

# Everything Else About Regular Languages

Mark Greenstreet, CpSc 421, Term 1, 2006/07

# Lecture Outline

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## Regular Expressions

- More Pumping Lemma Examples
- Properties of Regular Languages
- Model Checking

# One More Pumping Lemma Example

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- Let  $A = \{w \mid w = w^{\mathcal{R}}\}$  (in English, the palindrome language). Let the input alphabet be  $\{a, b\}$ .
- Let  $A$  is not regular.
  - Let  $p$  be a proposed pumping lemma length.
  - Let  $w = a^p ba^p$ .  $w \in A$ .
  - Let  $xyz = w$  with  $|y| > 0$  and  $|xy| \leq p$ . Let  $n = |xy|$ .
  - Then  $xy = a^n$ , and  $xy^i z = a^{p+(i-1)|y|} ba^p$ .
  - If  $i \neq 1$ , then  $xy^i z \notin A$ .
  - $A$  does not satisfy the conditions of the pumping lemma.
  - $A$  is not regular.

# Remarks About the Pumping Lemma

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- If  $A$  is finite (i.e.  $|A|$  is finite), then  $A$  trivially satisfies the pumping lemma. Let

$$p = 1 + \max_{w \in A} |w|$$

There are no strings in  $A$  with length at least  $p$ , and the conditions of the pumping lemma are (vacuously) satisfied.

- **WARNING:** There are non-regular languages that satisfy the pumping lemma. For example,

$$\Sigma = \{a, b, c\}$$

$$A = (b \cup c)^* a^* b^n c^n$$

The language  $A$  is not regular, but it satisfies the conditions of the pumping lemma.

- Satisfying the conditions of the pumping lemma is a necessary but not sufficient condition for showing that a language is regular.

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

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- $A$  is not regular.
  - The regular languages are closed under intersection.
  - The language  $a^* b^* c^*$  is regular.
  - Let  $A' = A \cap (a^* b^* c^*) = a^* b^n c^n$ .  $A'$  is not regular.
    - Let  $p$  be a proposed pumping lemma constant for  $A'$ .
    - Let  $w = b^p c^p$ . Note that  $w \in A'$ .
    - Pumping  $w$  changes the number of  $b$ 's in  $w$  and produces a string that isn't in  $A'$  (even though it is still in  $A$ ).
    - Therefore,  $A'$  is not regular.
  - Therefore  $A$  is not regular.

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

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- $A$  satisfies the pumping lemma.
  - Let  $p = 1$ .
  - Let  $w$  be any non-empty string in  $A$ .
  - If  $w$  has no  $a$ 's, then  $w \in (b \cup c)^+$ .
  - If  $w$  has one or more  $a$ 's and  $w$  starts with an  $a$ , then  $w \in a^+ b^n c^n$ .
  - If  $w$  has one or more  $a$ 's and  $w$  starts with a  $b$  then  $w \in (b \cup c)^+ a^+ b^n c^n$ .
  - $A$  satisfies the conditions of the pumping lemma.
- Satisfying the conditions of the pumping lemma is a necessary but not sufficient condition for showing that a language is regular.
- There are stronger versions of the pumping lemma that  $A$  violates. I plan to put a question or two on homework 4 that will explore this.

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    - Let  $x = \epsilon$ ,  $y =$  the first symbol of  $w$ , and  $z =$  the rest of  $w$ .
    - $xyz = w$ .  $|y| = 1 > 0$ .  $|xy| = 1 = p$ .
    - $xy^i z \in (b \cup c)^* \subset A$ .
    - The pumping lemma is satisfied.
  - If  $w$  has one or more  $a$ 's and  $w$  starts with an  $a$ , then  $w \in a^+ b^n c^n$ .
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# Distinguishable Strings

