## Main Points of the Course

What has been covered: chapters 1 to $5+7$
Plus abstract states/Myhill-Nerode

## Mathematical Definitions

You should know what are, mathematically, DFA, NFA $\epsilon$-NFA, CFG
For instance, a NFA is $\left(Q, \Sigma, q_{0}, \delta, F\right)$ where $Q$ is a finite state (set of states), $\Sigma$ a finite set (alphabet), $q_{0} \in Q$,

$$
\delta: Q \times \Sigma \rightarrow \operatorname{Pow}(Q)
$$

and $F \subseteq Q$
Another view of NFA is labelled transition system

## Mathematical Definitions

You should know also what is a regular expression
Given a regular expression $E$, what is the language $L(E)$ represented by $E$

## Constructions on FA

The 3 main constructions

1. product of two DFAs (or NFAs), to compute union, intersection of regular languages
2. subset construction NFA $\rightarrow$ DFA
3. minimization DFA $\rightarrow$ DFA (does not work for NFA!!)

## Constructions on FA

Some other constructions we have seen
Complement of a language: complement of an automaton (this works only for DFA)

Reverse of a language: reverse of an automaton (work for DFA and NFA; we may get a NFA even if we start with a DFA)

Be careful: given $E_{1}, E_{2}$ we can compute $E$ such that $L(E)=L\left(E_{1}\right) \cap L\left(E_{2}\right)$ but $E_{1} \cap E_{2}$ is not a regular expression (only in a generalised sense)

Similarly given $E_{1}$ we can compute $E$ such that $L(E)$ is $\overline{L(E)}$ the complement of $L\left(E_{1}\right)$ but $\bar{E}$ is not a regular expression

## From FA to regular expressions

FA $\rightarrow$ regular expression
We have 3 methods to compute a regular expression $E$ such that $L(E)=L(A)$

1. method similar to Warshall's algorithm: section 3.2.1
2. eliminating states: section 3.2.2
3. writing a system of equations, and method of successive elimination

## From FA to CFG

It is direct to associate a CFG to a $\epsilon$-NFA

$$
\begin{gathered}
S_{0} \rightarrow S_{1}\left|+S_{1}\right|-S_{1} \quad S_{1} \rightarrow d S_{1}\left|d S_{4}\right| \cdot S_{2} \\
S_{2} \rightarrow d S_{3} \quad S_{3} \rightarrow \epsilon \mid d S_{3} \quad S_{4} \rightarrow \cdot S_{3} \\
d \rightarrow 0|1| 2|3| 4|5| 6|7| 8 \mid 9
\end{gathered}
$$

## From regular expressions to FA

regular expression $\rightarrow \epsilon$-NFA
$\epsilon$-NFA $\rightarrow$ NFA
NFA $\rightarrow$ DFA (subset construction)

## From regular expressions to FA

Other more direct approach with abstract states
Example: $0(10)^{*}$

## Regular expressions

Basic equalities on regular expressions, like

$$
E(F+G)=E F+E G \quad(a c)^{*} a=a(c a)^{*}
$$

For instance, nice solution to $(a b+a)^{*} a=a(b a+a)^{*}$

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

In practice: try to see what are the possible "first" elements in each languages when trying to decide if two languages are equal. (Good exercise: program in Haskell an equality test)

## Minimization

Table-filling algorithm well-described in section 4.4.3
Does not work for NFA
You should know that it is uniquely defined: if $L\left(A_{1}\right)=L\left(A_{2}\right)$ and $A_{1}, A_{2}$ are minimal then $A_{1}$ and $A_{2}$ are identical (up to renaming of states), and the states are the abstract states

## Non Regular Languages

Intuitively: a language is non regular when unbounded amount of memory is needed for a machine to recognize it

Typical example

$$
S \rightarrow a S b \mid \epsilon
$$

One proves by an argument by contradiction, using the pigeon-hole principle (see page 66) that a finite-state machine cannot recognize $L(G)$

Section 4.1
Another approach: $L(G)$ has infinitely many abstract states

## Regular and Context-Free Languages

For regular languages: you should now how to decide

$$
L(A) \neq \emptyset \quad w \in L(A) \quad L\left(A_{1}\right) \subseteq L\left(A_{2}\right)
$$

For context-free languages, you should know how to decide

$$
L(G) \neq \emptyset
$$

There is no algorithm for $L\left(G_{1}\right) \subseteq L\left(G_{2}\right)$
No algorithm to compute if $G$ is ambiguous (see section 9.5)

