

CS 341: Foundations of CS II

Marvin K. Nakayama
Computer Science Department
New Jersey Institute of Technology
Newark, NJ 07102

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Chapter 1 Regular Languages

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- Nondeterminism
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Introduction

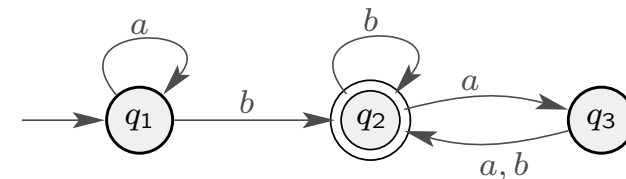
- Now introduce a simple model of a computer having a finite amount of memory.
- This type of machine will be known as a **finite-state machine** or **finite automaton**.
- Basic idea how a finite automaton works:
 - It is presented an input string w over an alphabet Σ ; i.e., $w \in \Sigma^*$.
 - It reads in the symbols of w from left to right, one at a time.
 - After reading the last symbol, it indicates if it accepts or rejects the string.
- These machines are useful for string matching, compilers, etc.

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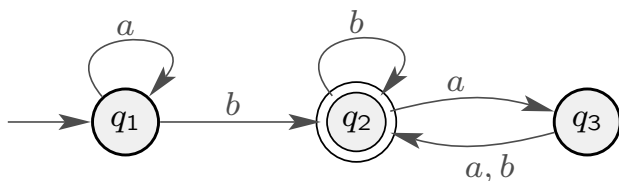
Deterministic Finite Automata (DFA)

Example: DFA with alphabet $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$:

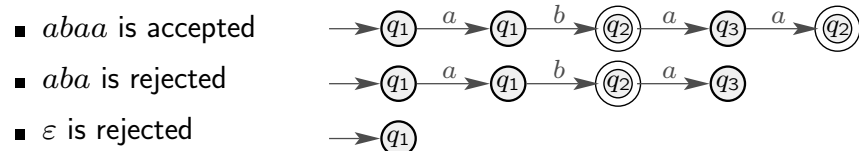


- q_1, q_2, q_3 are the **states**.
- q_1 is the **start state** as it has an arrow coming into it from nowhere.
- q_2 is an **accept state** as it is drawn with a double circle.

Deterministic Finite Automata



- Edges tell how to move when in a state and a symbol from Σ is read.
- DFA is fed **input string** $w \in \Sigma^*$. After reading last symbol of w ,
 - if DFA is in an accept state, then string is **accepted**
 - otherwise, it is **rejected**.
- Process the following strings over $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$ on above machine:



Formal Definition of DFA

Definition: A **deterministic finite automaton (DFA)** is a 5-tuple

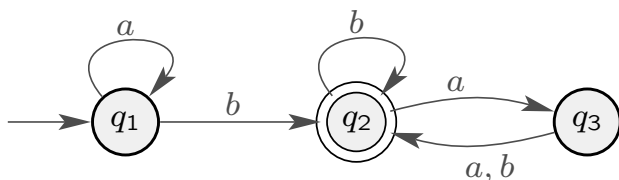
$$M = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F),$$

where

1. Q is a **finite** set of states.
2. Σ is an alphabet, and the DFA processes strings over Σ .
3. $\delta : Q \times \Sigma \rightarrow Q$ is the **transition function**.
 - δ defines label on each edge.
4. $q_0 \in Q$ is the **start state** (or **initial state**).
5. $F \subseteq Q$ is the set of **accept states** (or **final states**).

Remark: Sometimes refer to DFA as simply a **finite automaton (FA)**.

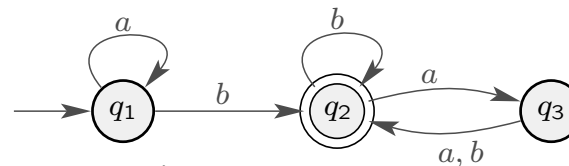
Transition Function of DFA



Transition function $\delta : Q \times \Sigma \rightarrow Q$ works as follows:

- For each state and for each symbol of the input alphabet, the function δ tells which (one) state to go to next.
- Specifically, if $r \in Q$ and $\ell \in \Sigma$, then $\delta(r, \ell)$ is the state that the DFA goes to when it is in state r and reads in ℓ , e.g., $\delta(q_2, a) = q_3$.
- For each pair of state $r \in Q$ and symbol $\ell \in \Sigma$,
 - there is **exactly one** arc leaving r labeled with ℓ .
- Thus, there is no choice in how to process a string.
 - So the machine is **deterministic**.

Example of DFA



$M = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_1, F)$ with

- $Q = \{q_1, q_2, q_3\}$
- $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$
- $\delta : Q \times \Sigma \rightarrow Q$ is described as

	a	b
q_1	q_1	q_2
q_2	q_3	q_2
q_3	q_2	q_2

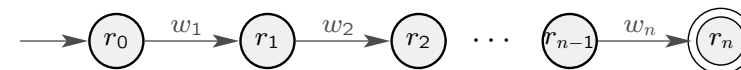
- q_1 is the start state
- $F = \{q_2\}$.

How a DFA Computes

- DFA is presented with an input string $w \in \Sigma^*$.
- DFA begins in the start state.
- DFA reads the string one symbol at a time, starting from the left.
- The symbols read in determine the sequence of states visited.
- Processing ends after the last symbol of w has been read.
- After reading the entire input string
 - if DFA ends in an accept state, then input string w is **accepted**;
 - otherwise, input string w is **rejected**.

Formal Definition of DFA Computation

- Let $M = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$ be a DFA.
- String $w = w_1 w_2 \cdots w_n \in \Sigma^*$, where each $w_i \in \Sigma$ and $n \geq 0$.
- Then M **accepts** w if there exists a sequence of states $r_0, r_1, r_2, \dots, r_n \in Q$ such that
 1. $r_0 = q_0$
 - first state r_0 in the sequence is the start state of DFA;
 2. $r_n \in F$
 - last state r_n in the sequence is an accept state;
 3. $\delta(r_i, w_{i+1}) = r_{i+1}$ for each $i = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1$
 - sequence of states corresponds to valid transitions for string w .

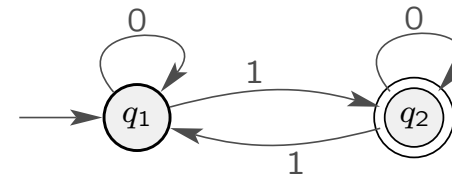


Language of Machine

- **Definition:** If A is the set of all strings that machine M accepts, then we say
 - $A = L(M)$ is the **language of machine** M , and
 - M **recognizes** A .
- If machine M has input alphabet Σ , then $L(M) \subseteq \Sigma^*$.
- **Definition:** A language is **regular** if it is recognized by some DFA.

Examples of Deterministic Finite Automata

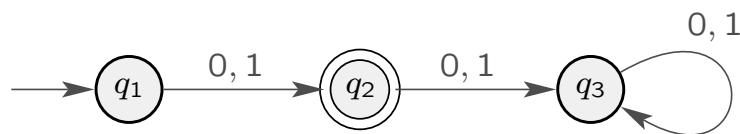
Example: Consider the following DFA M_1 with alphabet $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$:



Remarks:

- 010110 is accepted, but 0101 is rejected.
- $L(M_1)$ is the language of strings over Σ in which the total number of 1's is odd.
- Can you come up with a DFA that recognizes the language of strings over Σ having an even number of 1's?

Example: Consider the following DFA M_2 with alphabet $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$:



Remarks:

- $L(M_2)$ is language of strings over Σ that have length 1, i.e.,

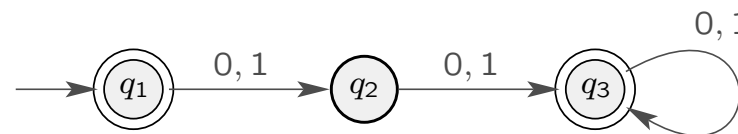
$$L(M_2) = \{w \in \Sigma^* \mid |w| = 1\}$$

- Recall that $\overline{L(M_2)}$, the complement of $L(M_2)$, is the set of strings over Σ not in $L(M_2)$, i.e.,

$$\overline{L(M_2)} = \Sigma^* - L(M_2).$$

Can you come up with a DFA that recognizes $\overline{L(M_2)}$?

Example: Consider the following DFA M_3 with alphabet $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$:



Remarks:

- $L(M_3)$ is the language of strings over Σ that **do not** have length 1, i.e.

$$L(M_3) = \overline{L(M_2)} = \{w \in \Sigma^* \mid |w| \neq 1\}$$

- DFA can have more than one accept state.
- Start state can also be an accept state.
- In general, a DFA accepts ϵ if and only if the start state is also an accept state.

Constructing DFA for Complement

- In general, given a DFA M for language A , we can make a DFA \overline{M} for \overline{A} from M by
 - changing all accept states in M into non-accept states in \overline{M} ,
 - changing all non-accept states in M into accept states in \overline{M} ,

- More formally, suppose language A over alphabet Σ has a DFA

$$M = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_1, F).$$

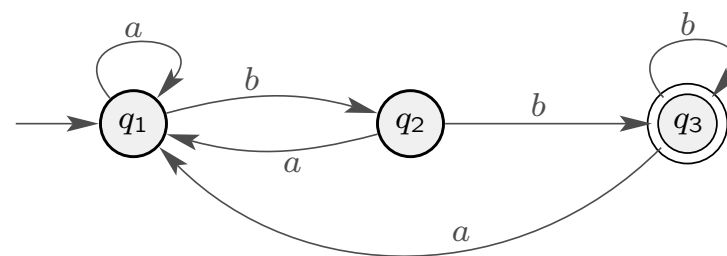
- Then, a DFA for the complementary language \overline{A} is

$$\overline{M} = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_1, Q - F).$$

where $Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_1, F$ are the same as in DFA M .

- Why does this work?

Example: Consider the following DFA M_4 with alphabet $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$:

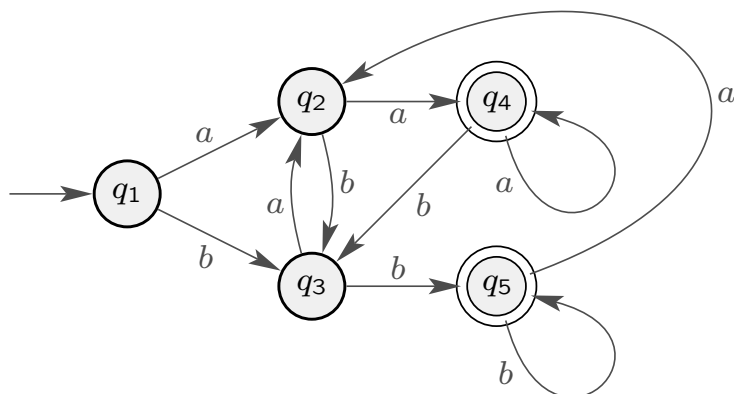


Remarks:

- $L(M_4)$ is the language of strings over Σ that end with bb , i.e.,

$$L(M_4) = \{w \in \Sigma^* \mid w = sbb \text{ for some } s \in \Sigma^*\}.$$
- Note that $abbb \in L(M_4)$ and $bba \notin L(M_4)$.

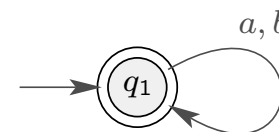
Example: Consider the following DFA M_5 with alphabet $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$:



$$L(M_5) = \{w \in \Sigma^* \mid w = saa \text{ or } w = sbb \text{ for some string } s \in \Sigma^*\}.$$

Note that $abbb \in L(M_5)$ and $bba \notin L(M_5)$.

Example: Consider the following DFA M_6 with alphabet $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$:



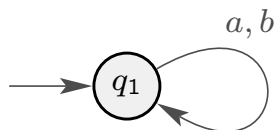
Remarks:

- This DFA accepts all possible strings over Σ , i.e.,

$$L(M_6) = \Sigma^*.$$

- In general, any DFA in which all states are accept states recognizes the language Σ^* .

Example: Consider the following DFA M_7 with alphabet $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$:



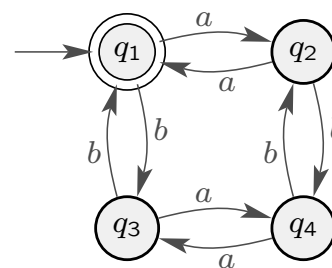
Remarks:

- This DFA accepts no strings over Σ , i.e.,

$$L(M_7) = \emptyset.$$

- In general,
 - a DFA may have no accept states, i.e., $F = \emptyset \subseteq Q$.
 - any DFA with no accept states recognizes the language \emptyset .

