

# Decision Properties of Regular Languages

General Discussion of “Properties”

The Pumping Lemma

Membership, Emptiness, Etc.

# Properties of Language Classes

Char  $\rightarrow$  String  $\rightarrow$  Language  $\rightarrow$  Language Class

- A *language class* is a set of languages.
- We have one example: the regular languages.
- We'll see many more in this class.
- Language classes have two important kinds of properties:
  1. Decision properties.
  2. Closure properties.

# Representation of Languages

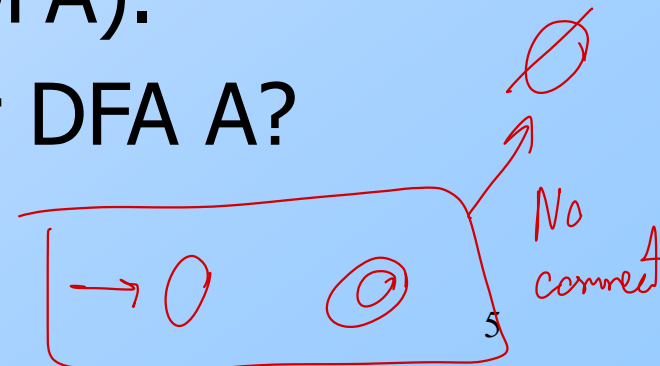
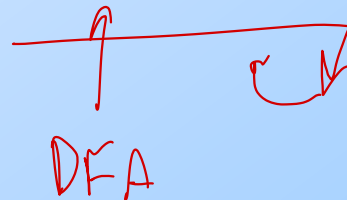
- Representations can be formal or informal.
- **Example** (formal): <sup>mnms</sup> represent a language by a RE or DFA defining it.
- **Example**: (informal): <sup>logical or prose</sup> a logical or prose statement about its strings:
  - $\{0^n 1^n \mid n \text{ is a nonnegative integer}\}$
  - "The set of strings consisting of some number of 0's followed by the same number of 1's."

# Decision Properties

- A *decision property* for a class of languages is an algorithm that takes a formal description of a language (e.g., a DFA) and tells whether or not some property holds.
- **Example:** Is language L empty?

# Subtle Point: Representation Matters

- You might imagine that the language is described informally, so if my description is “the empty language” then yes, otherwise no.  $\emptyset \neq \varepsilon$
- But the representation is a DFA (or a RE that you will convert to a DFA).
- Can you tell if  $L(A) = \emptyset$  for DFA A?



# Why Decision Properties?

- When we talked about protocols represented as DFA's, we noted that important properties of a good protocol were related to the language of the DFA.
- **Example:** "Does the protocol terminate?" = "Is the language finite?"
- **Example:** "Can the protocol fail?" = "Is the language nonempty?"

DFA

# Why Decision Properties – (2)

- We might want a “smallest” representation for a language, e.g., a minimum-state DFA or a shortest RE.
- If you can’t decide “Are these two languages the same?”
  - I.e., do two DFA’s define the same language?

You can’t find a “smallest.”

# Closure Properties

- A *closure property* of a language class says that given languages in the class, an operator (e.g., union) produces another language in the same class.
- **Example:** the regular languages are obviously closed under union, <sup>+</sup> concatenation, and (Kleene) closure. ~~✗~~
  - Use the RE representation of languages.



