

# Lecture 2

## Computation and Languages

CS311

Fall 2012

# Computation

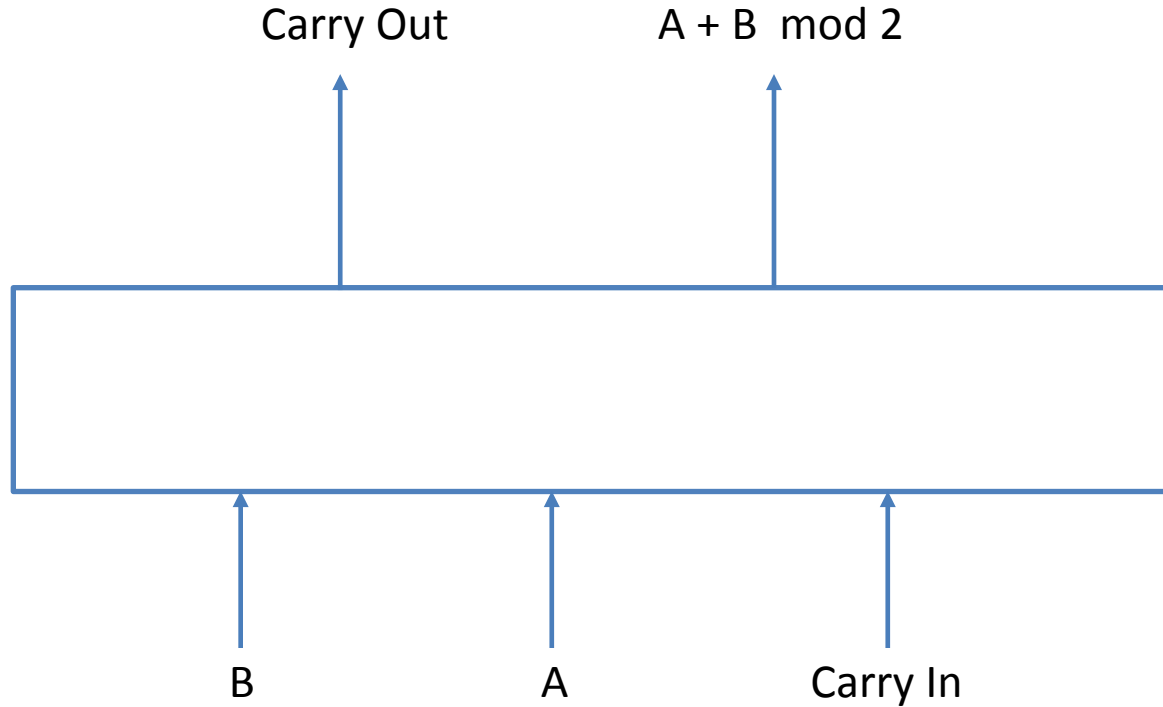
- Computation uses a well defined series of actions to compute a new result from some input.
- We perform computation all the time

		0 1	0 1
348	<sup>1</sup> 348	348	348
+ 213	+ 213	+ 213	+ 213
-----	-----	-----	-----
	1	61	561