Example: Consider the following DFA M_8 with alphabet $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$:



- DFA moves left or right on a .
- DFA moves up or down on b .

- This DFA recognizes the language of strings over Σ having
 - even number of a 's and
 - even number of b 's.
- Note that $ababaa \in L(M_8)$ and $bba \notin L(M_8)$.

Some Operations on Languages

- Let A and B be languages.
- Recall we previously defined the operations:

- **Union:**

$$A \cup B = \{w \mid w \in A \text{ or } w \in B\}.$$

- **Concatenation:**

$$A \circ B = \{vw \mid v \in A, w \in B\}.$$

- **Kleene star:**

$$A^* = \{w_1 w_2 \cdots w_k \mid k \geq 0 \text{ and each } w_i \in A\}.$$

Closed under Operation

- Recall that a collection S of objects is **closed** under operation f if applying f to members of S always returns an object still in S .
 - e.g., $\mathcal{N} = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ is closed under addition but not subtraction.
- Previously saw that given a DFA M_1 for language A , can construct DFA M_2 for complementary language \bar{A} .
 - Make all accept states in M_1 into non-accept states in M_2 .
 - Make all non-accept states in M_1 into accept states in M_2 .
- Thus, the class of regular languages is closed under complementation.
 - i.e., if A is a regular language, then \bar{A} is a regular language.

Regular Languages Closed Under Union

Theorem 1.25

The class of regular languages is closed under union.

- i.e., if A_1 and A_2 are regular languages, then so is $A_1 \cup A_2$.

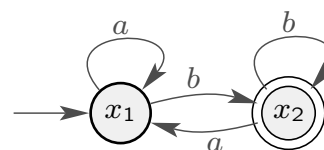
Proof Idea:

- Suppose A_1 is regular, so it has a DFA M_1 .
- Suppose A_2 is regular, so it has a DFA M_2 .
- $w \in A_1 \cup A_2$ if and only if $w \in A_1$ **or** $w \in A_2$.
- $w \in A_1 \cup A_2$ if and only if w is accepted by M_1 **or** M_2 .
- Need DFA M_3 to accept a string w iff w is accepted by M_1 **or** M_2 .
- Construct M_3 to keep track of where the input would be if it were simultaneously running on both M_1 and M_2 .
- Accept string if and only if M_1 **or** M_2 accepts.

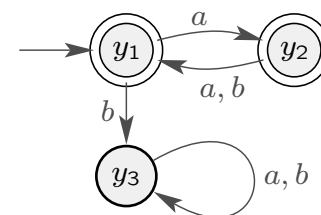
Example: Consider the following DFAs and languages over $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$:

- DFA M_1 recognizes language $A_1 = L(M_1)$
- DFA M_2 recognizes language $A_2 = L(M_2)$

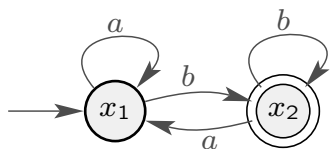
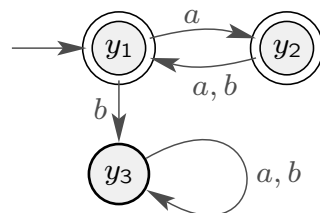
DFA M_1 for A_1



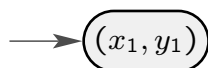
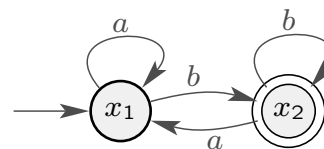
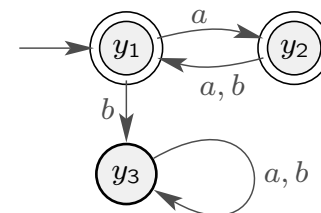
DFA M_2 for A_2



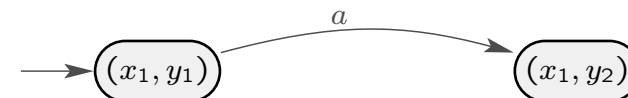
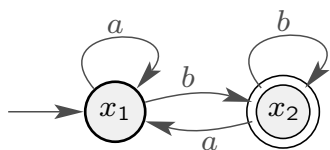
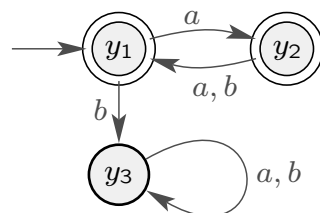
- We now want a DFA M_3 for $A_1 \cup A_2$.

DFA M_1 for A_1 DFA M_2 for A_2 

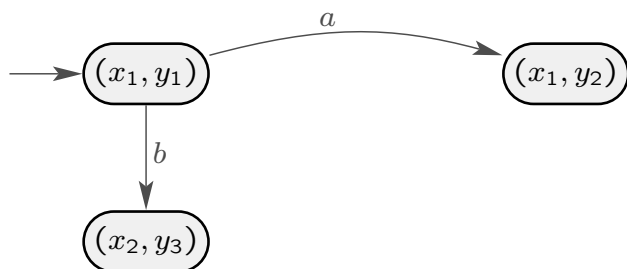
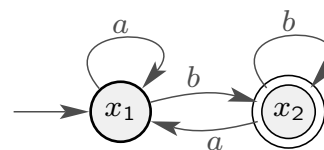
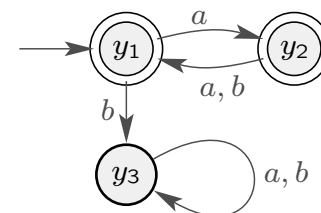
Step 1 to build DFA M_3 for $A_1 \cup A_2$: Begin in start states for M_1 and M_2

DFA M_1 for A_1 DFA M_2 for A_2 

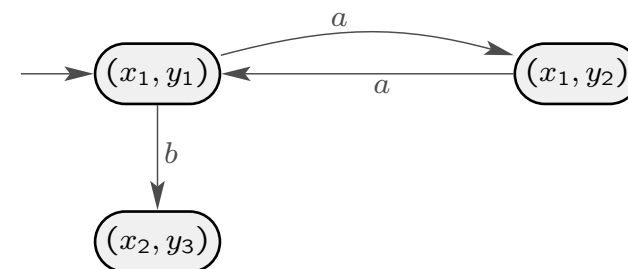
Step 2: From (x_1, y_1) on input a , M_1 moves to x_1 , and M_2 moves to y_2 .

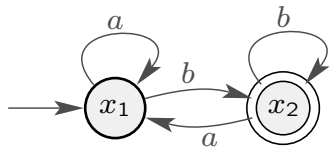
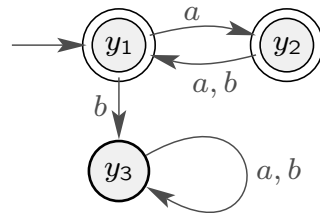
DFA M_1 for A_1 DFA M_2 for A_2 

Step 3: From (x_1, y_1) on input b , M_1 moves to x_2 , and M_2 moves to y_3 .

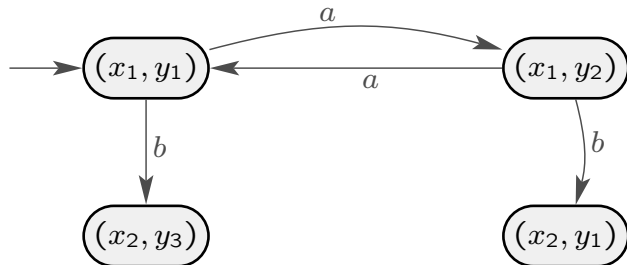
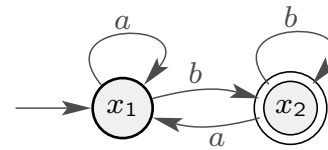
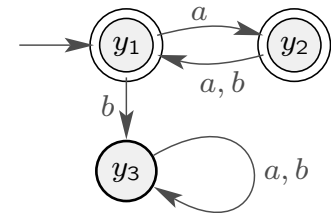
DFA M_1 for A_1 DFA M_2 for A_2 

Step 4: From (x_1, y_2) on input a , M_1 moves to x_1 , and M_2 moves to y_1 .

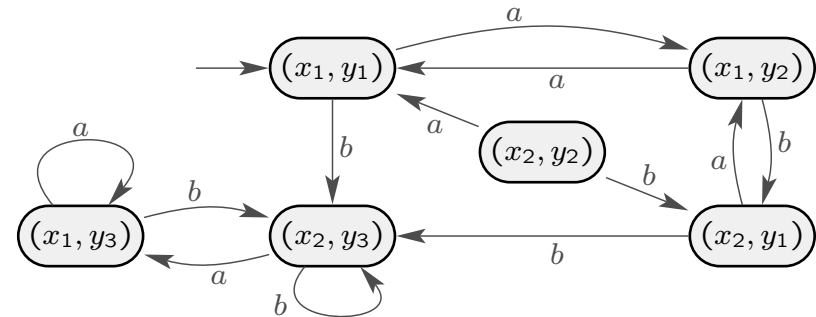
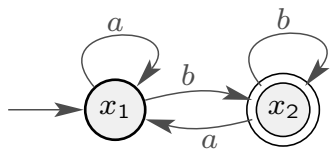
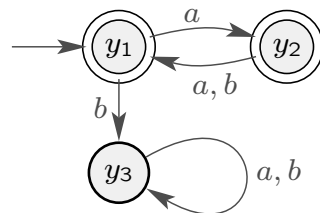


DFA M_1 for A_1 DFA M_2 for A_2 

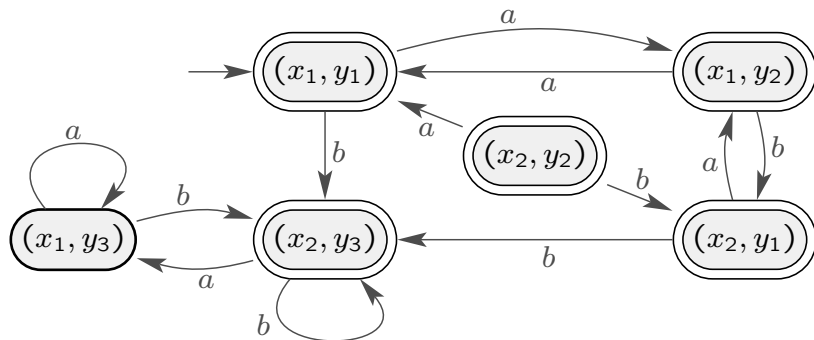
Step 5: From (x_1, y_2) on input b , M_1 moves to x_2 , and M_2 moves to y_1 , ...

DFA M_1 for A_1 DFA M_2 for A_2 

Continue until each state has outgoing edge for each symbol in Σ .

DFA M_1 for A_1 DFA M_2 for A_2 

Accept states for DFA M_3 for $A_1 \cup A_2$ have accept state from M_1 or M_2



Proof that Regular Languages Closed Under Union

- Suppose A_1 and A_2 are defined over the same alphabet Σ .
- Suppose A_1 recognized by DFA $M_1 = (Q_1, \Sigma, \delta_1, q_1, F_1)$.
- Suppose A_2 recognized by DFA $M_2 = (Q_2, \Sigma, \delta_2, q_2, F_2)$.
- Define DFA $M_3 = (Q_3, \Sigma, \delta_3, q_3, F_3)$ for $A_1 \cup A_2$ as follows:

- Set of states of M_3 is

$$Q_3 = Q_1 \times Q_2 = \{ (x, y) \mid x \in Q_1, y \in Q_2 \}.$$

- The alphabet of M_3 is Σ .

- M_3 has transition function $\delta_3 : Q_3 \times \Sigma \rightarrow Q_3$ such that for $x \in Q_1$, $y \in Q_2$, and $\ell \in \Sigma$,

$$\delta_3((x, y), \ell) = (\delta_1(x, \ell), \delta_2(y, \ell)).$$

- The start state of M_3 is

$$q_3 = (q_1, q_2) \in Q_3.$$

- The set of accept states of M_3 is

$$\begin{aligned} F_3 &= \{ (x, y) \in Q_1 \times Q_2 \mid x \in F_1 \text{ or } y \in F_2 \} \\ &= [F_1 \times Q_2] \cup [Q_1 \times F_2]. \end{aligned}$$

- Because $Q_3 = Q_1 \times Q_2$,
 - number of states in new machine M_3 is $|Q_3| = |Q_1| \cdot |Q_2|$.
- Thus, $|Q_3| < \infty$ because $|Q_1| < \infty$ and $|Q_2| < \infty$.

