Regular and context-free languages

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Finite representation of languages

Consider the following language:

\[ L = \text{all strings from } \{0, 1\}^* \text{ that have two or three occurrences of 1, the first and second of which are not consecutive} \]

Is there a more ‘concise’ way of representing this language?

- strings in \( L \) can start with any number (possibly none) of 0’s: \( \{0\}^* \)
- then comes the first 1, which must be followed by at least one 0: \( \{0\}^*10 \)
- then any number (possibly none) of 0’s: \( \{0\}^*10\{0\}^* \)
- then comes the second 1: \( \{0\}^*10\{0\}^*1 \)
- then either there are no more 1’s but there can be any number (possibly none) of 0’s, or there is a third 1 followed by any number (possibly none) of 0’s:
  \[ \{0\}^*10\{0\}^*1(\{0\}^* \text{ or } \{0\}^*1\{0\}^*) \]

We will dispense with the braces \( \{} \) and write \( \cup \) instead of ‘or’:

\[ 0^*100^*1(0^* \cup 0^*10^*) \]
Regular expressions: what for?

- They are used in any task that require *pattern matching*:
  - search engines,
  - protein analysis in bioinformatics,
  - search and replace functionalities in word processors and text editors,
  - text processing utilities like `sed` and `awk` in Unix and Linux.

- Many programming languages provide various regular expression capabilities.

- Lexical analysers in compilers also use regular expressions.

- ...
From language to regular expression: Example 2

\[ L = \text{all the strings consisting of some number (possibly none) of } a\text{'s, followed by some number (possibly none) of } b\text{'s} \]
\[ = \{ \varepsilon, a, b, aa, bb, ab, aab, bbb, abb, \ldots, aaaaabbbbbbb, \ldots \} \]

Let’s try: \( \{a\}^*\{b\}^* \)

\[ \sim L \text{ is represented by the regular expression } a^*b^* \]

Notation:
\[ L = L[a^*b^*] \]

Describe the words in the alphabet \( \{a, b\} \) that are not in \( L[a^*b^*] \):

all words containing a sub-word \( ba \):
\[ (a \cup b)^*ba(a \cup b)^* \]
From regular expression to language

Example 3:

\[ L[a(a^* \cup b^*)] = \text{all words starting with } a, \text{ followed by either a} \]

(possibly empty) word of a’s, or

a (possibly empty) word of b’s

\[ = \{a, aa, ab, aaaa, abb, aaaaa, abbb, aaaaaaa, abbbbbbb, \ldots \} \]

Example 4:

\[ L[a(a \cup b)^*] = \text{all words starting with } a, \text{ followed by any word over } \{a, b\} \]

\[ = \text{all words over the alphabet } \{a, b\} \text{ starting with } a \]

\[ = \{a, aa, ab, aaaa, aab, aba, abb, aaaaaa, abbaabab, aabbababba, \ldots \} \]

These two examples are NOT the same!
From regular expression to language: Example 5

\[ L[(b \cup aaa^*)^*] = ? \]

- Let’s start with \( L[aaa^*] \): all words of a’s of length \( \geq 2 \)
  \[ = \{aa, aaa, aaaa, aaaaa, \ldots \} \]

- \( L[b \cup aaa^*] \): as above, plus the word b
  \[ = \{b, aa, aaa, aaaa, aaaaa, \ldots \} \]

- \( L[(b \cup aaa^*)^*] \): we can take any number (possibly none) of words from \( L[b \cup aaa^*] \) and concatenate them

- Is there a word over \( \{a, b\} \) that is not in \( L[(b \cup aaa^*)^*] \)?

