## **Regular Expressions**

Mohammad Hasan CSE, CUET

#### Introduction

- Regular expressions are an algebraic way to describe languages.
- They describe exactly the regular languages.
- If E is a regular expression, then L(E) is the language it defines.
- Application: text-search, compiler design, Utilities (AWK, GREP in UNIX), modern programming languages (PERL), and text editors all provide mechanisms for the description of patterns using RE.

#### Introduction

- (5+3) x 4 [arithmetic expression]
- (0 U 1) \* 1 [Regular expression]
- RE offer something that automata do not:

A declarative way to express the strings we want to accept. Thus, RE serve as the input language for many systems that process strings.

## **Examples**

- 1. Search commands such as the UNIX *grep* or equivalent commands for finding strings that one sees in Web browsers or text-formatting systems.
- These systems use a RE like notation for describing patterns that the user wants to find in a file.
- 2. Lexical-analyzer generators, such as Lex/Flex.
- A generator accepts descriptions of the forms of tokens, which are essentially REs, and produces a DFA that recognizes which token appears next on the input

- R is a regular expression if R is
- 1. a for some a in the alphabet  $\Sigma$
- 2. ∈
- $3. \varnothing$
- 4.  $(R_1 \cup R_2)$ , where  $R_1 \& R_2$  are RE
- 5.  $(R_1 \circ R_2)$ , where  $R_1 \& R_2$  are RE
- 6.  $(R_1^*)$ , where  $R_1$  is RE

- Basis 1: If a is any symbol, then a is a RE, and L(a) = {a}.
  - Note: {a} is the language containing one string,
     and that string is of length 1.
- Basis 2:  $\epsilon$  is a RE, and  $L(\epsilon) = {\epsilon}$ .
- Basis 3:  $\emptyset$  is a RE, and  $L(\emptyset) = \emptyset$ .

• Induction 1: If  $E_1$  and  $E_2$  are REs, then  $E_1+E_2$  is a RE, and  $L(E_1+E_2) = L(E_1) \cup L(E_2)$ .

Induction 2: If E<sub>1</sub> and E<sub>2</sub> are REs, then E<sub>1</sub>E<sub>2</sub> is a RE, and L(E<sub>1</sub>E<sub>2</sub>) = L(E<sub>1</sub>)L(E<sub>2</sub>).

**Concatenation**: the set of strings wx such that w is in  $L(E_1)$  and x is in  $L(E_2)$ .

Induction 3: If E is a RE, then E\* is a RE, and
 L(E\*) = (L(E))\*.

Closure, or "Kleene closure" = set of strings  $w_1w_2...w_n$ , for some  $n \ge 0$ , where each  $w_i$  is in L(E).

Note: when n=0, the string is  $\epsilon$ .

### Precedence of Operators

 Parentheses may be used wherever needed to influence the grouping of operators.

 Order of precedence is \* (highest), then concatenation, then + (lowest).

## Examples: RE's

- $L(01) = \{01\}.$
- $L(01+0) = \{01, 0\}.$
- $L(0(1+0)) = \{01, 00\}.$ 
  - Note order of precedence of operators.
- $L(\mathbf{0}^*) = \{ \epsilon, 0, 00, 000, \dots \}.$
- $L((0+10)^*(\in+1)) = \text{all strings of 0's and 1's}$  without two consecutive 1's.

## Example: $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$

- 1.  $0*10* = \{w \mid w \text{ has exactly a single 1}\}$
- 2.  $\Sigma^* \mathbf{1} \Sigma^* = \{ \mathbf{w} \mid \mathbf{w} \text{ has at least one 1} \}$
- 3.  $\Sigma^*$ 001  $\Sigma^*$  = {w|w contains the strings 001 as a substring}
- 4.  $(\Sigma \Sigma)^* = \{w \mid w \text{ is a string of even length}\}$
- -the length of a string is the number of symbols that it contains
- 5.  $(\Sigma \Sigma \Sigma)^* = \{w \mid \text{ the length of w is a multiple of three}\}$
- 6. 01 U 10 = {01, 10}
- 7.  $0 \Sigma^* 0 U 1 \Sigma^* 1 U 0 U 1 = \{w \mid w \text{ starts } \& \text{ ends with the same symbol}\}$
- 8.  $(0 \cup \in) 1^* = 01^* \cup 1^*$  the expression  $0 \cup \in$  describes the language  $\{0, \in\}$ , so the concatenation operation adds either  $0 \text{ or } \in$  before every string in  $1^*$

## Example: $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$

- 9.  $(0U \in) (1U \in) = \{ \in, 0, 1, 01 \}$
- 10. 1 \*  $\emptyset$  =  $\emptyset$  Concatenating the empty set to any set yields the empty set
- **11.**  $\emptyset$ \* = { $\in$ }

The Star operation puts together any number of strings from the language to get a string in the result. If the language is empty, the star operation can put together 0 strings, giving only the empty string.

