# Formal Languages

- String reversal: w<sup>R</sup>
- Language reversal:  $L^R = \{w^R \mid w \in L\}$
- Language union:

$$L_1 \cup L_2 = \{ w \mid w \in L_1 \text{ or } w \in L_2 \}$$

• Language intersection:

$$L_1 \cap L_2 = \{ w \mid w \in L_1 \text{ and } w \in L_2 \}$$

• Language difference:

 $L_1 - L_2 = \{ w \mid w \in L_1 \text{ and } w \notin L_2 \}$ 

• Kleene closure: 
$$L^* = L^0 \cup L^1 \cup L^2 \cup ...$$
  
 $L^+ = L^1 \cup L^2 \cup L^3 \cup ...$ 

• All finite strings (over  $\Sigma$ ):  $\Sigma^*$   $L \subseteq \Sigma^* \forall L$ Theorem:  $\Sigma^*$  contains no  $\infty$  strings.

(aabc)<sup>R</sup>=cbaa

 $\{ab,cd\}^R = \{ba,dc\}$ 

 $\Rightarrow$  set union  $\{a\} \cup \{b,aa\} = \{a,b,aa\}$ 

 $\Rightarrow$  set intersection

 $\{a,b\} \cap \{b,c\} = \{b\}$ ⇒ set difference

 $\{a,b\}-\{b,d\}=\{a\}$  $\{a\}^* = \{\varepsilon, a, aa, ...\}$ 

 $\{a\}^+ = \{a, aa, ...\}$ 

 $\{\varepsilon,a,aa,aaa,...\}$ 

only finite strings in  $\Sigma^{i}$ 

## Formal Languages

Language complementation:  $L' = \Sigma^* - L$  "negation" w.r.t.  $\Sigma^*$ 

Theorem:  $(L^*)^* = L^*$ 

 $L^* \subset (L^*)^* \& (L^*)^* \subset L^*$ 

Theorem:  $L^+ = LL^*$ 

• "Trivial" language: {ε}

• Empty language: Ø

Theorem:  $\Sigma^*$  is countable,  $|\Sigma^*| = |\mathbb{N}|$ 

Theorem:  $2^{\Sigma^*}$  is uncountable.

 $\{\varepsilon\} \bullet L = L \bullet \{\varepsilon\} = L$ 

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

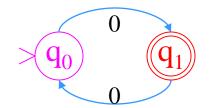
dovetailing

diagonalization

Basic idea: a FA is a "machine" that changes states while processing symbols, one at a time.

- Finite set of states:  $Q = \{q_0, q_1, q_3, ..., q_k\}$
- Transition function:  $\delta: Q \times \Sigma \to Q$
- Initial state:  $q_0 \in Q$
- Final states:  $F \subseteq Q$
- Finite automaton is  $M=(Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$

Ex: an FA that accepts all odd-length strings of zeros:



$$M = (\{q_0,q_1\}, \{0\}, \{((q_0,0),q_1), ((q_1,0),q_0)\}, q_0, \{q_1\})$$

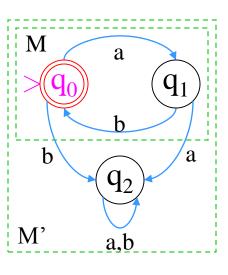
 $\mathbf{q}_1$ 

FA operation: consume a string  $w \in \Sigma^*$  one symbol at a time while changing states

Acceptance: end up in a final state

Rejection: anything else (including hang-up / crash)

Ex: FA that accepts all strings of form abababab...=  $(ab)^*$ 



$$M = (\{\mathbf{q}_0, \mathbf{q}_1\}, \{a, b\}, \{((\mathbf{q}_0, a), \mathbf{q}_1), ((\mathbf{q}_1, b), \mathbf{q}_0)\}, \mathbf{q}_0, \{\mathbf{q}_0\})$$

But M "crashes" on input string "abba"!

Solution: add dead-end state to fully specify M

$$M' = (\{q_0,q_1,q_2\}, \{a,b\}, \{((q_0,a),q_1), ((q_1,b),q_0), ((q_0,b),q_2), ((q_1,a),q_2), ((q_2,a),q_2), ((q_2,b),q_2)\}, q_0, \{q_0\})$$

Transition function  $\delta$  extends from symbols to strings:

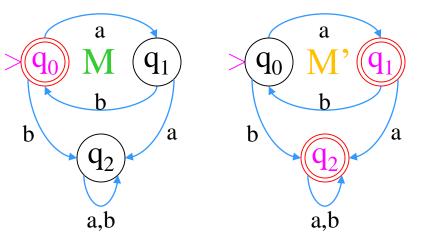
$$\delta: Q \times \Sigma^* \to Q \qquad \delta(q_0, wx) = \delta(\delta(q_0, w), x)$$
 where  $\delta(q_i, \epsilon) = q_i$ 

Language of M is  $L(M) = \{ w \in \Sigma^* | \delta(q_0, w) \in F \}$ 

Definition: language is regular iff it is accepted by some FA.

Theorem: Complementation preserves regularity.

Proof: Invert final and non-final states in fully specified FA.

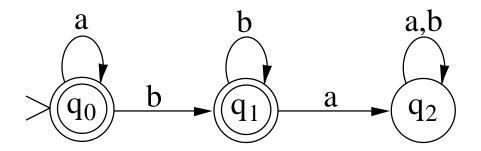


L=L(M)=
$$(ab)^*$$
 $Co_{mplements}$ 
 $Co_{m$ 

M' "simulates" M and does the opposite!

Problem: design a DFA that accepts all strings over {a,b} where any a's precede any b's.

Idea: skip over any contiguous a's, then skip over any b's, and then accept iff the end is reached.



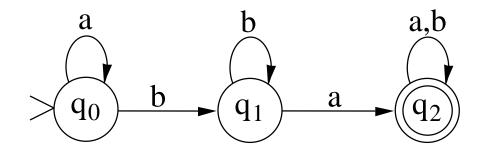
$$L = a*b*$$

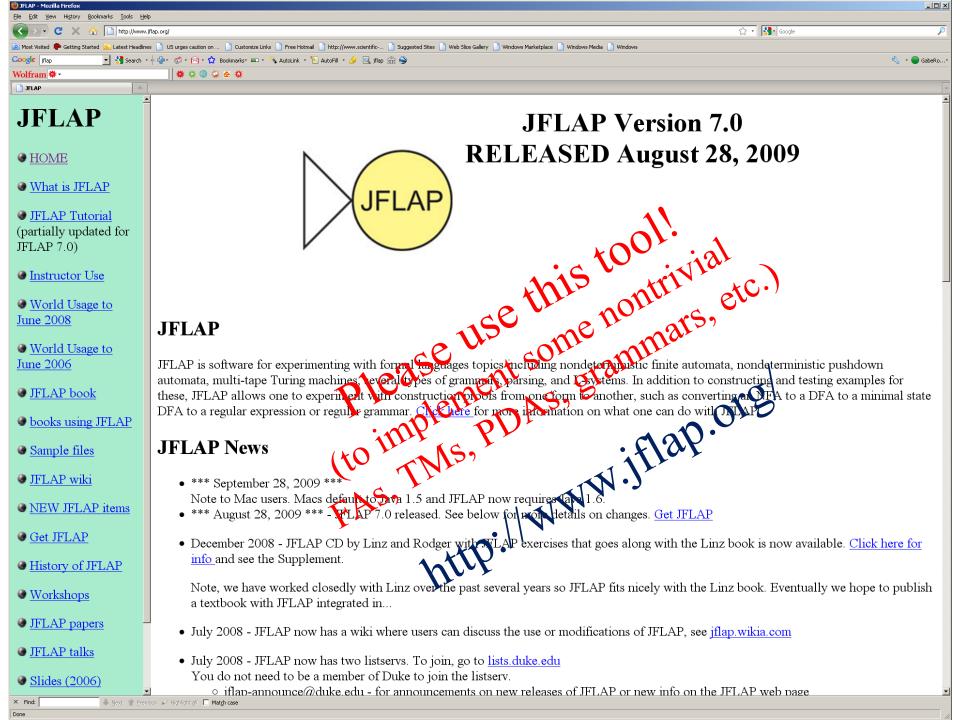
Q: What is the complement of L?

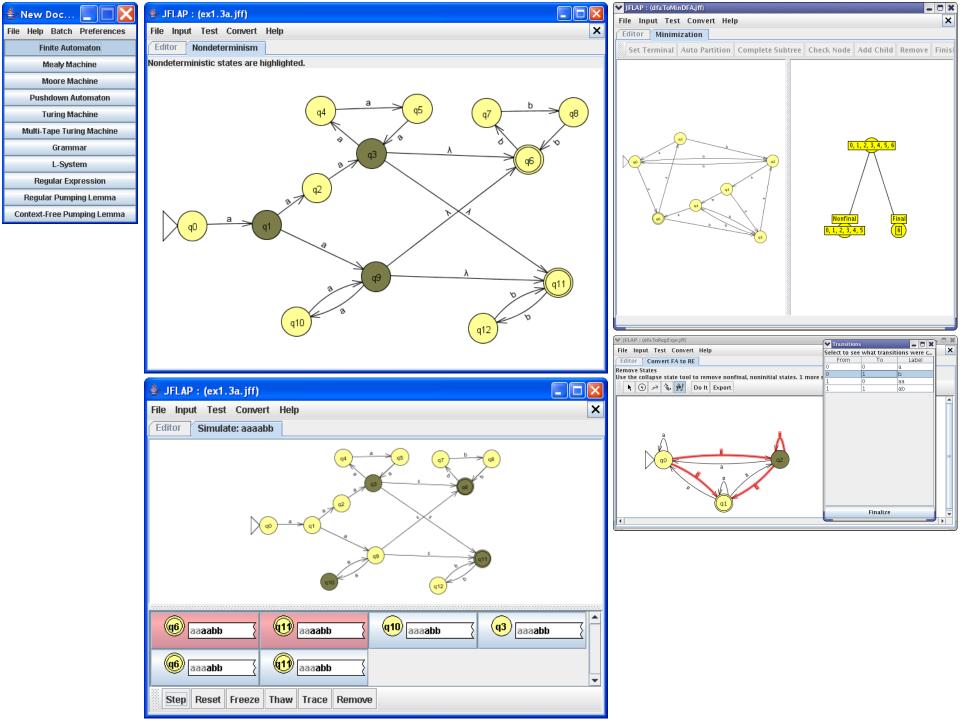
Problem: what is the complement of L = a\*b\*?

