## COMP2111 Week 8 <br> Term 1, 2019 <br> Regular languages and beyond

## Summary

- Regular expressions
- Myhill-Nerode theorem
- Context-free languages
- Mealy machines
- LTL: Logic for transition systems


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## Regular expressions

Regular expressions are a way of describing "finite automaton" patterns:

- Second-last letter is $b$
- Every odd symbol is $b$

Many applications in CS:

- Lexical analysis in compiler construction
- Search facilities provided by text editors and databases; utilities such as grep and awk
- Programming languages such as Perl and XML


## Regular expressions

Given a finite set $\Sigma$, a regular expression (RE) over $\Sigma$ is defined recursively as follows:

- $\emptyset$ is a regular expression
- $\epsilon$ is a regular expression
- $a$ is a regular expression for all $a \in \Sigma$
- If $E_{1}$ and $E_{2}$ are regular expressions, then $E_{1} E_{2}$ is a regular expression
- If $E_{1}$ and $E_{2}$ are regular expressions, then $E_{1}+E_{2}$ is a regular expression
- If $E$ is a regular expression, then $E^{*}$ is a regular expression We use parentheses to disambiguate REs, though * binds tighter than concatenation, which binds tighter than + .


## Examples

## Example

The following are regular expressions over $\Sigma=\{0,1\}$ :

- $\emptyset$
- $101+010$
- $(\epsilon+10)^{*} 01$


## Language of a Regular expression

A RE defines a language over $\Sigma$ : the set of words which "match" the expression:

- Concatenation $=$ sequences of expressions
- Union = choice of expressions
- Star $=0$ or more occurrences of an expression


## Example

The following words match $(000+10)^{*} 01$ :

- 01
- 101001
- 000101000001


## Language of a Regular Expression

Formally, given an $\mathrm{RE}, E$, over $\Sigma$, we define $L(E) \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$ recursively as follows:

- If $E=\emptyset$ then $L(E)=\emptyset$
- If $E=\epsilon$ then $L(E)=\{\lambda\}$
- If $E=a$ where $a \in \Sigma$ then $L(E)=\{a\}$
- If $E=E_{1} E_{2}$, then $L(E)=L\left(E_{1}\right) \cdot L\left(E_{2}\right)$
- If $E=E_{1}+E_{2}$, then $L(E)=L\left(E_{1}\right) \cup L\left(E_{2}\right)$
- If $E=E_{1}^{*}$ then $L(E)=\left(L\left(E_{1}\right)\right)^{*}$


## Example

$$
\begin{aligned}
& L(010+101)=? \\
& L\left((\epsilon+10)^{*} 01\right)=?
\end{aligned}
$$

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## Example

$$
\begin{gathered}
L(010+101)=\{010,101\} \\
L\left((\epsilon+10)^{*} 01\right)=\{01,1001,101001, \ldots\}
\end{gathered}
$$

## Regular expressionss vs NfAs

## Theorem (Kleene's theorem)

- For any regular expression $E, L(E)$ is a regular language.
- For any regular language $L$, there is a regular expression $E$ such that $L=L(E)$


## Proof of Kleene's theorem

Given $E, L(E)$ is a regular language. Proof by induction on $E$.

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$L_{q, q^{\prime}}^{X}=\left\{w \in \Sigma^{*}: q{ }^{w}{ }^{*} q^{\prime}\right.$ with all intermediate states in $\left.X\right\}$
- Define $E_{q, q^{\prime}}^{X}$ such that $L\left(E_{q, q^{\prime}}^{X}\right)=L_{q, q^{\prime}}^{X}$ :
- When $q=q^{\prime}: E_{q, q^{\prime}}^{\emptyset}=\epsilon+a_{1}+a_{2}+\ldots+a_{k}$ where $q \xrightarrow{a_{i}} q$
- When $q \neq q^{\prime}: E_{q, q^{\prime}}^{\emptyset}=\emptyset+a_{1}+a_{2}+\ldots+a_{k}$ where $q \xrightarrow{a_{i}} q^{\prime}$
- For $X \neq \emptyset$ :

$$
E_{q, q^{\prime}}^{X}=\underbrace{E_{q, q^{\prime}}^{X-\{r\}}}_{(1)}+\underbrace{E_{q, r}^{X-\{r\}} \cdot\left(E_{r, r}^{X-\{r\}}\right)^{*} \cdot E_{r, q^{\prime}}^{X-\{r\}}}_{(2)}
$$

