

# *Theory of Computation*

Course note based on *Computability, Complexity, and Languages: Fundamentals of Theoretical Computer Science*, 2nd edition, authored by Martin Davis, Ron Sigal, and Elaine J. Weyuker.

course note prepared by

Tyng–Ruey Chuang

Week 11, Spring 2008

## About This Course Note

- It is prepared for the course *Theory of Computation* taught at the National Taiwan University in Spring 2008.
- It follows very closely the book *Computability, Complexity, and Languages: Fundamentals of Theoretical Computer Science*, 2nd edition, by Martin Davis, Ron Sigal, and Elaine J. Weyuker. Morgan Kaufmann Publishers. ISBN: 0-12-206382-1.
- It is available from Tyng-Ruey Chuang's web site:

<http://www.iis.sinica.edu.tw/~trc/>

and released under a Creative Commons “Attribution-ShareAlike 2.5 Taiwan” license:

<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-sa/2.5/tw/>

## 1 Regular Languages (9)

### 1.1 Closure Properties (9.4)

#### Closure properties

- To show that the class of regular languages is closed under a large number of operations.
- To use deterministic or nondeterministic finite automata whenever necessary, as the two classes of automata are equivalent in expressiveness (Theorem 2.1).

## Nonrestarting dfa

**Definition.** A dfa is called *nonrestarting* if there is no pair  $q, s$  for which

$$\delta(q, s) = q_1$$

where  $q_1$  is the initial state.

**Theorem 4.1.** There is an algorithm that will transform a given dfa  $\mathcal{M}$  into a nonrestarting dfa  $\tilde{\mathcal{M}}$  such that  $L(\tilde{\mathcal{M}}) = L(\mathcal{M})$ .

## Constructing a nonrestarting dfa from a dfa

*Proof of Theorem 4.1.* From a dfa  $\mathcal{M}$ , we can construct an equivalent nonrestarting dfa  $\tilde{\mathcal{M}}$  by adding a new “returning initial” state  $q_{n+1}$ , and by redefining the transition function accordingly. That is, for  $\tilde{\mathcal{M}}$ , we define

- the set of states  $\tilde{Q} = Q \cup \{q_{n+1}\}$
- the transition function  $\tilde{\delta}$  by

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{\delta}(q, s) &= \begin{cases} \delta(q, s) & \text{if } q \in Q \text{ and } \delta(q, s) \neq q_1 \\ q_{n+1} & \text{if } q \in Q \text{ and } \delta(q, s) = q_1 \end{cases} \\ \tilde{\delta}(q_{n+1}, s) &= \tilde{\delta}(q_1, s) \end{aligned}$$

- the set of final states  $\tilde{F} = \begin{cases} F & \text{if } q_1 \notin F \\ F \cup \{q_{n+1}\} & \text{if } q_1 \in F \end{cases}$

To see that  $L(\mathcal{M}) = L(\tilde{\mathcal{M}})$  we observe that  $\tilde{\mathcal{M}}$  follows the same transitions as  $\mathcal{M}$  except whenever  $\mathcal{M}$  reenters  $q_1$ ,  $\tilde{\mathcal{M}}$  enters  $q_{n+1}$ .  $\square$

## $L \cup \tilde{L}$

**Theorem 4.2.** If  $L$  and  $\tilde{L}$  are regular languages, then so is  $L \cup \tilde{L}$ . *Proof.* Let  $\mathcal{M}$  and  $\tilde{\mathcal{M}}$  be nonrestarting dfas that accept  $L$  and  $\tilde{L}$  respectively.  $\mathcal{M}$  and  $\tilde{\mathcal{M}}$  are distinct but use the same alphabet. We now construct a ndfa  $\check{\mathcal{M}}$  by “merging”  $\mathcal{M}$  and  $\tilde{\mathcal{M}}$  but with a new initial state  $\check{q}_1$ . That is, we define  $\check{\mathcal{M}}$  by