- Do the words \( \epsilon,aabbaaabab, \) and \( bbbabbaaabaab \) belong to the language \( L[(b \cup aaa^*)^*] \)?
Regular expressions: formal definition

Every regular expression (over an alphabet $\Sigma$) is a string consisting of symbols from $\Sigma$, plus symbols from the list $\cup$, $\ast$, $(, )$, $\varepsilon$, $\emptyset$

Inductive definition of the set of regular expressions (over the alphabet $\Sigma$):

- $\emptyset$, $\varepsilon$ and each symbol in $\Sigma$ are regular expressions
- if $\alpha$ and $\beta$ are regular expressions, then so are $(\alpha \cup \beta)$, $(\alpha \beta)$, and $(\alpha^*)$
- no other string is a regular expression

Examples: $\emptyset$, $\varepsilon$, $((a^*)(b^*))$, $(((a((a \cup b)^*))b)(b^*))$, $(((x(y^*))y)(y \cup z))$, $(((\square \cup (\diamond^*))(\diamond \square)^*))$

Is $\cup^* a^*$ a regular expression?
Regular expressions: notational conventions

These brackets are pretty incomprehensible.

So we introduce some conventions:

- We omit the outermost brackets
- We omit the brackets when concatenate expressions
  E.g., we write $ababb$ instead of $(((ab)(ab))b)$
- We agree that $\ast$ ‘binds tighter’ than concatenation and $\cup$
  E.g., we write $aab\ast$ instead of $(aa)(b\ast)$
- We agree that concatenation binds tighter than $\cup$

**Examples:** (cf. the previous slide)

\[ a\ast b\ast, \quad a(a \cup b)\ast bb\ast, \quad xy\ast y(y \cup z), \quad (\Box \cup \Diamond\ast)(\Diamond \Box)\ast \]

But take care: say, \((aa)\ast b\) and \(aa\ast b\) are NOT the same!

*Always use brackets if in any doubt!*
Example 6

\[ L[(b \cup a)aa^*] = ? \]

- \( L[b \cup a] = \{a,b\} \)
- \( L[(b \cup a)a] = \{aa, ba\} \)
- \( L[(b \cup a)aa^*] = \text{all words starting with } aa \text{ followed by a (possibly empty) word of } a\text{'s, and all words starting with } ba \text{ followed by a (possibly empty) word of } a\text{'s} \)

Compare this language with \( L[b \cup aaa^*] \) (see Example 5)

**Brackets DO MATTER:** the two languages are NOT the same!
Every regular expression over $\Sigma$ represents a language over $\Sigma$.

These are two different things:

- A regular expression $\alpha$ corresponds to the language $\alpha$ represents: $L[\alpha]$.
- A string consisting of symbols from $\Sigma$ and $\cup$, $\ast$, $(, )$, $\varepsilon$, $\emptyset$.

For example,

$$a(a \cup b)^*$$

$$L[a(a \cup b)^*] = \text{all words over } \{a,b\} \text{ that start with } a$$
How regular expressions specify languages

Inductive definition

of the language $L[\alpha]$ represented by the regular expression $\alpha$:

- $L[\emptyset] = \emptyset$, $L[\varepsilon] = \{\varepsilon\}$, and $L[a] = \{a\}$ for any symbol $a$ in $\Sigma$.
- If $\alpha$ and $\beta$ are regular expressions, then
  - $L[\alpha \cup \beta] = \text{all words that belong either to } L[\alpha] \text{ or to } L[\beta]$,
  - $L[\alpha \beta] = \text{any word from } L[\alpha] \text{ followed by any word from } L[\beta]$,
  - $L[\alpha^*] = \text{any word from } L[\alpha] \text{ followed by any word from } L[\alpha] \ldots$
    the number of iterations is arbitrary (possibly none)
Example 7: identifiers in programming languages

Any such identifier begins with a letter, which may be followed by a string consisting of letters and numeric digits.