■

Remark:

- We can leave out a state $(x, y) \in Q_1 \times Q_2$ from Q_3 if (x, y) is not reachable from M_3 's initial state (q_1, q_2) .
- This would result in fewer states in Q_3 , but still we have $|Q_1| \cdot |Q_2|$ as an upper bound for $|Q_3|$; i.e., $|Q_3| \leq |Q_1| \cdot |Q_2| < \infty$.

Regular Languages Closed Under Intersection**Theorem**

The class of regular languages is closed under intersection.

- i.e., if A_1 and A_2 are regular languages, then so is $A_1 \cap A_2$.

Proof Idea:

- A_1 has DFA M_1 .
- A_2 has DFA M_2 .
- $w \in A_1 \cap A_2$ if and only if $w \in A_1$ **and** $w \in A_2$.
- $w \in A_1 \cap A_2$ if and only if w is accepted by both M_1 **and** M_2 .
- Need DFA M_3 to accept string w iff w is accepted by M_1 **and** M_2 .
- Construct M_3 to simultaneously keep track of where the input would be if it were running on both M_1 and M_2 .
- Accept string if and only if both M_1 **and** M_2 accept.

Regular Languages Closed Under Concatenation**Theorem 1.26**

Class of regular languages is closed under concatenation.

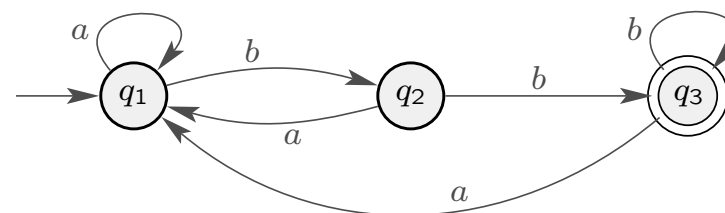
- i.e., if A_1 and A_2 are regular languages, then so is $A_1 \circ A_2$.

Remark:

- It is possible (but cumbersome) to directly construct a DFA for $A_1 \circ A_2$ given DFAs for A_1 and A_2 .
- There is a simpler way if we introduce a new type of machine.

Nondeterministic Finite Automata

- In any DFA, the next state the machine goes to on any given symbol is uniquely determined.



- This is why these machines are **deterministic**.
- Remember that the transition function in a DFA is defined as

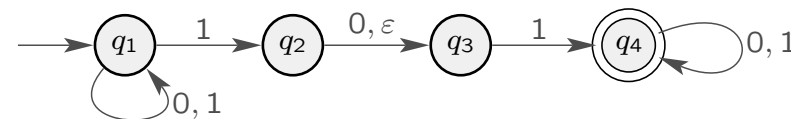
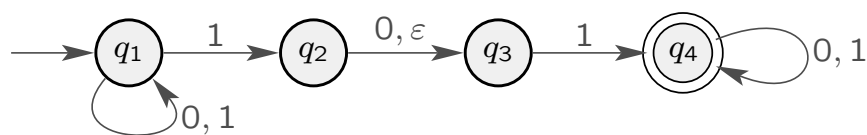
$$\delta : Q \times \Sigma \rightarrow Q.$$

- Because range of δ is Q , fcn δ always returns a **single state**.
- DFA has exactly one transition leaving each state for each symbol.
 - $\delta(q, \ell)$ tells what state the edge out of q labeled with ℓ leads to.

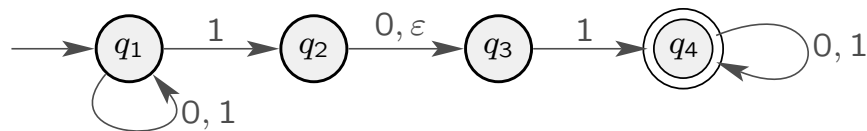
Nondeterminism

- **Nondeterministic finite automata (NFAs)** allow for several or no choices to exist for the next state on a given symbol.
- For a state q and symbol $\ell \in \Sigma$, NFA can have
 - multiple edges leaving q labelled with the same symbol ℓ
 - no edge leaving q labelled with symbol ℓ
 - edges leaving q labelled with ε
 - ▲ can take ε -edge without reading any symbol from input string.

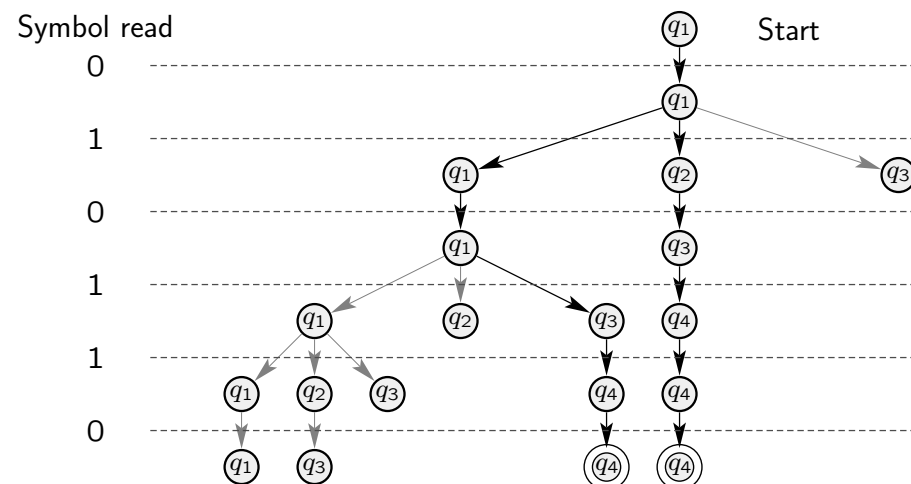
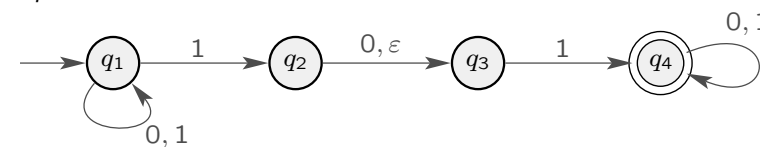
Example: NFA N_1 with alphabet $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$.

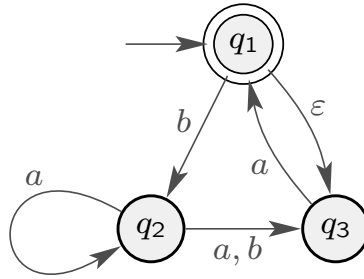


- Suppose NFA is in a state with multiple ways to proceed, e.g., in state q_1 and the next symbol in input string is 1.
- The machine splits into multiple copies of itself (threads).
 - Each copy proceeds with computation independently of others.
 - NFA may be in a **set of states**, instead of a single state.
 - NFA follows all possible computation paths in parallel.
 - If a copy is in a state and next input symbol doesn't appear on any outgoing edge from the state, then the copy **dies** or **crashes**.
- If **any** copy ends in an accept state after reading entire input string, the NFA **accepts** the string.
- If **no** copy ends in an accept state after reading entire input string, then NFA does not accept (**rejects**) the string.



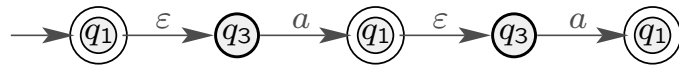
- Similarly, if a state with an ε -transition is encountered,
 - without reading an input symbol, NFA splits into multiple copies, each one following an exiting ε -transition (or staying put).
 - Each copy proceeds independently of other copies.
 - NFA follows all possible paths in parallel.
 - NFA proceeds **nondeterministically** as before.
- What happens on input string 010110 ?



Example: NFA N 

- N accepts strings $\varepsilon, a, aa, baa, baba, \dots$

- e.g., $aa = \varepsilon a \varepsilon a$



- N does not accept (i.e., rejects) strings b, ba, bb, bbb, \dots

Formal Definition of NFA

Definition: For an alphabet Σ , define $\Sigma_\varepsilon = \Sigma \cup \{\varepsilon\}$.

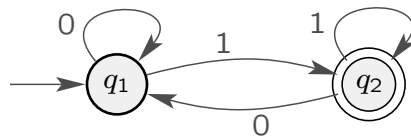
- Σ_ε is set of possible labels on NFA edges.

Definition: A **nondeterministic finite automaton (NFA)** is a 5-tuple $(Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$, where

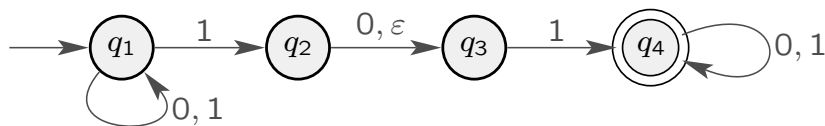
1. Q is a finite set of states
2. Σ is an alphabet
3. $\delta : Q \times \Sigma_\varepsilon \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(Q)$ is the transition function, where
 - $\mathcal{P}(Q)$ is the power set of Q
 - δ defines label on each edge.
4. $q_0 \in Q$ is the start state
5. $F \subseteq Q$ is the set of accept states.

Difference Between DFA and NFA

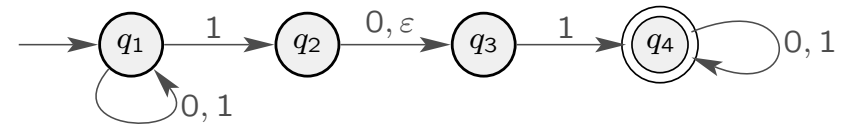
- DFA has transition function $\delta : Q \times \Sigma \rightarrow Q$.



- NFA has transition function $\delta : Q \times \Sigma_\varepsilon \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(Q)$.
 - Returns a **set of states** rather than a single state.
 - Allows for ε -transitions because $\Sigma_\varepsilon = \Sigma \cup \{\varepsilon\}$.
 - For state $q \in Q$ and $\ell \in \Sigma_\varepsilon$, $\delta(q, \ell)$ is set of states where edges out of q labeled with ℓ lead to.



- **Remark:** Note that every DFA is also an NFA.



Formal description of above NFA $N = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_1, F)$

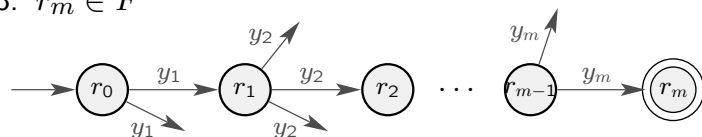
- $Q = \{q_1, q_2, q_3, q_4\}$ is the set of states
- $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$ is the alphabet
- Transition function $\delta : Q \times \Sigma_\varepsilon \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(Q)$

	0	1	ε
q_1	$\{q_1\}$	$\{q_1, q_2\}$	\emptyset
q_2	$\{q_3\}$	\emptyset	$\{q_3\}$
q_3	\emptyset	$\{q_4\}$	\emptyset
q_4	$\{q_4\}$	$\{q_4\}$	\emptyset

- q_1 is the start state
- $F = \{q_4\}$ is the set of accept states

Formal Definition of NFA Computation

- Let $N = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$ be an NFA and $w \in \Sigma^*$.
- Then N **accepts** w if
 - we can write w as $w = y_1 y_2 \cdots y_m$ for some $m \geq 0$, where each $y_i \in \Sigma_\epsilon$, and
 - there is a sequence of states $r_0, r_1, r_2, \dots, r_m$ in Q such that
 - $r_0 = q_0$
 - $r_{i+1} \in \delta(r_i, y_{i+1})$ for each $i = 0, 1, 2, \dots, m-1$
 - $r_m \in F$



Definition: The set of all input strings that are accepted by NFA N is the **language recognized by** N and is denoted by $L(N)$.

Equivalence of DFAs and NFAs

Definition: Two machines (of any types) are **equivalent** if they recognize the same language.

