

- What does a non-deterministic Turing machine look like?
- What languages are accept by non-deterministic Turing machines?

CS/ECE-374: Lecture 10 - Midterm 1 Review

Lecturer: Nickvash Kani Chat moderator: Samir Khan February 25, 2021

University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign





 What does a non-deterministic Turing machine look like?



- What does a non-deterministic Turing machine look like?
- What languages are accept by non-deterministic Turing machines?

Exam Content

Including but not limited to:

- Languages and strings
- Regular expressions
- Deterministic finite automata
- Non-deterministic finite automata
- Equivalence of DFAs/NFAs/RegEx
- Regular language closure properties
- Fooling Sets

Strings

String Definitions

Definition

- 1. A string/word over Σ is a finite sequence of symbols over Σ . For example, (0101001' (string' (meanshed))(retate00))'
 - Σ . For example, '0101001', 'string', ' $\langle moveback \rangle \langle rotate90 \rangle$ '
- 2. ϵ is the empty string.
- 3. The length of a string w (denoted by |w|) is the number of symbols in w. For example, |101| = 3, $|\epsilon| = 0$
- 4. For integer $n \ge 0$, Σ^n is set of all strings over Σ of length n. Σ^* is the set of all strings over Σ .
- 5. concatenation defined recursively :
 - xy = y if $x = \epsilon$
 - xy = a(wy) if x = aw

Induction on strings

Inductive proofs on strings and related problems follow inductive definitions.

Definition

The reverse w^R of a string w is defined as follows:

•
$$W^R = \epsilon$$
 if $W = \epsilon$

•
$$w^R = x^R a$$
 if $w = ax$ for some $a \in \Sigma$ and string x

Inductive proofs on strings and related problems follow inductive definitions.

Definition

The reverse w^R of a string w is defined as follows:

•
$$W^R = \epsilon$$
 if $W = \epsilon$

• $w^R = x^R a$ if w = ax for some $a \in \Sigma$ and string x

Theorem

Prove that for any strings $u, v \in \Sigma^*$, $(uv)^R = v^R u^R$.

Example: $(dog \cdot cat)^R = (cat)^R \cdot (dog)^R = tacgod.$

Induction is a way to prove statements of the form $\forall n \ge 0, P(n)$ where P(n) is a statement that holds for integer n.

Example: Prove that $\sum_{i=0}^{n} i = n(n+1)/2$ for all n.

Induction template:

- **Base case:** Prove *P*(0)
- Induction hypothesis: Let k > 0 be an arbitrary integer. Assume that P(n) holds for any $n \le k$.
- Induction Step: Prove that P(n) holds, for n = k + 1.

Prove that for any strings $u, v \in \Sigma^*$, $(uv)^R = v^R u^R$.

Proof by induction on |u| means that we are proving the following.

Base case: Let *u* be an arbitrary string of length 0. $u = \epsilon$ since there is only one such string. Then

$$(UV)^{R} = (\epsilon V)^{R} = V^{R} = V^{R} \epsilon = V^{R} \epsilon^{R} = V^{R} u^{R}$$

Prove that for any strings $u, v \in \Sigma^*$, $(uv)^R = v^R u^R$.

Proof by induction on |u| means that we are proving the following.

Base case: Let *u* be an arbitrary string of length 0. $u = \epsilon$ since there is only one such string. Then

$$(UV)^{R} = (\epsilon V)^{R} = V^{R} = V^{R} \epsilon = V^{R} \epsilon^{R} = V^{R} U^{R}$$

Induction hypothesis: $\forall n \geq 0$, for any string *u* of length *n*:

For all strings $v \in \Sigma^*$, $(uv)^R = v^R u^R$.

Prove that for any strings $u, v \in \Sigma^*$, $(uv)^R = v^R u^R$.

Proof by induction on |u| means that we are proving the following.

Base case: Let *u* be an arbitrary string of length 0. $u = \epsilon$ since there is only one such string. Then

$$(UV)^{R} = (\epsilon V)^{R} = V^{R} = V^{R} \epsilon = V^{R} \epsilon^{R} = V^{R} U^{R}$$

Induction hypothesis: $\forall n \geq 0$, for any string *u* of length *n*:

For all strings $v \in \Sigma^*$, $(uv)^R = v^R u^R$.

