

NFA, DFA, and regular expressions

204213 Theory of Computation

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- Figure 1. The effect of the number of nodes on the number of nodes in the network.

Review Homework 2

8. (Sipser 1.41) Let $B_n = \{a^k \mid k \text{ is multiple of } n\}$. Show that the language B_n is regular.

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Regular operations

Last time, we defined 3 regular operations:

- **Union:** $A \cup B = \{x \mid x \in A \text{ or } x \in B\}$,
- **Concatenation:** $A \circ B = \{xy \mid x \in A \text{ and } y \in B\}$,
- **Star:** $A^* = \{x_1x_2 \cdots x_k \mid k \geq 0 \text{ and each } x_i \in A\}$,

and proved the following theorem.

Theorem 1

The class of regular languages is closed under the union operation.

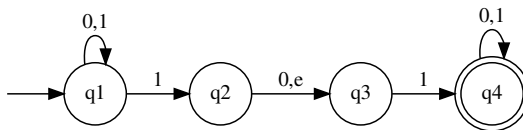
What about other operations?

- We prove Theorem 1 by simulating two finite automata with one finite automaton.
- This approach cannot be used directly to prove that the set of regular languages is closed under concatenation. Why?
 - For string $w \in A_1 \circ A_2$, there exists a pair x and y such that $w = xy$ and $x \in A_1$ and $y \in A_2$.
 - To construct a finite automaton M for $A_1 \circ A_2$ from M_1 and M_2 that recognize A_1 and A_2 we need to simulate M_1 to the end of x and start simulating M_2 right after that. **And it is hard to “tell” where x ends.**

A machine that always guesses correctly

- Suppose that our machine can guess where x ends.
- It can
 - simulate M_1 on the input string up to the end of x ,
 - jump to the start state in M_2 right after x ends, and
 - accept string $w = xy$ when the machine stops at some accept state in M_2 .
- Can machine guess?
 - Maybe?
 - But guess correctly?
 - Ummm.. it definitely can, **in theory**.

Differences

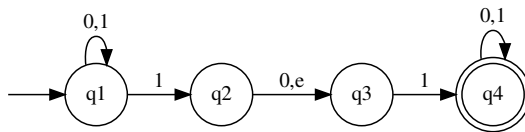


- Duplicate symbols
- Missing symbols
- Empty string: ϵ

Deterministic and Nondeterministic Finite Automata

- Previously, we only consider finite automata whose next states are **determined** by their input alphabet and their current states.
- Computation where each next step is fully determined is called **deterministic** computation.
- On the other hand, in **nondeterministic** computation, many choices may exist.
- Therefore, we have deterministic finite automata (**DFA**) and nondeterministic finite automata (**NFA**).

How does N_1 compute?



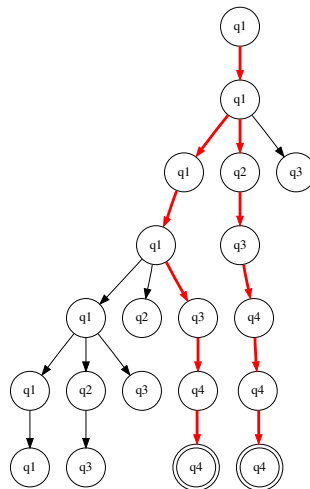
$$\delta(q_1, 1) = \{q_1, q_2\}$$

At any point where there are many choices for the next step, the machine **splits** itself into many copies and follow all possible steps in parallel.

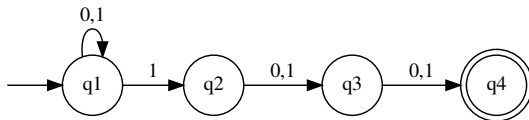
Rules for computation of nondeterministic finite automata

- If there are many choices, split.
- Copies die if they can't move according to the input.
- When to accept a string:
 - At the end of the input, if **any** of the copies is in an accept state, it **accept** the input.

N_1 on 010110

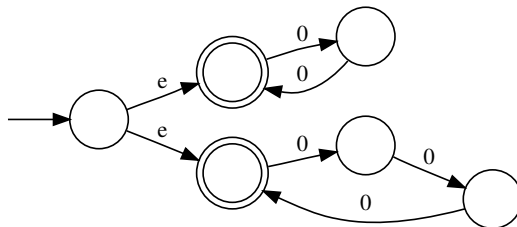


NFA N_2 : what are the strings accepted by N_2 ?