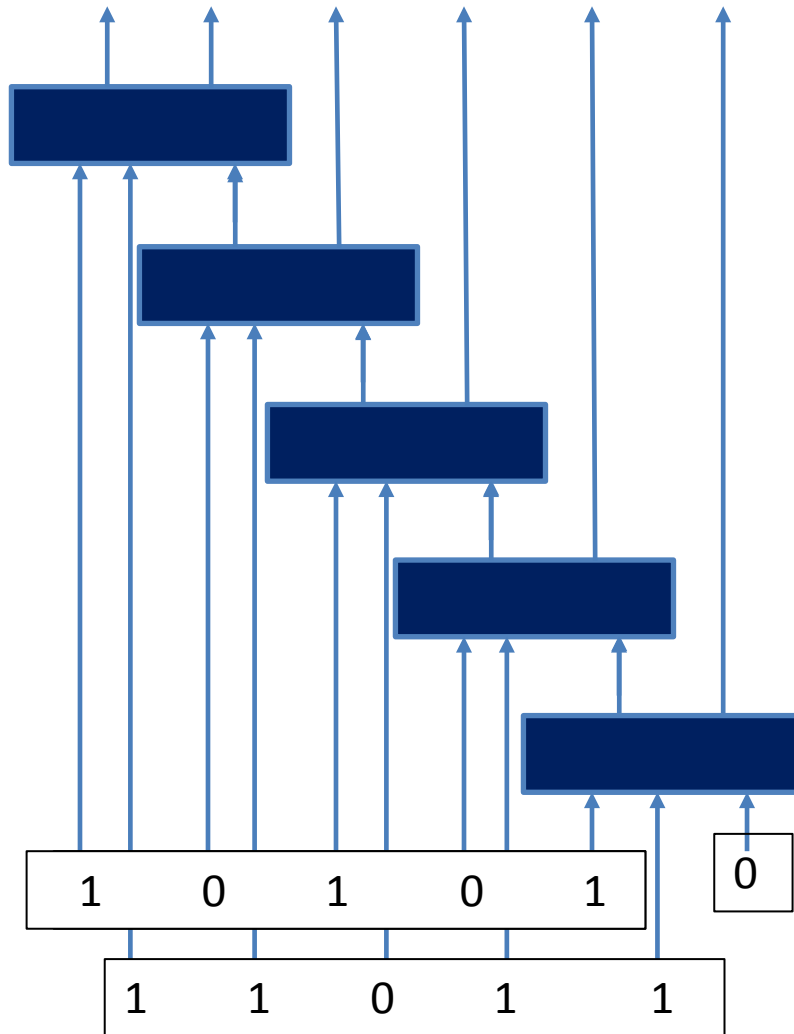
# Properties

- As computer scientists we know Computation
  - Can be carried out by machines
  - Can be broken into sub-pieces
  - Can be paused
  - Can be resumed
  - Can be expressed using many equivalent systems
- The study of computation includes computability
  - what can be computed by different kinds of systems

# Binary adders



# Ripple Carry Adder



# Languages and Computation

- There are many ways to compute the sum of two binary numbers.
- One historically interesting way is to use the notion of a language as a view of computation.

# Language = A set of strings

- A *language* over an alphabet  $\Sigma$  is any subset of  $\Sigma^*$ . That is, any set of strings over  $\Sigma$ .
- A language can be finite or infinite.
- Some languages over  $\{0,1\}$ :
  - $\{\epsilon, 01, 0011, 000111, \dots\}$
  - The set of all binary representations of prime numbers:  
 $\{10, 11, 101, 111, 1011, \dots\}$
- Some languages over ASCII:
  - The set of all English words
  - The set of all C programs

# Language Representation

- Languages can be described in many ways
  - For a finite language we can write down all elements in the set of strings  $\{“1”, “5”, “8”\}$
  - We can describe a property that is true of all the elements in the set of strings  $\{x \mid |x|=1\}$
  - Design a machine that answers yes or no for every possible string.
  - We can write a generator that enumerates all the strings (it might run forever)



# A language for even numbers written in base 3

## Base 10

- 0
- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- 6
- 7
- 8

## Base 3

- 0
- 1
- 2
- 10
- 11
- 12
- 20
- 21
- 22

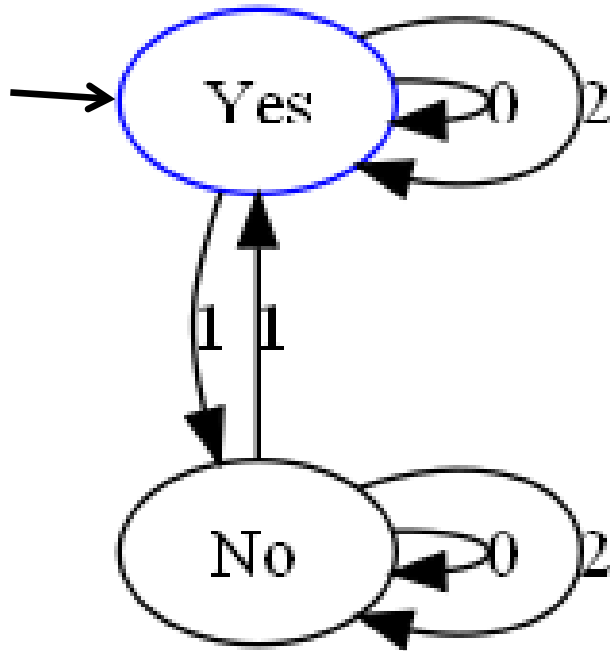
The language

{ 0, 2, 11, 20, 22, ... }

There is an infinite number of them, we can write them all down.

We'll need to use another mechanism

A machine that answers yes or no for every even number written in base 3.



