

Week 6: Lecture Notes

Substitution:

$f: \Sigma \rightarrow \Delta^*$, $\Sigma \rightarrow \text{an alphabet}$
 $\Delta \rightarrow \text{another alphabet}$

defined by $f(a) = R_a$, where $R_a \subseteq \Delta^*$ is a regular set for $a \in \Sigma$.

Extending f to strings $f: \Sigma^* \rightarrow \Delta^*$

- i) $f(\epsilon) = \epsilon$
- ii) $f(xa) = f(x)f(a)$

Extending f to languages $f: S \rightarrow \Delta^*$, $S \subseteq \Sigma^*$

$$f(L) = \bigcup_{a \in L} f(a)$$

Example:

Let $f(0) = a$, $f(1) = b^*$

- Then $f(010) = ab^*a$ defines another regular set.
- if L is the language defined by $0^*(0+1)1^*$

then $f(L) = a^*(a+b^*)(b^*)^*$

$$\begin{aligned} &= a^* (a+b^*) b^* \\ &= a^* b^* \end{aligned}$$

Theorem:

The class of regular sets is closed under substitution.

Proof:

Let $R \subseteq \Sigma^*$ be a regular set.

for each $a \in \Sigma$, let $R_a \subseteq \Delta^*$ be a regular set

Define a substitution mapping

$$f: \Sigma \rightarrow \Delta^* \text{ as } f(a) = R_a$$

Now consider regular expressions denoting R and each R_a

Replace each symbol a in the regular expression for R by the regular expression for R_a

Then

$$f(R) = \bigcup_{a \in R} f(a) = \bigcup_{a \in R} R_a$$

can be proved by using induction on the number of operators in the regular expression.

Note:

$$- f(L_1 \cup L_2) = f(L_1) \cup f(L_2)$$

$$- f(L_1 \cdot L_2) = f(L_1) \cdot f(L_2)$$

$$- f(L_1^*) = (f(L_1))^*$$

Homomorphisms

A substitution h such that $h(a)$ contains a single string from Δ^* for each a .

Example:

$$\text{Let } h(0) = aa, h(1) = aba$$

$$\text{Then, } h(010) = aaabaaa$$

$$\text{Let } L_1 = \{01\}^*, \text{ then } h(L_1) = (aaaba)^*$$

Inverse Homomorphisms of a language L

For a string a $h^{-1}(L) = \{x \mid h(x) \text{ is in } L\}$
 $h^{-1}(w) = \{x \mid h(x) = w\}$

Example:

$$h(0) = aa, h(1) = aba$$

$$L_2 = (ab + ba)^* a. \text{ Then } h^{-1}(L_2) = ?$$

Claim:

$$h^{-1}(L_2) = \{1\}, \quad h^{-1}(L_2) = \{x \mid h(x) \in L_2\}$$

$h(0), h(1)$ both begin with a

$\Rightarrow h(x)$ cannot begin with b

\Rightarrow if $h^{-1}(w)$ is non-empty and $w \in L_2$, then w begins with a

\Rightarrow either $w = a \rightarrow h^{-1}(w) = \emptyset$

or $w = abw'$ when $w' \in L_2$

The Pumping Lemma for regular language

A powerful tool for proving certain languages nonlinear.

- L is regular if it is accepted by a DFA $M = (\Delta, \Sigma, S, q_0, F)$ with finite number of states.

- $|Q| = n$ (say)

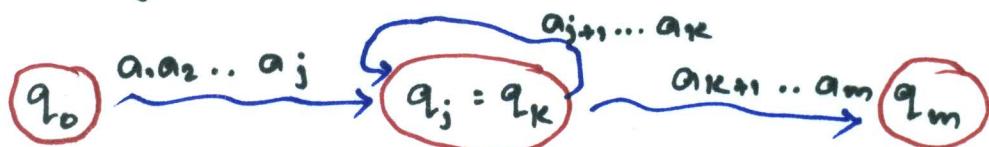
- input of length $\geq n$, $Z = a_1 a_2 \dots a_m$, $m \geq n$

Let $\delta(q_0, a_1, a_2 \dots a_i) = q_i$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, m$.



