#### Chapter 1: Regular Languages

# Finite Automata

- Models for computers with a limited amount of memory
- It reads one pass through the input
- Has no capability to write

# Deterministic Finite Automata (DFA)

A finite automaton is a 5-tuple  $(Q, \Sigma, \delta, s, F)$ , where 1.S is a finite set called the *states* 2.Σ is a finite set called the *alphabet* 3.δ:  $(Q \times \Sigma - Q)$  is the *transition function* between states i.e., (state, symbol) ---> next state 4.s is the *start state* (one special state)  $5.F \subset Q$  is the set of *accept states* (0 or more accept states)

#### State Diagram



q1: Start state q2: An accept state

The arrows going from one state to another are called transitions

#### How does a DFA work?

- An input string is placed on the tape (leftjustified).
- Each cell contains one symbol
- The reading head is placed on the leftmost cell of the tape.
- DFA begins from the start state.
- On the symbol the head points to, DFA transit from one state to the next state (may be the same state)

# How does a DFA work? (contd.)

- DFA continue the transitions until the entire string is read.
	- In each step, DFA consults a transition table and changes state based on  $(s, \sigma)$  where
		- s current state
		- $\bullet$   $\sigma$  current symbol scanned by the head
- After reading the entire input string,
	- if DFA ends in an accept state, the input is accepted
	- if DFA ends in a non-accept state, the input is rejected.

## Languages

- A language L is a subset of  $\sum^*$ 
	- $-$  i.e., language  $\{0, 01, 11\}$  is a subset of {0,1}\*
- The language accepted by a DFA  $D = L(D)$ is the set of all strings *w* such that *D* ends in an accept state on input *w.*
- A language is called a *regular language* if there exists a DFA that recognizes/accepts it.

#### L =  ${a^{2n} \mid n > = 1}$

• L={aa, aaaa, aaaaaa, ......}



#### Example:  $L(M) = \{w \in \{a, b\}^* \mid w\}$ contains even number of a's}



# Regular Languages

- A Language is regular iff there is a finite automaton that accepts it.
- Examples: design DFAs for the following regular languages:
	- φ
	- {ε}
	- $\sum^*$
	- {w in  $\{0,1\}^*$  | w starts with 1 and ends with 0}
	- $\{w \in \{0,1\}^* \mid \text{the second symbol of } w \text{ is } 1\}$
	- $\{w \in \{0,1\}^* \mid w \text{ contains } 1010 \text{ as a substring}\}\$

# Closure properties of regular languages

• The class of regular languages are closed under the union, intersection, and complement operations

# Example

- $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$
- $L_1 = \{ w \in \Sigma^* \mid w \text{ has even number of a's} \}$
- $L_2 = \{ w \in \Sigma^* \mid w \text{ has odd number of b's} \}.$

$$
- L1 \cup L2 = ?
$$
  

$$
- L1 \cap L2 = ?
$$
  

$$
- \overline{L_1}
$$

#### General construction of DFAs for the languages after union and intersection

- Let  $M_1 = (Q_1, \Sigma, \delta_1, s_1, F_1)$  be the DFA for L<sub>1</sub> and M<sub>2</sub> = (Q<sub>2</sub>,  $\Sigma$ ,  $\delta$ <sub>2</sub>,  $S$ <sub>2</sub>,  $F$ <sub>2</sub>) be the DFA for  $L_2$ 
	- $M = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, s, F)$  where:
		- $Q = Q_1 \times Q_2$
		- $S = (S_1, S_2)$
		- $\Sigma$  is the same
		- $\delta((q_1, q_2), \sigma) = (\delta_1(q_1, \sigma), \delta_2(q_2, \sigma))$
		- for Union,  $F = (Q_1 \times F_2)$  U  $(F_1 \times Q_2)$
		- for Intersection,  $F = F_1 X F_2$

# DFAs for  $L_1 \cup L_2$  and  $L_1 \cap L_2$ ?

- $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$
- $L_1 = \{ w \in \Sigma^* \mid w \text{ has even number of a's} \}$
- $L_2 = \{ w \in \Sigma^* \mid w \text{ has odd number of b's} \}.$