## **Example:** $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$

- R U Ø = R: adding the empty language to any other language will not change it
- R o ∈ = R: adding the empty string to any string will not change it
- R U ∈ ≠ R

If R = 0, then  $L(R) = \{0\}$  but  $L(RU \in) = \{0, \in\}$ 

Ro∅≠R

If R = 0, the L (R) =  $\{0\}$  but L (R o $\emptyset$ ) =  $\emptyset$ 

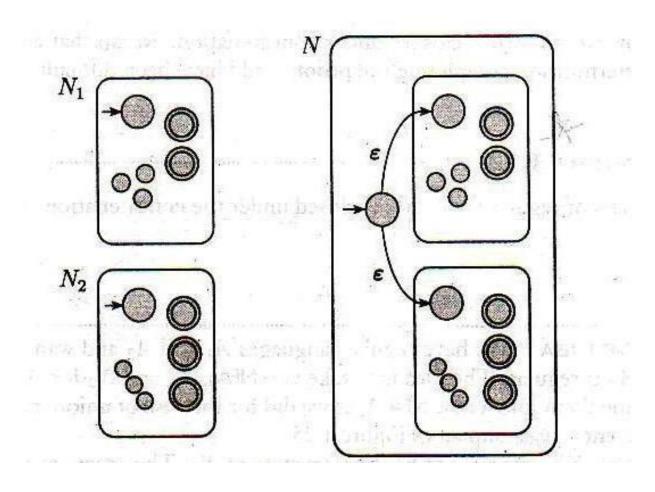
#### **Importance**

- REs are useful tools in the design of compilers for programming languages.
- Elemental objects in a programming language, called tokens, such as the variable names and constants, may be described with RE.
- A numerical constant that may include a fractional part and/or a sign may be described as a member of the language
- {+, -, ∈} {D D\*. U D D\*. D\* U D\*. D D\*}
- Where,  $D = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9\}$
- Expressions: 72, 3.14159, + 7., and -.01
- Once the syntax of the tokens have been described with the REs, automatic systems can generate the lexical analyzer, the part of a compiler that initially processes the input program.

# Theorem 1: The class of regular languages is closed under the union operation

- Proof Idea:
- Regular languages A<sub>1</sub> and A<sub>2</sub>
- Prove that A<sub>1</sub> U A<sub>2</sub> is regular
- Take two NFAs N<sub>1</sub> & N<sub>2</sub> for A<sub>1</sub> & A<sub>2</sub> and combined them into one new NFA, N
- Machine N must accept its input if either N<sub>1</sub> or N<sub>2</sub> accepts this input
- The new machine has a new state that branches to the start states of the old machines with ∈arrows

#### Construction of NFA N to recognize A<sub>1</sub> U A<sub>2</sub>



#### **Proof**

- Let  $N_1 = (Q_1, \Sigma, \delta_1, q_1, F_1)$  recognize  $A_1$ ,
- $N_2 = (Q_2, \Sigma, \delta_2, q_2, F_2)$  recognize  $A_2$ ,

Construct N = (Q,  $\Sigma$ ,  $\delta$ , q<sub>0</sub>, F) recognize A<sub>1</sub>U A<sub>2</sub>

1.  $Q = \{q_0\} \cup Q_1 \cup Q_2$ 

The states of N are all the states of  $N_1 \& N_2$ , with the addition of a new start state  $q_0$ .

2. The state  $q_0$  is the start state of N.

#### **Proof**

3. The accept states  $F = F_1 \cup F_2$ .

The accept states of N are all the accept states of  $N_1 \& N_2$ . That way N accepts if either  $N_1$  accepts or  $N_2$  accepts.