A regular expression representing the set of all identifiers is:

\[
([a-z] \cup [A-Z]) ([a-z] \cup [A-Z] \cup [0-9])^*
\]

where

\([a-z]\) is a shorthand for \((a \cup b \cup c \cup \cdots \cup z)\)

\([A-Z]\) is a shorthand for \((A \cup B \cup C \cup \cdots \cup Z)\)

\([0-9]\) is a shorthand for \((0 \cup 1 \cup 2 \cup \cdots \cup 9)\)

Lexical analyser: a part of every compiler which finds all identifiers in the text of the source program. It uses a list of regular expressions to do so.
Example 8: Search engines on the WWW

Notice the similarity between regular expressions and the form of the queries used by search engines on the WWW. Search queries often include ‘wild cards.’

Some search engines support two wildcards. The asterisk (*) is used to replace multiple characters and the percent (%) symbol is used to replace only one character.

These are easy to simulate by regular expressions: For example, an arbitrary lowercase letter is captured by the regular expression $a \cup b \cup \cdots \cup z$. So to find, say, all Web pages that contain an occurrence of ‘turtle’ following (not necessarily immediately) an instance of ‘purple,’ one constructs a finite automaton to recognise the language

$$\text{purple} \ (a \cup b \cup \cdots \cup z)^* \ \text{turtle}$$

Every page matching the query will be accepted by this automaton, and any page that doesn’t match the query will not be accepted.
Example 9

\[ L[\varepsilon \cup c^*(a \cup bc^*)] = ? \]

all the strings that are either empty or start with some (possibly none) \( c \)'s, followed by either an \( a \), or a \( b \) followed by some (possibly none) \( c \)'s

\[ = \{ \varepsilon, a, b, bc, bcc, ca, cb, cbcc, \ldots \} \]

\textbf{NOT in} \( L[\varepsilon \cup c^*(a \cup bc^*)] \): \( ab, aa, caac, \ldots \)
A **regular language** is any language that is described by a regular expression. In other words, a language $L$ is **regular** if $L = L[\alpha]$, for some regular expression $\alpha$.

For instance, all the languages in Examples 1–9 above are regular. **NOT every language is regular!**
Regular languages and finite automata

(1) There is a general ‘mechanical’ procedure $\mathcal{A}$ that converts any regular language $L[\alpha]$ to an NFA $A$ such that $L(A) = L[\alpha]$.

Moreover, there is a general way back:

(2) There is a general ‘mechanical’ procedure $\mathcal{B}$ for converting an automaton $A$ into a regular expression $\alpha$ such that $L(A) = L[\alpha]$.

In other words:

Regular languages are precisely those languages that are accepted by finite automata.
From languages to automata

The procedure which converts any regular language \( L[\alpha] \) to an NFA \( A \) such that \( L(A) = L[\alpha] \) operates along the inductive definition of the regular expression \( \alpha \):

- \( \alpha = \emptyset \). Then \( L[\alpha] = \emptyset \).

- \( \alpha = \varepsilon \). Then \( L[\alpha] = \{ \varepsilon \} \).

- \( \alpha = a \). Then \( L[\alpha] = \{ a \} \).
Automaton accepting $L[\alpha \cup \beta]$

$A_1$: accepts $L[\alpha]$

$A_2$: accepts $L[\beta]$

$A$: accepts $L[\alpha \cup \beta]$

Automaton accepting $L[\alpha \beta]$
Automaton accepting $L[\alpha^*]$

$A_1$: accepts $L[\alpha]$

$A$: accepts $L[\alpha^*]$
Example: how the procedure works

We apply the procedure to the regular expression

\[ ((a \cup ab)^*ba)^* \]

We construct step by step (going ‘inside out’) an NFA \( A \) such that

\[ L(A) = L[((a \cup ab)^*ba)^*] \]

Step 0: automata accepting \( L[a] \) and \( L[b] \)

Step 1: automata accepting \( L[ab] \) and \( L[ba] \)
Step 2: automaton accepting $L[a \cup ab]$
Step 3: automaton accepting $L[(a \cup ab)^*]$
Step 4: automaton accepting $L[(a \cup ab)^*ba]$
Final step of the procedure
Another example

Automaton accepting $L[a^*(b \cup ab)^*bb^*]$:
Finite automata: summary

- Finite automata may be regarded as programs that use fixed amounts of memory (represented by states) regardless of the input.

