CS 373: Theory of Computation

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Overview Expressive Power

Grammars

Definition

A grammar is $G = (V, \Sigma, R, S)$, where

- V is a finite set of variables/non-terminals
- Σ is a finite set of terminals
- $S \in V$ is the start symbol
- $R \subseteq (\Sigma \cup V)^* \times (\Sigma \cup V)^*$ is a finite set of rules/productions

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We say $\gamma_1 \alpha \gamma_2 \Rightarrow_G \gamma_1 \beta \gamma_2$ iff $(\alpha \rightarrow \beta) \in R$.

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We say $\gamma_1 \alpha \gamma_2 \Rightarrow_G \gamma_1 \beta \gamma_2$ iff $(\alpha \to \beta) \in R$. And $L(G) = \{ w \in \Sigma^* \mid S \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow}_G w \}$

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Example

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Consider the grammar *G* with $\Sigma = \{a\}$ with

The following are derivations in this grammar

$$S ext{ } \Rightarrow \$Ca \# \Rightarrow \$aaC \# \Rightarrow \$aaE \Rightarrow \$aEa \Rightarrow \$Eaa \Rightarrow aa$$

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$$S \Rightarrow Ca \# \Rightarrow aaC \# \Rightarrow aaE \Rightarrow aEa \Rightarrow Eaa \Rightarrow aa$$

$$\begin{array}{ll} S &\Rightarrow \$Ca\# \Rightarrow \$aaC\# \Rightarrow \$aaD\# \Rightarrow \$aDa\# \Rightarrow \$Daa\# \Rightarrow \$Caa\# \\ &\Rightarrow \$aaCa\# \Rightarrow \$aaaaC\# \Rightarrow \$aaaaE \Rightarrow \$aaaEa \Rightarrow \$aaEaa \\ &\Rightarrow \$aEaaa \Rightarrow \$Eaaaa \Rightarrow aaaa \end{array}$$

 $L(G) = \{a^i \mid i \text{ is a power of } 2\}$

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Grammars for each task

• What is the expressive power of these grammars?

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Grammars for each task



Noam Chomsky

- What is the expressive power of these grammars?
- Restricting the types of rules, allows one to describe different aspects of natural languages

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Grammars for each task



Noam Chomsky

- What is the expressive power of these grammars?
- Restricting the types of rules, allows one to describe different aspects of natural languages
- These grammars form a hierarchy

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Type 0 Grammars

Definition

Type 0 grammars are those where the rules are of the form

 $\alpha \to \beta$

where $\alpha, \beta \in (\Sigma \cup V)^*$

Example

Consider the grammar *G* with $\Sigma = \{a\}$ with

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Expressive Power of Type 0 Grammars

Theorem

L is recursively enumerable iff there is a type 0 grammar G such that L = L(G).

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Expressive Power of Type 0 Grammars

Theorem

L is recursively enumerable iff there is a type 0 grammar G such that L = L(G).

Thus, type 0 grammars are as powerful as Turing machines.

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Recognizing Type 0 languages

Proposition

If $G = (V, \Sigma, R, S)$ is a type 0 grammar then L(G) is recursively enumerable.



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Recognizing Type 0 languages

Proposition

If $G = (V, \Sigma, R, S)$ is a type 0 grammar then L(G) is recursively enumerable.

Proof.

We will show that L(G) is recognized by a 2-tape non-deterministic Turing machine M, with tape 1 storing the input w, and tape 2 used to construct a derivation of w from S.

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Recognizing Type 0 Grammars

Proof (contd).

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Recognizing Type 0 Grammars

Proof (contd).

• At any given time tape 2, stores the current string of the derivation; initial tape contains *S*.

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Recognizing Type 0 Grammars

Proof (contd).

- At any given time tape 2, stores the current string of the derivation; initial tape contains *S*.
- To simulate the next derivation step, *M* will (nondeterministically) choose a rule to apply, scan from left to right and choose (nondeterministically) a position to apply the rule, replace the substring matching the LHS of the rule with the RHS to get the string at the next step of derivation.

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Recognizing Type 0 Grammars

Proof (contd).