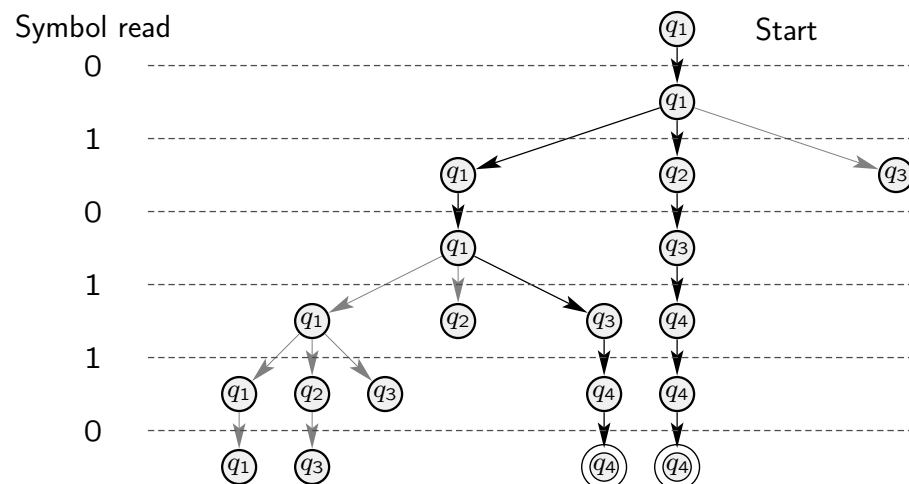
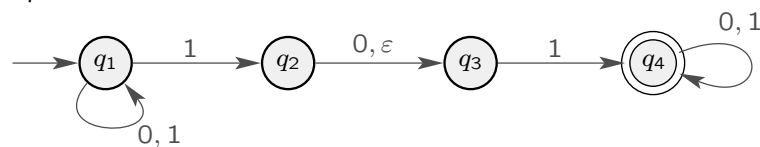
Theorem 1.39

Every NFA N has an equivalent DFA M .

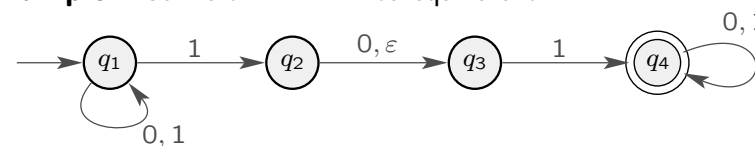
- i.e., if N is some NFA, then \exists DFA M such that $L(M) = L(N)$.

Proof Idea:

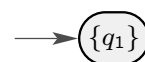
- NFA N splits into multiple copies of itself on nondeterministic moves.
- NFA can be in a **set of states** at any one time.
- Build DFA M whose set of states is the **power set** of the set of states of NFA N , keeping track of where N can be at any time.



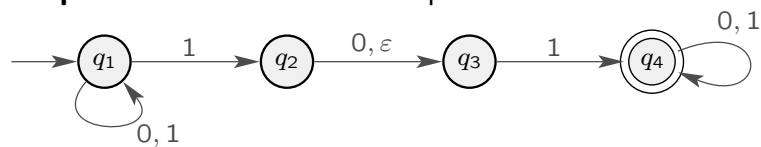
Example: Convert NFA N into equivalent DFA.



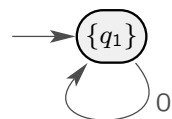
N 's start state q_1 has no ϵ -edges out, so DFA has start state $\{q_1\}$.



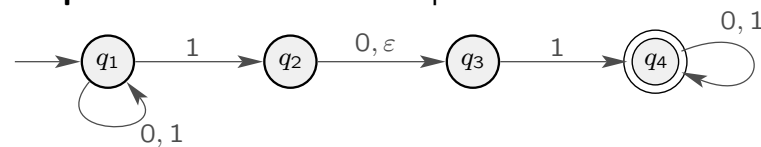
Example: Convert NFA N into equivalent DFA.



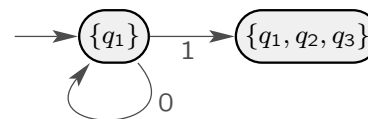
On reading 0 from states in $\{q_1\}$, can reach states $\{q_1\}$.



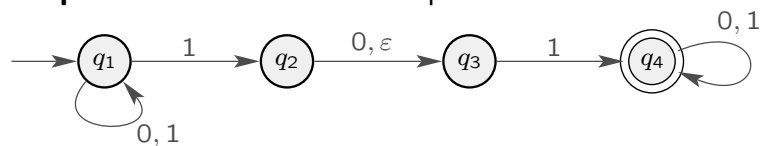
Example: Convert NFA N into equivalent DFA.



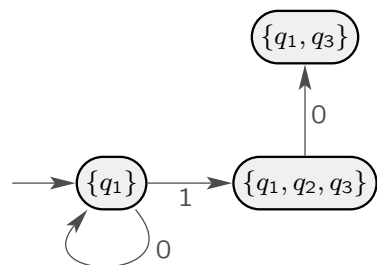
On reading 1 from states in $\{q_1\}$, can reach states $\{q_1, q_2, q_3\}$.



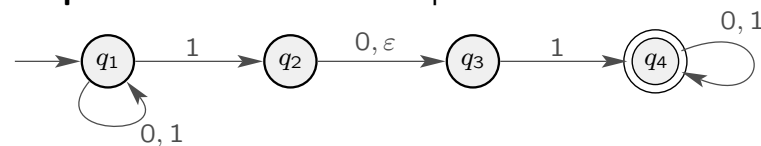
Example: Convert NFA N into equivalent DFA.



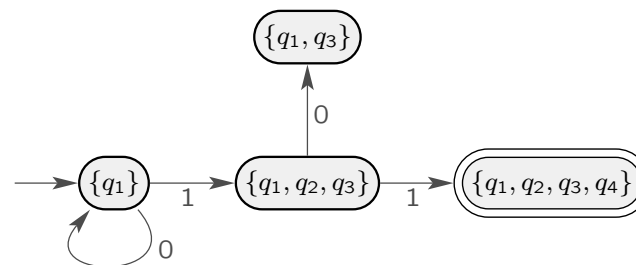
On reading 0 from states in $\{q_1, q_2, q_3\}$, can reach states $\{q_1, q_3\}$.



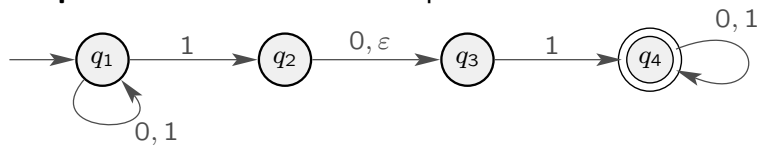
Example: Convert NFA N into equivalent DFA.



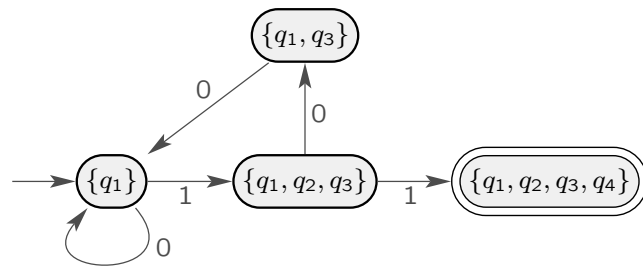
On reading 1 from states in $\{q_1, q_2, q_3\}$, can reach $\{q_1, q_2, q_3, q_4\}$.



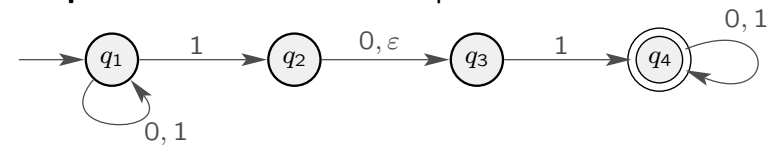
Example: Convert NFA N into equivalent DFA.



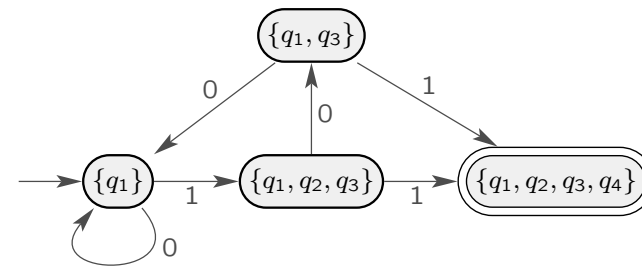
On reading 0 from states in $\{q_1, q_3\}$, can reach states $\{q_1\}$.



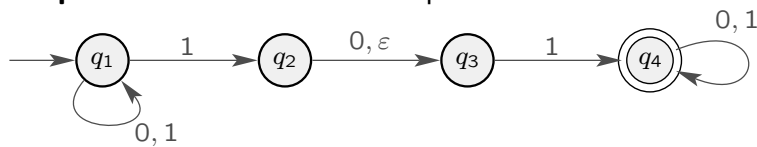
Example: Convert NFA N into equivalent DFA.



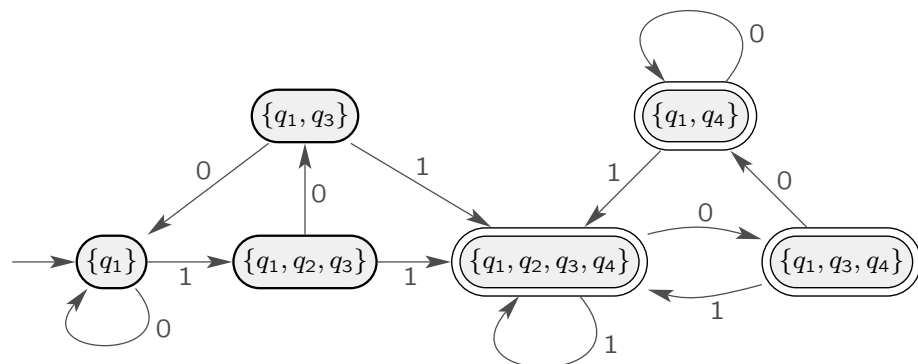
On reading 1 from states in $\{q_1, q_3\}$, can reach states $\{q_1, q_2, q_3, q_4\}$.



Example: Convert NFA N into equivalent DFA.

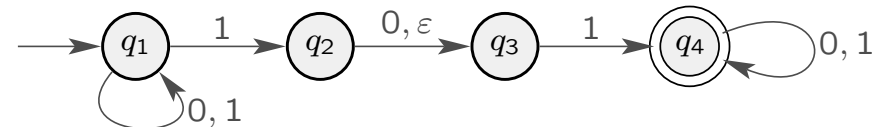


Continue until each DFA state has a 0-edge and a 1-edge leaving it.
DFA accept states have ≥ 1 accept states from N .



Proof. (Theorem 1.39)

- Consider NFA $N = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$:



- Definition:** The ε -closure of a set of states $R \subseteq Q$ is

$$E(R) = \{q \mid q \text{ can be reached from } R \text{ by travelling over 0 or more } \varepsilon \text{ transitions}\}.$$

- e.g., $E(\{q_1, q_2\}) = \{q_1, q_2, q_3\}$.

Convert NFA to Equivalent DFA

Given NFA $N = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$, build an equivalent DFA $M = (Q', \Sigma, \delta', q'_0, F')$ as follows:

1. Calculate the ε -closure of every subset $R \subseteq Q$.
2. Define DFA M 's set of states $Q' = \mathcal{P}(Q)$.
3. Define DFA M 's start state $q'_0 = E(\{q_0\})$.
4. Define DFA M 's set of accept states F' to be all DFA states in Q' that include an accept state of NFA N ; i.e.,

$$F' = \{R \in Q' \mid R \cap F \neq \emptyset\}.$$

5. Calculate DFA M 's transition function $\delta' : Q' \times \Sigma \rightarrow Q'$ as

$$\delta'(R, \ell) = \{q \in Q \mid q \in E(\delta(r, \ell)) \text{ for some } r \in R\}$$

for $R \in Q' = \mathcal{P}(Q)$ and $\ell \in \Sigma$.

6. Can leave out any state $q' \in Q'$ not reachable from q'_0 ,
e.g., $\{q_2, q_3\}$ in our previous example.

Regular \iff NFA

Corollary 1.40

Language A is regular if and only if some NFA recognizes A .

Proof.

(\Rightarrow)

- If A is regular, then there is a DFA for it.
- But every DFA is also an NFA, so there is an NFA for A .

(\Leftarrow)

- Follows from previous theorem (1.39), which showed that every NFA has an equivalent DFA.

Class of Regular Languages Closed Under Union

Remark: Can use fact that every NFA has an equivalent DFA to simplify the proof that the class of regular languages is closed under union.