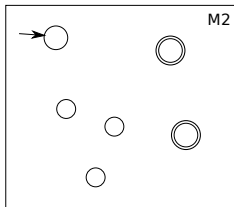
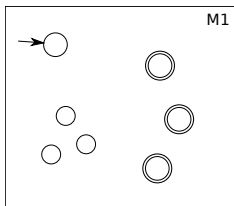


NFA N_3 : what are the strings accepted by N_3 ?

Let $\{0\}$ be the alphabet for N_3 .



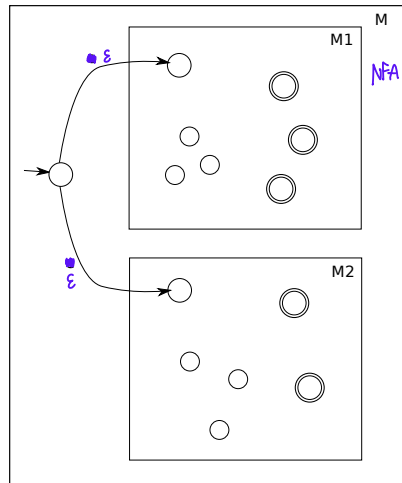
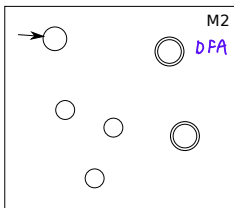
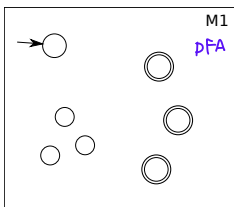
Union (if NFA is allowed)



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האיחוד של שתי רגולריות regular

→ NFA הכוללת את שתי הרגולריות



Formal definition of NFAs: δ

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Definition [NFA]

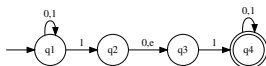
A **nondeterministic finite automaton** is a 5-tuple $(Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$, where

- ① Q is a finite set of states,
- ② Σ is a finite alphabet,
- * ③ $\delta : Q \times \Sigma_{\epsilon} \longrightarrow \mathcal{P}(Q)$ is the transition function, *non-deterministic*
- ④ $q_0 \in Q$ is the start state, and
- ⑤ $F \subseteq Q$ is the set of accept states.

Example: N_1



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N_1 is $(Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_1, F)$ where

- ① $Q = \{q_1, q_2, q_3, q_4\}$,
- ② $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$,
- ③ δ is defined as

	0	1	\emptyset
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

- ④ q_1 is the start state, and
- ⑤ $F = \{q_4\}$.

Formal definition of computation of NFAs

Let $N = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$ be an NFA and let w be a string over alphabet Σ .

We say that **N accepts w** if we can write $w = w_1 w_2 \cdots w_n$ where each w_i is a member of Σ_ϵ and

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- 1 $r_0 = q_0$,
- 2 $r_{i+1} \in \delta(r_i, w_{i+1})$ for $i = 0, \dots, n-1$, and
- 3 $r_n \in F$.



Are NFAs more powerful than DFAs?

- With the power of nondeterminism, NFAs seem to be more powerful.

NFA ከ DFA ላይ ኃይል ይበልጣል

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- In fact, DFAs and NFAs recognize the **same** class of languages! *Spoils → နှိယိုင်ခိုက်*

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- With the power of nondeterminism, NFAs seem to be more powerful.
- In fact, DFAs and NFAs recognize the **same** class of languages!
- We say that two machines are equivalent if they recognize the same language.

Proving equivalence

Two directions:

- Given a DFA,  construct an NFA recognizing the same language. 

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ง่ายกว่า
ทำง่ายกว่า

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- Given an NFA, construct a DFA recognizing the same language.
 - No that easy.

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How can we prove that?

- Recall “reader as automaton”?
- Given an NFA N , think of a DFA M as a manager who operates N .
- What does M have to **remember** in order to simulate N correctly?

↓ จำสิ่งที่มัน “อ่าน”

↓ state ที่มันอ่านได้

→ ดังนั้น set of state

Proof of Theorem 2

Let $N = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$ be an NFA.

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Let $N = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$ be an NFA. We shall construct a DFA $M = (Q', \Sigma, \delta', q'_0, F')$ recognizing the same language.

Proof of Theorem 2: easy case

Easy case: N has no ε arrows.

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- ③ $q'_0 = \{q_0\}$, and
- ④ $F' = \{R \in Q' \mid R \text{ contains an accept state of } N\}$.

