

Symeon Bozapalidis  
George Rahonis (Eds.)

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# Algebraic Informatics

Second International Conference, CAI 2007  
Thessaloniki, Greece, May 2007  
Revised Selected and Invited Papers



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## Volume Editors

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# Preface

CAI 2007 was the 2nd International Conference on Algebraic Informatics. It was intended to cover the topics of algebraic semantics on graphs and trees, formal power series, syntactic objects, algebraic picture processing, infinite computation, acceptors and transducers for strings, trees, graphs, arrays, etc., and decision problems.

CAI 2007 was held during May 21–25, 2007 in Thessaloniki, Greece hosted by the Department of Mathematics of Aristotle University of Thessaloniki. The opening lecture was given by Jean Berstel and the other eight invited lectures by Jürgen Albert, Frank Drewes, Dora Giammarresi, Jozef Gruska, Jarkko Kari, Oliver Matz, Ulrike Prange (on behalf of Hartmut Ehrig), and Guo-Qiang Zhang. This volume contains eighth papers of the nine invited lectures and the accepted papers. We received 29 submissions, the contributors being from 14 countries. The Program Committee selected ten papers.

We are grateful to the members of the Program Committee for the evaluation of the submissions and the numerous referees who assisted in this work. We should like to thank all the contributors of CAI 2007 and especially the honorary guest and the invited speakers who kindly accepted our invitation to present their important work. Special thanks are due to Alfred Hofmann, the Editorial Director of LNCS, who gave us the opportunity to publish the proceedings of our conference in the LNCS series, as well as to Anna Kramer from Springer for the excellent cooperation. We are also grateful to the members of the Organizing Committee and a group of students who helped us with several organizing jobs. Last but not least we want to express our gratitude to Arto Salomaa for his constant interest in CAI and his support in Springer.

July 2007

Symeon Bozapolidis

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CAI 2007 was organized by the Department of Mathematics, Aristotle University of Thessaloniki.

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# On Generalizations of Weighted Finite Automata and Graphics Applications

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**Abstract.** Already computations of ordinary finite automata can be interpreted as discrete grayscale or colour images. Input words are treated as addresses of pixel-components in a very natural way. In this well understood context already meaningful operations on images like zooming or self-similarity can be formally introduced. We will turn then to finite automata with states and transitions labeled by real numbers as weights. These Weighted Finite Automata (WFA), as introduced by Culik II, Karhumäki and Kari, have turned out to be powerful tools for image- and video-compression. The recursive inference-algorithm for WFA can exploit self-similarities within single pictures, between colour components and also in sequences of pictures. We will generalize WFA further to Parametric WFA by allowing different interpretations of the computed real vectors. These vector-components can be chosen as grayscale or colour intensities or e.g. as 3D-coordinates. Applications will be provided including well-known fractal sets and 3D polynomial spline-patches with textures.

## 1 Introduction

In standard textbooks on formal languages and automata theory the most common examples for finite automata deal with the analysis or transformation of strings, which appear as sequences of input symbols. Real world applications with finite automata are found e.g. in UNIX tools like grep, lex and many others. If it comes to more numerically motivated applications one can find e.g. counting modulo( $k$ ) for some given constant  $k$ , or the well-known finite machine over the input alphabet  $\{(0, 0), (0, 1), (1, 0), (1, 1)\}$  adding two arbitrary long binary numbers from right to left. But the pumping-lemma also makes clear that the numerical capabilities of finite state devices are limited e.g. there is no finite machine computing correctly the product of two arbitrary binary numbers. But, as we will see in our example later on, it does not take drastic generalizations to achieve this by some simple weighted automaton.

Before introducing those Weighted Finite Automata we will relate finite acceptors with concepts from computer graphics (cf. [22]) like pixel-addressing, zooming, multi-resolution-properties, lossy compression etc. This should provide a clearer separation of the generalization steps to WFA and Parametric

WFA (PWFA), which inherit much of their descriptive power already from the finite acceptors.

For the following we will only assume some basic knowledge about finite automata and elementary mathematics.

## 2 Finite Acceptors and Raster Images

We will start here with a minimalistic yet powerful approach, where the input-alphabet is always just  $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$ , and the rasterized images consist only of either black or white picture elements. In our very first step we will even restrict ourselves to “1-dimensional images” embedded into the unit-interval.

### 2.1 Inputstrings as Addresses

For some given natural number  $r \geq 0$  consider all strings in  $\Sigma^r$ , i.e. all binary strings of length  $r$ . In the 1-dimensional case we can associate an input word with a half-open interval:

$$x = b_1 b_2 \dots b_r, b_i \in \{0, 1\}$$

$$H(x) = [0. b_1 b_2 \dots b_r, 0. b_1 b_2 \dots b_r + 2^{-r})$$

of length  $2^{-r}$  within the unit interval  $[0, 1)$ . This way the string 1011 stands for the interval  $[\frac{11}{16}, \frac{12}{16})$ . Increasing the length  $r$  of the strings by 1 therefore doubles the number of half-open sub-intervals of the unit interval.