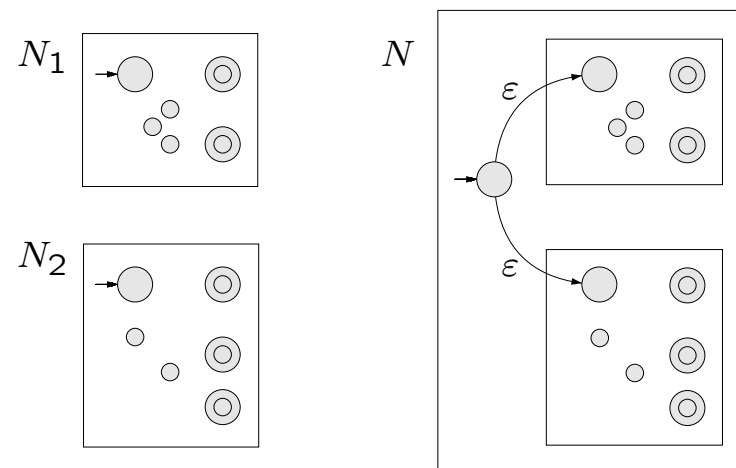
Remark: Recall **union**:

$$A_1 \cup A_2 = \{w \mid w \in A_1 \text{ or } w \in A_2\}.$$

Theorem 1.45

The class of regular languages is closed under union.

Proof Idea: Given NFAs N_1 and N_2 for A_1 and A_2 , resp., construct NFA N for $A_1 \cup A_2$ as follows:



Construct NFA for $A_1 \cup A_2$ from NFAs for A_1 and A_2

- Let A_1 be language recognized by NFA $N_1 = (Q_1, \Sigma, \delta_1, q_1, F_1)$.
- Let A_2 be language recognized by NFA $N_2 = (Q_2, \Sigma, \delta_2, q_2, F_2)$.
- Construct NFA $N = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$ for $A_1 \cup A_2$:
 - $Q = \{q_0\} \cup Q_1 \cup Q_2$ is set of states of N .
 - q_0 is start state of N .
 - Set of accept states $F = F_1 \cup F_2$.
 - For $q \in Q$ and $a \in \Sigma_\varepsilon$, transition function δ satisfies

$$\delta(q, a) = \begin{cases} \delta_1(q, a) & \text{if } q \in Q_1, \\ \delta_2(q, a) & \text{if } q \in Q_2, \\ \{q_1, q_2\} & \text{if } q = q_0 \text{ and } a = \varepsilon, \\ \emptyset & \text{if } q = q_0 \text{ and } a \neq \varepsilon. \end{cases}$$

Class of Regular Languages Closed Under Concatenation

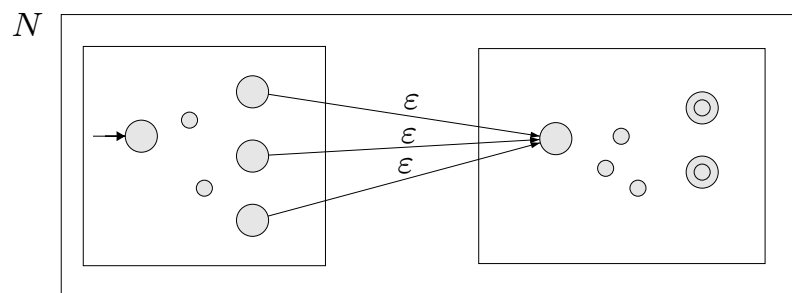
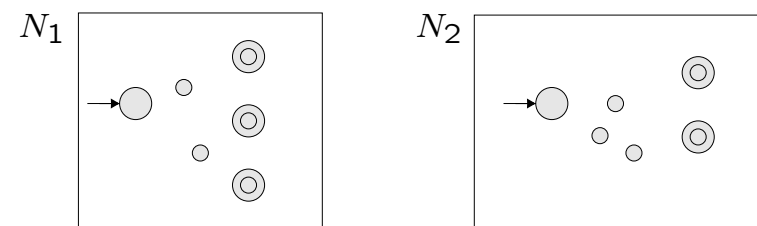
Remark: Recall **concatenation**:

$$A \circ B = \{vw \mid v \in A, w \in B\}.$$

Theorem 1.47

The class of regular languages is closed under concatenation.

Proof Idea: Given NFAs N_1 and N_2 for A_1 and A_2 , resp., construct NFA N for $A_1 \circ A_2$ as follows:



Construct NFA for $A_1 \circ A_2$ from NFAs for A_1 and A_2

- Let A_1 be language recognized by NFA $N_1 = (Q_1, \Sigma, \delta_1, q_1, F_1)$.
- Let A_2 be language recognized by NFA $N_2 = (Q_2, \Sigma, \delta_2, q_2, F_2)$.
- Construct NFA $N = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_1, F_2)$ for $A_1 \circ A_2$:
 - $Q = Q_1 \cup Q_2$ is set of states of N .
 - Start state of N is q_1 , which is start state of N_1 .
 - Set of accept states of N is F_2 , which is same as for N_2 .
 - For $q \in Q$ and $a \in \Sigma_\varepsilon$, transition function δ satisfies

$$\delta(q, a) = \begin{cases} \delta_1(q, a) & \text{if } q \in Q_1 - F_1, \\ \delta_1(q, a) & \text{if } q \in F_1 \text{ and } a \neq \varepsilon, \\ \delta_1(q, a) \cup \{q_2\} & \text{if } q \in F_1 \text{ and } a = \varepsilon, \\ \delta_2(q, a) & \text{if } q \in Q_2. \end{cases}$$

Class of Regular Languages Closed Under Star

Remark: Recall **Kleene star**:

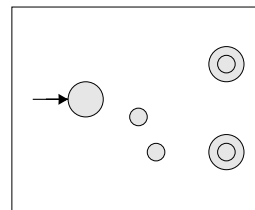
$$A^* = \{x_1 x_2 \cdots x_k \mid k \geq 0 \text{ and each } x_i \in A\}.$$

Theorem 1.49

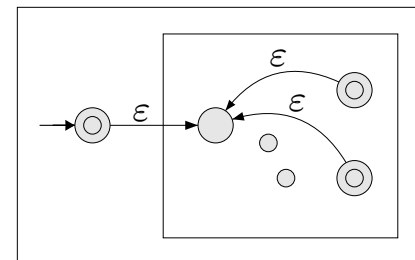
The class of regular languages is closed under the Kleene-star operation.

Proof Idea: Given NFA N_1 for A , construct NFA N for A^* as follows:

N_1



N



Construct NFA for A^* from NFA for A

- Let A be language recognized by NFA $N_1 = (Q_1, \Sigma, \delta_1, q_1, F_1)$.
- Construct NFA $N = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$ for A^* :
 - $Q = \{q_0\} \cup Q_1$ is set of states of N .
 - q_0 is start state of N .
 - $F = \{q_0\} \cup F_1$ is the set of accept states of N .
 - For $q \in Q$ and $a \in \Sigma_\epsilon$, transition function δ satisfies

$$\delta(q, a) = \begin{cases} \delta_1(q, a) & \text{if } q \in Q_1 - F_1, \\ \delta_1(q, a) & \text{if } q \in F_1 \text{ and } a \neq \epsilon, \\ \delta_1(q, a) \cup \{q_1\} & \text{if } q \in F_1 \text{ and } a = \epsilon, \\ \{q_1\} & \text{if } q = q_0 \text{ and } a = \epsilon, \\ \emptyset & \text{if } q = q_0 \text{ and } a \neq \epsilon. \end{cases}$$

Regular Expressions

- Regular expressions are a way of describing certain languages.
- Consider alphabet $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$.
- Shorthand notation:
 - 0 means $\{0\}$
 - 1 means $\{1\}$
- Regular expressions use above shorthand notation and operations
 - union \cup
 - concatenation \circ
 - Kleene star $*$
- When using concatenation, will often leave out operator "o".

Interpreting Regular Expressions

Example: $0 \cup 1$ means $\{0\} \cup \{1\}$, which equals $\{0, 1\}$.

Example:

- Consider $(0 \cup 1)0^*$, which means $(0 \cup 1) \circ 0^*$.
- This equals $\{0, 1\} \circ \{0\}^*$.
- Recall $\{0\}^* = \{\varepsilon, 0, 00, 000, \dots\}$.
- Thus, $\{0, 1\} \circ \{0\}^*$ is the set of strings that
 - start with symbol 0 or 1, and
 - followed by zero or more 0's.

Another Example of a Regular Expression

Example:

- $(0 \cup 1)^*$ means $(\{0\} \cup \{1\})^*$.
- This equals $\{0, 1\}^*$, which is the set of all possible strings over the alphabet $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$.
- When $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$, often use shorthand notation Σ to denote regular expression $(0 \cup 1)$.

Hierarchy of Operations in Regular Expressions

- In most programming languages,
 - multiplication has precedence over addition

$$2 + 3 \times 4 = 14$$
 - parentheses change usual order

$$(2 + 3) \times 4 = 20$$
 - exponentiation has precedence over multiplication and addition

$$4 + 2 \times 3^2 = ____, \quad 4 + (2 \times 3)^2 = ____.$$
- Order of precedence for the regular operations:
 1. Kleene star
 2. concatenation
 3. union
- Parentheses change usual order.

More Examples of Regular Expressions

Example: $00 \cup 101^*$ is language consisting of

- string 00
- strings that begin with 10 and followed by zero or more 1's.

Example: $0(0 \cup 101)^*$ is the language consisting of strings that

- start with 0
- concatenated to a string in $\{0, 101\}^*$.

For example, 0101001010 is in the language because

$$0101001010 = 0 \circ 101 \circ 0 \circ 0 \circ 101 \circ 0.$$

Formal Definition of Regular Expression

Definition: R is a **regular expression** with alphabet Σ if R is

1. a for some $a \in \Sigma$
2. ε
3. \emptyset
4. $(R_1 \cup R_2)$, where R_1 and R_2 are regular expressions
5. $(R_1) \circ (R_2)$, also denoted by $(R_1)(R_2)$, where R_1 and R_2 are regular expressions
6. $(R_1)^*$, where R_1 is a regular expression
7. (R_1) , where R_1 is a regular expression.

Can remove redundant parentheses, e.g., $((0) \cup (1))(1) \longrightarrow (0 \cup 1)1$.

Definition: If R is a regular expression, then $L(R)$ is the language **generated** (or **described** or **defined**) by R .

Examples of Regular Expressions

Examples: For $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$,

1. $(0 \cup 1) = \{0, 1\}$
2. $0^*10^* = \{w \mid w \text{ has exactly a single } 1\}$
3. $\Sigma^*1\Sigma^* = \{w \mid w \text{ has at least one } 1\}$
4. $\Sigma^*001\Sigma^* = \{w \mid w \text{ contains } 001 \text{ as a substring}\}$
5. $(\Sigma\Sigma)^* = \{w \mid |w| \text{ is even}\}$
6. $(\Sigma\Sigma\Sigma)^* = \{w \mid |w| \text{ is a multiple of three}\}$
7. $0\Sigma^*0 \cup 1\Sigma^*1 \cup 0 \cup 1 = \{w \mid w \text{ starts and ends with the same symbol}\}$
8. $1^*\emptyset = \emptyset$,
anything concatenated with \emptyset is equal to \emptyset .
9. $\emptyset^* = \{\varepsilon\}$

Examples:

1. $R \cup \emptyset = \emptyset \cup R = R$
2. $R \circ \varepsilon = \varepsilon \circ R = R$
3. $R \circ \emptyset = \emptyset \circ R = \emptyset$
4. $R_1(R_2 \cup R_3) = R_1R_2 \cup R_1R_3$.
Concatenation distributes over union.

Example:

- Define EVEN-EVEN over alphabet $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$ as strings with an even number of a 's and an even number of b 's.
- For example, $aababbbaababab \in \text{EVEN-EVEN}$.
- Regular expression:

$$(aa \cup bb \cup (ab \cup ba)(aa \cup bb)^*(ab \cup ba))^*$$

Kleene's Theorem

Theorem 1.54

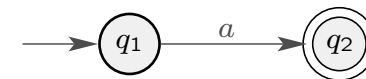
Language A is regular iff A has a regular expression.

Lemma 1.55

If a language is described by a regular expression, then it is regular.

Proof. Procedure to convert regular expression R into NFA N :

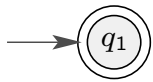
1. If $R = a$ for some $a \in \Sigma$, then $L(R) = \{a\}$, which has NFA



$N = (\{q_1, q_2\}, \Sigma, \delta, q_1, \{q_2\})$ where transition function δ

- $\delta(q_1, a) = \{q_2\}$,
- $\delta(r, b) = \emptyset$ for any state $r \neq q_1$ or any $b \in \Sigma_\varepsilon$ with $b \neq a$.