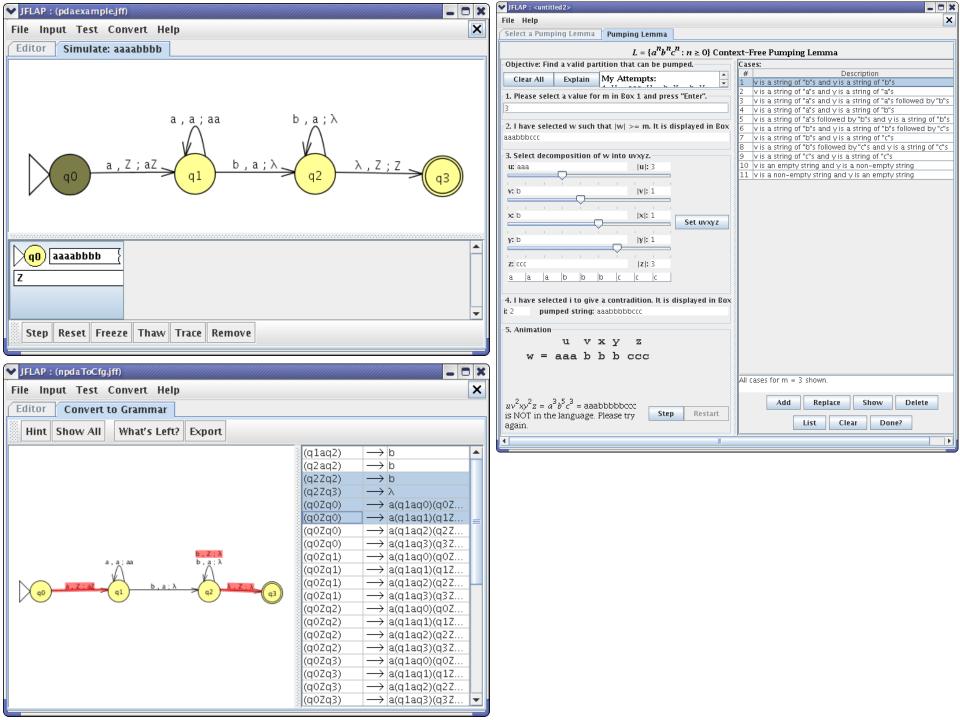
Idea: write a regular expression and then simplify.

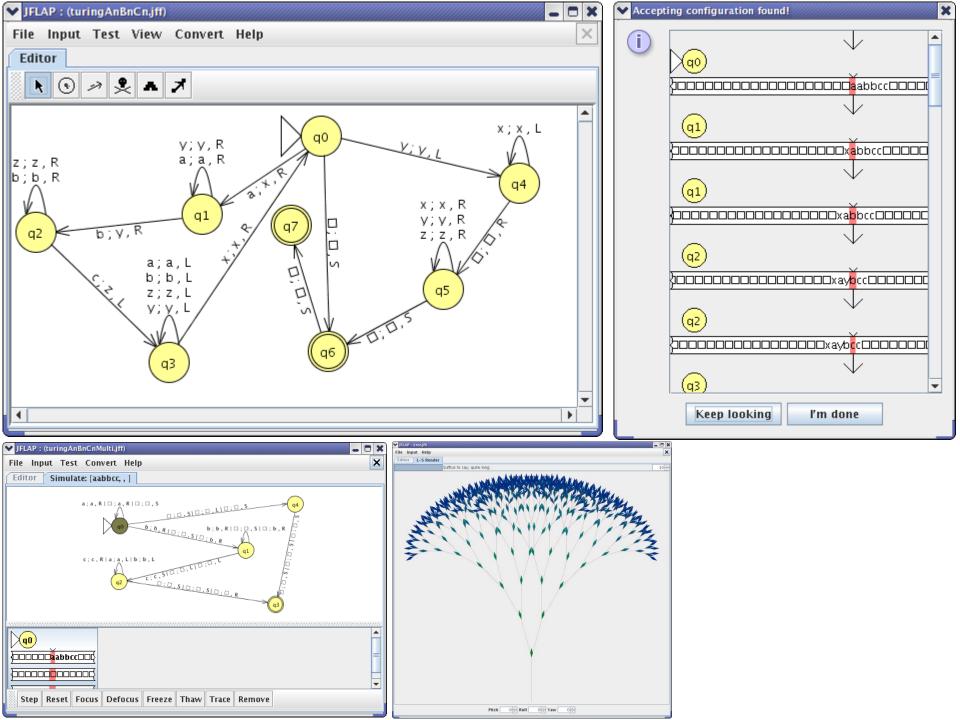
L' = 
$$(a+b)*b+(a+b)*a+(a+b)*$$
  
=  $(a+b)*b(a+b)*a(a+b)*$   
=  $(a+b)*b+a(a+b)*$   
=  $(a+b)*ba(a+b)*$   
=  $a*b+a(a+b)*$ 

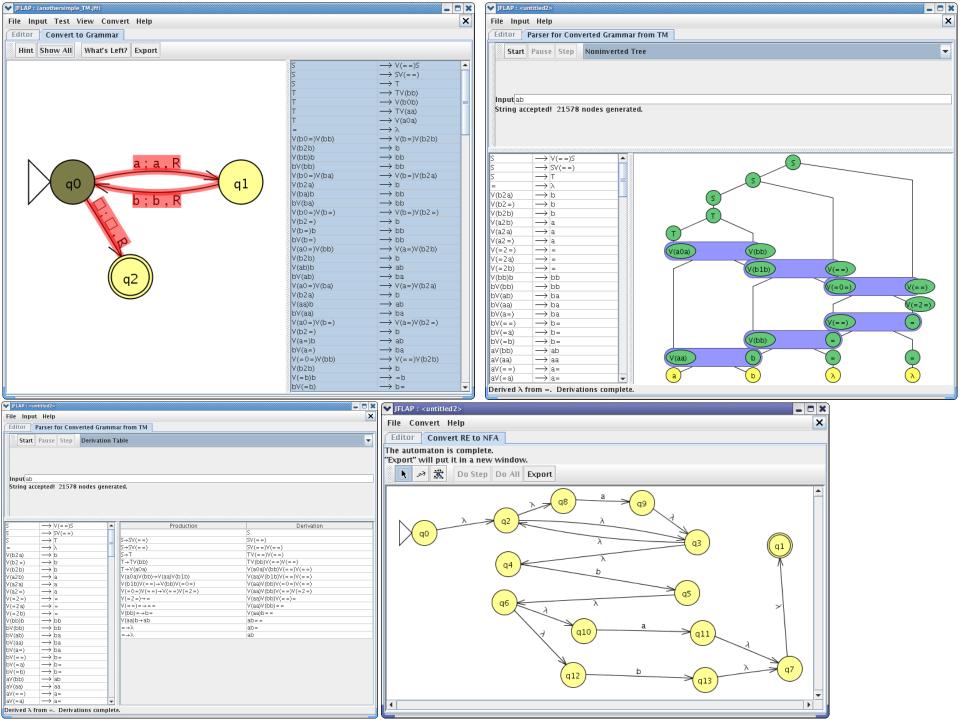


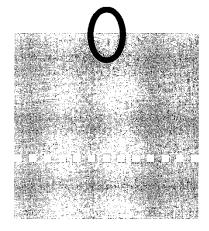




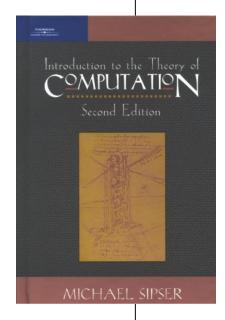


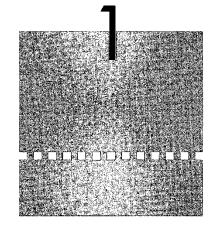






INTRODUCTION





REGULAR LANGUAGES

We begin with an overview of those areas in the theory of computation that we present in this course. Following that, you'll have a chance to learn and/or review some mathematical concepts that you will need later.

#### **AUTOMATA, COMPUTABILITY, AND COMPLEXITY**

This book focuses on three traditionally central areas of the theory of computation: automata, computability, and complexity. They are linked by the question:

What are the fundamental capabilities and limitations of computers?

This question goes back to the 1930s when mathematical logicians first began to explore the meaning of computation. Technological advances since that time have greatly increased our ability to compute and have brought this question out of the realm of theory into the world of practical concern.

In each of the three areas—automata, computability, and complexity—this question is interpreted differently, and the answers vary according to the interpretation. Following this introductory chapter, we explore each area in a separate part of this book. Here, we introduce these parts in reverse order because starting from the end you can better understand the reason for the beginning.

The theory of computation begins with a question: What is a computer? It is perhaps a silly question, as everyone knows that this thing I type on is a computer. But these real computers are quite complicated—too much so to allow us to set up a manageable mathematical theory of them directly. Instead we use an idealized computer called a *computational model*. As with any model in science, a computational model may be accurate in some ways but perhaps not in others. Thus we will use several different computational models, depending on the features we want to focus on. We begin with the simplest model, called the *finite state machine* or *finite automaton*.

