

ICS 6B Boolean Algebra & Logic

Lecture Notes for Summer Quarter, 2008

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Set 10 – Ch. 12.1, 12.2, 12.3
(Some slides inspired and adapted from Alessandra Pantano)

Announcements

- **Final on Tuesday in class**
- **Comprehensive**
 - Similar to quizzes
 - A little more focus on last lecture
- **Let me know if anyone wants some suggested problems**
- **Let me know if anyone wants to attend a final review on Monday**
 - I will announce if I am able to get a room
- **Quiz #4 regrades due today**

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Today's Lecture

- **Chapter 12(12.1, 12.2, 12.3)**
 - Languages and Grammars (12.1)
 - Finite State Machines with Outputs (12.2)
 - Finite State Machines with No Output (12.3)

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Chapter 12: Section 12.1

Languages and Grammars

Preliminary Definitions:

- **Vocabulary: a not empty finite set of symbols**
 - Also called an "alphabet"
- **Sentence: a finite string of symbols**
 - Also called a "word"
- **Language: any collection of sentences**

A sentence can be the empty string of symbols.
In this case the sentence is denoted by λ (lambda)

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Examples

Example 1

- $V=\{a,B,C,d\}$ is a vocabulary
- aBaaC and dBaB are sentences
- The set {aBaaC, dBaB} is a language

Example 2

- $V=\{\text{English words}\}$
- Any finite sequence of words is a sentence
- The set {"The Blue The", "sky is blue", "goat two"} is a language

Example 3

- $V=\{\text{letters in the alphabet}\}$
- Any sequence of the letters is a sentence
- The set {"blue", "sky", "the"} is a language

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Grammar: Informal Definition

- A grammar is a way to construct a language from a given vocabulary
- 1. Choose a special element S in the vocabulary to begin with (S will be called the "start symbol")
- 2. Divide your set of symbols (i.e. your vocabulary) into two categories: the "terminal" and the "non-terminal" elements.
- 3. The non-terminal elements are the ones that can be replaced by other symbols. Strings containing non-terminal elements can be replaced by other strings.
- 4. Assign a set of rules (called "productions") to replace certain strings by other strings
- 5. Start from your "start element" S , and apply the rules ("productions") to create the sentences in the language.

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Example

- Consider the vocabulary $V=\{a,B,C,d\}$.
- Say that B is the start element.
- Choose $\{a,d\}$ to be the terminal elements, and $\{B,C\}$ to be the non-terminal elements.
- Allow the following replacements:

$$B \rightarrow aC \rightarrow aBCd \begin{cases} \rightarrow aBBcd \rightarrow \dots \\ \rightarrow aaCCd \rightarrow \dots \end{cases}$$

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A more formal definition

A phrase structure grammar $G=(V,T,S,P)$ consists of:

- A vocabulary V
 - i.e. a not empty set of symbols
- A subset $T \subseteq V$ of terminal elements
 - (i.e. a subset of symbols that cannot be replaced by other symbols)
- A start element S
 - To begin our construction
- A finite set of productions
 - A finite set of rules that specify which strings of symbols can be replaced by other strings

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Example 1

Consider the vocabulary $V=T \cup N$ with

- $T=\{a, \text{the, fat, rabbit, mathematician, hops, eats}\}$
- $N=\{\text{sentence, article, adjective, noun, verb}\}$

- Let "sentence" be the start element.
- Allow the following replacements productions

 1. sentence \rightarrow (article) (adjective) (noun) (verb)
 2. article \rightarrow a
 3. article \rightarrow the
 4. adjective \rightarrow fat
 5. noun \rightarrow mathematician
 6. noun \rightarrow rabbit
 7. verb \rightarrow hops
 8. verb \rightarrow eats

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Example 1 (2)

If we start from $S=\text{sentence}$ and apply a sequence of production (until no further production is applicable), we produce the following valid sentences:

article adjective noun verb

- a fat mathematician hops
- the fat mathematician hops
- a fat rabbit hops
- the fat rabbit hops
- a fat mathematician eats
- the fat mathematician eats
- a fat rabbit eats
- the fat rabbit eats

I am only interested in the sentences that contain "terminal" symbols (those that can't be replaced)

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Example 1 (3)

We obtained strings of the following form

$S \rightarrow$ (article) (adjective) (noun) (verb)

↓

(article) (fat) (noun) (verb)

The article can be replaced by "a" or "the"

The noun can be replaced by "rabbit" or "mathematician"

The verb can be replaced by "eats" or "hops"

Notice that we can't produce the string

"a mathematician eats the rabbit"

By applying a sequence of productions?