# Why Closure Properties?

1. Helps construct representations.
2. Helps show (informally described) languages not to be in the class.

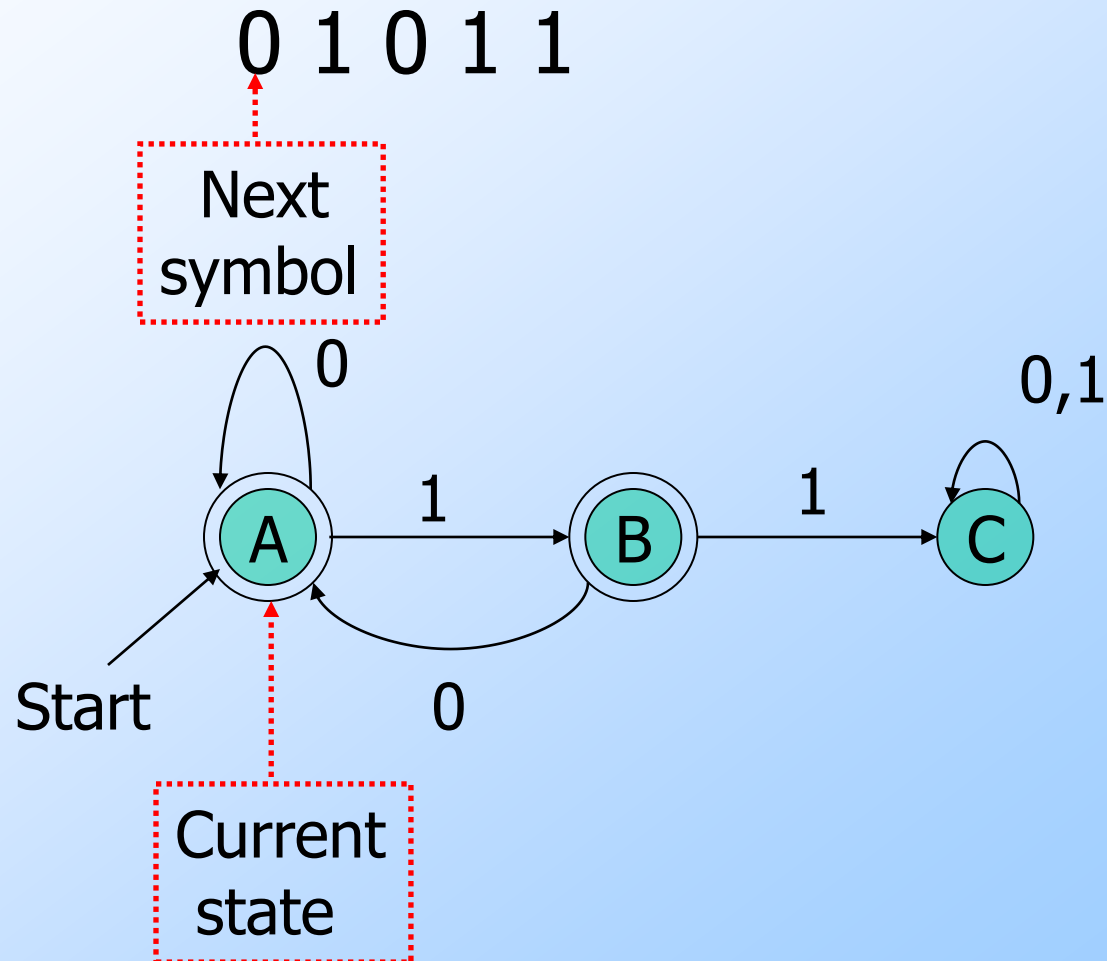
# Example: Use of Closure Property

- We can easily prove  $L_1 = \{0^n 1^n \mid n \geq 0\}$  is not a regular language.
- $L_2$  = the set of strings with an = number of 0's and 1's isn't either, but that fact is trickier to prove.
- Regular languages are closed under  $\cap$ .
- If  $L_2$  were regular, then  $L_2 \cap L(\mathbf{0^*1^*}) = L_1$  would be, but it isn't.

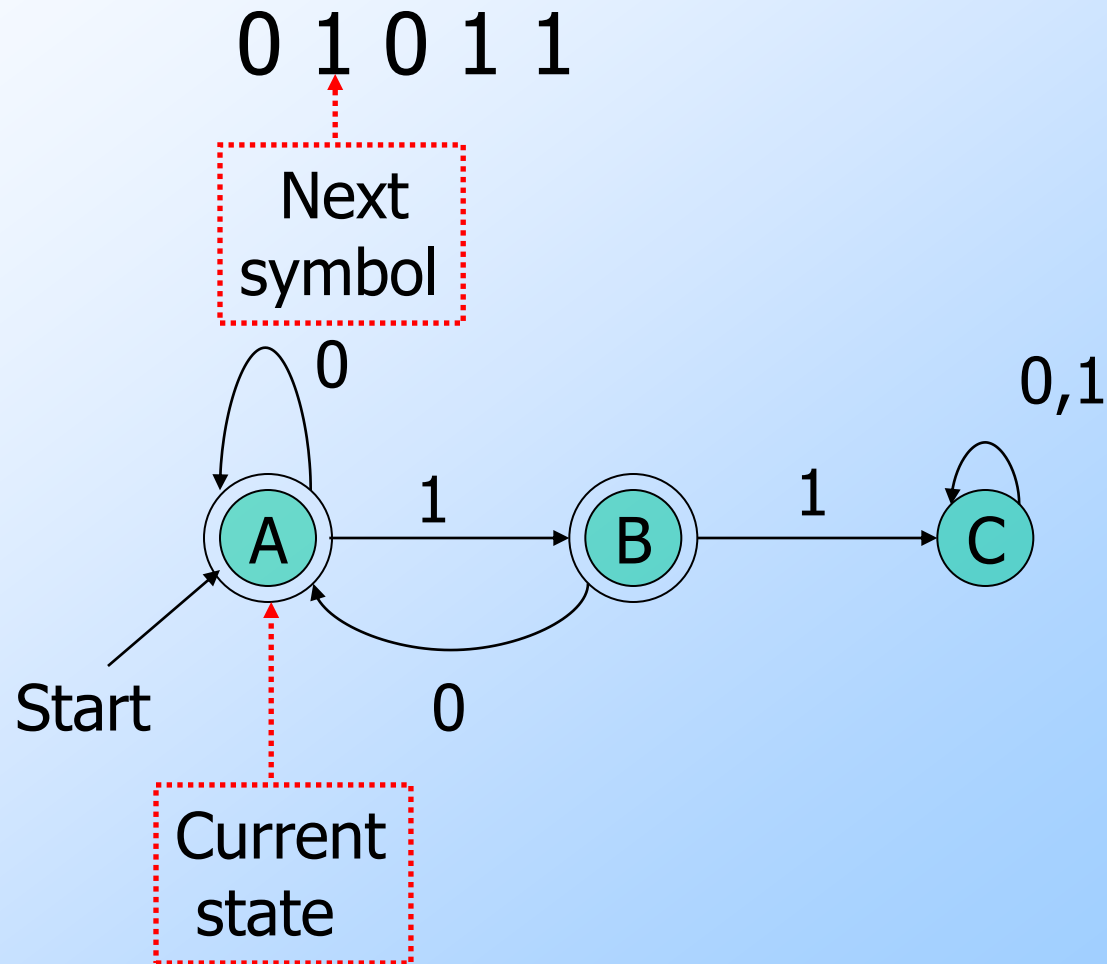
# The Membership Question

- Our first decision property is the question: “is string w in regular language L?”
- Assume L is represented by a DFA A.
- Simulate the action of A on the sequence of input symbols forming w.

