



Finite Automata

Extra slide material
(see whiteboard)

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Why automata models?



- **Automaton:** Strongly limited computation model compared to ordinary computer programs

A weak model (with many limitations) ...

- allows to do static analysis
 - e.g. on termination (decidable for finite automata)
 - which is not generally possible with a general computation model
- is easy to implement in a general-purpose programming model
 - e.g. scanner generation/coding, parser generation/coding
 - source code generation from UML statecharts
- Generally, we are interested in the *weakest* machine model (automaton model) that is still able to recognize a class of languages

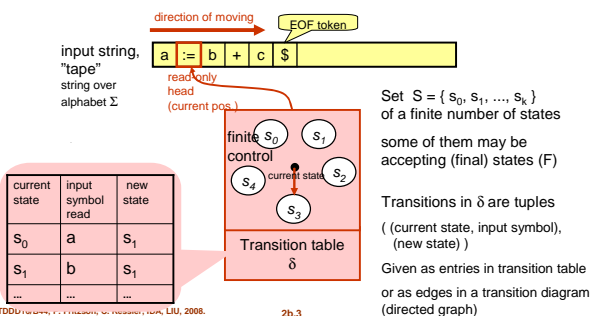
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Finite Automaton / Finite State Machine



- Given by quintuple $(\Sigma, S, s_0 \text{ in } S, \text{ subset } F \text{ of } S, \delta)$



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Computation of a Finite Automaton



- **Initial configuration:**
 - current state := start state s_0
 - read head points to first symbol of the input string
- **1 computation step:**
 - read next input symbol, t
 - look up δ for entry (current state, t , new state) to determine new state
 - current state := new state
 - move read head forward to next symbol on tape
 - if all symbols consumed and new state is a final state: accept and halt
 - otherwise repeat

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NFA and DFA



NFA (Nondeterministic Finite Automaton)

- "empty moves" (reading ϵ) with state change are possible, i.e. entries (s_i, ϵ, s_j) may exist in δ
- ambiguous state transitions are possible, i.e. entries (s_i, t, s_j) and (s_i, t, s_k) may exist in δ
- NFA **accepts** input string if there *exists* a computation (i.e., a sequence of state transitions) that leads to "accept and halt"

DFA (Deterministic Finite Automaton)

- No ϵ -transitions, no ambiguous transitions (δ is a function)
- Special case of a NFA

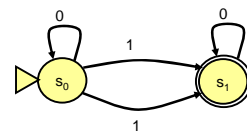
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DFA Example



- DFA with
 - Alphabet $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$
 - State set $S = \{s_0, s_1\}$
 - initial state: s_0
 - $F = \{s_1\}$
 - $\delta = \{(s_0, 0, s_0), (s_0, 1, s_1), (s_1, 0, s_1), (s_1, 1, s_0)\}$



- recognizes (accepts) strings containing an odd number of 1s

Computation for input string 10110:

s_0 read 1
 s_1 read 0
 s_1 read 1
 s_0 read 1
 s_1 read 0
 s_1 accept

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From regular expression to code



4 Steps:

- For each regular expression r there exists a NFA that accepts L_r [Thompson 1968 - see whiteboard]
- For each NFA there exists a DFA accepting the same language
- For each DFA there exists a minimal DFA (min. #states) that accepts the same language
- From a DFA, equivalent source code can be generated. [→Lecture on Scanners]

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Theorem: For each regular expression r there exists an NFA that accepts L_r [Thompson 1968]



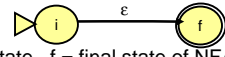
Proof: By induction, following the inductive construction of regular expressions

Divide-and-conquer strategy to construct $NFA(r)$:

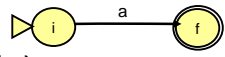
0. if r is trivial (base case): construct $NFA(r)$ directly, else:
1. decompose r into its constituent subexpressions r_1, r_2, \dots
2. recursively construct $NFA(r_1), NFA(r_2), \dots$
3. compose these to $NFA(r)$ according to decomposition of r

2 base cases:

Case 1: $r = \epsilon$: $NFA(r) =$
with i = new start state, f = final state of $NFA(r)$
 $NFA(r)$ recognizes $L(\epsilon) = \{ \epsilon \}$.



Case 2: $r = a$ for a in Σ : $NFA(r) =$
recognizes $L(a) = \{ a \}$.



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(cont.)



4 recursive decomposition cases:

Case 3: $r = r_1 \mid r_2$: By Ind.-hyp. exist $NFA(r_1), NFA(r_2)$

$NFA(r) =$

recognizes $L(r_1 \mid r_2) = L(r_1) \cup L(r_2)$

Case 4: $r = r_1 \cdot r_2$: By Ind.-hyp. exist $NFA(r_1), NFA(r_2)$

$NFA(r) =$

recognizes $L(r_1 \cdot r_2) = L(r_1) \cdot L(r_2)$

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(cont.)



Case 5: $r = r_1^*$: By ind.-hyp. exists $NFA(r_1)$

$NFA(r) =$

recognizes $L(r_1^*) = (L(r_1))^*$.
(similarly for $r = r_1^+$)

Case 6: Parentheses: $r = (r_1)$

$NFA(r) =$

(no modifications).

The theorem follows by induction. □

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