=> This is **not** a valid string

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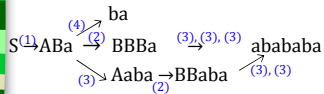
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Example 2

$G=(V,T,S,P)$ with

- $V=\{a,b,A,B,S\}$
- $T=\{a,b\}$
- S =the start symbol
- $P=\{S \rightarrow ABa, A \rightarrow BB, B \rightarrow ab, AB \rightarrow b\}$

Lets see what are all the valid sentences that we can produce (by applying a sequence of productions to S)



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Derivations

- Let $G=(V,T,S,P)$ be a phrase-structure grammar.
- Let w_0 and w_1 be strings over V .
- We say that w_1 is **directly derivable** from w_0 if w_1 can be obtained from w_0 by applying a **single production**.
More precisely, we can write w_0 and w_1 as a concatenation of $w_0 = l, z_0 r, w_1 = l, z_1 r$.
And there exists a production $z_0 \rightarrow z_1$.
If w_1 is directly derivable from w_0 , we write $w_0 \Rightarrow w_1$.
- We say that w_1 is **derivable** from w_0 if w_1 can be obtained from w_0 by applying a **sequence of productions**.
More precisely, there exists strings u_1, u_2, \dots, u_k such that $w_0 \Rightarrow u_1 \Rightarrow u_2 \Rightarrow \dots \Rightarrow u_k \Rightarrow w_1$.
In this case we write $w_0 \Rightarrow^* w_1$.
The **sequence of steps** $w_0 \Rightarrow u_1 \Rightarrow u_2 \Rightarrow \dots \Rightarrow u_k \Rightarrow w_1$ is called a **derivation**.

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For example

- In example 2,
 - Bbaba is derivable from Aba, and a **derivation** is:
 $Aba \Rightarrow Aaba \Rightarrow BBaba$
(3) (2)
 - Another **derivation** is
 $ABa \Rightarrow BBBa \Rightarrow BBaba$
(2) (3)

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Language of a Grammar

- Let $G=(V, T, S, P)$ be a grammar. The **language** of G - denoted $L(G)$ - is the set of all sequences of terminal elements that can be derived from P :
 $L(G)=\{w \in T^* : S \Rightarrow^* w\}$
- To construct the **language of G** , you start from S and apply **all possible derivations** that lead to **sentences** which only **contain** the symbols in T .
- In **Example 1**, $L(G)$ consists of exactly **8 sentences**.
- In **Example 2**, $L(G)$ consists of exactly **2 sentences**
 - ("ba" and "abababa")

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2 Main Types of Problems:

- Given a **grammar G** , find $L(G)$
- Given a **language L** , find a **grammar G** such that $L=L(G)$

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Type 1: Construct the Lang of a Grammar

Example 3

$G=\{V, T, S, P\}$ with

- $V=\{S, A, a, b\}$
- $T=\{a, b\}$
- S = the start element
- $P=\{S \rightarrow aA, S \rightarrow b, A \rightarrow aa\}$

Find $L(G)$

$S \rightarrow aA \rightarrow aaa$
 \downarrow
 b

$L(G) = \{b, aaa\}$

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Type 2: Given a Lang. construct a Grammar

Example:

Give a **phrase-structure grammar** that generates the set $L = \{0^n 1^n : n \geq 0\}$

We can use $G = (V, T, S, P)$ with

$V = \{0, 1, S\}$

$T = \{0, 1\}$

$S =$ the start element

$P = \{S \rightarrow \lambda, S \rightarrow 0S1\}$

We get

$S \rightarrow 0S1 \rightarrow 00S11 = 0^2S1^2 \rightarrow 0^3S1^3 \rightarrow 0^4S1^4 \rightarrow \dots$

$\downarrow \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \downarrow \qquad \downarrow$
 $\lambda = 0^0 1^0 \quad 01 \qquad \qquad 0^2 1^2 \qquad 0^3 1^3 \qquad 0^4 1^4$

It is clear that G generates L

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Type 2: Trick

We need to construct strings $0^n 1^n$

that contain the **same number of 0's and 1's**

So, we use the **production $S \rightarrow 0S1$** .

Notice that **applying this production n -times** gives $0^n S 1^n$. This is almost what we want...

To get $0^n 1^n$ we need to **apply the production $S \rightarrow \lambda$** , where λ is the empty string.