No assumption about v, hence statement holds for all $v \in \Sigma^*$.

- Let u be an arbitrary string of length n > 0. Assume inductive hypothesis holds for all strings w of length < n.
- Since |u| = n > 0 we have u = ay for some string y with |y| < n and $a \in \Sigma$.
- Then

- Let u be an arbitrary string of length n > 0. Assume inductive hypothesis holds for all strings w of length < n.
- Since |u| = n > 0 we have u = ay for some string y with |y| < n and $a \in \Sigma$.
- Then

$$(uv)^R =$$

- Let u be an arbitrary string of length n > 0. Assume inductive hypothesis holds for all strings w of length < n.
- Since |u| = n > 0 we have u = ay for some string y with |y| < n and $a \in \Sigma$.
- Then

$$uv)^{R} = ((ay)v)^{R}$$

$$= (a(yv))^{R}$$

$$= (yv)^{R}a^{R}$$

$$= (v^{R}y^{R})a^{R}$$

$$= v^{R}(y^{R}a^{R})$$

$$= v^{R}(ay)^{R}$$

$$= v^{R}u^{R}$$

Prove that for any strings $u, v \in \Sigma^*$, $(uv)^R = v^R u^R$.

Proof by induction on |v| means that we are proving the following.

Prove that for any strings $u, v \in \Sigma^*$, $(uv)^R = v^R u^R$.

Proof by induction on |v| means that we are proving the following.

Induction hypothesis: $\forall n \geq 0$, for any string v of length n:

For all strings $u \in \Sigma^*$, $(uv)^R = v^R u^R$.

Prove that for any strings $u, v \in \Sigma^*$, $(uv)^R = v^R u^R$.

Proof by induction on |v| means that we are proving the following.

Induction hypothesis: $\forall n \geq 0$, for any string v of length n:

For all strings $u \in \Sigma^*$, $(uv)^R = v^R u^R$.

Base case: Let v be an arbitrary string of length 0. $v = \epsilon$ since there is only one such string. Then

$$(uv)^{R} = (u\epsilon)^{R} = u^{R} = \epsilon u^{R} = \epsilon^{R} u^{R} = v^{R} u^{R}$$

- Let v be an arbitrary string of length n > 0. Assume inductive hypothesis holds for all strings w of length < n.
- Since |v| = n > 0 we have v = ay for some string y with |y| < n and $a \in \Sigma$.
- Then

$$(uv)^{R} = (u(ay))^{R}$$
$$= ((ua)y)^{R}$$
$$= y^{R}(ua)^{R}$$
$$= ??$$

- Let v be an arbitrary string of length n > 0. Assume inductive hypothesis holds for all strings w of length < n.
- Since |v| = n > 0 we have v = ay for some string y with |y| < n and $a \in \Sigma$.
- Then

$$(uv)^{R} = (u(ay))^{R}$$
$$= ((ua)y)^{R}$$
$$= y^{R}(ua)^{R}$$
$$= ??$$

Cannot simplify $(ua)^R$ using inductive hypothesis. Can simplify if we extend base case to include n = 0 and n = 1. However, n = 1 itself requires induction on |u|! **Regular expressions**

A regular expression r over an alphabet $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ is one of the following:

Base cases:

- $\cdot \,\, \emptyset$ denotes the language \emptyset
- ϵ denotes the language $\{\epsilon\}$.
- *a* denote the language $\{a\}$.

A regular expression r over an alphabet $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ is one of the following:

Base cases:

- $\cdot \,\, \emptyset$ denotes the language \emptyset
- ϵ denotes the language $\{\epsilon\}$.
- *a* denote the language $\{a\}$.

