 \in L}$$
 
$$\overline{\varepsilon \in L}$$

Let us prove that  $L(G, S) \subseteq L$ .

Let us prove  $\forall u \in L(G,S)$ .  $u \in L$  by complete induction on the length of the string. Assume that  $u \in L(G,S)$ . The derivation must end in the following way:

We have two cases,  $\alpha = \varepsilon$  and  $\alpha = 0S1$ .

If  $\alpha = \varepsilon$ , then we have the following derivation:

We have  $u = \varepsilon$ , and  $\varepsilon \in L$ :  $\overline{\varepsilon \in L}$ .

If  $\alpha = 0S1$ , then the derivation ends in the following way:

following way: 
$$\frac{\frac{}{\varepsilon \in L_{\mathrm{L}}(G,\varepsilon)}}{\frac{w \in L(G,S)}{1 \in L_{\mathrm{L}}(G,1)}}$$
 
$$\frac{w \in L(G,S)}{1 \in L_{\mathrm{L}}(G,S1)}$$
 
$$\frac{w1 \in L_{\mathrm{L}}(G,S1)}{0w1 \in L_{\mathrm{L}}(G,0S1)}$$

 $0w1 \in L(G,S)$ 

• We have 
$$u = 0w1$$
 for  $w \in L(G, S)$ .

- We also have |w| < |u|, so by the inductive hypothesis  $w \in L$ .
- $\qquad \text{Thus } u = 0w1 \in L \colon \frac{w \in L}{0w1 \in L}.$

- ► Another kind of induction can also be used: induction on the structure of the recursive inference
- Exercise (optional, hard):
  - Write down a formula for this kind of induction.
  - ▶ Use this kind of induction to prove  $L(G, S) \subseteq L$ .

# Another proof

- ▶ Let us now prove that  $L \subseteq L(G, S)$ .
- ▶ This is equivalent to  $\forall w \in L. \ w \in L(G, S).$
- ▶ Let us prove this by induction on the structure of *L*.

# Another proof

$$\overline{\varepsilon \in L}:$$

$$S \to \varepsilon \in P \quad \overline{\varepsilon \in L_{L}(G, \varepsilon)}$$

$$\varepsilon \in L(G, S)$$

$$\overline{w \in L}:$$

$$\underline{w \in L}:$$

$$\underline{w \in L(G, S)}$$

$$\underline{w \in L(G, S)}$$

$$\underline{w \in L(G, S)}$$

$$1 \in L_{L}(G, 1)$$

$$\underline{w1 \in L_{L}(G, S1)}$$

$$0w1 \in L(G, S)$$

$$0w1 \in L(G, S)$$

# **Today**

- ► Context-free grammars.
- ▶ Derivations.
- ▶ Left-most derivations.
- ▶ Parse trees.
- ▶ Recursive inference.
- Proofs about grammars.

#### Next lecture

► More about context-free grammars.

# Finite automata and formal languages (DIT323, TMV029)

Nils Anders Danielsson

2024-02-19

## Today

- Context-free languages.
- ► Some equivalences.
- Ambiguity.
- Designing grammars.

## Context-free

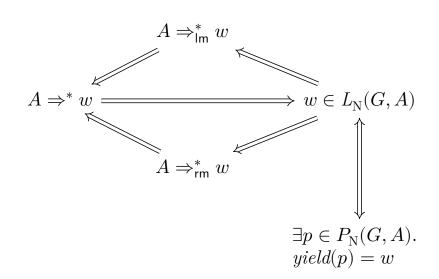
languages

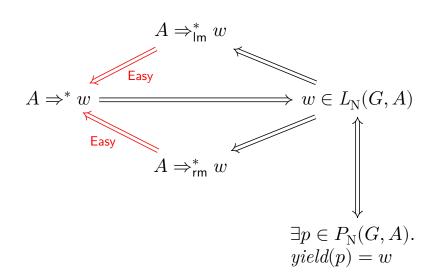
## Context-free languages

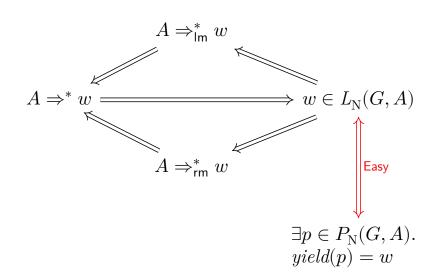
A language  $L\subseteq \Sigma^*$  is context-free if L=L(G), where G is a context-free grammar with  $\Sigma$  as the set of terminals.

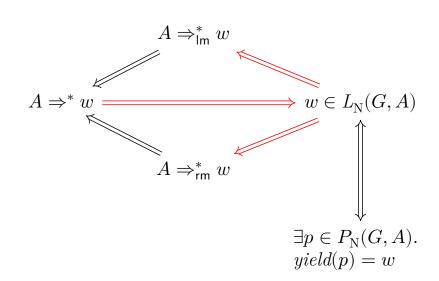
## Some

equivalences

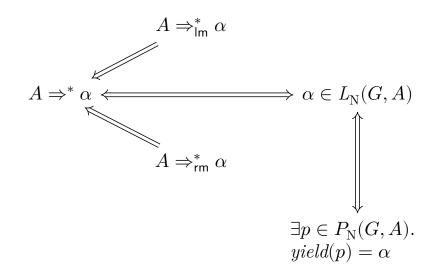








With  $\alpha \in (N \cup \Sigma)^*$ :



#### One implication:

$$\forall A \in N, \beta \in (N \cup \Sigma)^*.$$

$$(A \Rightarrow^* \beta) \Rightarrow \beta \in L_{\mathcal{N}}(G, A)$$

Note that  $\Rightarrow$  has two different meanings!

#### One implication:

$$\forall A \in N, \beta \in (N \cup \Sigma)^*.$$

$$(A \Rightarrow^* \beta) \Rightarrow \beta \in L_{\mathcal{N}}(G, A)$$

One way to read this (in constructive logic):

- $\blacktriangleright \ \, \text{For all} \,\, A \,\, \text{in} \,\, N \,\, \text{and} \,\, \beta \,\, \text{in} \,\, (N \cup \Sigma)^* ...$
- …one can transform a proof of  $A\Rightarrow^*\beta$  into a proof of  $\beta\in L_{\mathbf{N}}(G,A).$

Let us represent derivations as data in the following way:

- ▶ Let  $Step = (\Sigma \cup N)^* \times N \times (\Sigma \cup N)^* \times (\Sigma \cup N)^*$ .
- ▶ A single derivation step  $\alpha A\beta \Rightarrow \alpha \gamma \beta$  is represented by the four-tuple  $(\alpha, A, \gamma, \beta) \in Step$ .
- A derivation is represented by a list of steps (in List(Step)) corresponding to the derivation steps.

#### Examples:

- $S \Rightarrow \varepsilon$  is represented by  $[(\varepsilon, S, \varepsilon, \varepsilon)]$ .
- $S\Rightarrow 0S1\Rightarrow 01$  is represented by  $[(\varepsilon,S,0S1,\varepsilon),(0,S,\varepsilon,1)].$
- ▶  $S \Rightarrow 0S1 \Rightarrow 00S11 \Rightarrow 0011$  is represented by  $[(\varepsilon, S, 0S1, \varepsilon), (0, S, 0S1, 1), (00, S, \varepsilon, 11)].$

One can use the following function when constructing derivations:

$$\begin{aligned} wrap &\in (\Sigma \cup N)^* \times List(Step) \times (\Sigma \cup N)^* \rightarrow \\ &List(Step) \\ wrap(\alpha', [\,], &\beta') &= [\,] \\ wrap(\alpha', (\alpha, A, \gamma, \beta) : ss, \beta') &= \\ &(\alpha'\alpha, A, \gamma, \beta\beta') : wrap(\alpha', ss, \beta') \end{aligned}$$

#### Examples:

- $S \Rightarrow \varepsilon$  is represented by  $[(\varepsilon, S, \varepsilon, \varepsilon)]$ .
- $S\Rightarrow 0S1\Rightarrow 01$  starts with  $S\Rightarrow 0S1$  and continues with  $S\Rightarrow \varepsilon$  "wrapped" in 0 and 1, and is represented by

$$(\varepsilon, S, 0S1, \varepsilon) : wrap(0, [(\varepsilon, S, \varepsilon, \varepsilon)], 1) = [(\varepsilon, S, 0S1, \varepsilon), (0, S, \varepsilon, 1)].$$

#### Examples:

- $S\Rightarrow \varepsilon$  is represented by  $[(\varepsilon,S,\varepsilon,\varepsilon)].$
- $S\Rightarrow 0S1\Rightarrow 01$  starts with  $S\Rightarrow 0S1$  and continues with  $S\Rightarrow \varepsilon$  "wrapped" in 0 and 1, and is represented by

$$\begin{aligned} &(\varepsilon, S, 0S1, \varepsilon) : wrap(0, [(\varepsilon, S, \varepsilon, \varepsilon)], 1) = \\ &[(\varepsilon, S, 0S1, \varepsilon), (0, S, \varepsilon, 1)]. \end{aligned}$$

•  $S \Rightarrow 0S1 \Rightarrow 00S11 \Rightarrow 0011$  is represented by

$$(\varepsilon, S, 0S1, \varepsilon):$$
  
 $wrap(0, [(\varepsilon, S, 0S1, \varepsilon), (0, S, \varepsilon, 1)], 1).$ 

- ▶ Let  $G = (\{S\}, \{0,1\}, S \to 0S1 \mid \varepsilon, S)$ .
- $\blacktriangleright \text{ Note that } L(G) = \{ \ 0^n 1^n \mid n \in \mathbb{N} \ \}.$
- ▶ The function derivation takes a number  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  to a derivation showing that  $S \Rightarrow^* 0^n 1^n$ :

```
\begin{array}{ll} derivation \in \mathbb{N} \rightarrow List(Step) \\ derivation({\sf zero}) &= [(\varepsilon, S, \varepsilon, \varepsilon)] \\ derivation({\sf suc}(n)) = \\ (\varepsilon, S, 0S1, \varepsilon) : wrap(0, derivation(n), 1) \end{array}
```

### Consider the grammar

$$G = (\{S\}, \{0,1\}, S \to 1S \mid 0, S),$$

for which  $L(G) = \{ 1^n0 \mid n \in \mathbb{N} \}$ . Define a function that takes a number  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ 

Define a function that takes a number  $n\in\mathbb{N}$  to a derivation showing that  $S\Rightarrow^* 1^n0.$ 

 $derivation \in \mathbb{N} \to List(Step)$ 

 $(\varepsilon, S, 1S, \varepsilon) : wrap(1, derivation(n), \varepsilon)$ 

$$derivation(zero) \rightarrow List(Step)$$
$$derivation(zero) = [(\varepsilon, S, 0, \varepsilon)]$$

derivation(suc(n)) =

A grammar  $G=(N,\Sigma,P,S)$  is ambiguous if there is a string  $w\in\Sigma^*$  such that there are two different...

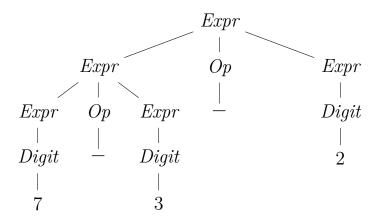
- ...parse trees in P(G,S) with yield w.
- ...leftmost derivations  $S \Rightarrow_{\mathsf{Im}}^* w$ .
- ...rightmost derivations  $S \Rightarrow_{\mathsf{rm}}^* w$ .
- ...derivations of  $w \in L(G, S)$ .