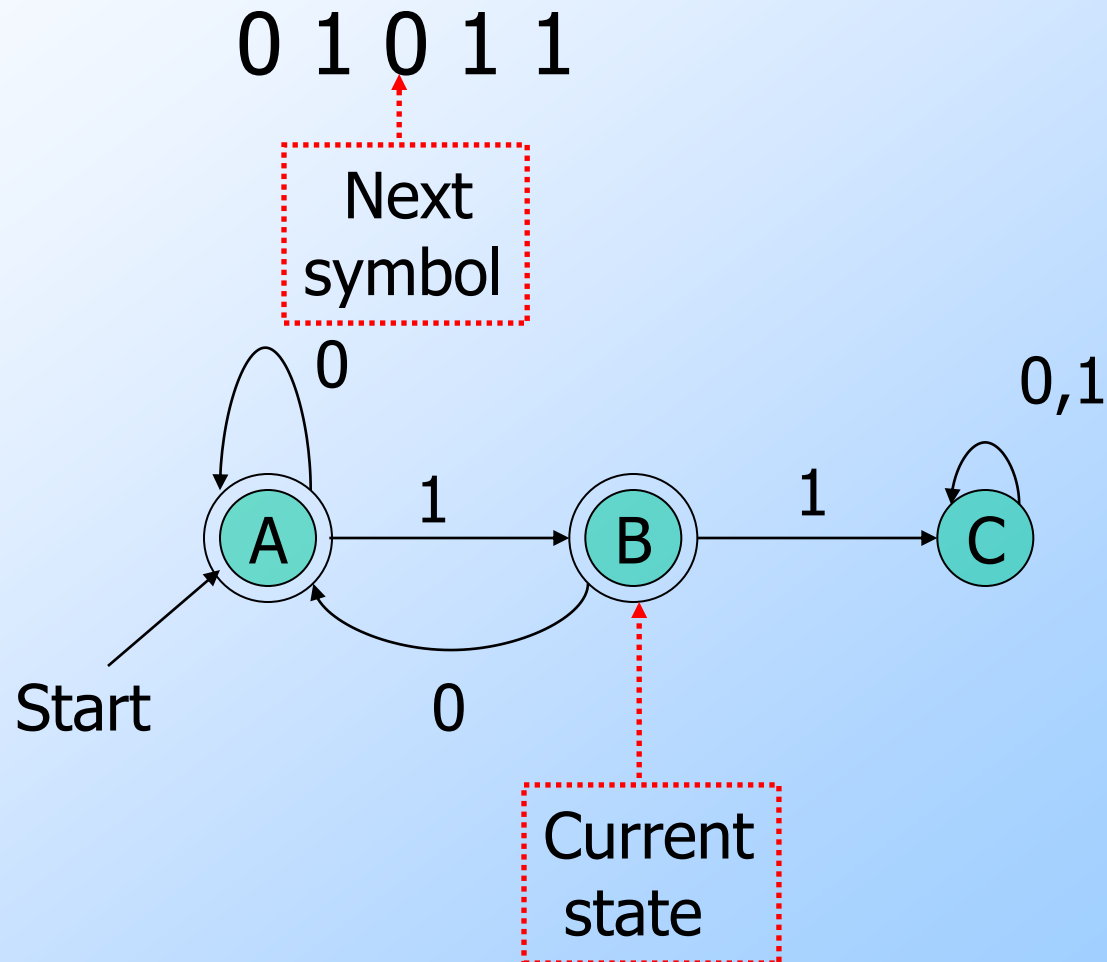
# Example: Testing Membership



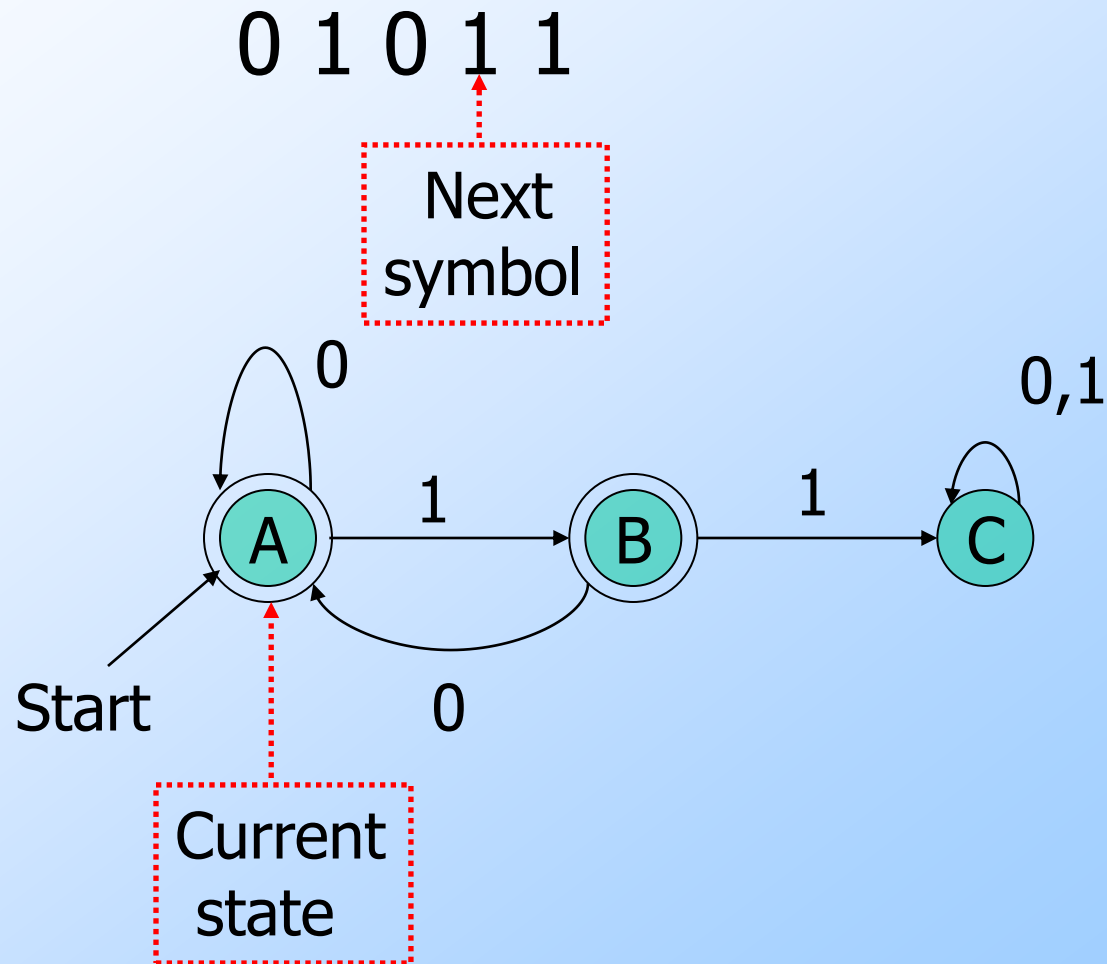
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