Regular Expressions and Language Properties

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- HW #1: Out (07/03), Due (07/11)
- HW #2: Out (07/10), Due (07/18)
- HW #3: Out (07/17), Due (07/25)
- Midterm: 07/31
- HW #4: Out (07/31), Due (08/08)
- Tentative grades out by 08/12.
- Final: ?

2/47

- Basis: $\delta_E(q,\varepsilon) = CL(q)$.
- Induction: $\delta_E(q,xa)$ is computed as follows:
 - **1** Start with $\delta_E(q,x) = S$.
 - **2** Take the union of $CL(\delta(p,a))$ for all p in S.
- Intuition: δ_E(q,w) is the set of states you can reach from q following a path labeled w with ε's in between.

Equivalence of NFA, ε -NFA

- Compute $\delta_N(q,a)$ as follows:
 - Let S = CL(q).
 - $\delta_N(q,a)$ is the union over all p in S of $\delta_E(p,a)$.
- F' = set of states q such that CL(q) contains a state of F.
- Intuition: δ_N incorporates ε -transitions before using a.
- Proof of equivalence is by induction on |w| that $CL(\delta_N(q_0,w)) = \delta_E(q_0,w).$
- **Basis:** $CL(\delta_N(q_0,\varepsilon)) = CL(q_0) = \delta_E(q_0,\varepsilon).$
- Inductive step: Assume IH is true for all x shorter than w. Let w = xa.
 - Then $CL(\delta_N(q_0,x_a)) = CL(\delta_E(CL(\delta_N(q_0,x)),a))$ (by definition).
 - But from **IH**, $CL(\delta_N(q_0,x)) = \delta_E(q_0,x)$.
 - Hence, $CL(\delta_N(q_0,w)) = CL(\delta_E(\delta_E(q_0,x),a)) = \delta_E(q_0,w).$

Example



- DFA's, NFA's and ε-NFA's all accept exactly the same set of languages: the regular languages.
- NFA types are easier to design and may have exponentially fewer states than a DFA.
- But only a DFA can be implemented!

Challenge Problem #1

Question

Are such tilings always possible?



Challenge Problem #2

Question

How many regions can you cut?



• We define three regular operations on languages.

Definition

Let A and B be languages. We define the regular operations union, concatenation, and star as follows.

- Union: $A \cup B = \{x \mid x \in A \text{ or } x \in B\}.$
- Concatenation: $A \circ B = \{xy \mid x \in A \text{ and } y \in B\}$.
- Star: $A^* = \{x_1 x_2 \dots x_k \mid k \ge 0 \text{ and each } x_i \in A\}.$

Kleene Closure

Denoted as A^* and defined as the set of strings $x_1x_2...x_n$, for some $n \ge 0$, where each x_i is in A.

• **Note:** When n = 0, the string is ε .

- Let $\Sigma = \{a, b, \dots, z\}$. If $A = \{good, bad\}$ and $B = \{boy, girl\}$,
- $A \cup B = \{good, bad, boy, girl\},\$
- $A \circ B = \{goodboy, goodgirl, badboy, badgirl\},\$
- $A^* = \{\varepsilon, good, bad, goodgood, goodbad, badgood, badbad, \ldots\},\$

Closure Properties: Union

Theorem

The class of regular languages is closed under the union operation, i.e., if A_1 and A_2 are regular languages, so is $A_1 \cup A_2$.



Closure Properties: Concatenation

Theorem

The class of regular languages is closed under concatenation.



Closure Properties: Star

Theorem

The class of regular languages is closed under the star operation.



- Regular expressions describe languages algebraically.
- They describe exactly the regular languages.
- If E is a regular expression, then L(E) is its language.
- We give a recursive definition of RE's and their languages.

- **Basis:** If a is any symbol, then a is a RE, and $L(a) = \{a\}$.
 - Note: {a} is the language containing one string, and that string is of length 1.
- **2 Basis:** ε is a RE, and $L(\varepsilon) = \{\varepsilon\}$.
- **3** Basis: \emptyset is a RE, and $L(\emptyset) = \emptyset$.

- Induction: If E₁ and E₂ are regular expressions, then E₁+E₂ is a regular expression, and L(E₁+E₂) = L(E₁)∪L(E₂).
- Induction: If E₁ and E₂ are regular expressions, then E₁E₂ is a regular expression, and L(E₁E₂) = L(E₁)L(E₂).
- Induction: If E is a regular expression, then E* is a regular expression, and L(E*) = (L(E))*.

- Parentheses may be used wherever needed to influence the grouping of operators.
- Order of precedence is * (highest), then concatenation, then + (lowest).

- $L(01) = \{01\}.$
- $L(01+0) = \{01,0\}.$
- $L(0(1+0)) = \{01,00\}.$
 - Note: order of precedence.
- $L(0^*) = \{\varepsilon, 0, 00, 000, \ldots\}$
- $L((0+10)^*(\varepsilon+1)) = all \text{ strings over } \{0,1\}$ without 11's.

- Union and concatenation behave sort of like addition and multiplication.
- + is commutative and associative.
- concatenation is associative.
- concatenation distributes over +.
- **Exception:** concatenation is **not** commutative.

• \emptyset is the identity for +.

• $\mathbf{R} + \emptyset = \mathbf{R}$.

• ε is the identity for concatenation.

• $\varepsilon R = R\varepsilon = R$

• \emptyset is the annihilator for concatenation.

•
$$\emptyset \mathbf{R} = \mathbf{R} \emptyset = \emptyset.$$

- We need to show that for every regular expression, there is an automaton that accepts the same language.
 - Pick the most powerful automaton type: ε -NFA.
- And we need to show that for every automaton, there is a regular expression defining its language.
 - Pick the most restrictive type: the DFA.