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- Define, for state $q \in Q$, $D(q)$ to be a set of states in Q that can be reached from q by traveling along 0 or more ε arrows.
- If N is at q , it can move freely to any states in $D(q)$.

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- Fix start states $q'_0 = E(\{q_0\})$.

Finishing the proof

- At any point on the computation of M , the state of M is the set of all possible states that N can be in at that point.

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- M correctly simulates N .
- Thus, our proof is complete.

Note on the correctness proof

- Our previous proof of Theorem 2 is quite short and does not give out all the details.
- This is okay for now, since our construction is simple enough so that it is quite obvious that it is correct.
- For more complicated constructions, we need to be more formal.

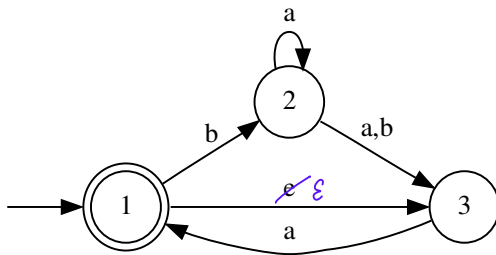
A more general definition of regular languages

Corollary 3

A language is regular iff some nondeterministic finite automaton recognizes it.

எனவே DFA ஏது NFA

Example



Invalid DFA

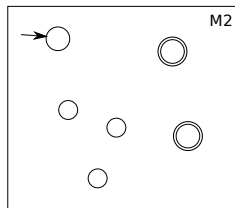
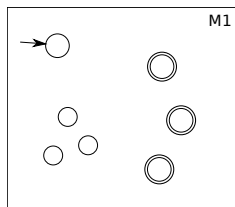
Closure under the regular operations

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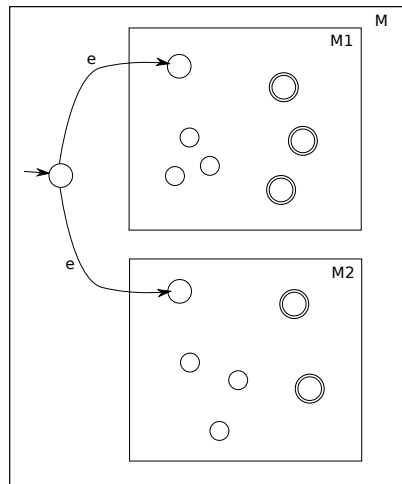
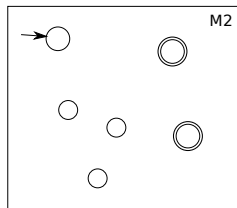
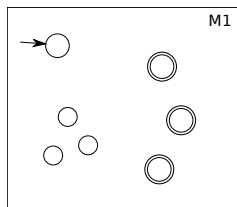
Closure under the regular operations

- Using NFA-DFA equivalence, it is much easy to prove that the set of regular languages is closed under the regular operations.
- We'll look at each operation.

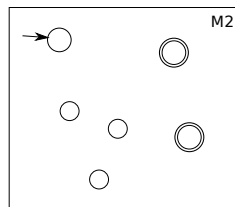
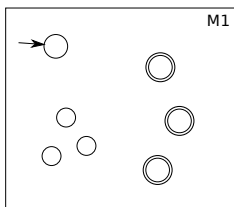
Union



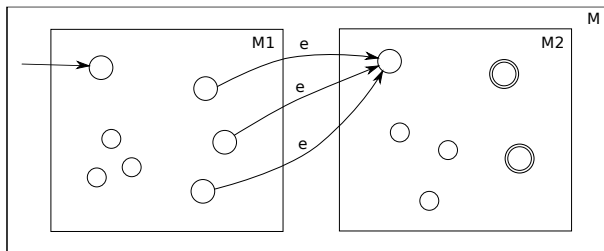
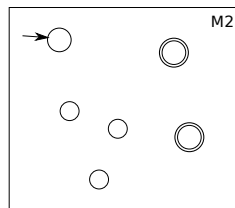
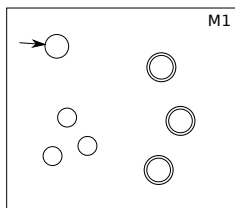
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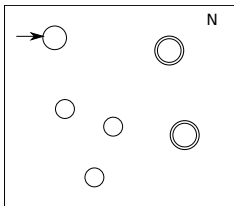
Concatenation



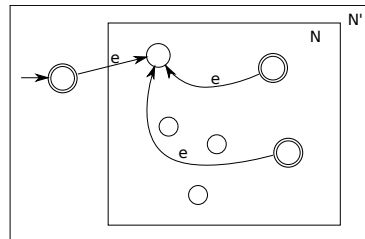
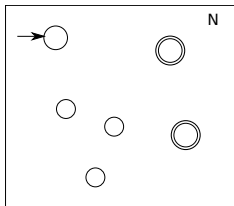
Concatenation



Star

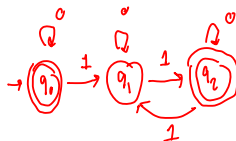


Star



Practice

- Let alphabet $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$.
- $A_1 = \{w \mid w \text{ contains even number of '1's'}\}$.