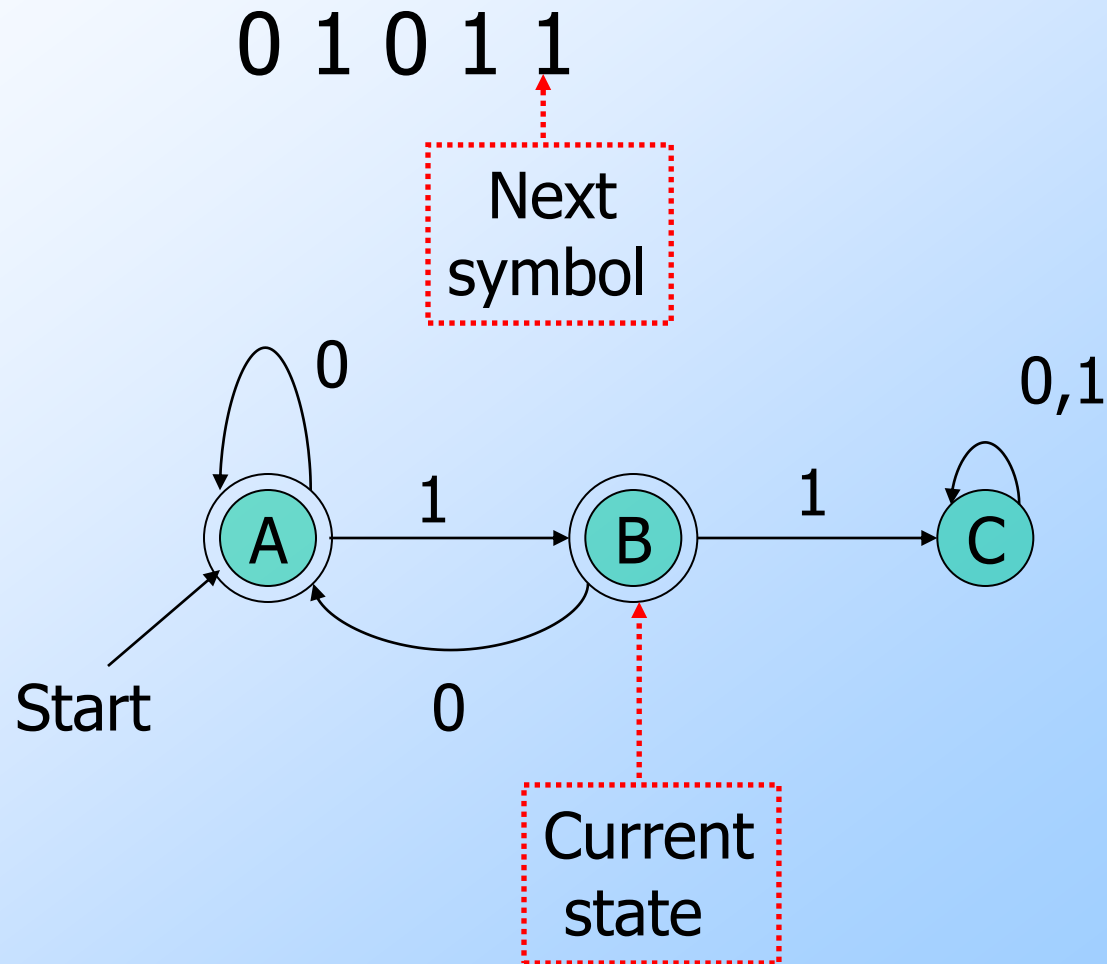
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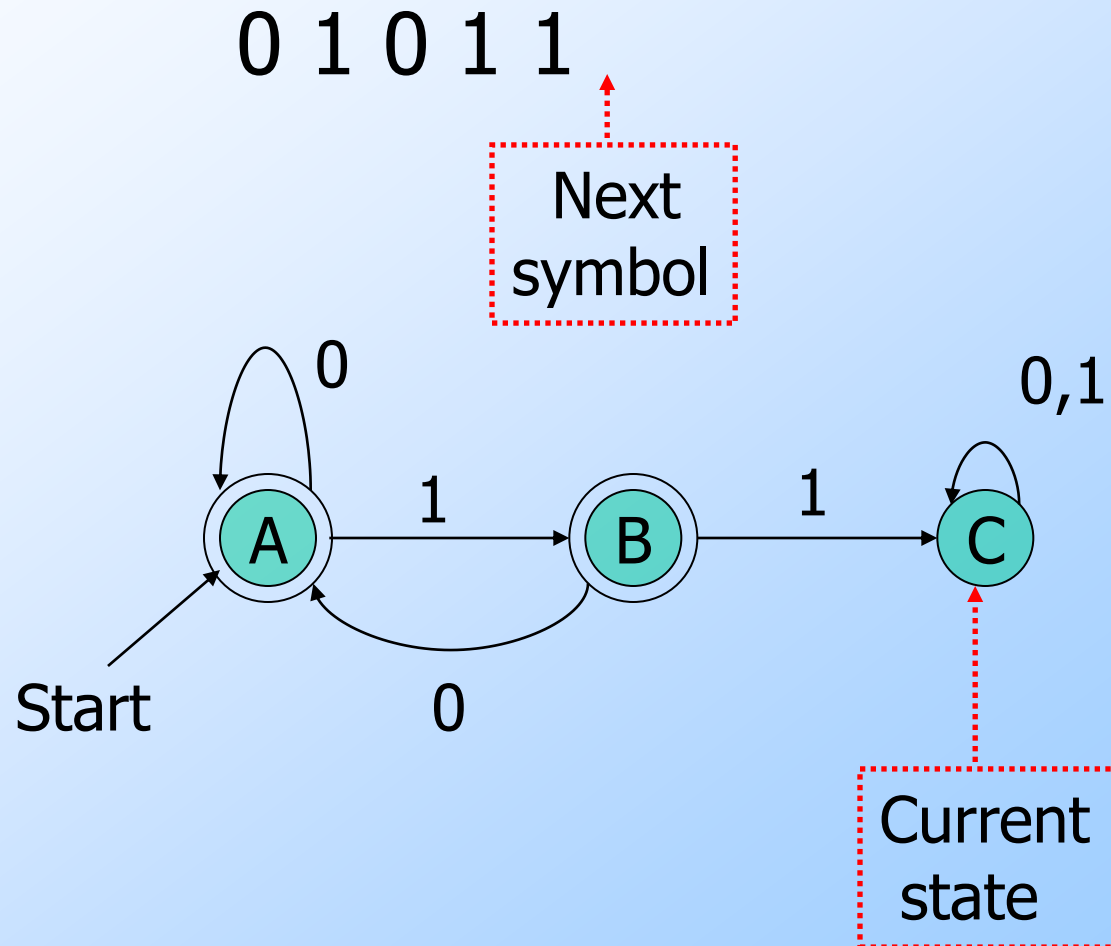