Consider the following (underspecified) context-free grammar over  $\{+,-,\cdot,/,(,)\}\cup\{0,1,...,9\}$ :

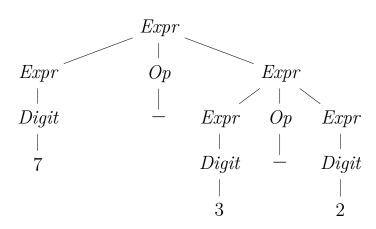
$$\begin{array}{l} Expr \rightarrow Expr \ Op \ Expr \mid Digit \mid (\ Expr \ ) \\ Op \quad \rightarrow + \mid - \mid \cdot \mid \mid / \\ Digit \rightarrow 0 \mid 1 \mid \dots \mid 9 \end{array}$$

How should 7 - 3 - 2 be interpreted?

A parse tree for 7 - 3 - 2:



Another parse tree for 7 - 3 - 2:



- ▶ The values differ: (7-3)-2=2, but 7-(3-2)=6.
- ▶ If a grammar is used to determine how to interpret an expression, then it may be unclear how to interpret an ambiguous string.

1  $S \rightarrow S$ 

2.  $S \to S \mid \varepsilon$ 

3.  $S \rightarrow 1S1 \mid 0S0 \mid \varepsilon$ 

4.  $S \to 1S1 \mid 1A1 \mid \varepsilon, A \to 1A1 \mid S$ 5.  $S \to 1S1 \mid 1A1 \mid \varepsilon, A \to 0S0$ Respond at https://pingo.coactum.de/729558.

- an ambiguous grammar?
  - 1.  $S \rightarrow S$ 3.  $S \rightarrow 1S1 \mid 0S0 \mid \varepsilon$
  - 5.  $S \rightarrow 1S1 \mid 0S0 \mid \varepsilon$  $S \rightarrow 1S1 \mid 1A1 \mid \varepsilon, A \rightarrow 0S0$

No.

Yes:  $S \Rightarrow_{\operatorname{Im}} \varepsilon$  and  $S \Rightarrow_{\operatorname{Im}} S \Rightarrow_{\operatorname{Im}} \varepsilon$ .

2.  $S \to S \mid \varepsilon$ 

4. 
$$S \rightarrow 1S1 \mid 1A1 \mid \varepsilon, A \rightarrow 1A1 \mid S$$

Yes:  $S \Rightarrow_{\operatorname{Im}} 1A1 \Rightarrow_{\operatorname{Im}} 1S1 \Rightarrow_{\operatorname{Im}} 11$  and  $S \Rightarrow_{\operatorname{Im}} 1S1 \Rightarrow_{\operatorname{Im}} 11$ .

- ▶ It is common to interpret 7-3-2 as (7-3)-2.
- ► The minus operator is said to "associate to the left".
- $\,\blacktriangleright\,$  Exponentiation typically associates to the right:  $3^{3^3}=3^{(3^3)}.$

- ▶ It is also common to interpret  $7 \cdot 3 2$  as  $(7 \cdot 3) 2$ , and not  $7 \cdot (3 2)$ .
- ► The multiplication operator is said to "bind tighter than" the subtraction operator, or to have "higher precedence".

The following (underspecified) context-free grammar over  $\{+,-,\cdot,/,(,)\}\cup\{0,1,...,9\}$  is unambiguous:

```
\begin{array}{ll} Expr & \rightarrow Term \ Add\text{-}op \ Expr \mid Term \\ Term & \rightarrow Term \ Mul\text{-}op \ Factor \mid Factor \\ Factor & \rightarrow Digit \mid (Expr \ ) \\ Add\text{-}op & \rightarrow + \mid - \\ Mul\text{-}op & \rightarrow \cdot \mid / \\ Digit & \rightarrow 0 \mid 1 \mid \dots \mid 9 \end{array}
```

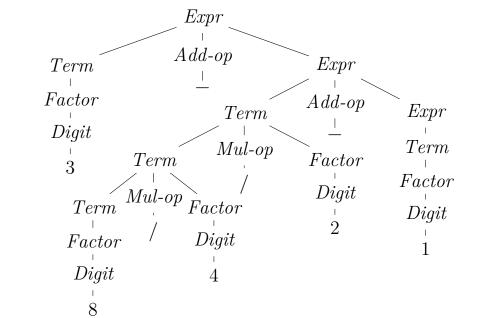
Use this grammar to parse the following string. Compute the value of the expression, using the parse tree to guide the evaluation.

$$3 - 8/4/2 - 1$$

$$\begin{array}{ll} Expr & \rightarrow Term \ Add\text{-}op \ Expr \mid Term \\ Term & \rightarrow Term \ Mul\text{-}op \ Factor \mid Factor \\ Factor & \rightarrow Digit \mid (Expr) \\ Add\text{-}op & \rightarrow + \mid - \\ Mul\text{-}op & \rightarrow \cdot \mid / \\ Digit & \rightarrow 0 \mid 1 \mid \dots \mid 9 \end{array}$$

Respond at https://pingo.coactum.de/729558.

## The parse tree



### Right associative?

- ▶ Subtraction is right associative for this grammar: 3 (((8/4)/2) 1) = 3.
- ▶ The usual way of parsing instead leads to (3 ((8/4)/2)) 1 = 1.
- One can make subtraction left associative by modifying the grammar:

 $Expr \rightarrow Expr \ Add-op \ Term \mid Term$ 

Suggest some replacement for ??? that ensures that  $3 \, \widehat{\ } 3 \, \widehat{\ } 3$  is a valid string that is interpreted as  $3 \, \widehat{\ } (3 \, \widehat{\ } 3)$ . The start symbol is  $E_0$ .

$$\begin{array}{lll} E_0 & \rightarrow E_0 \ Add\text{-}op \ E_1 \mid E_1 \\ E_1 & \rightarrow E_1 \ Mul\text{-}op \ E_2 \mid E_2 \\ E_2 & \rightarrow ??? \\ E_3 & \rightarrow Digit \mid (E_0) \\ Add\text{-}op \rightarrow + \mid - \\ Mul\text{-}op \rightarrow \cdot \mid / \\ Digit & \rightarrow 0 \mid 1 \mid \dots \mid 9 \end{array}$$

Respond at https://pingo.coactum.de/729558.

$$E_{0} \longrightarrow E_{0} \ Add\text{-}op \ E_{1} \mid E_{1}$$

$$E_{1} \longrightarrow E_{1} \ Mul\text{-}op \ E_{2} \mid E_{2}$$

$$E_{2} \longrightarrow E_{3} \ \widehat{} E_{2} \mid E_{3}$$

$$E_{3} \longrightarrow Diqit \mid (E_{0})$$

 $Add\text{-}op \rightarrow + \mid -Mul\text{-}op \rightarrow \cdot \mid /$ 

 $Digit \rightarrow 0 \mid 1 \mid \dots \mid 9$ 

#### **Ambiguity**

- ▶ It is undecidable whether a context-free grammar is ambiguous.
- However, several parser generators use restricted context-free grammars that are guaranteed to be unambiguous.
- ▶ If such a tool complains about a "conflict", then the problem might be that the grammar is ambiguous.

#### **Ambiguity**

- ► There are context-free languages for which there are no unambiguous context-free grammars.
- Such languages are called inherently ambiguous.
- See the book for an example.

# Designing grammars

Define a grammar for some simple (context-free) language, perhaps a tiny programming language. Try to make the grammar unambiguous.

#### Designing grammars

If you want to know more about the use of grammars in the specification and implementation of programming languages you might be interested in the course *Programming language technology*.

#### Today

- Context-free languages.
- ► Some equivalences.
- Ambiguity.
- Designing grammars.

#### Next lecture

- ▶ Grammar transformations.
- Chomsky normal form.
- ► The pumping lemma for context-free languages.

### Finite automata and formal languages (DIT323, TMV029)

Nils Anders Danielsson

2024-02-22

#### Today

- ▶ Grammar transformations.
- Chomsky normal form.
- ► The pumping lemma for context-free languages.

## Grammar

tions

transforma-

#### Grammar transformations

- ▶ A number of transformations of grammars.
- ▶ Will be used for parsing (next lecture).
- ▶ I have taken some information and terminology from "To CNF or not to CNF? An Efficient Yet Presentable Version of the CYK Algorithm" by Lange and Leiß.

#### BIN

- ▶ Result: No production  $A \to \alpha$  where  $|\alpha| \ge 3$ .
- ▶ Replace each production  $A \rightarrow X_1 X_2 ... X_n$ , where  $n \geq 3$ , with:

$$A \rightarrow X_1 A_2$$
 
$$A_2 \rightarrow X_2 A_3$$
 
$$\vdots$$
 
$$A_{n-1} \rightarrow X_{n-1} X_n$$

Here  $A_2, ..., A_{n-1}$  are new nonterminals.

► L(Bin(G)) = L(G).

#### $\operatorname{DEL}$

- ▶ Result: No "deletion rules", i.e. productions of the form  $A \to \varepsilon$ .
- ▶ A nonterminal A is *nullable* if  $A \Rightarrow^* \varepsilon$ .

#### DEL

#### Some examples:

- ▶ The production  $A \to \varepsilon$  is removed.
- ▶ The production  $A \to \alpha B\beta C\gamma$ , where B and C are the only nullable nonterminals, is replaced with

$$A \to \alpha B \beta C \gamma,$$
 
$$A \to \alpha \beta C \gamma,$$
 
$$A \to \alpha B \beta \gamma \text{ and,}$$
 if  $\alpha \beta \gamma \neq \varepsilon$ ,  $A \to \alpha \beta \gamma.$ 

#### $\operatorname{DEL}$

- ▶ The new productions are not deletion rules.
- ▶ If we do this for every production, then no nonterminal will be nullable, and  $L(\mathrm{DEL}(G), A) = L(G, A) \setminus \{ \varepsilon \}.$
- $\blacktriangleright \ L(\mathrm{Del}(G)) = L(G) \setminus \{\ \varepsilon\ \}.$

#### DEL

#### Example:

▶ Before:

$$S \to 0 \mid ABS$$

$$A \to \varepsilon \mid BA$$

$$B \to S \mid \varepsilon$$

After:

$$S \rightarrow 0 \mid ABS \mid AS \mid BS \mid S$$
  

$$A \rightarrow BA \mid B \mid A$$
  

$$B \rightarrow S$$

#### $\operatorname{DEL}$

If  $\mathrm{DEL}$  is applied to the following grammar, how many productions does the resulting grammar contain?

$$(\{S,A\},\{0\},(S\to(SA)^{10}\mid\varepsilon,A\to 0),S)$$

Respond at https://pingo.coactum.de/729558.

#### $\operatorname{DEL}$

- ► The DEL transformation can make the grammar much larger.
- ▶ If every production  $A \to \alpha$  satisfies  $|\alpha| \le 2$ , then the blowup is contained.
- ▶ Run BIN before DEL.

