WELL COME TO

Automata Theory and Computability Course(18CS54)

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Module-I

Content to be covered:

Why study the Theory of Computation, Languages and Strings:

- ✓ Central Concepts of Automata Theory: Alphabets, Strings, Languages
- ✓ A Language Hierarchy

Finite State Machines (FSM):

Introduction

- ✓ Deterministic FSM,
- ✓ Regular languages, Designing FSM,
- ✓ Nondeterministic FSMs,
- ✓ Simulators for FSMs,
- ✓ Minimizing FSMs,
- ✓ Canonical form of Regular languages,

Finite State Transducers, Bidirectional Transducers.

(Textbook 1: Ch 1,2, 3, 5.1 to 5.10)

What is Automata?

Automata Theory is a branch of computer science that deals with designing abstract self-propelled computing devices that follow a predetermined sequence of operations automatically. An automaton with a finite number of states is called a **Finite Automaton**

Why Study the Theory of Computation or automata theory?

Implementations come and go.



IBM 7090 Programming in the 1950's

ENTRY	SXA	4, RETURN
	LDQ	Х
	FMP	A
	FAD	В
	XCA	
	FMP	Х
	FAD	С
	STO	RESULT
RETURN	TRA	0
A	BSS	1
В	BSS	1
С	BSS	1
Х	BSS	1
TEMP	BSS	1
STORE	BSS	1
	END	

 $Ax^2 + Bx + C$

Goals of Problem Solving

Principles of Problems:

- Does a solution exist?
 - If not, is there a restricted variation?
 - Can solution be implemented in fixed memory?
 - Is Solution efficient?
 - Growth of time & memory with problem size?

Applications of the automata Theory

- Used in design of Lexical analyzer of compilers which breaks source program into tokens like identifies, Keywords etc..
- Software for designing and checking the behavior of the Digital circuits.
- FSMs (finite state machines) for vending machines, Traffic signals, communication protocols, & building security devices.
- String Matching: Searching words, phrase and other pattern in large bodies of text(like web pages)
- Interactive Computer games as nondeterministic FSMs.
- Used in Natural languages processing: for speech to text and text to speech conversions.
- Artificial Intelligence: Medical Dignosis, Factory Scheduling etc..

The Central Concepts of Automata Theory (Alphabets, Strings, Languages etc.)

This is one of MOST important Section. It includes the TERMINOLOGY required to be successful in this course.

KNOW this section & ALL DEFINITIONS!!

Alphabet - Σ

- An alphabet is a non-empty, finite set of characters/symbols
- Use Σ to denote an alphabet
- Examples

$$\Sigma = \{ a, b \}$$

$$\Sigma = \{ 0, 1, 2 \}$$

- $\Sigma = \{ a, b, c, ..., z, A, B, ..., Z \}$
- $\Sigma = \{ #, \$, *, @, \& \}$

String

- A string is a finite sequence, possibly empty, of characters or symbols drawn from some alphabet Σ.
- ε is the empty string
- Σ* is the set of all possible strings over an alphabet Σ.



Example Alphabets & Strings

Alphabet name	Alphabet symbols	Example strings
The lower case English alphabet	{a, b, c,, z}	ɛ, aabbcg, aaaaa
The binary alphabet	{0, 1}	ε, 0, 001100,11
A star alphabet	{★, ❹, ☆, ★, ☆, ☆}	ε, ΟΟ, Ο★★☆★☆
A music alphabet	{₀, ∫, ∫, ♪, ♪, ♪, ♪, ●}	ε,

Functions/Operations on String

Length:

- |s| is the length of string s
- |s| is the number of characters in string s.

|**ε**| = 0 |1001101| = 7

 $\#_{c}(s)$ is defined as the number of times that *c* occurs in *s*.

Ex.: $\#_a(abbaaa) = 4$.

Powers of an alphabet:

Let \sum be an alphabet.

• \sum^{k} = the set of all strings of length k

$$\circ \Sigma^* = \Sigma^0 \cup \Sigma^1 \cup \Sigma^2 \cup \dots$$

$$\circ \Sigma^+ = \Sigma^1 \cup \Sigma^2 \cup \Sigma^3 \cup \dots$$

For **example**: $\sum_{k=0}^{0} = \{ \epsilon \}$, k =0

$$\begin{split} \Sigma^3 &= \{000,\,001,\,010,\,011,\,100,\,101,\,110,\,111\} \\ & k = 3 \end{split}$$



- Σ* is defined as the set of all possible strings of any length that can be formed from the alphabet Σ
 - $-\Sigma^*$ is a language
- Σ^* contains an *infinite* number of strings - Σ^* is *countably infinite*

Σ^* Example

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

Σ^+ - Positive closure

- Definition: The set ∑⁺ is the infinite set of all possible strings of all possible lengths over ∑ excluding ε.
- Representation $-\sum^{+} = \sum_{1} \cup \sum_{2} \cup \dots$

$$(or) \sum^{+} = \sum^{*} - \{\varepsilon\}$$

- **Example** If ∑ = {a, b},
 - then $\Sigma^+ = \{a, b, aa, ab, bb, ba, \dots\}$

Other functions on Strings

Concatenation: the *concatenation* of 2 strings s and t is the string formed by appending t to s; written as s||t or more commonly, st

Example:

If x = good and y = bye, then xy = goodbye
and yx = byegood

- Note that |xy| = |x| + |y|
- ε is the identity for concatenation of strings. So, $\forall x (x \varepsilon = \varepsilon x = x)$
- Concatenation is associative. So,

 $\forall s, t, w ((st)w = s(tw))$



Replication: For each string w and each natural number k, the string w^k is:

$$W^{0} = \varepsilon$$
$$W^{k+1} = W^{k} W$$

Examples:

$$a^3 = aaa$$

 $(bye)^2 = byebye$
 $a^0b^3 = bbb$
 $b^2y^2e^2 = ??$





Reverse: For each string w, w^R is defined as:

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if |w| = 0 then w^{R} = w = \varepsilon
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if |w| = 1 then w^{R} = w
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if |w| > 1 then:
\exists a \in \Sigma \ (\exists u \in \Sigma^* \ (w = ua))
```

So define $W^{R} = a u^{R}$

A Language

A **language** is a (finite or infinite) set of strings over a (finite) alphabet Σ .

Examples: Let $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$

Some languages over Σ : $L_1 = \emptyset = \{\}$ // the empty language, no strings $L_2 = \{\epsilon\}$ // language contains only the empty string $L_3 = \{a, b\}$ $L_4 = \{\epsilon, a, aa, aaa, aaaa, aaaaa\}$ so on...

Description Languages

Remember we are defining a set Set Notation:

 $L = \{ w \in \Sigma^* \mid description \text{ of } w \}$ $L = \{ w \in \{a,b,c\}^* \mid description \text{ of } w \}$

- "Description of w" can take many forms but must be precise
- Notation can vary, but must precisely define

Example Language Definitions

$L = \{ w \in \{a, b\}^* \mid all a's precede all b's \}$

- aab, aaabb, and aabbb are in L.
- aba, ba, and abc are not in L.

Example Language Definitions

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

- $L = \{ w \in \Sigma^* : |w| < 5 \}$
- $L = \{ w \in \Sigma^* \mid w \text{ begins with } b \}$
- $L = \{ w \in \Sigma^* \mid \#_b(w) = 2 \}$
- L = { w $\in \Sigma^*$ | each a is followed by exactly 2 b's}
- $L = \{ w \in \Sigma^* | w \text{ does not begin with } a \}$

The Membership Problem

Given a string $w \in \sum and a$ language L over \sum , decide whether or not $w \in L$.

Example:

(K ()

Let w = 100011

Q) Is $w \in$ the language of strings with equal number of 0s and 1s?

Operation on Languages

- Cardinality of a Language: the number of strings in the language L.
- Denoted as |L|
- Smallest language over any Σ is \emptyset , with cardinality 0.
- The largest is Σ^* .

Concatenation of Languages

Definition 1. Given languages L_1 and L_2 , we define their *concatenation* to be the language $L_1 \circ L_2 = \{xy \mid x \in L_1, y \in L_2\}$

Example 2. • $L_1 = \{\text{hello}\}$ and $L_2 = \{\text{world}\}$ then $L_1 \circ L_2 = \{\text{helloworld}\}$

- $L_1 = \{00, 10\}; L_2 = \{0, 1\}. L_1 \circ L_2 = \{000, 001, 100, 101\}$
- L_1 = set of strings ending in 0; L_2 = set of strings beginning with 01. $L_1 \circ L_2$ = set of strings containing 001 as a substring
- $L \circ \{\epsilon\} = L$. $L \circ \emptyset = \emptyset$.

Other Examples:

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L_1 = \{cat, dog\}
L_2 = \{apple, pear\}
```

Others Operations....

Kleene Closure:

•

$$\mathbf{L}^* = \bigcup_{i=0}^{\infty} \quad \mathbf{L}^i = \mathbf{L}^0 \mathbf{U} \mathbf{L}^1 \mathbf{U} \mathbf{L}^2 \mathbf{U} \dots$$

Positive Closure:

$$L^{+} = \bigcup_{i=0}^{\infty} L^{i} = L^{1} U L^{2} U \dots$$

A Language Hierarchy

Generator vs. Recognizer

Reminder...

Given a problem, we can develop a machine (automaton) that

Generates a solutions

OR

Recognizes a solution

Generator vs. Recognizer

Example

Given 2 integers A & B, determine the sum.

- Generator: Write a program to accept A & B as input then compute the sum A+B
- Recognizer: Write a program to accept A & B & C as input then determine if A+B = C

We usually write Generators! But when would an Recognizer be an appropriate solution?

Decision Problems

A decision problem is simply a problem for which the answer is yes or no (True or False). A decision procedure answers a decision problem.

Example

• Given an integer *n*, does *n* have a pair of consecutive integers as factors?

The language recognition problem: Given a language L and a string w, is w in L?





Turning Problems into Decision Problems

Casting multiplication as decision:

- Problem: Given two nonnegative integers, compute the product.
- Encoding : Transform computing into verification.
- The language:

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L = {w of the form: integer<sub>1</sub>>x<integer<sub>2</sub>>=<integer<sub>3</sub>>,
where: <integer<sub>n</sub>> is any well formed
integer, and integer<sub>3</sub> = integer<sub>1</sub> *
integer<sub>2</sub> }
```

12x9=108 12=12 12x8=108

A Hierarchy of Languages



D=decidable SD = Semidecidable

(Ke)

Chomsky Hierarchy of Languages

Languages from "simplest" to "complex" Each is a subset of the ones below

- Regular
- Context Free
- Context Sensitive
- Recursively Enumerable

Can be defined by the type of Machine that will recognize it.



Regular Languages

A Regular Language is one that can be recognized by a Finite State Machine.

An FSM to accept a*b*:



Context Free Language

A Context Free Language is one that can be recognized by a Push Down Automata.

A PDA to accept $A^nB^n = \{a^nb^n : n \ge 0\}$


Decidable & Semidecidable Languages

A Decidable Language is one that is recognized by a Turing Machine which halts on all input strings.

A Semidecidable Language is one that is recognized by a Turing Machine which halts on all input strings which are in the language, but may loop infinitely on some strings which are not in the language.

5. FINITE STATE MACHINE(FSM)

The simplest and most efficient computational device that we will consider is the Finite State Machine (FSM).

➢A Finite State Machine (or FSM) is a computational device whose input is a string and whose output is one of two values that we can call Accept and Reject.

(FSMs are also sometimes called finite state automata or FSAs.)

If *M* is an FSM, the input string is fed to *M* one character at a time, left to right. Each time it receives a character, *M* considers its current state and the new character and chooses a next state. One or more of *M*'s states may be marked as accepting states. If *M* runs out of input and is in an accepting state, it accepts. If, however, *M* runs out of input and is not in an accepting state, it rejects. The number of steps that *M* executes on input *w* is exactly equal to |w|, so *M* always halts and either accepts or rejects.

Example: Finite Automaton modelling an on/off switch



Example: Finite Automaton recognizing the string then



Deterministic FSM(DFSM)

Definition 2.2.1 A finite automaton is a 5-tuple $M = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q, F)$, where

- 1. Q is a finite set, whose elements are called *states*,
- 2. Σ is a finite set, called the *alphabet*; the elements of Σ are called *symbols*,
- 3. $\delta: Q \times \Sigma \to Q$ is a function, called the *transition function*,
- 4. q is an element of Q; it is called the *start state*,
- 5. F is a subset of Q; the elements of F are called *accept states*.

Language Accepted by FSM:

Definition 2.2.3 Let $M = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q, F)$ be a finite automaton. guage L(M) accepted by M is defined to be the set of all string accepted by M:

 $L(M) = \{w : w \text{ is a string over } \Sigma \text{ and } M \text{ accepts } w \}.$

Definition 2.2.4 A language A is called *regular*, if there exists a finite automaton M such that A = L(M).

Designing of DFSM (Pattern Based Problems)

Design DFSM to:

- 1. Accept all the strings of a's and b's
- 2. Accept all the strings a's and b's begin with b
- 3. Accepts all the strings of a's and b's ending with ab
- 4. Recognize all the strings of 0's and 1's having substring 011
- 5. L = { w : #a(w) ≥ 1 , Σ = { a,b} }
- Obtain a DFSM to accept to accept strings of a's and b's starting with the sub-string ab.
- Obtain a DFSM to accept all strings of a's and b's ending with the string abb.
- 8. Obtain a DFSM to accept all strings of a's and b's which do not ending with the string abb









8. Obtain a DFSM to accept all strings of a's and b's which do not ending with the substring abb





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Design a DFSM for $L = \{w \in \{a,b\}^* \mid w \text{ contains even number of } a's \&$ odd number of b's } Design a DFSM for L = {w \in {a,b}* | w contains even number of a's & even number of b's }

4 Δ Cr . 6 6 6 5

a

w = aabbb el, w = ababb el

evente won b's odd a's over b's even ci, odd b's odd a's, odd b's



Draw a DFSM to accept the Language L = { w : w has odd number of 1's and followed by even number of 0's }





Non-Deterministic FSM(NDFSM)

Definition:

 $M = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$, where:

Q: is a finite set of states Σ : is an alphabet

 $q_0 \in Q$: is the initial state

 $F \subseteq Q$: is the set of accepting states, and

 δ : is the transition relation. Q×(Σ \cup {ε}) \rightarrow 2^Q

Accepting by an NDFSM

element of A.

OXE - Q M accepts a string w iff there exists some path along which w drives M to some

 $(\varphi - \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{$

 $\delta(q \in] \rightarrow \{1, 2\}$

The language accepted by M, denoted L(M), is the set of all strings accepted by M.

Sources of Non-determinism

What differ from determinism?



Why NDFSM? = DESM

Very easy to construct

Has the ability to guess something about its input is more powerful than DFSM

Has power to be in several states at a time

1. Construct a NDFSM to accept L = { w | w ends with ab, $\Sigma = \{a,b\}$ Draw the Transition table(TT) and show the moves made by m/c on: baab



2. Obtain an NDFSM to accept L ={ w | w \in ababⁿ or abⁿ, where n \geq 0} 6 G 9, И Q Ú 4 T. +C. a T. . 2

3. Design an NDFSM for L = { w | w contains the substring 0101, $\Sigma = \{0,1\}$ } $w = \frac{|u|}{2} \frac{d|u|}{2}$ $|U_{|}|$ \square D 5 , N 2 0,1



5. $L = \{w \in \{a, b\}^* : w \text{ is made up of an optional a followed} by aa followed by zero or more b's}.$



 $\mathsf{M} = (\mathsf{Q}, \Sigma, \, \delta, \, \mathsf{q}_0, \, \mathsf{F}) = (\{\mathsf{q}_0, \, \mathsf{q}_1, \, \mathsf{q}_2, \, \mathsf{q}_3\}, \, \{\mathsf{a}, \, \mathsf{b}\}, \, \delta, \, \mathsf{q}_0, \, \{\mathsf{q}_3\})$

6. Design ∈-NDFSM for L = { w | w contains at least two 0's or exactly two 1's }



7. Design an \in -NDFSM to accept strings of a's and b's ending with ab or ba

8. $L = \{w \in \{a, b\}^* : w = aba \text{ or } |w| \text{ is even} \}.$

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Do you start to feel the power of Non-Determinism?
9. $L = \{w \in \{a, b\}^* : \text{the fourth to the last character is } a\}$





<u>DFSM</u>

<u>NDFSM</u>

$M = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$ where	definition of δ . Here, δ is defined as follows:			
Q is set of finite states	$\delta: Q \times (\Sigma \cup \epsilon)$ to subset of 2^{Q}			
Σ is set of input alphabets				
$\delta: Q \times \Sigma$ to Q				
q_0 is the initial state				
$F \subseteq Q$ is set of final states				
2. There can be zero or one transition from a state on an input symbol	There can be zero, one or more transitions from a state on an input symbol			
 No ∈- transitions exist i.e., there should not be any transition or a transition if exist it should be on an input symbol 	\in - transitions can exist i. e., without any input there can be transition from one state to another state.			
4. Difficult to construct	Easy to construct			
 Less powerful but easy to implement 	More powerful than DFSM, but very difficult to implement			

*Converting an NDFSM to DFSM using subset Construction Method

1) NDFSM → DFSM 2) ∈-NDFSM → DFSM





 $\delta(q_{0}, \alpha) \rightarrow \{q_{0}, q_{1}\}$ $\left(\begin{array}{c} 9 \\ 9 \end{array} \right) \rightarrow \left[\overline{1} \right]$ $\partial(\{19, 9, 9\}, h) = \partial(\{7, 9, 4\}) \cup \partial(\{9, 10\}) = \sum \{9, 9, 7\}$ $\delta(24, 4) = \delta(9, b) \vee \delta(1, b) = \{9, 9, 9, 2\}$ $\delta(q_{0}, \alpha) \cup \delta(q_{2}, \alpha) = 2 q_{0}, q_{1}, \beta$ $f(q_{b},b) \cup f(q_{1},b) = f(q_{b},b) \cup f(q_{1},b) = f(q_{1},b) \cup f(q_{1},b) \cup f(q_{1},b) = f(q_{1},b) \cup f(q_{1},b) = f(q_{1},b) \cup f(q$ 49

Example-2 : All strings of a's & b's ending ab or ba

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		N		32			
A CARLER	≤ 1	à	6	5		-	
San	A 31 } 1,	2	1,4			l	S (
	B 1,2 1,1 C 1,4 1,2	5	74775	,4~~		8	(,
			Ι, Ц		61	<u>ц</u>	, (~
Contract of	E 1,255 /1,2	_	1,3,4		A B L	B B B E	
-					Ext	Ē	

 $\beta(1,\alpha) \rightarrow 1,2, \quad \beta(1,b) = 1,4$ $f(1, q) \cup f(2, q) = 1, 2$ $S(1, b) \cup S(2, b) = 1, 4, 3$ $S(1,q) \cup S(4,q) \rightarrow 1,25$ S(1,b) U S(4,b) -> 2=++ 1,4 $1, 4 1 \cup \delta(3, 9) \cup \delta(4, 4) = 1, 2, 5$ (1, b)b(1, b)b(1, b)b(1, b)b(1, b)b(1, b)(1, b $a) U \delta(2, q) U \delta(5, q) = 1, 2$ (1,5)VU(2,5)VO(5,5) = 1,4,3 = 1,3,5U 6 50

∈-NDFSM to DFSM

Computing ∈-Closure of State(eps)



 $eps(q_0) =$ $eps(q_1) =$ $eps(q_2) =$ $eps(q_3) =$ Example-1

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(∈-NDFSM to DFSM)

Example-2



Example-3







1 0 З q_2 q_0 q_1 1 1 1 ε 0 0 q_5 q_3 q_4 ε





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Minimizing a DFSM

-The process of reducing a given DFSM to its minimal form is called as minimization of DFSM

- -A DFSM M is minimal iff there is no other DFSM M' such that L(M) = L(M') and M' has fewer states than M does.
- -Some states can be redundant
- -There Exist a unique Minimal DFSM for ever Regular Language L.

-Most methods involve finding equivalent states and merging them into single state.

Equivalence of two states:

Two states **p** and **q** of a DFSM are equivalent(Indistinguishable) iff:

 $\delta(p, w) \in F$ and $\delta(q, w) \in F$ or $\delta(p, w) \notin F$ and $\delta(q, w) \notin F$

for all strings $w \in \Sigma^*$.

Otherwise states p and q are Distinguishable (i.e Distinct)

Method: Minimize DFSM using Partitioning(Spliting)

Procedure(High-Level Description)

- 1. Eliminate all the dead states and unreachable states from the given DFSM (if any)
- 2. Let k = 0
- 3. Divide Q (set of states) into two sets such that one set contains all the non-final states and other set contains all the final states. This Partition is called π_0
- 4. k = k+1.
- 5. Find π_k by partitioning the different sets of π_{k-1} . In each set of π_{k-1} , consider all the possible pair of states within each set and if the two states are distinguishable, split the set into different sets in π_k
- 6. Repeat step 4 and 5 until no change in partition occurs (i.e. until $\pi_k \neq \pi_{k-1}$)
- 7. All those states which belong to the same set are equivalent and Can be merged.

Example-1 Π_{0} , $(\eta_{1}, \eta_{1}, 5_{1}, \eta_{2})$ (η_{4}) 1 (10,2) $(9, \alpha) \rightarrow (9, 9, 9, 7, 9, 9)$ M. MINT. (9, a) -> (90, 91, 92, 9) > NO SPlit required $(9_2, q) \longrightarrow (9_2, 9_1, 9_2, 9_3)$ $(9_0, 9) \rightarrow (9_0, 9_1, 9_2) \downarrow NU$ $(9_1, a) \rightarrow (9_1, 9_1, 9_2) \downarrow NU$ $(\mathcal{G}_{3}, \mathcal{G}) \longrightarrow (\mathcal{G}_{0}, \mathcal{G}_{1}, \mathcal{G}_{2}, \mathcal{G}_{3})$ $(9_{0}, 5) \rightarrow (9_{0}, 9_{1}, 9_{2}, 9_{3})$ L Splitteg Unrid $(\neg 1, b) \rightarrow (i)) ($ $(\gamma_1 \beta) \rightarrow (\gamma_1 \beta)$ $(9, b) \rightarrow (9, 9, 9_1)$ $(9_3, b) \rightarrow (9_4)$ $(9_{1}, b) \rightarrow (1_{3})$ $(9_2, b_1 \rightarrow (9_{\nu_1}, 9_{\nu_1}, 9_2))$ $T_{1}: (9_{0}, 9_{1}, 9_{2}) (9_{3}) (9_{4})$ $T_{2}: (9_{0}, 9_{2}) (9_{1}) (9_{3}) (9_{4}) / (9_{0}, a) \rightarrow (9_{1}) (9_{0}, b) \rightarrow (9_{0}, 9_{2}) \}$ $(9_{2}, 9) \rightarrow (9_{1}) , 7 , (9_{2}, 5) \rightarrow (9_{0}, 9_{2})$ T_{3} (9_{0} , 9_{2}) (9_{1}) (9_{3}) (9_{4}) TIK '=TTK-I

Example-2 $T_{1}: (9, 9) (52, 94, 15, 96)$ q_1 а q_3 q_2 а $(9, a) \rightarrow (2, 4, 5, 6) \quad (9, a) \rightarrow (2, 4, 5, 6)$ b b b b b $(9, 5) \rightarrow (2, 4, 5, 6) (9, 6) \rightarrow (2, 4, 5, 6)$ а q_4 а q_5 q_6 $T_{1} : (9, 9) (20, 94, 95, 9)$ а $(2_{a}) \rightarrow (1_{3}) (4_{1}9) \rightarrow (2_{1}4_{1}5_{1}6) (5_{1}a) \rightarrow (2_{1}4_{1}5_{1}b) (4_{1}a) \rightarrow (9_{1}4_{1}5_{1}b)$ 5)1 it 72 gur $(9_1, 9_3)$ (9_2) $(9_4, 9_5, 9_4)$ $T_{L}=$ 10 $(9, 9_{2})$ (9_{2}) $(9_{4}, 9_{4})$ (9_{5}) 113 -Ь 5 $\frac{1}{7_{4}} = (7, 4, 7)(9_{2})(9_{4}, 9_{6})(7_{5})$ 5 L(M) = L(M)Min. M: 200 59



Example-3



Home Work



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A Canonical form for FSM

A *canonical form* for some set of objects *C* assigns exactly one representation to each class of "equivalent" objects in *C*.

Further, each such representation is distinct, so two objects in *C* share the same representation iff they are "equivalent" in the sense for which we define the form.

Procedure: To build a Canonical form for FSM

buildFSMcanonicalform(M: FSM) =

- 1. M' = ndfsmtodfsm(M).
- 2. $M^* = minDFSM(M')$.
- Create a unique assignment of names to the states of *M**.
- 4. Return *M**.

Given two FSMs M_1 and M_2 :

buildFSMcanonicalform(M₁)
=
buildFSMcanonicalform(M₂)

iff $L(M_1) = L(M_2)$.

It provides the basis for a simple way to test whether two FSMs are equivalent or not...



Example







Introduction to Transducers

What is a transducer?

Defined as a device that converts one form of energy to another.
Examples: Motors, Speakers, Microphones, Antennas, Light Bulbs, Potentiometer, Gauges...
Essentially Sensors and Actuators

Finite-State Transducers F-ST

Two tapes, one for input and one for output.
Converts a input into an output.
Mealy and Moore machines.

VP P VP I VC

Moore Machine

Invented by Edward F. Moore (1925 -2003)
Associates an output with each state of the machine.

Moore Machine Formal Definition

is a 5-tuples, Denoted by M = (Q, Σ , O, δ , λ , q_0) where

Q= Finite set of States
Σ = Input symbols
O = Output symbols
δ = Transition Function (Q X Σ → Q)
λ = Output Function (Q X Σ → Q)
q₀ = Initial /Start State

Street light Example

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Example: Moore m/c

Mary Conversion $\leq = \{G_1\}$ $\bigcirc = \{G_1\}$ MOORE 0 01001 \bigcirc

Ch: (X1001d)

M -> M+1 mbols Maber

6

Mealy Machine

Invented by George H. Mealy in 1955
Associates outputs with transitions.

Mealy Machine Formal Definition

Is a 6-tuples , denoted by $M = (Q, \Sigma, O, \delta, \lambda, q_0)$ where • Q = Finite set of States • $\Sigma =$ Input symbols O = Output symbols • δ = Transition Function • λ = output function • q_0 = Initial State / Start state

Mealy Notation



Example -1: Design a Mealy M/c for a binary input sequence, such that , if it has a substring 101, the machine outputs A. If input has substring 110, the machine outputs B. Otherwise it outputs C. V14-18 6 OC I/A NC q MPAY

Example-2: Design a mealy m/c that takes binary number as input and produces 2's compliment of that number as output . Assume the input is read from LSB to MSB and end carry is discarded.

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Q

10/01/00

9,

LJ-

Moore to Mealy Conversion

0/0

90

 Λ

1/0



Moore to Mealy

0/6

0/0

1/1

9₂

MPA




Module-II

Regular Expressions and Regular Grammars

Regular Expressions

-Operators to build REs and their Precedence Levels -Building Regular expression for RLs. -Kleene's theorem: Building an FSM from a RE -Building RE from a FSM using Ripping method -Applications of REs,

Regular Grammars

-Definition of a Regular Grammar, Examples

-Regular Grammars and Regular languages.

Properties of Regular Languages

-Regular Languages and Non-regular Languages

- -Closure properties of RLs
- -To show some languages are not RLs using Pumping Lemma



Definition of Regular Expressions

The regular expressions over an alphabet Σ are all and only the strings that can be obtained as follows:

Ø is a regular expression, denoting L(Ø) = Ø
 ε is a regular expression, denoting L(ε) = {ε }
 Every symbol a belongs to Σ is a regular expression.
 If α, β are regular expressions, then so is αβ.
 If α, β are regular expressions, then so is α|β.
 If α is a regular expression, then so is α*.

Operator Precedence in Regular Expressions

PrecedenceOperatorsHighestKleene star(*)Image: transform of transform

Regular Expression Examples

If $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$, the following are regular expressions:

Ø ε a (a∪b)* or (a|b)* abba∪ε or abba | ε () () ()

Examples: RE

1) a*b*

2) (a|b**)***

3) (a |b)*a*b*

4) (a | b)*abba (a|b)*

Examples Contd...

Obtain a Regular Expression to accept all the strings of a's & b's of length ≤ 2

Obtain a RE to accept strings of a's & b's with even number of a's followed by add number of b's

Obtain a RE to accept all the strings of 0's and 1's ending with either 01 or 10

Obtain a RE to accept all the strings of a's and b's having substring abb

Build a RE to accept all strings of a', b's & c's containing atleast one a & atleast on b over $\Sigma = \{a,b,c\}$

RE: ((a | b)(a | b))*(a | b)

Obtain a RE to accept a Language consisting of strings of a's and b's with alternate a's and b's

RE: (ε | b) (ab)* (ε | a)

Build a RE to accept strings of 0's & 1's having no two consecutive 0

RE: (1 | 01)* (0 | ε)

 $L = \{w \in \{a, b\}^* : |w| \text{ is even}\}$

RE: ((a | b) (a | b))*

 $L = \{w \in \{a, b\}^*: w \text{ contains an odd number of } a's\}$

RE: b* (ab*ab*)* a b*

 $L = \{w \in \{a, b\}^* : every a is immediately followed b\}$ $RE: (b | ab)^*$

Obtain a RE to recognize all strings of a's & b's whose 3rd symbol from the right is



Obtain a RE to accept strings of a's & b's begin and end with same symbol.



Develop RE for $L = \{a^{2n}b^{2m} \mid n \ge 0, m \ge 0\}$

RE:

Obtain a RE to accept strings of a's & b's containing no more then three a's

RE: b*(ε |a) b*(ε |a)b*(ε |a)b*

Obtain a RE for L = { $a^nb^m : n \ge 4$, $m \le 3$ }

RE: aaaaa*(ε | b)³

Obtain a RE to recognize strings of a's and b's whose length is multiple of 3 Or $L = \{ w : |w| \mod 3 = 0, w \in \{ a, b \}^* \}$

RE: ((a|b)(a|b)(a|b))*

Obtain a RE for L = { aⁿb^m | m+n is even }

$$a_{m} = 1, m-1, n+n = 2$$

 $a_{m} = 1, m-1, n+n = 2$
 $a_{m} = 1, m-1, n+n = 2$
 $a_{m} = 1, m = 1, n \neq 1, m \neq 2, m \neq 1, m \neq 1, m \neq 1, m \neq 2, m \neq 1, m \neq 1, m \neq 2, m \neq 1, m \neq 1, m \neq 2, m \neq 1, m \neq 1, m \neq 2, m \neq 1, m \neq 1, m \neq 2, m \neq 1, m \neq 1, m \neq 2, m \neq 1, m \neq 1, m \neq 2, m \neq 1, m \neq 1,$



Algebraic Laws for Regular expressions

If **r**,s and t are any arbitrary RE then:

Law	Description	
r s = s r	is commutative	5t
r (s t) = (r s) t	is associative	
r (st) = (rs)t	Concatenation is associative	
r(s t) = rs rt; (s t)r = sr tr 🔶	Concatenation is distributive	
2r = r8 = r	ε is identity for concatenation	47
r* = (r E)*	E is guaranteed in closure	
r** = r* ~	* is i <u>dempo</u> tent	

$$(ab|e) = [ab)^{*}$$
 $(+) = (+) = (+)^{*}$
 $(a|b) = (-)^{*}$
 $(a|b) = (-)^{*}$
 $(m \times) = [am = m]$

$$(a1b)$$
 $| ab = ab | (a1b)$
 $\sqrt{(a1b)}$ $| ab = ab | (a1b)$

a+b=b+A

Applications of Regular expressions

- . Regular expressions in UNIX/Linux operating systems
- 2. Regular Expressions in Pattern Matching(Search Engines)
- 3. Regular Expressions in Software Engineering
- 4. Regular expressions in Programming Languages(Perl, Python etc).
- 5 Regular Expressions in Lexical Analysis(Compiler Design)

Kleene's Theorem

Finite state machines and regular expressions define the same class of languages. To prove this, we must show:

Theorem: Any language that can be defined with a regular expression can be accepted by some FSM and so is regular.

Theorem: Every regular language (i.e., every language that can be accepted by some DFSM) can be defined with a regular expression.

For Every Regular Expression there is a Corresponding FSM

We'll show this by construction. An FSM for:





Proof Contd...





An Example

RE: ab

An FSM for ab:







Convert the regular expression (0 + 1)*1(0 + 1) to NDFSM



1

Obtain an NDFSM that accept the Language: L(ab(a+b)*)







Solution

For Every FSM There is a Corresponding Regular Expression

We'll show this by construction(Ripping or State elimination)

The key idea is that we'll allow arbitrary regular expressions to label the transitions of an FSM.

 $P^{a} \Rightarrow a^{*} \qquad P^{a,b} \Rightarrow P^{a,b} \Rightarrow (a|b)^{*}$

A Simple Example



The Algorithm



- 1. Remove unreachable states from <u>M</u>.
- 2. If *M* has no accepting states then return \emptyset .
- ✓ 3. If the start state of M is part of a loop, create a new start state s and connect s to M's start state via an s-transition.
- 4. If there is more than one accepting state of *M* or there are any transitions out of any of them, create a new accepting state and connect each of *M*'s accepting states to it via an ε-transition. The old accepting states no longer accept.
 - 5. If *M* has only one state then return ε .
 - 6. Until only the start state and the accepting state remain do:
 - 6.1 Select *rip* (not *start* or an accepting state).
 - 6.2 Remove *rip* from *M*.
 - 6.3 *Modify the transitions among the remaining states so *M* accepts the same strings.

7. Return the regular expression(between start and final state)



Example-1



1. Create a new initial state and a new, unique accepting state, neither of which is part of a loop.



2. Remove states and arcs and replace with arcs labelled with larger and larger regular expressions.

An Example, Continued



Remove state <u>3</u>:





An Example, Continued RW



Example-2 6 statt 0 V. Q 16 5 A. $q_{1} \xrightarrow{b} q_{2} \xrightarrow{q} q_{1} \xrightarrow{c} bq$ REMOVE: 93 13 a a հ a164 6 ٦, า Δ blig K. MUVI: M2 6 6 $T_{o} \rightarrow \eta^{\prime} \stackrel{c}{\rightarrow} 9_{4}$ $(a|ba)(bb^{*}a) \stackrel{*}{\in}$ 6 Lg G Laj

(u/ba) (bba) /1

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(94.)

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Simplifying Regular Expressions ∆ ÷ b

Regex's describe sets:

- Union is commutative: $\alpha \mid \beta = \beta \mid \alpha$
- Union is associative: $(\alpha \mid \beta) \mid \gamma = \alpha \mid (\beta \mid \gamma)$.
- \varnothing is the identity for union: $\alpha \mid \varnothing = \varnothing \mid \alpha = \alpha$.
- Union is idempotent: $\alpha \mid \alpha = \alpha$.

Concatenation:

- Concatenation is associative: $(\alpha\beta)\gamma = \alpha(\beta\gamma)$.
- ε is the identity for concatenation: $\alpha \varepsilon = \varepsilon \alpha = \alpha$.
- \varnothing is a zero for concatenation: $\alpha \oslash = \oslash \alpha = \oslash$.

Concatenation distributes over union:

- ر م ۱ م ۱ • $(\alpha \mid \beta) \gamma = (\alpha \gamma) \mid (\beta \gamma).$ • $\gamma (\alpha \mid \beta) = (\gamma \alpha) \mid (\gamma \beta).$ ₩6 () - <u></u> Kleene star:
 - $\emptyset^* = \varepsilon_{*}$
 - $\varepsilon^* = \varepsilon$.
 - • $(\alpha^*)^* = \alpha_{\leq}^*$.
 - $\alpha^* \alpha^* = \widetilde{\alpha^*}$.
 - $\bullet(\alpha \mid \beta)^* = (\alpha^* \beta^*)^*.$

x+Q-- 2 x_1 x = x



THANK U...

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Closure Properties of Regular Languages

LME

Set theory

 $\sum_{L=1}^{1} \zeta_{1} \zeta_{1} \cdots$

o = qb

- 1. If L and M are regular Languages , so is L U M $\,\,\smallsetminus\,$
- 2. If L and M are regular Languages, LM is also regular
- 3. If L is regular, so is L* (Kinestar)
- 4. If L is regular, so is complement of L . (\Box)
- 5. If L and M are regular languages , L \cap M is also regular
- 6. If L and M are regular languages, L-M is also regular
- 7. If L is regular, then L^{R} is also regular(Reversal)
- 8. if L is regular , so is h(L) < Homomorphism or letter substitution>

If L_1 and L_2 are regular, then L_1UL_2 , L_1L_2 and L^* also denote the regular Language. LRE, FSM Proof: It is given that L1 and L2 are regular Languages. So, there exist regular expressions α and β such that $| \cdot + \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{\underline{r}}$ $L1 = L(\alpha)$ $L2 = L(\beta)$ By the definition of Regular expressions, we have • $\alpha \mid \beta$ is a regular expression denoting the language L1 U L2 - RL is a regular expression denoting the language L1.L2 • α.β • α^* is a regular expression denoting the language $L_1^* \checkmark \mathbb{R} \downarrow_{i_1}$ so, the regular language are closed under Union, Concatenation and star closure. $\frac{1}{1+1} = \frac{1}{1} = \frac{$ If L is a regular Language , then complement of L is also regular $\Box = \xi^{*} - L$

- Prove that RLs are closed under complementation.
- If L is a regular language over Σ , then $\overline{L} = \Sigma^* L$ is regular language.
 - Proof: _____FSM _
 - □ If L is regular, there exists a $\overrightarrow{\text{DFA}} M$ recognizing L.
 - \square We can construct a DFA *M*' for *L* by copying
 - M to M' except that all final states in M are
 - changed to non-final, and all non-final states to final.
- See next slide for a formal proof

$$L = \{ w \in \{a, b\}^{\flat} : w du not ab \}$$

 $L = \{ w \in \{a, b\}^{\flat} : w du not ab \}$

 $Q - F = \{0, 1, 2\} - \{2\} = \{0, 1\}$ DFGM Let $M_1=(Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$ a DFA that accepts $L(M_1)$ Let $M_2=(Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, Q-F)$ a DFA that accepts $L(M_2)$ Obviously both languages are regular languages Per definition 2.2: $L(M) = \{w \in \Sigma^* : \delta(q_0, w) \in F\}$ The following are both true $\square \ w \in \Sigma^* : \delta(q_0, w) \in F \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \forall \delta(q_0, w) \notin Q - F$ $\square w \in \Sigma^* : \delta(q_0, w) \in Q - F - \Rightarrow \delta(q_0, w) \notin F \checkmark$

Thus $L(M_2) = L(M_1)$

 $L(M_1)$ is an arbitrary regular language and its complement is also a regular language, therefore the regular languages are closed under complementation

WENDWIMAH 4

-L={ w E { h, b] w nut in h

If L 1 and L2 are regular Languages, then so, is $L1 \cap L2$. $L_1 = \int Crah, babbb ab... \int L_2 = \int Crab, bab, bab... \int L_2 = \int Crab, babbbab ab... \int L_2 = \int Crab, bab ab... \int$

- Are regular languages closed under intersection?
- If L_1 and L_2 are RLs, then $L_1 \cap L_2$ is RL.
- Proof:

- SMi

- Since RLs are closed under union and complementation, they are also closed under intersection
- $\Box L_1, L_2$ are RLs, so $\overline{L_1}, \overline{L_2}$ are RLs, and $\overline{L_1} \cup \overline{L_2}$

 $L_1 \wedge L_2 = \langle L_1 \cup L_2 \rangle$

- is RL, so $\overline{L_1} \cup \overline{L_2}$ is RL.
- $\Box \text{ Thus } \overline{L_1} \cup \overline{L_2} = L_1 \cap L_2 \text{ is } RL.//$



If L1 and L2 are regular Languages, then so, is L1 - L2.

Are regular languages closed under **difference**? If L_1 and L_2 are RLs, is $L_1 - L_2$ RL? Why?

 $\Box \ L_1 - L_2 = L_1 \cap \overline{L_2}$

Since RLs are closed under intersection and complementation, they are also closed under difference.

If L is regular, then L^R is also regular(Reversal)

Proof: We know that L is regular. Let α be a regular expression describing L(α). It is required to prove that there is another regular expression E^R such that:

 $L(\alpha) = (L(\alpha))^{R}$

By definition of regular expression, we have:

Regular Expression	(Regular Expression) ^R	
3	$\{\epsilon\}^R = \epsilon$	\rightarrow L = { ϵ }
θ	$\{\mathbf{\theta}\}^{R} = \mathbf{\theta}$	\rightarrow L = { } 0r θ
a (Any i/p symbol)	{a} ^R = a	→L = { a}
α β	$(\alpha \mid \beta)^{R} = \alpha^{R} \mid \beta^{R}$	→ L(α ^R)UL(β ^R)
α.β	$(\alpha.\beta)^{R} = \beta^{R}.\alpha^{R}$	\rightarrow L(β^{R}).L(α^{R})
α*	$(\alpha^*)^R = (\alpha^R)^*$	\rightarrow L(α^{R})

From above, its clear that L^R is also regular when L is regular.

If L is regular, so is h(L)

What is homomorphism?

Let Σ and ς are set of alphabets. The homomorphic function h: $\Sigma \rightarrow \varsigma^*$ is called homomorphism (i.e single letter is replaced by a string)

If
$$w = a_1 a_2 a_3 \dots a_n$$
 then $h(w) = h(a_1)h(a_2)h(a_3)\dots$
If $L = \{ w | w \in L \}$, then $h(L) = \{ h(w) | w \in L \}$

Example:

```
Let \Sigma = \{ 0,1 \}, \varsigma = \{ a,b \} and h(0) = ab, h(1) = b. What is h(010)? If L = \{ 00, 010 \} what is h(L)?
```

 $\begin{array}{l} h(010) = h(0)h(1)h(0) = abbab \\ h(L) = h(\{00,010\}) = \{ \ h(00), \ h(010) \ \} = \{ \ h(0)h(0) \ , \ h(0)h(1)h(0) \} = \{ \ abab, \ abbab \} \end{array}$

Proof(using Regular Expression):

Let α be the regular expression and L(α) be the corresponding regular Language.

We can easily find $h(\alpha)$ by substituting h(a) for each a in Σ . By definition of Regular expression, $h(\alpha)$ is a regular expression and h(L) is regular language. So, the regular language is closed under homomorphism.

Example: $\Sigma = \{a,b\}, \zeta = \{0,1\}$ and h(a) = 00, h(b) = 10

Suppose $\alpha = (a|b)^*$ ab , describe the L = { $w \in \{a,b\}^* | w \text{ ends with ab} \}$

 $h(\alpha) = h((a|b)^*ab) = h((a|b)^*) h(ab) = (h(a)|h(b))^*h(a)h(b)$

= $(00|10)^* 0010 \rightarrow$ describe the Language h(L)

Proving Languages Not to Be Regular

When is a language is regular? if we are able to construct one of the following: DFSM or NDFSM or RE or RG

When is it not regular? If we can show that no FSM can be built for a Language.

How to prove languages are *not* regular?

What if we cannot come up with any FSM?

- A) Can it be language that is not regular?
- B) Or is it that we tried wrong approaches?

How do we *decisively* prove that a language is not regular?



1



Pigeon Hole Principle

Pumping Lemma for Regular Languages

Statement:

Let L be a regular language. Then there exists a constant n (which depends on L) such that for every string w in L such that $|x| \ge n$, we can break w into three strings x = uvw such that:

- 1. v ≠ **ε**
- 2. |uv| ≤ n
- 3. For all $k \ge 0$, the string $u(v)^k w$ is also in L.

Pumping Lemma: Proof

- L is regular => it should have a DFSM.
 - <u>Set</u> n := Number of states in the DFSM
- Any string x∈L, such that |x| ≥ n, should have the form: x=a₁a₂...a_m, where m ≥ n
- \blacktriangleright => We should be able to break x = uvw as follows:

 \succ u= a₁a₂...a_i v = a_{i+1}a_{i+2}...a_J; w = a_{J+1}a_{J+2}...a_m

- \succ u's path will be $p_0...p_i$
- > v's path will be $p_i p_{i+1}..p_J$ (but $p_i=p_J$ implying a loop)
- \succ w's path will be $p_J p_{J+1}..p_m$
- ➢ Now consider another string x_k=u(v)^kw, where k≥0
- V^{k} (for k loops) p_{0} V^{k} (for k loops) p_{j} W p_{j} $=p_{j}$

- Case: k = 0
 - \succ DFSM will reach the accept state p_m
- Case: k > 0
 - > DFSM will loop for v^k , and finally reach the accept state p_m for w
- > In either case, $x \in L$ (This proves the lemma)

The pumping lemma is a very powerful tool and has the following applications';

- 1.It is used to prove that certain Languages are non-regular.
- 2. It can be used to check whether a language accepted by FSM is finite or infinite

The General Strategy used to prove that Language is Not Regular

Step 1: Assume that the Language L is regular.

Step 2: Select the string x such that $|x| \ge n$ and break it into 3 substrings u, v and w so that x = uvw with the constraints: $v \ne \varepsilon \& |uv| \le n$.

Step 3: Find any k such that $u(v)^k w \notin L$.

(According to pumping lemma, $uv^k w$ is in L for any $k \ge 0$. so the result is contradiction to our assumption. Hence given L is not regular)

Examples

Show that
$$L = \{a^{n}b^{n} \mid n \ge 0\}$$
 is not a regular
1) Assume that Lis RigMAN.
a) Solect $I = UVW \in L_{1}^{1}$ such that $WI \neq e_{1}^{1} \mid UV \mid \le M$
 $Le^{L} = uVW \in L_{1}^{1}$ such that $WI \neq e_{1}^{1} \mid UV \mid \le M$
 $Le^{L} = uVW \in L_{1}^{1}$ such that $WI \neq e_{1}^{1} \mid UV \mid \le M$
 $Ue^{L} = uVW \in L_{1}^{1}$ such that $WI \neq e_{1}^{1} \mid UV \mid \le M$
 $Ue^{L} = uVW \in L_{1}^{1}$ such that $WI \neq e_{1}^{1} \mid UV \mid \le M$
 $Ue^{L} = uVW \in L_{1}^{1}$ such that $WI \neq e_{1}^{1} \mid UV \mid \le M$
 $Ue^{L} = uVW \in L_{1}^{1}$ such that $WI \neq e_{1}^{1} \mid UV \mid \le M$
 $WT = uVW \in L_{1}^{1}$ $W \neq e^{(WI = 1)} E \mid UV \mid \le M$
 $UV = uVW =$

Prove that $L = \{ a^i b^j | i > j \}$ is not a regular.

Step 1: Assume that L is regular and n is some constant integer. Step 2: Select $\underline{x} = a^{n+1}b^n$, since $|x| = 2n+1 \ge n$, we can split x into uvw such that $|uv| \leq n$ and $v \neq \varepsilon$ as shown below. $x = a^{n+1}b^n = a^n ab^n = a^{n-1} a ab^n$, where $u = a^{n-1}$, v = a, $w = ab^n$ Step 3: According to pumping lemma, $a^{n-1} (a)^k ab^n \in L$ for any $k \ge 0$ if we choose $k=0, \mu$ The resulting string becomes: $a^{n-1} á b^n = a^n b^n \notin L$. Therefore, L is not regular.



Prove that $L = \{ ww^R | w \in \{0,1\}^* \}$ is not a regular.



- 1. Assume that L is regular and n is some integer constant.
- 2. Consider the string $x = 1^n 0^n 0^n 1^n$, since $|x| = 4n \ge n$, we can split x

into uvw such that $|uv| \le n$ and $v \ne \varepsilon$ as shown below:

 $x = \underbrace{1^{n-1}}_{\sim} \underbrace{1}_{\vee} \underbrace{0^n 0^n 1^n}_{\sim}, \text{ where } u = 1^{n-1}, v = \underbrace{1}_{=} \text{ and } w = \underbrace{0^n 0^n 1^n}_{\times}$

Law w Al

3. According to pumping lemma, $1^{n-1} (1)^k 0^n 0^n 1^n \in L$ for $k \ge 0$,

if we can choose k=0, then

the resulting string become: $1^{n-1}0^n 0^n 1^n \notin L$.

Therefore , L is not regular

Show that $L = \{a^{n!} | n \ge 0\}$ is not a regular.

5-2 { a }

- 1. Assume that L is regular and n is integer constant.
- 2. Consider the string $x = a^{n!}$, since $|x| = n! \ge n$, we can split x into uvw such that $|uv| \le n$ and $v \ne \varepsilon$ as shown below:

 $\begin{array}{c} 01 - 1 & \frac{1}{11} & \frac{1}{11} & \frac{1}{11} & \frac{1}{11} \\ 3 & \frac{1}{2} - 3 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \\ 4 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \\ \end{array}$

i.e. $x = a^{i} a^{j} a^{n!-i-j}$, where $u = a^{i}$, $v = a^{j}$ and $w = a^{n!-i-j}$

3. According to pumping lemma, a^{i} $(a^{j})^{k} a^{n!-i-j} \in L$ for $k \ge 0$ if we choose k=0, it means that : $a^{i} (a^{j})^{k} a^{n!-i-j} = a^{i} a^{n!-j} \in L$ It is clear that: n! > (n!-j) < (n+1)! [take j = 1] Since (n!-1) lies between factorial of n! and (n+1)! \Rightarrow implies that $a^{n!-1} \notin L$ Therefore , L is not regular. Show that the language $L = \{a^{p} | p \text{ is a prime number }\}$ is not regular. 3, 3, 5, 7, 11, 3

an, aaa, aa aaa, a aa a aa

1. Assume that L is regular and n is some integer constant

2. Select string $x = a^n \in L$ where <u>n</u> is prime. Since $|x| = n^{2}$, so we can

break x into x= uvw such that $|v| \neq \varepsilon$ and $|uv| \leq n$ as shown below.

$$x = a = a^{i} a^{j} a^{n-i-j} \in L$$

where $|u| = i$, $|v| = j \ge 1$ and $|uv| = i+j \le n$

- 3. According to Pumping lemma, $u(v)^{k}w \in L$ for k =0,1,2....
 - $a^{i}(a^{j})^{k}a^{n-i-j} \in L$ i.e.
 - i + jk + n i j = n + j(k 1) is prime for all $k \ge 0$ i.e.

N + j(n+j-y) N + j(n-y) - N(j+y)Now, if we choose $\mathbf{k} = \mathbf{n+1}$, then n.(j+1) (L_ n + j(k-1) = n+jn = n(j+1) must be a prime.

which is a contradiction (because prime number can not be factored) so, n(j+1) is not a prime.

Therefore, L is not Regular $_{/}$





Regular Grammars (also called right-Linear Grammars)



Simple Example: Regular Grammar to accept all string with any number of a's a * D (099) ~ · $5 \Rightarrow a5 \Rightarrow aqs$ €≬ > CLG.E= aga (v, T, P, S) $\sqrt{-}$ (AC Er1) $T = \{a\}$ \vec{S}_{-} stat simb or $(g_{-}(1s), [a]_{-})$



3. Design a Regular grammar $L = \{ w \in \{a, b\}^* : |w| \text{ is even } \}$ (u/b)(alb))-G: $S \rightarrow aT | bT | \epsilon$ Generate w = ababbb $T \rightarrow aS | bS$ S=> at=abs=> abat ا ج ا رور ا ح ا ط ط ح ا - a b abs mabbabbt

4. Obtain a Regular grammar to accept all strings of a's and b's that begin with a and end with b. $R_{\underline{F}} \leq (\alpha | \underline{b})$

P: A- aAlbAlb


Regular Grammar for L:

 $S \rightarrow aS$

 $D \rightarrow a \checkmark$

/* An arbitrary number of a's and b's can be generated before the $S \rightarrow bS$ $S \rightarrow aB$ pattern starts.

A-ru, A-re, A-rus

(alb) Zaaa

- /* Generate the first a of the pattern.
- $B \rightarrow aC \checkmark$ /* Generate the second a of the pattern.
- C
 ightarrow a $D \, \checkmark$ /* Generate the third a of the pattern.
 - /* Generate the last a of the pattern and quit.



Finite State Machine → Regular Grammars

For every FSM M, there exists a Regular Grammar G, such that L(M) = L(G)

- 1. Assume that M DFSM (if not convert it to DFSM) Construct $\underline{G} = (V,T,P,S)$ from M as follows:
- 2. Create a Nonterminal for each state in the M.
- 3. The start state of M becomes the starting Nonterminal for $G_{\underline{5} \rightarrow \alpha} \neq 1 \downarrow \underline{5} \downarrow$ 4. For each transition $\delta(A, a) \stackrel{?}{=} B$, add a production $A \rightarrow aB$ to $G_{\underline{5}}$

B) C->E E-Prul

5. For each accepting state A, add a production $A \rightarrow \epsilon$ to G







Regular Grammars \rightarrow FSM \checkmark



2.Convert the Following RG to FSM

 $S \rightarrow aS$ $S \rightarrow bS$ JFSM $S \rightarrow a B \checkmark$ $B \rightarrow aC \checkmark$ a,6 $C \rightarrow aD \checkmark$ $D \rightarrow a \checkmark$ Q DF-SMOY NDFSM #

THANQ!

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Topic: Context-Free Grammars

Content

- -Introduction to Grammars, CFGs and languages
- -Designing CFGs, simplifying CFGs
- -Derivation and Parse trees
- -Ambiguity, Examples
- -Techniques for reducing ambiguity from Grammars
- Normal Forms(CNF, GNF)



Definition of Context-Free Grammars

A context-free grammar (CFG) G, is defined by a 4-tuples as: $G = (V,T,P,S) \qquad (\sqrt{2}, 2, 5)$ 5=14,61 ¥-{a, by Where. V: is the final set of a Non-terminal(Variables) symbols. **T:** is the final set of a terminal symbols (\geq) < head > < budy > **P**: is a set of production rules of the $A \rightarrow \alpha$ where A is single <u>Nonterminal</u> symbol and α is a string $A \rightarrow (\underline{\alpha}_{B} \underline{b}_{S})$ of Zero or more <u>Terminals & Nonterminal</u> symbols $A \rightarrow \underline{C}_{II}$ of Zero or more <u>Terminals</u> & <u>Nonterminal</u> symbols

S: is the start symbol which is used to derive/generate the string belongs to the Language and represents the Language being defined. E $A \rightarrow (q)$ ϕ $A \rightarrow u$ B ϕ



Notation for CFG

- Lower-case letters near the beginning of the alphabet, a, b, and so on, are terminal symbols. We shall also assume that digits and other characters such as + or parentheses are terminals.
- 2. Upper-case letters near the beginning of the alphabet, A, B, and so on, are variables $(N \uparrow)$
- 3. Lower-case letters near the end of the alphabet, such as w or z, are strings of terminals. This convention reminds us that the terminals are analogous to the input symbols of an automaton.
- 4. Upper-case letters near the end of the alphabet, such as \underline{X} or \underline{Y} , are either terminals or variables.
- 5. Lower-case Greek letters, such as α and β , are strings consisting of terminals and/or variables. (AT) E_{χ} , $\chi = \frac{2}{2} \frac{2}{5} \frac{1}{5} \frac{$

6. The productions $A \to \alpha_1, A \to \alpha_2, \dots, A \to \alpha_n$ can

 $A \Longrightarrow A_{I_{1}} A_{L_{1}} A_{L_{2}}$

w= 101 2- abab

ω= ({(1))

 $\begin{bmatrix} X = q \\ X = S \end{bmatrix}$

The Language of a Grammar

If G = (V, T, P, S) is a CFG, the *language* of G, denoted L(G), is the set of terminal strings that have derivations from the start symbol. That is,

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

If a language L is the language of some context-free grammar, then L is said to be a *context-free language*, or CFL.

For Instance, Consider the set of rules or productions below:

S→0S0 S→1S1 S→0 S→1 S→ε

Above grammar, defined the Language of Palindromes over alphabet {0,1}. Thus, the set of palindromes is a CFL.

Designing of CFG: Problems

Design the Context free grammar for the Language $L = \{ 0^n 1^n | n \ge 0 \}$

Design the Context free grammar for the Language L = { w \in { (,)}* : the parentheses are balanced }

P =

 $S \rightarrow (S) \mid SS \mid \epsilon$

Derivation and Parse trees

Derivation:

A process of obtaining string of terminals and/or Non-Terminals from the start symbol by applying some or productions is called derivation.

Ex.

A parse tree of a derivation is a tree in which:

Each internal node is labeled with a nonterminal
If a rule A → A₁A₂...A_n occurs in the derivation then A is a parent node of nodes labeled A₁, A₂, ..., A_n

Leftmost, Rightmost Derivations

Definition. A **left-most derivation**(**LMD**) of a sentential form is one in which rules transforming the left-most Nonterminal are always applied.



Parse Trees (Example)



w = aabb

 $S \Rightarrow AB \Rightarrow AAB \Rightarrow aAB \Rightarrow aaB \Rightarrow aabB \Rightarrow aabb$



Parse tree



Designing of CFG: Problems contd...

Obtain a grammar for L = { $0^{m} 1^{m} 2^{n} | m \ge 0$, $n \ge 0$ } and also give LMD, RMD and Parse tree for the string w = $0011222.4 \ge 1, n = 1, n \ge 1, n = 1, n \ge 1, n = 1, n = 1, n = 1, n$



Design a CFG for the Language $L = \{a^i b^j | i \neq j, i, j \ge 0\}$ is or Ki $L_{I} = \{ \alpha \beta \mid i > j, j \neq 0 \}$ $L_{z} = \{ \alpha L^{j} | (< j, j, 0) \}$ aquabbe $\rightarrow \alpha S, b | A |$ $s_1 \Rightarrow a s_1 b$ $\Rightarrow a a s_1 b b$ $A \longrightarrow \alpha A | \alpha$ Dau Abb $\int S_2 \rightarrow a S_2 b |B|$ $\int B = b = b = b$ Dava Abb LZ $\rightarrow 51$ $S_1 \rightarrow aS_1b|A$ $A \rightarrow aA|A$ $S_2 \rightarrow aS_2b|B |B \rightarrow bB|b$ 52

Design a CFG for the Language L = { $a^n b^{n-3} | n \ge 3$ } $\nabla = 3$ $- || \overline{1} \overline{1} \overline{1}$ at6 = aagub \times $= \left\{ \sigma_{x,\alpha\alpha} \vdash \right\} \times \left\{ \gamma_{x,\alpha} \vdash \left\{ \gamma_{x,\alpha} \vdash \right\} \times \left\{ \gamma_{x,\alpha} \vdash \left\{ \gamma_{x,\alpha} \vdash \right\} \times \left\{ \gamma_{x,\alpha} \vdash \left\{ \gamma_{x,\alpha} \vdash \left\{ \gamma_{x,\alpha} \vdash \right\} \times \left\{ \gamma_{x,\alpha} \vdash \left\{ \gamma_{$ Gaan b S-> QUAA A-> aAb/E 6 900









Ambiguity

h=) [

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \end{array} \right) \left(\begin{array}{c} \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \end{array} \right)$

Ambiguous Grammars

-A CFG is ambiguous if it generate more than one parse tree for some (or all) strings. When this happens, we say that the grammar is ambiguous.

-More precisely, a grammar G is ambiguous iff there is at least one string in L(G) for which G produce more than one parse tree (Obtained by applying either LMD or RMD).

-It is easy to write ambiguous grammars, if we are not careful. But such Grammars undesirable for many applications. $< \checkmark$

Why care?

-Ambiguity can be a problem in things like programming languages where we want agreement between the programmer and compiler over what happens



Examples-1

Is the following grammar ambiguous? $T = \sum_{0, 1 \in \mathbb{Z}}$ $S \rightarrow AS \mid \varepsilon$ $A \rightarrow A1 \mid 0A1 \mid 01$ $v = \{ S, A \}$

Take a string w = 00111



Example-2: The Balanced Parentheses Grammar is Ambiguous

 $L = \{w \in \{ \}, (\}^* : the parentheses are balanced \}$ is ambiguous.



In fact, G can produce an infinite number of parse trees for the string (())().



Home work

Show that following Grammars are ambiguous:

```
1. S \rightarrow aB \mid bA
    A \rightarrow aS | bAA | a
    B \rightarrow bS | aBB | b \qquad \{ take w = aabbab \}
2. (S \rightarrow iCtS \mid iCtSeS \mid a
     C \rightarrow b
                                       { w = ibtibtaea }
3. S \rightarrow AB | aaB < <
     A \rightarrow a \mid Aa
     B \rightarrow b
                                        \{ w = aab \}
```

4. $S \rightarrow aSbS | bSaS | \varepsilon \{ w = aababb \}$



4. $S \rightarrow aSbS | bSaS | \varepsilon \{ w = aababb \}$ PT-1 Q $\{S \rightarrow aSbS\}$ $S \Rightarrow aSbS$ $\{S \rightarrow aSbS\}$ \Rightarrow aaSbSbS $\{ S \rightarrow bSaS \} \mid n \neg \neg \Rightarrow$ aabSaSbSbS \Rightarrow aaba**S**bSbS $\{ S \rightarrow \varepsilon \}$ C \leftarrow **{ S→** ε \Rightarrow aababSbS **{ S→** ε ⇒aababb<mark>S</mark> \Rightarrow aababb \leftarrow (\subseteq **{ S→** ε а $S \Rightarrow aSbS$ $\{S \rightarrow aSbS\}$ \Rightarrow aaSbSbS $^{\checkmark}$ $\{ S \rightarrow aSbS \}$ 17-2 $\Rightarrow aabSbS$ $\{ S \rightarrow \varepsilon \}$ $\{ S \rightarrow aSbS \}$ \Rightarrow aaba**S**bSbS **{ S→** ε \Rightarrow aabab**S**bS **{ S→** ε ⇒aababbS \Rightarrow aababb \bigcirc **{ S→** ε 4 $\overline{\mathbf{x}}$ ron CILL on \sub

Inherent Ambiguous Language

-In many cases, when confronted with an ambiguous grammar G, it is possible to construct a new grammar G that generates L(G) and that has less (or no) ambiguity. Unfortunately, it is not always possible to do this. There exist context-free languages for which no unambiguous grammar exists. We call such languages **inherently ambiguous**.

 $L = \{a^n b^n c^m \mid n, m \ge 0\} \cup \{a^n b^m c^m \mid n, m \ge 0\} \text{ is inherently ambiguous Language}$

$$G: S \rightarrow S1 \mid S2$$

$$S1 \rightarrow S1c \mid A$$

$$A \rightarrow aAb \mid \varepsilon$$

$$S2 \rightarrow aS2 \mid B$$

$$B \rightarrow bBc \mid \varepsilon$$

Techniques for Reducing Ambiguity

- -No Algorithms available to test for ambiguity in a grammars.
- No Algorithms or methods exist to remove Ambiguity from grammars
- -But there do exist heuristics that we can use to find some of the more common source of ambiguity and remove them.

X->RC

- Techniques (heuristics)
- 1. Elimination of ϵ -productions from G
- 2 Elimination of **Unit** productions from G
- 3. Elimination of productions like $S \rightarrow SS$ or $E \rightarrow E + E$ in G (Symmetric and body contains atleast two copies of the NTs)

4. Elimination of useless symbols/Productions from G.
Eliminating ε-Productions

Definition: Let G = (V,T,P,S) be a CFG . A Production in P of the form A \rightarrow ϵ is called ϵ -Production or NULL production \Box