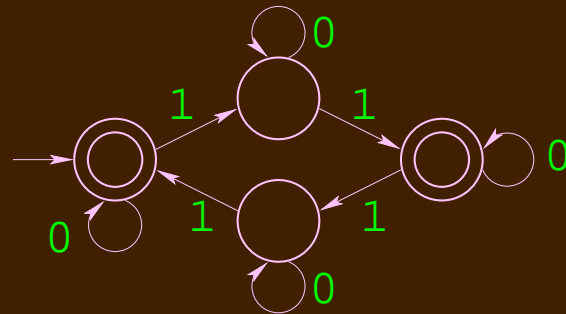
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- Let  $A$  be a language with alphabet  $\Sigma$ .
- Strings  $x$  and  $y$  are **distinguished** by  $A$  iff there is a string  $z$  such that  $xz \in A$  and  $yz \notin A$  or vice-versa.
- If  $x$  and  $y$  are **not** distinguished by  $A$  we write  $x \equiv_A y$ . As suggested by the notation,  $\equiv_A$  is an equivalence relation (see Sipser problem 1.51).
- Let  $M = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$  be a DFA that recognizes  $A$ .  
If  $\delta(q_0, x) = \delta(q_0, y)$  then  $x \equiv_A y$ .
- $A$  has at most  $|Q|$  equivalence classes.

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- $A$  has at most  $|Q|$  equivalence classes.
- ➔ ● A language is regular iff it generates a finite number of equivalence classes. (See Sipser problem 1.52)

# An Example: $a^i b^j c^k$ , $(i = 1) \Rightarrow (j = k)$

- Let  $A = a^i b^j c^k$  with  $i, j, k \in \mathbb{N}$  and if  $i = 1$  then  $j = k$  (from Sipser problem 1.54).
- $A$  is not regular.
  - For any  $m \in \mathbb{N}$ , let  $x_m = ab^m$ .
  - For any  $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$  with  $m \neq n$ ,  $x_m$  and  $x_n$  are distinguishable:  
 $x_m c^m \in A$  and  $x_n c^m \notin A$ .
  - $A$  generates an infinite number of equivalence classes.
  - $A$  is not regular.
- A similar argument shows that  $(b \cup c)^* a^* b^n c^n$  is not regular.  
For each  $m \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $x_m = bab^m$  is in a different equivalence class.

# Language Emptiness

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- Let's say we have a regular language specified by giving a DFA, NFA, or regular expression.
- We can convert NFAs and REs to DFAs; so, I'll assume that we have a DFA.
- Is this language empty?
  - Construct the transition graph for the DFA.
  - Use any graph exploration algorithm to find a path from the start state to an accepting state.
  - If it finds a path, then the language is non-empty.
  - If there is no path, then the language is empty.
- If you use breadth-first search, then you find a **shortest** string in the language.
- How would you test whether or not the language of a DFA, NFA, or RE is complete (i.e.  $\Sigma^*$ )?

# DFA Equivalence

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- Let  $M_1 = (Q_1, \Sigma, \delta_1, q_{0,1}, F_1)$  and  $M_2 = (Q_2, \Sigma, \delta_2, q_{0,2}, F_2)$ .
- We say that  $M_1$  and  $M_2$  are **equivalent** iff  $L(M_1) = L(M_2)$ .
- To test for language equivalence, we note that we can construct a DFA,  $M_1 \oplus M_2$  that accepts iff exactly one of  $M_1$  or  $M_2$  accept ( $\oplus$  indicates “exclusive-OR”).
- $M_1$  and  $M_2$  are equivalent iff  $L(M_1 \oplus M_2)$  is empty.



# DFA Minimization

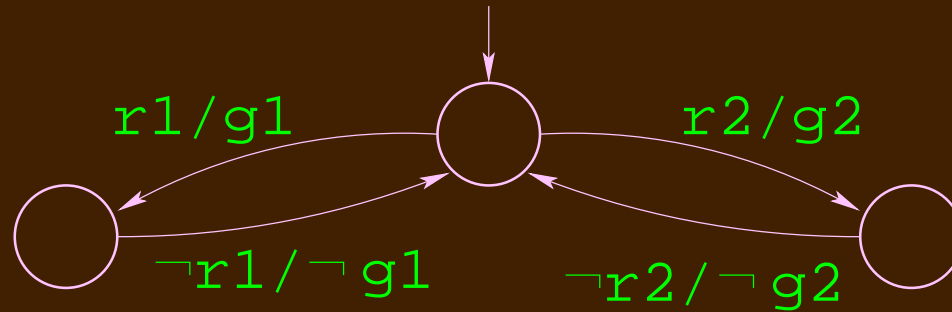
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- Let  $M = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$  be a DFA. Let  $q_i, q_j \in Q$ .
- Let  $M' = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, \{q_i\})$  be a DFA.  
If  $L(M') = \emptyset$ , then there is no input string that takes  $M$  to state  $q_i$ .  
We can remove  $q_i$  from  $Q$  (and  $\delta$ ) without changing  $L(M)$ .
- Let  $M'_i = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_i, F)$  and  $M'_j = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_j, F)$ .  
If  $L(M'_i) = L(M'_j)$  then states strings that lead to  $q_i$  and strings that lead to  $q_j$  are indistinguishable by  $L(M)$ . We can
  - Replace all arcs into  $q_j$  with arcs into  $q_i$ .
  - Eliminate  $q_j$ .
- When all states are reachable from  $q_0$  and distinguishable, we have a DFA with  $|Q|$  equal to the number of equivalence classes of  $L(M)$ . This is the smallest DFA that recognizes  $M$ .
- The smallest DFA is unique up to the names for the states.