#### UNIT

- ▶ Result: No unit productions (productions of the form  $A \rightarrow B$ ).
- (A,B) is a unit pair if A=B or  $A \to C_1 \to \cdots \to C_n \to B$  (where  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ).
- Include exactly the following productions:

$$\{A \to \alpha \mid (A,B) \text{ is a unit pair}, \\ B \to \alpha \in P, \\ \alpha \text{ is not a single nonterminal}\}$$

#### Unit

#### Example:

Before:

$$A \to 1 \mid B$$
$$B \to 2 \mid C$$

$$C \to AB$$

After:

$$A \rightarrow 1 \mid 2 \mid AB$$

$$B \to 2 \mid AB$$
$$C \to AB$$

$$L(\mathrm{UNIT}(G)) = L(G).$$

#### UNIT

The resulting grammar could be much larger than the original one:

$$A_1 \rightarrow A_2 \mid 1$$

$$A_2 \rightarrow A_3 \mid 2$$

$$A_3 \rightarrow A_4 \mid 3$$

$$\vdots$$

$$A_n \rightarrow A_1 \mid n$$

#### UNIT

The resulting grammar could be much larger than the original one:

$$\begin{split} A_1 &\to 1 \mid 2 \mid 3 \mid \dots \mid n \\ A_2 &\to 1 \mid 2 \mid 3 \mid \dots \mid n \\ A_3 &\to 1 \mid 2 \mid 3 \mid \dots \mid n \\ &\vdots \\ A_n &\to 1 \mid 2 \mid 3 \mid \dots \mid n \end{split}$$

Construct a grammar G for which  $\mathrm{DEL}(\mathrm{UNIT}(G))$  contains a unit production.

Construct a grammar G for which  $\mathrm{DEL}(\mathrm{UNIT}(G))$  contains a unit production.

Run Del before Unit.

UNIT does not affect the following (underspecified) grammar:

$$S \to AB$$
$$A \to \varepsilon$$

If  $\mathrm{D}\mathrm{E}\mathrm{L}$  is applied to it, then we get a grammar with a unit production:

$$S \to AB \mid B$$

#### TERM

- ▶ Result: No terminals in productions  $A \to \alpha$  where  $|\alpha| \ge 2$ .
- Find all terminals in such productions.
- ▶ For each such terminal b, add a new nonterminal B with a single production  $B \to b$ , and substitute B for b in every production  $A \to \alpha$  where  $|\alpha| \ge 2$ .

#### TERM

Example:

► Before:

$$A \to A1 \mid 1 \mid 2$$
$$B \to 1$$

After:

$$A \to AO \mid 1 \mid 2$$
$$B \to 1$$

$$L(\text{Term}(G)) = L(G).$$

 $O \rightarrow 1$ 

#### BIN/TERM

- ▶ I have written BIN(G) and TERM(G), as if BIN and TERM were functions.
- However, these transformations are not functions, because the names of the new nonterminals are not uniquely specified.
- ▶ Below I will pretend that the transformations are functions.

## Chomsky

normal form

#### Chomsky normal form

- A context-free grammar is in Chomsky normal form if every production is of the form  $A \to BC$  or  $A \to a$ .
- ▶ For any context-free grammar G the grammar  $G' = \operatorname{TERM}(\operatorname{UNIT}(\operatorname{DEL}(\operatorname{BIN}(G))))$  is in Chomsky normal form and satisfies  $L(G') = L(G) \setminus \{ \varepsilon \}.$

#### Chomsky normal form

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I dropped the text book's requirement that there should be no useless symbols.

Consider the grammar  $G = (\{S, A\}, \{0, 1\}, P, S)$ , where P is defined in the following way:

$$A \to 1S \mid \varepsilon$$

 $S \rightarrow 0A \mid S$ 

- ▶ Is G ambiguous?
- ▶ Is Term(Unit(Del(Bin(G)))) ambiguous?

Respond at https://pingo.coactum.de/729558.

### Consider the grammar $G = (\{S, A\}, \{0, 1\})$

 $G = (\{ S, A \}, \{ 0, 1 \}, P, S)$ , where P is defined in the following way:

$$S \to 0A \mid S$$
$$A \to 1S \mid \varepsilon$$

▶ Is G ambiguous?

Yes:

Consider the grammar  $G = (\{S, A\}, \{0, 1\}, P, S)$ , where P is defined in the following way:

$$S \to 0A \mid S$$
$$A \to 1S \mid \varepsilon$$

▶ Is Term(Unit(Del(Bin(G)))) ambiguous?

#### No:

▶ Bin(G) = G.

Consider the grammar  $G = (\{S, A\}, \{0, 1\}, P, S)$ , where P is defined in the following way:

$$S \to 0A \mid S$$
$$A \to 1S \mid \varepsilon$$

▶ Is TERM(UNIT(DEL(BIN(G)))) ambiguous?

#### No:

► DEL(BIN(G)):  $S \to 0A \mid 0 \mid S$ 

 $A \rightarrow 1S$ 

Consider the grammar  $G = (\{S,A\},\{0,1\},P,S)$ , where P is defined in the following way:

$$A \to 1S \mid \varepsilon$$

 $S \rightarrow 0A \mid S$ 

▶ Is TERM(UNIT(DEL(BIN(G)))) ambiguous?

#### No:

• Unit(Del(Bin(
$$G$$
))):

$$S \to 0A \mid 0$$
$$A \to 1S$$

Consider the grammar  $G = (\{S,A\},\{0,1\},P,S)$ , where P is defined in the following way:

$$A \to 1S \mid \varepsilon$$

 $S \rightarrow 0A \mid S$ 

▶ Is TERM(UNIT(DEL(BIN(G)))) ambiguous?

#### No:

► TERM(UNIT(DEL(BIN(
$$G$$
)))):  
 $S \to ZA \mid 0$   $Z \to 0$   
 $A \to OS$   $O \to 1$ 

Consider the grammar

 $G = (\{S, A\}, \{0, 1\}, P, S)$ , where P is defined in the following way:

$$S \to 0A \mid S$$
$$A \to 1S \mid \varepsilon$$

▶ Is TERM(UNIT(DEL(BIN(G)))) ambiguous?

If G is ambiguous, then  $\mathrm{U}\mathrm{NIT}(G)$  is sometimes ambiguous, sometimes not.

# The pumping

lemma

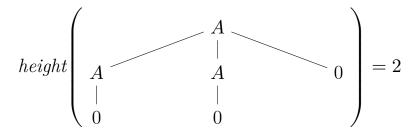
For every context-free language L over the alphabet  $\Sigma$ :

```
\exists m \in \mathbb{N}.
\forall w \in L. \ |w| \ge m \Rightarrow
\exists r, s, t, u, v \in \Sigma^*.
w = rstuv \land |stu| \le m \land su \ne \varepsilon \land
\forall n \in \mathbb{N}. \ rs^n tu^n v \in L
```

For every context-free language L over the alphabet  $\Sigma$ :

```
\exists m \in \mathbb{N}. \forall w \in L. \ |w| \ge m \Rightarrow \exists r, s, t, u, v \in \Sigma^*. w = rstuv \land |stu| \le m \land su \ne \varepsilon \land \forall n \in \mathbb{N}. \ rs^n tu^n v \in L
```

The height of a parse tree in P(G,A) is the largest number of nonterminals encountered on any path from the root to a leaf.



For context-free grammars in Chomsky normal form:

$$\forall p \in P(G,A). \ |\mathit{yield}(p)| \leq 2^{\mathit{height}(p)-1}$$

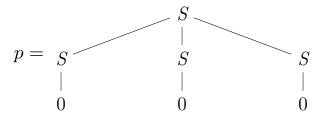
For context-free grammars in Chomsky normal form:

$$\forall p \in P(G, A). |yield(p)| \le 2^{height(p)-1}$$

Proof: Exercise.

Consider the following grammar and parse tree:

$$\left(\left\{\right.S\right.\right\},\left\{\right.0\left.\right\},\left(S\to SSS\mid 0\right),S\right)$$



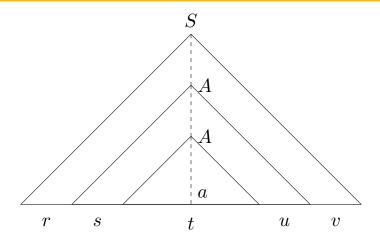
We have

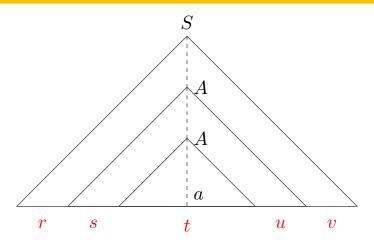
$$|\mathit{yield}(p)| = |000| = 3 \nleq 2 = 2^{2-1} = 2^{\mathit{height}(p) - 1}.$$

#### Proof sketch:

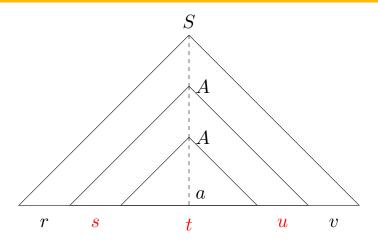
- lacktriangle Take any context-free grammar G for L.
- ▶ Let G' = Term(Unit(Del(Bin(G)))).
- If  $G' = (N, \Sigma, P, S)$ , let  $m = 2^{|N|}$ .
- ▶ Given a string  $w \in L$  with  $|w| \ge m$  we know that  $w \ne \varepsilon$ , so we have  $w \in L \setminus \{ \varepsilon \} = L(G')$ .

- ▶ Take any parse tree p for w with respect to G'.
- ▶ We know that  $2^{|N|}=m\leq |w|=|yield(p)|\leq 2^{height(p)-1}\text{, so }height(p)>|N|.$
- ► Take a path of maximal length (number of nonterminals) from the root of p to a leaf.
- Such a path must contain at least |N| + 1 nonterminals.
- ▶ By the pigeonhole principle the path must contain two instances of the same nonterminal, at most |N|+1 steps from the leaf.

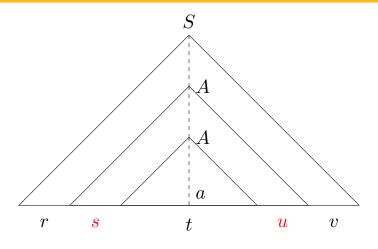




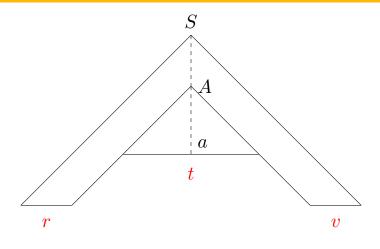
w = rstuv



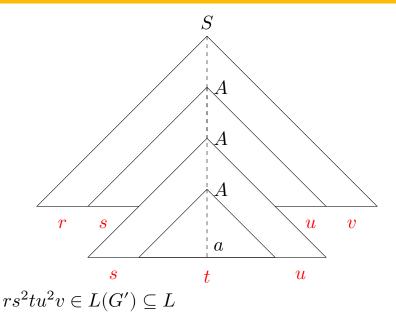
$$|stu| \le 2^{(|N|+1)-1} = 2^{|N|} = m$$



No nonterminal is nullable,  $A \to BC \Rightarrow s \neq \varepsilon \lor u \neq \varepsilon \Rightarrow su \neq \varepsilon$ 



$$rtv \in L(G') \subseteq L$$



The language  $L=\{\ 0^n1^n2^n\mid n\in\mathbb{N}\ \}$  over  $\Sigma=\{\ 0,1,2\ \}$  is not context-free. Proof sketch:

- ▶ Assume that *L* is context-free.
- ▶ Take the constant  $m \in \mathbb{N}$  that we get from the pumping lemma.
- Consider the string  $w = 0^m 1^m 2^m \in L$ .
- ▶ Because  $|w| \ge m$  we get some information:

$$\exists r, s, t, u, v \in \{ 0, 1, 2 \}^* .$$

$$0^m 1^m 2^m = rstuv \land |stu| \le m \land$$

$$su \ne \varepsilon \land \forall n \in \mathbb{N}. \ rs^n tu^n v \in L$$

▶ Because  $|w| \ge m$  we get some information:

$$\exists r, s, t, u, v \in \{0, 1, 2\}^*.$$

$$0^m 1^m 2^m = rstuv \land |stu| \le m \land$$

$$su \ne \varepsilon \land \forall n \in \mathbb{N}. \ rs^n tu^n v \in L$$

- ▶ Because  $|stu| \le m$  this substring cannot contain both 0 and 2.
- ▶ Because  $su \neq \varepsilon$  either s or u must contain at least one symbol from  $\{0,1,2\}$ .
- ▶ Thus rtv does not contain the same number of each symbol from  $\{0,1,2\}$ , so  $rtv \notin L$ .
- ▶ But  $rtv = rs^0tu^0v \in L$ , so we have found a contradiction.