$q_0, q_1, \dots, q_n \rightarrow n+1$ states not distinct as M has only n states.

$\Rightarrow \exists$ integers j, k , $0 \leq j < k \leq n$ s.t. $q_j = q_k$



$Z = uvw$ where $u = a_1 a_2 \dots a_j$, $v = a_{j+1} \dots a_k$, $w = a_{k+1} \dots a_m$

as $j < k$, $|v| \geq 1$, as $k \leq n$, $|uv| \leq n$

if $q_m \in F$ i.e. $a_1 a_2 \dots a_m \in L(M)$, then $a_1 a_2 \dots a_j a_{k+1} \dots a_m \in L(M)$ as

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\delta}(q_0, a_1 \dots a_j a_{k+1} \dots a_m) &= \hat{\delta}(\hat{\delta}(q_0, a_1 \dots a_j), a_{k+1} \dots a_m) \\ &= \hat{\delta}(q_j, a_{k+1} \dots a_m) \\ &= q_m \in F\end{aligned}$$

- if $q_m \in F$ then $(a_1 \dots a_j; (a_{j+1} \dots a_k)^i a_{k+1} \dots a_m) \in L(M)$
 i.e. given any sufficiently long string accepted by a DFA, we can find a substring near the beginning of a string that may be **pumped** as many times as we like and the resulting string will be accepted by the DFA.

Hence follows the following lemma.

Lemma:

Let L be a regular set

- Then there is a constant n such that if z is any word in L , and $|z| > n$, we may write $z = uvw$ in such a way that $|uv| \leq n$, $|v| \geq 1$ and for all $i \geq 0$, $uv^i w$ is in L .
- Furthermore n is no greater than the number of states of the smallest DFA accepting L .

Note:

- if a regular set has a long string $z = uvw$ then the regular set contains an infinite number of strings of the form $uv^i w$

↗ every sufficiently long string in a regular set is of the form $uv^i w$

Applications of the Pumping Lemma

Example: Prove that

$L = \{0^{i^2} \mid i \text{ is an integer, } i \geq 1\}$ is not regular

Suppose L is regular and n be the integer in the pumping lemma.

Let $z = 0^{n^2} = uvw \in L$, $|v| \geq 1$, $|uvw| \leq n$, $|v| \leq n$

Then, $uv^iw \in L \forall i \geq 0$, i.e. uv^iw should have a length which is a perfect square

$i=2$

$$|uv^2w| = |uvw| + |v|$$

$$\geq |uvw| \text{ as } |v| \geq 1 \text{ and } |uvw| = n^2$$

$$\Rightarrow n^2 < |uv^2w| \leq n^2 + n < (n+1)^2$$

\Rightarrow length of uv^2w cannot be a perfect square

$\Rightarrow uv^2w \notin L$

L is not regular.

Example: Prove that

$L = \{\text{Palindromes over } (0+1)^*\}$ is not regular

Let L be regular and n be the integer in the pumping lemma.

Consider $z = 0^n 1 0^n$, $|z| > n$.

By the pumping lemma, $z = uvw$, $|uvw| \leq n$, $|v| \geq 1$, $|v| \leq n$

As $|uvw| \leq n$, we have $u = 0^i$, $v = 0^j$

Then by Pumping Lemma, $uviw \in L \forall i \geq 0$

for $i=0$, $uv^0w = 0^{n-j} 1 0^n$

which is not a palindrome.

Hence a contradiction.

Example: $L = \{0^n 1^n \mid n \geq 1\}$ is not regular.

Let L be regular and n be the integer in the pumping lemma. Let $z = 0^n 1^n \in L, n \geq 1$

Then $|z| > n$ and $z = uvw$, $|uvw| \leq n$, $1 \leq |v| \leq n$ and $uv^i w \in L \forall i \geq 0$.