```
Ex. S \rightarrow ABCa | bD

A \rightarrow BC | b

B \rightarrow b | \epsilon

C \rightarrow c | \epsilon

D \rightarrow d

T = \{a, b, c, d\}

T = \{a, b, c, d\}

M = \{S, A, B, c, D\}
```

In this grammar, the productions: $B \rightarrow \epsilon$

 $C \rightarrow \varepsilon$ are ε -Productions.

To eliminate ε-Productions, we have to compute all Nullable variables in the grammar

NI

 $S \rightarrow ABCa \mid bD$ $B \rightarrow E$, $(\rightarrow E$ -> B, B2 B364 Β̈́η $^{\downarrow}A \rightarrow BC \mid b$ $B \rightarrow b \mid \epsilon$ 1Dng $C \rightarrow c | \epsilon$ $D \rightarrow d$ 5 S - ABCA BCA ACA ABA Wullably VIVIA blys ICa A a BalabD $NV = 2B, C, A = \{A, B, C\}$ A > BC CB6 $B \rightarrow b$ \rightarrow (

Eliminate all ε-Productions from the grammar:

 $S \rightarrow BAAB$ $A \rightarrow 0A2 \mid 2A0 \mid \epsilon$ $B \rightarrow AB \mid 1B \mid \epsilon$



S-BAABIAAB BABBABBAA ABAABBBBA)B(A $A \rightarrow aA2 | a2 | 2A0 | 20$ $B \rightarrow AB|B|A||B||$

Eliminating Unit Productions

Definition: Let G = (V,T,P,S) be a CFG. A Production in P of the form $A \rightarrow B$ is called unit Production. The Presence of Unit productions in G can be source of ambiguity.

Ex.: Consider the Grammar

 $\begin{array}{c} A \rightarrow B \mid C \\ B \rightarrow aB \mid b \mid D \\ B \rightarrow D \end{array}$

Here: A \rightarrow B and A \rightarrow C are Unit Productions. B \rightarrow aB and B \rightarrow b are non–Unit productions.



WINY Dr Dandeniy TYMH



Eliminate unit productions from the grammar:

 $S \rightarrow A0 \mid B$ $B \rightarrow A \mid 11$ $A \rightarrow 0 \mid 12 \mid B$





 $\begin{array}{c}
S \longrightarrow AU \\
B \longrightarrow 11 \\
A \longrightarrow 0 \\
\end{array}$

 $5 \rightarrow B \rightarrow A$

 $\begin{cases} S \rightarrow A0|11|0|12 \\ \forall B \rightarrow 11|0|12 \\ A \rightarrow 0|12|11 \end{cases}$



Practice Examples

1. Eliminate all ε-Productions from the grammar:

 $S \rightarrow aSbS \mid bSaS \mid \epsilon$

2.Eliminate Unit production from the grammar below: $S \rightarrow Aa | B | Ca$ $B \rightarrow aB | b$ $C \rightarrow Db | D$ $D \rightarrow E | d$ $E \rightarrow ab$

Eliminating Symmetric Recursive Productions $(S \rightarrow SS, E \rightarrow E + E \text{ etc. forms})$

-Rewrite the grammar so that there is no longer choice -Replace the production $S \rightarrow SS$ with one of the following production:

 $\begin{array}{c} S \xrightarrow{} S \xrightarrow{} S_1^{\vee} & /* \text{ force branching to the left} \\ S \xrightarrow{} S_1^{\vee} & /* \text{ force branching to the right} \end{array}$

then we add the production $S \rightarrow S_1$ ()[] Example: Consider the grammar $S \rightarrow SS$ $S \rightarrow (S)$

 $S \rightarrow \epsilon$

 $S \rightarrow SS_{1}$ $S \rightarrow S_{1}$ $S_{1} \rightarrow (S)$ $S_{1} \rightarrow \epsilon$

Example:

Ambiguous Grammar

 $E \rightarrow E + E | E - E | E^*E | E/E | (E) | id_{in}$

F +

î d

X

id

Unambiguous Grammar

 $\begin{array}{l} \mathsf{E} \to \mathsf{E} + \mathsf{T} \mid \mathsf{E} \text{-} \mathsf{T} \mid \mathsf{T} \\ \mathsf{T} \to \mathsf{T}^* \mathsf{F} \mid \textcircled{F} \mid \mathsf{F} \mid \mathsf{T} / \mathsf{F} \\ \mathsf{F} \to (\mathsf{E}) \mid \mathsf{id} \end{array}$





Eliminating useless Symbol

 $(5) \longrightarrow (A) \longrightarrow (12)$

Definition: A symbol X is useful , if there is a derivation of the form: $S \xrightarrow{\times} \alpha X \beta \xrightarrow{\times} w \in L$ Otherwise , the symbol X is useless.

Example: Consider the grammar

 $S \rightarrow aA \mid bB$ $A \rightarrow aA \mid a$ $B \rightarrow bB$ $D \rightarrow ab \mid Ea$ $E \rightarrow aC \mid d$

Procedure:

Step1: Compute Non-Generating symbols in G and eliminate them.

Step2: Computing Un-Reachable symbols in G and eliminate them.

 $A \to X_1 \chi_1 \chi_2 \cdots \chi_n$ Example: 1. Eliminate useless symbols in the grammar $G_{S} = \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \alpha_{1} b_{1} d_{1} \\ A_{1} \end{array} \right\} \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \beta_{1} \\ \beta_{2} \end{array} \right\}$ $S \rightarrow aA \mid bB$ $A \rightarrow G$ NG={B> Non-Generating $A \rightarrow aA \mid a$ $B \rightarrow bB$ $U_{S} = \{D, E\}$ UNREALDADIE SYMBOIS $D \rightarrow ab \mid Ea$ $\langle E \rightarrow aC | d$ $S \rightarrow aA$ $A \rightarrow aA a$ A-, aAla D-) ab)Ea $E \rightarrow \sigma C | d$ $R_s = \{a, b, d, f, f\}$

2. Eliminate Useless symbols in the grammar below

 $S \rightarrow aA |a| Bb |cC$ $A \rightarrow aB$ $B \rightarrow a | Aa$ $C \rightarrow cCD$ $D \rightarrow ddd$ $\int \int e^{y} ddd$ $\int \int e^{y} ddd$



4



Consider the grammar G:

A → bA | Bba | aa B → aBa | b | D C → CA | AC | B D → a | ε

Eliminate any ε-Productions.
 Eliminate any unit productions
 Eliminate useless productions, if any.

```
| ) | NV = \frac{1}{2} \cdot B, C 
| A \rightarrow bA | Bba | ba | aa
| B \rightarrow aBa | aa| b | D
| C \rightarrow CA | A | AC | B
| D \rightarrow a
```

AJBABABARA B-)aBuluabla $C \rightarrow C A | H C | a B a | a a | b | a | b A | B b a | b a$ 3) $V G_5 = \{ \alpha, b, D, C, B, A \}, N4 = \{ \phi \}$ $A \rightarrow bA | Bba | ba | aa$ $B \rightarrow aBa | aa | b | a$

Normal form

The restriction can be imposed on the right hand side of productions in a CFG resulting in various normal forms. **Normal Forms**

1. Chomsky Normal Form $(CNF)^{\sim}$ 2. Greibach Normal Form (GNF)



Definition(CNF): Let G = (V,T,P,S) be a CFG. The grammar G is said to be in CNF, if all productions are of the form: Ex. $S \rightarrow AB$ $A \rightarrow BC$

or $A \rightarrow a$ where A,B and C \in V and a \in T.

 $A \rightarrow a \cap CNF$ $B \rightarrow b$ This context free grammar is in Chomsky normal form.

Definition(GNF): Let G = (V,T,P,S) be a CFG. The grammar G is said to be in GNF, if all productions are of the form: $P \rightarrow C$ $A \rightarrow a\alpha$

EX: S- LABC

where $\alpha \in V^*$ and $a \in T$.

Problems: Gm-IDM A->BC S-> ABBC -> A, A2 Convert the Following grammar to Chomsky Normal Form: 1A1 -> AB $(A \rightarrow 1 \quad B \rightarrow 1 \quad \longrightarrow \bigcirc$ $S \rightarrow 0A \mid 1B$ H2 3 BC CNF $A \rightarrow 0AA \mid 1S \mid 1$ $B \rightarrow 1BB | 0S | 1$ $S \rightarrow OA | S \rightarrow A_{\sigma}A_{\sigma}A_{\sigma} \rightarrow O$ S-ABB () $S \rightarrow IB | S \rightarrow A_{1}B_{1} \rightarrow I$ A1 Ai 5 -, AIAZ IA1 -> ABB $A \longrightarrow OAA / A \longrightarrow A_{B}AA$ CNF_ $\vec{A} \xrightarrow{\forall} A_2 A_{/} \xrightarrow{A_2} A_0 A$ $A_2 \rightarrow C \mathbb{P}^{\sim}$ $A_1 \rightarrow A_3 B$ $A_3 \rightarrow A B$ S>ABA AB $A \rightarrow A_2 A A_5$ $A \rightarrow IS \qquad \widetilde{A} \rightarrow A,S$ $B \longrightarrow A_3 B A_1 S$ $B \rightarrow |BB | B \rightarrow A, BB$ $A \rightarrow I$ $B \rightarrow A_3 B A_3 \rightarrow A_1 B$ $B \rightarrow A_0 S$ B->1 $A_{a} \rightarrow a$ B-> 05 $|\neg | \rightarrow |$ A2 > A.A

Convert the Following grammar to Chomsky Normal Form:

```
S \rightarrow aAD

A \rightarrow aB \mid bAB

B \rightarrow b

D \rightarrow d
```



Convert the Following grammar to CNF:

 $S \rightarrow aAD$ $A \rightarrow aB \mid bAB$ $B \rightarrow b \mid D$ $D \rightarrow d$

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Ŷ





E-liminul-16AB A D

Convert the Following grammar to CNF: -XB)-(4)Lingt Productions $S \rightarrow aACa$ $A \rightarrow B \mid a$ $B \rightarrow C \mid c$ 194-Jom $C \to cC \mid \epsilon$ $NV = \{C, B, A\}$ $\int \frac{S}{A} \xrightarrow{A} \frac{A}{a} \left[\frac{a}{a} \right] \frac{a}{a} \left[\frac{a}{a} \left[\frac{a}{a} \right] \frac{a}{a} \left[\frac{a}{a} \right] \frac{a}{a} \left[\frac{a}{a} \left[\frac{a}{a} \left[\frac{a}{a} \right] \frac{a}{a} \left[\frac{a}{a} \left[\frac{a}{a} \left[\frac{a}{a} \right] \frac{a}{a} \left[\frac{a}{$ A->cla/c($\begin{array}{c} B \rightarrow C | c \\ C \rightarrow c | c \\ \end{array}$ $\beta \rightarrow cCc$ $\bigcirc \rightarrow c \bigcirc c$ \|
\|

Practice Problems

Convert the Following grammars to CNF:

 $A_1 \rightarrow a$

3)

4)

2)





THANQ...

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Pushdown Automata(PDA)

NDF-SM S-tuple, 1-turn U-DESM Module-3

A Ut um ut un

DPDV

- FSM+ TIPMING

PUSH(1)

4bP

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P617

Stack (intinite

Content

- -An introduction to PDA, Languages of the PDA
- -Designing PDA
- -Deterministic and Non-deterministic PDAs

Introduction: An informal description of a pushdown automaton is shown in the diagram below. Such an automaton consists of the following:



-There is a tape which is divided into cells.

-There is a tape head which can move along the tape, one cell to the right per move. -There is a stack containing symbols and special symbols \hat{S} or Z_0

-There is a state control, which can be in any one of a finite number of states.

In one <u>transition</u>, the pushdown automaton:

A THE DE CONSTRUCTION OF THE PARTY OF THE PA

- 1. Consumes from the input the symbol that it uses in the transition. If ϵ is used for the input, then no input symbol is consumed.
- 2. Goes to a new state, which may or may not be the same as the previous state.
- 3. Replaces the symbol at the top of the stack by any string. The string could be ϵ , which corresponds to a pop of the stack. It could be the same symbol that appeared at the top of the stack previously; i.e., no change to the stack is made. It could also replace the top stack symbol by one other symbol, which in effect changes the top of the stack but does not push or pop it. Finally, the top stack symbol could be replaced by two or more symbols, which has the effect of (possibly) changing the top stack symbol, and then pushing one or more new symbols onto the stack.







Instantaneous Descriptions of a PDA (\square)

we shall represent the configuration of a PDA by a triple (q, w, γ) ,

where

- 1. q is the state,
- 2. w is the remaining input, and
- 3. γ is the stack contents.

Conventionally, we show the top of the stack at the left end of γ and the bottom at the right end. Such a triple is called an *instantaneous description*, or ID, of the pushdown automaton.

Moves of a PDA

Let $P = (Q, \Sigma, \Gamma, \delta, q_0, Z_0, F)$ be a PDA. Define \vdash_P , or just \vdash when P is understood, as follows. Suppose $\delta(q, a, X)$ contains (p, α) . Then for all strings w in Σ^* and β in Γ^* : $\downarrow \checkmark$ $(q, aw, X\beta) \vdash (p, w, \alpha\beta) \vdash \cdots ($

٩٢٦< Example: Show the moves made by PDA for the string "aaabbb" Or Give the sequence of IDs the PDA is in for the string "aaabbb" Za Zu E,#= b , a/ج **q1** ح a, z/az a, a/aa **Required PDA** \square $(9, anabbb, 20) \vdash (9, aabbb, az) \vdash (9, abbb, aaz) \vdash (9, bbb, aaz)$ 1 ALPM 7, 0004, b, Z.)) × (9, E, Z.)

Example: Design a Pushdown automata(PDA) for accepting $L = \{a^nb^n : n \ge 0\}$ & also show the sequence of IDs for the string "aabb". 1PD M a Zo) aZo 6,alE (90, aubb, 20) a a laa E, Zu Zn 90 (9, abb, az,) (9, aabb, z) (9, abb, z)6,2/6 ∈,Z₀]Z₀ (9, 66, auzo) \mathbf{N} Ugqb $\begin{pmatrix} \tau_{\mathbf{x}} & \boldsymbol{\zeta} & \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{z}_{\mathbf{v}} \end{pmatrix}$ $\begin{pmatrix} \tau_{\mathbf{x}} & \boldsymbol{\zeta} & \boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{z}_{\mathbf{v}} \end{pmatrix} \longrightarrow \begin{pmatrix} \tau_{\mathbf{x}} & \boldsymbol{\zeta} & \boldsymbol{\zeta} & \boldsymbol{\zeta} \end{pmatrix}$ $\begin{pmatrix} \eta_{1} & \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} & \boldsymbol{z}_{\mathbf{v}} \end{pmatrix} \longrightarrow \begin{pmatrix} \tau_{\mathbf{x}} & \boldsymbol{\zeta} & \boldsymbol{\zeta} & \boldsymbol{\zeta} \end{pmatrix}$ $\begin{pmatrix} \eta_{1} & \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} & \boldsymbol{z}_{\mathbf{v}} \end{pmatrix} \longrightarrow \begin{pmatrix} \tau_{\mathbf{x}} & \boldsymbol{\zeta} & \boldsymbol{\zeta} & \boldsymbol{\zeta} \end{pmatrix}$ $\begin{pmatrix} \eta_{1} & \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} & \boldsymbol{z}_{\mathbf{v}} \end{pmatrix} \longrightarrow \begin{pmatrix} \tau_{\mathbf{x}} & \boldsymbol{\zeta} & \boldsymbol{\zeta} & \boldsymbol{\zeta} \end{pmatrix}$

Language of PDA (Mernite definition of PDA)

A language can be accepted by PDA using two approaches:

1. Acceptance by Final State: The PDA is said to accept its input by the final state if it enters any final state in zero or more moves after reading the entire input.

Let $P = (Q, \sum, \Gamma, \delta, q_0, Z_0, F)$ be a PDA. The language acceptable by the *final state* can be defined as:

 $\mathsf{L}(\mathsf{P}) = \{ w \mid (q_0, w, Z_0) \stackrel{*}{\vdash} (q, \epsilon, \alpha) \} \text{ for some state } \underline{q} \text{ in } \underline{F} \text{ and any stack string } \alpha.$

2. Acceptance by Empty Stack

On reading the input string from the initial configuration, the stack of PDA gets empty. Let $\mathbf{P} = (\mathbf{Q}, \sum, \Gamma, \delta, \mathbf{q}_0, \mathbf{Z}_0, \mathbf{F})$ be a PDA. The language acceptable by *empty stack* can be defined as: $L(\mathbf{P}) = \{w \mid (q_0, w, Z_0) \models^* (q, \epsilon, \epsilon)\}$ for any state q.

Since set of accepting states are irrelevant, We shall sometimes leave off, seventh component from P.

What does each of the following transitions represent?

1. $\delta(p, a, Z) = (q, aZ)$ (p) (q) PUSh() 2. $\delta(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{Z}) = (\mathbf{q}, \boldsymbol{\epsilon})$ 4. $\delta(\mathbf{p}, \varepsilon, \mathbf{Z}) = (\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{B})$ $(P) \xrightarrow{F7/B} (T) \longrightarrow RCP(alr())$ $(P) \stackrel{E,E}{=} (Z, (P)) \xrightarrow{} Reflece (1)$ 5. $\delta(\mathbf{p}, \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}, \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}) = (\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{Z})$ 6. $\delta(\mathbf{p}, \boldsymbol{\epsilon}, \mathbf{Z}) = (\mathbf{q}, \boldsymbol{\epsilon})$ $(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{z}, \mathbf{Z}) \rightarrow (\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{z})$

Designing PDA



Design a Pushdown automata(PDA) for $L = \{a^n b^{2n} : n \ge 1\}$ $a_1 z_0 |a z_0$ $a_1 a_1 a_1 a_2$ $a_1 a_1 a_2 a_1 a_2$

Moverby PDA: N= rabbbb $\begin{array}{c} (9_{0}, aabbb, z_{0}) \vdash (9_{0}, abbbb, aaz_{0}) \vdash (9_{0}, bbbb, aaaz_{0}) \\ \hline (nitial | D) \\ \vdash (9_{1}, bb, aaz_{0}) \\ \vdash (9_{1}, b, az_{0}) \\ \vdash (9_{1}, e, z_{0}) \vdash (9_{2}, E, z_{0}) \\ \hline (Final (D) \end{array}$

Design a Pushdown automata(PDA) for $L = \{ a^{2n}b^n : n \ge 1 \}$





Design a PDA to accept the language $L = \{ww^R | w \in \{a,b\} * and w^R \text{ is reverse of } w\}$



Moves by PDA: on "aabbaa"






E-NZF-SM as wha 0,2.12, 0,20/20 (6) \Box $\langle 1, 2 \rangle Z_0$ Г 070 Z5 ٦ IZ. 0,20/20 ٩₀, E a, Zo Zo 10,2,20 ZD 7 5 azzo Zo (q) 97 x 20 20 $d(q_{\alpha_1}, q_{\gamma_2}) = (q_{\alpha_1}, z_{\alpha}) \int \int d(q_{\alpha_1}, q_{\gamma_2}) d(q_{\alpha_1}, q_{\gamma_2}) = (q_{\alpha_1}, q_{\gamma_2}) \int d(q_{\alpha_1}, q_{\gamma_2}) d(q_{\alpha_1}, q_{\gamma_2}) = (q_{\alpha_1}, q_{\gamma_2}) \int d(q_{\alpha_1}, q_{\gamma_2}) d(q_{\alpha_1}, q_{\gamma_2}) = (q_{\alpha_1}, q_{\gamma_2}) \int d(q_{\alpha_1}, q_{\gamma_2}) d(q_{\alpha_1}, q$ 10, Zo Ro ้ร $S(9, 2_0) = \{(9, 2_0), (9, 2_0)\}$

Equivalence of PDA and CFG



From Grammar to Pushdown Automata

-Given a CFG G, we Can construct a PDA that simulates the leftmost derivations of G.

LMD

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Let G= (V, T, P, S) be a CFG. Construct the PDA P that accepts L(G) by <u>empty stack</u> such that L(G) = L(P), where P= ({ q }, T, VUT, δ , q, S)

Method:

1. For each variable A, define transitions:

 $\delta(q, \epsilon, A) = \{ (q, \beta) \mid A \rightarrow \beta \text{ is a production of } P \}$

2. For each terminal a, define transition: $\delta(q, a, a) = \{(q, \epsilon)\}$

Convert the following grammar into Equivalent PDA. $\rightarrow PDA$ $V=\{5, A, B, C\}$ $T=\{a, b, C\}$ $S \rightarrow aABC$ E, S/aABC $A \rightarrow aB \mid a$ $B \rightarrow bA \mid b$ $E, A \mid B$ $E, A \mid a$ $E, B \mid b A$ $C \rightarrow a$ $\mathcal{S}(9, \varepsilon, 5) = (9, \varepsilon ABC)$ 6,3/6 EICLA 9,9/E $S(9, E, A) - (9, \alpha B), (9, \alpha)$ 6,61E J(9, E, B) = J(9, LA), (9, L)J(9, E, C) = (9, a) J(9, a, a) = (9, E) J(9, a, b) = (9, E) J(9, b, b) = (9, E)

Practice Examples

1) For the grammar:

2) Convert the following CFG to PDA





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A.S.

Module-4

Content

*Algorithms and Decision Procedures for CFLs:

- -Decidable questions ✓ -Un-decidable questions.✓ ↓ CFL

Turing Machine:

- -Turing machine model, Representation,
- -Language acceptability by TM,
- -Design of TM,
- -Techniques for TM construction. Variants of Turing Machines (TM),
- -The model of Linear Bounded automata

TextBook-1: 14.1, 14.2 TextBook-2: 9.1 to 9.8



Membership

Algorithm: Using Grammar

decideCFLusingGrammar(L: CFL, w: string) =

- 1. if L is specified as a grammar G, simply use G.
- 2. if $(w = \varepsilon)$ then if (S is nullable) then accept else reject.
- 3. if $(w \neq \varepsilon)$ then
 - 3.1. From G, construct G' such that $L(G') = L(G) \{\epsilon\}$ and G' is in CNF.
 - 3.2. if G' derives w in (2 * |w| 1) steps then accept else reject.

Example: Suppose $\tilde{L} = \{ a^n b^n : n \ge 1 \}$ $L_{-} \{ A_{-} \}$ $C_{-} \{ A_{-} \}$ W=aaabbbEL 2x6-1ster $S \rightarrow aSb \mid ab$ W=akbb A→BC 67 S => AIB $h \rightarrow \sigma$ \Rightarrow ASB S-> ASB AB => < 5 B => < A & B B ז, לוי =) a7 131 S-> A, B/AB -) ag L B $S \implies A_1 B \implies A_5 B$ $\implies A_5 B$ = aabbEL A- AS - AIBB (-)B-> b => a ASBB => aa SBB CNIF => q Q HBBB , is an a BBB =) GOODBB / = aaabbb - aaabbb

Emptiness

Let G = (V, T, P, S) be a context-free grammar that generates L. $L(G) = \Phi$ iff S is unproductive (i.e., not able to generate any terminal strings). The following algorithm exploits the procedure remove unproductive(non generating) symbols to remove all unproductive non-terminals from G. It answers the question, "Given a context-free language L, is $L = \Phi$?".

decideCFLempty(G: context-free grammar) =
1. Let G' = removeunproductive(G).
2. If S is not present in G'
 then return True
 else
 return False.

Algorithm



 $G_{G} = \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \alpha, b, A \end{array} \right\}$ A-> ~ A-> ~ BCd BD

2) $S \rightarrow AB \mid B$ $A \rightarrow a | \epsilon$ $B \rightarrow b$

Example:

 $A \rightarrow a$

1) $S \rightarrow AB | Bb$

 $G_{S} = 1 G_{A} B_{A} B_{S}$ $L(L) \neq \Phi$ -



is L finite with fine 9

Let G = (V, T, P, S) be a context-free grammar that generates L. is L infinite? There exist an algorithm to decide whether L is finite or infinite.

Algorithm

