16.070 Introduction to Computers & Programming

Theory of computation: Sets, DFA, NFA

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Set Theory

A set is an unordered collection of objects. We use the notation {ob₁, ob₂, ... } to denote a set where the ob_i are the objects in the set.

eg: The set of all positive integers is $Z^+ = \{1, 2, 3, ...\}$

- The objects in a set are called the elements or members of the set. We say that a set contains its elements
 eg: 1, 2, 3, ... are the elements of the set Z⁺
- A set is defined in such general terms can cause problems.
 For this reason, this is called Naïve Set Theory.

Useful Sets

- The Set of Natural Numbers: $N = \{0, 1, 2, ...\}$
- The Set of **Integers**: $Z = \{..., -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, ...\}$
- The Set of **Positive Integers**: $Z^+ = \{1, 2, 3, ...\}$
- The Set of **Rational** Numbers:

 $Q = \{p/q \mid p \text{ and } q \text{ are integers and } q \neq 0\}$

- The Set of **Real** Numbers: $R = Q \cup Q'$
- A set with no members is called an empty set the symbol *f* is used to denote the empty set.

• What is {**f**} ?

Subset and Equivalence

The set A is called a subset of the set B if and only if every element of A is also an element of B. The notation A ⊆ B is used to indicate that A is a subset of B.

Restated: $A \subseteq B$ iff $\forall x (x \in A \rightarrow x \in B)$

eg: $\{1, 3, 5\} \subseteq \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ since every element in the first set is also a member of the second set

eg: $\{6, 2, 4\} \subseteq \{4, 6, 2\}$. [In fact the two sets are equal.]

• Two sets A and B are equal if and only if $A \subseteq B$ and $B \subseteq A$. That is, when every member of A is also a member of B and when every member of B is also a member of A, then A and B have the same members. This is a very important technique that we use to prove that two sets are equal: show $A \subseteq B$ and show $B \subseteq A$.

n-tuples & Cartesian Product

- The ordered n-tuple (a₁, a₂, ..., a_n) is the ordered collection that has a₁ as its first element, a₂ as its second element, ..., and a_n as its nth element. Two ordered n-tuples are equal if and only if their first elements are equal, their second elements are equal, ..., and their nth elements are equal.
- Let A and B be sets. The Cartesian product of A and B, denoted by A × B is the set of all ordered pairs (a, b) where a ∈ A and b ∈ B. That is:

$$A \times B = \{(a, b) \mid a \in A \land b \in B\}$$

Given: $A = \{1, 2\}$ and $B = \{a, b, c\}$

 $A \times B = \{(1, a), (1, b), (1, c), (2, a), (2, b), (2, c)\}$

Union & Intersection

 Let A and B be sets. The union of the sets A and B, denoted by A ∪ B, is the set that contains those elements that are either in A or in B, or in both. That is,

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

The union of {1, 3, 5} and {1, 2, 3} is {1, 2, 3, 5}

Let A and B be sets. The intersection of the sets A and B, denoted by A ∩ B, is the set that contains those elements that are in both A and B. That is,

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

The intersection of {1, 3, 5} and {1, 2, 3} is {1, 3}

Functions

Let A and B be sets. A mapping m from A to B is a subset of A × B. We denote that m is a mapping from A to B by m: A ⇒ B

Let $A = \{1, 2, 3\}$ and $B = \{a, b, c\}$.