2. If $R = \varepsilon$, then $L(R) = \{\varepsilon\}$, which has NFA



$N = (\{q_1\}, \Sigma, \delta, q_1, \{q_1\})$ where

- $\delta(r, b) = \emptyset$ for any state r and any $b \in \Sigma_\varepsilon$.

3. If $R = \emptyset$, then $L(R) = \emptyset$, which has NFA



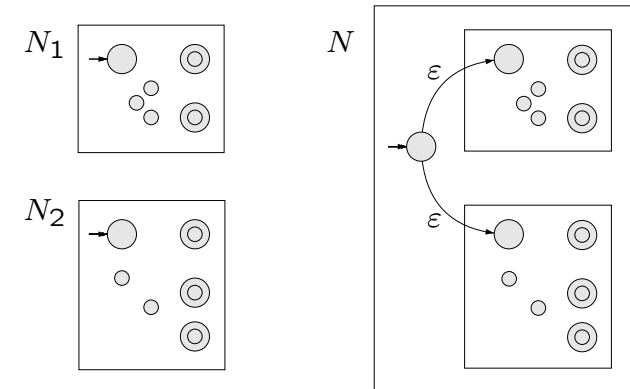
$N = (\{q_1\}, \Sigma, \delta, q_1, \emptyset)$ where

- $\delta(r, b) = \emptyset$ for any state r and any $b \in \Sigma_\varepsilon$.

4. If $R = (R_1 \cup R_2)$ and

- $L(R_1)$ has NFA N_1
- $L(R_2)$ has NFA N_2 ,

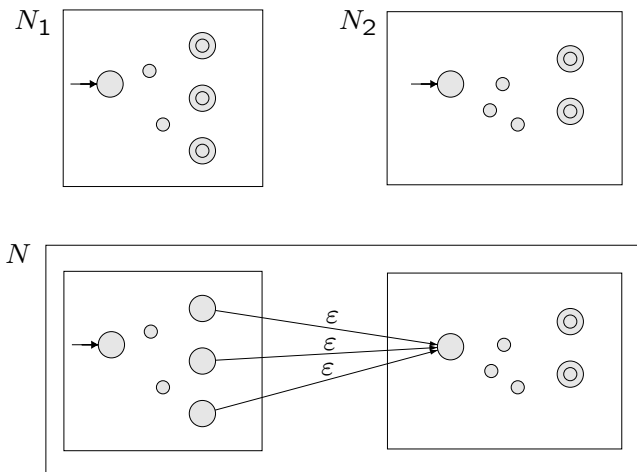
then $L(R) = L(R_1) \cup L(R_2)$ has NFA N below:



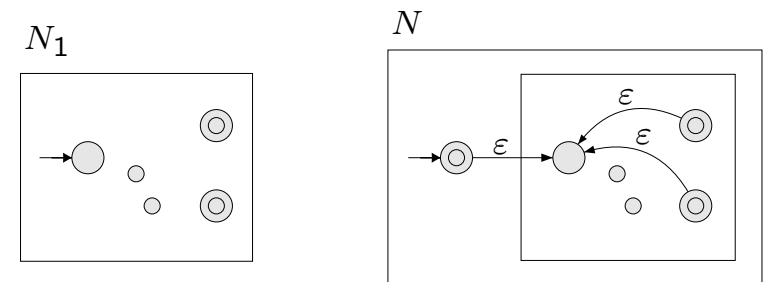
5. If $R = (R_1) \circ (R_2)$ and

- $L(R_1)$ has NFA N_1
- $L(R_2)$ has NFA N_2 ,

then $L(R) = L(R_1) \circ L(R_2)$ has NFA N below:

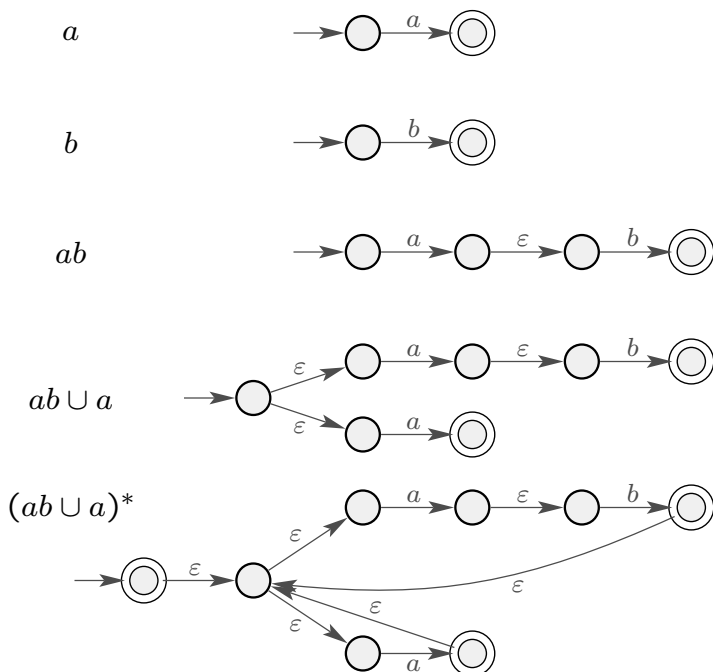


6. If $R = (R_1)^*$ and $L(R_1)$ has NFA N_1 ,
then $L(R) = (L(R_1))^*$ has NFA N below:



- Thus, can convert any regular expression R into an NFA.
- Hence, Corollary 1.40 implies that the language $L(R)$ is regular.

Ex: Build NFA for $(ab \cup a)^*$



\exists other correct NFAs

More of Kleene's Theorem

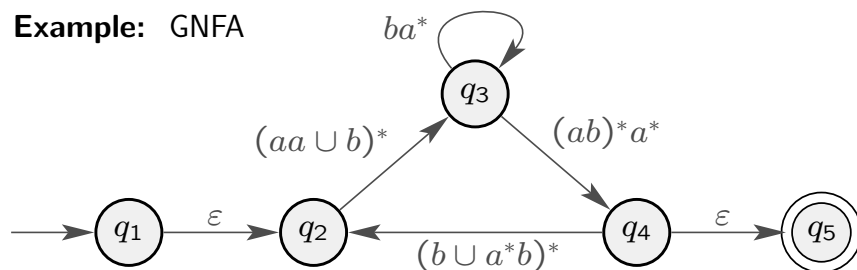
Lemma 1.60

If a language is regular, then it has a regular expression.

Proof Idea:

- Convert DFA into regular expression.
- Use **generalized NFA (GNFA)**, which is an NFA with following modifications:
 - no edges into start state.
 - single accept state, with no edges out of it.
 - labels on edges are **regular expressions** instead of elements from Σ_ϵ .
 - ▲ can traverse edge on any string generated by its regular expression.

Example: GNFA



- Can move from
 - q_1 to q_2 on string ϵ .
 - q_2 to q_3 on string $aabaa$.
 - q_3 to q_3 on string b or $baaaa$.
 - q_3 to q_4 on string ϵ .
 - q_4 to q_5 on string ϵ .
- GNFA accepts string $\epsilon \circ aabaa \circ b \circ baaa \circ \epsilon \circ \epsilon = aabaabbaaa$.

Method to convert DFA into regular expression

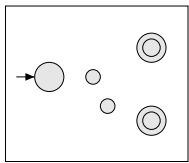
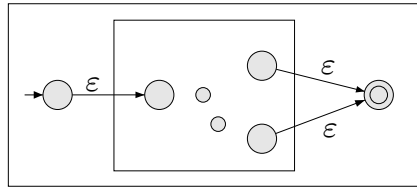
1. First convert DFA into equivalent GNFA.
2. Apply following iterative procedure:

- In each step, eliminate one state from GNFA.
 - When state is eliminated, need to account for every path that was previously possible.
 - Can eliminate states in any order but end result will be different.
 - Never delete start or (unique) accept state.
- Done when only 2 states remaining: start and accept.
 - Label on remaining arc between start and accept states is a regular expression for language of original DFA.

Remark: Method also can convert NFA into a regular expression.

1. Convert DFA $M = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_1, F)$ into equivalent GNFA G .

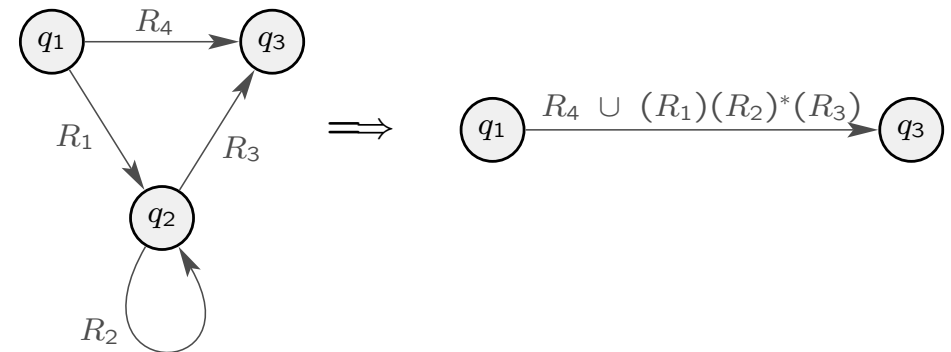
- Introduce new start state s .
 - Add edge from s to q_1 with label ε .
 - Make q_1 no longer the start state.
- Introduce new accept state t .
 - Add edge with label ε from each state $q \in F$ to t .
 - Make each state originally in F no longer an accept state.
- Change edge labels into regular expressions.
 - e.g., " a, b " becomes " $a \cup b$ ".

DFA M GNFA G 

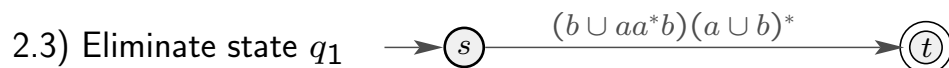
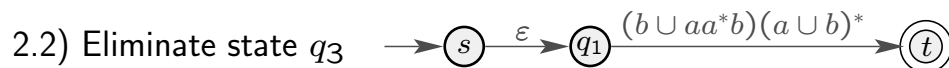
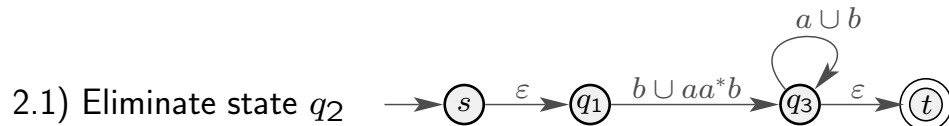
2. Iteratively eliminate a state from GNFA G .

- Need to take into account all possible previous paths.
- Never eliminate new start state s or new accept state t .

Example: Eliminate state q_2 , which has no other in/out edges.

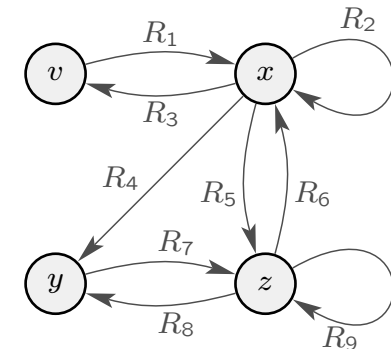


Example: Convert DFA M into regular expression.