For $i=0$, $uv^0 w = 0^{n-1} 1^n \notin L$

$\therefore L$ cannot be regular.

Example: $L = \{1^p \mid p \text{ is prime}\}$ is not regular.

Let L be regular and n be the integer in the pumping lemma.

Consider a prime $p \geq n+2$

Let $z = uvw = 1^p \in L, p \geq n+2$

$\therefore |z| > n, |uvw| \leq n, 1 \leq |v| \leq n, uv^i w \in L \forall i \geq 0$

Let $|v| = m \geq 1$, then $|uvw| = |uvw| - |v| = p - m$

for $i = p-m$, ~~uv^mw~~

$uv^{p-m} w \in L$ by the pumping lemma.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Now, } |uv^{p-m} w| &= |uw| + (p-m)|v| = p-m + (p-m)m \\ &= (p-m)(m+1) \end{aligned}$$

$$|uv^{p-m} w| = (p-m)(m+1)$$

$m+1 \neq 1$, as $m \geq 1$, $p-m \neq 1$ as $p \geq n+2 > m+2$

Thus $uv^{p-m} w$ does not have a prime length which is a contradiction.

$\therefore L$ cannot be regular.

Example:

Prove that $L = \{0^n 1^n 2^n \mid n \geq 0\}$ is not regular.

Let L be regular.

Let p be the pumping length given by the pumping lemma.

Choose $z = 0^p 1^p 2^p$

As $|z| > p$, the pumping lemma guarantees z can be splitted as $z = uvw$ with $|v| \geq 1$, $|uv| \leq p$, $|v| \leq p$ and $z = uv^i w \in L \forall i \geq 0$.

Note that $|uvw| \leq p$

$$\Rightarrow u = 0^a, v = 0^b, w = 0^{p-a-b} 1^p 2^p$$

For $i=2$

$$uv^2w = 0^a 0^{2b} 0^{p-a-b} 1^p 2^p$$

does not have equal number of 0's, 1's, and 2's
and so cannot be a member of L

Hence L cannot be regular.

Example

Prove that $L = \{a^{2^n} \mid n \geq 0\}$ is not regular.

Assume that $L = \{a^{2^n} \mid n \geq 0\}$ is regular and let p be the integer in the Pumping Lemma.

$$z = a^{2^p} \in L$$

As, $|z| = 2^p > p$, Pumping Lemma guarantees that

$$z = uvw, \quad |v| \geq 1, \quad |uv| \leq p \text{ and } |v| \leq p$$

$$\text{and } z = uv^i w \in L \nabla i \geq 0$$

For $i=2$

$$\begin{aligned} |uv^2w| &= |uvw| + |v| = 2^p + |v| < 2^p + p \\ &< 2^p + 2^p = 2^{p+1} \end{aligned}$$

Also,

$$|uv^2w| = 2^p + |v| > 2^p \text{ as } |v| \geq 1$$

Thus we have

$$2^p < |uv^2w| < 2^{p+1}$$

$\Rightarrow |uv^2w| \text{ cannot be a power of 2}$

$$\Rightarrow uv^2w \notin L$$

which is a contradiction.

Hence L is **not a regular**

Example

Show that L is not a regular set where

L : set of all binary strings with unequal number of
0's and 1's

$$= \{ 0, 1, 00, 11, 010, 101, \dots \}$$

Although L is not regular, we cannot prove this using
Pumping Lemma (WHY?).

Let n be the integer in the Pumping Lemma.
for any word z , with $|z| \geq n$,

$$z = uvw \in L, |uvw| \leq n, 1 \leq |v| \leq n$$

$$uv^i w \in L \quad \forall i \geq 0$$

here,

v may be 01 (equal no. of 0's and 1's)

So, whenever v is pumped, number of 0's and 1's
change equally

\Rightarrow can never get $uv^i w \notin L$ for any i

as $uvw \in L \Rightarrow uvw$ has unequal no. of 0's and 1's

\Rightarrow $uv^i w$ has unequal no. of 0's and 1's
 $\forall i \geq 0$

$\Rightarrow uv^i w \in L \quad \forall i \geq 0$

$\Rightarrow L$ is regular.