# Example: Testing Membership



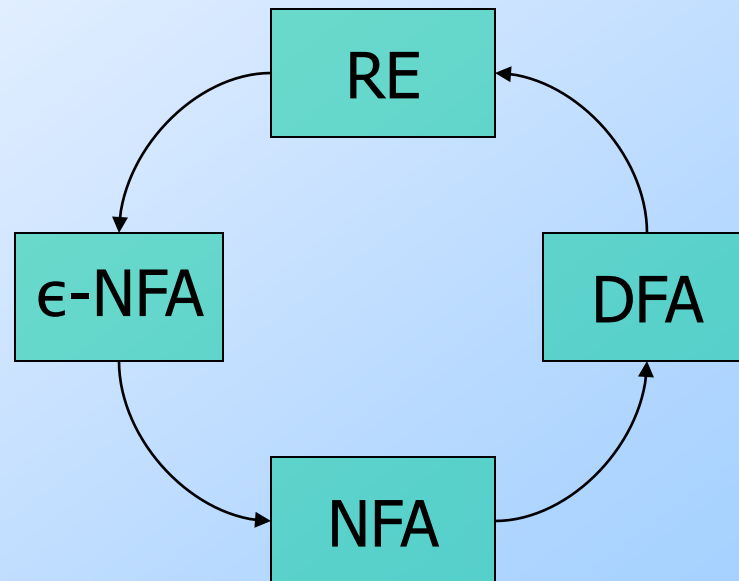


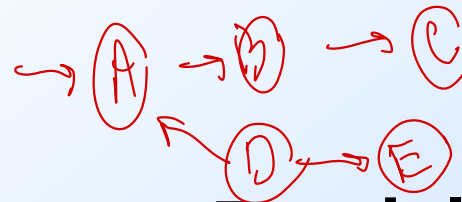
# Example: Testing Membership



# What if the Regular Language Is not Represented by a DFA?

- There is a circle of conversions from one form to another:





$D, E$   
Emptiness Problem

# The Emptiness Problem

- Given a regular language, does the language contain any string at all.
- Assume representation is DFA.
- Construct the transition graph.
- Compute the set of states reachable from the start state.
- If any final state is reachable, then yes, else no.

initial state.



# The Infiniteness Problem

- Is a given regular language infinite?
- Start with a DFA for the language.
- **Key idea**: if the DFA has  $n$  states, and the language contains any string of length  $n$  or more, then the language is infinite.
- Otherwise, the language is surely finite.
  - Limited to strings of length  $n$  or less.

# Infiniteness – Continued

- We do not yet have an algorithm.
- There are an infinite number of strings of length  $> n$ , and we can't test them all.
- **Second key idea:** if there is a string of length  $\geq n$  (= number of states) in  $L$ , then there is a string of length between  $n$  and  $2n-1$ .

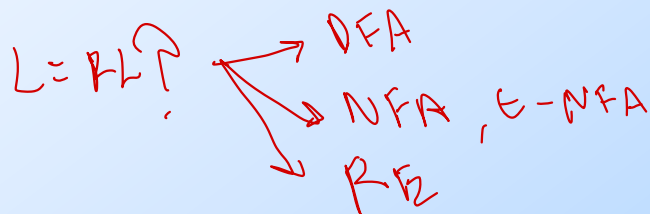
# Finding Cycles

1. Eliminate states not reachable from the start state.
2. Eliminate states that do not reach a final state.
3. Test if the remaining transition graph has any cycles.



# The Pumping Lemma

- We have, almost accidentally, proved a statement that is quite useful for showing certain languages are not regular.
- Called the *pumping lemma for regular languages*.



ถ้า  $L$  สามารถเขียนด้วย  $RL$ .

แต่ถ้าเขียนไม่ได้ ก็ไม่ใช่  $RL$

นี่คือ Pumping Lemma

# Statement of the Pumping Lemma

For every regular language  $L$   
There is an integer  $n$ , such that

Number of  
states of  
DFA for  $L$

For every string  $w$  in  $L$  of length  $\geq n$

We can write  $w = xyz$  such that:

1.  $|xy| \leq n$ .
2.  $|y| > 0$ .
3. For all  $i \geq 0$ ,  $xy^iz$  is in  $L$ .

Labels along  
first cycle on  
path labeled  $w$



# Example: Use of Pumping Lemma

- We have claimed  $\{0^k 1^k \mid k \geq 1\}$  is not a regular language. *oooo mmm*
- Suppose it were. Then there would be an associated  $n$  for the pumping lemma.
- Let  $w = 0^n 1^n$ . We can write  $w = xyz$ , where  $x$  and  $y$  consist of 0's, and  $y \neq \epsilon$ .
- But then  $xyyz$  would be in  $L$ , and this string has more 0's than 1's.

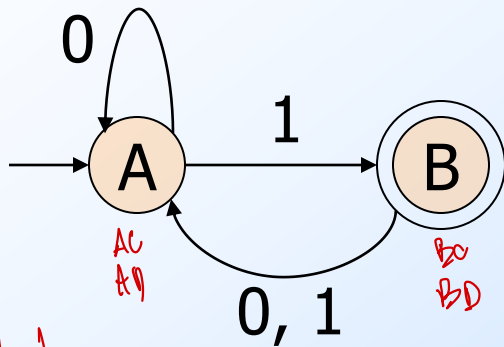
# Decision Property: Equivalence

- Given regular languages  $L$  and  $M$ , is  $L = M$ ?
- Algorithm involves constructing the product DFA from DFA's for  $L$  and  $M$ .
- Let these DFA's have sets of states  $Q$  and  $R$ , respectively.
- Product DFA has set of states  $Q \times R$ .
  - I.e., pairs  $[q, r]$  with  $q$  in  $Q$ ,  $r$  in  $R$ .