Given any finite automaton  $A$  over  $\Sigma$ , some  $r \geq 0$  and  $x \in \Sigma^r$ , we can assign the colour black to  $H(x)$ , iff  $x$  is accepted by  $A$ ,  $x \in L(A)$ ; otherwise the colour white is assigned to  $H(x)$ .

More formally, we assume the following representation for  $A = (Q, \Sigma, M, I, F)$ :

1.  $Q$  is a set of  $n$  states,
2.  $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$  is the binary input alphabet
3.  $M = (M_0, M_1), M_i \in \{0, 1\}^{n \times n}$  are the transition matrices for the input-symbols 0, 1 resp. Here  $M_i[s, t] = 1$  iff there is a transition from state  $s$  to state  $t$  labeled by input symbol  $i$
4.  $I \in \{0, 1\}^{n \times 1}$  is the initial vector. This is a row-vector (and a unit-vector), where the component for the start-state  $I[s_0] = 1$ , all others are 0
5.  $F \in \{0, 1\}^{1 \times n}$  is the final column-vector, where a component  $F[t] = 1$  iff the corresponding state  $t$  is a final state.

It should be obvious, that this notation is equivalent to the common definition of finite automata – i.e. finite state acceptors – if we declare acceptance for  $A$  as follows:

For  $x = b_1 b_2 \dots b_r \in \{0, 1\}^r$  we have  $x \in L(A)$  iff the function  $f_A : \Sigma^* \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$  defined by

$$f_A(x) = I \times M_{b_1} \times M_{b_2} \cdots \times M_{b_r} \times F$$

yields some value  $f_A(x) > 0$ .



Fig. 1. Graph for A and input sequences of length 4

## 2.2 Image Generation by Finite Acceptors

Let us demonstrate the usefulness of this notation by the following finite automaton  $A = (Q, \Sigma, M, I, F)$ , where

1.  $Q = \{q_1, q_2, q_3\}$ ,
2.  $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$ ,
3. the initial vector  $I = (1, 0, 0)$ ,
4. the final vector  $F^T = (1, 0, 0)$ ,
5. and for  $M = (M_0, M_1)$  we have the transition matrices:

$$M_0 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, M_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

The language accepted by this automaton is  $L(A) = \{00, 01, 10\}^*$ , as can be seen easily from the transition-graph for A (cf. Fig. 1).

For the input string 1011 our function  $f_A$  yields  $f_A(1011) = I \times M_1 \times M_0 \times M_1 \times M_1 \times F = 0$ . By our convention, since 1011 is not accepted by A, the colour white is assigned to the interval  $[\frac{11}{16}, \frac{12}{16})$ . On the other hand the string 1000 is accepted,  $f_A(1000) = I \times M_1 \times M_0 \times M_0 \times M_0 \times F = 1$ , and  $[\frac{8}{16}, \frac{9}{16})$  is painted black. (cf. Fig. 1).

If we look at the pattern of intervals for all words it is easy to see that for all odd lengths  $r$  of the input nothing is accepted and for  $r = 0, 2, 4, 6, \dots$  we can describe this informally as dividing all black intervals of stage  $r$  into four equal half-open parts and painting the last one white to arrive at stage  $r + 2$ .

This sounds of course very familiar if compared to the construction of the well-known Cantor set  $C$ , frequently called ‘‘Cantor dust’’ as well. Starting with the closed unit interval  $[0, 1]$  successively remove the middle thirds (as open intervals):

$$\begin{aligned} G_0 &= [0, 1] \\ G_1 &= [0, \frac{1}{3}] \cup [\frac{2}{3}, 1] \\ G_2 &= [0, \frac{1}{9}] \cup [\frac{2}{9}, \frac{1}{3}] \cup [\frac{2}{3}, \frac{7}{9}] \cup [\frac{8}{9}, 1] \\ &\dots \end{aligned}$$

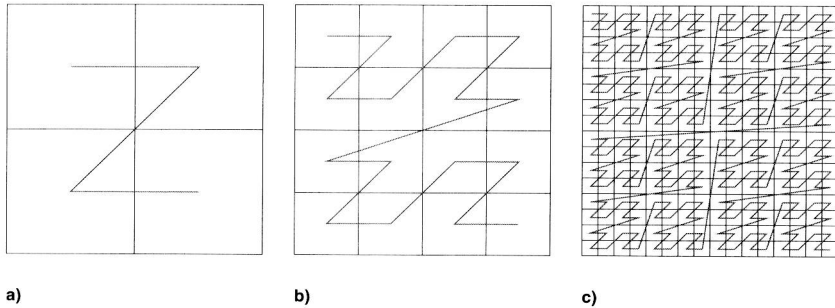
Then the Cantor set  $C$  is defined as

$$C = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} G_n,$$

where  $C$  is compact, has Lebesgue-measure 0 and frequently serves as a fundamental example of a fractal. So, it is no surprise that our example automaton  $A$  also shows fractal patterns. This will become even more apparent, if we change our interpretation of input words for  $A$  from 1-dimensional to 2-dimensional addresses.