The Pumping Lemma does not work for this problem

How to prove L is non-regular?

$L \rightarrow$ set of binary strings with unequal number of 0's and 1's

$\bar{L} \rightarrow$ set of binary strings with equal number of 0's and 1's

Apply the pumping lemma to \bar{L}

$n \rightarrow$ integer of the pumping lemma

$$uvw = 0^n 1^n \in \bar{L} \quad |uvw| \leq n, \quad 1 \leq |vw| \leq n$$

$$uv^i w \in \bar{L}$$

for $i=0$,

$$uv^0 w \in \bar{L}$$

$$\Rightarrow 0^{n-|vw|} 1^n \in \bar{L}$$

which is a contradiction

$\therefore \bar{L}$ is not regular

$\Rightarrow L$ is not regular.

Example:

Prove that $L = \{0^m 1^n \mid m \neq n\}$ is not regular.

Observe that $\bar{L} \cap 0^* 1^* = \{0^n 1^n \mid n \geq 0\}$

If \bar{L} were regular, then \bar{L} would be regular and so would $\bar{L} \cap 0^* 1^* = \{0^n 1^n \mid n \geq 0\}$

But we already know by Pumping Lemma on regular languages that $\{0^n 1^n \mid n \geq 0\}$ is not regular.

$\Rightarrow L$ cannot be regular.

Alternative Method (Using Pumping Lemma directly)

Suppose L is regular and p be the integer in Pumping lemma.

Let $z = 0^p 1^{p+p!} = uvw \in L$, $|v| \geq 1$, $|uv| \leq p$, $|v| \leq p$

Observe that $|z| = p + p + p! > p$

Then by Pumping Lemma, $uv^i w \in L \nrightarrow i \geq 0$

As, $|uv| \leq p$, we have $u = 0^a$, $v = 0^b$, $w = 0^{p-a-b}$, $p+p!$
where $b \geq 1$ and $b \leq p$

Let $i = \frac{p!}{b}$ as $1 \leq b < p$ and b divides $p!$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{But, } uv^{i+1}w &= 0^a 0^{p!+b} 0^{p-a-b}, p+p! \\ &= 0^{p!+p}, p+p! \notin L \end{aligned}$$

Hence L is not regular.

Example:

Prove that $L = \{x \in \{a,b\}^* \mid \#a(x) \neq \#b(x)\}$ is not regular

Consider $\bar{L} = \{x \in \{a,b\}^* \mid \#a(x) = \#b(x)\}$

L is non-regular if \bar{L} is non regular.

Suppose \bar{L} is regular, then

$$\bar{L} \cap a^*b^* = \{a^n b^n \mid n \geq 0\}$$

would also be regular, since regular sets are always closed under intersection.

But $\{a^n b^n \mid n \geq 0\}$ is a non-regular set

$\Rightarrow \bar{L}$ cannot be regular

$\Rightarrow L$ is non-regular.

Example

Prove that $L = \{a^n b^m \mid n \geq m\}$ is not regular

Consider $L^R = \{b^m a^n \mid n \geq m\}$

If L is regular, then so is L^R by closure property of regular languages under reversal.

\therefore interchanging a and b , we get

$$L' = \{a^m b^n \mid n \geq m\}$$

"interchanging a and b " means applying the homomorphism

$$a \rightarrow b, b \rightarrow a$$

L' would also be regular if L is regular by closure property of regular languages under homomorphism

Then the intersection

$$L \cap L' = \{a^n b^n \mid n \geq 0\}$$

would also be regular

But we have already shown using Pumping Lemma that $\{a^n b^n \mid n \geq 0\}$ is not regular.

$\Rightarrow L$ must be non-regular language.

