

# Regular Expressions

Noman Amin

Lecturer, Dept. of CSE

Southeast University

# Regular Expressions

Now, we switch our attention from machine-like descriptions of languages — deterministic and nondeterministic finite automata — to an algebraic description: the “regular expression.” We shall find that regular expressions can define exactly the same languages that the various forms of automata describe: the regular languages. However, regular expressions offer something that automata do not: a declarative way to express the strings we want to accept. Thus, regular expressions serve as the input language for many systems that process strings.

# Regular Expressions

Regular expressions denote languages. For a simple example, the regular expression  $\mathbf{01^* + 10^*}$  denotes the language consisting of all strings that are either a single 0 followed by any number of 1's or a single 1 followed by any number of 0's.

# Three Operations of Regular Expressions

Before describing the regular expression notation we need to learn the three operations on languages that the operators of regular expressions represent. These operations are:

1. The *union* of two languages  $L$  and  $M$ , denoted  $L \cup M$ , is the set of strings that are in either  $L$  or  $M$ , or both. For example, if  $L = \{001, 10, 111\}$  and  $M = \{\epsilon, 001\}$ , then  $L \cup M = \{\epsilon, 10, 001, 111\}$ .
2. The *concatenation* of languages  $L$  and  $M$  is the set of strings that can be formed by taking any string in  $L$  and concatenating it with any string in  $M$ . Recall Section 1.5.2, where we defined the concatenation of a

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For example, if  $L = \{001, 10, 111\}$  and  $M = \{\epsilon, 001\}$ , then  $L.M$ , or just  $LM$ , is  $\{001, 10, 111, 001001, 10001, 111001\}$ . The first three strings in  $LM$  are the strings in  $L$  concatenated with  $\epsilon$ . Since  $\epsilon$  is the identity for concatenation, the resulting strings are the same as the strings of  $L$ . However, the last three strings in  $LM$  are formed by taking each string in  $L$  and concatenating it with the second string in  $M$ , which is 001. For instance, 10 from  $L$  concatenated with 001 from  $M$  gives us 10001 for  $LM$ .

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3. The *closure* (or *star*, or *Kleene closure*)<sup>1</sup> of a language  $L$  is denoted  $L^*$  and represents the set of those strings that can be formed by taking any number of strings from  $L$ , possibly with repetitions (i.e., the same string may be selected more than once) and concatenating all of them. For instance, if  $L = \{0, 1\}$ , then  $L^*$  is all strings of 0's and 1's. If  $L = \{0, 11\}$ , then  $L^*$  consists of those strings of 0's and 1's such that the 1's come in pairs, e.g., 011, 11110, and  $\epsilon$ , but not 01011 or 101. More formally,  $L^*$  is the infinite union  $\cup_{i \geq 0} L^i$ , where  $L^0 = \{\epsilon\}$ ,  $L^1 = L$ , and  $L^i$ , for  $i > 1$  is  $LL \cdots L$  (the concatenation of  $i$  copies of  $L$ ).

# Three Operations of Regular Expressions

**Example** : Since the idea of the closure of a language is somewhat tricky, let us study a few examples. First, let  $L = \{0, 11\}$ .  $L^0 = \{\epsilon\}$ , independent of what language  $L$  is; the 0th power represents the selection of zero strings from  $L$ .  $L^1 = L$ , which represents the choice of one string from  $L$ . Thus, the first two terms in the expansion of  $L^*$  give us  $\{\epsilon, 0, 11\}$ .

Next, consider  $L^2$ . We pick two strings from  $L$ , with repetitions allowed, so there are four choices. These four selections give us  $L^2 = \{00, 011, 110, 1111\}$ . Similarly,  $L^3$  is the set of strings that may be formed by making three choices of the two strings in  $L$  and gives us

$$\{000, 0011, 0110, 1100, 01111, 11011, 11110, 111111\}$$

# Regular Languages and Their Properties

A regular language is any language that can be described by a regular expression or recognized by a finite automaton. In the theory of computation, regular languages are the simplest class of languages and have the following key properties:

1. Closed Under Union: If  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  are regular languages, then  $L_1 \cup L_2$  is also regular.
2. Closed Under Intersection: If  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  are regular languages, then  $L_1 \cap L_2$  is also regular.
3. Closed Under Complementation: If  $L$  is a regular language, then its complement  $L'$  is also regular.
4. Closed Under Concatenation: If  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  are regular languages, then  $L_1 \cdot L_2$  is also regular.
5. Closed Under Kleene Star: If  $L$  is a regular language, then  $L^*$  is also regular.