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Different types of Grammars

Type	AKA	Productions Allowed
0		Any production – no restrictions
1	Context-sensitive	Change 1 (non-terminal symbol) between 2 strings AND $S \rightarrow \lambda$ $lAr \rightarrow lwr$ A is a N (non-terminal) symbol l is a string of T & N symbols (may be λ) w is a string of T & N symbols (can't be empty)
2	Context-free	Change 1 non-terminal symbol $A \rightarrow lr$ A is a single N terminal symbol l is a string of T & N symbols (may be λ)
3	regular	Change 1 non-terminal symbol \rightarrow very restricted how it can be changed $A \rightarrow aB$; $A \rightarrow a$ & $S \rightarrow \lambda$ A & B are non terminal, a is terminal

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Different types of Grammars

- Grammars of **type 2** and **type 3** only allow you to change a **single non-terminal symbol at a time**.
- If a grammar is of **type 2**, a **non-terminal symbol** could be replaced by **any string**
- If a grammar is of **type 3**, a **non-terminal symbol** could only be replaced by a **terminal symbol**, or by a terminal symbol followed by a **non-terminal symbol**.
 - You can send S to the empty string
- If a grammar is of **type 0**, **everything is allowed**.

Note: if a grammar is of type r , then it is also of type $r+1$

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Example

$V = \{S, A, B, a, b\}$

$T = \{a, b\}$

$P =$

(1) $S \rightarrow Aba$, $AB \rightarrow a$,

(2) $S \rightarrow \lambda$, $aAb \rightarrow aab$

(3) $S \rightarrow \lambda$, $A \rightarrow aa$

(4) $S \rightarrow \lambda$, $A \rightarrow b$

G1) type 0, but not type 1

- AB is 2 N symbols

G2) type 1, but not type 2

- Not a single N symbol (has some T symbols too)

G3) type 2, but not type 3

- Goes to two T & N strings

Type	AKA	Productions Allowed
0		no restrictions
1	Context-sensitive	$S \rightarrow \lambda$ $lAr \rightarrow lwr$
2	Context-free	$A \rightarrow lr$
3	regular	$A \rightarrow aB$; $A \rightarrow a$ & $S \rightarrow \lambda$

G4) type 3

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Context-free (Type 2) Grammars

Most programming languages are defined using context-free or regular grammars.

For the remainder of this section we will focus on **type 2 grammars**.

Type 2: $A \rightarrow lr$

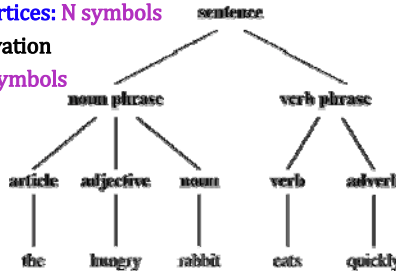
- (A is N and l is a string of N & T)

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Derivation trees

- A derivation generated by a context-free grammar can be represented graphically using an ordered rooted tree \rightarrow a **derivation tree**.
- Internal vertices: N symbols** in the derivation
- Leaves: T symbols**



Example

- Let $G = (V, T, S, P)$ with
 - $V = \{a, b, c, A, B, C, S\}$
 - $T = \{a, b, c\}$
 - P :
 - $S \rightarrow AB$
 - $A \rightarrow Ca$
 - $B \rightarrow Ba$
 - $B \rightarrow Cb$
 - $B \rightarrow b$
 - $C \rightarrow cb$
 - $C \rightarrow b$

Consider the string $cbaba$, which is obtained from S by applying the following set of productions

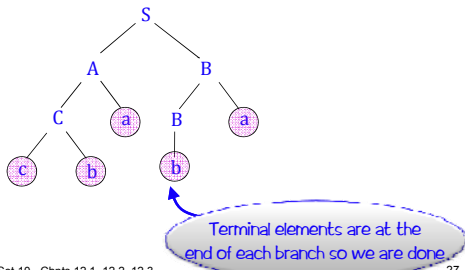
$S \rightarrow AB \rightarrow CaBa \rightarrow cbaba$

We want to represent the derivation $S \Rightarrow cbaba$, using a tree

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Example: $S \rightarrow AB \rightarrow CaBa \rightarrow cbaba$

- On the top we start with the symbol S . S will be replaced by the string AB . We put a brand for each of these two symbols:



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Backus-Naur Form

Alternative way to list productions in a **type 2** grammar

- Collect all the productions that give replacements of the **same symbol**
(e.g. $B \rightarrow Ba$, $B \rightarrow Cb$, $B \rightarrow b$)
- Use $:=$ instead of \rightarrow
list the **RHS** of all the productions in the **same group**
(e.g. $B := Ba \mid Cb \mid b$)
- Enclose each **N** element in brackets (e.g. $\langle B \rangle$)

In our example $\langle B \rangle := \langle B \rangle a \mid \langle C \rangle b \mid b$