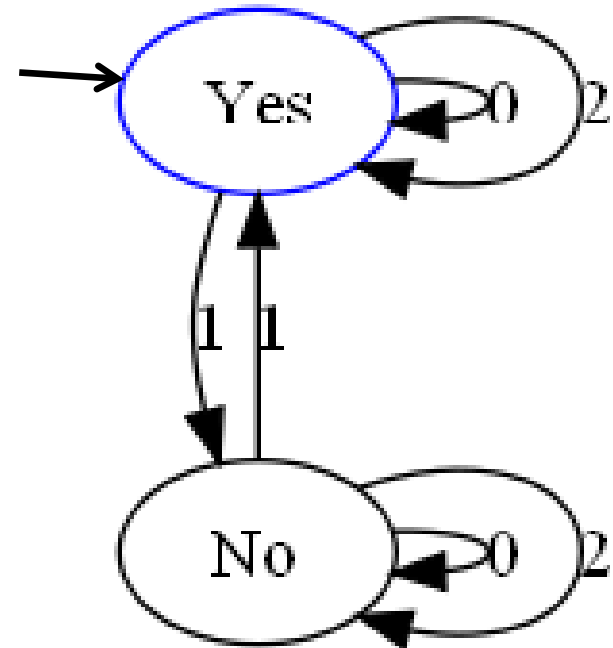
{ 0, 2, 11, 20, 22, ... }

# DFA Formal Definition

- **A DFA** is a quintuple  $\mathbf{A} = (\mathbf{Q}, \Sigma, \mathbf{s}, \mathbf{F}, \delta)$ ,  
where
  - $\mathbf{Q}$  is a set of *states*
  - $\Sigma$  is the alphabet of *input symbols* (*A in Hein*)
  - $\mathbf{s}$  is an element of  $\mathbf{Q}$  --- the *initial state*
  - $\mathbf{F}$  is a subset of  $\mathbf{Q}$  --- the set of *final states*
  - $\delta: \mathbf{Q} \times \Sigma \longrightarrow \mathbf{Q}$  is the *transition function*

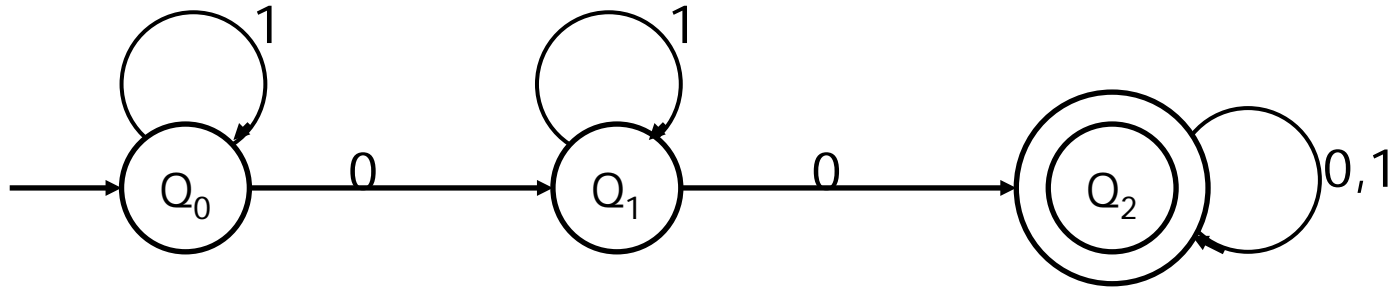
# Example

- $Q = \{\text{Yes}, \text{No}\}$
- $\Sigma = \{0, 1, 2\}$
- $S = \text{Yes}$  (the initial state)
- $F = \{\text{Yes}\}$  (final states are labeled in blue)
- $\delta: Q \times \Sigma \longrightarrow Q$ 
  - delta Yes 0 = Yes
  - delta Yes 2 = Yes
  - delta Yes 1 = No
  - delta No 0 = No
  - delta No 1 = Yes
  - delta No 2 = No