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- If tape 2 contains only terminal symbols, then *M* will check to see if it matches tape 1. If so, the input is accepted, else it is rejected.

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Describing R.E. Languages

Proposition

If L is recursively enumerable, then there is a type 0 grammar G such that L = L(G).

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Proof.

Let M be a Turing machine recognizing L. The grammar G will simulate M "backwards" starting from an accepting configuration.

• A string γ in the derivation will encode a configuration of M

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Describing R.E. Languages

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Proof.

- A string γ in the derivation will encode a configuration of ${\it M}$
- G has rules such that $\gamma_1 \Rightarrow \gamma_2$ iff $\gamma_2 \vdash_M \gamma_1$

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- Once (some) initial configuration $q_0 w$ is generated, rules in G will erase symbols to produce the terminal w.

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- Once (some) initial configuration $q_0 w$ is generated, rules in *G* will erase symbols to produce the terminal *w*.

Details in the notes.

Context Sensitive Grammars Regular Grammars Context Free Grammars

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Type 1 Grammars

The rules in a type 1 grammar are of the form

 $\alpha \to \beta$

where $\alpha, \beta \in (\Sigma \cup V)^*$ and $|\alpha| \leq |\beta|$.

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The rules in a type 1 grammar are of the form

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Example

Consider the grammar G with $\Sigma = \{a, b, c\}$, $V = \{S, B, C, H\}$ and

$S ightarrow aSBC \mid aBC$	CB ightarrow HB	$HB \rightarrow HC$
$HC \rightarrow BC$	aB o ab	bB ightarrow bb
bC ightarrow bc	cC ightarrow cc	

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 $L(G) = \{a^n b^n c^n \mid n \ge 0\}$

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Context Sensitivity

Normal Form for Type 1 grammars

For every Type 1 grammar G, there is a grammar (in normal form) G' such that L(G) = L(G') and all the rules of G' are of the form

 $\alpha_1 A \alpha_2 \rightarrow \alpha_1 \beta \alpha_2$

where $A \in V$ and $\beta \in (\Sigma \cup V)^*$

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where $A \in V$ and $\beta \in (\Sigma \cup V)^*$ So, rules of G' replace a variable A by β in the context $\alpha_1 \Box \alpha_2$. Thus, the class of language described by Type 1 grammars are called context-sensitive languages.

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Expressive Power of Context Sensitive Languages

What languages can be described by Type 1 grammars?



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Expressive Power of Context Sensitive Languages

What languages can be described by Type 1 grammars?

• It turns out to be quite a lot!

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Expressive Power of Context Sensitive Languages

What languages can be described by Type 1 grammars?

- It turns out to be quite a lot!
- To say exactly, we need to define a new class of machines

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Linear Bounded Automata



Definition

A linear bounded automaton is a restricted Turing machine where the tape head is not permitted to move beyond the portion of the tape containing the input.

• If the machine tries to move the head off either end of the input, the head stays where it is.
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LBA and Type 1 Grammars

Theorem

If G is a Type 1 grammar then there is a linear bounded automaton M such that L(G) = L(M).

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Theorem

If G is a Type 1 grammar then there is a linear bounded automaton M such that L(G) = L(M). If M is a linear bounded automaton then there is a Type 1 grammar G such that L(M) = L(G).

Proof.

Translations between TMs and Type 0 grammars, when carried out on Type 1 grammars and LBAs, prove this theorem. $\hfill \Box$

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Decidability of LBAs

Theorem

If M is a linear bounded automaton, then L(M) is decidable.

Proof.

• The number of configurations of *M* on an input of length *n* is at most *sntⁿ*, where *s* is the number of states of *M* and *t* is the size of the tape alphabet

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• If *M* accepts *w* of length *n* then *M* does so within *sntⁿ* steps.

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Proof.

- The number of configurations of M on an input of length n is at most sntⁿ, where s is the number of states of M and t is the size of the tape alphabet
 - Any configuration is state + head position + contents of the tape. The observation follows since the tape has at most nsymbols.
- If M accepts w of length n then M does so within sntⁿ steps.
 - Any computation of length more than *sntⁿ* is "cycling" and so cannot accept w $\cdots \rightarrow$

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Decidability of LBAs

Proof (contd).