```
decideCFLinfinite(G: CFG) =
```

- 1. Let G' = G with $\underline{\epsilon}$, Unit and Useless productions removed.
- 2. Draw a directed graph whose nodes are variables of the G'.

3. if (graph contains a cycle)

then

return true; // L is infinite else

return false; // L is finite





L(G) 11 finite Example: G = G $S \rightarrow AB \mid ab$ $A \rightarrow a$ $B \rightarrow aD \mid b$ $D \rightarrow bE$ $E \rightarrow e$ Directed Graph L $S \rightarrow a S | Bb$ $|Z \rightarrow b| C$ $C \rightarrow Bb$ 5 $\lfloor (\zeta_{j} \rangle_{j} \zeta_{j} \zeta_{j} \eta_{+} \eta_{+} \eta_{+}$ <u>_</u>G (LYLF|7)

The Undecidable questions

X

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- Given a Context-free language L, is $L = \Sigma^*?^{\times}$
- Given a CFL L, is the complement of L context-free?
- Given two context-free languages L_1 and L_2 is $L_1 = L_2$?
- Given two context-free languages L_1 and L_2 , is $L_1 \subseteq L_2$? $\stackrel{\times}{\swarrow}$
- Given two context-free languages L_1 and L_2 , is $L_1 \cap L_2 = \bigotimes ?_{\sim}$
- Given a context-free language L, is L inherently ambiguous?
- Given a context-free grammar G, is G ambiguous?

Note: No algorithms or Procedures exist for all the above Questions as of now!

Turing Machine(TM)

In the early 1930s, mathematicians were trying to define effective computation.

Alan Turing in 1936, gave various models using the concept of Turing machines.

It is interesting to note that these were formulated much before the electro-mechanical/electronic computers were devised.

It has been universally accepted by computer scientists that the Turing machine provides an ideal theoretical model of a computer.

Turing machines are useful in several ways:

-As an automaton, the Turing machine is the most general model for accepting type-0 Languages -It can also be used for computing functions etc...

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Fig. Turing machine model

The Turing machine can be thought of as finite control connected to a R/W (read/write) head.

It has one tape which is divided into a number of cells. The block diagram of the basic model for the Turing machine is given in Fig.

Each cell can store only one symbol. The input to and the output from the finite state automaton are effected by the R/W head which can examine one cell at a time.

BASIC Model of TURING MACHINE(TM) Contd...

In one move, the machine examines the present symbol under the R/W head on the tape and the present state of an automaton to determine:

- (i) a new symbol to be written on the tape in the cell under the R/W head,
- (ii) a motion of the R/W head along the tape: either the head moves one cell left (L) or one cell right (R),
- (iii) The next state of the automaton, and
- (iv) whether to halt or not.



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Definition:

A Turing machine *M* is a 7-tuple, namely (Q, Σ , Γ , δ , q_o , *b*, *F*), where;

- 1. Q is a finite nonempty set of states,
- 2. Γ is a finite nonempty set of tape symbols,
- 3. $b \in \Gamma$ is the blank,
- 4. Σ is a nonempty set of input symbols and is a subset of Γ and $b \notin \Sigma$,
- 5. δ is the transition function mapping (q, x) onto (q', y, D) where D denotes the direction of movement of R/W head; D = L or R according as the movement is to the left or right.
- 6. $q_0 \in Q$ is the initial state, and
- 7. $F \subseteq Q$ is the set of final states.

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 $(T, r) \rightarrow (q', \gamma, L/R)$

REPRESENTATION OF TURING MACHINES

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We can describe a Turing machine by employing:

- 1. INSTANTANEOUS DESCRIPTIONS(IDs)
- 2. TRANSITION DIAGRAM(TD)
- 3. TRANSITION TABLE $(TT)^{\vee}$

REPRESENTATION BY INSTANTANEOUS DESCRIPTIONS(IDs)

Snapshots' of a Turing machine in action can be used to describe a Turing machine. These give 'instantaneous descriptions' of a Turing machine. ω_{c}

An ID of a Turing machine is defined in terms of the entire input string and the current state.

An ID of a Turing machine M is a string $\alpha q\beta$, where q is the present state of M, the entire input string is split as $\alpha\beta$, the first symbol of β is the current a symbol under the R/W head and β has all the subsequent symbols of the input string and the string α is the substring of the input string formed by all the symbols to the left of a.

EXAMPLE:

A snapshot of Turing machine is shown in Fig., obtain the instantaneous



Solution

The present symbol under the R/W head is a_1 . The present state is q_3 . So a_1 is written to the right of q_3 . The nonblank symbols to the left of a_1 form the string $a_4a_1a_2a_1a_2a_2$, which is written to the left of q_3 . The sequence of nonblank symbols to the right of a_1 is a_4a_2 . Thus the ID is as given in Fig.



Notes: (1) For constructing the ID, we simply insert the current state in the input string to the left of the symbol under the R/W head.

(2) We observe that the blank symbol may occur as part of the left or right substring.

REPRESENTATION BY TRANSITION DIAGRAM

We can use the transition diagram to represent Turing machines.

The states are represented by vertices. Directed edges are used to represent transition of states. Each edge has label described by triple (x, y, D).



REPRESENTATION BY TRANSITION TABLE

We give the definition of $\boldsymbol{\delta}$ in the form of a table called the transition table

Consider, for example, a Turing machine with five states $q_1, ..., q_5$, where q_1 is the initial state and q_5 is the (only) final state. The tape symbols are 0, 1 and b. The transition table given in table below describes δ .



DESIGN OF TURING MACHINES

Design a Turing Machine to recognize all strings consisting of even number of 1's. Obtain the sequence of IDs to accept string : 1111

 $M = (Q, \Sigma, \Gamma, \delta, q_o, b, F)$ ZgB (1, b, R)9,111 - 69,111 - 669,115 (1,b,R) - 6R9, - 6R9, - 6669, - 6669, - 6669, - 689, - 689, - 6669, - 6669, - 6669, - 689, -formally G [1] = (19, 2, 3) / 1/ 1/ 1/ 5/ 5/ 1/ 5/ 3]



Practice Problems

- 1. Design a Turing Machine to accept the L= { w : |w| is even and w consisting of a's and b's }
- 2. Design a Turing Machine to accept the language containing strings of 0's and \checkmark 1's ending with 011}
- 3. Design a Turing Machine to accept the language L = { w | w \in {0,1}* } \int containing the substring 001









Design a TM to accept the following Languages: 1) $L = \{ w_c w^R \mid w \in \{ a, b \} \text{ and } w^R \text{ reverse of } w \}$

LANGUAGE ACCEPTABILITY BY TM

The Language accepted by TM is defined as follows.

Let $M = (Q, \Sigma, \Gamma, \delta, q_0, b, F)$ be a Turing Machine. The Language L(M) accepted by M is defined as:

L(M) = { w | $q_0 w \models \alpha \beta$, where $w \in \Sigma^*$, $p \in F$ and $\alpha, \beta \in \Gamma$ }

Note: The TM can do one of the following:
1. Halt and accept by entering into final state
2. Halt and reject . This is possible if the transition is not defined.
3. TM will never halt and enters into an infinite loop.

No algorithms exist to determine and tell whether TM always halts \rightarrow Undecidable Problem



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Examples:

Obtain a Turing Machine to compute 1's Complement of a given binary number.



Obtain a Turing Machine to compute 2's Complement of a given binary number. (0,0,R) (O, I, L)(0,0,L) 110 (I,I,R)וטט (b,b,R) (I,I,L)(b,b,L) 9₂ MOVERBYTM! IFMOVERBYTM! IF $<math>g_o||vo|u| - 09,10010 - 019,1000$ |-0||1,000|-c||0,00|-0||009,00-6110019,0+01100109,b-0110017,0 $- D10^{0}0^{1}10^{1}-010^{2}0^{1}0^{1}-010^{1}0^{1}$ $= \frac{1}{1} \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{1} \frac{1}{2} \frac$ - 526 1001110 - 6931001110

SUPPLEMENTARY EXAMPLES(Languages)

- 1. Design a Turing Machine to accept the language $L = \{ a^n b^{2n} | n \ge 1 \}$
- 2. Design a Turing Machine to accept the language $L = \{ w | n_a(w) = n_b(w) \}$

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abh Ar bbbh Mr 3493

3. Design a TM that reads a string in {0, 1} * and erases the rightmost symbol.


Acceptance by TM



String

If machine enters an *infinite loop*

TECHNIQUES FOR TM CONSTRUCTION

-In this section: some high-level conceptual tools to make the construction of TMs easier for addressing simple/complex problems.

- -The TM defined & studied till now is called the standard TM(single Tape)
- **1.TURING MACHINE WITH STATIONARY HEAD**
- 2. STORAGE IN THE STATE
- **3. MULTIPLE TRACK TURING MACHINE**
- **4. SUBROUTINES**
- **5. CHECKING OF SYMBOLS**

$$k \in$$

 $L = J P = -0$
 $f = S L = 1$
 $c = 5 L = 1$
 $c = 1 = 2$
 $R = -3$

A standard TM is capable of accepting some of the languages, called Recursively Enumerable(RE) language. But by doing some kind of modifications, we can increase the number of languages accepted by Turing Machine.

Basic

1. Stationary Head

• In the definition of a TM we defined $\delta(q, a)$ as (q', y, D)where $D = \underline{L}$ or \underline{R} .

 $(\alpha, \mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{L})$

- Suppose, we want to include the option that the head can continue to be in the same cell for some input symbol. Then we define $\delta(q, a)$ as (q', y, S). $\delta(q, a) = (q', y', S)$.
- In terms of IDs,

Contraction of the

wqax |- wq'vx

Thus in this model $\delta(q, a) = (q', y, D)$ where D = L, R or S.

2.Storage in the State

- State is used in FA or PDA or TM, to 'remember' things.
- We can use a state to store a symbol as well. So the state becomes a pair (q, a) where q is the state and a is the tape symbol stored in (q, a). So the new set of states becomes Q x Γ.

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3. MULTIPLE TRACK TURING MACHINE

- In a multiple track TM, a single tape is assumed to be divided into several tracks.
- So, tape alphabet Γ is required to consist of k-tuples of tape symbols, k being the number of tracks.
- Hence the only difference between the standard TM and the TM with multiple tracks is the set of tape symbols.
- Standard Turing machine:

Tape symbols are - elements of Γ ;

• TM with multiple track:

Tape symbols are- Γ^k=1,10

TM with multiple tracks, but just one unified tape head

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 $\lambda \omega c \mathbf{W} | \epsilon r \sigma_{1} r$

4. SUBROUTINES

Subroutine- some task has to be done repeatedly.

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- TM program for the subroutine has an initial state and a 'return' state. After reaching the return state, there is a temporary halt.
- For using a subroutine, new states are introduced. When there is a need for calling the subroutine, moves are effected to enter the initial state for the subroutine (when the return state of the subroutine is reached) and to return to the main program of TM.
- Ex: Design a TM for performing multiplication of two positive integers.

 $\int \left(\begin{array}{c} \boldsymbol{\eta}_{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \end{array} \right) = \left(\begin{array}{c} \boldsymbol{\eta}_{\boldsymbol{\alpha}_{\boldsymbol{\beta}}} \boldsymbol{\lambda}_{\boldsymbol{\beta}_{\boldsymbol{\beta}}} \end{array} \right)$

Explanation with Example: TM to perform multiplication of two positive integers

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Variants of Turing machines NTM

The Turing machine we have introduced has a single tape. $\delta(q, a)$ is either a single triple (p, a, D), where D = R or L, or is not defined.

In this section, we introduce two new models of TM:

(i) a TM with more than one tape.

(ii) a TM where $\delta(q, x) = \{(q_1, y_1, D_1), \{(q_2, y_2, D_2), \dots, (q_n, D_n)\}$

The first model is called a Multitape Turing Machine and the second

a Nondeterministic Turing Machine.

i) Multitape Turing machines

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A multitape TM has k tapes, each with its own read/write head. Initially, the input is written on the first tape, and all the other tapes are blank, with each head at the beginning of the corresponding tape.

If you are in state q1 and see 0 on Tape₁, 1 on Tape₂ and 1 on Tape₃, • replace x on Tape₁, y on Tape₂ and x on Tape₃;

- move Head₁ right, Head₂ right and Head₃ left;
- go to state q2.

Structure of multitape TM

A move depends on the current state and k tape symbols under k tape heads.

In a typical move:

(i) *M* enters a new state.

(ii) On each tape, a new symbol is written in the cell under the head.

(iii) Each tape head moves to the left or right or remains stationary. The heads move independently: some move to the left, some to the right and the remaining heads do not move.

Ex.: Addition of two Binary Numbers(discard final carry, if any)

Every language accepted by a multitape TM is acceptable by some single-tape TM (that is, the standard TM). M_{1} , M_{2} , $L(M_{2}) - L(M_{2})$

Definitions:

~ Note:

Running time: Let M be a TM and w an input string. The running time of M on input w, is the number of steps that M takes before halting. If M does not halt on an input string w, then the running time of M on w is infinite. \sim

Time complexity: The time complexity of TM M, is the function T(n), n being the input size, where T(n) is defined as the maximum of the running time of M over all inputs w of size n. T(n)

IDITION -1 PM

ii) Non-Deterministic Turing machines(NTM)

A Nondeterministic TM is allowed to have more than 1 transition for a given tape symbol:

DIM

A string is accepted, if one of the branches of computation takes us to the accept state.

Note: Every Nondeterministic TM has an equivalent Deterministic TM (i.e. Standard TM).

Definition:

A Nondeterministic Turing machine is a 7-tuple $(Q, \Sigma, \Gamma, \delta, q_o, b, F)$,

 $\{9_1, 9_2, 9_3, 9_4\}$

Where:

- 1. Q is a finite nonempty set of states
- 2. Γ is a finite nonempty set of tape symbols

 $Q = \sum_{i_1, i_2, i_3} \sum_{j=1}^{i_1, i_3} \sum_{j=1}^{i_2, i_3} \sum_{j=1}^{i_2, i_3} \sum_{j=1}^{i_3, i_3} \sum_{j=1}^{i_$

- 3. $b \in \Gamma$ is called the blank symbol
- 4. Σ is a nonempty subset of Γ . called the set of input symbols. We assume that $b \notin \Sigma$.
- assume that $b \notin \Sigma$. 5. q_0 is the initial state 6. $F \subseteq Q$ is the set of final states 7. δ is a partial function from $Q \times \Gamma$ into the power set of $Q \times \Gamma \times$
- *L*, *R*. $\{L, R\}$.

Note: If $q \in Q$ and $x \in \Gamma$ and $\delta(q, x) = \{(q_1, y_1, D_1), \{(q_2, y_2, D_2), \dots, (q_n, y_n, D_n)\}$

then the NTM can chose any one of the actions defined by (q_i, y_i, D_i) for i = 1.2....n.

Example: NTM to accept all the strings of a's and b's ending with ab or ba

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THE LINEAR BOUNDED AUTOMATON(LBA)

(A restricted form of Turing Machine)

A Linear Bounded Automaton(LBA) is a Non-Deterministic Turing machine which has a single tape whose length is not infinite but bounded by a linear function of the length of the input string.

This model is important because: (1) the set of context-sensitive languages is accepted by the model. and (2) the infinite storage is restricted in size.

It is called the linear bounded automaton (LBA) because a linear function is used to restrict the length of the tape.

LBAs are not as powerful as TM...

Definition: The LBA can be described formally by the following set format:

 $\mathsf{M}=(\!\mathsf{Q}, \Sigma\,,\,\Gamma\,,\,\pmb{\delta},\,\,\mathsf{q}_o,\,\mathsf{b},\,\boldsymbol{¢}\,\,,\,\$,\,\mathsf{F})$ where

Q is finite nonempty set of states Γ is a finite set of tape symbols

 $b \in \Gamma$ is called the blank symbol

 Σ is a nonempty set of input symbol q_0 is the initial state.

 $F \subseteq Q$ is the set of final states

 δ is a transition function.

 \emptyset , $\S \in \Sigma$ are input left-end and right-end marker on tape respectively and are special symbols.

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Model of Linear Bounded Automata(LBA): Block diagram

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Input tape

There are two tapes: one is called the input tape, and the other, working tape. On the input tape the head never writes and never moves to the left.

On the working tape the head can modify the contents in any way, without any restriction. Where k is a constant specified in the description of LBA.

Whenever we process any string in LBA, we shall assume that the input string is enclosed within the end markers $\not C$ and \$.

\$ is called the right-end marker which is entered in the rightmost cell of the input tape and prevents the R head from getting off the right end of the tape.

¢ is called the left-end marker which is entered in the leftmost cell of the input tape and prevents the R head from getting off the left end of the tape.

The language accepted by LBA M is defined as: $(D_{\kappa}) = \{w \in (\Sigma - \{\emptyset, \$\}) * | (q_0, \emptyset w \$, 1) \models (q, \alpha, i) \}$

for some $q \in F$ and for some integer i between 1 and n.