Direct Application of the Pumping Lemma

Let $L = \{a^n b^m \mid n \geq m\}$ be regular and $p+j+k$ be the pumping length given by the pumping lemma and $j+k < p \Rightarrow p+j+k \leq 2p$

Consider $z = a^p b^p = uvw$, $|v| \geq 1$, $|uvw| \leq p+j+k$
 $|v| \leq p+j+k$

As, $|z| = 2p > p+j+k$, the lemma can be applied.

$$z = a^p b^j b^k b^{p-j-k}, \quad k \geq 1$$

and $uv^i w \in L \forall i \geq 0$

For $i=2$

$$uv^2w = a^p b^{p+k} \notin L$$

Hence L is not regular.

Example:

$L = \{a^n! \mid n > 0\}$ is not regular

Let L be regular and K be the pumping length given in the pumping lemma

Consider $z = a^{K!}$

$$\text{Then } |z| = K! > K$$

Hence by the pumping lemma on regular languages

$$z = uvw \text{ with } |u| > 1, |uv| \leq K, |v| \leq K$$

and $uv^iw \in L \forall i \geq 0$.

Note that

$$|uvw| = K!$$

$$|uv^iw| = K! + i|v|$$

for $i = (K+1)!$

$$\begin{aligned}
 |uv^iw| &= K! + ((K+1)!)|v| \\
 &= K! (1 + (K+1)|v|) \\
 &\neq p! \text{ for any } p \ (p > K)
 \end{aligned}$$

as for $p > K$, $p!$ is divisible by $(K+1)$ but
 $K! (1 + (K+1)|v|)$ is not.

Theorem:

The set of strings accepted by a FA M with n states is:

- (i) non-empty iff the finite automata accepts a string of length $< n$
- (ii) infinite iff M accepts some strings of length L , when $n \leq L < 2n$

Proof:

- (i) if M accepts a string of length $< n$, then M is non-empty

Conversely,

if M is non-empty, let $w \in L(M)$ be a string as short as any other string accepted.

Then by the Pumping Lemma, $|w| < n$, otherwise if $|w| \geq n$, then $w = uvz$, $1 \leq v \leq n$ and $uv^iz \in L(M)$ where uv has shorter length than w , a contradiction.

- (ii) if M accepts a string w , when $n \leq |w| < 2n$, then by Pumping Lemma, $L(M)$ is infinite

$(|w| > n \Rightarrow w = uvz, 1 \leq v < n \text{ and } uv^iz \in L, \forall i \geq 0)$

Conversely,

if $L(M)$ is infinite, then $\exists w \in L(M)$, where $|w| > n$

Now, if $|w| < 2n$, we are done

if no word is of length between n and $2n-1$, let w be of length atleast $2n$, but as short as any word in $L(M)$ whose length is $> 2n$

Again by Pumping Lemma, we can write

$w = uv^k y$ with $1 \leq |v| \leq n$ and $uy \in L(M)$

uy has shorter length than w

$\therefore |uy| \neq 2n$ as w is the shortest string with length $\geq 2n$

$\Rightarrow n < |uy| < 2n-1$, contradicting no word in $L(M)$ with length between n and $2n-1$

Hence, the result.

Emptiness Check

Check if any word of length upto n is in $L(M)$

\Rightarrow exponential time

(exhaustive search 2^n
over $\{0,1\}^*$)

Infinite / finiteness check

Check if any word of length between n and $2n-1$

$\rightarrow \underline{\underline{O(2^n)}}$

Decision algorithms for regular languages.

- Algorithm to decide whether two DFA are equivalent or not

$M_1 \xrightarrow{\text{DFA}}$ accepts L_1

$M_2 \xrightarrow{\text{DFA}}$ accepts L_2

$(L_1 \cap \bar{L}_2) \cup (\bar{L}_1 \cap L_2) \rightarrow$ regular language by closure property

\rightarrow accepted by DFA M_3

M_3 accepts a string iff $L_1 \neq L_2$

- Algorithm to decide whether a regular set is empty, finite or infinite

Theorem:

The set of strings accepted by a finite automata M with n states is

(i) nonempty iff M accepts a strings of length $\leq n$

(ii) infinite iff M accepts a string of length l ,
where $n \leq l < 2n$

Theorem

The class of regular sets is closed under homomorphisms and inverse homomorphisms.