## Proof of Kleene's theorem

Given $E, L(E)$ is a regular language. Proof by induction on $E$.
Given $L$, find $E$ such that $L=L(E)$

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$$

- The required expression is then $E=\sum_{q \in F} E_{q_{0}, q}^{Q}$


## Example

## Example

Construct an NFA for $(\epsilon+0)^{*} 1$

## Example

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Construct an NFA for $(\epsilon+0)^{*} 1$


## Example

## Example

Find a regular expression for this NFA:


## Example (ctd)

## Example

Picking $c$ as the separating state:

$$
E_{a, a}^{\{a, b, c\}}=E_{a, a}^{\{a, b\}}+E_{a, c}^{\{a, b\}} \cdot\left(E_{c, c}^{\{a, b\}}\right)^{*} \cdot E_{c, a}^{\{a, b\}}
$$

By inspection $E_{a, a}^{\{a, b\}}=\epsilon, \quad E_{a, c}^{\{a, b\}}=10^{*} 1 \quad$ and $\quad E_{c, a}^{\{a, b\}}=1$.
Now picking $b$ as the separating state:

$$
E_{c, c}^{\{a, b\}}=E_{c, c}^{\{a\}}+E_{c, b}^{\{a\}} \cdot\left(E_{b, b}^{\{a\}}\right)^{*} \cdot E_{b, c}^{\{a\}}
$$

where $E_{c, c}^{\{a\}}=\epsilon, \quad E_{c, b}^{\{a\}}=0+11, \quad E_{b, b}^{\{a\}}=\epsilon+0 \quad$ and $\quad E_{b, c}^{\{a\}}=1$.
Putting it all together we have

$$
E_{a, a}^{\{a, b, c\}}=\epsilon+10^{*} 1\left(\epsilon+(0+11)(\epsilon+0)^{*} 1\right)^{*} 1
$$

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## L-indistinguishability

Let $x, y \in \Sigma^{*}$ and let $L \subseteq \Sigma^{*}$.
We say that $x$ and $y$ are $L$-indistinguishable, written $x \equiv_{L} y$, if for every $z \in \Sigma^{*}$,

$$
x z \in L \quad \text { if and only if } y z \in L
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## Fact

$\equiv_{L}$ is an equivalence relation.
We define the index of $L$ to be the number of equivalence classes of $\equiv$ .

## NB

The index of $L$ may be finite or infinite.

## Examples

## Example

Take $\Sigma=\{0,1\}$.

$$
L_{1}=\{w: w \text { has even length }\}
$$

$$
u \equiv L_{1} v \text { iff length }(u) \equiv \text { length }(v)(\bmod 2)
$$

Now $\equiv L_{1}$ has two equivalence classes:
$[\epsilon]=[00]=[10]=\cdots=\{w$ : length $(w)$ even $\}$ and $[0]=[1]=[010]=[110]=\cdots=\{w$ : length $(w)$ odd $\}$.

## Examples

## Example

Take $\Sigma=\{0,1\}$

$$
L_{2}=\{w: w \text { has equal numbers of } 0 \mathrm{~s} \text { and } 1 \mathrm{~s}\}
$$

For any $i, j \geq 0$, if $i \neq j$ then $0^{i} \not \equiv L_{2} 0^{j}$ (because $0^{i} 1^{i} \in L_{2}$ but $0^{j} 1^{i} \notin L_{2}$ ).

Therefore the index of $L_{2}$ is infinite.

## Myhill-Nerode theorem

Theorem (Myhill-Nerode theorem)
$L$ is regular if and only if $L$ has finite index.
Moreover, the index is the size (= number of states) of the smallest DFA accepting $L$.

## Example

## Example

Take $\Sigma=\{a, b\}$.

$$
L_{n}=\{w: \text { the } n \text {-th last symbol of } w \text { is } b\}
$$

What is the index of $L_{n}$ ?

## Example

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What is the index of $L_{n}$ ?

- An NFA with $n$ states can accept $L_{n}$
- So there is a DFA with $2^{n}$ states that accepts $L_{n}$


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What is the index of $L_{n}$ ?

- An NFA with $n$ states can accept $L_{n}$
- So there is a DFA with $2^{n}$ states that accepts $L_{n}$
- So the index is at most $2^{n}$


## Example

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Take $\Sigma=\{a, b\}$.

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L_{n}=\{w: \text { the } n \text {-th last symbol of } w \text { is } b\}
$$

What is the index of $L_{n}$ ?
Take $w, v \in \Sigma^{n}$ with $w \neq v$. Suppose $w$ and $v$ differ in the $i$-th symbol, $0 \leq i \leq n-1$. Let $z=a^{n-i}$.