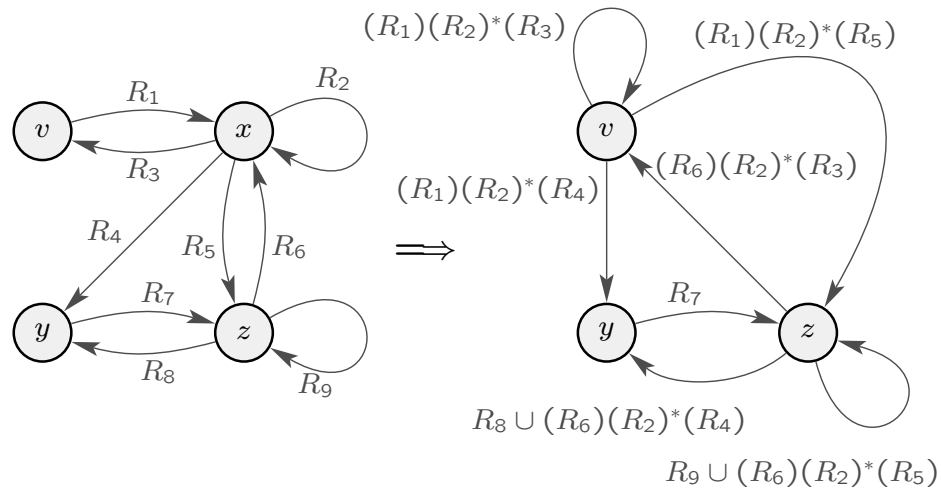
Example:

Eliminate state x , which has no other in/out edges



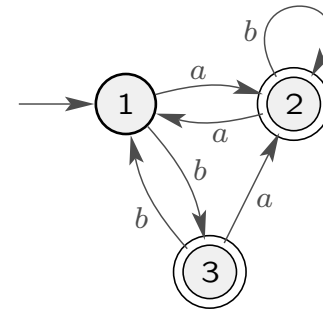
- Let $C = \{v, z\}$, which are states with arcs **into** x (except for x).
- Let $D = \{v, y, z\}$, which are states with arcs **from** x (except for x).
- When we eliminate x , need to account for paths
 - from each state in C directly into x
 - then from x directly to x
 - finally from x directly to each state in D

- Recall $C = \{v, z\}$ and $D = \{v, y, z\}$.
- So eliminating state x gives

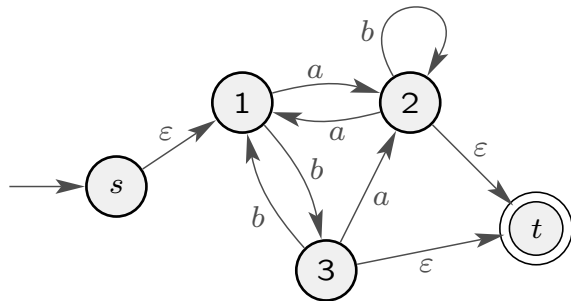
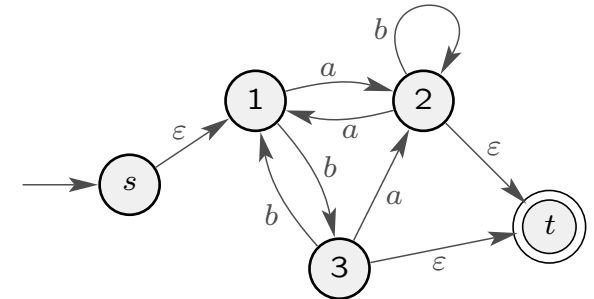


- e.g., for path $v \rightarrow x \rightarrow y$, add arc from v to y with label $(R_1)(R_2)^*(R_4)$

Example: Convert DFA into Regular Expression



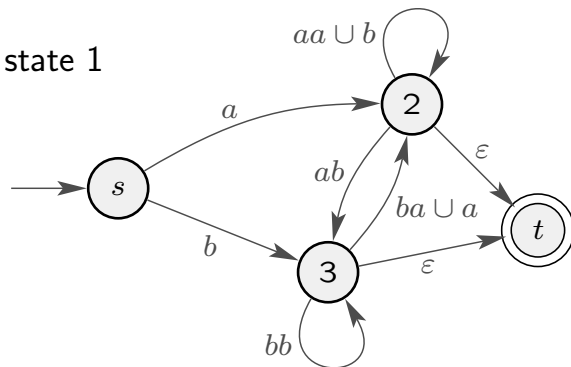
Step 1. Convert DFA into GNFA



Step 2.1. Eliminate state 1

$$C = \{s, 2, 3\}$$

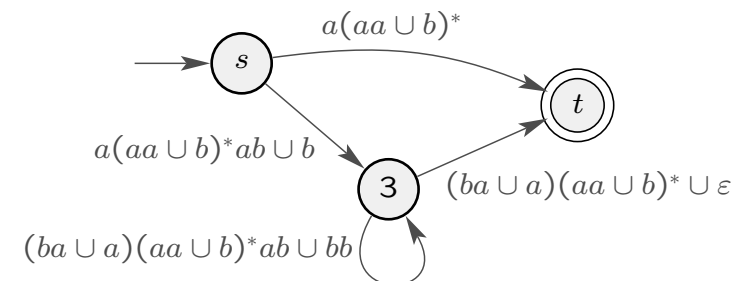
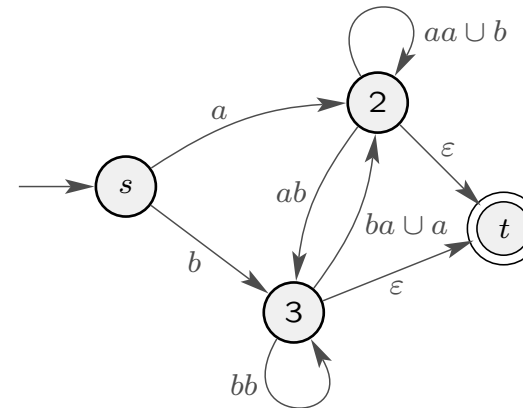
$$D = \{2, 3\}$$

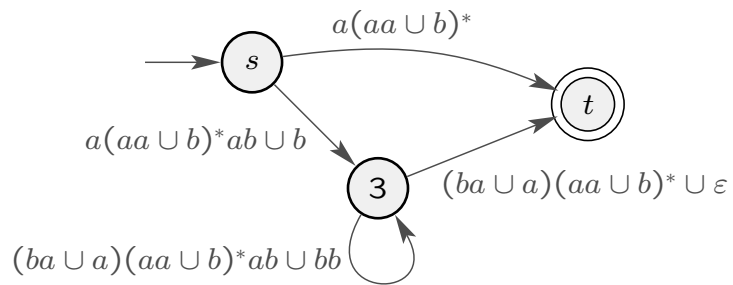


Step 2.2. Eliminate state 2

$$C = \{s, 3\}$$

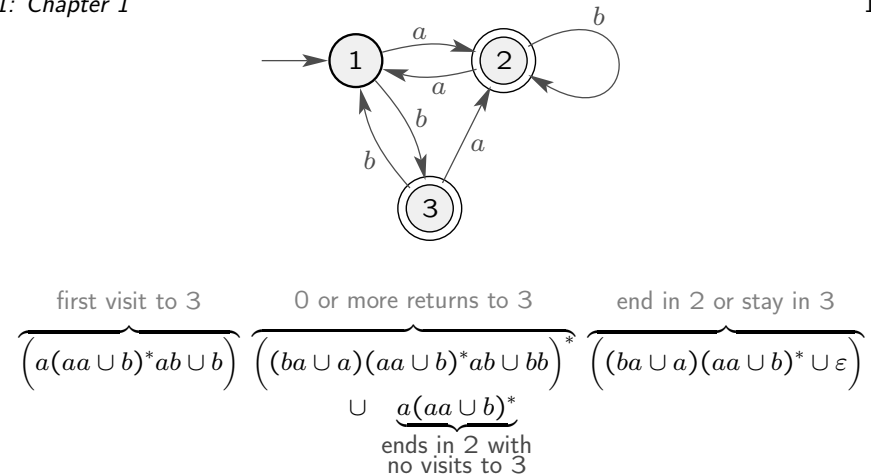
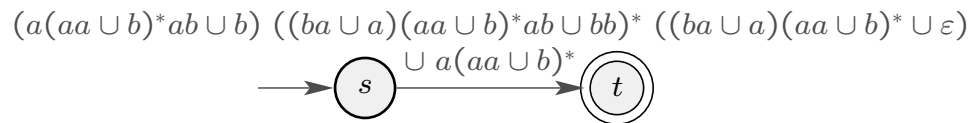
$$D = \{3, t\}$$





Step 2.3. Eliminate state 3

$$C = \{s\}, \quad D = \{t\}$$



- Regular expression accounts for all paths starting in start state 1 and ending in accepting state (2 or 3):
 - visit state 3 at least once (ending in 2 or 3), **or**
 - never visit state 3 (ending in 2).

Finite Languages are Regular

Theorem

If A is a finite language, then A is regular.

Proof.

- Because A finite, we can write

$$A = \{w_1, w_2, \dots, w_n\}$$

for some $n < \infty$.

- A regular expression for A is then

$$R = w_1 \cup w_2 \cup \dots \cup w_n$$

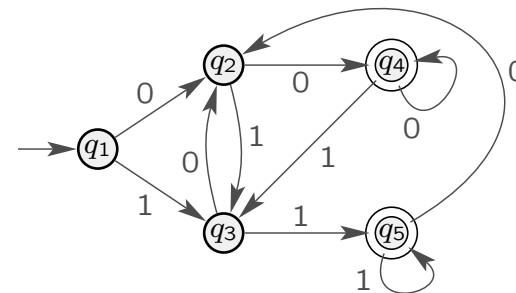
- Kleene's Theorem then implies A has a DFA, so A is regular.

Remark: The converse is **not** true.

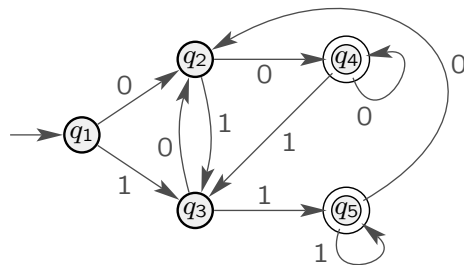
e.g., 1^* generates a regular language, but it's infinite.

Pumping Lemma for Regular Languages

Example: DFA with alphabet $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$ for language A .

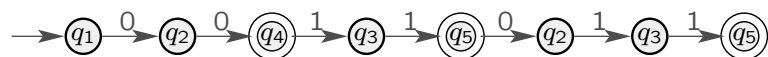


- DFA has 5 states.
- DFA accepts string $s = 0011$, which has length 4.
- On $s = 0011$, DFA visits all of the states.

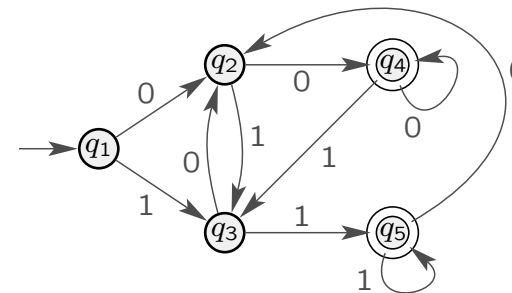


- For any string s with $|s| \geq 5$, guaranteed to visit some state twice by the **pigeonhole principle**.

- String $s = 0011011$ is accepted by DFA, i.e., $s \in A$.



- q_2 is first state visited twice.
- Using q_2 , divide string s into 3 parts x, y, z such that $s = xyz$.
 - $x = 0$, the symbols read until first visit to q_2 .
 - $y = 0110$, the symbols read from first to second visit to q_2 .
 - $z = 11$, the symbols read after second visit to q_2 .



- Recall DFA accepts string

$$s = \underbrace{0}_x \underbrace{0110}_y \underbrace{11}_z.$$

- DFA also accepts strings

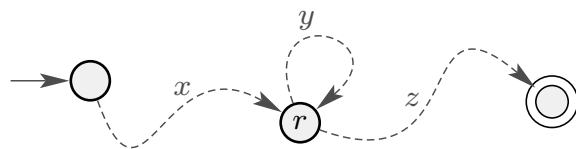
$$xyyz = \underbrace{0}_x \underbrace{0110}_y \underbrace{0110}_y \underbrace{11}_z,$$

$$xyyyz = \underbrace{0}_x \underbrace{0110}_y \underbrace{0110}_y \underbrace{0110}_y \underbrace{11}_z,$$

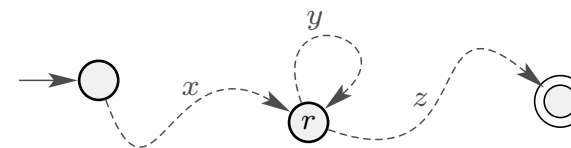
$$xz = \underbrace{0}_x \underbrace{11}_z.$$

- String $xy^iz \in A$ for each $i \geq 0$.

- More generally, consider
 - language A with DFA M having p states,
 - string $s \in A$ with $|s| \geq p$.
- When processing s on M , guaranteed to visit some state twice.
- Let r be first state visited twice.
- Using state r , can divide s as $s = xyz$.
 - x are symbols read until first visit to r .
 - y are symbols read from first to second visit to r .
 - z are symbols read from second visit to r to end of s .