- the set of states  $\check{Q} = Q \cup \tilde{Q} \cup \{\check{q}_1\} - \{q_1, \tilde{q}_1\}$
- the transition function  $\check{\delta}$  by

$$\begin{aligned} \check{\delta}(q, s) &= \begin{cases} \{\delta(q, s)\} & \text{if } q \in Q - \{q_1\} \\ \{\tilde{\delta}(q, s)\} & \text{if } q \in \tilde{Q} - \{\tilde{q}_1\} \end{cases} \\ \check{\delta}(\check{q}_1, s) &= \{\delta(q_1, s)\} \cup \{\tilde{\delta}(\tilde{q}_1, s)\} \end{aligned}$$

- the set of final states

$$\check{F} = \begin{cases} F \cup \tilde{F} \cup \{\check{q}_1\} - \{q_1, \tilde{q}_1\} & \text{if } q_1 \in F \text{ or } \tilde{q}_1 \in \tilde{F} \\ F \cup \tilde{F} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Note that once a first transition has been selected,  $\check{\mathcal{M}}$  is locked into either  $\mathcal{M}$  or  $\tilde{\mathcal{M}}$ . Hence  $L(\check{\mathcal{M}}) = L \cup \tilde{L}$ .  $\square$

$A^* - L$

**Theorem 4.3.** Let  $L \subseteq A^*$  be a regular language. Then  $A^* - L$  is regular. *Proof.* Let  $\mathcal{M}$  be a dfa that accept  $L$ . Let dfa  $\bar{\mathcal{M}}$  be exactly like  $\mathcal{M}$  except that it accepts precisely when  $\mathcal{M}$  rejects. That is, the set of accepting states of  $\bar{\mathcal{M}}$  is  $Q - F$ . Then  $L(\bar{\mathcal{M}}) = A^* - L$ .  $\square$

$L_1 \cap L_2$

**Theorem 4.4.** If  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  are regular languages, then so is  $L_1 \cap L_2$ . *Proof.* Let  $L_1, L_2 \subseteq A^*$ . Then, by the De Morgan identity, we have

$$L_1 \cap L_2 = A^* - ((A^* - L_1) \cup (A^* - L_2))$$

Theorem 4.2 and 4.3 then give the result.  $\square$

$\emptyset$  and  $\{0\}$

**Theorem 4.5.**  $\emptyset$  and  $\{0\}$  are regular languages. *Proof.*  $\emptyset$  is clearly the language accepted by any automaton whose set of accepting states is empty. For  $\{0\}$ , we can construct a two-state dfa such that  $F = \{q_1\}$  and  $\delta(q_1, a) = \delta(q_2, a) = q_2$  for every symbol  $a \in A$ , the alphabet. Clearly this dfa accepts  $\{0\}$ .  $\square$

**Every finite subset of  $A^*$  is regular**

**Theorem 4.5.** Let  $u \in A^*$ . Then  $\{u\}$  is a regular language. *Proof.* Theorem 4.4 proves the case for  $u = 0$ . For the other case, let  $u = a_1 a_2 \dots a_l$  where  $l \geq 1, a_1, a_2, \dots, a_l \in A$ . We now construct a  $(l + 1)$ -state ndfa  $\mathcal{M}$  with initial state  $q_1$ , accepting state  $q_{l+1}$ , and the transition function  $\delta$  given by

$$\begin{aligned} \delta(q_i, a_i) &= \{q_{i+1}\}, & i = 1, \dots, l \\ \delta(q_i, a) &= \emptyset & \text{for } a \in A - \{a_i\}, \quad i = 1, \dots, l \end{aligned}$$

Clearly  $L(\mathcal{M}) = \{u\}$ .  $\square$  **Corollary 4.7.** Every finite subset of  $A^*$  is regular.  $\square$

## 1.2 Kleene's Theorem (9.5)

### Characterizations of Regular Languages

We now show that the class of regular languages can be characterized as the class of all languages obtained from finite languages using the operations  $\cup, \cdot, *$  a finite number of times. We will see that there are other characterizations of regular languages as well.