 $A \times B = \{(1, a), (1, b), (1, c), (2, a), (2, b), (2, c), (3, a), (3, b), (3, c)\}.$

• m = {(1, a), (1, b), (2, a), (2, c)} is a mapping from A to B

Kleene Star

• We can then define the Kleene Star A* of A as

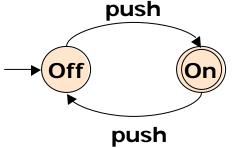
 $\mathbf{A}^* := \cup_{\mathbf{n} \ge \mathbf{0}} \mathbf{A}^{\mathbf{n}}$

Finite State Automata

- The FSA model seen so far is deterministic (DFA), exactly one transition for each given symbol and state.
- A **Model of Computation** consists of:
 - A set of **states**
 - An input alphabet
 - A **transition function** that maps input symbols and current states to a **next state**
 - A start state
 - Accepting states

5-tuple (Q, Σ , δ , q₀, F)

 $({On, Off}, {push}, {(On, push)} \rightarrow Off, (Off, push) \rightarrow On}, Off, {On})$



Formal Definition of Computation

• Let
$$\mathbf{M} = (\mathbf{Q}, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$$

• Let $\mathbf{w} = w_1 w_2 \dots w_n \in \Sigma^n$
• \mathbf{Q}_0
• \mathbf{q}_1
• \mathbf{q}_2
• \mathbf{q}_3
• \mathbf{q}_4

• Then M accepts w *iff* there exists a sequence of states $(\mathbf{r}_0, \mathbf{r}_1, ..., \mathbf{r}_n) \mathbf{\hat{I}} \mathbf{Q}^n$

1.
$$r_0 = q_0$$

2. $\delta(r_{i-1}, w_i) = r_i$ for all $i = 1, 2, ..., n$
3. $r_n \in F$

We can formally define the Language L(M) accepted by automaton M as: L(M) := { w Î S* | M accepts w }

Operations on Languages

We defined a (formal) language L over an alphabet S as a set of words: L I S*

- Let A, B I S* be languages over the same alphabet. Then we define the:
 - Intersection A Ç B of A and B as A Ç B := {w Î S* | w Î A Ù w Î B }
 - Union A È B of A and B as
 A È B := {w Î S* | w Î A Ú w Î B }

Operations on Languages

- Concatenation
 Let x₁, x₂ Î S* then
 - If $x_1 \hat{I} S^0$, i.e., $x_1 = e$, then $x_1 x_2 := x_2$
 - If $\mathbf{x}_1 \, \widehat{\mathbf{I}} \, \mathbf{S}^* \setminus \{\mathbf{e}\}$, i.e., \mathbf{x}_1 is not the empty word; split \mathbf{x}_1 into a character **a** $\widehat{\mathbf{I}} \, \mathbf{S}$ and a word $\mathbf{x'}_1 \, \widehat{\mathbf{I}} \, \mathbf{S}^* : \mathbf{x}_1 = \mathbf{ax'}_1$ then: $\mathbf{x}_1 \, \mathbf{x}_2 = (\mathbf{ax'}_1) \, \mathbf{x}_2 = \mathbf{a}(\mathbf{x'}_1 \mathbf{x}_2)$

Example:

If
$$\mathbf{x}_1 = \mathbf{a}_1 \, \mathbf{a}_2 \dots \, \mathbf{a}_n \, and \, \mathbf{x}_2 = \mathbf{b}_1 \, \mathbf{b}_2 \dots \mathbf{b}_m$$

then $\mathbf{x}_1 \, \mathbf{x}_2 = \mathbf{a}_1 \, \mathbf{a}_2 \dots \, \mathbf{a}_n \, \mathbf{b}_1 \, \mathbf{b}_2 \dots \mathbf{b}_m$

Operations on Languages

- From the formal definition of concatenation we can derive its following two properties
 - Associativity: If a, b, c ∈ S* are words over the same alphabet, then a(bc) = (ab)c
 - **Identity element**: *if* $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbf{S}^*$ is a word, *then* $\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{e}\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{a}\mathbf{e}$
- Two more operations on languages
 - Let A, B Î S* be languages over the same alphabet. Then we define the concatenation AB of A and B as AB := {ab | a Î A Ù b Î B}.
 - Let A I S* be a language. Then we define the sets Aⁿ recursively for all n >= 0:
 - $A^0 := \{e\}$
- In other words, Aⁿ is the set of all words formed by taking any sequence
- $\mathbf{A}^{\mathbf{n}+1} := \mathbf{A}^{\mathbf{n}}\mathbf{A}$
 - A $a_1, a_2, ..., a_n \in A$ of *n* words from A and concatenating them.

