Automata & languages

A primer on the Theory of Computation

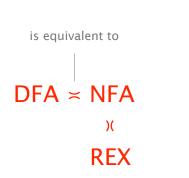


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Part 4 out of 5

Last week, we showed the equivalence of DFA, NFA and REX



We also started to look at non-regular languages

Pumping lemma

If A is a regular language, then there exist a number p s.t.

Any string in A whose length is at least p can be divided into three pieces xyz s.t.

- $xy^i z \in A$, for each i≥0 and
- |y| > 0 and
- $|xy| \le p$

Wait... What happens if A is a finite language?!

Pumping lemma	If A is a regular language, then there exist a number <i>p</i> s.t.	Pumping lemma	If A is a regular language , then there exist a number <i>p</i> s.t.
	<i>Any</i> string in <i>A</i> whose length is at least <i>p</i> can be divided into three pieces <i>xyz</i> s.t.		As we saw two weeks ago, all finite languages are regular
	 xyⁱz ∈ A, for each i≥0 and y > 0 and xy ≤ p 		So what's <i>p</i> ? <i>p</i> := len(longest_string) + 1 makes the lemma hold vacuously

To prove that a language *A* is not regular:

- Assume that A is regular
- 2 Since A is regular, it must have a pumping length p
- ³ Find one string *s* in *A* whose length is at least *p*
- For any split s=xyz,Show that you cannot satisfy all three conditions
- 5 Conclude that *s* cannot be pumped

To prove that a language A is not regular:

- 1 Assume that A is regular
- 2 Since *A* is regular, it must have a pumping length *p*
- 3 Find one string *s* in *A* whose length is at least *p*
- 4 For any split *s=xyz*, Show that you cannot satisfy all three conditions
- 5 Conclude that s cannot be pumped \longrightarrow A is not regular

Out of the 3 examples we saw last week

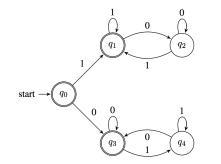
the last one is actually regular

 L_3 {w | w has an equal number of occurrences of 01 and 10}

101 is in L3, not 1010

- $L_1 \qquad \{0^n 1^n \mid n \ge 0\}$
- L₂ {w | w has an equal number of 0s and 1s}
- $L_3 = \{w \mid w \text{ has an equal number of occurrences of 01 and 10}\}$

how do you show that? You provide a DFA/NFA/REX (you pick)



Key observation

Any binary string beginning and ending with the same digit has an equal number of occurrences of the substrings 01 and 10

CFG's: Proving Correctness (Alternative proof)

- The recursive nature of CFG's means that they are especially amenable to correctness proofs.
- For example let's consider again our grammar $G = (S \rightarrow \varepsilon \mid ab \mid ba \mid aSb \mid bSa \mid SS)$
- We claim that $L(G) = L = \{x \in \{a, b\}^* \mid n_a(x) = n_b(x)\},\$ where $n_a(x)$ is the number of a's in x, and $n_b(x)$ is the number of b's.
- *Proof*: To prove that L = L(G) is to show both inclusions:
 - *i.* $L \subseteq L(G)$: Every string in L can be generated by *G*.
 - *ii.* $L \supseteq L(G)$: G only generate strings of L.

This week is all about

Context-Free Languages

a superset of Regular Languages

CFG's: Proving Correctness

- The recursive nature of CFG's means that they are especially amenable to correctness proofs.
- For example let's consider again our grammar

 $G = (S \rightarrow \varepsilon \mid ab \mid ba \mid aSb \mid bSa \mid SS)$

- We claim that L(G) = L = { $x \in \{a,b\}^* \mid n_o(x) = n_b(x)$ }, where $n_o(x)$ is the number of a's in x, and $n_b(x)$ is the number of b's.
- *Proof*: To prove that L = L(G) is to show both inclusions:
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 - *ii.* $L \supseteq L(G)$: G only generate strings of L.

Part *ii.* is easy (see why?), so we'll concentrate on part *i*.

Proving $L \subseteq L(G)$

• Inductive hypothesis:

Consider any string of length n+2. There are essentially 4 possibilities:

- 1. awb
- 2. bwa
- 3. awa
- 4. bwb

Given $S \Rightarrow^* w$, *awb* and *bwa* are generated from *w* using the rules $S \rightarrow aSb$ and $S \rightarrow bSa$ (induction hypothesis)

Proving $L \subseteq L(G)$

- $L \subseteq L(G)$: Show that every string x with the same number of a's as b's is generated by G. Prove by induction on the length n = |x|.
- Base case: The empty string is derived by $S \rightarrow \varepsilon$
- Inductive hypothesis:
 Accurate that C generates all as

Assume that G generates all strings of equal number of a's and b's of (even) length up to n.