# Model Checking

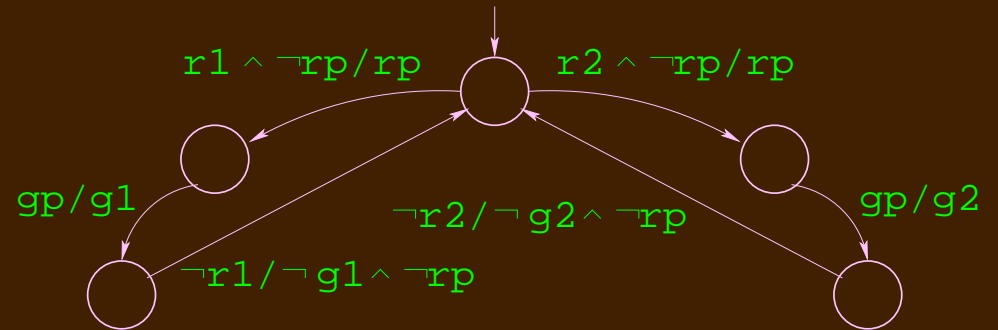
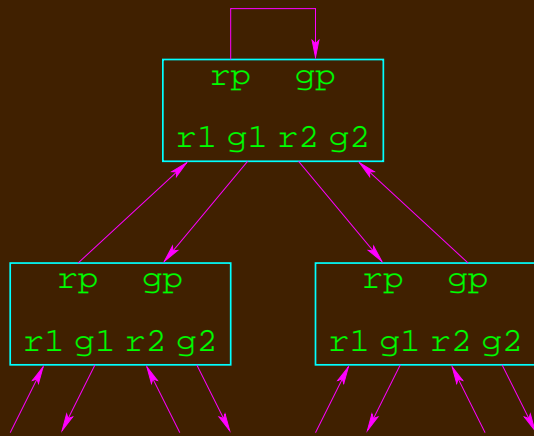
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- Mutual Exclusion: two clients



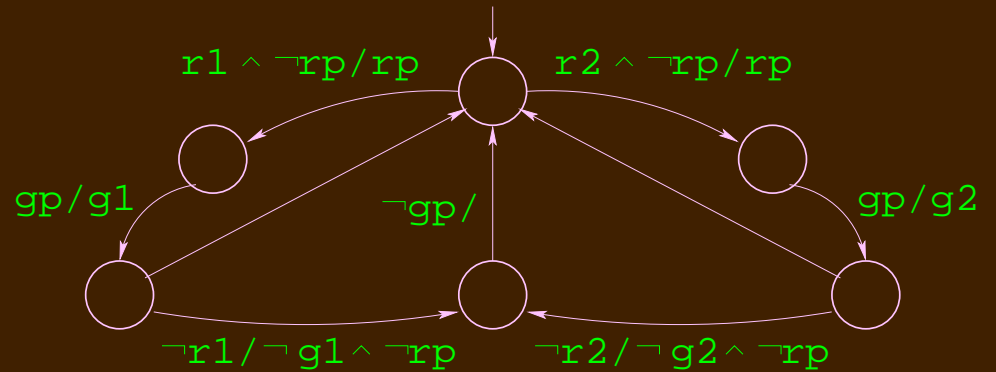
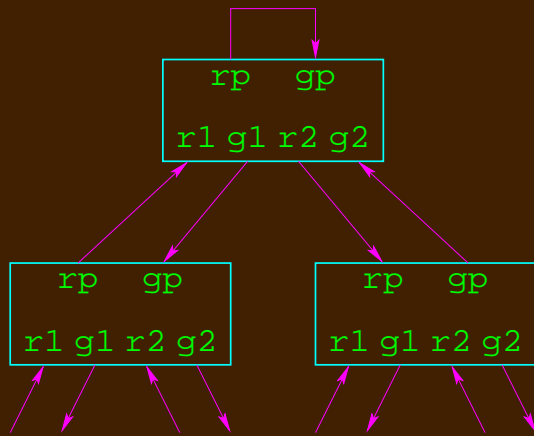
# Model Checking