- Proof is an induction on the number of operators (+, concatenation, *) in the regular expression.
- We always construct an automaton of a special form (next slide).

RE to ε -NFA: Basis

• Symbol a:





RE to ε -NFA: Induction (Union)

• For $E_1 \cup E_2$



RE to ε -NFA: Induction (Concatenation)

• For E_1E_2



25/47

• For E*



- A strange sort of induction.
- States of the DFA are assumed to be 1, 2, ..., n.
- We construct RE's for the labels of restricted sets of paths.
 - Basis: single arcs or no arcs at all.
 - Induction: paths that are allowed to traverse next state in order.

- A *k*-path is a path through the DFA that goes through no state numbered higher than *k*.
- End-points are not restricted, they can be any state.

28/47

k-Paths: Example



- 0-paths from 2 to 3: RE for labels = 0
- 1-paths from 2 to 3: RE for labels = 0+11
- 2-paths from 2 to 3: RE for labels = $(10)^{*}0+1(01)^{*}1$
- 3-paths from 2 to 3: RE for labels = ??

k-Paths: Induction

- Let R^k_{ij} be the RE for the set of labels of k-paths from state i to state j.
- **Basis:** k = 0. $R_{ij}^0 =$ sum of labels of arcs from i to j.
 - \emptyset is no such arc.
 - But add ε if i=j.



• **Example:**
$$R_{12}^0 = 0$$
, $R_{11}^0 = \emptyset + \varepsilon = \varepsilon$.

- A *k*-path from i to j either:
 - Never goes through state k, or
 - Q Goes through state k one or more times.

$$R_{ij}^{k} = R_{ij}^{k-1} + R_{ik}^{k-1} (R_{kk}^{k-1})^{*} R_{kj}^{k-1}$$

- The equivalent RE is the sum (union) of R_{ii}^n , where:
 - In is the number of states, i.e., the paths are unconstrained.
 - i is the start state.
 - is one of the final states.

 Each of the three types of automata (DFA, NFA, ε-NFA) we discussed, and regular expressions as well, define exactly the same set of languages: the regular languages.

Challenge Problem

Question

Can you find the shortest path from A to B?



- A language class is a set of languages.
 - We have seen one example: the regular languages.
 - We'll see many more in the class.
- Language classes have two important kinds of properties:
 - Decision properties
 - Olosure properties

- Representations can be formal or informal.
- **Example** (formal): represent a language by a DFA or RE defining it.
- **Example** (informal): a logical or prose statement about its strings:
 - {0ⁿ1ⁿ|n is a nonnegative integer.}
 - The set of strings consisting of some number of 0's followed by the same number of 1's.

- A decision property for a class of languages is an algorithm that takes a formal description of a language (e.g., a DFA) and tells whether or not some property holds.
- Example: Is language L empty?

- You might imagine that the language is described informally, so if my description is the empty language then yes, otherwise no.
- But the representation is a DFA (or a RE that you will convert to a DFA).
- Can you tell if $L(A) = \emptyset$ for a DFA A?

- Remember that DFA's can represent protocols, and good protocols are related to the language of the DFA.
- **Example:** Does the protocol terminate? = Is the language finite?
- **Example:** Can the protocol fail? = Is the language nonempty?
- We might want a smallest representation for a language, e.g., a minimum-state DFA or a shortest RE.
- If you can't decide "Are these two languages the same?", i.e., do two DFA's define the same language - you can't find a "smallest"!

- A closure property of a language class says that given languages in the class, an operator (e.g., union) produces another language in the same class.
- **Example:** We saw that regular languages are closed under union, concatenation and Kleene closure (star) operations.

- Helps construct representations.
- Helps show (informally described) languages not to be in the class.

- Our first decision property is the question: "is the string w in regular language L?"
- Assume L is represented by a DFA A.
- Simulate the action of A on the sequence of input symbols forming w.

Question

What if L is not represented by a DFA?

• Use the circle of conversions:

 $\mathsf{RE} \to \varepsilon\text{-}\mathsf{NFA} \to \mathsf{NFA} \to \mathsf{DFA} \to \mathsf{RE}$

Question

Does a regular language L contain any string at all?

- Assume representation is a DFA.
- Compute the set of states reachable from the start state.
- If any final state is reachable, then yes, else no.

Question

Is a given regular language L infinite?

- Start with a DFA for the language.
- Key idea: If the DFA has *n* states, and the language contains any string of length *n* or more, then the language is infinite.
- Otherwise, the language is surely finite.
 - Limited to strings of length *n* or less.

Proof of Key Idea

- If an *n*-state DFA accepts a string w of length *n* or more, then there must be a state that appears twice on the path labeled w from the start state to a final state.
 - Note: Pigeonhole principle! $\ddot{-}$
- Because there are at least n + 1 states along the path.



 Since y is not ε, we see an infinite number of strings in L of the form xyⁱz for all i ≥ 0.

44/47

- We do not have an algorithm yet.
- There are an infinite number of strings of length > n, and we can't test them all!
- Second Key Idea: If there is a string of length ≥ n, then there is a string of length between n and 2n - 1.

Proof of Second Key Idea

• Remember:



- We can choose y to be the first cycle on the path.
- So $|xy| \le n$; in particular, $1 \le |y| \le n$.
- Thus, if w is of length 2n or more, there is a shorter string in L that is still of length at least n.
- Keep shortening to reach [n, 2n 1].

- Test for membership all strings of length between [n, 2n 1].
 - If any are accepted, then infinite, else finite.
- A terrible algorithm!
- Better: find cycles between the start state and a final state.
- For finding cycles:
 - Iliminate states not reachable from the start state.
 - 2 Eliminate states that do not reach a final state.
 - Itest if the remaining transition graph has any cycles.