### 2.3 Bi-level Images in 2D

The hierarchical form of addressing introduced above is generalized easily from the unit interval to the unit square  $[0, 1) \times [0, 1)$ , and further to any  $d$ -dimensional hypercube  $[0, 1)^d$ ,  $d \geq 1$ . The so-called Morton- or Z-order can achieve this desired hierarchical addressing in a very natural and intuitive way. Fig. 2 shows the numbering sequences for the unit square and address lengths of 2, 4 and 8.



**Fig. 2.** Morton-Order (Z-Order)

In the common raster-scan-order pixels are arranged in a rectangular matrix and visited row-wise starting in the upper left corner. Thus, the Z-order at least matches with the raster-scan for the very first and last pixel. Depending on the applications it might be more favorable that the origin of the image is placed in the lower left corner e.g. to display graphs of functions or relations in the common way. Thus, the Morton-order might also become an N-order.

For our example of the finite automaton  $A$  above, it should be noted that we do not have to change anything within the definition or computation of the results to apply the 2D-interpretation to the addresses. Now the sequence 1011 leads into the white square  $[\frac{3}{4}, 1) \times [\frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{2})$  and analogously 1000 into the black square  $[\frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{4}) \times [0, \frac{1}{4})$ . The corresponding pictures are given in Fig. 3 for the resolutions of  $2^2 \times 2^2$  and  $2^8 \times 2^8$  pixels. Thus, our example automaton generates the well-known Sierpinski-triangle.





**Fig. 5.** Dithering and Inverting

similar approaches are found in [31], [32]; a theoretical discussion of the concepts can be found in [37].

The reader is invited to generate as an exercise variations of the Sierpinski triangle automaton for the diagonal line in the unit square and the upper left black triangle.

Some more detailed remarks are in order here: Though quadtrees, octtrees, etc. are found more frequently in literature for hierarchical addressing of higher-dimensional data ([3], [14]), bintrees have measurable advantages for image- and video-compression. The Morton-order is superior in general to the raster-scan addressing, since it can exploit spatial redundancies much better. The Hilbert-order, where only direct neighbour pixels are visited during the traversal, can be the preferred traversal-order, if spatial redundancies without directional bias are present in the raw data. It should be noted, that the Hilbert-order is self-similar and hierarchical too and can be mapped to the Morton-order by a simple finite state transduction. Many other variations of the traversal-order exist, like the Hilbert-Peano-order, the triangular or the circular order, which can serve for special applications.

Another meaningful operation for the graphical interpretation of regular languages is of course the complementation  $\Sigma^* - L(A)$ , which yields for any fixed resolution just the inverted pixel values.

The example displayed in Fig. 5 also shows the effects of dithering, which is frequently used in the printing processes to create the illusion of a greater colour-depth or – as in our case now – higher number of available grayness values.

## 2.5 Bit-Planes for Grayscale and Colour-Images

Whereas in the multi-resolution hierarchy for black and white images we can possibly see the same patterns in different sizes, we consider now short stacks of images of the same resolution. In many image formats which are frequently called “raw formats” each pixel-value with its components is stored in a fixed





**Fig. 6.** Most significant, second significant and least significant bit-plane for  $512 \times 512$  grayscale image lena

number of bits. These are often 8 bits for gray and 24 for colour images or even 32 bits if transparency values are specified for the pixel positions. The red, green and blue component is usually coded in 8 bits then. Each of the bit-positions thus defines a separate bit-plane and if the bit sequences are intensity values coded in binary the positions range from the “Most Significant Bit”, MSB, to the “Least Significant Bit”, LSB.

Therefore, the whole image is representable as some stack of bilevel images (see Fig. 6). And since for any given image of finite resolution there is only a finite amount of bitplanes and bits to be coded, it is obvious, that finite state acceptors are sufficient in principle for the representation of common digital images. We can, for example, interpret the complete bintrees discussed above as transition graphs for those finite state acceptors. Starting with such a bintree for a bilevel image one can reduce the number of states by the classical state minimization algorithm, which will produce some directed acyclic graph (DAG). Remember that all accepted words are addresses of same length. Instead of starting out with complete bintrees it is usually better to begin with so-called region bintrees, where an inner node becomes a final node, if all the leaves in that subtree are final. For this region bintree again the state minimization algorithm can be applied. These approaches can be viewed as rough sketches for the WFA inference algorithm, where pictures consist of real-valued pixels and transitions in the finite automaton carry real-valued weights.

Several compression algorithms for the whole stack of bit-planes have been developed in the past for lossless and lossy image reproduction. For cartoon-like images with only a few different colours these can simply be variations of runlength-encoding or in the general case also sophisticated predictive methods, where considering several neighbouring bit-planes for encoding bitvalues can be employed as in the JBIG-standard ([27]). Lossy compression methods can take advantage of the fact that the bit-planes of the LSB or near to it mostly carry noise and can be neglected in the coding-process.

A totally different approach can be taken by following the contours of shapes in the style of turtle-graphics as picture defining languages. Even then many self-similarities occur, which can be exploited by WFA-variants, see [7], [33].