- 1.  $\{0^n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}.$ 
  - 2.  $\{0^n 1^n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}.$
  - 2. {0 1 | n ∈ N}
  - 3.  $\{0^n 1^n 2^n 3^n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}.$ 4.  $\{w \in \{0, 1, 2\}^* \mid \#_0(w) = \#_1(w) = \#_2(w)\}.$

Respond at https://pingo.coactum.de/729558.

1.  $\{0^n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}.$ 

Yes, this language is regular.

2.  $\{0^n 1^n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}.$ 

Yes, see a previous lecture.

3.  $\{0^n 1^n 2^n 3^n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}.$ 

No, use the pumping lemma with the string  $0^m1^m2^m3^m$ .

4.  $\{w \in \{0,1,2\}^* \mid \#_0(w) = \#_1(w) = \#_2(w)\}.$ 

No, use the pumping lemma with the string  $0^m1^m2^m$ .

#### Today

- ▶ Grammar transformations.
- Chomsky normal form.
- ► The pumping lemma for context-free languages.

#### Next lecture

- Closure properties.
- ► Algorithms.

## Finite automata and formal languages (DIT323, TMV029)

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2024-02-26

#### Today

- ► Closure properties for context-free languages.
- ► Some algorithms for context-free languages.
- ► Some undecidable problems.

## Closure properties

#### Context-free languages

- ► Every regular language is context-free.
- ► Exercise: Prove this.

#### Substitutions

#### Assume that

- $\Sigma_1$  and  $\Sigma_2$  are alphabets and
- $\blacktriangleright \ F \in \Sigma_1 \to \wp(\Sigma_2^*).$

The function F maps symbols to languages. It can be lifted to words and languages:

$$\begin{array}{ll} F \in \Sigma_1^* \to \wp(\Sigma_2^*) & F \in \wp(\Sigma_1^*) \to \wp(\Sigma_2^*) \\ F(\varepsilon) &= \{\, \varepsilon \,\} & F(L) = \bigcup_{w \in L} F(w) \\ F(aw) = F(a)F(w) & \end{array}$$

#### Substitutions

#### Example:

```
F \in \{ 0,1 \} \to \wp(\{ a,b \}^*)
F(0) = \{ a \}
F(1) = \{ a,b \}
F(01) = \{ a \} \{ a,b \} \{ \varepsilon \} = \{ aa,ab \}
F(\{ 0,01 \}) = F(0) \cup F(01) = \{ a \} \cup \{ aa,ab \}
= \{ a,aa,ab \}
```

{ abc }\*
 { ab, ac }\*
 { ac, bc }\*
 { a }\* { b, c }\*
 { a, b }\* { c }\*
 { a, b }\* { c }\*
 { a }\* { bc }\*

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What is  $F(\{01\}^*)$  when

1.  $\{a,b,c\}^*$ 

8.  $\{ab\}^* \{c\}^*$ 

 $F(0) = \{ a \} \text{ and } F(1) = \{ b, c \} ?$ 

$$F(\{\ 01\ \}^*) = F(\bigcup_{n\in\mathbb{N}} \{\ 01\ \}^n) = F(\bigcup_{n\in\mathbb{N}} \{\ (01)^n\ \}) = F(\{\ (01)^n\ |\ n\in\mathbb{N}\ \}) = \bigcup_{w\in\{\ (01)^n\ |\ n\in\mathbb{N}\ \}} F(w) = \bigcup_{n\in\mathbb{N}} F((01)^n) = \bigcup_{n\in\mathbb{N}} F(0)F(1))^n = (F(0)F(1))^* = (\{\ a\ \}\ \{\ b,c\ \})^* = \{\ ab,ac\ \}^*$$

### Closure under substitutions

lf

- $\blacktriangleright$   $\Sigma_1$  and  $\Sigma_2$  are alphabets,
- ▶  $L \subseteq \Sigma_1^*$  is context-free,
- $F \in \Sigma_1 \to \wp(\Sigma_2^*)$ , and
- ▶ F(a) is context-free for every  $a \in \Sigma_1$ , then F(L) is context-free.

### Closure under substitutions

### Idea:

▶ Replace each terminal a in a grammar for L with the start symbol of a grammar for F(a) (renaming nonterminals if necessary).

### Example

Two alphabets and three context-free languages:

$$\begin{split} &\Sigma_{1} = \{\ 0,1\ \} \\ &\Sigma_{2} = \{\ a,b\ \} \end{split}$$
 
$$&L = L(G), \ G = (\{\ S\ \}, \ \Sigma_{1},S \to 0S1 \mid \varepsilon,S) \\ &L_{0} = L(G_{0}), G_{0} = (\{\ S_{0}\ \}, \Sigma_{2},S_{0} \to ab, \qquad S_{0}) \\ &L_{1} = L(G_{1}), G_{1} = (\{\ S_{1}\ \}, \Sigma_{2},S_{1} \to ba, \qquad S_{1}) \end{split}$$

### Example

• A function from  $\Sigma_1$  to  $\wp(\Sigma_2^*)$ :

$$\begin{split} F &\in \Sigma_1 \to \wp(\Sigma_2^*) \\ F(0) &= L_0 \\ F(1) &= L_1 \end{split}$$

▶ F(L) = L(G'), where  $G' = (\{S, S_0, S_1\}, \Sigma_2, P, S)$  and P contains the following productions:

$$\begin{split} S &\to S_0 S S_1 \mid \varepsilon \\ S_0 &\to ab \\ S_1 &\to ba \end{split}$$

### **Application**

Let us prove that  $L = \{ 0^n 1^n 2^n 3^n \mid n \in \mathbb{N} \}$  is not context-free.

- ► Assume that *L* is context-free.
- ▶ Then F(L) is context-free:

$$F \in \{ 0, 1, 2, 3 \} \to \wp(\{ 0, 1, 2 \}^*)$$

$$F(0) = \{ 0 \}$$

$$F(1) = \{ 1 \}$$

$$F(2) = \{ 2 \}$$

$$F(3) = \{ \varepsilon \}$$

- ▶ But  $F(L) = \{ 0^n 1^n 2^n \mid n \in \mathbb{N} \}$ , which we know is not context-free.
- ▶ Thus *L* is not context-free.

### Closure under union

- ▶ If  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  are context-free, then  $L_1 \cup L_2$  is context-free.
- ▶ Substitute  $L_i$  for i in  $\{1, 2\}$ .

### Closure under union

Recall: F(L) is context-free if

- $\blacktriangleright \Sigma_1$  and  $\Sigma_2$  are alphabets,
- $L \subseteq \Sigma_1^*$  is context-free,
- $\blacktriangleright \ F \in \Sigma_1 \to \wp(\Sigma_2^*) \text{, and}$
- F(a) is context-free for every  $a \in \Sigma_1$ .

### In this case:

- $\Sigma_1 = \{ 1, 2 \}$ ,  $\Sigma_2$  is the union of the sets of terminals of some grammars for  $L_1$  and  $L_2$ .
  - $L = \{1, 2\} \subset \Sigma_1^*$  is context-free.
  - $F(1) = L_1, F(2) = L_2.$
  - ▶ F(1) and F(2) are context-free.

Thus  $F(L) = L_1 \cup L_2$  is context-free.

### Closure under concatenation

- ▶ If  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  are context-free, then  $L_1L_2$  is context-free.
- ▶ Substitute  $L_i$  for i in  $\{12\}$ .

### Closure under Kleene star

- ▶ If *L* is context-free, then *L*\* is context-free.
- Substitute L for 1 in  $\{1\}^*$ .

### Closure under Kleene plus

- ▶ If *L* is context-free, then *L*<sup>+</sup> is context-free.
- Substitute L for 1 in  $\{1\}^+$ .

### Homomorphisms

#### Assume that

- $\Sigma_1$  and  $\Sigma_2$  are alphabets and
- $h \in \Sigma_1 \to \Sigma_2^*.$

The function h maps symbols to words. It can be lifted to words and languages:

$$\begin{array}{ll} h \in \Sigma_1^* \to \Sigma_2^* & h \in \wp(\Sigma_1^*) \to \wp(\Sigma_2^*) \\ h(\varepsilon) &= \varepsilon & h(L) = \{ \ h(w) \mid w \in L \ \} \\ h(aw) &= h(a)h(w) & \end{array}$$

The function  $h \in \Sigma_1^* \to \Sigma_2^*$  is a string homomorphism.

### Closure under homomorphism

- ▶ If  $L \subseteq \Sigma_1^*$  is context-free, then h(L) is context-free.
- ▶ Apply the substitution  $F(a) = \{ h(a) \}$  to L.

Prove that  $L=\{\ 01^n23^n45^n6\ |\ n\in\mathbb{N}\ \}$  is not a context-free language over  $\{\ 0,1,2,3,4,5,6\ \}.$ 

You may use the fact that  $\{0^n1^n2^n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$  is not a context-free language over  $\{0,1,2\}$ .

Hint: Can you find a string homomorphism h for which  $h(L) = \{ 0^n 1^n 2^n \mid n \in \mathbb{N} \}$ ?

Prove that  $L = \{01^n23^n45^n6 \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$  is not a context-free language over  $\{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$ .

You may use the fact that  $\{0^n1^n2^n\mid n\in\mathbb{N}\}$  is not a context-free language over  $\{0,1,2\}$ .

Use the following homomorphism:

$$h(0) = \varepsilon$$
  $h(4) = \varepsilon$   
 $h(1) = 0$   $h(5) = 2$   
 $h(2) = \varepsilon$   $h(6) = \varepsilon$   
 $h(3) = 1$ 

### Closure under intersection

- ▶ If  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  are context-free, then  $L_1 \cap L_2$  is *not* necessarily context-free.
  - ► A counterexample:

$$L_{1} = \{ 0^{n}1^{n} \mid n \in \mathbb{N} \} \{ 2 \}^{*},$$
  

$$L_{2} = \{ 0 \}^{*} \{ 1^{n}2^{n} \mid n \in \mathbb{N} \}.$$

- If L is a context-free language over  $\Sigma$ , then  $\overline{L} = \Sigma^* \setminus L$  is not necessarily context-free.
  - $\blacktriangleright \text{ Note that } L_1\cap L_2=\overline{\overline{L_1}\cup\overline{L_2}}.$
- ▶ If  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  are context-free, then  $L_1 \setminus L_2$  is *not* necessarily context-free.

### Closure under intersection

- ▶ If L is context-free and R is regular, then  $L \cap R$  is context-free.
- ▶ If L is context-free and R is regular, then  $L \setminus R$  is context-free.
  - ▶ Note that  $L \setminus R = L \cap \overline{R}$ .

# If $\Sigma$ is an alphabet, $R \subseteq \Sigma^*$ is regular and $L \subseteq \Sigma^*$ is context-free, what can we say about $R \setminus L$ ?