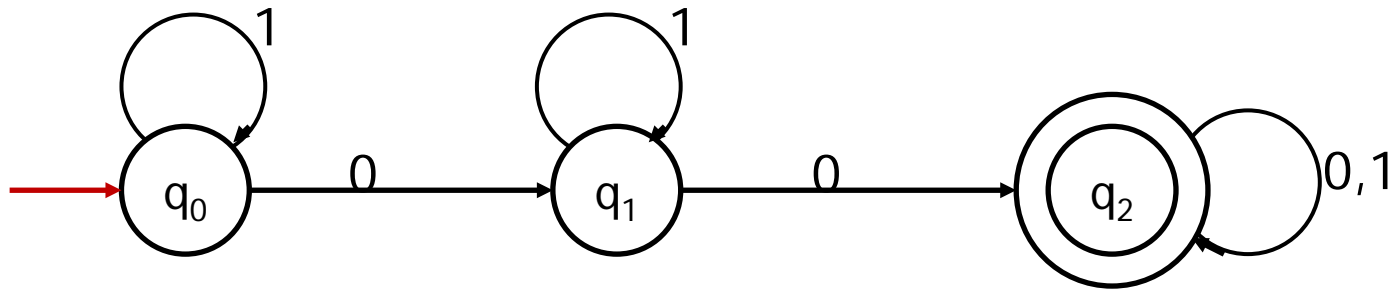
# Properties

- DFAs are easy to present pictorially:



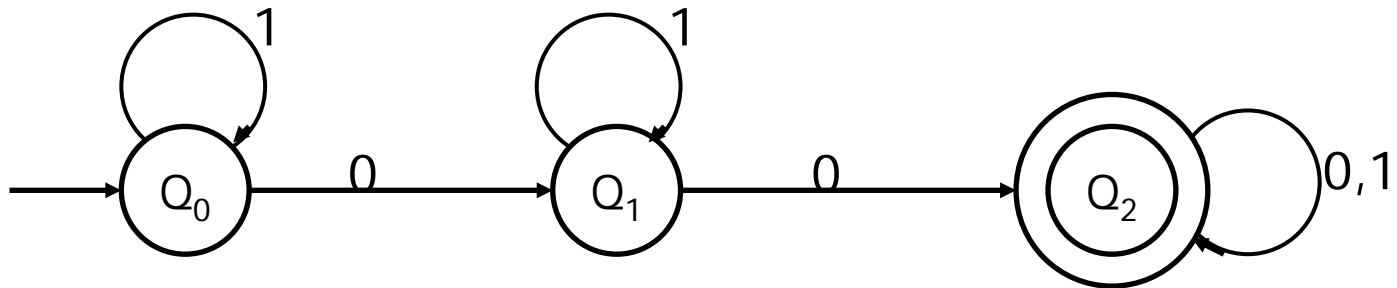
They are directed graphs whose nodes are *states* and whose arcs are labeled by one or more symbols from some alphabet  $\Sigma$ . Here  $\Sigma$  is  $\{0,1\}$ .

- One state is *initial* (denoted by a **short incoming arrow**), and several are *final/accepting* (denoted by a double circle in the text, but by being labeled blue in some of my notes). For every symbol  $a \in \Sigma$  there is an arc labeled  $a$  emanating from every state.



- Automata are string processing devices. The arc from  $q_1$  to  $q_2$  labeled 0 shows that when the automaton is in the state  $q_1$  and receives the input symbol 0, its next state will be  $q_2$ .

- Every path in the graph spells out a string over  $S$ . Moreover, for every string  $w \in \Sigma^*$  there is a unique path in the graph labelled  $w$ . (Every string can be processed.) The set of all strings whose corresponding paths end in a final state is the *language of the automaton*.



- In this example, the language of the automaton consists of strings over  $\{0,1\}$  containing at least two occurrences of  $0$ . In the base 3 example, the language is the even base three numbers

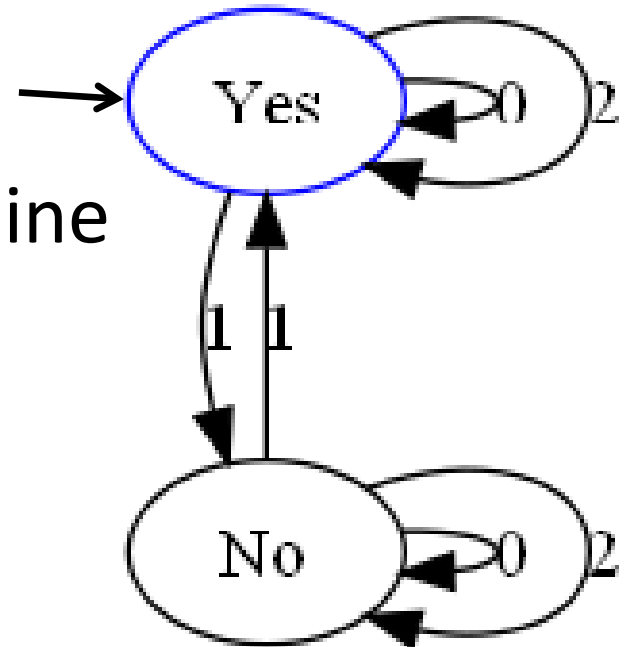
# What can DFA's compute

- DFAs can express a wide variety of computations
  1. Parity properties (even, odd, mod  $n$ ) for languages expressed in base  $m$
  2. Addition (we'll see this in a few slides)
  3. Many pattern matching problems (grep)
- But, not everything.
  - E.g. Can't compute  $\{ x \mid x \text{ is a palindrome} \}$



