

Chapter Seven: Regular Expressions

Regular Expressions

- We have seen that DFAs and NFAs have equal definitional power.
- It turns out that *regular expressions* also have exactly that same definitional power:
 - they can be used to define all the regular languages, and *only* the regular languages.

Outline

- 7.1 Regular Expressions, Formally Defined
- 7.2 Regular Expression Examples
- 7.3 For Every Regular Expression, a Regular Language
- 7.4 Regular Expressions and Structural Induction
- 7.5 For Every Regular Language, a Regular Expression

Regular Expression

- In order to define regular expressions we need to additional operators on languages:
 - Concatenation
 - Kleene closure

Concatenation of Languages

- The concatenation of two languages L_1 and L_2 is $L_1L_2 = \{xy \mid x \in L_1 \text{ and } y \in L_2\}$
- The set of all strings that can be constructed by concatenating a string from the first language with a string from the second
- For example, if $L_1 = \{a, b\}$ and $L_2 = \{c, d\}$ then $L_1L_2 = \{ac, ad, bc, bd\}$

Kleene Closure of a Language

- The Kleene closure of a language L is
 $L^* = \{x_1x_2 \dots x_n \mid n \geq 0, \text{ with all } x_i \in L\}$
- The set of strings that can be formed by concatenating any number of strings, each of which is an element of L
- In L^* , each x_i may be a different element of L
- For example, $\{ab, cd\}^* = \{\varepsilon, ab, cd, abab, abcd, cdab, cdcd, ababab, \dots\}$
- For all L , $\varepsilon \in L^*$
- For all L containing at least one string other than ε , L^* is infinite

Note: this is very similar to the set of all strings Σ^* over alphabet Σ . In fact, sometimes we talk about the Kleene closure of the alphabet.

Regular Expressions

- A regular expression is a string r that denotes a language $L(r)$ over some alphabet Σ
- Regular expressions make special use of the symbols ε , \emptyset , $+$, $*$, and parentheses
- We will assume that these special symbols are not included in Σ
- There are six kinds of regular expressions...

The Six Regular Expressions

- The six kinds of regular expressions, and the languages they denote, are:
 - Three kinds of *atomic* regular expressions:
 - Any symbol $a \in \Sigma$, with $L(a) = \{a\}$
 - The special symbol ε , with $L(\varepsilon) = \{\varepsilon\}$
 - The special symbol \emptyset , with $L(\emptyset) = \{\}$
 - Three kinds of *compound* regular expressions built from smaller regular expressions, here called r , r_1 , and r_2 :
 - $(r_1 + r_2)$, with $L(r_1 + r_2) = L(r_1) \cup L(r_2)$
 - $(r_1 r_2)$, with $L(r_1 r_2) = L(r_1)L(r_2)$
 - $(r)^*$, with $L((r)^*) = (L(r))^*$
- The parentheses may be omitted, in which case $*$ has highest precedence and $+$ has lowest

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ab

- Denotes the language $\{ab\}$
- Our formal definition permits this because
 - a is an atomic regular expression denoting $\{a\}$
 - b is an atomic regular expression denoting $\{b\}$
 - Their concatenation (ab) is a compound
 - Unnecessary parentheses can be omitted
- Thus any string x in Σ^* can be used by itself as a regular expression, denoting $\{x\}$

$ab+c$

- Denotes the language $\{ab,c\}$
- We omitted parentheses from the fully parenthesized form $((ab)+c)$
- The inner pair is unnecessary because $+$ has lower precedence than concatenation
- Thus any finite language can be defined using a regular expression
- Just list the strings, separated by $+$

Hint: when you see a “+” in a RE just think “or”

ba^*

- Denotes the language $\{ba^n | n \geq 0\}$: the set of strings consisting of b followed by zero or more a s
- Not the same as $(ba)^*$, which denotes $\{(ba)^n | n \geq 0\}$
- $*$ has higher precedence than concatenation
- The Kleene star is the only way to define an infinite language using regular expressions

$$(a+b)^*$$

- Denotes $\{a,b\}^*$: the whole language of strings over the alphabet $\{a,b\}$
- The parentheses are necessary here, because $*$ has higher precedence than $+$
- Kleene closure does not distribute, that is,
 - $(a+b)^* \neq a^*+b^*$
 - a^*+b^* denotes $\{a\}^* \cup \{b\}^*$



- Denotes $\{\}$
- There is no other way to denote the empty set with regular expressions
- That's all you should ever use \emptyset for
- It is not useful in compounds:
 - $L(r\emptyset) = L(\emptyset r) = \{\}$
 - $L(r+\emptyset) = L(\emptyset+r) = L(r)$
 - $L(\emptyset^*) = \{\epsilon\}$