- 1. It is always regular.
- 2. It is not necessarily regular, but always context-free.
- 3. It is not necessarily context-free.

Hint:  $\Sigma^* \setminus L = \overline{L}$ .

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If  $\Sigma$  is an alphabet,  $R\subseteq \Sigma^*$  is regular and  $L\subseteq \Sigma^*$  is context-free, what can we say about  $R\setminus L$ ?

- 1. It is always regular.
- It is not necessarily regular, but always context-free.
  - 3. It is not necessarily context-free.
- 3: If  $R=\Sigma^*$ , then  $R\setminus L=\Sigma^*\setminus L=\overline{L}$ , and  $\overline{L}$  is not necessarily context-free.

# Some algorithms

### Testing emptiness

For any context-free language L, given as a context-free grammar  $G=(N,\Sigma,P,S)$ , we can decide if  $L=\emptyset$ :

- ▶ A symbol  $X \in N \cup \Sigma$  is generating if  $X \Rightarrow^* w$  for some  $w \in \Sigma^*$ .
- ▶  $L = \emptyset$  if and only if S is not generating.

# Computing the generating symbols

The set of generating symbols can be computed (perhaps inefficiently) in the following way:

▶ Let the function  $step \in \wp(N \cup \Sigma) \to \wp(N \cup \Sigma)$  be defined by

$$step(\Gamma) = \left\{ \left. A \right. \middle| \begin{array}{l} A \to \alpha \in P \text{,} \\ \text{every symbol in } \alpha \text{ is in } \Gamma \end{array} \right\}.$$

- ▶ Initialise  $\Gamma$  to  $\Sigma$ .
- ▶ Repeat until  $step(\Gamma) \subseteq \Gamma$ :
  - ▶ Set  $\Gamma$  to  $\Gamma \cup step(\Gamma)$ .
- Return Γ.

# Computing the generating symbols

$$\left(\left\{\,S,A,B\,\right\},\left\{\,0,1\,\right\},\left\{\,S\to S,A\to B,B\to 0\,\right\},S\right)$$

- ▶ Initialisation:  $\Gamma_0 = \{0, 1\}.$
- ▶ Step 1:  $step(\Gamma_0) = \{ B \}, \Gamma_1 = \{ 0, 1, B \}.$
- ▶ Step 2:  $step(\Gamma_1) = \{ A, B \}, \ \Gamma_2 = \{ 0, 1, A, B \}.$
- ▶ Done:  $step(\Gamma_2) = \{A, B\} \subseteq \Gamma_2$ .

Compute the generating symbols of the grammar ( $\{S,A,B\},\{0,1\},P,S$ ), where P is defined in the following way:  $S \rightarrow 0A \mid B$ 

$$A \to 1S \mid \varepsilon$$
$$B \to AB$$

1. S.

2. A.3. B.

**4**. 0.

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$$S \to 0A \mid B$$

$$A \to 1S \mid \varepsilon$$

$$B \to AB$$

1.  $\Gamma = \{0, 1\}.$ 

2.  $\Gamma = \{0,1\} \cup \{A\}.$ 

3.  $\Gamma = \{0, 1, A\} \cup \{S, A\}.$ 

# Testing if the empty string is a member

For any context-free language L, given as a context-free grammar  $G=(N,\Sigma,P,S)$ , we can decide if  $\varepsilon\in L$ :

- ▶ A nonterminal  $A \in N$  is *nullable* if  $A \Rightarrow^* \varepsilon$ .
- We have  $\varepsilon \in L$  if and only if S is nullable.

### Computing the nullable nonterminals

The set of nullable nonterminals can be computed (perhaps inefficiently) in the following way:

▶ Let the function  $step \in \wp(N) \to \wp(N)$  be defined by

$$step(E) = \left\{ \left. A \right| \begin{array}{l} A \rightarrow \alpha \in P, \\ \text{every symbol in } \alpha \text{ is a} \\ \text{nonterminal in } E \end{array} \right\}.$$

- ▶ Initialise E to  $\emptyset$ .
- ▶ Repeat until  $step(E) \subseteq E$ :
  - ▶ Set E to  $E \cup step(E)$ .
- $\blacktriangleright$  Return E.

# Computing the nullable nonterminals

$$\left(\left\{\right.S,A,B\left.\right\},\left\{\right.0,1\left.\right\},\left\{\right.S\rightarrow AA,A\rightarrow\varepsilon\left.\right\},S\right)$$

- Initialisation:  $\Gamma_0 = \emptyset$ .
- ▶ Step 1:  $step(\Gamma_0) = \{A\}, \Gamma_1 = \{A\}.$
- $\blacktriangleright \ \, \mathrm{Step} \ \, 2 \colon \, step(\Gamma_1) = \{ \, S,A \, \} \text{, } \Gamma_2 = \{ \, S,A \, \}.$
- ▶ Done:  $step(\Gamma_2) = \{ S, A \} \subseteq \Gamma_2$ .

For any context-free language L, given as a context-free grammar  $G=(\underline{\ \ },\Sigma,\underline{\ \ \ },\underline{\ \ \ })$ , and for any nonempty string  $w\in\Sigma^*$ , we can decide if  $w\in L$ .

- ▶ Convert G to a grammar  $G' = (N, \Sigma, P, S)$  in Chomsky normal form such that  $w \in L(G') \Leftrightarrow w \in L(G)$ .
- ▶ Build a CYK table T for G' and w:
  - ▶  $T_{i,j}$  is defined for  $i, j \in \{1, ..., |w|\}$  satisfying  $i \leq j$ .
  - ▶  $T_{i,j} = \{ A \in N \mid A \Rightarrow^* w_i...w_j \}$ , where  $w_i$  denotes the i-th symbol in w (counting from 1).
- Check if  $S \in T_{1,|w|}$ .

The table can be computed in the following way:

First set

$$T_{i,i} = \{ A \mid A \to w_i \in P \}$$

for each  $i \in \{1, ..., |w|\}$ .

$$T_{i,j} = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} A \mid k \in \{\,i,...,j-1\,\}\,, \\ B \in T_{i,k}, C \in T_{k+1,j}, \\ A \to BC \in P \end{array} \right\}$$
 for all  $i,j \in \{1,...,|w|\}$  satisfying

j-i+1=2. • Repeat the previous step for j-i+1=3, 4 and so on up to |w|.

An example of dynamic programming.

$$S \to AA$$

$$A \to AB \mid 0$$

$$B \to 1 \mid 2$$

$$S \to AA$$

$$A \to AB \mid 0$$

$$B \to 1 \mid 2$$

$$S \to AA$$

$$A \to AB \mid 0$$

$$B \to 1 \mid 2$$

$$\begin{array}{c|c} \{A\} & \{B\} \\ \hline 0 & 1 & 2 \end{array}$$

$$S \to AA$$

$$A \to AB \mid 0$$

$$B \to 1 \mid 2$$

$$\begin{array}{c|cccc} \{A\} & \{B\} & \{B\} \\ \hline 0 & 1 & 2 \\ \end{array}$$

$$S \to AA$$

$$A \to AB \mid 0$$

$$B \to 1 \mid 2$$

$$\begin{array}{c|ccccc} \{ \ A \ \} & \\ \hline \{ \ A \ \} & \{ \ B \ \} & \{ \ B \ \} \\ \hline 0 & 1 & 2 \\ \end{array}$$

#### The CYK algorithm

$$S \to AA$$

$$A \to AB \mid 0$$

$$B \to 1 \mid 2$$

#### The CYK algorithm

$$S \to AA$$

$$A \to AB \mid 0$$

$$B \to 1 \mid 2$$

 $(\{\,S,T,U,Z,O\,\}\,,\{\,0,1\,\}\,,P,S)$ , where P contains the following productions:  $S\to ZT\mid OU\qquad Z\to 0$ 

 $O \rightarrow 1$ 

Consider the grammar

 $T \to SZ \mid 0$ 

 $U \rightarrow SO \mid 1$ 

Construct a CYK table for the string 0110.
 Construct a parse tree with S in the root and yield 0110.

$$S \rightarrow ZT \mid OU \qquad Z \rightarrow 0$$

$$T \rightarrow SZ \mid 0 \qquad O \rightarrow 1$$

$$U \rightarrow SO \mid 1$$

0	1	1	0

$$S \rightarrow ZT \mid OU \qquad Z \rightarrow 0$$

$$T \rightarrow SZ \mid 0 \qquad O \rightarrow 1$$

$$U \rightarrow SO \mid 1$$

$\set{T,Z}$			
0	1	1	0

$$S \to ZT \mid OU \qquad Z \to 0$$

$$T \to SZ \mid 0 \qquad O \to 1$$

$$U \to SO \mid 1$$

$\{T,Z\}$	$\{U,O\}$		
0	1	1	0

$$S \to ZT \mid OU \qquad Z \to 0$$

$$T \to SZ \mid 0 \qquad O \to 1$$

$$U \to SO \mid 1$$

$$S \rightarrow ZT \mid OU \qquad Z \rightarrow 0$$

$$T \rightarrow SZ \mid 0 \qquad O \rightarrow 1$$

$$U \rightarrow SO \mid 1$$

$\{T,Z\}$	$\{U,O\}$	$\{U,O\}$	$\{T,Z\}$
0	1	1	0

$$T \to SZ \mid 0 \qquad O \to 1$$

$$U \to SO \mid 1$$

 $S \to ZT \mid OU \qquad Z \to 0$ 

 $S \to ZT \mid OU \qquad Z \to 0$  $T \to SZ \mid 0 \qquad O \to 1$ 

 $S \to ZT \mid OU \qquad Z \to 0$  $T \to SZ \mid 0 \qquad O \to 1$ 

 $S \to ZT \mid OU \qquad Z \to 0$ 

$$T \rightarrow SZ \mid 0 \qquad O \rightarrow 1$$

$$U \rightarrow SO \mid 1$$

$$\emptyset \qquad \{T\}$$

$$\emptyset \qquad \{S\} \qquad \emptyset$$

$$\{T,Z\} \quad \{U,O\} \quad \{U,O\} \quad \{T,Z\}$$

$$0 \qquad 1 \qquad 1 \qquad 0$$

 $S \to ZT \mid OU \qquad Z \to 0$ 

$$S \rightarrow ZT \mid OU \qquad Z \rightarrow 0$$

$$T \rightarrow SZ \mid 0 \qquad O \rightarrow 1$$

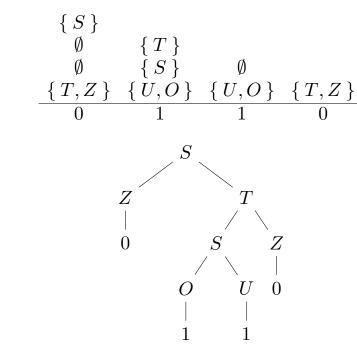
$$U \rightarrow SO \mid 1$$

$$\begin{cases} S \end{cases}$$

$$\emptyset \qquad \{ T \}$$

$$\emptyset \qquad \{ S \}$$

$$\{ T, Z \} \quad \{ U, O \} \quad \{ U, O \} \quad \{ T, Z \}$$



#### The CYK algorithm

- ▶ A potential problem: The size of G' can be quadratic in the size of G.
- ► A variant of the algorithm that does not use the UNIT transformation can be devised:
  - ▶ Time complexity:  $O(|G||w|^3)$ .
  - ▶ Space complexity:  $O(|G||w|^2)$ .

See Lange and Leiß.