#### **FINITE AUTOMATA**

Finite automata are good models for computers with an extremely limited amount of memory. What can a computer do with such a small memory? Many useful things! In fact, we interact with such computers all the time, as they lie at the heart of various electromechanical devices.

The controller for an automatic door is one example of such a device. Often found at supermarket entrances and exits, automatic doors swing open when sensing that a person is approaching. An automatic door has a pad in front to

Theorem: Intersection preserves regularity.

Proof: ("parallel" simulation):

- Construct all super-states, one per each state pair.
- New super-transition function jumps among ctruction super-states, simulating both -11
- Initial super state contains both plotinitial states.
- Final super states contains pairs of old final states.
- Resulting DFA accepts same language as original NFA (but size can be the product of two old sizes).

Given 
$$M_1 = (Q_1, \Sigma, \delta_1, q', F_1)$$
 and  $M_2 = (Q_2, \Sigma, \delta_2, q'', F_2)$   
construct  $M = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q, F)$   $Q = Q_1 \times Q_2$ 

$$F = F_1 \times F_2 \qquad q = (q', q'')$$

$$\delta: Q \times \Sigma \to Q$$
  $\delta((q_i,q_j),x) = (\delta_1(q_i,x),\delta_2(q_j,x))$ 

Theorem: Union preserves regularity.

Proof: De Morgan's law:  $L_1 \cup L_2 = \overline{L_1} \cap \overline{L_2}$ Or cross-product construction, i.e., parallel simulation with  $F = (F_1 \times Q_2) \cup (Q_1 \times F_2)$ 

Theorem: Set difference preserves regularity.

Proof: Set identity  $L_1 - L_2 = L_1 \cap \overline{L_2}$ Or cross-product construction, i.e., parallel simulation with  $F = (F_1 \times (Q_2 - F_2))$ 

Theorem: XOR preserves regularity.

Proof: Set identity  $L_1 \oplus L_2 = (L_1 \cup L_2) - (L_1 \cap L_2)$ Or cross-product construction, i.e., parallel simulation with  $F = (F_1 \times (Q_2 - F_2)) \cup ((Q_1 - F_1) \times F_2)$ 

Meta-Theorem: Identity-based proofs are easier!

Non-determinism: generalizes determinism, where many "next moves" are allowed at each step:

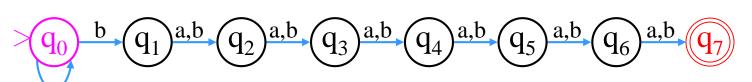
 $\delta: Q \times \Sigma \to Q$ Old

New  $\delta: 2^{Q} \times \Sigma \rightarrow 2^{Q}$ 

Computation becomes a "tree".

Acceptance: ∃ a path from root (start state) to some leaf (a final state)

Ex: non-deterministically accept all strings where the 7<sup>th</sup> symbol before the end is a "b":



Input: ababbaaa ⇒ Accept!

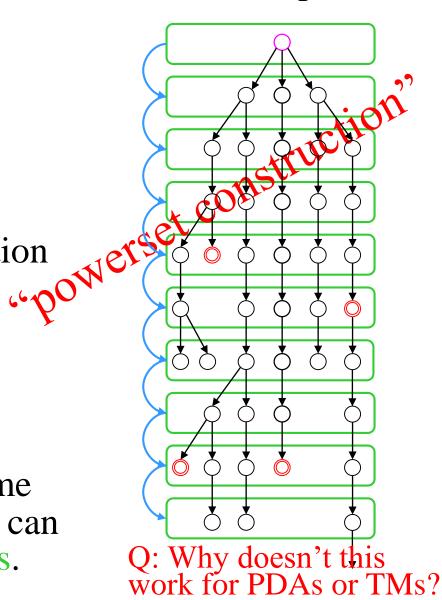
Theorem: Non-determinism in FAs doesn't increase power.

Proof: by simulation:

• Construct all super-states, one per each state subset.

 New super-transition function jumps among super-states, simulating old transition function

- Initial super state are those containing old initial state.
- Final super states are those containing old final states.
- Resulting DFA accepts the same language as original NFA, but can have exponentially more states.



Note: Powerset construction generalizes the cross-product construction. More general constructions are possible.

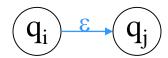
EC: Let HALF(L)= $\{v \mid \exists v, w \in \Sigma^* \ni |v|=|w| \text{ and } vw \in L\}$ 

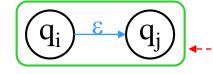
Show that HALF preserves regularity.

A two way FA can move its head backwards on the input:  $\delta: Q \times \Sigma \to Q \times \{\text{left,right}\}$ 

EC: Show that two-way FA are not more powerful than ordinary one-way FA.

ε-transitions:





One super-state!

Theorem: E-transitions don't increase FA recognition power.

Proof: Simulate  $\epsilon$ -transitions FA without using  $\epsilon$ -transitions.

i.e., consider *\varepsilon*-transitions to be a form of non-determinism.



The movie "Next" (2007)
Based on the science fiction story "The Golden Man"
by Philip Dick

Premise: a man with the super power of non-determinism!

At any given moment his reality branches into multiple directions, and he can choose the branch that he prefers!

Transition function!

## Top-10 Reasons to Study Non-determinism

- 1. Helps us understand the ubiquitous concept of *parallelism* / concurrency;
- 2. Illuminates the structure of problems;
- 3. Can help save time & effort by solving intractable problems more efficiently;
- 4. Enables vast, deep, and general studies of "completeness" theories;
- 5. Helps explain why verifying proofs & solutions seems to be easier than constructing them;

# Why Study Non-determinism?

- 6. Gave rise to new and novel mathematical approaches, proofs, and analyses;
- 7. Robustly decouples / abstracts complexity from underlying computational models;
- 8. Gives disciplined techniques for identifying "hardest" problems / languages;
- 9. Forged new unifications between computer science, math & logic;
- 10. Non-determinism is interesting fun, and cool!

This concludes the construction of the finite automaton M that recognizes the union of  $A_1$  and  $A_2$ . This construction is fairly simple, and thus its correctness is evident from the strategy described in the proof idea. More complicated constructions require additional discussion to prove correctness. A formal correctness proof for a construction of this type usually proceeds by induction. For an example of a construction proved correct, see the proof of Theorem 1.54. Most of the constructions that you will encounter in this course are fairly simple and so do not require a formal correctness proof.

We have just shown that the union of two regular languages is regular, thereby proving that the class of regular languages is closed under the union operation. We now turn to the concatenation operation and attempt to show that the class of regular languages is closed under that operation, too.

#### THEOREM 1.26

The class of regular languages is closed under the concatenation operation.

In other words, if  $A_1$  and  $A_2$  are regular languages then so is  $A_1 \circ A_2$ .

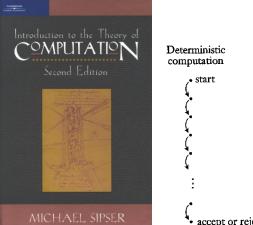
To prove this theorem let's try something along the lines of the proof of the union case. As before, we can start with finite automata  $M_1$  and  $M_2$  recognizing the regular languages  $A_1$  and  $A_2$ . But now, instead of constructing automaton M to accept its input if either  $M_1$  or  $M_2$  accept, it must accept if its input can be broken into two pieces, where  $M_1$  accepts the first piece and  $M_2$  accepts the second piece. The problem is that M doesn't know where to break its input (i.e., where the first part ends and the second begins). To solve this problem we introduce a new technique called nondeterminism.

#### 

#### NONDETERMINISM

Nondeterminism is a useful concept that has had great impact on the theory of computation. So far in our discussion, every step of a computation follows in a unique way from the preceding step. When the machine is in a given state and reads the next input symbol, we know what the next state will be—it is determined. We call this *deterministic* computation. In a *nondeterministic* machine, several choices may exist for the next state at any point.

Nondeterminism is a generalization of determinism, so every deterministic finite automaton is automatically a nondeterministic finite automaton. As Figure 1.27 shows, nondeterministic finite automata may have additional features.



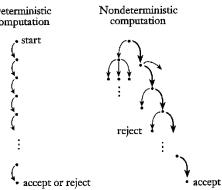


FIGURE 1.28

Deterministic and nondeterministic computations with an accepting branch

Let's consider some sample runs of the NFA  $N_1$  shown in Figure 1.27. The computation of  $N_1$  on input 010110 is depicted in the following figure.