- Finite automata can be used as recognition devices: they accept certain inputs and reject others.

- Nondeterminism does not increase the computational power of finite automata, but nondeterministic automata are easier to design than deterministic ones.

- The languages accepted by finite automata are precisely the regular ones.
Nonregular languages

Finite automata are theoretical models for programs that use a constant amount of memory regardless of the input. There should be languages which are not regular.

Example: Is the following language over the alphabet \{a, b\} regular?

\[ L = \{a^n b^n \mid n = 0, 1, 2, \ldots \} \]

(a^n b^n is not a regular expression)

It does not seem so:

- to recognise strings in \(L\), we may have to store the entire prefix \(a^n\) before the first \(b\) shows up
- the length of such prefix depends on \(n\) \(\sim\) constant memory is not enough

? Is it really the case? (the argument above is ‘handwaving’
there may be other ways to compare the numbers of \(a\) and \(b\))

? If it is the case, ‘better’ models of computation are needed
DFA computations on ‘long’ inputs

- Given some regular language \( L \) with \textbf{infinitely many} words, take a DFA \( A \) that accepts \( L \); let \( n \) be the number of states in \( A \).
- Consider the computation of \( A \) on input \( w \in L \) containing \( k > n \) symbols:

\[
(q_1, w), (q_2, w_2), \ldots, (q_{k-1}, w_{k-1}), (q_k, \varepsilon)
\]

As \( n < k \), the states \( q_1, q_2, \ldots, q_{k-1}, q_k \) \textbf{cannot} be all distinct so \( A \) must contain a \textbf{loop}

**pigeonhole principle**

(here: 10 pigeons in 9 pigeonholes)

\begin{itemize}
  \item word \( w \) can be represented as \( w = xyz \)
  \item but then \( x y^m z \) is also accepted by \( A \), for any \( m \geq 0 \)
\end{itemize}

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http://www.dcs.bbk.ac.uk/~michael/foc/foc.html
Find $x$, $y$ and $z$ (as on the previous page) for the following input words $w$:

- $w = ababaa$
  
  (for example, $x = \varepsilon$, $y = ab$, $z = abaa$)

- $w = aabbb$
  
  (for example, $x = aa$, $y = b$, $z = bb$)
Pumping Lemma

Let $L$ be an infinite regular language over an alphabet $\Sigma$. Then there is a number $n > 0$ such that, for any $w \in L$ of length $\geq n$, there exist strings $x, y, z \in \Sigma^*$ such that:

- $|xy| \leq n$
- $y \neq \varepsilon$
- $xy^mz \in L$, for any $m \geq 0$

Pumping Lemma is used to show that a given language $L$ (such as $L = \{a^k b^k \mid k = 0, 1, 2, \ldots \}$) is not regular.

If $L$ does not satisfy the ‘pumping property,’ then $L$ cannot be regular.
$L = \{a^n b^n \mid n \geq 0\}$ is not regular

Suppose to the contrary that $L$ is regular.

Take the number $n > 0$ provided by Pumping Lemma and consider $w = a^n b^n$, which belongs to $L$.

By Pumping Lemma, we can represent $w$ as $w = xyz$ with $|xy| \leq n$; but then $x$ and $y$ may only be strings of $a$’s.

By Pumping Lemma, the word $xy^{n+1}z$ is also in $L$; however, $xy^{n+1}z$ contains more $a$’s than $b$’s, and so cannot be in $L$.

This contradiction shows: our assumption that $L$ is regular is not correct.

Thus, the language $L$ is not regular Q.E.D. (quod erat demonstrandum)

Exercise: Is the language $L = \{a^{2^n} \mid n \geq 0\}$ regular?