Consider the following TM D that always halts and decides L(M)

On input w Run M on w for $s|w|t^{|w|}$ steps If M accepts w then accept else reject

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Model for Decidability?

Do LBAs recognize all decidable languages?

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• LBAs recognize many but not all decidable languages.

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Model for Decidability?

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- LBAs recognize many but not all decidable languages.
- Decidable languages not recognized by LBAs can be found by diagonalization.

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Diagonal LBA Language

Recall that every LBA can be coded as a binary string, and every binary string can be thought of as an LBA. We now consider only LBAs whose input alphabet is $\{0, 1\}$.

Theorem

 $L_{d,LBA} = \{M \mid M \text{ is a LBA and } M \notin L(M)\}$ is decidable but not context sensitive, i.e., recognized by an LBA.

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$L_{d,\text{LBA}}$ is decidable



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$L_{d,\text{LBA}}$ is decidable

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The following program M decides L_{d,LBA}
On input x
Check if x accepts x
If x accepts x then reject else accept
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$L_{d,\text{LBA}}$ is decidable

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The following program M decides L_{d,LBA}
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```

Since languages recognized by LBAs are decidable, the step to check if x accepts x will halt.

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$L_{d,\text{LBA}}$ is not context sensitive

• Suppose $L_{d, \text{LBA}}$ were recognized by a LBA, say M.

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$L_{d,\text{LBA}}$ is not context sensitive

• Suppose $L_{d,LBA}$ were recognized by a LBA, say M.

• Now, if
$$M \in L_{d, \text{LBA}} = L(M)$$

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- Suppose $L_{d,LBA}$ were recognized by a LBA, say M.
- Now, if $M \in L_{d, \text{LBA}} = L(M)$ then M is accepted by M,

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- Suppose $L_{d,LBA}$ were recognized by a LBA, say M.
- Now, if M ∈ L_{d,LBA} = L(M) then M is accepted by M, which means M ∉ L_{d,LBA}!

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- Suppose $L_{d,LBA}$ were recognized by a LBA, say M.
- Now, if M ∈ L_{d,LBA} = L(M) then M is accepted by M, which means M ∉ L_{d,LBA}!
- Conversely, if $M \notin L_{d,LBA} = L(M)$

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- Suppose $L_{d,\text{LBA}}$ were recognized by a LBA, say M.
- Now, if M ∈ L_{d,LBA} = L(M) then M is accepted by M, which means M ∉ L_{d,LBA}!
- Conversely, if $M \not\in L_{d,\text{LBA}} = L(M)$ then M is not accepted by M

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- Suppose $L_{d,LBA}$ were recognized by a LBA, say M.
- Now, if M ∈ L_{d,LBA} = L(M) then M is accepted by M, which means M ∉ L_{d,LBA}!
- Conversely, if M ∉ L_{d,LBA} = L(M) then M is not accepted by M which means M ∈ L_{d,LBA}!

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Type 3 Grammars

The rules in a type 3 grammar are of the form

$$A \rightarrow aB$$
 or $A \rightarrow a$

where $A, B \in V$ and $a \in \Sigma \cup \{\epsilon\}$.

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Type 3 Grammars

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 $A \rightarrow aB$ or $A \rightarrow a$

where $A, B \in V$ and $a \in \Sigma \cup \{\epsilon\}$.

Example

Consider the grammar over $\Sigma=\{0,1\}$ with rules

 $S \rightarrow 1S \mid 0A$ $A \rightarrow \epsilon \mid 1A \mid 0S$

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 $L(G) = \{w \in \{0,1\}^* \mid w \text{ has an odd number of 0s}\}$

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Type 3 Grammars and Regularity

Proposition

L is regular iff there is a Type 3 grammar G such that L = L(G).



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Proof.

Let $G = (V, \Sigma, R, S)$ be a type 3 grammar. Consider the NFA $M = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$ where

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$$Q = V \cup \{q_F\}$$
, where $q_F \notin V$

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Let $G = (V, \Sigma, R, S)$ be a type 3 grammar. Consider the NFA $M = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$ where

- $Q = V \cup \{q_F\}$, where $q_F \notin V$
- $q_0 = S$
- $F = \{q_F\}$
- $\delta(A, a) = \{B \mid \text{if } A \to aB \in R\} \cup \{q_F \mid \text{if } A \to a \in R\} \text{ for } A \in V.$ And $\delta(q_F, a) = \emptyset$ for all a.