Proof:

Closure under homomorphism: follows from closure under substitution as every homomorphism is a substitution, in which $h(a)$ has one member.

Closure under inverse homomorphism

- $M = (\Delta, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, f)$: DFA accepting L
- $h \rightarrow$ homomorphism from $\Delta \rightarrow \Sigma^*$

Construct a DFA,

$M' = (\Delta, \Delta, \delta', q_0, f)$ that accepts
and $\delta'(q, a) = \hat{\delta}(q, h(a))$

$h'(L) = \{x \mid h(x) \in L\}$
 $\boxed{h(a) \text{ can be } \epsilon \text{ or a long string}}$

Claim:

$\delta'(q_0, x) = \hat{\delta}(q_0, h(x))$, i.e. M' accepts x
iff M accepts $h(x)$
i.e. $L(M') = h^{-1}(L(M))$

This can be proved by induction on $|x|$

Better algorithm for checking emptiness of regular languages

- Given a DFA, if the accepting states are all separated from the start state, then the language is empty.

Graph reachability : Decide whether we can reach an accepting state from the start state.

$O(n^2)$ if FA has n states.

Construct the set of reachable states from q_0 , if this set contains an accepting state, output **NO** (i.e. language of the FA is not empty) otherwise output **YES**

- Given a regular expression of language L , convert the regular expression to Σ -NFA and apply the above algorithm.

$O(n^2)$ if the regular expression has length n .

- Given a regular expression R of language $L(R)$, to check whether $L(R)$ is empty or not?

Case I: $R = R_1 + R_2 \Rightarrow L(R)$ is empty iff $L(R_1), L(R_2)$ both are empty

Case II: $R = R_1 R_2 \Rightarrow L(R)$ is empty iff either $L(R_1)$ or $L(R_2)$ is empty.

Case III: $R = R^* \Rightarrow L(R)$ non-empty, contains ϵ

Case IV: $R = R_1 \Rightarrow L(R)$ is empty iff $L(R_1)$ is empty

Finiteness/Infiniteness Checking

- DFA accepts an infinite language iff the resulting transition diagram has a cycle
- Same method works for NFA's, but we must check that there is a cycle labeled by something besides ϵ

Identifiers for regular expressions (r.e.).

1. $\phi + r = r$, r is r.e.
2. $\phi r = r\phi = \phi$
3. $\epsilon r = r\epsilon = r$
4. $\epsilon^* = \epsilon$ and $\phi^* = \epsilon$
5. $r + r = r$
6. $r^* r^* = r$
7. $rr^* = r^*r$
8. $(r^*)^* = r^*$
9. $\epsilon + rr^* = r^* = \epsilon + r^*r$
10. $(rs)^*r = r(sr)^*$
11. $(r+s)^* = (r^*s^*)^* = (r^*+s^*)^*$
12. $(r+s)t = rt+st$, $t(r+s) = tr+ts$

Arden's Theorem

Let r and s be two regular expressions over Σ

If r does not contain ϵ , then the following equation in X namely $X = s + Xr \quad (1)$

has a unique solution given by $X = sr^*$

Proof:

$$\text{Existence: } s + (sr^*)r = s(\epsilon + r^*r) = sr^*$$

$\Rightarrow X = sr^*$ is a solution of (1)

Uniqueness:

Replacing X by $s + Xr$ on R.H.S. of (1) yields

$$\begin{aligned} X = s + Xr &= s + (s + Xr)r \\ &= s + sr + Xr^2 \\ &= s + sr + sr^2 + Xr^3 \\ &= s + sr + \dots + sr^i + Xr^{i+1} \end{aligned}$$

Thus we have, $X = s(\epsilon + r + r^2 + \dots + r^i) + Xr^{i+1}, i \geq 0$ (2)

Claim: Any solution of (1) is equivalent to sr^*

Note that

X satisfies (1)