# Regular Expressions and Finite Automata

The most important connection between regular expressions and automata theory is that regular expressions can be directly translated into finite automata and vice versa. Specifically:

A Deterministic Finite Automaton (DFA) and a Nondeterministic Finite Automaton (NFA) can recognize exactly the same set of languages that can be described by regular expressions, i.e., regular languages.

## ❑ Conversion from Regular Expressions to Finite Automata:

- Thompson's Construction: This algorithm constructs an NFA from a regular expression.
- Subset Construction: This method is used to convert an NFA to a DFA.

## ❑ Conversion from Finite Automata to Regular Expressions:

- There are algorithms, such as the state elimination method, that can convert an NFA (or DFA) into an equivalent regular expression.

# Examples

## 1. Regular expression: $a^*$

Description: This regular expression represents the language of strings that contain zero or more occurrences of the letter a. It includes the empty string  $\epsilon$ , a, aa, aaa, etc.

Language:  $\{\epsilon, a, aa, aaa, \dots\}$

## 2. Regular expression: $(a|b)^*$

Description: This regular expression matches strings consisting of any combination of a and b, including the empty string.

Language:  $\{\epsilon, a, b, ab, ba, aa, bb, aba, bab, \dots\}$

## 3. Regular expression: $a(b|c)^*d$

Description: This regular expression matches any string that starts with a, followed by any number of b or c (including none), and ends with d.

Language:  $\{abd, acd, abbd, abcd, acbd, \dots\}$

# Example

## **Regular Expression: $ab^*$**

Explanation: This regular expression matches the string a followed by zero or more occurrences of the letter b.

Language: {a, ab, abb, abbb, ....}

Description: The string must begin with a, and the number of bs following a can be zero or more. The  $b^*$  part indicates zero or more occurrences of b.

# Example

**Regular Expression: (ab | cd)\***

Explanation: This regular expression matches zero or more occurrences of either the string ab or cd.

Language: { $\epsilon$ , ab, cd, abcd, ababcd, ...}

Description: The grouping (ab | cd) means that either ab or cd can repeat any number of times, including zero times (the empty string is also valid here due to the Kleene star).

# Challenges and Limitations of Regular Expressions

While regular expressions are incredibly useful, they have limitations when it comes to expressing more complex languages:

1. **Non-Regular Languages:** Some languages cannot be described by regular expressions, such as the language  $\{a^n b^n \mid n \geq 0\}$ , which requires a pushdown automaton (PDA) to be recognized, not a finite automaton.
2. **Limited Memory:** Regular expressions and finite automata have limited memory—they cannot "remember" past states beyond the finite set of states they have.
3. **Nested or Recursive Patterns:** Regular expressions are not capable of handling nested or recursive patterns that require memory beyond a finite state machine, such as matching balanced parentheses.

# Precedence in Regular Expression

From highest to lowest precedence:

1. **Closure operators (Highest precedence)**: These operators apply only to the immediate preceding symbol or group. **Example:**  $ab^*$  Interpreted as  $a(b^*)$  NOT:  $(ab)^*$
2. **Concatenation**
  - Implied operation (no symbol used)
  - Binds tighter than union but weaker than closure
  - **Example:**  $abc$  Interpreted as:  $((a\ b)\ c)$
3. **Union / Alternation (Lowest precedence)**: Symbol:  $|$  or  $+$  (depending on notation)
  - Example:  $a|bc$  Interpreted as:  $a\ | \ (bc)$  NOT:  $(a\ | \ b)\ c$

# Example

1. **Binary strings whose 10th symbol from the right is 1:**  $(0+1)^*1(0+1)^9$
2. **Over  $\Sigma = \{0,1\}$ , all strings that start with 0:**  $0(0+1)^*$
3. **Over  $\Sigma = \{0,1\}$ , all strings that end with 1:**  $(0+1)^*1$
4. **Over  $\Sigma = \{a,b\}$ , a single symbol only:**  $a + b$
5. **Over  $\Sigma = \{a,b\}$ , strings of length at least 1:**  $(a+b)(a+b)^*$
6. **Over  $\Sigma = \{0,1\}$ , strings containing at least one 1:**  $(0+1)^*1(0+1)^*$
7. **Over  $\Sigma = \{a,b\}$ , strings starting with a:**  $a(a+b)^*$
8. **Over  $\Sigma = \{0,1\}$ , strings containing substring 01:**  $(0+1)^*01(0+1)^*$

# Example

1. Over  $\Sigma = \{0,1\}$ , strings with no consecutive 1's:  $(0+10)^*(1 + \epsilon)$
2. Over  $\Sigma = \{0,1\}$ , strings with no consecutive 0's:  $(1+01)^*(0 + \epsilon)$