Consider any string of length n+2. There are essentially 4 possibilities:

- 1. awb
- 2. bwa
- 3. awa
- 4. bwb

Proving $L \subseteq L(G)$

• Inductive hypothesis:

Now, consider a string like awa. For it to be in L requires that w isn't in L as w needs to have 2 more b's than a's.

- Split *awa* as follows: $_0a_1 \dots _{-1}a_0$ where the subscripts after a prefix *v* of *awa* denotes $n_a(v) - n_b(v)$
- Think of this as counting starting from 0.
 Each a adds 1. Each b subtracts 1. At the end, we should be at 0.

Somewhere along the string (in w), the counter crosses 0 (more b's)

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Proving $L \subseteq L(G)$

• Inductive hypothesis:

Somewhere along the string (in *w*), the counter crosses 0:

$$\underbrace{a_1 \cdots a_1}_{v \to 1} x_0 y \cdots a_1 a_0 \text{ with } x, y \in \{a, b\}$$

- *u* and *v* have an equal number of *a*'s and *b*'s and are shorter than *n*.
- − Given $S \Rightarrow^* u$ and $S \Rightarrow^* v$, the rule $S \rightarrow SS$ generates awa = uv (induction hypothesis)
- The same argument applies for strings like *bwb*

- Finite automata where the machine interpretation of regular languages.
- Push-Down Automaton are the machine interpretation for grammars.
- The problem of finite automata was that they couldn't handle languages that needed some sort of unbounded memory... something that could be implemented easily by a single (unbounded) integer register!
- Example: To recognize the language L = {0ⁿ1ⁿ | n ≥ 0}, all you need is to count how many 0's you have seen so far...
- Push-Down Automata allow even more than a register: a full stack!

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Recursive Algorithms and Stacks

- A stack allows the following basic operations
 - Push, pushing a new element on the top of the stack.
 - Pop, removing the top element from the stack (if there is one).
 - Peek, checking the top element without removing it.
- General Principle in Programming: *Any recursive algorithm* can be turned into a non-recursive one using a stack and a while-loop which exits only when stack is empty.

Recursive Algorithms and Stacks

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- General Principle in Programming: *Any recursive algorithm* can be turned into a non-recursive one using a stack and a while-loop which exits only when stack is empty.
- It seems that with a stack at our fingertips we can even recognize palindromes! Yoo-hoo!
 - Palindromes are generated by the grammar S $\rightarrow \epsilon$ | aSa | bSb.
 - Let's simplify for the moment and look at S \rightarrow # | aSa | bSb.

From CFG's to Stack Machines

- The CFG S \rightarrow # | aSa | bSb describes palindromes containing exactly 1 #.
- Question: Using a stack, how can we recognize such strings?

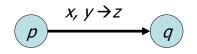
- To aid analysis, theoretical stack machines restrict the allowable operations. Each text-book author has his/her own version.
- Sipser's machines are especially simple:

PDA's à la Sipser

- Push/Pop rolled into a single operation: replace top stack symbol.
- In particular, replacing top by ε is a pop.
- No intrinsic way to test for empty stack.
 - Instead often push a special symbol ("\$") as the very first operation!
- Epsilon's used to increase functionality
 - result in default nondeterministic machines.

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Sipser's PDA Version



If at state *p* and next input is *x* and top stack is *y*, then go to state *q* and replace *y* by *z* on stack.

- $x = \varepsilon$: ignore input, don't read
- $y = \varepsilon$: ignore top of stack and push z
- $-z = \varepsilon$: pop y

In addition, push "\$" initially to detect the empty stack.

PDA: Formal Definition

- Definition: A pushdown automaton (PDA) is a 6-tuple
 M = (Q, Σ, Γ, δ, q₀, F):
 - Q, Σ , and q_0 , and F are defined as for an FA.
 - Γ is the stack alphabet.
 - δ is as follows:

Given a state p, an input symbol x and a stack symbol y, $\delta(p,x,y)$ returns all (q,z) where q is a target state and z a stack replacement for y.

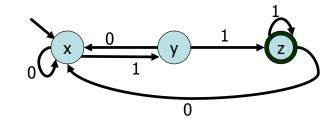
$$\delta: Q \times \Sigma_{\varepsilon} \times \Gamma_{\varepsilon} \to P(Q \times \Gamma_{\varepsilon})$$

PDA Exercises

• Draw the PDA $\{a^i b^j c^k \mid i, j, k \ge 0 \text{ and } i=j \text{ or } i=k\}$

• Draw the PDA for $L = \{x \in \{a,e\}^* \mid n_a(x) = 2n_e(x)\}$

Right Linear Grammars vs. Regular Languages



- The DFA above can be simulated by the grammar
 - $-x \rightarrow 0x \mid 1y$
 - $-y \rightarrow 0x \mid 1z$
 - $-z \rightarrow 0x \mid 1z \mid \varepsilon$
- Definition: A right-linear grammar is a CFG such that every production is of the form $A \rightarrow uB$, or $A \rightarrow u$ where u is a terminal string, and A,B are variables.