Pumping y



- Because y corresponds to starting in r and returning to r ,

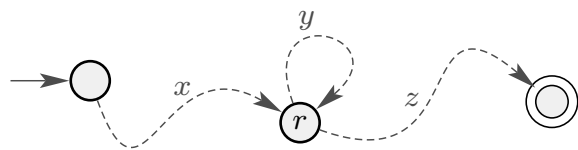
$$xy^iz \in A \text{ for each } i \geq 1.$$

- Also, note $xy^0z = xz \in A$, so

$$xy^iz \in A \text{ for each } i \geq 0.$$

- $|y| > 0$ because

- y corresponds to starting in r and coming back;
- this consumes at least one symbol (because DFA), so y can't be empty.

Length of xy 

- $|xy| \leq p$, where p is number of states in DFA, because
 - xy are symbols read up to second visit to r .
 - Because r is the first state visited twice, all states visited before second visit to r are unique.
 - So just before visiting r for second time, DFA visited at most $p - 1$ states, which corresponds to reading at most $p - 1$ symbols.
 - The second visit to r , which is after reading 1 more symbol, corresponds to reading at most p symbols.

Pumping Lemma

Theorem 1.70

If A is regular language, then \exists number p (pumping length) where, if $s \in A$ with $|s| \geq p$, then s can be split into 3 pieces, $s = xyz$, satisfying the conditions

1. $xy^iz \in A$ for each $i \geq 0$,
2. $|y| > 0$, and
3. $|xy| \leq p$.

Remarks:

- y^i denotes i copies of y concatenated together, and $y^0 = \epsilon$.
- $|y| > 0$ means $y \neq \epsilon$.
- $|xy| \leq p$ means x and y together have no more than p symbols total.

Understanding the Pumping Lemma

If $\overbrace{A \text{ is regular language}}^{M_1}$, then \exists number p (pumping length) where,

if $\overbrace{s \in A \text{ with } |s| \geq p}^{M_3}$, then

s can be split into 3 pieces, $s = xyz$, satisfying conditions

1. $xy^iz \in A$ for each $i \geq 0$,
2. $|y| > 0$, and
3. $|xy| \leq p$.

$\left. \vphantom{\begin{matrix} 1. \\ 2. \\ 3. \end{matrix}} \right\} M_4$

if (M_1 is true), then
 M_2 is true
 if (M_3 is true), then
 M_4 is true
 endif
 endif

Nonregular Languages

Definition: Language is **nonregular** if there is no DFA for it.

Remarks:

- Pumping Lemma (PL) is a result about regular languages.
- But PL mainly used to prove that certain language A is **nonregular**.
- Typically done using **proof by contradiction**.
 - Assume language A is regular.
 - PL says that all strings $s \in A$ that are at least a certain length must satisfy some conditions.
 - By appropriately choosing $s \in A$, will eventually get contradiction.
 - PL: **can** split s into $s = xyz$ satisfying **all** of Conditions 1–3.
 - To get contradiction, show **cannot** split $s = xyz$ satisfying 1–3.
 - ▲ Show **all** splits satisfying 2–3 violate Condition 1.
 - Because Condition 3 of PL states $|xy| \leq p$, often choose $s \in A$ so that all of its first p symbols are the same.

Language $A = \{0^n 1^n \mid n \geq 0\}$ is Nonregular**Proof.**

- Suppose A is regular, so PL implies A has “pumping length” p .
- Consider string $s = 0^p 1^p \in A$.
- $|s| = 2p \geq p$, so Pumping Lemma will hold.
- So **can** split s into 3 pieces $s = xyz$ satisfying conditions
 1. $xy^i z \in A$ for each $i \geq 0$,
 2. $|y| > 0$, and
 3. $|xy| \leq p$.
- To get contradiction, must show **cannot** split $s = xyz$ satisfying 1–3.
 - Show **all** splits $s = xyz$ satisfying Conditions 2 and 3 will violate 1.
- Because the first p symbols of $s = \underbrace{00 \dots 0}_p \underbrace{11 \dots 1}_p$ are all 0's
 - Condition 3 implies that x and y consist of only 0's.
 - z will be the rest of the 0's, followed by all p 1's.
- **Key:** y has some 0's, and z contains all the 1's (and maybe some 0's), so pumping y changes # of 0's but not # of 1's.

- So we have

$$\begin{aligned} x &= 0^j \text{ for some } j \geq 0, \\ y &= 0^k \text{ for some } k \geq 0, \\ z &= 0^m 1^p \text{ for some } m \geq 0 \end{aligned}$$

- $s = xyz$ implies

$$0^p 1^p = 0^j 0^k 0^m 1^p = 0^{j+k+m} 1^p,$$

so $j + k + m = p$.

- Condition 2 states that $|y| > 0$, so $k > 0$.
- Condition 1 implies $xyyz \in A$, but

$$\begin{aligned} xyyz &= 0^j 0^k 0^k 0^m 1^p \\ &= 0^{j+k+k+m} 1^p \\ &= 0^{p+k} 1^p \notin A \end{aligned}$$

because $j + k + m = p$ and $k > 0$.

- **Contradiction**, so $A = \{0^n 1^n \mid n \geq 0\}$ is nonregular.

Language $B = \{ww \mid w \in \{0, 1\}^*\}$ is Nonregular**Proof.**

- Suppose B is regular, so PL implies B has “pumping length” p .
- Consider string $s = 0^p 1 0^p 1 \in B$.
- $|s| = 2p + 2 \geq p$, so Pumping Lemma will hold.
- So **can** split s into 3 pieces $s = xyz$ satisfying conditions
 1. $xy^i z \in B$ for each $i \geq 0$,
 2. $|y| > 0$, and
 3. $|xy| \leq p$.
- For contradiction, show **cannot** split $s = xyz$ so that 1–3 hold.
 - Show **all** splits $s = xyz$ satisfying Conditions 2 and 3 will violate 1.
- Because first p symbols of $s = \underbrace{00 \dots 0}_p 1 \underbrace{00 \dots 0}_p 1$ are all 0's,
 - Condition 3 implies that x and y consist only of 0's.
 - z will be the rest of first set of 0's, followed by $1 0^p 1$.
- **Key:** y has some of first 0's, and z has all of second 0's, so pumping y changes only # of first 0's.

- So we have

$$\begin{aligned} x &= 0^j \text{ for some } j \geq 0, \\ y &= 0^k \text{ for some } k \geq 0, \\ z &= 0^m 1 0^p 1 \text{ for some } m \geq 0 \end{aligned}$$

- $s = xyz$ implies

$$0^p 1 0^p 1 = 0^j 0^k 0^m 1 0^p 1 = 0^{j+k+m} 1 0^p 1,$$

so $j + k + m = p$.

- Condition 2 states that $|y| > 0$, so $k > 0$.
- Condition 1 implies $xyyz \in B$, but

$$\begin{aligned} xyyz &= 0^j 0^k 0^k 0^m 1 0^p 1 \\ &= 0^{j+k+k+m} 1 0^p 1 \\ &= 0^{p+k} 1 0^p 1 \notin B \end{aligned}$$

because $j + k + m = p$ and $k > 0$.

- **Contradiction**, so $B = \{ww \mid w \in \{0, 1\}^*\}$ is nonregular.

Important Steps in Proving Language is Nonregular

Pumping Lemma (PL):

If A is a regular language, then \exists number p (pumping length) where, if $s \in A$ with $|s| \geq p$, then s can be split into 3 pieces, $s = xyz$, with

1. $xy^iz \in A$ for each $i \geq 0$,
2. $|y| > 0$, and
3. $|xy| \leq p$.

Remarks:

- Must choose **appropriate** string $s \in A$ to get contradiction.
 - Some strings $s \in A$ might not lead to contradiction.
- Because Condition 3 of PL states $|xy| \leq p$, often choose $s \in A$ so that all of its first p symbols are the same.
- Once appropriate s is chosen, need to show **every** possible split of $s = xyz$ leads to contradiction.

Pumping Lemma (PL):

If A is a regular language, then \exists number p (pumping length) where, if $s \in A$ with $|s| \geq p$, then s can be split into 3 pieces, $s = xyz$, with

1. $xy^iz \in A$ for each $i \geq 0$,
2. $|y| > 0$, and
3. $|xy| \leq p$.

Examples:

1. Let $C = \{w \in \{a, b\}^* \mid w = w^{\mathcal{R}}\}$, where $w^{\mathcal{R}}$ is the reverse of w .
 - To show C is nonregular, can choose $s = a^p b a^p \in C$.
 - Choosing $s = a^p \in C$ does **not** work. Why?
2. To show $D = \{a^{2n} b^{3n} a^n \mid n \geq 0\}$ is nonregular, can choose $s = a^{2p} b^{3p} a^p \in D$.
3. Consider language $E = \{w \in \{a, b\}^* \mid w \text{ has more } a\text{'s than } b\text{'s}\}$. For example, $baaba \in E$.
 - To show E is nonregular, can choose $s = b^p a^{p+1} \in E$.

Common Mistake

- Consider $D = \{a^{2n} b^{3n} a^n \mid n \geq 0\}$.
- To show D is nonregular, can choose $s = a^{2p} b^{3p} a^p \in D$.
- **Common mistake:** try to apply Pumping Lemma with

$$x = a^{2p}, \quad y = b^{3p}, \quad z = a^p.$$
- For this split, $|xy| = 5p \not\leq p$.
- But Pumping Lemma states “If D is a regular language, then ... can split $s = xyz$ satisfying Conditions 1–3.”
- To get contradiction, need to show **cannot** split $s = xyz$ satisfying Conditions 1–3.
 - Need to show **every** split $s = xyz$ doesn't satisfy all of 1–3.
 - Every split $s = xyz$ satisfying Conditions 2 and 3 must have

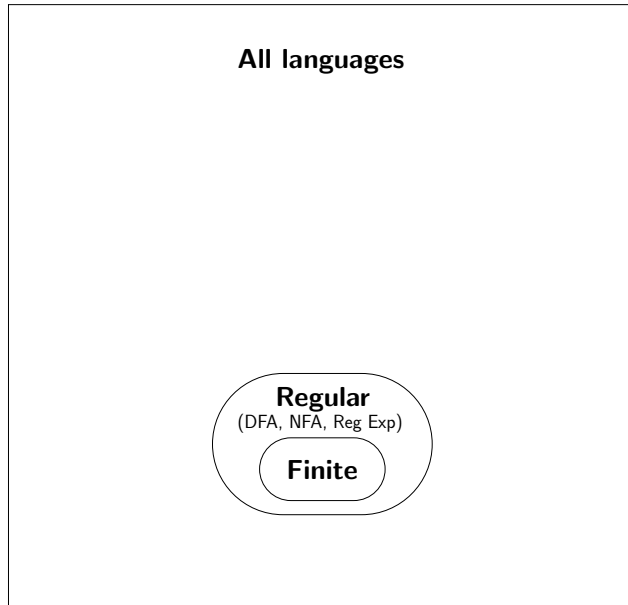
$$x = a^j, \quad y = a^k, \quad z = a^m b^{3p} a^p,$$
 where $j + k \leq p$, $j + k + m = 2p$, and $k \geq 1$.

$F = \{w \mid \# \text{ of } 0\text{'s in } w \text{ equals } \# \text{ of } 1\text{'s in } w\}$ is Nonregular

- Note that, e.g., $101100 \in F$.
- Need to be careful when choosing string $s \in F$ for Pumping Lemma.
 - If $xyz \in F$ with $y \in F$, then $xy^iz \in F$, so no contradiction.
- **Another Approach:** If F and G are regular, then $F \cap G$ is regular.
- **Solution:** Suppose that F is regular.
 - Let $G = \{0^n 1^m \mid n, m \geq 0\}$.
 - ▲ G is regular: it has regular expression $0^* 1^*$.
 - Then $F \cap G = \{0^n 1^n \mid n \geq 0\}$.
 - But know that $F \cap G$ is not regular.
- **Conclusion:** F is not regular.

Hierarchy of Languages (so far)

Examples



$$\{ 0^n 1^n \mid n \geq 0 \}$$

$$(0 \cup 1)^*$$

$$\{ 110, 01 \}$$

Summary of Chapter 1

- DFA is a deterministic machine for recognizing certain languages.
- A language is **regular** if it has a DFA.
- The class of regular languages is closed under union, intersection, concatenation, Kleene-star, complementation.
- NFA can be **nondeterministic**: allows choice in how to process string.
- Every NFA has an equivalent DFA.
- Regular expression is a way of generating certain languages.
- Kleene's Theorem: Language A has DFA iff A has regular expression.
- Every finite language is regular, but not every regular language is finite.
- Use pumping lemma to prove certain languages are not regular.