# Construction for Complement for DFAs

Given DFA M1 =  $(Q1, \Sigma, \delta1, s1, F1)$ 

 $L(M) =$  Complement of  $L(M1)$ 

Swap the accept and non-accept states of M1 to create M that recognizes the complement language of L1:

$$
M = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, s, F)
$$
  
\n
$$
Q = Q_1
$$
  
\n
$$
s = s_1
$$
  
\n
$$
F = Q - F_1
$$
  
\n
$$
\delta = \delta_1
$$

#### Examples

# Nondeterministic Finite Automaton (NFA)

- In a DFA, for a given state and the an input symbol, the next state is fixed
- In a NFA, several choices may exist for the next state at any point.
- NFA is a generalization of DFA. A NFA allows:
	- 0 or more next states for the same (state, symbol): guessing the next state,
	- Transitions can be labeled by the empty string  $\varepsilon$  : changing state without reading input,
	- No transition on an input symbol.

# Formal definition of NFA

- $\Sigma_{\varepsilon} = \Sigma \cup \{\varepsilon\}.$
- NFA  $M = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, s, F)$  where:
	- Q: finite set of states
	- $-\Sigma$ : finite input alphabet
	- $\delta$ : a subset of Q X  $\Sigma_{\rm s}$  X Q.
	- s: the start state
	- $F \subseteq Q$  the set of accept states

# How does an NFA work?

- String w is accepted by a NFA if there exists a sequence of guesses that lead to an accept state after reading the entire string w.
- Language accepted by a NFA is the set of all strings that are accepted by the NFA.

#### Example:  $\{w \in \{0,1\}^* | \text{ the second}\}$ to the last symbol of w is a 1}



#### NFA acceptance

• Define  $\delta^*(q, w)$  as a set of states:  $\{p \mid p \in \delta^*(q, w)\}$ if there is a directed path from *q* to *p* labeled with *w*.}

$$
- \delta^*(q_0, 1) = \{q_0, q_1\}
$$
  

$$
- \delta^*(q_0, 11) = \{q_0, q_1, q_2\}
$$



# NFA acceptance (cont'd)

- w is accepted by NFA M iff  $\delta^*(q_0, w) \cap F$  is not empty.
- $L(M) = \{w \in \Sigma^* \mid w \text{ is accepted by } M\}.$

# NFA vs. DFA

- Theorem: For every NFA M there is an equivalent DFA M'
	- NFA is not more powerful than DFA!
- Proof Idea:
	- DFA uses more states to get rid of the nondeterminism.

#### Example: Conversion from NFA to an equivalent DFA

**NFA** 





## Traditional method: Conversion from NFA to an equivalent DFA

- For now, assume no transitions labeled by  $\varepsilon$  in the NFA (will get rid of this assumption later!)
- NFA M =  $(Q, \Sigma, \Delta, s, F)$
- DFA  $M' = (Q', \Sigma, \delta, s', F')$  where:
	- $Q' = 2^Q$
	- $S' = S$
	- F' =  $\{q \mid q \cap F$  is not empty, i.e, q contains at least one accept state from the NFA M}

$$
- \delta({p_1, p_2, ..., p_m}, \sigma) = \delta^*(p_1, \sigma) \cup \delta^*(p_2, \sigma) \cup ... \cup
$$
  

$$
\delta^*(p_m, \sigma)
$$

# 1. Traditional method for the example





states  $\varnothing$ ,  $q_1$ ,  $q_2$ , and  $q_1q_2$  can be deleted because they don't have incoming transitions: they cannot be reached from the start state q0.

# 2. Subset Construction Method

- For every state in the NFA, determine all *reachable states* for every input symbol (first table).
- The set of reachable states constitute a *single state* in the converted DFA (Each state in the DFA corresponds to a subset of states in the NFA).
- Starting from the start state, find *reachable states* for each *new DFA state*, until no more new states can be found.

#### Example



# How to handle ε transitions?

- Define  $\varepsilon$ -closure of state q as  $\delta^*(q, \varepsilon)$ .
	- notation: ε -closure(q)=  $\delta^*(q, \varepsilon)$  (all the states including itself that can be reached from q via 0 or more  $ε's$ ).
- Extend ε-closure to sets of states by:
	- ε-closure({s<sub>1</sub>, ..., s<sub>m</sub>}) = ε-closure(s<sub>1</sub>) ∪ ... ∪ ε-closure(s<sub>m</sub>)
- For the equivalent DFA, the start state s' of the DFA is  $s' = ε$ -closure(s)

and,

<u>δ({p<sub>1</sub>,..., p<sub>m</sub>}, σ) = ε-closure( $\Delta^*(p_1, \sigma)$ ) ∪ ... ∪ ε-closure( $\Delta^*(p_m, \sigma)$ )</u>

• Others are the same as the DFA construction from a NFA without ε transition.