Are they good for things other than computation?

- We can use DFAs to compute if a string is a member of some languages.
- But a DFA is mathematical structure  $(A = (Q, \Sigma, s, F, \delta))$
- It is itself an object of study
- We can analyze it and determine some of its properties



# Prove

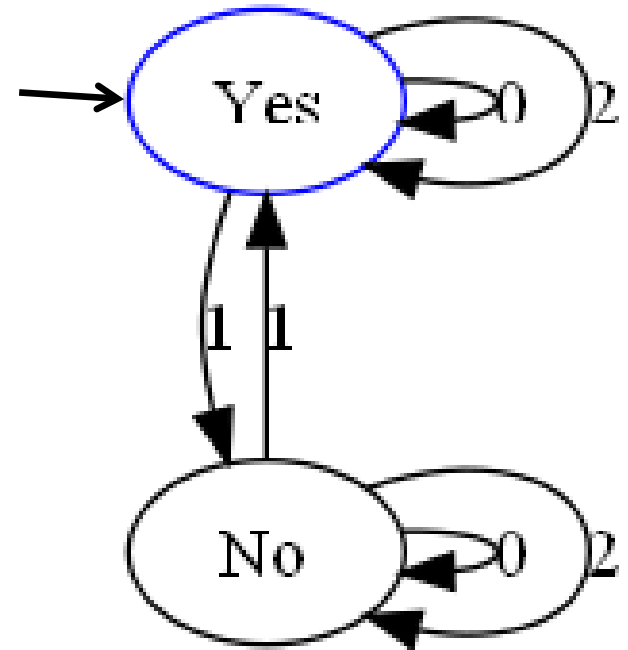
- $Q = \{\text{Yes}, \text{No}\}$
- $\Sigma = \{0, 1, 2\}$
- $S = \text{Yes}$  (the initial state)
- $F = \{\text{Yes}\}$  (final states are labeled in blue)
- $\delta: Q \times \Sigma \longrightarrow Q$ 
  - delta Yes 0 = Yes
  - delta Yes 2 = Yes
  - delta Yes 1 = No
  - delta No 0 = No
  - delta No 1 = Yes
  - delta No 2 = No

parity(Yes) = 0

parity(No) = 1

Let  $s \in Q, d \in \Sigma$

$\Delta(s, d) = \text{parity}^{-1}((3 * (\text{parity } s) + d) \text{ mod } 2)$



# Six cases

1.  $\text{delta Yes } 0 = \text{Yes}$        $\text{parity}^{-1} ((3 * (\text{parity Yes}) + 0) \text{ `mod` } 2)$
2.  $\text{delta Yes } 2 = \text{Yes}$        $\text{parity}^{-1} ((3 * (\text{parity Yes}) + 2) \text{ `mod` } 2)$
3.  $\text{delta Yes } 1 = \text{No}$        $\text{parity}^{-1} ((3 * (\text{parity Yes}) + 1) \text{ `mod` } 2)$
4.  $\text{delta No } 0 = \text{No}$        $\text{parity}^{-1} ((3 * (\text{parity No}) + 0) \text{ `mod` } 2)$
5.  $\text{delta No } 1 = \text{Yes}$        $\text{parity}^{-1} ((3 * (\text{parity No}) + 1) \text{ `mod` } 2)$
6.  $\text{delta No } 2 = \text{No}$        $\text{parity}^{-1} ((3 * (\text{parity No}) + 2) \text{ `mod` } 2)$