$$L = M?$$

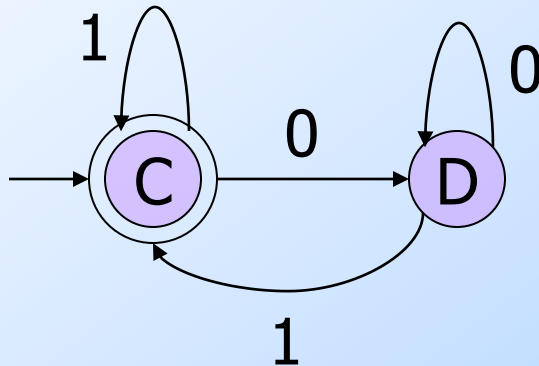
# Example: Product DFA

$L$   
2 states

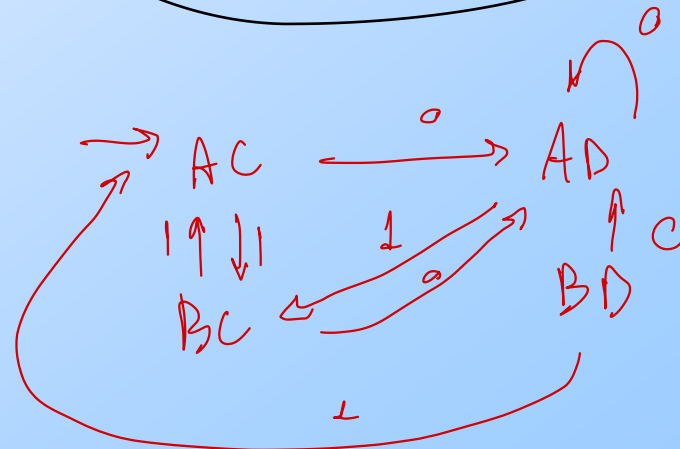
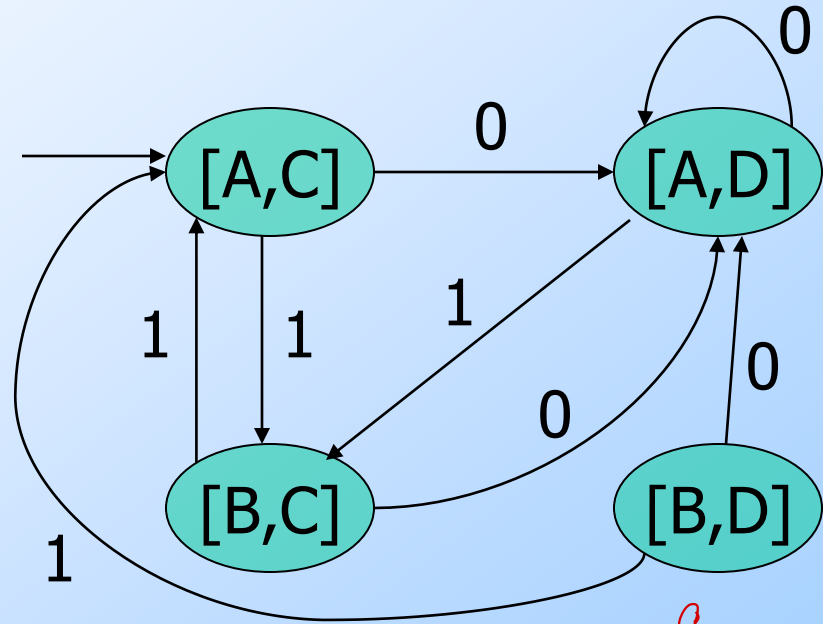


$2 \times 2 = 4$  states.

$M$   
2 states



0, 1, 0, 1 AC, AD, BC, BD



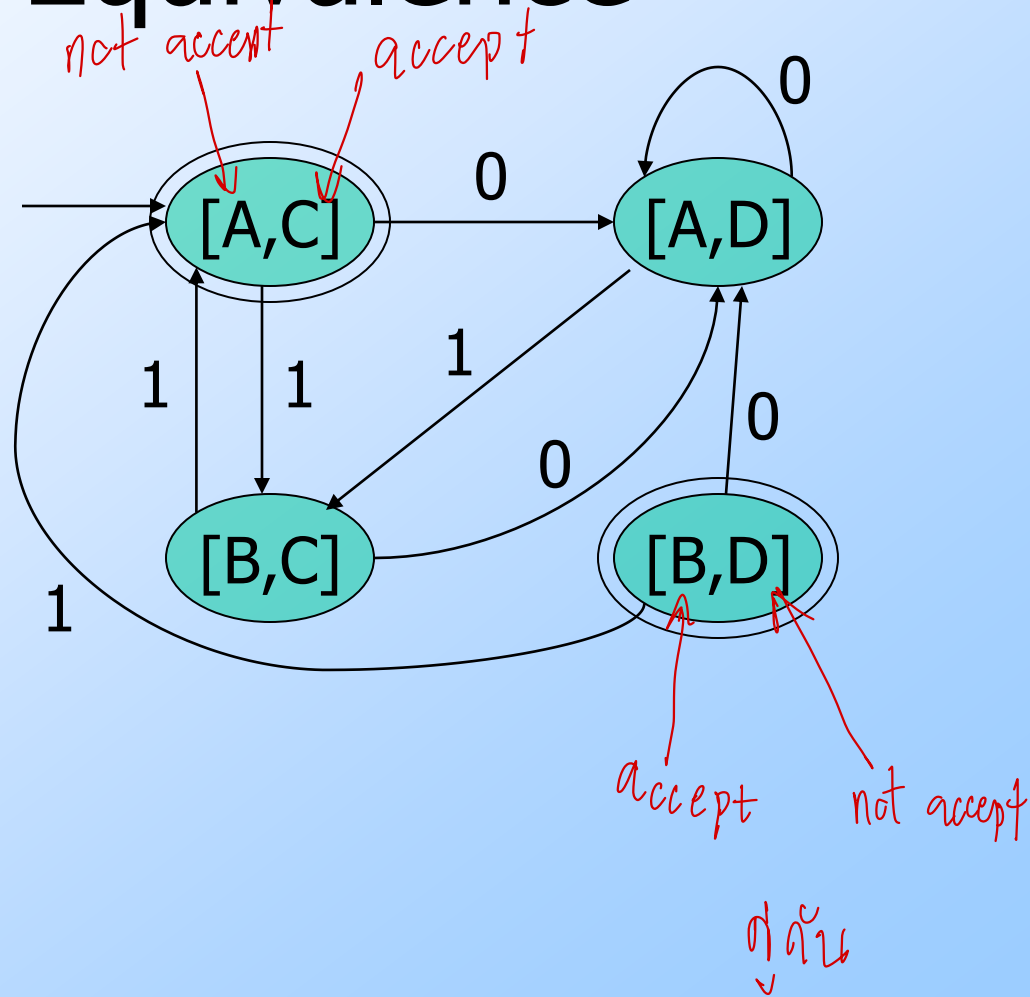
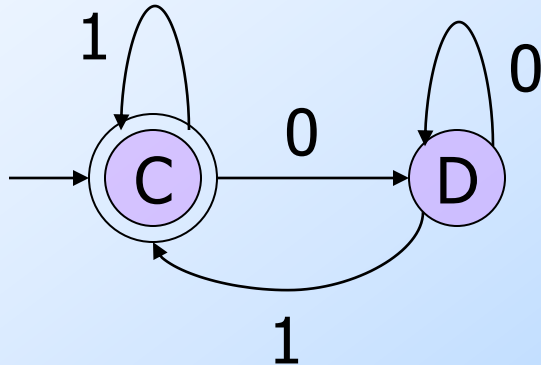
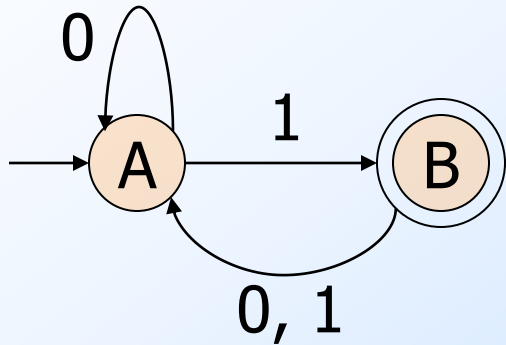
# Equivalence Algorithm