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L is regular iff there is a Type 3 grammar G such that L = L(G).

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$$Q = V \cup \{q_F\}$$
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$$q_0 = S$$

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• $\delta(A, a) = \{B \mid \text{if } A \to aB \in R\} \cup \{q_F \mid \text{if } A \to a \in R\} \text{ for } A \in V.$ And $\delta(q_F, a) = \emptyset$ for all a.

L(M) = L(G) as $\forall A \in V$, $\forall w \in \Sigma^*$, $A \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow}_G w$ iff $q_F \in \hat{\Delta}(A, w)$

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Type 3 Grammars and Regularity NFA to Grammars

Proof (contd).

Let $M = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$ be a NFA recognizing L. Consider $G = (V, \Sigma, R, S)$ where

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Type 3 Grammars and Regularity NFA to Grammars

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Type 3 Grammars and Regularity NFA to Grammars

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$$S = q_0$$

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Type 3 Grammars and Regularity NFA to Grammars

Proof (contd).

Let $M = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$ be a NFA recognizing L. Consider $G = (V, \Sigma, R, S)$ where

- V = Q
- $S = q_0$
- $q_1 \rightarrow aq_2 \in R$ iff $q_2 \in \delta(q_1, a)$ and $q \rightarrow \epsilon \in R$ iff $q \in F$.
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Type 3 Grammars and Regularity NFA to Grammars

Proof (contd).

Let $M = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$ be a NFA recognizing L. Consider $G = (V, \Sigma, R, S)$ where

• V = Q

•
$$S = q_0$$

• $q_1 \rightarrow aq_2 \in R$ iff $q_2 \in \delta(q_1, a)$ and $q \rightarrow \epsilon \in R$ iff $q \in F$. We can show, for any $q, q' \in Q$ and $w \in \Sigma^*$, $q' \in \hat{\Delta}(q, w)$ iff $q \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow}_G wq'$. Thus, L(M) = L(G).

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Type 2 grammars describe context-free languages, which we will study next in this class.

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Type 2 grammars describe context-free languages, which we will study next in this class.

Example

Consider *G* over $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$ with rules

 $S \rightarrow \epsilon \mid \mathbf{0S1}$

Context Sensitive Grammars Regular Grammars Context Free Grammars

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Type 2 Grammars

The rules in a type 2 grammar are of the form

$$A \rightarrow \beta$$

where $A \in V$ and $\beta \in (\Sigma \cup V)^*$.

Type 2 grammars describe context-free languages, which we will study next in this class.

Example

Consider G over $\Sigma = \{0,1\}$ with rules

$$S \rightarrow \epsilon \mid 0S1$$

 $L(G) = \{0^n 1^n \mid n \ge 0\}$

Grammars and their Languages

Grammar	Rules	Languages
Type 3	A ightarrow aB or $A ightarrow a$	Regular
Type 2	A ightarrow lpha	Context Free
Type 1	$\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ with $ \alpha \leq \beta $	Context Sensitive
Type 0	$\alpha \rightarrow \beta$	Recursively Enumerable

In the above table, $\alpha, \beta \in (\Sigma \cup V)^*$, $A, B \in V$ and $a \in \Sigma \cup \{\epsilon\}$.

Chomsky Hierarchy

Theorem

Type 0, Type 1, Type 2, and Type 3 grammars define a strict *hierarchy of formal languages.*



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Proof.

Clearly a Type 3 grammar is a special Type 2 grammar, a Type 2 grammar is a special Type 1 grammar, and a Type 1 grammar is special Type 0 grammar.

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Clearly a Type 3 grammar is a special Type 2 grammar, a Type 2 grammar is a special Type 1 grammar, and a Type 1 grammar is special Type 0 grammar. Moreover, there is a language that has a Type 2 grammar but no Type 3 grammar

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Overview of Languages



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