**Definitions of  $L_1 \cdot L_2$  and  $L^*$**

**Definition.** Let  $L_1, L_2 \subseteq A^*$ . Then we write

$$L_1 \cdot L_2 = L_1 L_2 = \{uv \mid u \in L_1 \text{ and } v \in L_2\}.$$

□. **Definition.** Let  $L \subseteq A^*$ . Then we write

$$L^* = \{u_1 u_2 \dots u_n \mid n \geq 0, u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n \in L\}.$$

□. Note that, for  $L^*$ ,

- $0 \in L^*$
- The notation of  $A^*$  is consistent with the definition of  $L^*$ .

$L \cdot \tilde{L}$

**Theorem 5.1.** If  $L, \tilde{L}$  are regular languages, then  $L \cdot \tilde{L}$  is regular. *Proof.* Let  $\mathcal{M}$  and  $\tilde{\mathcal{M}}$  be dfas that accept  $L$  and  $\tilde{L}$  respectively. The two are distinct but use the same alphabet. We now construct a ndfa  $\dot{\mathcal{M}}$  by “gluing together” the two dfas. We define

- the set of states  $\dot{Q} = Q \cup \tilde{Q}$
- the transition function  $\dot{\delta}$  by

$$\dot{\delta}(q, s) = \begin{cases} \{\delta(q, s)\} & \text{if } q \in Q - F \\ \{\delta(q, s)\} \cup \{\tilde{\delta}(\tilde{q}_1, s)\} & \text{if } q \in F \\ \{\tilde{\delta}(q, s)\} & \text{if } q \in \tilde{Q} \end{cases}$$

- the set of final states

$$\dot{F} = \begin{cases} F \cup \tilde{F} & \text{if } 0 \in \tilde{L} \\ \tilde{F} & \text{if } 0 \notin \tilde{L} \end{cases}$$

Clearly,  $L \cdot \tilde{L} = L(\dot{\mathcal{M}})$ , so that  $L \cdot \tilde{L}$  is regular. □.

$L^*$

**Theorem 5.2.** If  $L$  is a regular languages, then so is  $L^*$ . *Proof.* Let  $\mathcal{M}$  be a nonrestarting dfa that accept  $L$ . We now construct a “looping” ndfa  $\tilde{\mathcal{M}}$  with the same states and initial state as  $\mathcal{M}$ , and accepting state  $q_1$ . The transition function  $\tilde{\delta}$  is defined as follows:

$$\tilde{\delta}(q, s) = \begin{cases} \{\delta(q, s)\} & \text{if } \delta(q, s) \notin F \\ \{\delta(q, s)\} \cup \{q_1\} & \text{if } \delta(q, s) \in F \end{cases}$$

That is, whenever  $\mathcal{M}$  would enter an accepting state,  $\tilde{\mathcal{M}}$  will enter either the corresponding accepting state or the initial state. Clearly,  $L^* = L(\tilde{\mathcal{M}})$ , so that  $L^*$  is a regular language. □.

## Kleene's Theorem

**Theorem 5.3.** A language is regular if and only if it can be obtained from finite languages by applying the three operators  $\cup, \cdot, *$  a finite number of times. *Proof.* ( $\Leftarrow$ ) Every finite language is regular. The three operators build regular languages from regular languages. Therefore, by induction on the number of applications of  $\cup, \cdot, *$ , any language obtained from finite languages by applying these operators a finite number of times is regular. ( $\Rightarrow$ ) Let  $L = L(\mathcal{M})$  where  $\mathcal{M}$  is a dfa with states  $q_1, \dots, q_n$ . As usual,  $q_1$  is the initial state,  $F$  the set of accepting states,  $\delta$  the transition function, and  $A = \{s_1, \dots, s_m\}$  the alphabet.