- Make the final states of the product DFA be those states  $[q, r]$  such that exactly one of  $q$  and  $r$  is a final state of its own DFA.
- Thus, the product accepts  $w$  iff  $w$  is in exactly one of  $L$  and  $M$ .

$$L = M \text{ ?}$$

ถ้า accept  $L \neq M$

# Example: Equivalence



# Equivalence Algorithm – (2)

42 transition final

- The product DFA's language is empty iff  $L = M$ .
- But we already have an algorithm to test whether the language of a DFA is empty.

# Decision Property: Containment

- Given regular languages  $L$  and  $M$ , is  $L \subseteq M$ ?
- Algorithm also uses the product automaton.
- How do you define the final states  $[q, r]$  of the product so its language is empty if  $L \subseteq M$ ?

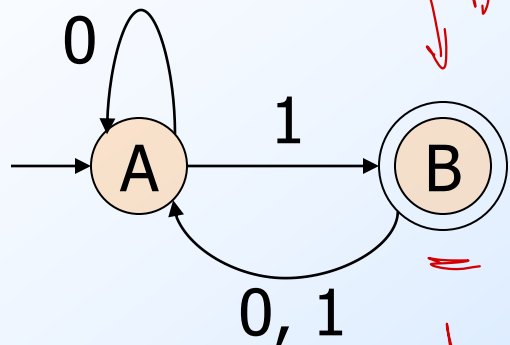
**Answer:**  $q$  is final;  $r$  is not.

ต้องระวัง final state.

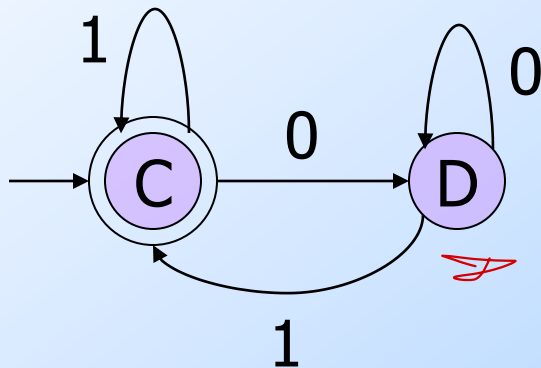
# Example: Containment

ต้องไม่ accept  
ถ้ามี final state.

L



M

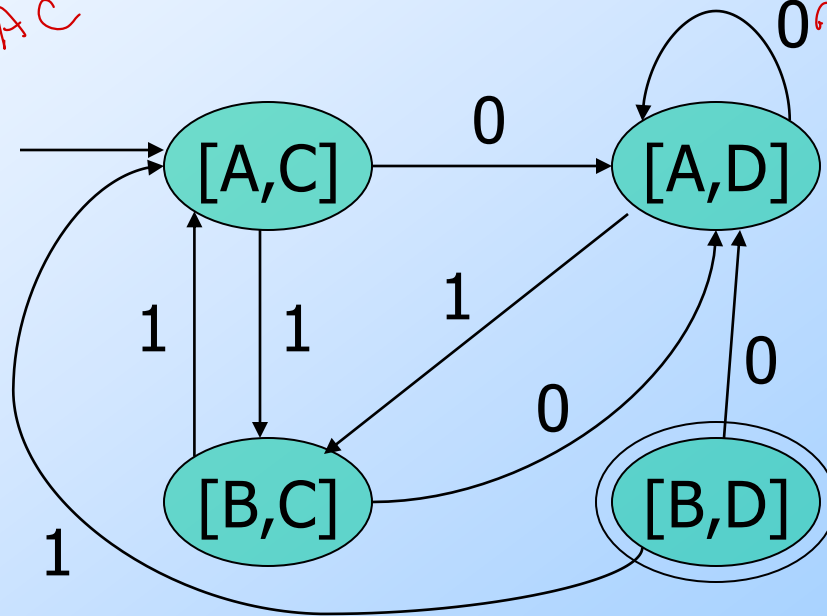


$L \subseteq M?$

$M \subseteq L?$

BD

AC



Note: the only final state is unreachable, so containment holds.



# The Minimum-State DFA for a Regular Language

- In principle, since we can test for equivalence of DFA's we can, given a DFA  $A$  find the DFA with the fewest states accepting  $L(A)$ .
- Test all smaller DFA's for equivalence with  $A$ .
- But that's a terrible algorithm.

# Efficient State Minimization

- Construct a table with all pairs of states.
- If you find a string that *distinguishes* two states (takes exactly one to an accepting state), mark that pair.
- Algorithm is a recursion on the length of the shortest distinguishing string.

ကုလ် ခုဒ် အကုလ် မိဒ်.

