

- Recognizing strings from a language defined by a grammar is a fundamental question in computer science
- The efficiency of computation, and required properties of computing device depending on the grammar (and the language)
- A well-known hierarchy of grammars both in computer science and linguistics is the *Chomsky hierarchy*
- Each grammar in the Chomsky hierarchy corresponds to an abstract computing device (an automaton)
- The class of *regular grammars* are the class that corresponds to *finite state automata*

Chomsky hierarchy and automata

Grammar class	Rules	Automata
Unrestricted grammars	$\alpha \rightarrow \beta$	Turing machines
Context-sensitive grammars	$\alpha A \beta \rightarrow \alpha \gamma \beta$	Linear-bounded automata
Context-free grammars	$A \rightarrow \alpha$	Pushdown automata
Regular grammars	$A \rightarrow a$ $A \rightarrow aB$	Finite state automata

Regular grammars: definition

A regular grammar is a tuple $G = (\Sigma, N, S, R)$ where

Σ is an alphabet of terminal symbols

N are a set of non-terminal symbols

S is a special 'start' symbol $\in N$

R is a set of rewrite rules following one of the following patterns ($A, B \in N$, $a \in \Sigma$, ϵ is the empty string)

Left regular

- $A \rightarrow a$
- $A \rightarrow Ba$
- $A \rightarrow \epsilon$

Right regular

- $A \rightarrow a$
- $A \rightarrow aB$
- $A \rightarrow \epsilon$

Regular languages: some properties/operations

$\mathcal{L}_1 \mathcal{L}_2$ Concatenation of two languages \mathcal{L}_1 and \mathcal{L}_2 : any sentence of \mathcal{L}_1 followed by any sentence of \mathcal{L}_2

\mathcal{L}^* Kleene star of \mathcal{L} : \mathcal{L} concatenated by itself 0 or more times

\mathcal{L}^R Reverse of \mathcal{L} : reverse of any string in \mathcal{L}

$\overline{\mathcal{L}}$ Complement of \mathcal{L} : all strings in Σ^* except the ones in \mathcal{L} ($\Sigma^* - \mathcal{L}$)

$\mathcal{L}_1 \cup \mathcal{L}_2$ Union of languages \mathcal{L}_1 and \mathcal{L}_2 : strings that are in any of the languages

$\mathcal{L}_1 \cap \mathcal{L}_2$ Intersection of languages \mathcal{L}_1 and \mathcal{L}_2 : strings that are in both languages

Regular languages are closed under all of these operations.

Three ways to define a regular language

- A language is regular if there is regular grammar that generates/recognizes it
- A language is regular if there is an FSA that generates/recognizes it
- A language is regular if we can define a regular expressions for the language

Regular expressions

- Every regular language (RL) can be expressed by a regular expression (RE), and every RE defines a RL
- A RE e defines a RL $\mathcal{L}(e)$
- Relations between RE and RL

$$\mathcal{L}(\emptyset) = \emptyset$$

$$\mathcal{L}(e) = e$$

$$\mathcal{L}(a) = a$$

$$\mathcal{L}(ab) = \mathcal{L}(a)\mathcal{L}(b)$$

$$\mathcal{L}(a^*) = \mathcal{L}(a)^*$$

where, $a, b \in \Sigma$, ϵ is empty string, \emptyset is the language that accepts nothing (e.g., $\Sigma^* - \Sigma^*$)

- Note: no standard complement and intersection in RE

$\mathcal{L}(a|b) = \mathcal{L}(a) \cup \mathcal{L}(b)$
(some author use the notation $a|b$, we will use $a|b$ as in many practical implementations)

Regular expressions and some extensions

- Kleene star (a^*), concatenation (ab) and union ($a|b$) are the basic operations
- Parentheses can be used to group the sub-expressions. Otherwise, the priority of the operators as listed above $a|b|c^* = a|(b(c^*))$
- In practice some short-hand notations are common

$$\cdot = (a_1 | \dots | a_n)$$

$$\text{for } \Sigma = \{a_1, \dots, a_n\}$$

$$\Sigma^* = a^* | \dots | a_n^*$$

$$[a^*c] = (a|b|c)$$

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$$[a^*] = (a|b|c)$$

- And some non-regular extensions, like $(a^*)^*$ (sometimes the term *regex* is used for expressions with non-regular extensions)

Some properties of regular expressions

Useful identities for simplifying regular expressions

- $u|(v|w) = (u|v)|w$
- $u|v = v|u$
- $u|(v|w) = uv|uw$
- $u|\emptyset = u$
- $u\epsilon = \epsilon u = u$
- $\emptyset u = \emptyset$
- $u(vw) = (uv)w$
- $\emptyset^* = \epsilon$
- $\epsilon^* = \epsilon$
- $(u^*)^* = u^*$
- $u|u = u$
- $u|\emptyset = u$
- $(u|v)^* = (u^*|v^*)^*$
- $u^*|c = u^*$

An exercise

Simplify $a|ab^*$

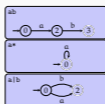
$$a|ab^* = a\epsilon|ab^*$$

$$= a(\epsilon|b^*)$$

$$= ab^*$$

Note: some of these are direct statements of Kleene algebra, others can be derived from them.