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Example

- $V = \{a, b, c, A, B, C, S\}$, $T = \{a, b, c\}$ and P :
 - $S \rightarrow AB$
 - $A \rightarrow Ca$
 - $B \rightarrow Ba$
 - $B \rightarrow Cb$
 - $B \rightarrow b$
 - $C \rightarrow cb$
 - $C \rightarrow b$
- In **Backus-Naur Form**
 - $\langle S \rangle := \langle A \rangle \langle B \rangle$
 - $\langle A \rangle := \langle C \rangle a$
 - $\langle B \rangle := \langle B \rangle a \mid \langle C \rangle b \mid b$
 - $\langle C \rangle := cb \mid b$

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Chapter 12: Section 12.2

Finite State Machines with Outputs

Finite State Machines with Outputs

- A finite state machine with outputs:

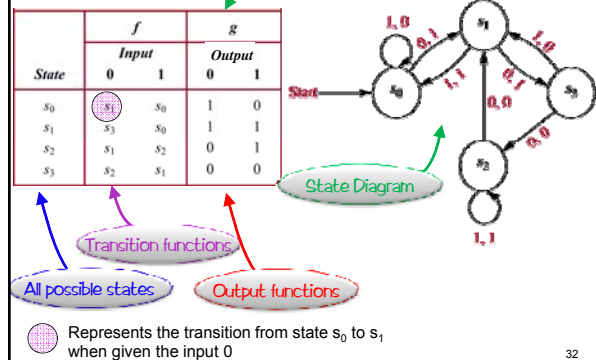
$M=(S, I, O, f, g, s_0)$ consists of:

- $S \rightarrow$ a finite set of **states**
- $I \rightarrow$ a finite set of **inputs**
- $O \rightarrow$ a finite set of **outputs**
- $f \rightarrow$ a **transition function**
 \Rightarrow assigns each pair (state, input) a new state
- $g \rightarrow$ an **output function**
 \Rightarrow assigns each pair (state, input) an output and an initial state (s_0)

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Example



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Example: Vending Machine

- Accepts nickels (5c)
- Sells orange juice (OJ) and apple juice (AJ)
- The price of an OJ or an AJ is 15c
- If you deposit more than 15c, the machine will immediately return the change
- The customer can press an "O button" for OJ or the "A" button for apple juice

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Vending Machine I/O and States

Possible inputs

Nickel (5)
O-button (O)
A-button (A)

Possible outputs

nothing (N)
Nickel (5)
OJ
AJ

Possible states

initial state s_0 (no money in the machine)
state s_1 (5c in the machine)
state s_2 (10c in the machine)
state s_3 (15c in the machine)

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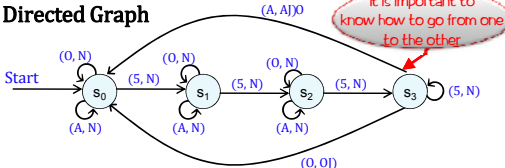
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Vending machine (2)

- Table

States	Transition - f(s,i)			Output - g(s,i)		
	5	O	A	5	O	A
0	s_0	s_1	s_0	s_0	N	N
5c	s_1	s_2	s_1	s_1	N	N
10c	s_2	s_3	s_2	s_2	N	N
15c	s_3	s_3	s_0	s_0	5	OJ, AJ

- Directed Graph



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Chapter 12: Section 12.3

Finite State Machines with No Output

Preliminaries on Strings

Definition:

If x and y are strings of symbols in a vocabulary V (i.e. $x \in V^*$ and $y \in V^*$), the concatenation of x and y is the string xy

- Eg. If $x=011$ and $y=11$ then $xy=0111$
- Notice that $yx=11011$ is **NOT** the same as xy

Definition:

If $A \subseteq V^*$ and $B \subseteq V^*$ are sets of strings the concatenation of A and B is the set

$$AB = \{xy : x \in A, y \in B\}$$

- Eg. $A = \{0, 11\}$
- $B = \{110, 10, 1\}$
- $\Rightarrow AB = \{0110, 010, 01, 11110, 1110, 111\}$

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Prelims on Strings (2)

Similarly, one can define the concatenation of A with itself n -Times: $A^n = \underbrace{AA \dots A}_{n \text{ times}}$

This is defined recursively by setting $A^0 = \{\lambda\}$ and $A^n = A^{n-1}A$, for all $n \geq 1$

So, if $A = \{1, 00\}$, $A^2 = \{11, 100, 011, 0000\}$ and $A^3 = \{111, 1001, 0011, 00001, 1100, 10000, 00100, 000000\}$

The Kleen closer of A is the set $A^* = \bigcup_{n \geq 0} A^n$

Elements of A^* are concatenations of arbitrarily many strings from A .