From Languages to RE

- Give the regular expressions for the following languages:
 - $\{x \mid x \text{ is a string that starts with three 0s followed by arbitrary 0s and 1s and then ends with three 0s}\}$
 - $\{x \mid x \text{ is a string that starts with a 0 followed by an arbitrary number of 1s and ends with a 0 OR } x \text{ is a string that starts with a 1 followed by an arbitrary number of 0s and ends with a 1}\}$
 - $\{x^n \mid x \text{ is either the string } ab \text{ or the string } c \text{ and } n \geq 0\}$

Outline

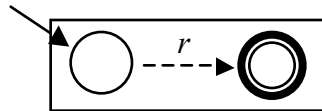
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Regular Expression to NFA

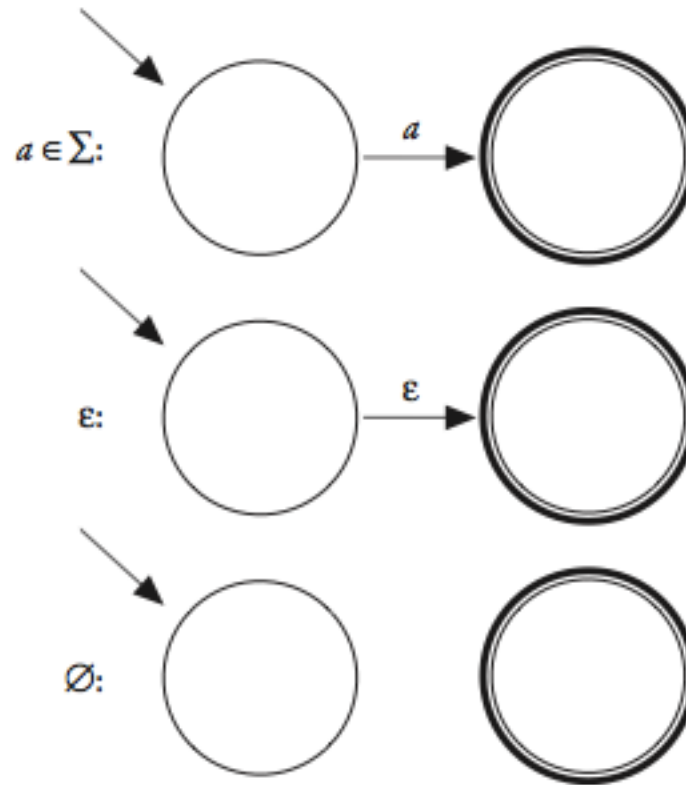
- Approach: convert any regular expression to an NFA for the same language

Standard Form

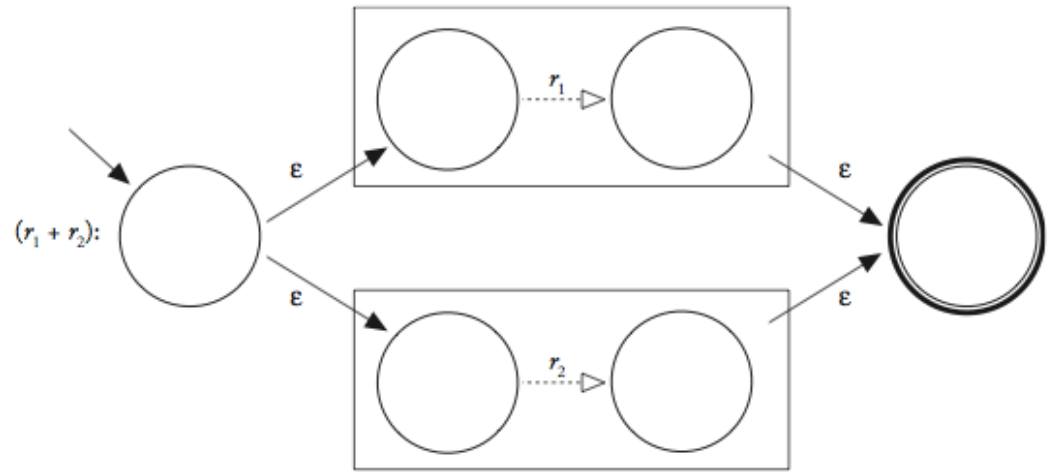
- To make them easier to compose, our NFAs will all have the same standard form:
 - Exactly one accepting state, not the start state
- That is, for any regular expression r , we will show how to construct an NFA N with $L(N) = L(r)$, pictured like this:



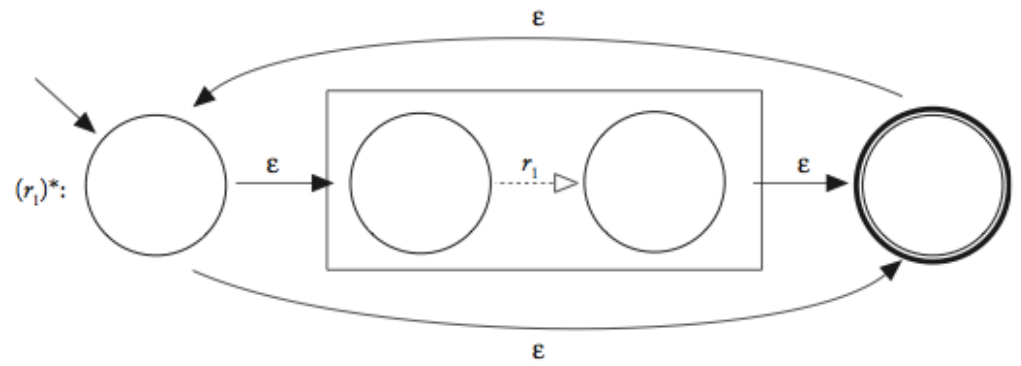
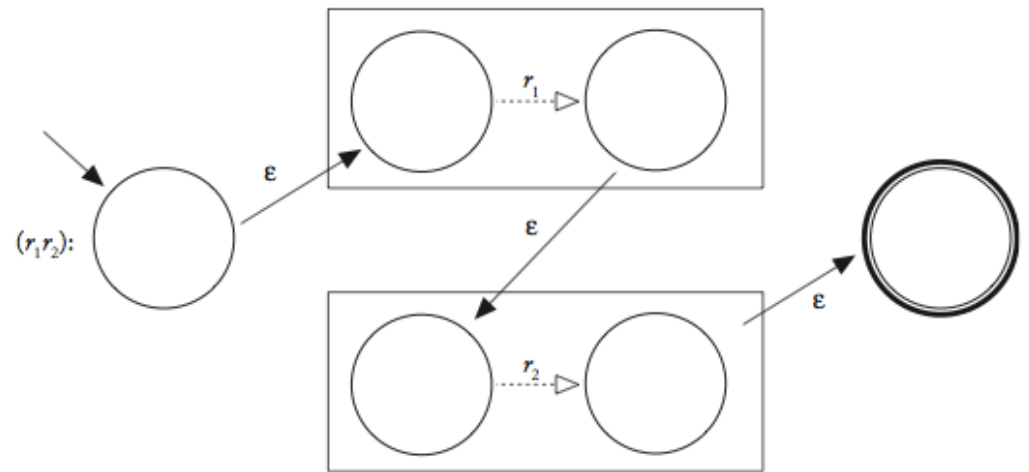
Atomic REs



Compound REs



where r_1 and r_2
are REs



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NFA to Regular Expression

- There is a way to take any NFA and construct a regular expression for the same language
- This gives us our next lemma:
- **Lemma: if N is any NFA, there is some regular expression r with $L(r) = L(N)$**
- A tricky construction, covered in Appendix A (very difficult to follow), the hand-out has a more intuitive proof.

Theorem (Kleene's Theorem)

A language is regular if and only if it is $L(r)$ for some regular expression r .

- Proof: follows from previous two lemmas.

Defining Regular Languages

- We can define the regular languages:
 - By DFA
 - By NFA
 - By regular expression
- These three have equal power for defining languages

Alphabets

- *An alphabet is any finite set of symbols*
 - $\{0,1\}$: binary alphabet
 - $\{0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9\}$: decimal alphabet
 - ASCII, Unicode: machine-text alphabets
 - Or just $\{a,b\}$: enough for many examples
 - $\{\}$: a legal but not usually interesting alphabet
- We will usually use Σ as the name of the alphabet we're considering, as in $\Sigma = \{a,b\}$

Strings

- *A string is a finite sequence of zero or more symbols*
- Length of a string: $|abbb| = 4$
- *A string over the alphabet Σ means a string all of whose symbols are in Σ*
 - The set of all strings of length 2 over the alphabet $\{a,b\}$ is $\{aa, ab, ba, bb\}$

Languages

- *A language is a set of strings over some fixed alphabet*
- *Not* restricted to finite sets: in fact, finite sets are not usually interesting languages
- All our alphabets are finite, and all our strings are finite, but most of the languages we're interested in are infinite

The Quest

- Using set formers to describe complex languages is challenging
- They can often be vague, ambiguous, or self-contradictory
- A big part of our quest in the study of formal language is to develop better tools for defining and classifying languages

The Quest

- We went from this:
 - $\{x \mid x \text{ is a string that starts with three 0s followed by arbitrary 0s and 1s and then ends with three 0s}\}$
- to this:
 - $000(0+1)^*000$

The Quest

- We just defined a major class of languages:
 - the regular languages
- The hallmark of these languages is that their structure is such that simple computational models (DFA/NFA) can recognize them and that they can be defined using regular expressions.

The Quest

- The idea that the structure of languages is connected to computational models is important.
- Later on we see that the structure of languages is tightly coupled with idea of algorithms and classes of computational problems.

Assignment #4

- See website