$\Rightarrow X$ satisfies (2)

Let $w \in X$ with $|w| = i$

Then $w \in s(\epsilon + r + \dots + r^i) + Xr^{i+1}$

As r does not contain ϵ , Xr^{i+1} has no string of length $< i+1 \Rightarrow w \notin Xr^{i+1}$

$\Rightarrow w \in s(\epsilon + r + r^2 + \dots + r^i)$

$\Rightarrow w \in Sr^*$

$\Rightarrow X \subseteq Sr^* \quad \text{--- (3)}$

Now consider any $w \in Sr^*$

Then $w \in Sr^k$ for some $k \geq 0$

$\Rightarrow w \in s(\epsilon + r + r^2 + \dots + r^k)$

$\Rightarrow w \in \text{R.H.S. of (2)}$

$\Rightarrow w \in X \Rightarrow w$ is a solution of (1)

$\Rightarrow Sr^* \subseteq X \quad \text{--- (4)}$

From (3) and (4), we have

$$X = Sr^*$$

Applications of Arden's Theorem (Brzozowski's Algebraic Method).

The following assumptions are made regarding the transition system :

- i. The transition graph does not have ϵ -moves
- ii. It has only one initial state, say v_1
- iii. Its vertices are v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n
- iv. v_i the regular expression represents the set of strings accepted by the system even though v_i is an accepting state.
- v. α_{ij} the r.e. representing the set of labels of edges from v_i to v_j
 $(\alpha_{ij} = \emptyset \text{ if no such edge})$

Construct the following set of equations in v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n

$$v_1 = v_1 \alpha_{11} + v_2 \alpha_{21} + \dots + v_n \alpha_{n1} + \epsilon$$

$$v_2 = v_1 \alpha_{12} + v_2 \alpha_{22} + \dots + v_n \alpha_{n2}$$

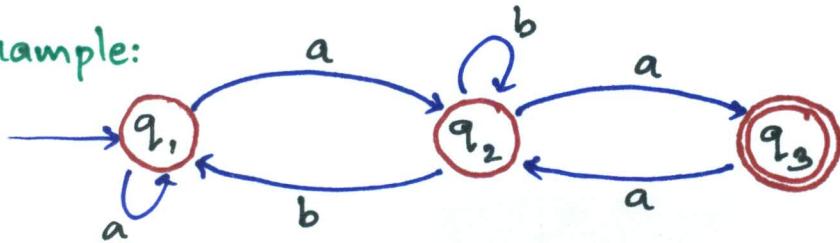
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$$v_n = v_1 \alpha_{1n} + v_2 \alpha_{2n} + \dots + v_n \alpha_{nn}$$

Repeatedly apply substitution and Arden's theorem to express v_i in terms of α_{ij} 's

Union of all v_i corresponding to final states
→ the set of strings recognized by the transition system.

Example:



- no ϵ -moves
- only 1 initial state q_0

Construct three equations corresponding to three vertices q_1, q_2, q_3

$$\delta_1 = \delta_1 a + \delta_2 b + \epsilon \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$\delta_2 = \delta_1 a + \delta_2 b + \delta_3 a \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

$$\delta_3 = \delta_2 a \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

(2) and (3) gives

$$\delta_2 = \delta_1 a + \delta_2 b + \delta_2 aa$$

$$= \delta_1 a + \delta_2 (b+aa) = \delta_1 a (b+aa)^* \quad \text{--- (4)}$$

\hookrightarrow using Arden's theorem

(1) and (4) gives:

$$\delta_1 = \delta_1 a + \delta_1 a (b+aa)^* b + \epsilon$$

$$= \epsilon + \delta_1 (a + a(b+aa)^* b)$$

$$= \epsilon (a + a(b+aa)^* b)^* - \text{by Arden's Theorem}$$

Thus,

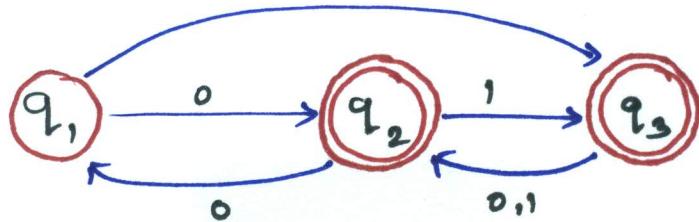
$$\delta_1 = (a + a(b+aa)^* b)^*$$

$$\delta_2 = (a + a(b+aa)^* b)^* a (b+aa)^*$$

$$\delta_3 = (a + a(b+aa)^* b)^* a (b+aa)^* a$$

Since q_3 is the final state, the set of strings recognized by this graph is given by regular expression δ_3

Example:



r.e. $\delta_2 + \delta_3 = ?$

$$\delta_1 = \delta_1 \phi + \delta_2 0 + \delta_3 \phi + \varepsilon = \delta_2 0 + \varepsilon$$

$$\delta_2 = \delta_1 0 + \delta_2 \phi + \delta_3 (0+1) = \delta_1 0 + \delta_3 (0+1)$$

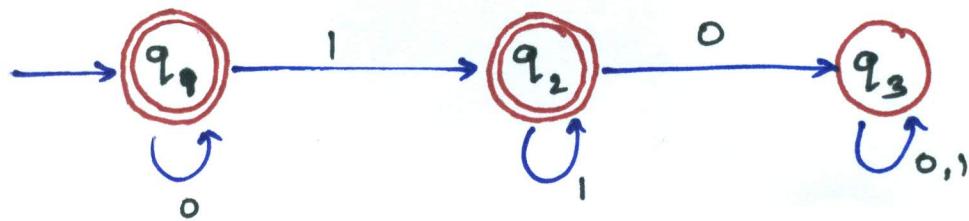
$$\delta_3 = \delta_1 1 + \delta_2 1 + \delta_3 0 = \delta_1 1 + \delta_2 1$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow \delta_2 &= \delta_1 0 + (\delta_1 1 + \delta_2 1) (0+1) \\ &= \delta_1 0 + \delta_1 1 (0+1) + \delta_2 1 (0+1) \\ &= \delta_1 (0+1 (0+1)) + \delta_2 1 (0+1) \\ &= \delta_1 (0+1 (0+1)) (1+ (0+1))^* \\ &= (\delta_2 0 + \varepsilon) (0+1 (0+1)) (1 (0+1))^* \\ &= X + \delta_2 0 X \\ &= X (0X)^* \\ &= (0+1 (0+1)) (1+ (0+1))^* (0 (0+1 (0+1)) (1 (0+1)))^* \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \delta_3 &= \delta_1 1 + \delta_2 1 \\ &= (\delta_2 0 + \varepsilon) 1 + \delta_2 1 \\ &= 1 + \delta_2 (01+1) \\ &= 1 + X (0X)^* (01+1) \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{where } X = (0+1 (0+1)) (1 (0+1))^*$$

Example: Construct a r.e. corresponding to the state diagram described by



$$\delta_1 = \delta_{1,0} + \epsilon = \epsilon + \delta_{1,0}$$

$$\delta_2 = \delta_{2,1} + \delta_{2,0}$$

$$\delta_3 = \delta_{2,0} + \delta_{3,0+1}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{aligned}\delta_1 &= \epsilon + \delta_{1,0} \\ &= \epsilon 0^* = 0^* \quad (\text{Arden's theorem})\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\delta_2 &= \delta_{2,1} + \delta_{2,0} \\ &= 0^* 1 + \delta_{2,0} \\ &= (0^* 1) 1^*\end{aligned}$$

No need to solve for δ_3 as final states are q_1 and q_2

$$\begin{aligned}\therefore \delta_1 + \delta_2 &= 0^* + (0^* 1) 1^* \\ &= 0^* + 0^* (1 1^*) \\ &= 0^* (\epsilon + 1 1^*) \\ &= 0^* \cancel{1^*}\end{aligned}$$