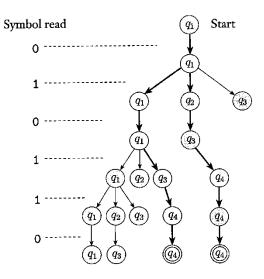


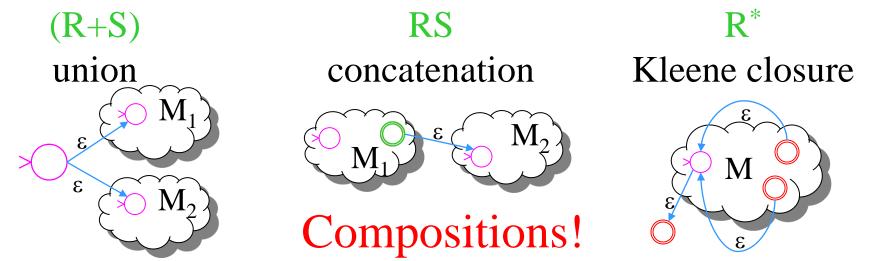
FIGURE 1.29 The computation of  $N_1$  on input 010110

# Regular Expressions

Regular expressions are defined recursively as follows:



Inductively, if R and S are regular expressions, then so are:



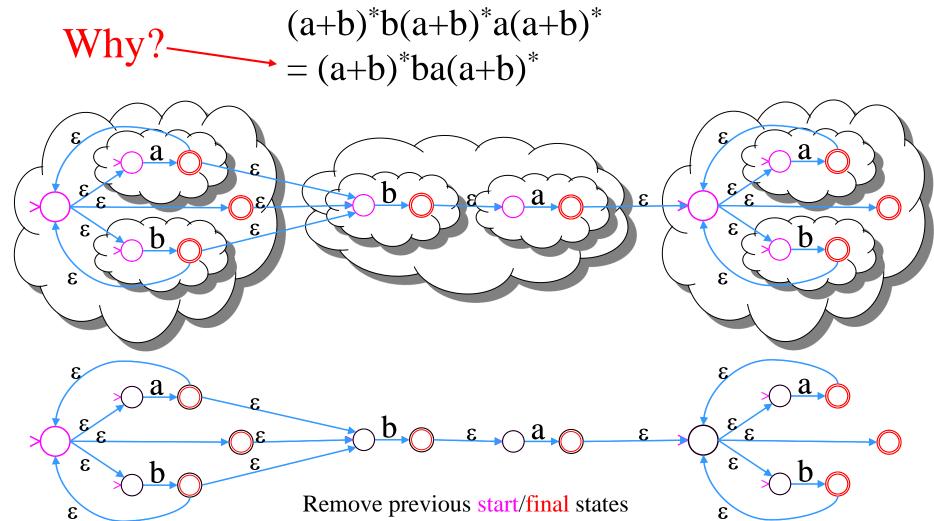
Examples:  $aa(a+b)^*bb$   $(a+b)^*b(a+b)^*a(a+b)^*$ 

Theorem: Any regular expression is accepted by some FA.

# Regular Expressions

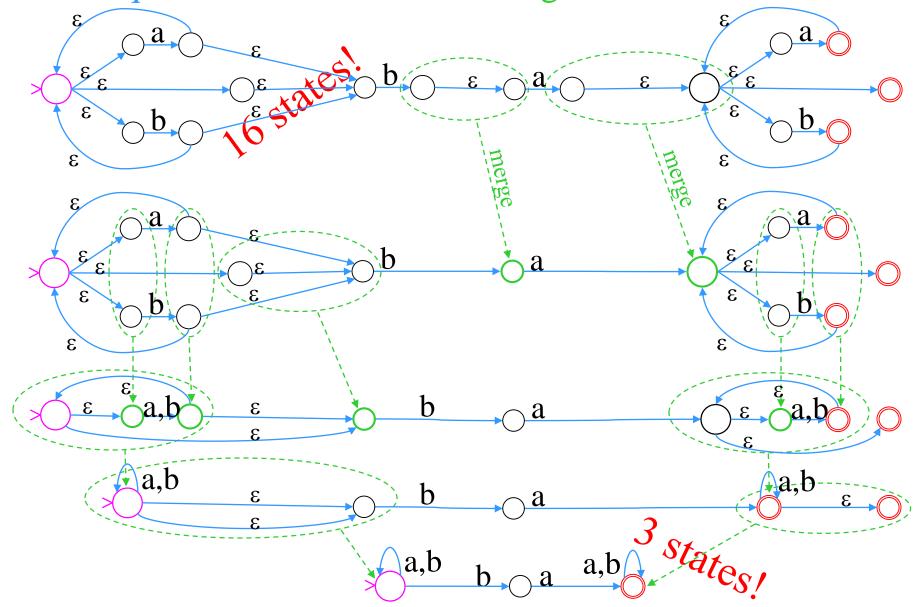
A FA for a regular expressions can be built by composition:

Ex: all strings over  $S=\{a,b\}$  where  $\exists$  a "b" preceding an "a"



## **FA** Minimization

Idea: "Equivalent" states can be merged:



### FA Minimization

- Theorem [Hopcroft 1971]: the number N of states in a FA can be minimized within time O(N log N).
- Based on earlier work [Huffman 1954] & [Moore 1956].
- Conjecture: Minimizing the number of states in a nondeterministic FA can not be done in polynomial time.
- Theorem: Minimizing the number of states in a pushdown automaton (or TM) is undecidable.
- Idea: implement a finite automaton minimization tool
- Try to design it to run reasonably efficiently
- Consider also including:
  - A regular-expression-to-FA transformer
  - A non-deterministic-to-deterministic FA converter

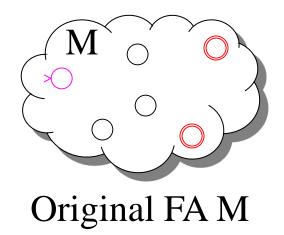
# FAs and Regular Expressions

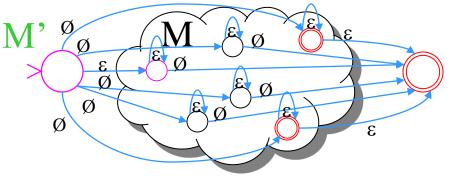
Theorem: Any FA accepts a language denoted by some RE.

Proof: Use "generalized finite automata" where a transition can be a regular expression (not just a symbol), and:

Only 1 super start state and 1 (separate) super final state.

Each state has transitions to all other states (including itself), except the super start state, with no incoming transitions, and the super final state, which has no outgoing transitions.

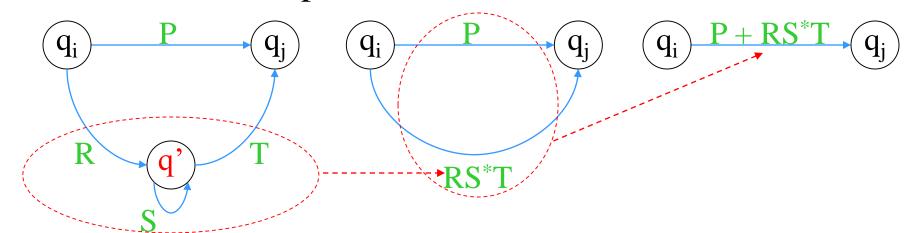




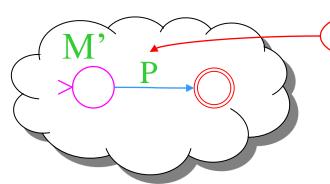
Generalized FA (GFA) M'

# FAs and Regular Expressions

Now reduce the size of the GFA by one state at each step. A transformation step is as follows:



Such a transformation step is always possible, until the GFA has only two states, the super-start and super-final states:



Label of last remaining transition is the regular expression corresponding to the language of the original FA!

Corollary: FAs and REs denote the same class of languages.

# Regular Expressions Identities

- R+S=S+R
- R(ST) = (RS)T
- R(S+T) = RS+RT
- (R+S)T = RT+ST
- $Q^* = \varepsilon^* = \varepsilon$
- R + Ø = Ø + R = R
- $R\epsilon = \epsilon R = R$   $R+\epsilon \neq R$
- $(R^*)^* = R^*$   $R\emptyset \neq R$
- $(\varepsilon + R)^* = R^*$
- $(R^*S^*)^* = (R+S)^*$

WHENEVER I LEARN A
NEW SKILL I CONCOCT
ELABORATE FANTASY
SCENARIOS WHERE IT
LETS ME SAVE THE DAY.

OH NO! THE KILLER
MUST HAVE POLICIMED
HER ON VACATION!

BUT TO FIND THEM WE'D HAVE TO SEARCH
THROUGH 200 MB OF EMAILS LOOKING FOR
SOMETHING FORMATTED LIKE AN ADDRESS!

IT'S HOPELESS!







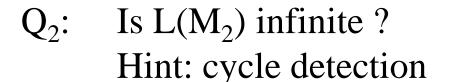


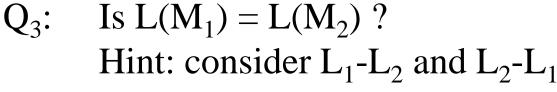
## Decidable Finite Automata Problems

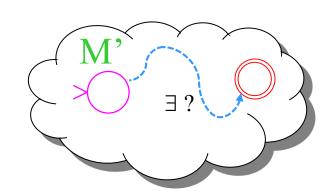
Def: A problem is decidable if ∃ an algorithm which can determine (in finite time) the correct answer for any instance.

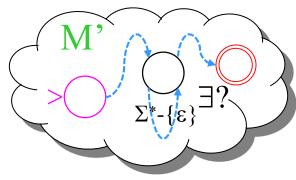
Given a finite automata  $M_1$  and  $M_2$ :

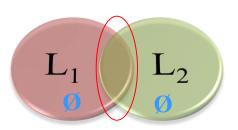
Q<sub>1</sub>: Is  $L(M_1) = \emptyset$ ? Hint: graph reachability











# Regular Experssion Minimization

Problem: find smallest equivalent regular expression

- Decidable (why?)
- Hard: PSPACE-complete

# Turing Machine Minimization

Problem: find smallest equivalent Turing machine

- Not decidable (why?)
- Not even recognizable (why?)

## Context-Free Grammars

Basic idea: set of production rules induces a language

- Finite set of variables:  $V = \{V_1, V_2, ..., V_k\}$
- Finite set of terminals:  $T = \{t_1, t_2, ..., t_j\}$
- Finite set of productions: P
- Start symbol: S
- Productions:  $V_i \to \Delta$  where  $V_i \in V$  and  $\Delta \in (V \cup T)^*$  Applying  $V_i \to \Delta$  to  $\alpha V_i \beta$  yields:  $\alpha \Delta \beta$

Note: productions do not depend on "context"

- hence the name "context free"!

## Context-Free Grammars

- Def: A language is context-free if it is accepted by some context-free grammar.
- Theorem: All regular languages are context-free.
- Theorem: Some context-free languages are not regular.