#### Example: Convert a NFA with ε transitions to DFA



ε-closure(q0)={q0,q1,q2} ε-closure(q1)={q1,q2} ε-closure(q2)={q2}



# Using subset construction method

The start state of the NFA is q0, so the start state of the DFA is  $\varepsilon$ -closure(q0), which is **q0q1q2**. Other 3 tuples are constructed the same way as the conversion for NFAs without ε transitions.



**DFA**



 $DFA =$ 

(The other four states do not have incoming transitions and thus cannot be reached from the start state. They are omitted here.)

#### Regular Operations

- Regular operations:
	- Union: L1  $\cup$  L2 = { x| x  $\in$  L1 or x  $\in$  L2}
	- Concatenation:  $L1 \cdot L2 = \{xy | x \in L1 \text{ and } y$  $\in$  L2}
	- $-$  Star: L<sup>\*</sup>= {x<sub>1</sub>x<sub>2</sub>...x<sub>k</sub>| k≥0 and each x<sub>i</sub>  $\in$  L}
- Example: if L1 =  ${a^{2n+1} \mid n \ge 0}$ , L2 =  ${b^{2n} \mid}$  $n \geq 0$ .  $-$  L1•L2 = { $a^{2n+1}b^{2m}$  | n, m  $\geq 0$ }
	- $L1^* = {a^n | n \ge 0}$

## Closure properties of regular languages

- Previously we discussed regular languages are closed under union, intersection, and complement.
- Regular languages are also closed under – Concatenation
	- Star

## Construction for L1•L2



# Construction for L1.L2 (cont'd)





## Construction for Star









# Regular expressions

- It is another way to view regular languages.
- Definition of Regular expressions:
	- a for some a in the alphabet  $\Sigma$
	- ε
	- $-$  φ
	- (R1  $\cup$  R2), where R1 and R2 are regular expressions
	- (R1 R2), where R1 and R2 are regular expressions
	- (R1\*), where R1 is a regular expressions

#### Examples of regular expressions

- Note: We drop parentheses and dots when not required, i.e.,
	- (a  $\cup$  b) is written as a  $\cup$  b
	- a b is written as ab
- Let  $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$ , the following are regular expressions:
	- φ, a, b
	- $-\phi^*$ , a<sup>\*</sup>, b<sup>\*</sup>, ab, a  $\cup$  b
	- $-$  (a  $\cup$  b)\*, a\*b\*, (ab)\*
	- $-(a \cup b)^*ab$

#### Some exercises on regular expressions

- What is the language of  $((a \cup b)^*a(a \cup b)^*)$ ? – Answer: L={w in  $\{a, b\}^*$  | w contains at least one
	- a}
- Write regular expressions for:
	- $-$ {w in {a, b}<sup>\*</sup> | the length of w (the number of symbols, |w|) is even}.
	- $-\{w \in \{a, b\}^* \mid w \text{ does not have ab as a substring}\}.$
	- $-$  {w in {a, b}\* | no b in w can come before any a in w}.

Answer: 1.  $(a ∪ b)^{2n}$ , n ≥ 0; 2. b\*a\*; 3. a\*b\*

# Regular expressions vs. FA's

- a) For every regular expression there is an equivalent NFA
- b) For every DFA there is an equivalent regular expression.
- Proof of (a):
	- For  $\phi$ , the NFA is:



 $-$  For  $\sigma$ , the NFA is:



# Example: convert regular expression (a U b)\*b to NFA



#### Example (cont'd): NFA for (a U b)\*b



#### Example (contd.) : NFA for (a U b)\*b



#### **Exercise**

• Convert the Regular expression ab U a\* to a NFA

# Convert a DFA to a regular expression

• Steps:

 $-$  DFA  $\rightarrow$  GNFA  $\rightarrow$  regular expression.

- GNFA (Generalized NFA)
	- In GNFA, the labels on the transitions can be regular expressions.
- Need special GNFA that satisfies: (1) The start state has no incoming transitions; (2) Only one accept state;
	- (3) The accept state has no outgoing transitions.