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Examples

- $A = \{0\} \rightarrow A^* = \{0^n : n \geq 0\}$
- $A = \{0, 1\} \rightarrow A^* = \{\text{all possible bit-strings}\}$
- $A = \{1, 1\} \rightarrow A^* = \{(11)^n : n \geq 0\} = \{1^{2m} : m \geq 0\}$

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FSM with Output AKA Finite State Automata

A finite state automata is similar to a FSM with outputs **except that**

- There are **no outputs**
 - In particular, there is no output function
- There are **some final states**.

To define an automaton, we give:

- A finite set of states S
- A finite set of inputs I
- A transition function $f: S \times I \rightarrow S$
 - associates each (state, input) pair a new input.
- An initial state s_0
- A finite set of final states F

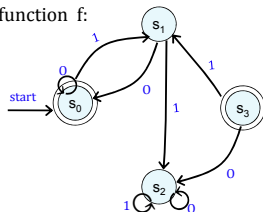
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Example

- Consider the automaton (S, I, f, s_0, F) with
 - $S = \{s_0, s_1, s_2, s_3\}$, $I = \{0, 1\}$, $F = \{s_0, s_3\}$
 - And the transition function f :

States	Inputs	
	0	1
s_0	s_0	s_1
s_1	s_0	s_2
s_2	s_2	s_2
s_3	s_2	s_1

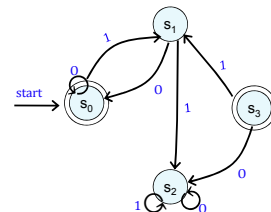


Note that we can extend the transition function. It accepts a string of inputs (instead of a state and a single input), and returns a new state

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Example

- $f(s_0, 101) = s_1$
- $f(s_2, 01001) = s_2$



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Language Recognition

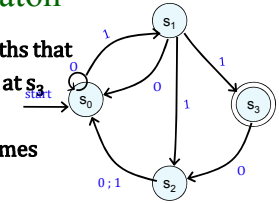
- Let $M=(S,I,f,s_0,F)$ be an automaton.
- Let $x \in I^*$ a string of inputs.
- We say that f is **recognized** (or **accepted**) by the machine M if x brings the initial state s_0 into a final state.
- More formally, $x \in I^*$ is **recognized** by M if $f(s_0,x) \in F$ (F is the set of final states)
- Informally, x gives a path in the state diagram that originates at s_0 and ends at a state which is final

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What is the language for the following automaton

- Only 1 final state s_3
- Think of all possible paths that originate at s_0 and end at s_3
- We can loop as many times as we want, and then we must follow



This says the strings recognized by the machine are all of the form $0^n 11$, with $n \geq 0$

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Definition

- The **language recognized** by the machine M , denoted by $L(M)$ is the **set of all strings that are recognized** by M .
- Two finite state automata are called **equivalent** if they **recognize the same language**

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Example: Given M determine $L(M)$

- M :
-
- There's only 1 final state (s_2). So we look for paths from s_0 to s_2
-
- $\Rightarrow L(M) = \{0,01\}$

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Non Deterministic Finite State Automata

So far we've discussed "**deterministic**" automata. The sense that for each choice of state S and input i there was a uniquely determined next state.

In a "**non-deterministic**" automaton, $f(s,i)$ is allowed to be any finite subset of states.

Then we can think of the transition of function f as a map

$$f: S \times I \rightarrow P(S)$$

Where $P(S)$ is the set of all subsets of S .

Notice that $f(s,i)$ can also be the empty set of states.

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Non-deterministic Automaton

Formally:

A **non-deterministic automaton** $M=(S,I,f,s_0,F)$ consists of:

- A set S of states
- A set I of inputs
- A transition function $f: S \times I \rightarrow P(S)$
- A starting state s_0
- A set F of final states ($F \subseteq S$)

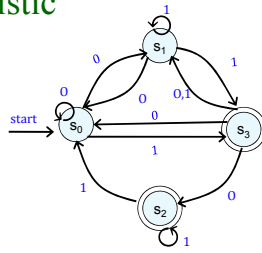
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Non-deterministic

- Final states: s_2, s_3

States	Inputs	
	0	1
s_0	s_0, s_2	s_3
s_1	s_0	s_1, s_3
s_2		s_0, s_2
s_3	s_0, s_2, s_2	s_1



Notice that the transition function with state s_2 and input 0 produces the empty set of states: $f(s_2, 0)$ does not give any next state

Languages and Non D FSA

- If the Language is recognized by a nondeterministic finite state automata then it is also recognized by a deterministic automaton