Ex: 
$$\{0^n1^n \mid n > 0\}$$

Proof by "pumping" argument: long strings in a regular language contain a pumpable substring.

$$\exists \ N \in \mathbb{N} \ \ni \ \forall z \in L, \ |z| \ge N \ \exists \ u,v,w \in \Sigma * \ \ni \ z = uvw, \\ |uv| \le N, \ |v| \ge 1, \ uv^iw \in L \ \forall \ i \ge 0.$$

Theorem: Some languages are not context-free.

Ex: 
$$\{0^n1^n2^n \mid n > 0\}$$

Proof by "pumping" argument for CFL's.

# **Ambiguity**

Def: A grammar is ambiguous if some string in its language has two non-isomorphic derivations.

Theorem: Some context-free grammars are ambiguous.

rem: Some context-tree grammer:

Ex:  $G_1$ :  $S \to SS \mid a \mid \varepsilon$ Derivation 1:  $S \to SS \to aa$   $SS \to SSS \to aa$   $SS \to SSS \to aa$ 

Def: A context-free language is inherently ambiguous if every context-free grammar for it is ambiguous.

Theorem: Some context-free languages are inherently ambiguous (i.e., no non-ambiguous CFG exists).

Ex:  $\{a^nb^n \ c^md^m \ | \ m>0, \ n>0\} \cup \{a^nb^m \ c^nd^m \ | \ m>0, \ n>0\}$ 

Example: design a context-free grammar for strings representing all well-balanced parenthesis.

Idea: create rules for generating nesting & juxtaposition.

G<sub>1</sub>: 
$$S \rightarrow SS \mid (S) \mid \varepsilon$$
  
Ex:  $S \rightarrow SS \rightarrow (S)(S) \rightarrow ()()$   
 $S \rightarrow (S) \rightarrow ((S)) \rightarrow (())$   
 $S \rightarrow (S) \rightarrow (SS) \rightarrow ... \rightarrow (()((())()))$ 

 $\mathbb{Q}$ : Is  $\mathbb{G}_1$  ambiguous?

Another grammar:

$$G_2: S \to (S)S \mid \varepsilon$$

**Q**: Is 
$$L(G_1) = L(G_2)$$
?

Q: Is G<sub>2</sub> ambiguous?

Example: design a context-free grammar that generates all valid regular expressions.

Idea: embedd the RE rules in a grammar.

G: 
$$S \to a$$
 for each  $a \in \Sigma_L$   
 $S \to (S) \mid SS \mid S^* \mid S+S$ 

$$S \rightarrow S^* \rightarrow (S)^* \rightarrow (S+S)^* \rightarrow (a+b)^*$$

$$S \rightarrow SS \rightarrow SSSS \rightarrow abS*b \rightarrow aba*a$$

Q: Is G ambiguous?

#### Pushdown Automata

Basic idea: a pushdown automaton is a finite automaton that can optionally write to an unbounded stack.

- Finite set of states:  $Q = \{q_0, q_1, q_3, ..., q_k\}$
- Input alphabet:  $\Sigma$
- Stack alphabet: Γ
- Transition function:  $\delta: \mathbb{Q} \times (\Sigma \cup \{\epsilon\}) \times \Gamma \to 2^{\mathbb{Q} \times \Gamma^*}) \stackrel{q_i}{\bigoplus} \stackrel{q_j}{\bigoplus}$
- Initial state:  $q_0 \in Q$
- Final states:  $F \subseteq Q$

Pushdown automaton is  $M=(Q, \Sigma, \Gamma, \delta, q_0, F)$ 

Note: pushdown automata are non-deterministic!

#### Pushdown Automata

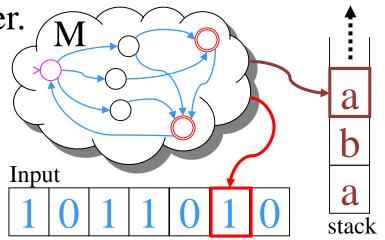
A pushdown automaton can use its stack as an unbounded but access-controlled (last-in/first-out or LIFO) storage.

A PDA accesses its stack using "push" and "pop"

• Stack & input alphabets may differ.

• Input read head only goes 1-way.

• Acceptance can be by final state or by empty-stack.

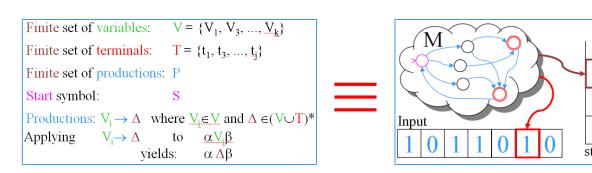


Note: a PDA can be made deterministic by restricting its transition function to unique next moves:

$$δ$$
: Q×(Σ∪{ε})×Γ → Q×Γ\*)

#### Pushdown Automata

- Theorem: If a language is accepted by some context-free grammar, then it is also accepted by some PDA.
- Theorem: If a language is accepted by some PDA, then it is also accepted by some context-free grammar.
- Corrolary: A language is context-free iff it is also accepted by some pushdown automaton.
- I.E., context-free grammars and PDAs have equivalent "computation power" or "expressiveness" capability.





### Closure Properties of CFLs

Theorem: The context-free languages are closed under union.

Hint: Derive a new grammar for the union.

Theorem: The CFLs are closed under Kleene closure.

Hint: Derive a new grammar for the Kleene closure.

Theorem: The CFLs are closed under  $\cap$  with regular langs.

Hint: Simulate PDA and FA in parallel.

Theorem: The CFLs are not closed under intersection.

Hint: Find a counter example.

Theorem: The CFLs are not closed under complementation.

Hint: Use De Morgan's law.

#### Decidable PDA / CFG Problems

Given an arbitrary pushdown automata M (or CFG G) the following problems are decidable (i.e., have algorithms):

 $Q_1$ : Is  $L(M) = \emptyset$ ?

 $Q_5$ : Is  $L(G) = \emptyset$ ?

 $Q_2$ : Is L(M) finite?

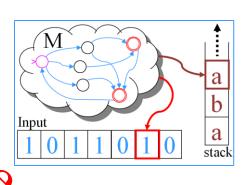
 $Q_6$ : Is L(G) finite?

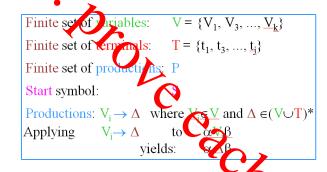
 $Q_3$ : Is L(M) infinite?

 $Q_7$ : Is L(G) infinite?

 $Q_{A}$ : Is  $w \in L(M)$ ?

 $Q_8$ : Is  $w \in L(G)$ ?





#### Undecidable PDA / CFG Problems

Theorem: the following are undecidable (i.e., there exist no algorithms to answer these questions):

Q: Is PDA M minimal?

Q: Are PDAs M<sub>1</sub> and M<sub>2</sub> equivalent?

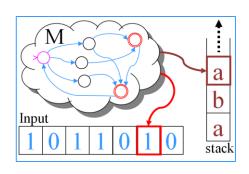
Q: Is CFG G minimal?

Q: Is CFG G ambiguous?

Q: Is  $L(G_1) = L(G_2)$ ?

Q: Is  $L(G_1) \cap L(G_2) = \emptyset$ ?

Q: Is CFL L inherently ambiguous?



### PDA Enhancements

Theorem: 2-way PDAs are more powerful than 1-way PDAs.

Hint: Find an example non-CFL accepted by a 2-way PDA.

Theorem: 2-stack PDAs are powerful than 1-stack PDAs.

Hint: Find an example non-CEL accepted by a 2-stack PDA.

Theorem: 1-queue PDAs are more priverful than 1-stack PDAs.

Hint: Find an example non-CFL accepted by a 1-queue PDA.

Theorem: 2-head PDAs are more powerful than 1-head PDAs.

Hint: Find an example non-CFL accepted by 2-head PDA.

Theorem: Non-determinism increases the power of PDAs.

Hint: Find a CFL not accepted by any deterministic PDA.

## Turing Machines

Basic idea: a Turing machine is a finite automaton that can optionally write to an unbounded tape.

$$Q = \{q_0, q_1, q_3, ..., q_k\}$$

$$q_1$$

• Tape alphabet:

• Blank symbol:

$$\beta \in \Gamma$$

• Input alphabet:

$$\Sigma \subseteq \Gamma - \{\beta\}$$

• Transition function:

$$\delta: (Q-F)\times\Gamma \to Q\times\Gamma\times\{L,R\}(q_i)$$

Initial state:

$$\mathbf{q}_0 \in \mathbf{Q}$$

• Final states:

$$F \subseteq Q$$

 $(q_k)$ 

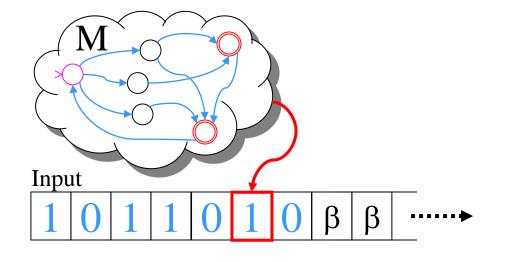
Turing machine is M=(Q,  $\Gamma$ ,  $\beta$ ,  $\Sigma$ ,  $\delta$ ,  $q_0$ , F)

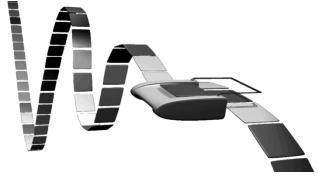
## Turing Machines

A Turing machine can use its tape as an unbounded storage but reads / writes only at head position.