## Regular and Context-Free Languages

How to decide

$$
L(G) \neq \emptyset
$$

if $G$ is the grammar

$$
\begin{gathered}
S \rightarrow a B|B C \quad A \rightarrow a A| c \mid a D b \\
B \rightarrow D B|C \quad C \rightarrow b| B
\end{gathered}
$$

we compute the generating symbols
You should know also how to compute the accessible or reachable symbols

## Induction on length of derivations

Consider the following grammar $G$

$$
S \rightarrow a|b| S S S
$$

Show that $L(G)$ is the set of all words in $\{a, b\}^{*}$ of odd length.
$L=L(G)$ is inductively defined by the clauses

- $a, b \in L$
- if $w_{1}, w_{2}, w_{3} \in L$ then $w_{1} w_{2} w_{3} \in L$


## Contex-Free Languages

Let $M$ be the set of words of odd length.
We prove $L=M$ by proving $L \subseteq M$ and $M \subseteq L$
$L \subseteq M$ can be proved by induction on the length of $S \Rightarrow^{*} w$ :

- $S \Rightarrow a, S \Rightarrow b$ are of length 1 , hence $a, b \in M$
- if $S \Rightarrow S S S \Rightarrow^{*} w_{1} w_{2} w_{3}$. By induction $\left|w_{i}\right|$ is odd and so is $\left|w_{1} w_{2} w_{3}\right|$


## Context-Free Languages

We have also to prove $M \subseteq L$
We prove $w \in M$ implies $w \in L$ by induction on $|w|$
If $|w|=1$ then $w=a$ or $b$
If $|w|>1$ then $w=c_{1} c_{2} w^{\prime}$ with $c_{i}=a$ or $b$. We know $w^{\prime} \in L$ by induction hypothesis. Also, $a, b \in L$. Hence $w \in L$

## Contex-Free Languages

Consider the following grammar $G$

$$
S \rightarrow A 1 B \quad A \rightarrow 0 A|\epsilon \quad B \rightarrow 1 B| \epsilon
$$

Show that $G$ is not ambiguous
There is no general method to solve this kind of problem (section 9.5)
First we try to understand what is $L(G)$
Here $L(G)=L\left(0^{*} 11^{*}\right)$

## Context-Free Languages

We show that if $w \in L(G)$ then $w$ has a unique leftmost derivation by induction on $|w|$

## Context-Free Languages

We do a case analysis if $w$ starts with the symbol 0 or not
If $w=0 w^{\prime}$ then the leftmost derivation has to start

$$
S \Rightarrow_{l m} A 1 B \Rightarrow_{l m} 0 A 1 B
$$

with a leftmost derivation of

$$
A 1 B \Rightarrow{ }_{l m}^{*} w^{\prime}
$$

We know by induction hypothesis that $w^{\prime}$ has a unique leftmost derivation

$$
S \Rightarrow{ }_{l m} A 1 B \Rightarrow{ }_{l m}^{*} w^{\prime}
$$

## Context-Free Languages

If $w=1 w^{\prime}$ then $w^{\prime}=1^{n}$ the leftmost derivation has to start

$$
S \Rightarrow_{l m} A 1 B \Rightarrow_{l m} 1 B
$$

with a leftmost derivation of

$$
B \Rightarrow{ }_{l m}^{*} w^{\prime}
$$

We show by induction on $n$ that there is a unique leftmost derivation

$$
B \Rightarrow{ }_{l m}^{*} 1^{n}
$$

## Variation on Automata: Pushdown Automata

Not seen in the course
NFA + stack $=$ context-free language
A stack is needed for recognizing a language such as

$$
S \rightarrow \epsilon \mid a S b
$$

## Variation on Automata: Pushdown Automata

DFA + stack is less powerful
inclusion $L\left(A_{1}\right) \subseteq L\left(A_{2}\right)$ decidable for this fragment (proved in 1998!!)
There is no algorithms for testing $L\left(G_{1}\right) \subseteq L\left(G_{2}\right)$ and so no algorithm for $L\left(A_{1}\right) \subseteq L\left(A_{2}\right)$, if $A_{i}$ NFA with stacks

## Variation on Automata: Turing Machines

DFA + tape
The machine can write also on the tape

All recursive languages
Strict hierarchy between languages:
regular $\subset$ context-free $\subset$ recursive
With two stacks we get the same languages as recursive languages. See section 8.2