We define the sets  $R_{i,j}^k$ , for all  $i, j > 0, k \geq 0$ , as follows:

$$R_{i,j}^k = \{x \in A^* \mid \delta^*(q_i, x) = q_j \text{ and, as it moves across } x, \\ \mathcal{M} \text{ passes through no state } q_l \text{ with } l > k\}$$

## Kleene's Theorem, Continued

*Proof (continued).* We observe that

$$R_{i,i}^0 = \{0\} \\ R_{i,j}^0 = \{a \in A \mid \delta(q_i, a) = q_j\}, \text{ for } i \neq j$$

Now, to process any string of length  $> 1$ ,  $\mathcal{M}$  will pass through some intermediate state  $q_l, l \geq 1$ . We can write

$$R_{i,j}^{k+1} = R_{i,j}^k \cup (R_{i,k+1}^k \cdot (R_{k+1,k+1}^k)^* \cdot R_{k+1,j}^k)$$

In addition,  $R_{i,j}^k$  is regular for for all  $i, j, k$ . This is proved by an induction on  $k$ . For  $k = 0$ ,  $R_{i,j}^0$  is finite hence regular. Assuming the result known for  $k$ , ( $\Leftarrow$ ) yields the result for  $k + 1$ . Finally, we note that

$$L(\mathcal{M}) = \bigcup_{q_j \in F} R_{1,j}^n$$

and we conclude the proof. □

## Regular Expressions

For an alphabet  $A = \{s_1, s_2, \dots, s_k\}$ , we define the corresponding alphabet

$$\mathbf{A} = \{s_1, s_2, \dots, s_k, 0, \emptyset, \cup, \cdot, *, (, )\}.$$

The class of *regular expressions* on  $A$  is then defined to be the subset of  $\mathbf{A}^*$  determined by the following:

1.  $\emptyset, 0, s_1, s_2, \dots, s_k$  are regular expressions.
2. If  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are regular expressions, then so is  $(\alpha \cup \beta)$ .

3. If  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are regular expressions, then so is  $(\alpha \cdot \beta)$ .
4. If  $\alpha$  is a regular expression, then so is  $\alpha^*$ .
5. No expression is regular unless it can be generated using a finite number of applications of 1–4.

### Semantics of Regular Expressions

For each regular expression  $\gamma$ , we define a corresponding regular language  $\langle \gamma \rangle$  by recursion according to the following rules:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \langle s_i \rangle &= \{s_i\} \\
 \langle 0 \rangle &= \{0\} \\
 \langle \emptyset \rangle &= \emptyset \\
 \langle (\alpha \cup \beta) \rangle &= \langle \alpha \rangle \cup \langle \beta \rangle \\
 \langle (\alpha \cdot \beta) \rangle &= \langle \alpha \rangle \cdot \langle \beta \rangle \\
 \langle \alpha^* \rangle &= \langle \alpha \rangle^*
 \end{aligned}$$

When  $\langle \gamma \rangle = L$ , we say that the regular expression  $\gamma$  *represents*  $L$ .

### Regular Expressions, Examples

$$\begin{aligned}
 \langle (a \cdot (b^* \cup c^*)) \rangle &= \{ab^{[n]} \mid n \geq 0\} \cup \{ac^{[m]} \mid m \geq 0\} \\
 \langle (0 \cup (a \cdot b)^*) \rangle &= \{(ab)^{[n]} \mid n \geq 0\} \\
 \langle ((c^* \cdot b^*)) \rangle &= \{c^{[m]}b^{[n]} \mid m, n \geq 0\}
 \end{aligned}$$

### Finite Subsets of $A^*$

**Theorem 5.4.** For every finite subset  $L$  of  $A^*$ , there is a regular expressions  $\gamma$  on  $A$  such that  $\langle \gamma \rangle = L$ . *Proof.* We need only to consider the following:

- If  $L = \emptyset$ , then  $L = \langle \emptyset \rangle$ .
- If  $L = 0$ , then  $L = \langle 0 \rangle$ .
- If  $L = \{x\}$ , where  $x = s_{i_1}s_{i_2}\dots s_{i_l}$ , then

$$L = \langle (s_{i_1} \cdot (s_{i_2} \cdot (s_{i_3} \dots s_{i_l}) \dots)) \rangle.$$

- If  $L$  has more than one elements. Assuming the result is known for languages of  $k$  elements, let  $L$  have  $k + 1$  elements. Then we can write  $L = L_1 \cup \{x\}$ , where  $x \in A^*$  and  $L_1$  contains  $k$  elements. By induction hypothesis, there is a regular expression  $\alpha$  such that  $\langle \alpha \rangle = L_1$ . By the above, there is regular expression  $\beta$  such that  $\langle \beta \rangle = \{x\}$ . Then we have

$$\langle (\alpha \cup \beta) \rangle = L_1 \cup \{x\} = L$$

□

### Kleene's Theorem — Second Version

**Theorem 5.5.** A language  $L \subseteq A^*$  is regular if and only if there is a regular expression  $\gamma$  on  $A$  such that  $\langle \gamma \rangle = L$ . *Proof.* ( $\Leftarrow$ ) For any regular expression  $\gamma$ , the regular language  $\langle \gamma \rangle$  is built up from finite languages by applying  $\cup, \cdot, *$  a finite number of times, so  $\langle \gamma \rangle$  is regular by the Kleene's theorem. ( $\Rightarrow$ ) If a regular language  $L$  is finite, then by Theorem 5.4, there is a regular expression  $\gamma$  such that  $\langle \gamma \rangle = L$ . Otherwise, by Kleene's theorem,  $L$  can be obtained from certain finite languages by a finite of applications of  $\cup, \cdot, *$ .

Starting with regular expressions representing these finite languages, we then build up a regular expression representing  $L$  by simply indicating each use of the operations  $\cup, \cdot, *$  by writing  $\cup, \cdot, *$ , respectively, and punctuating with ( and ). □

## 1.3 The Pumping Lemma and Its Application (9.6)

### Pigeon-Hole Principle

*Pigeon-Hole Principle.* If  $n + 1$  objects are distributed among  $n$  sets, then at least one of the sets must contain at least two objects. □

### Pumping Lemma

**Theorem 6.1.** Let  $L = L(\mathcal{M})$ , where  $\mathcal{M}$  is a dfa with  $n$  states. Let  $x \in L$ , where  $|x| \geq n$ . Then we can write  $x = uvw$ , where  $v \neq \epsilon$  and  $uv^i w \in L$  for all  $i = 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$ . *Proof.* Since  $x$  has at least  $n$  symbols,  $\mathcal{M}$  must go through at least  $n$  state transitions. Including the initial state, this requires  $\mathcal{M}$  to visit at least  $n + 1$  states. We conclude that  $\mathcal{M}$  must visit at least one state  $q$  more than once. Then we can write  $x = uvw$ , where

$$\begin{aligned} \delta^*(q_1, u) &= q, \\ \delta^*(q, v) &= q, \\ \delta^*(q, w) &\in F. \end{aligned}$$