- Initially the entire tape is blank, except the input portion
- Read / write head goes left / right with each transition
- Input string acceptance is by final state(s)
- A Turing machine is usually deterministic



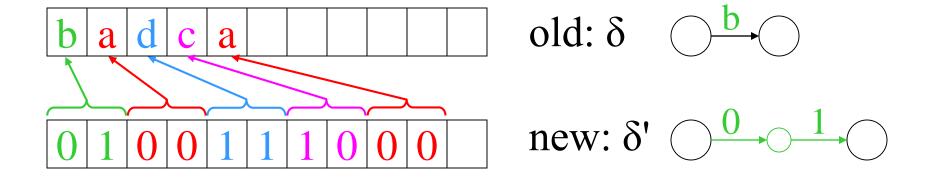


Larger alphabet:

old: 
$$\Sigma = \{0,1\}$$
 new:  $\Sigma' = \{a,b,c,d\}$ 

Idea: Encode larger alphabet using smaller one.

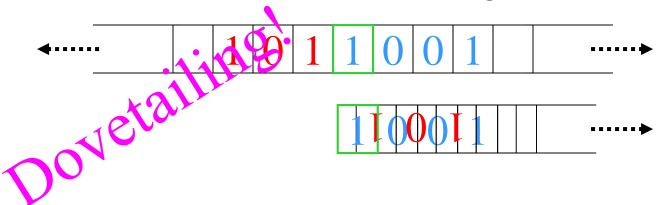
Encoding example: a=00, b=01, c=10, d=11



Double-sided infinite tape:



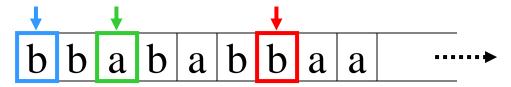
Idea: Fold into a normal single-sided infinite tape



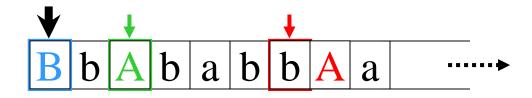
old: 
$$\delta$$
 $L/R$ 
 $L/R$ 

new: 
$$\delta'$$
  $R/L$   $R/L$ 

Multiple heads:



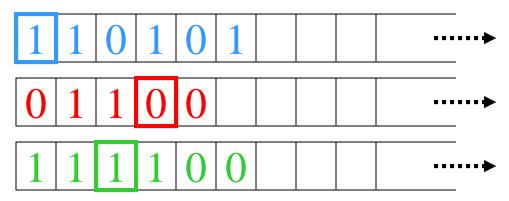
Idea: Mark heads locations on tape and simulate



Modified  $\delta$ ' processes each "virtual" head independently:

- Each move of  $\delta$  is simulated by a long scan & update
- δ' updates & marks all "virtual" head positions

Multiple tapes:

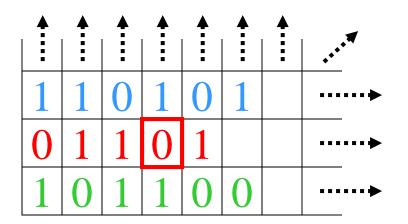


Idea: Interlace multiple tapes into a single tape

Modified  $\delta$ ' processes each "virtual" tape independently:

- Each move of  $\delta$  is simulated by a long scan & update
- $\delta$ ' updates R/W head positions on all "virtual tapes"

Two-dimensional tape:



This is how compilers implement 2D arrays!

Idea: Flatten 2-D tape into a 1-D tape



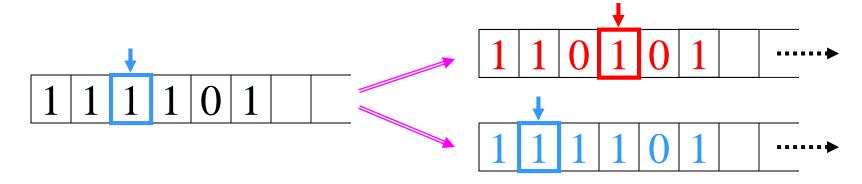




Modified 1-D  $\delta$ ' simulates the original 2-D  $\delta$ :

- Left/right  $\delta$  moves:  $\delta$ ' moves horizontally
- Up/down  $\delta$  moves:  $\delta$ ' jumps between tape sections

Non-determinism:



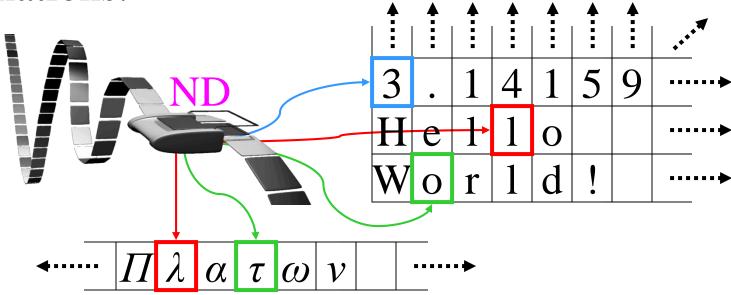
Idea: Parallel-simulate non-deterministic threads



Modified deterministic  $\delta'$  simulates the original ND  $\delta$ :

- Each ND move by  $\delta$  spawns another independent "thread"
- All current threads are simulated "in parallel"

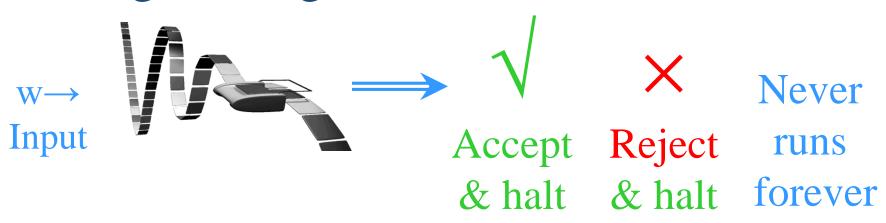
**Combinations:** 



Idea: "Enhancements" are independent (and commutative with respect to preserving the language recognized).

Theorem: Combinations of "enhancements" do not increase the power of Turing machines.

## Turing -Recognizable vs. -Decidable

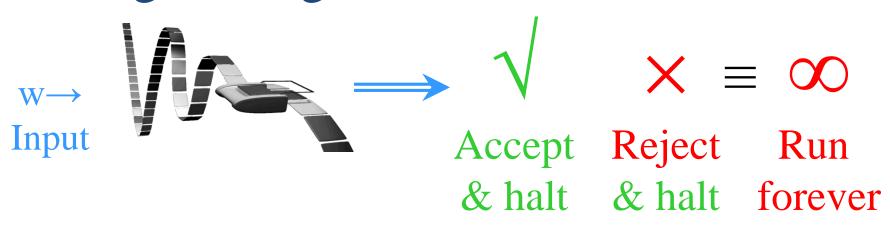


Def: A language is Turing-decidable iff it is exactly the set of strings accepted by some always-halting TM.

$w \in \Sigma^* =$	a	b	aa	ab	ba	bb	aaa	aab	aba	abb	baa	bab	bba	bbb	aaaa	• • •
$M(w) \Longrightarrow$	$\sqrt{}$	×	$\sqrt{}$	×	×	×		×	×	×	×	×	×	×	$\sqrt{}$	• • •
L(M) =	{ a,		aa,				aaa,								aaaa	}

Note: M must always halt on every input.

## Turing -Recognizable vs. -Decidable



Def: A language is Turing-recognizable iff it is exactly the set of strings accepted by some Turing machine.

${\stackrel{\mathbf{w}}{\in}}\Sigma^*{=}$	a	b	aa	ab	ba	bb	aaa	aab	aba	abb	baa	bab	bba	bbb	aaaa	• • •
$M(w) \Longrightarrow$	$\sqrt{}$	×	$\sqrt{}$	$\infty$	×	$\infty$		$\infty$	$\infty$	×	×	×	$\infty$	×	$\sqrt{}$	• • •
<b>L</b> ( <b>M</b> ) =	{ a,		aa,				aaa,	):							aaaa	}

Note: M can run forever on an input, which is implicitly a reject (since it is not an accept).

### Recognition vs. Enumeration

Def: "Decidable" means "Turing-decidable"

"Recognizable" means "Turing-recognizable"

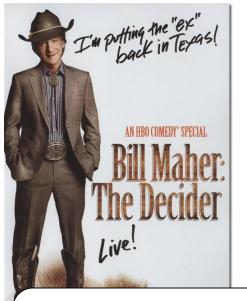
Theorem: Every decidable language is also recognizable.

Theorem: Some recognizable languages are not decidable.

Ex: The halting problem is recognizable but not decidable.

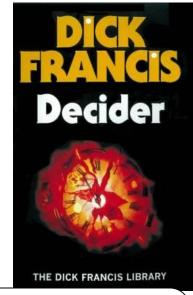
Note: Decidability is a special case of recognizability.

Note: It is easier to recognize than to decide.

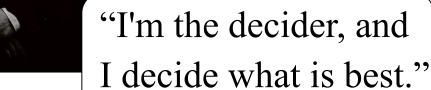


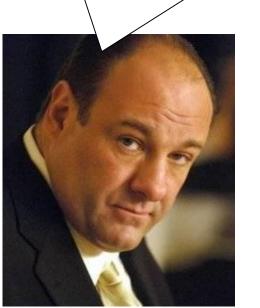
#### Famous Deciders

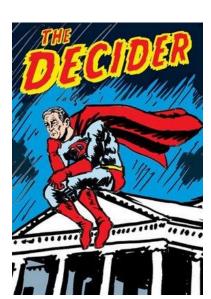




"A wrong decision is better than indecision."





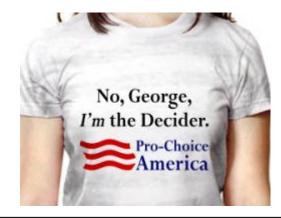




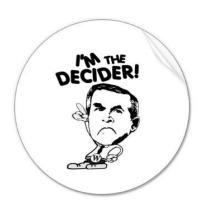
SVENGALI
The decider's decider.