## Example

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- Then only one of $w z, v z$ is in $L_{n}$


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- Then only one of $w z, v z$ is in $L_{n}$
- So $w$ and $v$ are $L_{n}$-distinguishable ( $w \not \equiv L_{n} v$ )


## Example

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Take $w, v \in \Sigma^{n}$ with $w \neq v$. Suppose $w$ and $v$ differ in the $i$-th symbol, $0 \leq i \leq n-1$. Let $z=a^{n-i}$.

- Then only one of $w z, v z$ is in $L_{n}$
- So $w$ and $v$ are $L_{n}$-distinguishable $\left(w \not \equiv L_{n} v\right)$
- So the index is at least $2^{n}$


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## Context-free grammars

Regular languages can be specified in terms of finite automata that accept or reject strings, equivalently, in terms of regular expressions, which strings are to match.
Grammars are a generative means of specifying sets of strings.

## Context-free grammars (CFG): A way of generating words

Ingredients of a CFG:
(\{variables\}, \{terminals\}, \{productions (or rules) $\}$, start symbol)
The start symbol is a special variable.
A CFG generates strings over the alphabet $\Sigma=\{$ terminals $\}$.

## Example

$G=(\{A, B\},\{0,1\}, \mathcal{R}, A)$ where $\mathcal{R}$ consists of three rules:

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
A \rightarrow 0 A 1 \\
A \rightarrow B \\
B \rightarrow \epsilon
\end{array}\right.
$$

## How to generate strings using a CFG

1. Set $w$ to be the start symbol.
2. Choose an occurrence of a variable $X$ in $w$ if any, otherwise STOP.
3. Pick a production whose lhs is $X$, replace the chosen occurrence of $X$ in $w$ by the rhs.
4. GOTO 2.

## Example

$G=(\{A, B\},\{0,1\},\{A \rightarrow 0 A 1 \mid B, \quad B \rightarrow \epsilon\}, A)$ generates $\left\{0^{i} 1^{i}: i \geq 0\right\}$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
A & \Rightarrow 0 A 1 \\
& \Rightarrow 00 A 11 \\
& \Rightarrow 00 B 11 \\
& \Rightarrow 00 \epsilon 11=0^{2} 1^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

Such sequences are called derivations.

## Formal definition

A context-free grammar is a 4-tuple $G=(V, \Sigma, \mathcal{R}, S)$ where

- $V$ is a finite set of variables (or non-terminals)
- $\Sigma$ (the alphabet) is a finite set of terminals
- $\mathcal{R}$ is a finite set of productions. A production (or rule) is an element of $V \times(V \cup \Sigma)^{*}$, written $A \rightarrow w$.
- $S \in V$ is the start symbol.

We define a binary relation $\Rightarrow$ over $(\{V \cup \Sigma\})^{*}$ by: for each $u, v \in(\{V \cup \Sigma\})^{*}$, for each $A \rightarrow w$ in $\mathcal{R}$

$$
u A v \Rightarrow u w v
$$

The language generated by the grammar, $L(G)$, is $\left\{w \in \Sigma^{*}: S \Rightarrow^{*} w\right\}$.

A language is context-free if it can be generated by a CFG.

## Examples

## Example

Well-balanced parentheses: generated by $(\{S\},\{()\},, \mathcal{R}, S)$ where $\mathcal{R}$ consists of

$$
S \rightarrow(S)|S S| \epsilon
$$

E.g. ( ( ) ( ( ) ) ) ( )

## Examples

## Example

Inductively defined syntax:

- Well-formed formulas
- $\mathcal{L}$
- Regular expressions


## Examples

## Example

Inductively defined syntax:

- Well-formed formulas
- $\mathcal{L}$
- Regular expressions

WFFs: Generated by $(\{\varphi\}, \Sigma, \mathcal{R}, \varphi)$ where
$\Sigma=\operatorname{Prop} \cup\{\top, \perp,(),, \neg, \wedge, \vee, \rightarrow, \leftrightarrow\}$ and $\mathcal{R}$ consists of

$$
\varphi \rightarrow \top|\perp| P|\neg \varphi|(\varphi \wedge \varphi)|(\varphi \vee \varphi)|(\varphi \rightarrow \varphi) \mid(\varphi \leftrightarrow \varphi)
$$