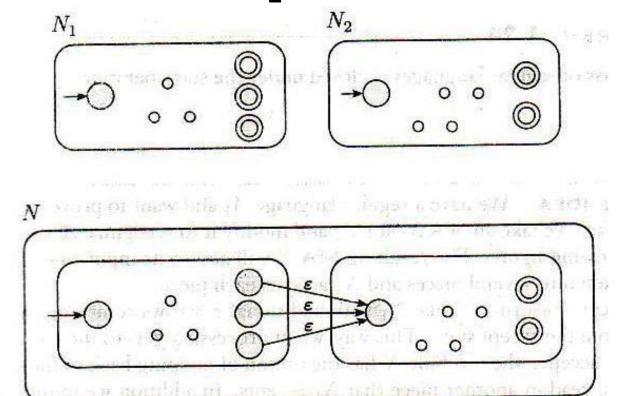
4. Define  $\delta$  so that for any  $q \in \mathbb{Q}$  & any  $a \in \Sigma_{\epsilon}$ 

$$\delta(q, a) = \begin{cases} \delta_{1}(q, a) & q \in Q_{1} \\ \delta_{2}(q, a) & q \in Q_{2} \\ \{q_{1}, q_{2}\} & q = q_{0} \text{ and } a = \varepsilon \\ \phi & q = q_{0} \text{ and } a \neq \varepsilon \end{cases}$$

## Theorem 2: The class of regular languages is closed under the concatenation operation

- Proof Idea:
- Regular languages A<sub>1</sub> and A<sub>2</sub>
- Prove that A<sub>1</sub> o A<sub>2</sub> is regular
- Take two NFAs, N<sub>1</sub> & N<sub>2</sub> for A<sub>1</sub> & A<sub>2</sub> and combined them into a new NFA, N
- Assign N's start state to be the state of N<sub>1</sub>
- The accept states of N<sub>1</sub> have additional ε arrows that allow branching to N<sub>2</sub> whenever N<sub>1</sub> is in an accept state, signifying that it has found an initial piece of the input that constitutes a string in A<sub>1</sub>.

- The accept states of N are the accept states of N<sub>2</sub> only.
- Therefore, it accepts when the input can be split into two parts, the first accepted by N<sub>1</sub> and the second by N<sub>2</sub>.



#### **Proof**

- Let  $N_1 = (Q_1, \Sigma, \delta_1, q_1, F_1)$  recognize  $A_1$ ,
- $N_2 = (Q_2, \Sigma, \delta_2, q_2, F_2)$  recognize  $A_2$ ,

Construct N = (Q,  $\Sigma$ ,  $\delta$ , q<sub>1</sub>, F<sub>2</sub>) recognize A<sub>1</sub>O A<sub>2</sub>

1.  $Q = Q_1 \cup Q_2$ 

The states of N are all the states of N<sub>1</sub> & N<sub>2</sub>,

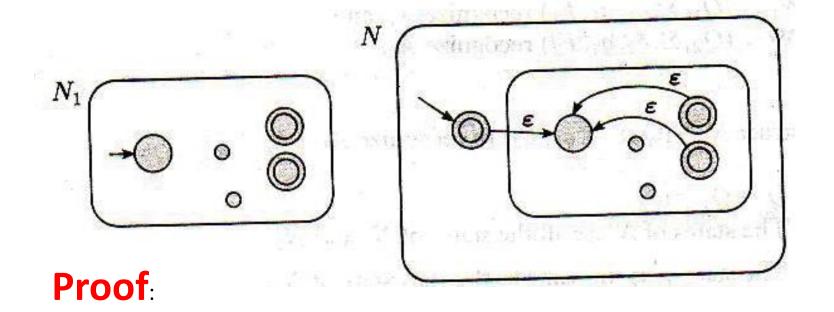
2. The state  $q_1$  is the same as the start state of  $N_1$ .

- 3. The accept states  $F_2$  are the same as the accept state of  $N_2$ .
- 4. Define  $\delta$  so that for any  $q \in Q$  & any  $a \in \Sigma_{\epsilon}$

$$\delta(q,a) = \begin{cases} \delta_{_{1}}(q,a) & q \in Q_{_{1}} \text{ and } q \notin F_{_{1}} \\ \delta_{_{1}}(q,a) & q \in F_{_{1}} \text{and } a \neq \varepsilon \\ \delta_{_{1}}(q,a)U\{q_{_{2}}\} & q \in F_{_{1}} \text{ and } a = \varepsilon \\ \delta_{_{2}}(q,a) & q \in Q_{_{2}} \end{cases}$$

# Theorem 3: The class of regular languages is closed under the star operation

- Proof Idea:
- Regular languages A<sub>1</sub>
- Prove that A<sub>1</sub>\* also is regular
- Take an NFA, N for A<sub>1</sub> and modify it to recognize A<sub>1</sub>\*
- Resulting NFA N will accept its input whenever it can be broken into several pieces
   & N<sub>1</sub> accepts each piece.