### Famous Deciders









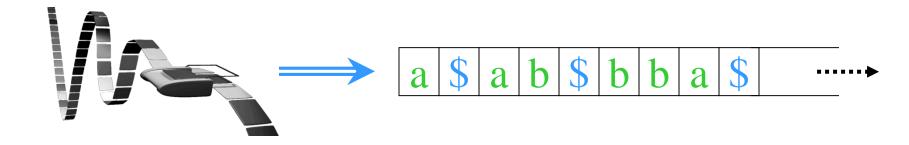






## Recognition and Enumeration

Def: An "enumerator" Turing machine for a language L prints out precisely all strings of L on its output tape.



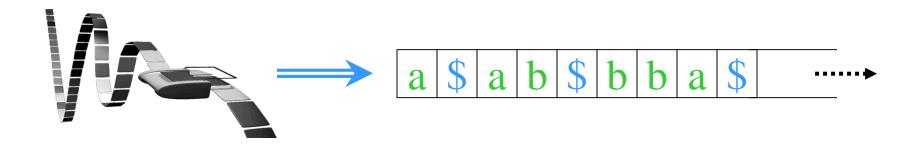
Note: The order of enumeration may be arbitrary.

Theorem: If a language is decidable, it can be enumerated in lexicographic order by some Turing machine.

Theorem: If a language can be enumerated in lexicographic order by some TM, it is decidable.

### Recognition and Enumeration

Def: An "enumerator" Turing machine for a language L prints out precisely all strings of L on its output tape.



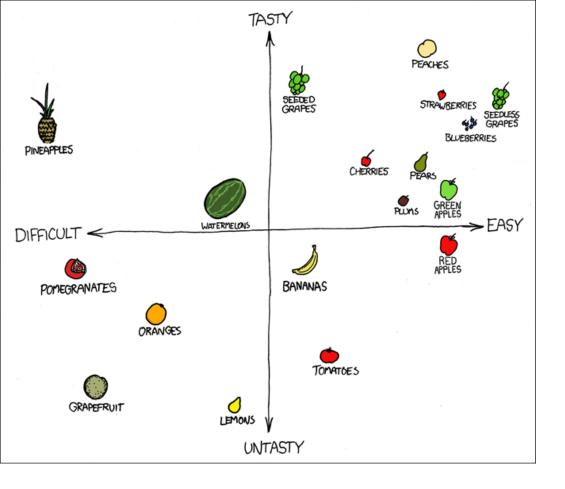
Note: The order of enumeration may be arbitrary.

Theorem: If a language is recognizable, then it can be enumerated by some Turing machine.

Theorem: If a language can be enumerated by some TM, then it is recognizable.

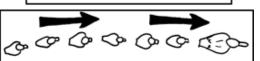
THE ALPHABET
IN ALPHABETICAL ORDER

Aitch	Ex	
Are	Eye	
Ay	Gee	
Bée	Jay	
Cue	Jay Kay	
Dee	Oh	
Double U	lea	
Ee	See Tee	
Et	Tee	
EI	Vee	
Em	Wy	
En	Yu	(Trys
Ess	Zee	J. LANTIS
		7

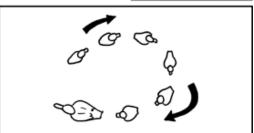




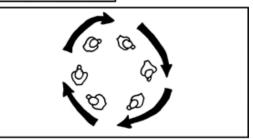




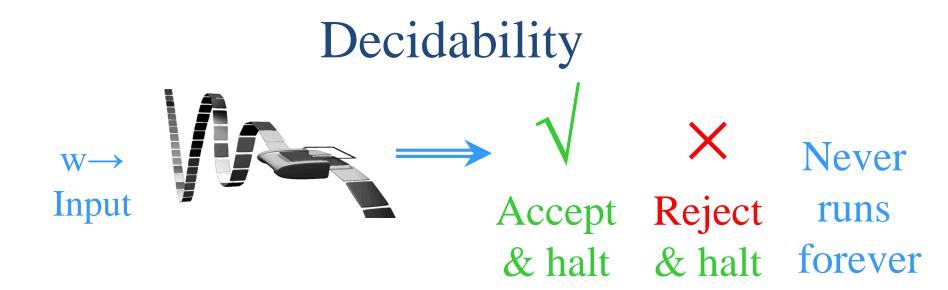








OPERATION: DUCKLING LOOP



Def: A language is Turing-decidable iff it is exactly the set of strings accepted by some always-halting TM.

Theorem: The finite languages are decidable.

Theorem: The regular languages are decidable.

Theorem: The context-free languages are decidable.

# A "Simple" Example

Let  $S = \{x^3 + y^3 + z^3 \mid x, y, z \in \mathbb{Z} \}$ 

**Q**: Is **S** infinite?

A: Yes, since S contains all cubes.

Q: Is S Turing-recognizable?

A: Yes, since dovetailing TM can enumerate S.

Q: Is S Turing-decidable?

A: Unknown!

Q: Is  $29 \in S$ ?

A: Yes, since  $3^3+1^3+1^3=29$ 

Q: Is  $30 \in S$ ?

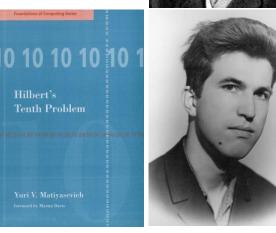
A: Yes, since  $(2220422932)^3 + (-22188888517)^3 + (-283059965)^3 = 30$ 

**Q**: Is 33 ∈ S?

A: Unknown!

Theorem [Matiyasevich, 1970]: Hilbert's 10<sup>th</sup> problem (1900), namely of determining whether a given Diophantine (i.e., multi-variable polynomial) equation has any integer solutions, is not decidable.





## Closure Properties of Decidable Languages

Theorem: The decidable languages are closed under union.

Hint: use simulation.

Theorem: The decidable languages are closed under  $\cap$ .

Hint: use simulation.

Theorem: The decidable langs are closed under complement.

Hint: simulate and negate.

Theorem: The decidable langs are closed under concatenation.

Hint: guess-factor string and simulate.

Theorem: The decidable langs are closed under Kleene star.

Hint: guess-factor string and simulate.

### Closure Properties of Recognizable Languages

Theorem: The recognizable languages are closed under union. Hint: use simulation.

Theorem: The recognizable languages are closed under  $\cap$ .

Hint: use simulation.

Theorem: The recognizable langs are not closed under compl.

Hint: reduction from halting problem.

Theorem: The recognizable langs are closed under concat.

Hint: guess-factor string and simulate.

Theorem: The recognizable langs are closed under Kleene star.

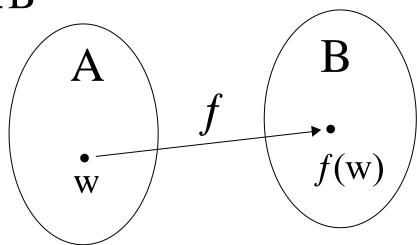
Hint: guess-factor string and simulate.

#### Reducibilities

Def: A language A is reducible to a language B if

 $\exists$  computable function/map  $f: \Sigma^* \to \Sigma^*$  where

$$\forall \mathbf{w} \ \mathbf{w} \in \mathbf{A} \Leftrightarrow f(\mathbf{w}) \in \mathbf{B}$$



Note: f is called a "reduction" of A to B

Denotation:  $A \leq B$ 

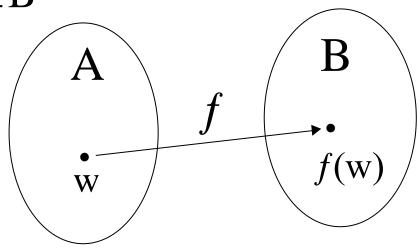
Intuitively, A is "no harder" than B

#### Reducibilities

Def: A language A is reducible to a language B if

 $\exists$  computable function/map  $f: \Sigma^* \to \Sigma^*$  where

$$\forall \mathbf{w} \ \mathbf{w} \in \mathbf{A} \Leftrightarrow f(\mathbf{w}) \in \mathbf{B}$$



Theorem: If  $A \le B$  and B is decidable then A is decidable.

Theorem: If  $A \le B$  and A is undecidable then B is undecidable.

Note: be very careful about the mapping direction!

### Reduction Example 1

Def: Let  $H_{\varepsilon}$  be the halting problem for TMs running on  $w=\varepsilon$ .

"Does TM M halt on  $\varepsilon$ ?"  $H_{\varepsilon} = \{ \langle M \rangle \in \Sigma^* | M(\varepsilon) \text{ halts } \}$ 

Theorem:  $H_{\varepsilon}$  is <u>not</u> decidable.

**Proof**: Reduction from the Halting Problem H:

Given an arbitrary TM M and input w, construct new TM M'

that if it ran on input x, it would:  $X \longrightarrow Ignore x$ 

- 1. Overwrite x with the <u>fixed</u> w on tape;
- 2. Simulate M on the fixed input w;
- 3. Accept  $\Leftrightarrow$  M accepts w.

Note: M' is not run!

• Simulate M on w

If M(w) halts then  $\longrightarrow$  halt

Note: M' halts on  $\varepsilon$  (and on any  $x \in \Sigma^*$ )  $\Leftrightarrow$  M halts on w.

A decider (oracle) for  $H_{\epsilon}$  can thus be used to decide H!

Since H is undecidable, H<sub>e</sub> must be undecidable also.

### Reduction Example 2

Def: Let  $L_{\emptyset}$  be the emptyness problem for TMs.

"Is 
$$L(M)$$
 empty?"  $L_{\emptyset} = \{ \langle M \rangle \in \Sigma^* | L(M) = \emptyset \}$ 

Theorem:  $L_{\emptyset}$  is <u>not</u> decidable.