- Mutual Exclusion: multiple clients



# Model Checking

- Mutual Exclusion: multiple clients



# Can You Really Do This?

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- YES
- The algorithms used in practice are more optimized than the simple versions given here.
- The big challenge is the exponential increase in the number of states when going from NFAs to DFAs (and similar operations). This is called the “state-explosion” problem.
  - For some problems, explicitly keeping track of the set of states is practical.
  - Symbolic techniques work very well in many cases: represent the set by a predicate that identifies the members of a set. Boolean satisfiability checkers can handle very large problems.
  - There’s no “silver-bullet” that works for all problems.
  - This is an area of active research.

# Other Finite Automata Topics

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- Automata on infinite strings, e.g. Büchi Automata.  
A string is accepted if the machine makes an infinite number of visits of accepting states.
- Timed automata: Give upper and lower bounds on how long the machine can remain in a state. Use this to prove responsiveness and other timing properties of systems modeled by finite automata.
- Quantum Finite Automata:
  - Machine state is a quantum state. It can be the quantum superposition of two or more base states.
  - This gives the machine a limited, probabilistic, form of non-determinism.
  - The transition relation must be reversible.
- 2DFAs: The machine can move its read head either left or right with each state transition. 2DFAs recognize the regular languages (and nothing else).
- Homomorphisms: a whole other set of closure properties that involve mapping strings in one alphabet to strings in another. The regular languages are closed under homomorphisms and inverse homomorphisms.

# Proving Regularity

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- Show a DFA, NFA, or regular expression for  $A$ .
- Find zero or more regular languages,  $B_1, \dots, B_k$  that can be combined using the regular operators (union, complement, concatenation, asteration) to produce  $A$ . Note that union and complement mean you can make any boolean combination (e.g. AND, exclusive-OR, ...).
- Show that  $A$  has a finite number of equivalence classes of distinguished strings (see slide 7). Note that I just touched on this approach lightly in this lecture. It's not an "official" part of the course material. So, I won't give you problems that require using this method, but you notice a problem for which this provides an easy solution, in which case, you can feel free to use it.

# Proving Non-Regularity

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- Use the pumping lemma.
- Find zero or more regular languages,  $B_1, \dots, B_k$  such that you can combine  $A$  with these languages using the regular operators to produce a language that is clearly not regular (see slide ??).
- Assume that  $A$  is regular, and prove a contradiction.
- Show that  $A$  has an infinite number of equivalence classes of distinguished strings.
- Most (all) problems that you'll get in this course can be handled by the first two methods. As with proving regularity, I won't give you any problems that require using the equivalence classes method, but now that you know it, you might find that it you can use it to get simpler solutions.



# Proving Closure Properties

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- Typically, you get asked a question of the form:

Show that if  $A$  is regular then some particular variation on  $A$  is regular (e.g. the regular languages are closed under complement and asteration).

or

Show that if  $A_1 \dots A_k$  are regular then some particular way of creating a new language from them creates a regular language (e.g. the regular languages are closed under union and concatenation).

- Let  $A'$  be the new language that gets created. Because we want to show that  $A'$  is regular, we can use the methods from slide 15.
- Quite frequently, we'll construct a NFA for  $A'$ . Note that because  $A_1 \dots A_k$  are assumed to be regular, we can assume that we are given NFAs (or DFAs, or REs) for those languages. It is often **very** helpful to use pieces of these NFAs, their states, their transition relation, etc., to define an NFA for  $A'$ .