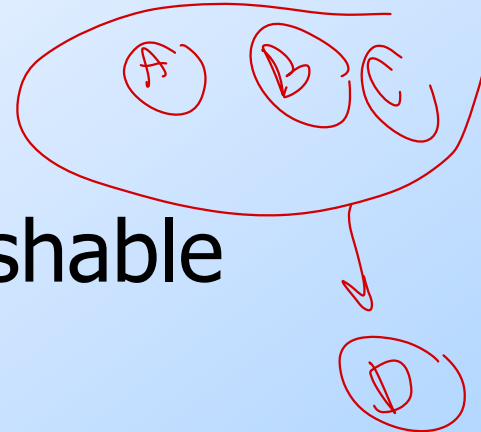
# State Minimization – (2)

- **Basis**: Mark a pair if exactly one is a final state.
- **Induction**: mark  $[q, r]$  if there is some input symbol  $a$  such that  $[\delta(q,a), \delta(r,a)]$  is marked.
- After no more marks are possible, the unmarked pairs are equivalent and can be merged into one state.

# Transitivity of "Indistinguishable"

- If state p is indistinguishable from q, and q is indistinguishable from r, then p is indistinguishable from r.
- **Proof:** The outcome (accept or don't) of p and q on input w is the same, and the outcome of q and r on w is the same, then likewise the outcome of p and r.

# Constructing the Minimum-State DFA



- Suppose  $q_1, \dots, q_k$  are indistinguishable states.
- Replace them by one state  $q$ .
- Then  $\delta(q_1, a), \dots, \delta(q_k, a)$  are all indistinguishable states.
  - **Key point:** otherwise, we should have marked at least one more pair.
- Let  $\delta(q, a)$  = the representative state for that group.

# Example: State Minimization

DFA

	r	b
→ {1}	{2,4}	{5}
{2,4}	{2,4,6,8}	{1,3,5,7}
{5}	{2,4,6,8}	{1,3,7,9}
{2,4,6,8}	{2,4,6,8}	{1,3,5,7,9}
{1,3,5,7}	{2,4,6,8}	{1,3,5,7,9}
* {1,3,7,9}	{2,4,6,8}	{5}
* {1,3,5,7,9}	{2,4,6,8}	{1,3,5,7,9}

	r	b
→ A	B	C
B	D	E
C	D	F
D	D	G
E	D	G
* F	D	C
* G	D	G

Here it is  
with more  
convenient  
state names

Remember this DFA? It was constructed for the chessboard NFA by the subset construction.

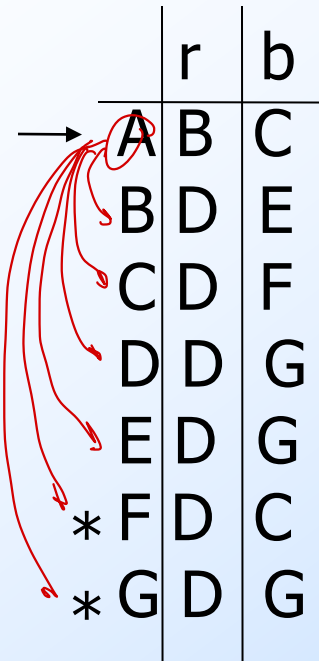
# Example – Continued

	r	b
→ A	B	C
B	D	E
C	D	F
D	D	G
E	D	G
* F	D	C
* G	D	G

	G	F	E	D	C	B
A	X	X				
B	X	X				
C	X	X				
D	X	X				
E	X	X				
F						

Start with marks for the pairs with one of the final states F or G.

# Example – Continued



	r	b
→ A	B	C
	B	D
	C	D
	D	D
	E	D
*	F	D
*	G	D

	G	F	E	D	C	B
A	X	X				
B	X	X				
C	X	X				
D	X	X				
E	X	X				
F						

Input r gives no help,  
because the pair [B, D]  
is not marked.



Example – Continued

	r	b
→ A	B	C
B	D	E
C	D	F
D	D	G
E	D	G
* F	D	C
* G	D	G

	G	F	E	D	C	B
A	X	X	X	X	X	
B	X	X	X	X	X	
C	<del>X</del>	<del>X</del>	C			
D	X	X				
E	X	X				
F	X					

But input b distinguishes  $\{A,B,F\}$  from  $\{C,D,E,G\}$ . For example,  $[A, C]$  gets marked because  $[C, F]$  is marked.

# Example – Continued

	r	b
→ A	B	C
B	D	E
C	D	F
D	D	G
E	D	G
* F	D	C
* G	D	G

	G	F	E	D	C	B
A	X	X	X	X	X	
B	X	X	X	X	X	
C	X	X	X	X		
D	X	X				
E	X	X				
F	X					

[C, D] and [C, E] are marked because of transitions on b to marked pair [F, G].

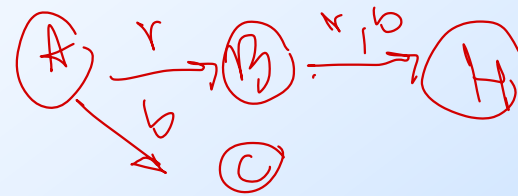
# Example – Continued

	r	b
→	A	B
	B	D
	C	D
	D	D
	E	D
*	F	D
*	G	D

[A, B] is marked  
because of transitions on r  
to marked pair [B, D].

	G	F	E	D	C	B
A	X	X	X	X	X	X
B	X	X	X	X	X	
C	X	X	X	X		
D	X	X				
E	X	X				
F	X					

[D, E] can never be marked,  
because on both inputs they  
go to the same state.



# Example – Concluded

4 state

1 state.

	r	b		r	b
→ A	B	C	→ A	B	C
B	<del>D</del>	<del>E</del>	B	H	H
C	<del>D</del>	F	C	H	F
<del>D</del>	<del>D</del>	G	H	H	G
<del>E</del>	<del>D</del>	G			
* F	<del>D</del>	C	* F	H	C
* G	<del>D</del>	G	* G	H	G

	G	F	E	D	C	B
A	X	X	X	X	X	X
B	X	X	X	X	X	
C	X	X	X	X		
D	X	X				
E	X	X				
F	X					

Replace D and E by H.

Result is the minimum-state DFA.

# Eliminating Unreachable States

- Unfortunately, combining indistinguishable states could leave us with unreachable states in the “minimum-state” DFA.
- Thus, before or after, remove states that are not reachable from the start state.