Let  $N_1 = (Q_1, \Sigma, \delta_1, q_1, F_1)$  recognize  $A_1$ ,

Construct N = (Q,  $\Sigma$ ,  $\delta$ , q<sub>0</sub>, F) recognize  $\mathbf{A_1}^*$ 

1.  $Q = \{q_0\} \cup Q_1$ 

The states of N are the states of  $N_1$  + a new state 2. The state  $q_0$  is the new start state

3.  $F = \{q_0\} \cup F_1$ .

The accept states are the old accept states + the new start state

4. Define  $\delta$  so that for any  $q \in Q$  & any  $a \in \Sigma_{\epsilon}$ 

$$\delta(q, a) = \begin{cases} \delta_{1}(q, a) & q \in Q_{1} \text{ and } q \notin F_{1} \\ \delta_{1}(q, a) & q \in F_{1} \text{ and } a \neq \varepsilon \end{cases}$$

$$\delta(q, a) = \begin{cases} \delta_{1}(q, a) \cup \{q_{1}\} & q \in F_{1} \text{ and } a = \varepsilon \\ \{q_{1}\} & q = q_{0} \text{ and } a \neq \varepsilon \end{cases}$$

$$\phi = q_{0} \text{ and } a \neq \varepsilon$$

### Equivalent with Finite Automata

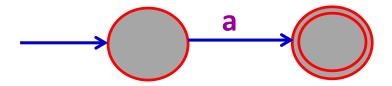
- RE and FA are equivalent in their descriptive power.
- This fact is rather remarkable, because FA & RE superficially appear to be rather different.
- However, any RE can be converted into a FA that recognizes the language it describes, & vice-versa.
- Recall that a Regular language is one that is recognize by some FA

# Theorem: A language is regular if and only if some regular expression describe it

- Two directions: 02 lemmas
- Lemma 1: if a language is described by a RE, then it is regular
- Proof Idea: Say that we have a RE R describing some language A.
- We show how to convert R into an NFA recognizing A
- If an NFA recognizes A then A is regular.

#### **Proof**

- Let's convert R into NFA N.
- Six cases:
- 1. R = a for some a in  $\Sigma$ . Then  $L(R) = \{a\}$ , and the following NFA recognizes L(R)



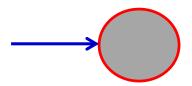
**Note**: this machine fits the definition of an NFA but not that of a DFA because it has some states with no exiting arrow for each possible input symbol.

Formally, N = ({q<sub>1</sub>, q<sub>2</sub>},  $\Sigma$ ,  $\delta$ , q<sub>1</sub>, {q<sub>2</sub>}), where we describe  $\delta$  by saying that  $\delta$  (q<sub>1</sub>, a) = {q<sub>2</sub>},

- $\delta$  (r, b) =  $\emptyset$  for  $r \neq q_1$  or  $b \neq a$
- 2.  $R = \varepsilon$ . Then L (R) = { $\varepsilon$ }, and the following NFA recognizes L (R).

Formally, N = ({q<sub>1</sub>},  $\Sigma$ ,  $\delta$ , q<sub>1</sub>, {q<sub>1</sub>}), where  $\delta$  (r, b) =  $\emptyset$  for any r and b

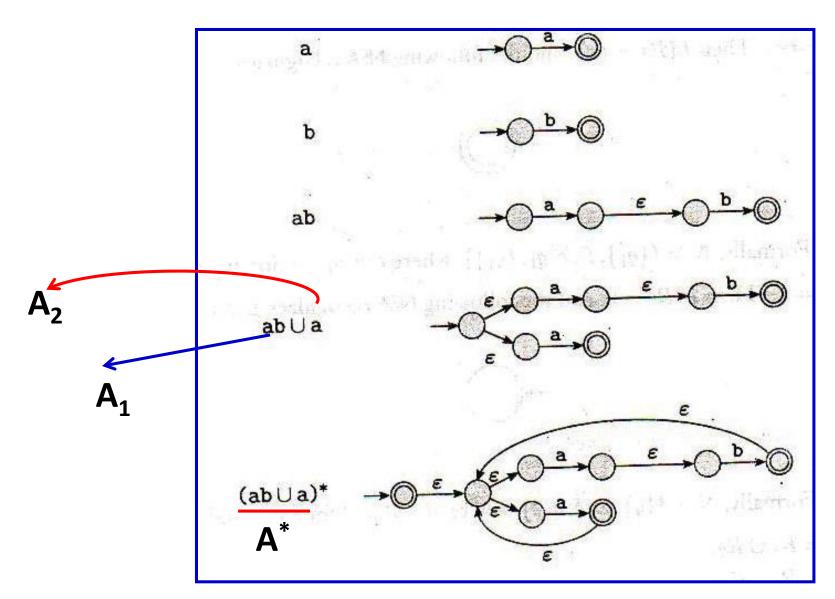
#### 3. $R = \emptyset$ . Then the following NFA recognizes L (R)