$\text{parity}(\text{Yes}) = 0$

$\text{parity}(\text{No}) = 1$

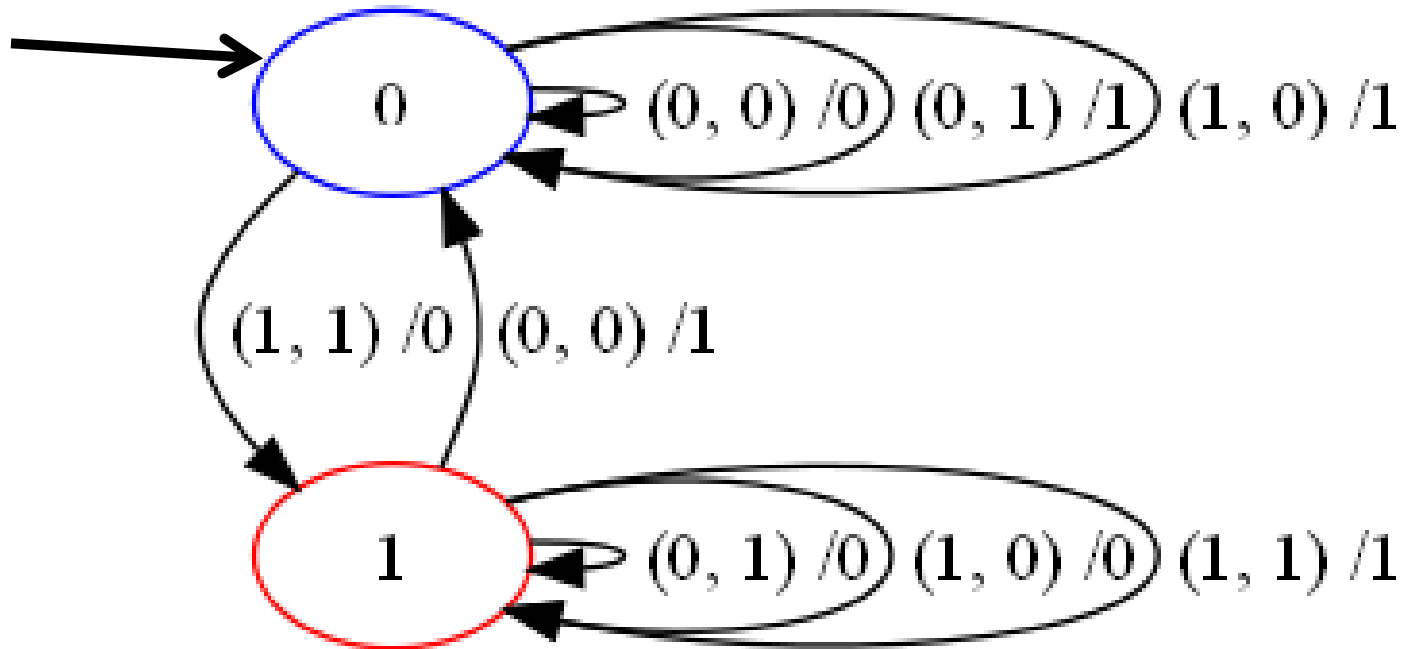
# Addition as a language

- Let  $A, B, C$  be elements of  $\{0,1\}^n$  i.e. binary numbers of some fixed length  $n$
- Consider the language  $L = \{ ABC \mid A+B=C \}$
- E.g. Let  $n=4$  bits wide
  - 0000 0000 0000 is in  $L$
  - 0010 0001 0011 is in  $L$
  - 1111 0001 0000 is **not** in  $L$

# How can we encode this as a DFA?

- Change of representation
- Let a string of 3 binary numbers, such as “0010 0001 0011” be encoded as a string of 3-tuples such as “(0,0,0) (0,0,0) (1,01) (0,1,1)”
- Why can we do this? Nothing says the alphabet can't be a set of triples!
- Now lets reverse the order of the triples in the string “(0,1,1) (1,01) (0,0,0) (0,0,0)”
  - Least significant bit first.

# Encode as follows



# Mealy Machine

- **A Mealy** is a 6-tuple  $\mathbf{A} = (\mathbf{Q}, \Sigma, \mathbf{O}, \mathbf{s}, \delta, \text{emit})$ , where
  - $\mathbf{Q}$  is a set of *states*
  - $\Sigma$  is the alphabet of *input symbols* (A in *Hein*)
  - $\mathbf{O}$  is the alphabet of the output
  - $\mathbf{s}$  is an element of  $\mathbf{Q}$  --- the *initial state*
  - $\delta: \mathbf{Q} \times \Sigma \longrightarrow \mathbf{Q}$  is the *transition function*
  - $\text{emit}: \mathbf{Q} \times \Sigma \longrightarrow \mathbf{O}$  is the *emission function*