## undecidable problems

Some

#### Some undecidable problems

The following things cannot, in general, be determined (using, say, a Turing machine):

- ▶ If a context-free grammar is ambiguous.
- ► If a context-free language, given by a context-free grammar, is *inherently* ambiguous.
- ▶ If  $L(G_1) = L(G_2)$  for two context-free grammars  $G_1$  and  $G_2$ .
- **.**..

#### Some undecidable problems

If you want to know more about why certain problems are undecidable, then you might be interested in the course *Computability*.

#### Today

- ► Closure properties for context-free languages.
- ► Some algorithms for context-free languages.
- Some undecidable problems.

#### Next lecture

- ▶ Pushdown automata.
- ► Turing machines.

### Finite automata and formal languages (DIT323, TMV029)

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2024-02-29

#### Today

- ▶ Pushdown automata.
- ► Turing machines.

- ► The class of regular languages can be defined using regular expressions or different kinds of automata.
- ▶ Is there a class of automata that defines the context-free languages?

A pushdown automaton (PDA) can be given as a 7-tuple  $(Q, \Sigma, \Gamma, \delta, q_0, Z_0, F)$ :

- ▶ A finite set of states (Q).
- ▶ An alphabet ( $\Sigma$  with  $\varepsilon \notin \Sigma$ ).
- ▶ A stack alphabet  $(\Gamma)$ .
- ▶ A transition function  $(\delta \in Q \times (\{ \, \varepsilon \, \} \cup \Sigma^1) \times \Gamma \to \operatorname{Fin}(Q \times \Gamma^*) ).$
- A start state  $(q_0 \in Q)$ .
- A start symbol  $(Z_0 \in \Gamma)$ .
- ▶ A set of accepting states  $(F \subseteq Q)$ .

An instantaneous description (ID) for a given PDA is a triple  $(q, w, \gamma)$ :

- ▶ The current state  $(q \in Q)$ .
- ▶ The remainder of the input string  $(w \in \Sigma^*)$ .
- ▶ The current stack  $(\gamma \in \Gamma^*)$ .

The following relation between IDs defines what kinds of transitions are possible:

$$\frac{u \in \{ \varepsilon \} \cup \Sigma^1 \quad (q, \alpha) \in \delta(p, u, Z)}{(p, uv, Z\gamma) \vdash (q, v, \alpha\gamma)}$$

The reflexive transitive closure of  $\vdash$  can be defined inductively:

$$\frac{I \vdash J \quad J \vdash^* K}{I \vdash^* K}$$

► A PDA:

$$\begin{aligned} &(\{q\},\{0\},\{A,B\},\delta,q,A,\emptyset) \\ &\delta(q,\varepsilon,A) = \{(q,\varepsilon)\} & \delta(q,\varepsilon,B) = \{(q,\varepsilon)\} \\ &\delta(q,0,A) = \emptyset & \delta(q,0,B) = \{(q,B)\} \end{aligned}$$

► Some possible transitions:

$$\begin{aligned} &(q,00,A) \vdash (q,00,\varepsilon) \\ &(q,00,B) \vdash (q,0,B) \vdash (q,\varepsilon,B) \vdash (q,\varepsilon,\varepsilon) \\ &(q,00,B) \vdash (q,0,B) \vdash (q,0,\varepsilon) \\ &(q,00,B) \vdash (q,00,\varepsilon) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{array}{ll} \delta(q,\varepsilon,A) = \{(q,\varepsilon)\} & \delta(q,\varepsilon,B) = \{(q,BA)\} \\ \delta(q,0,A) = \emptyset & \delta(q,0,B) = \{(q,\varepsilon)\} \\ \delta(q,1,A) = \emptyset & \delta(q,1,B) = \{(q,AB)\} \end{array}$$

Which of the following propositions are true for P?

1. 
$$(q, 01, AB) \vdash^* (q, \varepsilon, \varepsilon)$$
  
2.  $(q, 01, AB) \vdash^* (q, \varepsilon, AAA)$   
3.  $(q, 01, AB) \vdash^* (q, 1, \varepsilon)$ 

4.  $(q, 01, AB) \vdash^* (q, 1, AAA)$ 

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$$\delta(q,\varepsilon,A) = \{(q,\varepsilon)\} \qquad \delta(q,\varepsilon,B) = \{(q,BA)\}$$
 
$$\delta(q,0,A) = \emptyset \qquad \delta(q,0,B) = \{(q,BA)\}$$

$$\delta(q, \varepsilon, A) = \{(q, \varepsilon)\} \qquad \delta(q, \varepsilon, B) = \{(q, BA)\}$$

$$\delta(q, 0, A) = \emptyset \qquad \qquad \delta(q, 0, B) = \{(q, \varepsilon)\}$$

 $\delta(q, 1, B) = \{(q, AB)\}\$  $\delta(q, 1, A) = \emptyset$ 

All possible transitions:

$$(q,01,AB) \vdash (q,01,B) \vdash^{n} (q,01,BA^{n}) \vdash$$
$$(q,1,A^{n}) \vdash^{n} (q,1,\varepsilon)$$

The language of a PDA:

$$\begin{split} L((Q, \Sigma, \Gamma, \delta, q_0, Z_0, F)) &= \\ \{ \ w \in \Sigma^* \mid q \in F, \gamma \in \Gamma^*, (q_0, w, Z_0) \vdash^* (q, \varepsilon, \gamma) \ \} \end{split}$$

$$\begin{array}{ll} \delta(q,\varepsilon,A) = \{(q,\varepsilon)\} & \delta(q,\varepsilon,B) = \{(q,BA)\} \\ \delta(q,0,A) = \emptyset & \delta(q,0,B) = \{(q,\varepsilon)\} \\ \delta(q,1,A) = \emptyset & \delta(q,1,B) = \{(q,AB)\} \end{array}$$

Which of the following strings are members of L(P)?

Respond at https://pingo.coactum.de/729558.

$$\begin{split} \delta(q,\varepsilon,A) &= \{(q,\varepsilon)\} & \delta(q,\varepsilon,B) &= \{(q,BA)\} \\ \delta(q,0,A) &= \emptyset & \delta(q,0,B) &= \{(q,\varepsilon)\} \\ \delta(q,1,A) &= \emptyset & \delta(q,1,B) &= \{(q,AB)\} \end{split}$$

Which of the following strings are members of L(P)?

1. 00

No. All possible transitions:

$$(q,00,B)\vdash^n (q,00,BA^n)\vdash (q,0,A^n)\vdash^n (q,0,\varepsilon)$$

$$\delta(q, \varepsilon, A) = \{(q, \varepsilon)\} \qquad \delta(q, \varepsilon, B) = \{(q, BA)\}$$

$$\delta(q, 0, A) = \emptyset \qquad \qquad \delta(q, 0, B) = \{(q, \varepsilon)\}$$

$$\delta(q, 1, A) = \emptyset \qquad \qquad \delta(q, 1, B) = \{(q, AB)\}$$

Which of the following strings are members of L(P)?

2. 01

No. All possible transitions:

$$(q,01,B)\vdash^n (q,01,BA^n)\vdash (q,1,A^n)\vdash^n (q,1,\varepsilon)$$

$$\delta(q, \varepsilon, A) = \{(q, \varepsilon)\} \qquad \delta(q, \varepsilon, B) = \{(q, BA)\}$$

$$\delta(q, 0, A) = \emptyset \qquad \qquad \delta(q, 0, B) = \{(q, \varepsilon)\}$$

$$\delta(q, 1, A) = \emptyset \qquad \qquad \delta(q, 1, B) = \{(q, AB)\}$$

Which of the following strings are members of L(P)?

**3**. 10

Yes:

$$(q, 10, B) \vdash (q, 0, AB) \vdash (q, 0, B) \vdash (q, \varepsilon, \varepsilon)$$

Consider the PDA  $P=(\{q\},\{0,1\},\{A,B\},\delta,q,B,\{q\})$  again, where  $\delta$  is still defined in the following way:

$$\delta(q, \varepsilon, A) = \{(q, \varepsilon)\} \qquad \delta(q, \varepsilon, B) = \{(q, BA)\}$$
  

$$\delta(q, 0, A) = \emptyset \qquad \qquad \delta(q, 0, B) = \{(q, \varepsilon)\}$$
  

$$\delta(q, 1, A) = \emptyset \qquad \qquad \delta(q, 1, B) = \{(q, AB)\}$$

Which of the following strings are members of L(P)?

4. 11

Yes:

$$(q,11,B) \vdash (q,1,AB) \vdash (q,1,B) \vdash (q,\varepsilon,AB)$$

#### Pushdown automata

Another way to define a language for a PDA:

$$\begin{split} N((Q,\Sigma,\Gamma,\delta,q_0,Z_0,F)) = \\ \{ \ w \in \Sigma^* \mid q \in Q, (q_0,w,Z_0) \vdash^* (q,\varepsilon,\varepsilon) \ \} \end{split}$$

The following property holds for every language L:

$$(\exists \text{ a PDA } P_1. \ L(P_1) = L) \Leftrightarrow \\ (\exists \text{ a PDA } P_2. \ N(P_2) = L)$$

#### Grammars and automata

For any alphabet  $\Sigma$  (with  $\varepsilon \notin \Sigma$ ) and language  $L \subseteq \Sigma^*$  one can prove that the following two statements are equivalent:

- ▶ There is a context-free grammar G, with  $\Sigma$  as its set of terminals, satisfying L(G) = L.
- ▶ There is a pushdown automaton P with alphabet  $\Sigma$  satisfying L(P) = L.

#### Grammars and automata

Given a context-free grammar  $G=(N,\Sigma,P,S)$  we can construct the PDA  $Q=(\Set{q},\Sigma,N\cup\Sigma,\delta,q,S,\Set{q})$ , where  $\delta$  is defined in the following way:

$$\begin{array}{l} \delta(q,\varepsilon,A) = \{\; (q,\alpha) \mid A \rightarrow \alpha \in P \;\} \\ \delta(q,a,a) = \{\; (q,\varepsilon) \;\} \\ \delta(q,\_,\_) = \emptyset \end{array}$$

1. L(G) = L(Q). 2. L(G) = N(Q).

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- 1. L(G) = L(Q).
- $2. \ L(G) = N(Q).$

 $L(G) = L(0^*1).$ 

$$1. \ L(G) = L(Q).$$

2. 
$$L(G) = N(Q)$$
.

$$\begin{array}{l} \delta(q,\varepsilon,S) = \{\; (q,0S), (q,1) \;\} \\ \delta(q,0,0) = \{\; (q,\varepsilon) \;\} \\ \delta(q,1,1) = \{\; (q,\varepsilon) \;\} \\ \delta(q,\_,\_) = \emptyset \end{array}$$

- 1. L(G) = L(Q).
- 2. L(G) = N(Q).

$$\begin{array}{l} \delta(q,\varepsilon,S) = \{\; (q,0S), (q,1)\;\}\\ \delta(q,0,0) = \{\; (q,\varepsilon)\;\}\\ \delta(q,1,1) = \{\; (q,\varepsilon)\;\}\\ \delta(q,\_,\_) = \emptyset \end{array}$$

1. No:  $\varepsilon \in L(Q) \setminus L(G)$  because  $(q, \varepsilon, S) \vdash^* (q, \varepsilon, S)$ .

- 1. L(G) = L(Q).
- 2. L(G) = N(Q).

$$\begin{split} &\delta(q,\varepsilon,S) = \{\; (q,0S), (q,1)\; \} \\ &\delta(q,0,0) = \{\; (q,\varepsilon)\; \} \\ &\delta(q,1,1) = \{\; (q,\varepsilon)\; \} \\ &\delta(q,\_,\_) = \emptyset \end{split}$$

2. Yes.

## Turing machines

#### Turing machines

- ▶ Simple computers.
- ► An idealised model of what it means to "compute".