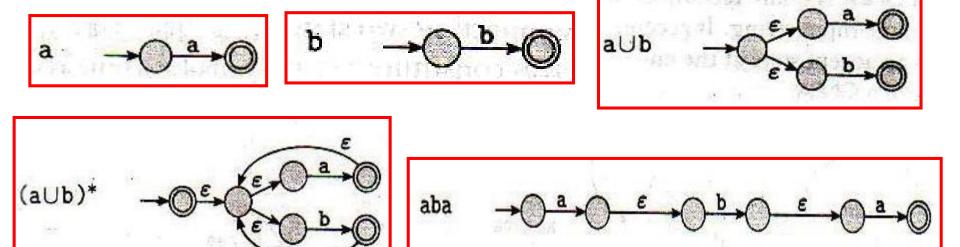
Formally, N = ({q},  $\Sigma$ ,  $\delta$ , q, { $\emptyset$ }), for any r and b

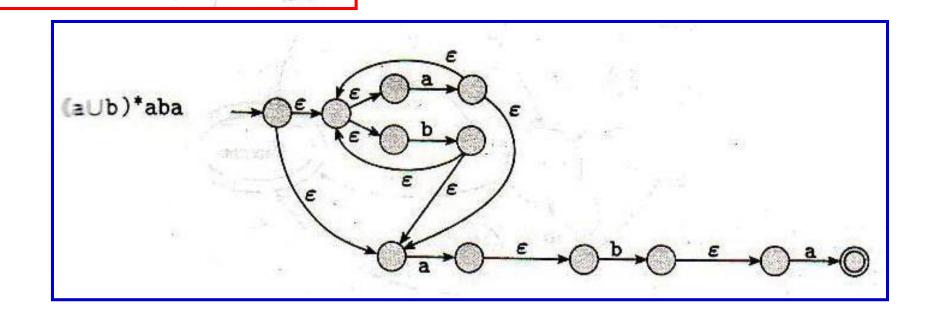
- 4.  $R = R_1 U R_2$
- 5.  $R = R_1 \circ R_2$
- 6.  $R = R_1^*$ .

## Convert RE (ab U a)\* to NFA

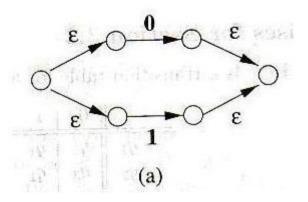


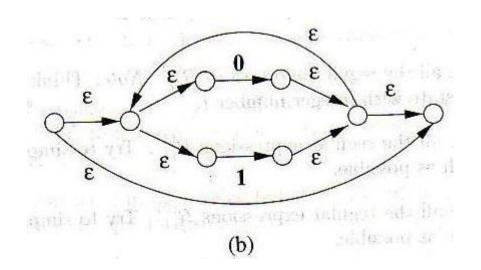
## Convert (a U b)\*aba to NFA

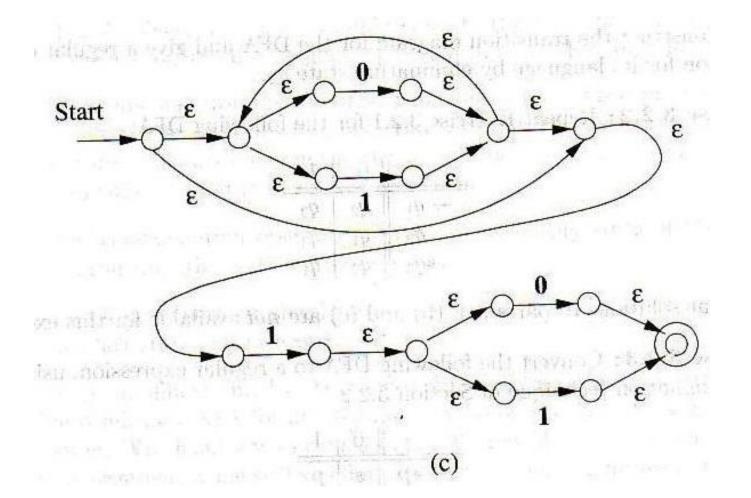




## Convert (0+1)\* 1 (0+1) to an $\varepsilon$ -NFA







#### Assignments

- Convert the Following to NFA
- 1. (0 U 1)\* 000 (0 U 1)\*
- 2. a\* U b\*
- 3. aba U bab
- 4. a (ba)\* b
- 5. (ε U a) b