## Examples

## Example

A small English language

$$
\begin{aligned}
&\langle\text { SENTENCE }\rangle \rightarrow \\
&\langle\text { NOUN-PHRASE }\rangle\langle\text { VERB-PHRASE }\rangle \\
&\langle\text { NOUN-PHRASE }\rangle \rightarrow \\
&\langle\text { CMPLX-NOUN }\rangle \mid \text { 〈CMPLX-NOUN }\rangle\langle\text { PREP-PHRASE } \\
&\langle\text { VERB-PHRASE }\rangle \rightarrow \\
&\langle\text { CMPLX-VERB }\rangle \mid \text { CMPLX-VERB }\rangle\langle\text { PREP-PHRASE } \\
&\langle\text { PREP-PHRASE }\rangle \rightarrow \\
&\langle\text { PREP }\rangle\langle\text { CMPLX-NOUN }\rangle \\
&\langle\text { CMPLX-NOUN }\rangle \rightarrow \\
&\langle\text { ARTICLE }\rangle\langle\text { NOUN }\rangle \\
&\langle\text { CMPLX-VERB }\rangle \rightarrow \\
&\langle\text { VERB }\rangle \mid\langle\text { VERB }\rangle\langle\text { SOUN-PHRASE }\rangle \\
&\langle\text { ARTICLE }\rangle \rightarrow \\
& \text { a } \mid \text { the } \\
&\langle\text { NOUN }\rangle \rightarrow \\
& \text { boy } \mid \text { girl } \mid \text { flower } \\
&\langle\text { VERB }\rangle \rightarrow \\
& \text { touches } \mid \text { like } \mid \text { see }
\end{aligned}
$$

## Examples

## Example

A small English language

$$
\begin{aligned}
\langle\text { SENTENCE }\rangle & \Rightarrow\langle\text { NOUN-PHRASE }\rangle\langle\text { VERB-PHRASE }\rangle \\
& \Rightarrow\langle\text { CMPLX-NOUN }\rangle\langle\text { PREP-PHRASE }\langle\text { VVRB-PHRASE }\rangle \\
& \Rightarrow\langle\text { ARTICLE }\rangle\langle\text { NOUN }\rangle\langle\text { PREP-PHRASE }\rangle\langle\text { VERB-PHRASE }\rangle \\
& \Rightarrow \text { a girl }\langle\text { PREP }\rangle\langle\text { CMPLX-NOUN }\rangle\langle\text { VERB-PHRASE }\rangle \\
& \Rightarrow \text { a girl with }\langle\text { CMPLX-NOUN }\rangle \text { VERB-PHRASE }\rangle \\
& \Rightarrow \text { a girl with }\langle\text { ARTICLE }\rangle\langle\text { NOUN }\rangle\langle\text { VERB-PHRASE }\rangle \\
& \Rightarrow \text { a girl with a flower }\langle\text { VERB-PHRASE }\rangle \\
& \Rightarrow \text { a girl with a flower }\langle\text { CMPLX-VERB }\rangle \\
& \Rightarrow \text { a girl with a flower }\langle\text { VERB }\langle\text { NOUN-PHRASE }\rangle \\
& \Rightarrow \text { a girl with a flower likes }\langle\text { CMPLX-NOUN } \\
& \Rightarrow \text { a girl with a flower likes 〈ARTICLE }\rangle\langle\text { NOUN }\rangle \\
& \Rightarrow \text { a girl with a flower likes the boy }
\end{aligned}
$$

## Regular languages vs Context-free languages

A CFG is right-linear if every rule is either of the form $R \rightarrow w T$ or of the form $R \rightarrow w$ where $w$ ranges over strings of terminals, and $R$ and $T$ over variables.

## Theorem

A language is regular if and only if it is generated by a right-linear CFG.

## Parse trees

Each derivation determines a parse tree.
Parse trees are ordered trees: the children at each node are ordered.
The parse tree of a derivation abstracts away from the order in which variables are replaced in the sequence.

$$
\begin{aligned}
S & \Rightarrow a T a \\
& \Rightarrow a S a \\
& \Rightarrow a b T b a \\
& \Rightarrow a b c b a
\end{aligned}
$$



## Properties of CFLs

Context-free languages are closed under union

## Properties of CFLs

Context-free languages are closed under union
Context-free languages are not closed under complement nor intersection

## Pushdown automata

CFLs can be recognized by Pushdown automata:

- Non-deterministic finite automaton, PLUS
- Stack memory:
- Infinite capacity for storing inputs
- Can recover top-most memory item to influence transitions