However, the loop starting and ending at  $q$  can be repeated any number of times and  $\mathcal{M}$  still reaches the accepting states. It is clear that

$$\delta^*(q_1, uv^i w) = \delta^*(q_1, uvw) \in F.$$

Hence  $uv^i w \in L$ . □

### Applications of The Pumping Lemma, I

**Theorem 6.2.** Let  $\mathcal{M}$  be a dfa with  $n$  states. Then, if  $L(\mathcal{M}) \neq \emptyset$ , there is a string  $x \in L(\mathcal{M})$  such that  $|x| < n$ . *Proof.* Let  $x$  be a string in  $L(\mathcal{M})$  of the shortest possible length. Suppose  $|x| \geq n$ . By the pumping lemma,  $x = uvw$ , where  $v \neq \epsilon$  and  $uw \in L(\mathcal{M})$ . Since  $|uw| < |x|$ , this is a contradiction. Thus  $|x| < n$ .  $\square$  This theorem shows how to test a given dfa  $\mathcal{M}$  to see whether the language it accepts is empty! We need only “run”  $\mathcal{M}$  on all strings of length less than the number of states of  $\mathcal{M}$ . If none is accepted, we then conclude  $L(\mathcal{M}) = \emptyset$ .

### Applications of The Pumping Lemma, II

**Theorem 6.4.** Let  $\mathcal{M}$  be a dfa with  $n$  states. Then,  $L(\mathcal{M})$  is infinite if and only if  $L(\mathcal{M})$  contains a string  $x$  such that  $n \leq |x| < 2n$ . *Proof.* ( $\implies$ ) Let  $L(\mathcal{M})$  be infinite. Then  $L(\mathcal{M})$  must contain strings of length  $\geq 2n$ . Let  $x \in L(\mathcal{M})$ , where  $x$  has the shortest possible length  $\geq 2n$ . We write  $x = x_1x_2$ , where  $|x_1| = n$  and  $|x_2| \geq n$ . By using the pigeon-hole principle, we can write  $x_1 = uvw$ , where

$$\begin{aligned}\delta^*(q_1, u) &= q, \\ \delta^*(q, v) &= q, \text{ with } 1 \leq |v| \leq n, \\ \delta^*(q, wx_2) &\in F.\end{aligned}$$

Thus  $uwx_2 \in L(\mathcal{M})$ , and  $|x| > |uwx_2| \geq |x_2| \geq n$ . Since  $x$  is a shortest string of  $L(\mathcal{M})$  with length at least  $2n$ , we conclude  $n \leq |uwx_2| < 2n$ .

### Applications of The Pumping Lemma, II, Continued

*Proof (Theorem 6.4).* ( $\impliedby$ ) Let  $x \in L(\mathcal{M})$  with  $n \leq |x| < 2n$ . By the pumping lemma, we can write  $x = uvw$ , where  $v \neq \epsilon$  and  $uv^i w \in L(\mathcal{M})$  for all  $i$ . This shows that  $L(\mathcal{M})$  is infinite.  $\square$  Theorem 6.4 shows how to test a given dfa  $\mathcal{M}$  to see whether the language it accepts is finite! We need only run  $\mathcal{M}$  on all strings  $x$  such that  $n \leq |x| < 2n$ , where  $\mathcal{M}$  has  $n$  states.  $L(\mathcal{M})$  is infinite just in case  $\mathcal{M}$  accepts at least one of these strings.

### Applications of The Pumping Lemma, III

The pumping lemma also provides us a technique for showing that given languages are not regular. For example,  $L = \{a^n b^n \mid n > 0\}$  is not regular. Suppose it is, then  $L = L(\mathcal{M})$ , where  $\mathcal{M}$  is a dfa and has  $m$  states. We will derive a contradiction by showing that there is a word  $x \in L$ , with  $|x| > m$ , such that there is no way of writing  $x = uvw$ , with  $v \neq \epsilon$ , so that  $\{uv^i w \mid i \geq 0\} \subseteq L$ . Let  $x = a^m b^m$ . If we write  $x = uvw$ , with  $v \neq \epsilon$ , then either  $v = a^{l_1}$ , or  $v = a^{l_1} b^{l_2}$ , or  $v = b^{l_2}$ , with  $l_1, l_2 \leq m$ . However, in each case,  $uv^2 w \notin L$ , contradicting the pumping lemma, so there can be no such dfa  $\mathcal{M}$ . We just show that  $L$  is not regular.