#### Intuitive idea

- A tape that extends arbitrarily far in both directions.
- ► The tape is divided into squares.
- ► The squares can be blank or contain symbols, chosen from a finite alphabet.
- ► A read/write head, positioned over one square.
- ► The head can move from one square to an adjacent one.
- Rules that explain what the head does.

#### Rules

- A finite set of states.
- When the head reads a symbol (blank squares correspond to a special symbol):
  - Check if the current state contains a matching rule, with:
    - A symbol to write.
    - ▶ A direction to move in.
    - ▶ A state to switch to.
  - ▶ If not, halt.

#### The Church-Turing thesis

- ► Turing motivated his design partly by reference to what a human computer does.
- ► The Church-Turing thesis: Every effectively calculable function on the positive integers can be computed using a Turing machine.
- "Effectively calculable function" is not a well-defined concept, so this is not a theorem.

#### Syntax

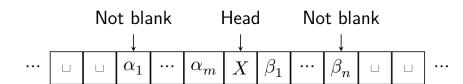
A Turing machine (TM) can be given as a 7-tuple  $(Q, \Sigma, \Gamma, \delta, q_0, \sqcup, F)$ :

- ▶ A finite set of states (Q).
- An input alphabet  $(\Sigma)$ .
- ▶ A tape alphabet ( $\Gamma$  with  $\Sigma \subseteq \Gamma$ ).
- ▶ A (partial) transition function  $(\delta \in Q \times \Gamma \rightharpoonup Q \times \Gamma \times \{ L, R \}).$
- A start state  $(q_0 \in Q)$ .
- ▶ A blank symbol ( $\sqcup \in \Gamma \setminus \Sigma$ ).
- ▶ A set of accepting states  $(F \subseteq Q)$ .

#### Instantaneous descriptions

An instantaneous description (ID) for a given TM is a 4-tuple  $(\alpha, q, X, \beta)$ , often written  $\alpha q X \beta$ :

- ▶ The current state  $(q \in Q)$ .
- ▶ The symbol under the head  $(X \in \Gamma)$ .
- ▶ Parts of the remaining tape  $(\alpha, \beta \in \Gamma^*)$ .



The following relation between IDs defines what kinds of transitions are possible:

$$\begin{split} \delta(p,X) &= (q,Y,\mathsf{R}) \\ (\alpha,p,X,Z\beta) \vdash (l(\alpha Y),q,Z,\beta) \\ \\ \frac{\delta(p,X) &= (q,Y,\mathsf{R})}{(\alpha,p,X,\varepsilon) \vdash (l(\alpha Y),q,\sqcup,\varepsilon)} \end{split}$$

The function l removes leading blanks.

$$\begin{split} \frac{\delta(p,X) = (q,Y,\mathsf{L})}{(\alpha Z,p,X,\beta) \vdash (\alpha,q,Z,r(Y\beta))} \\ \frac{\delta(p,X) = (q,Y,\mathsf{L})}{(\varepsilon,p,X,\beta) \vdash (\varepsilon,q,\sqcup,r(Y\beta))} \end{split}$$

The function r removes trailing blanks.

The reflexive transitive closure of  $\vdash$  can be defined inductively:

$$\frac{I \vdash J \quad J \vdash^* K}{I \vdash^* K}$$

► A Turing machine:

$$\left(\left\{\,p\,\right\},\left\{\,0\,\right\},\left\{\,0,1,{}_{\sqcup}\,\right\},\delta,p,{}_{\sqcup},\emptyset\right)$$
 
$$\delta(p,0)=(p,1,\mathsf{R})$$

► Some possible transitions:

$$p000 \vdash 1p00 \vdash 11p0 \vdash 111p$$

Consider the TM  $M = (\{p,q\}, \{0,1\}, \{0,1, \bot\}, \delta, p, \bot, \emptyset)$ , where  $\delta$  is defined in the following way:

$$\begin{split} \delta(p, \mathbf{x}) &= (q, \mathbf{x}, \mathsf{L}) \\ \delta(p, 0) &= (p, 1, \mathsf{R}) \\ \delta(p, 1) &= (p, 0, \mathsf{R}) \end{split} \qquad \begin{aligned} \delta(q, 0) &= (q, 0, \mathsf{L}) \\ \delta(q, 1) &= (q, 1, \mathsf{L}) \end{aligned}$$

Which of the following statements are true for M?

1. 
$$p01 \vdash^* 10p_{\sqcup}$$
 4.  $p111 \vdash^* 00p1$ 

 2.  $p01 \vdash^* q_{\sqcup}10$ 
 5.  $p111 \vdash^* 00q1$ 

 3.  $p01 \vdash^* q_{\sqcup}10$ 
 6.  $p111 \vdash^* 0q00$ 

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$$\begin{split} \delta(p,_{\sqcup}) &= (q,_{\sqcup}, \mathsf{L}) \\ \delta(p,0) &= (p,1,\mathsf{R}) & \delta(q,0) = (q,0,\mathsf{L}) \\ \delta(p,1) &= (p,0,\mathsf{R}) & \delta(q,1) = (q,1,\mathsf{L}) \\ p01 \vdash 1p1 \vdash 10p_{\sqcup} \vdash 1q0 \vdash q10 \vdash q_{\sqcup}10 \\ p111 \vdash 0p11 \vdash 00p1 \vdash 000p_{\sqcup} \vdash 00q0 \vdash 0q00 \vdash q000 \vdash q000 \vdash q_{\sqcup}000 \\ \end{split}$$

#### Language

The language of a TM:

$$\begin{split} L((Q, \Sigma, \Gamma, \delta, q_0, \mathbf{x}, F)) &= \\ \Big\{ \, w \in \Sigma^* \, \Big| \, \begin{aligned} q &\in F, X \in \Gamma, \alpha, \beta \in \Gamma^*, \\ q_0 w &\vdash^* \alpha q X \beta \end{aligned} \, \Big\} \end{split}$$

(Here  $q_0 \varepsilon$  means  $q_0 \sqcup .$ )

#### Halting

- ▶ Turing machines can fail to halt  $(I_0 \vdash I_1 \vdash ...)$ .
- ► A language is called *recursively enumerable* if it is the language of some Turing machine.
- ▶ A language is called recursive if it is the language of some Turing machine that always halts.
- There are languages that are recursively enumerable but not recursive.
- ▶ An example: The language of (strings representing) Turing machines that halt when given the empty string as input.

#### A hierarchy

A hierarchy of languages over the alphabet  $\Sigma$  (if  $|\Sigma| \geq 2$ ):

```
\begin{array}{ll} \operatorname{Fin}(\Sigma^*) & \varsubsetneq \\ \operatorname{Regular} & \varsubsetneq \\ \operatorname{Context-free} & \varsubsetneq \\ \operatorname{Recursive} & \varsubsetneq \\ \operatorname{Recursively enumerable} & \varsubsetneq \\ \wp(\Sigma^*) & \end{array}
```

#### Some undecidable problems

The following things cannot, in general, be determined (using, say, a Turing machine that always halts):

- ▶ If a Turing machine halts for a given input.
- ▶ If two Turing machines accept the same language.
- **>** ...

Consider the TM  $M = (\{p,q,r\}, \{1\}, \{1, \bot\}, \delta, p, \bot, \{r\})$ , where  $\delta$  is defined in the following way:

$$\begin{split} \delta(p,{\scriptscriptstyle \sqcup}) &= (r,{\scriptscriptstyle \sqcup},\mathsf{R}) \\ \delta(p,1) &= (q,{\scriptscriptstyle \sqcup},\mathsf{R}) \\ \delta(q,1) &= (p,{\scriptscriptstyle \sqcup},\mathsf{R}) \end{split}$$

Which of the following strings are members of L(M)? Does M always halt?

1. E	4. 111
2. 1	5. 1111
3. 11	6. It always halts

Respond at https://pingo.coactum.de/729558.

#### Today

- ▶ Pushdown automata.
- ► Turing machines.

#### Next lecture

► A summary of the course.

## Finite automata and formal languages (DIT323, TMV029)

Nils Anders Danielsson

2024-03-04

#### Today

► A summary of the course.

# Proofs and induction

#### **Proofs**

Throughout the course we have talked about how one can prove various things.

#### Some basic proof methods

- ▶ To prove  $p \Rightarrow q$ , assume p and prove q.
- ▶ To prove  $\forall x \in A$ . P(x), assume that we have an  $x \in A$  and prove P(x).
- ▶ To prove  $p \Leftrightarrow q$ , prove both  $p \Rightarrow q$  and  $q \Rightarrow p$ .
- ▶ To prove  $\neg p$ , assume p and derive a contradiction.
- ▶ To prove  $(p \Rightarrow q) \Rightarrow r$ , assume that you are given a method for proving q given p, and use that to prove r.

#### Proofs as data

We talked about how some proofs can be seen as "data". Some examples:

- $\blacktriangleright w \in L(G,S).$

#### Proofs as games

We talked about how some proofs can be seen as games.

A game corresponding to  $\forall x \in A. \ \exists y \in P(x). \ Q(x,y) \Rightarrow R(x,y)$ :

- 1. An adversary gives you  $x \in A$ . (If the adversary fails, then you win.)
- 2. Construct  $y \in P(x)$  and give to the adversary.
- 3. The adversary gives you a proof of Q(x, y).
- 4. You win if you can prove R(x,y).

If you have a strategy that ensures that you always win, no matter what the adversary does, then the statement is true.

#### Induction

- Mathematical induction.
- ► Complete induction.
- Mutual induction.
- ▶ Inductively defined sets:
  - Primitive recursion.
  - Structural induction.
- ▶ Inductively defined subsets.

#### Induction

Mathematical induction.

$$\begin{split} P(0) \wedge (\forall n \in \mathbb{N}.\ P(n) \Rightarrow P(n+1)) \Rightarrow \\ \forall n \in \mathbb{N}.\ P(n) \end{split}$$

- Complete induction.
- Mutual induction.
- ▶ Inductively defined sets:
  - ▶ Primitive recursion.
  - Structural induction.
- ▶ Inductively defined subsets.

#### Induction

- Mathematical induction.
- Complete induction.

$$(\forall n \in \mathbb{N}. \ (\forall i \in \mathbb{N}. \ i < n \Rightarrow P(i)) \Rightarrow P(n)) \Rightarrow \forall n \in \mathbb{N}. \ P(n)$$

- Mutual induction.
- ▶ Inductively defined sets:
  - ▶ Primitive recursion.
  - Structural induction.
- ▶ Inductively defined subsets.

#### One way to structure a proof by induction

If you want to prove something by induction on the structure of a list of natural numbers:

State what you want to prove, and how you intend to prove it:

Let us prove  $\forall xs \in List(\mathbb{N}).P(xs)$ , where P(xs) = ..., by induction on the structure of the list.

Prove each case:

We have two cases:

- ightharpoonup P(nil) holds because...
- ▶ Given  $x \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $xs \in List(\mathbb{N})$  and P(xs), we can prove P(cons(x, xs)) by...

## Regular languages

#### **Automata**

#### Terminology, notation:

- ► Alphabets.
- Strings.
- Languages.
- ▶ Concatenation.
- ► Exponentiation.
- ▶ Kleene star.
- **.**..