Converting regular expressions to FSA



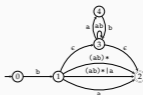
- For more complex expressions, one can replace the paths for individual symbols with corresponding automata

- Using ϵ transitions may ease the task

- The reverse conversion (from automata to regular expressions) is also easy:
 - Identify the patterns on the left, collapse paths to single transitions with regular expressions

Exercise

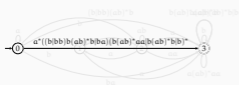
convert $b|(ab)^*|a$ to an NFA



Exercise

convert $b|(ab)^*|a$ to an NFA

Converting FSA to regular expressions



- The general idea: remove (intermediate) states, replacing edge labels with regular expressions

An exercise: simplify the resulting regular expressions

Two example FSA

what languages do they accept?

$$L_1 = \mathcal{L}(M_1)$$



Odd number of a's over {a, b}.

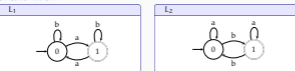
$$L_2 = \mathcal{L}(M_2)$$



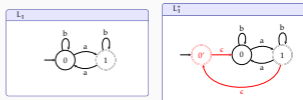
Odd number of b's over {a, b}.

We will use these languages and automata for demonstration.

Concatenation



Kleene star



- What if there were more than one accepting states?

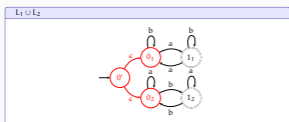
Reversal



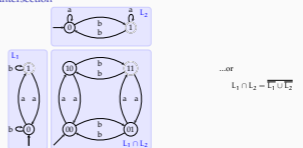
Complement



Union



Intersection



$$L_1 \cap L_2 = \overline{\overline{L_1} \cup \overline{L_2}}$$

Closure properties of regular languages

- Since results of all the operations we studied are FSA: Regular languages are closed under
 - Concatenation
 - Kleene star
 - Reversal
 - Complement
 - Union
 - Intersection

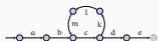
Is a language regular?

— or not

- To show that a language is regular, it is sufficient to find an FSA that recognizes it.
- Showing that a language is *not* regular is more involved
- We will study a method based on *pumping lemma*

Pumping lemma

intuition



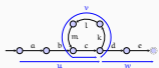
- What is the length of longest string generated by this FSA?
- Any FSA generating an infinite language has to have a loop (application of recursive rule(s) in the grammar)
- Part of every string longer than some number will include repetition of the same substring ('cklm' above)

Pumping lemma

definition

For every regular language L , there exist an integer p such that a string $x \in L$ can be factored as $x = uvw$,

- $uv^i w \in L, \forall i \geq 0$
- $v \neq \epsilon$
- $|uv| \leq p$



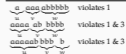
How to use pumping lemma

- We use pumping lemma to prove that a language is not regular
- Proof is by contradiction:
 - Assume the language is regular
 - Find a string x in the language, for all splits of $x = uvw$, at least one of the pumping lemma conditions does not hold
 - $uv^p w \in L \ (\forall i \geq 0)$
 - $v \neq \epsilon$
 - $|uv| \leq p$

Pumping lemma example

prove $L = a^n b^n$ is not regular

- Assume L is regular: there must be a p such that, if uvw is in the language
 - $uv^i w \in L \ (\forall i \geq 0)$
 - $v \neq \epsilon$
 - $|uv| \leq p$
- Pick the string $a^p b^p$
- For the sake of example, assume $p = 5$, $x = aaaaaabbbb$
- Three different ways to split



Wrapping up

- FSA and regular expressions express regular languages
- Regular languages and FSA are closed under
 - Concatenation
 - Kleene star
 - Complement
 - Reversal
 - Union
 - Intersection
- To prove a language is regular, it is sufficient to find a regular expression or FSA for it
- To prove a language is not regular, we can use pumping lemma

Next:

- Finite state transducers (FSTs)
- Applications of FSA and FSTs
- Summary exam preparation/discussion

Acknowledgments, credits, references