Model Robustness

- The class of regular languages was quite robust
 - Allows multiple ways for defining languages (automaton vs. regexp)
 - Slight perturbations of model do not change result (non-determinism)
- The class of context free languages is also robust: you can use either PDA's or CFG's to describe the languages in the class.
- However, it is less robust than regular languages when it comes to slight perturbations of the model:
 - Smaller classes
 - Right-linear grammars
 - Deterministic PDA's
 - Larger classes
 - Context Sensitive Grammars

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Right Linear Grammars vs. Regular Languages

- Theorem: If $M = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$ is an NFA then there is a right-linear grammar G(M) which generates the same language as M.
- Proof:
 - Variables are the states: V = Q
 - Start symbol is start state: $S = q_0$
 - Same alphabet of terminals Σ
 - A transition $q_1 \rightarrow a \rightarrow q_2$ becomes the production $q_1 \rightarrow aq_2$
 - For each transition, $q_1 \rightarrow aq_2$ where q_2 is an accept state, add $q_1 \rightarrow a$ to the grammar
- Homework: Show that the reverse holds. Right-linear grammar can be converted to a FSA. This implies that $RL \approx Right$ -linear CFL.

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- Homework: Show that the reverse holds. Right-linear grammar can be converted to a FSA. This implies that RL ≈ Right-linear CFL.
- Question: Can every CFG be converted into a right-linear grammar?

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Chomsky Normal Form

- Definition: A CFG is said to be in Chomsky Normal Form if every rule in the grammar has one of the following forms:
 - $S \rightarrow \varepsilon$ (ε for epsilon's sake only)
 - $A \rightarrow BC$ (dyadic variable productions)
 - $-A \rightarrow a$ (unit terminal productions)

where *S* is the start variable, *A*,*B*,*C* are variables and *a* is a terminal.

• Thus epsilons may only appear on the right hand side of the start symbol and other rights are either 2 variables or a single terminal.

Chomsky Normal Form

- Chomsky came up with an especially simple type of context free grammars which is able to capture all context free languages, the Chomsky normal form (CNF).
- Chomsky's grammatical form is particularly useful when one wants to prove certain facts about context free languages. This is because assuming a much more restrictive kind of grammar can often make it easier to prove that the generated language has whatever property you are interested in.
- Noam Chomsky, linguist at MIT, creator of the Chomsky hierarchy, a classification of formal languages. Chomsky is also widely known for his left-wing political views and his criticism of the foreign policy of U.S. government.



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$CFG \rightarrow CNF$

- Converting a general grammar into Chomsky Normal Form works in four steps:
- 1. Ensure that the start variable doesn't appear on the right hand side of any rule.
- 2. Remove all epsilon productions, except from start variable.
- 3. Remove unit variable productions of the form $A \rightarrow B$ where A and B are variables.
- 4. Add variables and dyadic variable rules to replace any longer nondyadic or non-variable productions

1. No start variable on right hand side

 $CFG \rightarrow CNF$: Example

 $S \rightarrow \varepsilon |a|b|aSa|bSb$

 $S \rightarrow \varepsilon |a|b|aSa|bSb$

 $S' \rightarrow S$

 $CFG \rightarrow PDA$

2. Only start state is allowed to have ε $S' \rightarrow S|_{\mathcal{E}}$ $S \rightarrow \varepsilon |a|b|aSa|bSb|aa|bb$

• CFG's can be converted into PDA's.

3. Remove unit variable productions of the form $A \rightarrow B$. $S' \rightarrow S[\varepsilon|a|b|aSa|bSb|aa|bb$ $S \rightarrow a|b|aSa|bSb|aa|bb$

• In "NFA \rightarrow REX" it was useful to consider GNFA's as a middle stage.

• A Generalized PDA (GPDA) is like a PDA, except it allows the top stack symbol to be replaced by a whole string, not just a single character

or the empty string. It is easy to convert a GPDA's back to PDA's by

changing each compound push into a sequence of simple pushes.

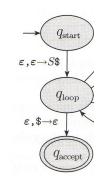
Similarly, it's useful to consider Generalized PDA's here.