#### **DFAs**

- ▶ Deterministic.
- ▶ 5-tuples.
- ► Transition diagrams.
- ▶ Transition tables.
- ▶ Transition functions for strings  $(\delta)$ .
- ▶ The language of a DFA.

#### **DFAs**

#### States can be:

- ► Accessible.
- ► Equivalent to each other.
- ▶ Distinguishable from each other.

#### **NFAs**

- Nondeterministic.
- ► 5-tuples.
- ► Transition diagrams.
- ▶ Transition tables.
- ▶ Transition functions for strings  $(\delta)$ .
- ▶ The language of an NFA.

#### DFAs and NFAs

- ▶ DFAs can easily be turned into NFAs.
- ▶ NFAs can be turned into DFAs:
  - ▶ The subset construction.
  - Optimisation: Skip inaccessible states.
  - ▶ Potential problem: Exponential blowup.

#### $\varepsilon$ -NFAs

- ▶ Nondeterministic and with  $\varepsilon$ -transitions.
- ► 5-tuples.
- ► Transition diagrams.
- ► Transition tables.
- $\triangleright$   $\varepsilon$ -closure.
- ▶ Transition functions for strings  $(\hat{\delta})$ .
- ▶ The language of an  $\varepsilon$ -NFA.

#### DFAs, NFAs and $\varepsilon$ -NFAs

- ▶ NFAs can easily be turned into  $\varepsilon$ -NFAs.
- $\triangleright$   $\varepsilon$ -NFAs can be turned into DFAs:
  - ▶ The subset construction with  $\varepsilon$ -closure.
  - Optimisation: Skip inaccessible states.

#### Regular expressions

- Syntax.
- ▶ The language of a regular expression.

#### Regular expressions

▶ From the first lecture (almost):

```
M-x replace-regexp RET
  add(\([^,]*\),\([^)]*\)) RET
  \1 + \2 RET
```

- We used regular expressions to define languages.
- ► Here a kind of regular expression is used to replace certain (sub)strings with other text.

## Discuss whether it is a good idea to use this command.

```
M-x replace-regexp RET
  add(\([^,]*\),\([^)]*\)) RET
  \1 + \2 RET
```

You may want to consider a CFG with the following productions:

```
E 
ightarrow 	ext{add(} E 	ext{ , } E 	ext{ ) } \mid 	ext{mul(} E 	ext{ , } E 	ext{ ) } \mid 	ext{0} \mid 	ext{1} \mid ... \mid 	ext{9}
```

### Discuss whether it is a good idea to use this command.

You may want to consider a CFG with the following productions:

```
E 
ightarrow 	ext{add(} E , E ) \mid 	ext{mul(} E , E ) \mid 	ext{0} \mid 	ext{1} \mid ... \mid 	ext{9}
```

Perhaps not intended:

```
add(mul(1,2),3) \mapsto mul(1 + 2,3)
```

#### Regular expressions

Proving that two regular expressions denote the same language:

- ▶ Use known equalities and equational reasoning.
- Use the semantics and antisymmetry:

$$\begin{array}{l} L(e_1) \subseteq L(e_2) \wedge L(e_2) \subseteq L(e_1) \Rightarrow \\ L(e_1) = L(e_2) \end{array}$$

- Replace variables with fresh symbols.
- Convert to DFAs. (There is an algorithm for checking if two DFAs denote the same language.)

#### $\varepsilon$ -NFAs and regular expressions

Translating regular expressions to equivalent  $\varepsilon$ -NFAs:

Easy.

Translating  $\varepsilon$ -NFAs to equivalent regular expressions:

- By eliminating states.
- ▶ By using Arden's lemma: The equation  $X = AX \cup B$  has the least solution X = A\*B.

#### Regular languages

- ▶ Definition in terms of DFAs, NFAs,  $\varepsilon$ -NFAs or regular expressions.
- ► The pumping lemma.
- Closure properties:
  - Union.
  - ► Concatenation.
  - Kleene star/plus.
  - ▶ Intersection (product construction).
  - ► Complement.

#### The pumping lemma

For every alphabet  $\Sigma$  and  $\mathit{regular}$  language  $L \subseteq \Sigma^*$ .

$$\exists m \in \mathbb{N}.$$

$$\forall w \in L. \ |w| \ge m \Rightarrow$$

$$\exists t, u, v \in \Sigma^*.$$

$$w = tuv \land u \ne \varepsilon \land |tu| \le m \land$$

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}. \ tu^n v \in L$$

► The pumping lemma can be used to prove that a language is not regular.

#### The pumping lemma

For every alphabet  $\Sigma$  and  $\mathit{regular}$  language  $L\subseteq \Sigma^*.$ 

$$\exists m \in \mathbb{N}.$$
 
$$\forall w \in L. \ |w| \geq m \Rightarrow$$
 
$$\exists t, u, v \in \Sigma^*.$$
 
$$w = tuv \land u \neq \varepsilon \land |tu| \leq m \land$$
 
$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}. \ tu^n v \in L$$

➤ The last five lines are a necessary, but not a sufficient, condition for being regular: there is at least one non-regular language for which they hold.

#### The pumping lemma

For every alphabet  $\Sigma$  and  $\mathit{regular}$  language  $L \subseteq \Sigma^*.$ 

```
\exists m \in \mathbb{N}.
\forall w \in L. \ |w| \ge m \Rightarrow
\exists t, u, v \in \Sigma^*.
w = tuv \land u \ne \varepsilon \land |tu| \le m \land
\forall n \in \mathbb{N}. \ tu^n v \in L
```

▶ Do not give "the pumping lemma holds, so the language is regular" as an exam answer.

#### Regular languages

#### Algorithms:

- ▶ Conversions between different formats.
- ▶ Is the language empty?
- Is a given string a member of the language?
- Are two regular languages equal?
  - ► Are two states equivalent?
- Minimisation of DFAs.

# Context-free

languages

#### 4-tuples:

- ► Nonterminals.
- ► Terminals.
- ▶ Productions.
- ► Start symbol.

The language of a CFG can be defined in several equivalent ways:

- Derivations.
- ► Leftmost (rightmost) derivations.
- ▶ Parse trees.
- Recursive inference.

- Ambiguous grammars.
- Associativity.
- ▶ Precedence.

- ► Chomsky normal form:
  - $A \to a \text{ or } A \to BC$ .
- ▶ BIN, DEL, UNIT, TERM.

#### Pushdown automata

- ▶ A kind of finite automaton with a single stack.
- ▶ 7-tuples.
- Instantaneous descriptions.
- ► Transition relation (⊢).
- ▶ The languages of a PDA P: L(P) and N(P).

#### Context-free languages

- Definition in terms of CFGs or PDAs, which define the same class of languages.
- ► The pumping lemma.
- Closure properties:
  - Substitution.
  - ▶ Union.
  - Concatenation.
  - Kleene star/plus.
  - ► Homomorphism.
  - ► Intersection with a regular language.

```
1. \{uuvv \mid u \in \{0\}^+, v \in \{1\}^+\} \cup
    \{uvvu \mid u \in \{0\}^+, v \in \{1\}^+\}
2. \{uuvv \mid u \in \{0\}^+, v \in \{1\}^+\} \cap
    \{uvvu \mid u \in \{0\}^+, v \in \{1\}^+\}
3. \{ssttuvvu \mid s, u \in \{0\}^+, t, v \in \{1\}^+\}
4. \{uuvvuvvu \mid u \in \{0\}^+, v \in \{1\}^+\}
5. \{(uvvu)^n \mid u \in \{0\}^+, v \in \{1\}^+, n \in \mathbb{N}\}
6. \{uvu \mid u \in \{0,1\}^*, v \in \{2,3\}^*\}
```

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context-free? Try to use closure properties.

1. 
$$\{uuvv \mid u \in \{0\}^+, v \in \{1\}^+\} \cup$$

Yes. The union of two context-free languages.

 $\{uvvu \mid u \in \{0\}^+, v \in \{1\}^+\}$ 

2. 
$$\{uuvv \mid u \in \{0\}^+, v \in \{1\}^+\} \cap \{uvvu \mid u \in \{0\}^+, v \in \{1\}^+\}$$

Yes. The intersection of a context-free language and a regular language.

Yes. The concatenation of two context-free languages.

3.  $\{ssttuvvu \mid s, u \in \{0\}^+, t, v \in \{1\}^+\}$ 

context-free? Try to use closure properties.

4.  $\{uuvvuvvu \mid u \in \{0\}^+, v \in \{1\}^+\}$ 

No. This is  $\{0^{2m}1^{2n}0^m1^{2n}0^m\mid m,n\in\mathbb{N}\setminus\{0\}\}$ . Use the pumping lemma.

5. 
$$\{(uvvu)^n \mid u \in \{0\}^+, v \in \{1\}^+, n \in \mathbb{N}\}$$

No. Denote the language by L. Note that  $L \neq \{uvvu \mid u \in \{0\}^+, v \in \{1\}^+\}^*$ . If L had been context-free, then the language

$$L \cap L(0^{+}1^{+}0^{+}1^{+}0^{+}) = \{uvvuuvvu \mid u \in \{0\}^{+}, v \in \{1\}^{+}\} = \{0^{m}1^{2n}0^{2m}1^{2n}0^{m} \mid m, n \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}\}$$

would have been context-free, but it is not (use the pumping lemma).

6.  $\{uvu \mid u \in \{0,1\}^*, v \in \{2,3\}^*\}$ 

No, because if this language is context-free, then the intersection of this language with  $\left\{\,0,1\,\right\}^*$  is context-free, and that language is  $\left\{uu\mid u\in\left\{\,0,1\,\right\}^*\right\}$ , which is not context-free.

#### Context-free languages

#### Algorithms:

- ► Generating symbols.
- Is the language empty?
- Nullable nonterminals.
- ▶ Is the empty string a member of the language?
- Is a nonempty string a member of the language?
  - ► The CYK algorithm.

# Recursive or recursively enumerable languages

#### Turing machines

- A kind of simple computer.
- Read/write head, unbounded tape, finite set of states.
- 7-tuples.
- Instantaneous descriptions.
- ► Transition relation (⊢).
- ► The language of a TM.
- Halting.
- Undecidable problems.

#### Recursive languages

- ▶ Definition in terms of (halting) TMs, or lambda expressions, or recursive functions, or...
- ► The Church-Turing thesis.

#### Recursively enumerable languages

 Definition in terms of TMs, or lambda expressions, or recursive functions, or...

#### A hierarchy

A hierarchy of languages over the alphabet  $\Sigma$  (if  $|\Sigma| \geq 2$ ):

```
\begin{array}{ll} \text{Finite} & \varsubsetneq \\ \text{Regular} & \varsubsetneq \\ \text{Context-free} & \varsubsetneq \\ \text{Recursive} & \varsubsetneq \\ \text{Recursively enumerable} & \varsubsetneq \\ \wp(\Sigma^*) & \end{array}
```

#### A hierarchy

A hierarchy of languages over the alphabet  $\Sigma$  (if  $|\Sigma| \geq 2$ ):

```
Finite \normalfont \normalfo
```

It might not be a good idea to give "the language is context-free, but not regular" as an exam answer.

#### Discuss what you have learnt in this course.

- ► What has been most interesting?
  - ▶ What has been least interesting?
  - ▶ What would you like to know more about?
    - **...**

#### Coming up

- Next lecture: Old exam questions. Perhaps the following ones:
  - ▶ 2020-03-19: 2, 5 and 6.
  - **▶** 2021-03-18: 2.
  - ▶ 2021-08-18: 1, 2 and 4.
- ▶ Deadline for the seventh assignment: **Friday**.