## Convert a DFA to a regular expression (cont'd)

- Steps:
	- 1. Convert the DFA to a special GNFA;
	- 2. Eliminate one state at a time, except the start state and the accept state, until only the start state and the accept state are left;
	- 3. Output the label on the single transition from the start state to the accept state.

# Eliminating state  $q_{\text{trip}}$



#### 1.63 **FIGURE**

Constructing an equivalent GNFA with one fewer state

This figure is taken from the book *Introduction to Theory of Computation, Michael Sipser,* page 72.

# Example: convert DFA to regular expression



 $FIGURE$  1.67 Converting a two-state DFA to an equivalent regular expression

This figure (a), (b), (c), (d) are taken from Figure 1.67 on the book *Introduction to Theory of Computation, Michael Sipser,* page 75.

# Pumping Lemma

- Not all languages are regular
- Pumping lemma is used to show that some languages are not regular.

# Statement of Pumping Lemma

If A is a regular language, then there is a number *p* (the pumping length) where, if *s* is any string in A of length at least *p*, then *s* may be divided into three pieces, *s = xyz*, satisfying the following conditions:

- 1)  $|y| > 0$ ,
- 2) |*xy*| ≤ *p, and*
- 3) for each  $i \geq 0$ ,  $xy'z \in A$ .

Recall that |*s*| represents the length of string *s*, which is the number of symbols in *s*.

#### Describing the pumping lemma

For a DFA with *m* states,

Take string  $W, W \in L$ 

Since  $W \in L$ , there is a walk from the start state to a final state labeled with *w*



### Describing the pumping lemma (cont'd.)

If the length of W is greater than the number of states m, then there must be a state, say *q* that is repeated in the walk for w



#### Describing the pumping lemma (cont'd.)



#### Describing the pumping lemma (cont'd)

Observations : length  $|x| \leq m$  number of states length  $|y| \ge 1$ *mm.* → *q* → *mm. x y z*

#### Describing the pumping lemma  $(cont'd.)$



## Some Applications of Pumping Lemma

The following languages are not regular.

- 1.  $\{a^n b^n \mid n \ge 0\}$ .
- 2. {ww| w in  $\{a, b\}^*$  }.
- 3.  $\{w = w^R \mid w \in \{a, b\}^*\}$  (language of palindromes).
- 4.  $\{1^{n^2} \mid n \ge 0\}$ .

# Prove  $L = \{a^n b^n \mid n \ge 0\}$  is not regular

Proof:

Since L is infinite, the pumping lemma applies to L.

- Assume L is regular.
- Let p be the pumping length
- Let  $w = a^p b^p$ ,  $w \in L$ , and  $|w| \ge p$

#### Prove  $L = \{a^n b^n \mid n \ge 0\}$  is not regular (cont'd)

According to pumping lemma,

 $a<sup>p</sup>b<sup>p</sup> = xyz$ and since  $|xy| \le p$ 



 $x = a^k$ ,  $y = a^m$ ,  $z = a^{p-k-m}b^p$ 

 $|y|=m>0, 0<|xy|=k+m \leq p$ 

### Prove  $L = \{a^n b^n \mid n \ge 0\}$  is not regular (cont'd)

$$
xy^{2}z = xyyz = a^{k}a^{m}a^{m}a^{p-k-m}b^{p}
$$

$$
= a^{p+m}b^{p}
$$

But  $a^{p+m}b^p \notin L$  since  $m > 0$ , which contradict pumping lemma (3). Therefore, the assumption that L is a regular language is not true.

# Important points of Using Pumping Lemma

- Cannot use a specific number for p – Choosing p=3 or any number is not right
- String w must belong to L and |w| is at least the pumping length.
	- Choosing  $w = a^2b^2$  is wrong since we do not know the exact value of the pumping length p.
- Must consider all possibilities for what the substrings x, y and z can be, such that  $w = xyz$ and  $|xy| \leq p$ .
- The pumping lemma is used to show that a language is not regular; it cannot be used to show that a language is regular.

## Practice

• Design a DFA A such that  $L(A)=\{w \text{ in }$  ${a,b}^*$  | w contains aab as a substring}

# Practice 2

- Given:  $L1 = \{ \text{all strings that have two }$ consecutive a's}
- $L2 = \{ \text{all strings that have two consecutive } \}$  $b's$ }
- Question: find the automaton A such that  $L(A) = L1$  U L2