Inductive cases: If r_1 and r_2 are regular expressions denoting languages R_1 and R_2 respectively then,

- $(\mathbf{r_1} + \mathbf{r_2})$ denotes the language $R_1 \cup R_2$
- $(\mathbf{r_1} \cdot \mathbf{r_2}) = r_1 \cdot r_2 = (\mathbf{r_1} \mathbf{r_2})$ denotes the language $R_1 R_2$
- \cdot (**r**₁)* denotes the language R_1^*

Regular Languages vs Regular Expressions

Regular Languages	Regular Expressions
Ø regular	Ø denotes Ø
$\{\epsilon\}$ regular	ϵ denotes $\{\epsilon\}$
$\{a\}$ regular for $a \in \Sigma$	a denote { <i>a</i> }
$R_1 \cup R_2$ regular if both are	$\mathbf{r_1} + \mathbf{r_2}$ denotes $R_1 \cup R_2$
R_1R_2 regular if both are	$r_1 \cdot r_2$ denotes $R_1 R_2$
<i>R</i> * is regular if <i>R</i> is	r * denote <i>R</i> *

Regular expressions denote regular languages — they explicitly show the operations that were used to form the language

Practice Problem [True/False]

The language
$$\left\{ 0^{j}1^{j}0^{k}1^{\ell} \mid i, j, k, \ell \geq 0 \right\}$$
 is not regular.

What is the regular expression for:

• All strings except 11.

What is the regular expression for:

- All strings except 11.
- All strings that do *not* contain 000 as a subsequence.

Deterministic finite automata

A deterministic finite automata (DFA) $M = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, s, A)$ is a five tuple where

- *Q* is a finite set whose elements are called states,
- Σ is a finite set called the input alphabet,
- $\delta: Q \times \Sigma \rightarrow Q$ is the transition function,
- $\cdot s \in Q$ is the start state,
- $A \subseteq Q$ is the set of accepting/final states.

Common alternate notation: q_0 for start state, F for final states.



Example



- $\cdot Q =$
- $\cdot \Sigma =$
- $\cdot \ \delta =$

- s = A =

Draw the DFA representing the regular language: $L = \left\{ 0^{i} 1^{j} 0^{k} 1^{\ell} \mid i, j, k, \ell \ge 0 \right\}$

Non-deterministic Finite automata

Formal definition of language accepted by M

Definition The language L(M) accepted by a DFA $M = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, s, A)$ is

 $\{w \in \Sigma^* \mid \delta^*(\mathsf{S}, w) \in \mathsf{A}\}.$

Another Way to look at NFAs



Another Way to look at NFAs



Let $M = (\Sigma, Q, s, A, \delta)$ and $M' = (\Sigma, Q, s, Q \setminus A, \delta)$ be arbitrary DFAs with identical alphabets, states, starting states, and transition functions, but with complementary accepting states. Then $L(M) \cup L(M') = \Sigma^*$. Let $M = (\Sigma, Q, s, A, \delta)$ and $M' = (\Sigma, Q, s, Q \setminus A, \delta)$ be arbitrary DFAs with identical alphabets, states, starting states, and transition functions, but with complementary accepting states. Then $L(M) \cup L(M') = \Sigma'$. Closure of Regular languages

Regular languages are closed under:

- .
 - .

Thompson's algorithm

Given two NFAs s and t:



Are regular languages closed under intersection $L_1 \cap L_2$?

If L_1, L_2, \ldots are all regular languages, then $L = \bigcup_{i=0}^{\infty} L_i$ is regular.

Fooling Sets

For a language *L* over Σ a set of strings *F* (could be infinite) is a fooling set or distinguishing set for *L* if every two distinct strings $x, y \in F$ are distinguishable.

For a language *L* over Σ a set of strings *F* (could be infinite) is a fooling set or distinguishing set for *L* if every two distinct strings $x, y \in F$ are distinguishable.

Example: $F = \{0^i \mid i \ge 0\}$ is a fooling set for the language $L = \{0^k 1^k \mid k \ge 0\}.$

For a language *L* over Σ a set of strings *F* (could be infinite) is a fooling set or distinguishing set for *L* if every two distinct strings *x*, *y* \in *F* are distinguishable.

Example: $F = \{0^i \mid i \ge 0\}$ is a fooling set for the language $L = \{0^k 1^k \mid k \ge 0\}.$

Theorem

Suppose F is a fooling set for L. If F is finite then there is no DFA M that accepts L with less than |F| states.

For all languages *L*, if *L* is regular, then *L* does not have an infinite fooling set.

Practice Problem [True/False]

The language $\left\{ 0^{i}1^{j}0^{k}1^{\ell} \mid i \geq j \geq k \geq \ell \geq 0 \right\}$ is not regular.

The strings 010 and 101 are distinguishable by the language $L = \{x \in \Sigma^* \mid |x| \text{ is even}\}.$