**Proof:** Reduction from the Halting Problem H:

Given an arbitrary TM M and input w, construct new TM M'

• Simulate M on w

If M(w) halts then  $\longrightarrow$  halt

that if it ran on input x, it would:  $X \longrightarrow Ignore x$ 

- 1. Overwrite x with the <u>fixed</u> w on tape;
- 2. Simulate M on the fixed input w;
- 3. Accept  $\Leftrightarrow$  M accepts w. Note: M' is not run!

Note: M' halts on every  $x \in \Sigma^* \Leftrightarrow M$  halts on w.

A decider (oracle) for  $L_{\emptyset}$  can thus be used to decide H!

Since H is undecidable,  $L_{\emptyset}$  must be undecidable also.

### Reduction Example 3

Def: Let  $L_{reg}$  be the regularity problem for TMs.

"Is L(M) regular?"  $L_{reg} = \{ \langle M \rangle \in \Sigma^* | L(M) \text{ is regular } \}$ 

Theorem: L<sub>reg</sub> is <u>not</u> decidable.

**Proof:** Reduction from the Halting Problem H:

Given an arbitrary TM M and input w, construct new TM M'

that <u>if it ran</u> on input x, it would:  $X \longrightarrow Accept if x \in 0^n 1^n$ 

- 1. Accept if  $x \in 0^n 1^n$
- 2. Overwrite x with the <u>fixed</u> w on tape;
- 3. Simulate M on the <u>fixed</u> input w;
- 4. Accept  $\Leftrightarrow$  M accepts w.

Note: M' is not run!

• Ignore x

• Simulate M on w

If M(w) halts then  $\overline{\phantom{a}}$ 

→halt

Note:  $L(M')=\sum^* \Leftrightarrow M$  halts on w

 $L(M')=0^n1^n \Leftrightarrow M \text{ does not halt on } w$ 

A decider (oracle) for  $L_{reg}$  can thus be used to decide H!

Def: Let a "property" P be a set of recognizable languages.

```
Ex: P_1=\{L \mid L \text{ is a decidable language}\}
P_2=\{L \mid L \text{ is a context-free language}\}
P_3=\{L \mid L=L^*\}
P_4=\{\{\epsilon\}\}
P_5=\emptyset
P_6=\{L \mid L \text{ is a recognizable language}\}
```

L is said to "have property P" iff L∈P

Ex:  $(a+b)^*$  has property  $P_1$ ,  $P_2$ ,  $P_3$  &  $P_6$  but not  $P_4$  or  $P_5$   $\{ww^R\}$  has property  $P_1$ ,  $P_2$ , &  $P_6$  but not  $P_3$ ,  $P_4$  or  $P_5$ 

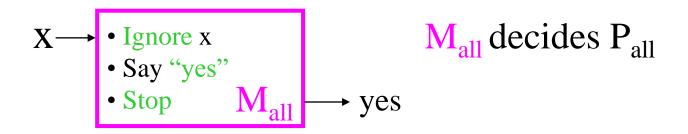
Def: A property is "trivial" iff it is empty or it contains all recognizable languages.

Theorem: The two trivial properties are decidable.

#### Proof:

$$P_{\text{none}} = \emptyset$$
  $X \longrightarrow \underbrace{\text{Ignore x}}_{\text{Say "no"}} \longrightarrow \text{none}$   $M_{\text{none}}$  decides  $P_{\text{none}}$   $\longrightarrow$  no

P<sub>all</sub>={L | L is a recognizable language}



Q: What other properties (other than  $P_{none}$  and  $P_{all}$ ) are decidable?

A: None!

Theorem [Rice, 1951]: All non-trivial properties of the Turing-recognizable languages are not decidable.

**Proof**: Let P be a non-trivial property.

Without loss of generality assume  $\emptyset \notin P$ , otherwise substitute P's complement for P in the remainder of this proof.

Select  $L \in P$  (note that  $L \neq \emptyset$  since  $\emptyset \notin P$ ), and let  $M_L$  recognize L (i.e.,  $L(M_L) = L \neq \emptyset$ ).

Assume (towards contradiction) that  $\exists$  some TM  $M_P$  which decides property P:

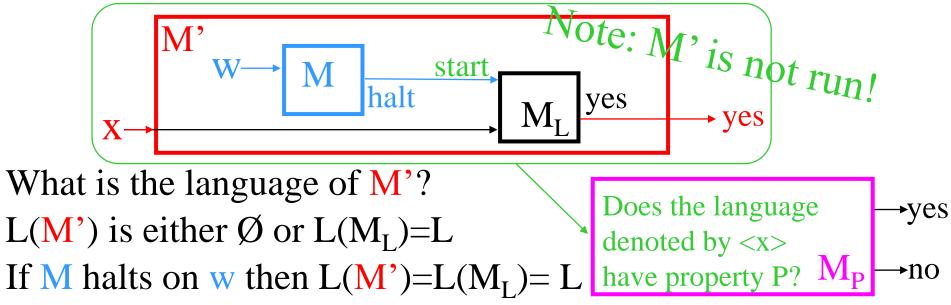
Note: x can be e.g., a TM description.

Does the language denoted by  $\langle x \rangle$  have property P?  $M_P$  no

Reduction strategy: use M<sub>p</sub> to "solve" the halting problem.

Recall that  $L \in P$ , and let  $M_L$  recognize L (i.e.,  $L(M_L) = L \neq \emptyset$ ).

Given an arbitrary TM M & string w, construct M':



If M does not halt on w then  $L(M') = \emptyset$  since  $M_L$  never starts

=> M halts on w iff L(M') has property P

"Oracle"  $M_P$  can determine if L(M') has property P, and thereby "solve" the halting problem, a contradiction!

Corollary: The following questions are not decidable: given a TM, is its language L:

- Empty?
- Finite?
- Infinite?
- Co-finite?
- Regular?
- Context-free?
- Inherently ambiguous? L is in PSPACE?

- Decidable?
- L=  $\sum *$ ?
- L contains an odd string?
- L contains a palindrome?
- L = {Hello, World} ?
- L is NP-complete?

Warning: Rice's theorem applies to properties (i.e., sets of languages), not (directly to) TM's or other object types!

#### **Context-Sensitive Grammars**

Problem: design a context-sensitive grammar to accept the (non-context-free) language  $\{1^n\$1^{2^n} \mid n\ge 1\}$ 

Idea: generate n 1's to the left & to the right of \$; then double n times the # of 1's on the right.

```
S \rightarrow 1ND1E /* Base case; E marks end-of-string */
N \rightarrow 1ND \mid \$ /* Loop: n 1's and n D's; end with $ */
D1 \rightarrow 11D /* Each D doubles the 1's on right */
DE \rightarrow E /* The E "cancels" out the D's */
E \rightarrow \epsilon /* Process ends when the E vanishes */
```

### Example: Generating strings in $\{1^n\$1^{2^n} | n\ge 1\}$

$$S \rightarrow 1ND1E$$
  $D1 \rightarrow 11D$   $E \rightarrow \varepsilon$   $N \rightarrow 1ND \mid \$$   $DE \rightarrow E$ 

$$S \rightarrow 1$$
ND1E  $\rightarrow 111$ \$1111DD1E

$$\rightarrow 11ND\underline{D1}E$$
  $\rightarrow 111\$1111\underline{D1}1DE$ 

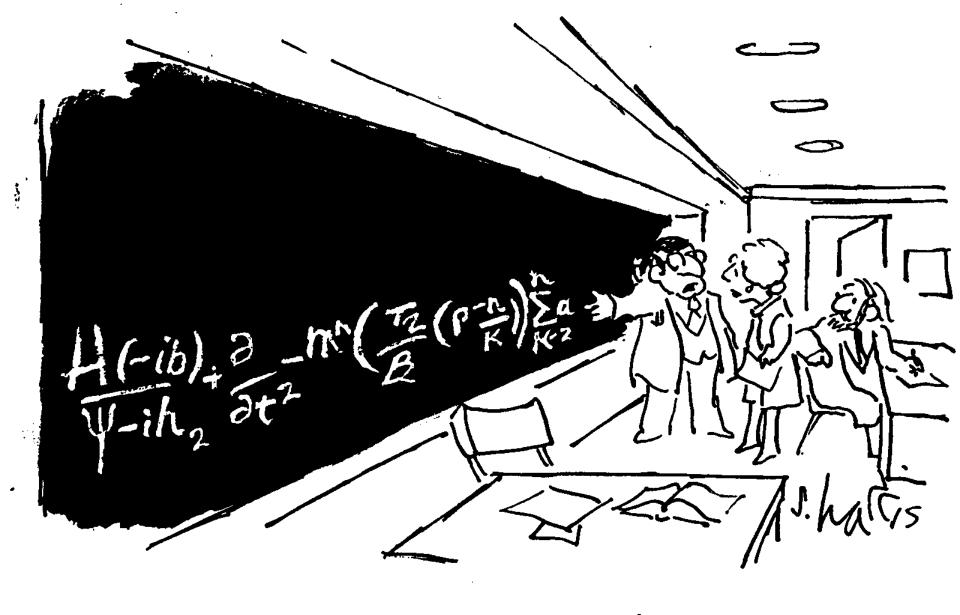
$$\rightarrow 11$$
ND11DE  $\rightarrow 111$ \$111111D1DE

$$\rightarrow 111ND\underline{D1}1DE \rightarrow 111\$1111111\underline{DDE}$$

$$\rightarrow$$
 111ND11D1DE  $\rightarrow$  111\$1111111DE

$$\rightarrow 111N11D1D1\underline{DE} \rightarrow 111\$1111111\underline{E}$$

$$\rightarrow 111\$11D1D1E$$
 =  $1^3\$1^8 = 1^3\$1^2^3$ 



"But this is the simplified version for the general public."