In the case of LBA, an ID is denoted by (q, w, k), where $q \in Q$, $w \in \Gamma$ and k is some integer between 1 and n. The transition of IDs is similar except that k changes to k - 1 if the R/W head moves to the left and to k + 1 if the head moves to the right.

The Class of Languages accepted by LBA is called Context-Sensitive Language.

No.

1.6

Presented(online) by : Dr. S G Gollagi

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(for University of Toronto, Canada)

Topic: Decidability and Complexity

Decidability:

The definition of an algorithm, Decidability.
 Decidable languages & Undecidable languages.
 Halting problem of TM.
 Post Correspondence Problem(PCP).

Complexity:

1.Growth rate of functions, The classes of P and NP problems.2.Quantum Computation:Quantum computers.3.Church -Turing thesis.

1. The definition of an algorithm, Decidability

-An Algorithm is a finite, well defined procedural steps to solve a given task. The algorithm is terminated after finite number of steps for any input. a=3 3+1+1+1+1=7b=24 C=a+bEx.: Algorithm to add two numbers.

Euclidean algorithm for computing GCD of two natural numbers.

The formal definition of algorithm emerged after the works of Alan Turing and Alanzo Church in 1936.

The Church-Turing thesis states that any algorithmic procedure that can be carried out by a human or a computer, can also be carried out by a Turing machine. <alp>TM

Thus the Turing machine arose as an ideal theoretical model for an algorithm.

G d(q, a) =

RFL

As an algorithm terminates eventually, the TM also terminates. The TM halts in following two situations:,,

When a TM reaches a final state, it halts (accepting string)
 When a TM is in some state q & next input symbol is 'a' and if the transition δ(q, a) is not specified, it halts(rejecting string).

But, there are some TM that never halt on some inputs in any of the above situations.

So, we have to make a distinction between the language that are recognized by TM & Halts on all input strings and a TM that never halts on some input strings.

Recursively enumerable(RE) Language: A Language $L \subseteq \Sigma^*$ is RE iff there exist a TM such that L = T(M), where T(M) is the language accepted by Turing Machine.

 $\begin{aligned} & \int E \int \int \int L & \int e^{-\lambda t} \int \int e^{-\lambda t} \int \int L & \int e^{-\lambda t} \int \int L & \int e^{-\lambda t} \int \int L & \int E^{-\lambda t} \int L & \int$

- (i) if w ∈ L then w is accepted by M on reaching the accepting state & M halts.
- (ii) if w ∉ L then M eventually halts, without reaching an accepting
 state.

Note: The Conditions (i) and (ii) assure us that the TM always halts, accepting w under condition (i) and rejecting under condition (ii).

Decidable Language

A problem/Language with two answers (Yes/No) is decidable if the corresponding language is recursive. In this case, the language L is also called decidable.

Undecidable Language

A problem / Language is undecidable if it is not decidable.

Note: A decidable problem is called a <u>solvable problem</u> and an undecidable problem an <u>unsolvable problem</u>.

2. Decidable and undecidable Language

In this section, we consider the decidability of regular and context-free languages.

accept input abb?

• We can formulate this question as a language:

 $A_{\text{DFA}} = \{ \langle B, w \rangle : B \text{ is a DFA that accepts input } w \}$

Is $A_{\rm DFA}$ decidable?

((q0,q1) (a,b) ((q0,a,q0) (q0,b,q1) (q1,a,q0) (q1,b,q1) (q0) (q1)) (abb) $= (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$ w

Theorem: if $A_{DFA} = \{ \langle B, w \rangle | B \text{ is DFA that accept } w \}$, then A_{DFA} is decidable.

Proof: Let B = (Q, Σ , δ , q_0 , F) be a DFA. We have to construct a TM M that always halts & accepts L(B). We know that DFA always ends in some state after reading the string w.

Now, we can construct a TM *M* that simulate DFA as follows:

1) Let B be a DFA & w an input string. < B, w> is an input for the Turing machine M.

2) Simulate B and input w in the TM M. Here, TM M checks whether input <B,w> is valid input. If <B,w> is invalid then TM M rejects and halts. If <B,w> is valid input, M writes the initial state q_0 and leftmost input symbol of w. It updates the state using δ & reads the next symbol in w.

3) If simulation ends in an accepting state of M, then TM accept <B,w>. Otherwise, M rejects <B,w>.

It is evident that M accepts $\langle B, w \rangle$ iff w is accepted by the DFA B. Hence, A_{DFA} is decidable Language.

Is Language A_{DFA} decidable?

Does there exist a TM that accepts all members of A_{DFA} and rejects all other inputs? (i.e. does it always halt)

Algorithm: Input <B,w> where B is a DFA & w an input string

- 1. Start
- 2. TM M , simulate B on string w
- 3. If simulated B ends in accept state then accept <B,w> and halt.
- 4. If simulated B ends in non-accepting state then reject <B,w> and halt.
- 5. Stop

Since, there exist an algorithm to answer the problem.

Hence , A_{DFA} is decidable.

is ANFA is defiding

Perform simulation:

0.0.0

Definition: $A_{CFG} = \{ \langle G, w \rangle | \text{ the Context-Free Grammar G accepts the input string w } \}$

Prove that CFL is decidable Language

Is A_{CFG} decidable Language?

Every context-free language is decidable.

Proof. We convert a CFG into CNF. Then any derivation of w of length n requires 2n-1 steps, if the grammar is in CNF. So, for checking whether the input string w of length n is in L(G), it is enough to check derivation in 2n-1 steps. We know that there are only finitely many derivations in 2n-1 steps. Now, we design a TM that halts as follows:

1) Let G be a CFG in CNF & <G, w> is an input string for TM M.

2) if n = 0, list all the single-step derivations.

3) if $n \neq 0$, list all the derivations with 2n-1 steps.

4) if any of the derivations in step 2 or 3 generates the string w, then M accepts <G,w > & halts.

else

M rejects <G, w> & halts.

<*G*, *w*> is represented by representing the four components (*V*,*T*,*P*,*S*) of *G* and input string w. The next step of the derivation is got by the production to be applied.

8-1=7 5tcps Example: Consider the CFG for $L = \{a^nb^n | n \ge 0\}$ n = |w| = |aabb| = 4 $S \rightarrow aSb \mid \epsilon$ and w = aabb'A->BC GV A->a $\int \bigcirc (B \Rightarrow ASB)$ H E- PYL duitin S -> asblab Mary < 4 W> HCNF a SB Sjaabb Bjaabb BjaabbEL $S \rightarrow ASB|AB$ $A \rightarrow a \Rightarrow B = D$ $B \rightarrow b$ $B \rightarrow b$ $A \rightarrow a$ $B \rightarrow b$ $A \rightarrow a$ $B \rightarrow b$ $A \rightarrow a$ $B \rightarrow b$ $\left\{\frac{(5,c,A,B)(\alpha,b)(5\rightarrow CB, 5\rightarrow AB, C\rightarrow AS, A\rightarrow \alpha, B\rightarrow b)(5)(aabb)}{(5,c,A,B)(\alpha,b)(5)(aabb)}\right\}$ Encoding RUN

1.The Post Correspondence Problem(PCP) 2.Halting Problem of Turing Machine

1.THE POST CORRESPONDENCE PROBLEM

The Post Correspondence Problem (PCP) was first introduced by Emil Post in 1946. Later, the problem was found to have many applications in the theory of formal languages.

The problem over an alphabet Σ belongs to a class of yes/no problems and is stated as follows:

$$|\mathbf{x}_1 \mathbf{x}_{\perp} - \cdots \mathbf{x}_{n}| = |\mathbf{y}_1 \mathbf{y}_{2} - \cdots \mathbf{y}_{n}| \qquad \langle \mathbf{y}_{n} \mathbf{y}_{n} | = |\mathbf{y}_1 \mathbf{y}_{n} | = |$$

Consider the two lists $x = (x_1, x_2 \dots x_n)$, $y = (y_1, y_2, \dots y_n)$ of nonempty strings over an alphabet Σ . The PCP is to determine whether or not there exist $i_1, i_2 \dots i_m$ where $1 \le i_j \le n$, such that $x_{i1} \dots x_{im} = y_{i1} \dots y_{im}$

Note: if there exists a solution to PCP, there may exist infinitely many solutions.

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=VZNN1OGoqr8

The Post Correspondence Problem

The Post correspondence problem is an undecidable decision problem that was introduced by Emil Post in 1946

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XOXO-

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The Post Correspondence Problem



ALL PROPERTY



We need to find a sequence of dominos such that the top and bottom strings



Practice Problems:

$$\chi=(b, babbb, ba) \gamma=(bbb, ba, 4) 0$$

- 1. Does the PCP with two lists $x = (b, bab^3, ba)$ and $y = (b^3, ba, a)$ have a solution?
- 2. Find at least two solutions to PCP defined by the dominoes:



2. HALTING PROBLEM OF TURING MACHINE

Given a TM M and an input string w with the initial configuration $q_0^{'}w$, after some(or all) computations, does the machine M halts on w?

Alan Turing ,in 1990 proved that the halting problem of TM on input w is undecidale.

A reduction Techniques may be used to prove the undecidability of halting problem of a TM. Using this techniques, a problem A is reducible to problem B if a solution to the problem B can be used to solve the problem A. $A \implies B$

Thus,

-if A is reducible to B and B is decidable , then A is decidable. -if A is reducible to B & B is undecidable, then A is undecidable.

Block diagram of a Halting machine:





Key point: Turing machine can be encoded as string, and other Turing machines can read those strings to perform "simulations"

Theorem: The Language HALT_{TM} = { <M ,w> | the TM M halts on input w } is undecidable.

- **Proof:** We assume that $HALT_{TM}$ is decidable and get a contradiction. Let M_1 , be the TM such that $T(M_1) = HALT_{TM}$ & let M_1 halts eventually on all <M,w>. We construct a TM M_2 as follows:
- 1) For M_2 , $\langle M, w \rangle$ is an input.
- 2) The TM M_1 acts on <M, w>
- 3) if M_1 rejects <M,w> then M_2 rejects <M,w>
- 4) If M_1 accepts <M,w>, simulate the TM M on the input string w until M halts.
- 5) If M has accepted w, M_2 accepts <M,w>; otherwise M_2 rejects <M,w>.

When M_1 accepts <M,w> (in step 4), the TM M halts on w.

In this case either accepting state q or a state q' such that $\delta(q',a)$ undefined on 'a' is reached.

In the first case (the first alternative of step 5) M_2 accepts <M,w>.

In the second case (the second alternative of step 5) M_2 rejects <M,w>.

It follows from the definition of M_2 that M_2 halts eventually.

But, $T(M_2) = \{ \langle M, w \rangle \mid \text{The TM accepts } w \}$ is undecidable which is a contradiction.

Therefore, the Language $HALT_{TM}$ is undecidable.



Important Questions on: Module-5

- 1. Define an algorithm and Explain with example.
- 2. Write short notes on: i) Recursively enumerable Language ii) Decidable Language.
- 3. if $A_{DFA} = \{ \langle B, w \rangle | B \text{ is DFA that accept } w \}$, then show that A_{DFA} is decidable.
- 4. What is Post Correspondence problem? Explain with example.
- 5. What is Halting problem of Turing Machine?
- 6. Show that HALT_{TM} = { <M ,w> | the TM M halts on input w } is undecidable.
- 7. Define the following: i) Quantum Computers ii) Class P and NP problems
- 8. Explain Church Turing Thesis.

Topic: Complexity

When a problem/language is decidable, it simply means that the problem is computationally solvable in principle.

It may not be solvable in practice in the sense that it may require enormous amount of computation time and memory.

P-stands for polynomial time: this class of problems that can be solved by a deterministic algorithm in a polynomial time.

DTM

NP-stands for Non-deterministic problem: this class of problems that can be solved by a nondeterministic algorithm in a polynomial time.

1. GROWTH RATE OF FUNCTIONS



A Comparison of Growth-Rate Functions (cont.) (b) n 3 /n² 100 2" n *log₂n Value of growth-rate function 75 50 25 n log₂n 20 10 n 15

CENG 213 Data Structures

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when we have two algorithms for the same problem, we may require a comparison between the running time of these two algorithms. $\bigcap(h)$

Definition: Let $f, g: N \rightarrow R^+$ (R^+ being the set of all positive real numbers). We say that f(n) = O(g(n)) if there exist positive integers C and N_0 such that $f(n) \le Cg(n)$ for all $n \ge N_0$. In this case we say f is of the order of g (or f is 'big oh' of g)

Ex.: Let $f(n) = 4n^3 + 5n^2 + 7n + 3$. Prove that $f(n) = O(n^3)$

In order to prove that $f(n) = O(n^3)$, Take C= 5 & N₀ = 10. Then $f(n) = 4n^3 + 5n^2 + 7n + 3 \le 5n^3$ for $n \ge 10$.

Then, $f(n) = O(n^3)$ $g(n) = n^3$ $n^3(4 + \frac{5}{2} + \frac{7}{2} + \frac{3}{2})$ $= (n) = \sqrt{3}(4 + \frac{5}{2} + \frac{7}{2} + \frac{3}{2})$ $\leq 5n^3$ $\leq 5n^3$ $\frac{n}{2} \frac{n^2}{2} \frac{n^3}{2}$ $f(n) \leq cn^3 \leq cg^{(n)}$ $= f(n) \leq 5n^3 \approx O(n^{3})$ $f(n) \leq cn^3 \leq cg^{(n)}$ $f(n) = O(n^2)$

~ M-LUYM $\overline{g}_{k} = \sum_{n=1}^{k} \sum_{n=1}^{k} \sum_{n=1}^{k-1} \sum_{n=1}$ Then $p(n) = O(n^k)$ 2618. ttisgixmthat $P(n) = q_{k}n + q_{k-1}n + \dots = a_{n}n + q_{0}$ Each term in summation is of the form and Since, Mis non-negative, a particular term will be Mey tive only it 9, <0. $Sa |p(n)| = |a_{k}n^{k} + a_{k-1}n^{k-1} + a_{1}n^{i} + a_{n}|$ $= N^{k} \left(|\alpha_{k}| + |\alpha_{k-1}| + \cdots + \frac{|\alpha_{1}|}{\sqrt{k-1}} + \frac{|\alpha_{0}|}{\sqrt{k}} \right)$ $\leq N^{k} \left(C \right)$ $\leq CN^{k} \quad \text{where } C = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} K$ $P(n) \leq C9(n) \quad \text{for } n \geq N_{0}, \quad \text{where } g(n) = O(9(n)) = O(n^{k})$

Ex. Obtain a time complexity of a TM which accepts $L = \{a^n b^n \mid n \ge 1\}$ -> REPILICE -> MOVES V Solution: Step1: Consist of going through the input string aⁿbⁿ forward and いこんんんんしん backward and replacing leftmost 'a' by x & the leftmost 'b' by y. n+n=2n=6So, we require at most 2n moves to match 'a' with a 'b'. gaabbbB (i.e. Total number of moves = 2n) 3×6=18 Step2: The step1 is to be repeated for n times for each 'a'. Hence the number of moves for accepting $a^n b^n$ is at most (2n)(n)For strings not of the form $a^n b^n$, TM halts with less than $2n^2$ moves. Hence, the time (running time) complexity is given by $O(n^2)$. i.e. $T(M) = O(n^2)$ $(-2, 9(n) = n^2)$ $f(M) \leq cj(n)$ $\tau(m) = n(m^2)$

2. The Class P & NP Languages

In this section we introduce the classes P and NP of languages.

Definition: A Turing machine M is said to be of time complexity T(n) if the following holds: Given an input w of length n. M halts after making at most T(n) moves.

T(n)~ Nort Move

Note: In this case. M eventually halts. Recall that the standard TM is called a deterministic TM.

Definition: A language L is in class \underline{P} if there exists some polynomial T(n) such that L = L(M) for some Deterministic TM M of time complexity T(n).

DTM → L NTM ×

P-1105 Obtain a time complexity of a TM which accepts $L = \{ 1^n 2^n 3^n | n \ge 1 \}$ Solution: *Step1*: Consist of going through the input string 1ⁿ2ⁿ3ⁿ forward and =0(n2) backward and replacing leftmost '1' by x, the leftmost '2' by y and leftmost '3' by z. So, we require at most 4n moves. (2n + 2n)(i.e. Total number of moves = 4n) Step2: The step1 is to be repeated for n times for each '1'. Hence the number of moves for accepting $1^n 2^n 3^n$ is at most (4n)(n)For strings not of the form $1^n 2^n 3^n$, TM halts with less than $4n^2$ moves. Hence, the time (running time) complexity is given by $O(n^2)$. i.e. $T(M) = O(n^2)$

Definition: A language L is in class \mathbf{NP} if there is a Non-Deterministic TM M and a polynomial time complexity T(n) and M executes in at most T(n) moves for every input w of length n.

2 Non-Diterristic Polynomial (

NTN

NEWY JLN) = Nt

We have seen that a Deterministic TM M_1 simulating a Non-Deterministic TM M exists. If T(n) is the complexity of M, then the time complexity of the equivalent Deterministic TM M_1 is: $2^{O(T(n))}$

3. <u>Church-Turing Thesis (1930)</u>

Church-Turing's thesis is stated as : Any " effective computation" or "any algorithmic" procedure that can be carried out by a human being or a team of human being or a computing machine can be carried out by Turing Machine. $1980_1 \rightarrow 111_{111}$

Model

In other words, there is an effective procedure to solve a decision problem P if and only if there is a Turing Machine that answer YES on input w \in P and NO on input w \notin P.

The Church-Turing thesis predicts that it is able to construct models of computations more powerful then the existing once.

Thesis also states that we cannot go beyond Turing Machines or their equivalent. Since there is no precise definition for "effective computation", or "Algorithmic procedure" Church's thesis is not a mathematically precise statement today. Any algorithmic process can be simulated efficiently by a Turing machine. But a challenge to the strong Church-Turing thesis arose from analog computation. Certain types of analog computers solved some problems efficiently whereas these problems had no efficient solution on a Turing machine. This led to the modification of the Church thesis.



The compactness of chip has increased the power of the Computer. The growth of Computer power is described by Moore's law, which states that the Computer power will double for constant cost once in every 1.5 years.

 $\frac{1}{10}$

4. Quantum Computer

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Referee text book or internet for theoretical note of Quantum Computer...