Closure of regular languages

The claim is that applying any of these operations to a regular language creates another regular language; in other words, *the class of regular languages is closed under these operations.*

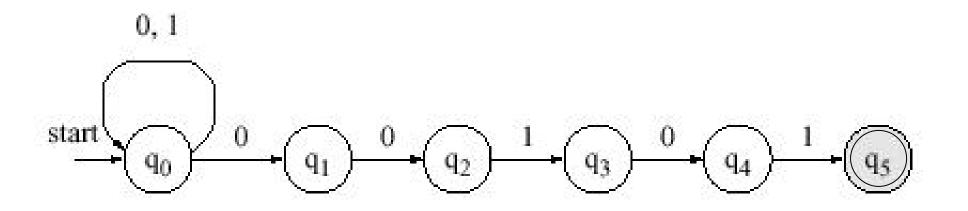
Nondeterministic finite state automata

- A finite state machine/automata whose transition function maps input symbols and states to a possibly empty set of next states. The transition may also map the null symbol (no input symbol needed) and states to next state.
- There are three differences between the transition function of an NFA and that of a DFA
 - 1. There can be *states with more than one arrow leaving for the same input symbol*
 - 2. There can be *states with no arrows leaving for an input symbol*
 - 3. There can be arrows labeled with the special symbol **e** (the null symbol)

Non-Deterministic Languages

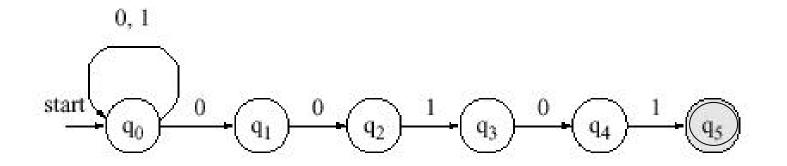
- Input string x is accepted by a nondeterministic FSA if there is a set of transitions (alternatively there is a path in the FSA graph) on input x that allows the NFA to reach an accepting state.
- The language *L* recognized by a nondeterministic FSA is the set of input strings accepted by it.
- Later we show that deterministic and nondeterministic FSAs recognize the same languages.

A Nondeterministic FSA

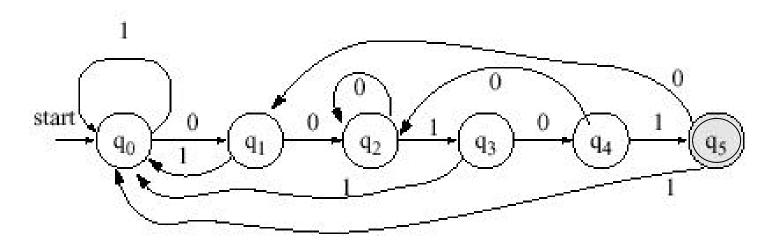


- Let 0,1 be input alphabet. If an NFA doesn't have an edge labeled 0 (1) from state q, then 0 (1) is rejected at that state.
- Note that this machine accepts 00101, 000101, and 10100100101, among others.
- Clearly it accepts strings ending with 00101

A Nondeterministic FSA



• The equivalent DFA is shown below.



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Equivalence of NFAs and DFAs

 By definition, every DFA is also an NFA; thus the class of DFAs is a subset of the class of NFAs.

For the same reason $L(DFA) \subset L(NFA)$.

Equivalence of Regular Expressions and FSAs

- Earlier we have claimed that the class of languages that can be described by regular expressions is exactly the class of regular languages.
- Proof:
 - Show that the language L(R) generated by any regular expression R is accepted by some NFA M.
 - Show that the language L(M) accepted by any automaton M is generated by some regular expression R.