- CFG \rightarrow CNF: Example continued
 - $S' \rightarrow S[\varepsilon|a|b|aSa|bSb|aa|bb$ $S \rightarrow a|b|aSa|bSb|aa|bb$
- 4. Add variables and dyadic variable rules to replace any longer productions.
 - $S' \rightarrow \varepsilon |a|b|aSa|bSb|aa|bb|AB|CD|AA|CC$ $S \rightarrow a|b|aSa|bSb|aa|bb|AB|CD|AA|CC$ $A \rightarrow a$ $B \rightarrow SA$ $C \rightarrow b$ $D \rightarrow SC$

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CFG → GPDA Recipe	

- 1. Push the marker symbol \$ and the start symbol \$ on the stack.
- 2. Repeat the following steps forever
 - a. If the top of the stack is the variable symbol A, nondeterministically select a rule of A, and substitute A by the string on the right-hand-side of the rule.
 - b. If the top of the stack is a terminal symbol a, then read the next symbol from the input and compare it to *a*. If they match, continue. If they do not match reject this branch of the execution.
 - c. If the top of the stack is the symbol \$, enter the accept state. (Note that if the input was not yet empty, the PDA will still reject this branch of the execution.)

- S → aTb | b
- T → Ta | ε



- To convert PDA's to CFG's we'll need to simulate the stack inside the productions.
- Unfortunately, in contrast to our previous transitions, this is not quite as constructive. We will therefore only state the theorem.
- Theorem: For each push-down automation there is a context-free grammar which accepts the same language.
- Corollary: PDA ≈ CFG.

CFG \rightarrow PDA: Now you try!

• Convert the grammar $S \rightarrow \varepsilon |a| b | aSa | bSb$

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Context Sensitive Grammars

An even more general form of grammars exists.
 In general, a non-context free grammar is one in which whole mixed variable/terminal substrings are replaced at a time.
 For example with Σ = {a,b,c} consider:

$S \rightarrow \varepsilon \mid ASBC$	$aB \rightarrow ab$	
$A \rightarrow a$	$bB \rightarrow bb$	
$CB \rightarrow BC$	$bC \rightarrow bc$	
	$cC \rightarrow cc$	

• When length of LHS always ≤ length of RHS (plus some other minor restrictions), these general grammars are called context sensitive.

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What language is

generated by this non-

context-free grammar?

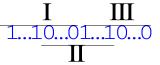
- Design a CFG (or PDA) for the following languages:
- L = { w $\in \{0,1,2\}^*$ | there are k 0's, k 1's, and k 2's for $k \ge 0$ }
- L = { w $\in \{0,1,2\}^*$ | with |0| = |1| or |0| = |2| or |1| = |2| }
- L = { $0^k 1^k 2^k | k \ge 0$ }

Tandem Pumping

- Analogous to regular languages there is a pumping lemma for context free languages. The idea is that you can pump a context free language at two places (but not more).
- Theorem: Given a context free language *L*, there is a number *p* (tandem-pumping number) such that any string in *L* of length ≥ *p* is tandem-pumpable within a substring of length *p*. In particular, for all *w* ∈ *L* with |*w*| ≥ *p* we we can write:
 - w = uvxyz
 - $|vy| \ge 1$ (pumpable areas are non-empty)
 - $|vxy| \le p$
- (pumping inside length-p portion)
- $uv^i x y^i z \in L$ for all $i \ge 0$ (tandem-pump v and y)
- If there is no such p the language is not context-free.

Proving Non-Context Freeness: Example

- $L = \{1^n 0^n 1^n 0^n \mid n \text{ is non-negative }\}$
- Let's try $w = 1^p 0^p 1^p 0^p$. Clearly $w \in L$ and $|w| \ge p$.
- With |vxy| ≤ p, there are only three places where the "sliding window" vxy could be:



• In all three cases, pumping up such a case would only change the number of 0s and 1s in that part and not in the other two parts; this violates the language definition.

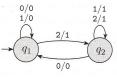
Proving Non-Context Freeness: You try!

- L = { x=y+z | x, y, and z are binary bit-strings satisfying the equation }
- The hard part is to come up with a word which cannot be pumped, such as...

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Transducers

- Definition: A finite state transducer (FST) is a type of finite automaton whose output is a string and not just accept or reject.
- Each transition of an FST is labeled with two symbols, one designating the input symbol for that transition (as for automata), and the other designating the output symbol.
 - We allow $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}$ as output symbol if no symbol should be added to the string.
- The figure on the right shows an example of a FST operating on the input alphabet {0,1,2} and the output alphabet {0,1}



• Exercise: Can you design a transducer that produces the inverted bitstring of the input string (e.g. 01001 → 10110)?