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Find an FA M_2 that recognizes A_2 .

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Find an FA M_1 that recognizes A_1 .
- $A_2 = \{w \mid w \text{ contains odd number of 0's}\}$.
Find an FA M_2 that recognizes A_2 .
- Construct an NFA N_1 recognizing $A_1 \cup A_2$.
- Construct an NFA N_2 recognizing $A_1 \circ A_2$.
- Construct an NFA N_3 recognizing $(A_1^*) \circ A_2$.

Building up patterns

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- For example,

$$(\{0\} \cup \{1\}) \circ \{0\}^*,$$

0 1 | .
 1 0 0 0 0
 0 0 . .

100%

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- For example,

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- This is called a **regular expression**.
- Note: 0 denotes $\{0\}$, 1 denotes $\{1\}$, and \circ is omitted.

Another examples

$(0 \cup 1)^*$ → any binary string including ϵ

$= 111111$

$= 000000$

$= \epsilon$

$= 0101$

Another examples

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

- All possible strings (including ε). ✂

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

- All possible strings (including ε).
- If $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$, we can write Σ for $(0 \cup 1)$, and write Σ^* for any strings from alphabet Σ .

↓
Σ* ε

Definition [regular expression]

ទំនាក់ទំនង

R is a **regular expression** 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 $(R_1 \circ R_2)$ where R_1 and R_2 are regular expressions, and
 - ⑥ (R_1^*) where R_1 is a regular expression.
- } Base case
- } ការបំបែក

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This is an **inductive definition**.

Precedence

↓
ลำดับการคำนวณ


Operations are performed in this order:

- *
- \circ
- \cup

Shorthands

- RR^*

Shorthands

- RR^* can be written as R^+  တစ်ခုအနည်းဆုံး 1
- $RRRR = R^4$

Shorthands



- RR^* can be written as R^+
- $RRRR$ can be written as R^4 , in general R^k is the concatenation of R to itself for k times.

Examples of regular expressions

① 0^*10^* .

$= 0^1 1 0^0$

$= 1$

Examples of regular expressions

① 0^*10^* .

② $\Sigma^*1\Sigma^*$.

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Examples of regular expressions

- ① 0^*10^* .
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- ④ $(01^+)^*$
- ⑤ $(\Sigma\Sigma)^*$
- ⑥ $01 \cup 10$
- ⑦ $0\Sigma^*0 \cup 1\Sigma^*1 \cup 0 \cup 1$

Examples of regular expressions

- 1 0^*10^* .
- 2 $\Sigma^*1\Sigma^*$.
- 3 $\Sigma^*001\Sigma^*$.
- 4 $(01^+)^*$
- 5 $(\Sigma\Sigma)^*$
- 6 $01 \cup 10$
- 7 $0\Sigma^*0 \cup 1\Sigma^*1 \cup 0 \cup 1$
- 8 $1^*\emptyset$

Examples of regular expressions

- 1 $0^*10^* \rightarrow$ သို့မဟုတ် 0^+10^+
- 2 $\Sigma^*1\Sigma^*$
- 3 $\Sigma^*001\Sigma^*$
- 4 $(01^+)^*$
- 5 $(\Sigma\Sigma)^*$
- 6 $01 \cup 10$
- 7 $0\Sigma^*0 \cup 1\Sigma^*1 \cup 0 \cup 1$
- 8 $1^*\emptyset = \emptyset$ $a \circ \phi = \phi$ ဖြစ်စေရန် $a \notin \phi$ ဖြစ်စေရန် $xy = w$
- 9 $\emptyset^* = \{\epsilon\}$

- 1 0^*10^* . \rightarrow 0 1 0 หนึ่งตัว 0 หนึ่งตัว
- 2 $\Sigma^*1\Sigma^*$. \rightarrow 0 1 0 หนึ่งตัว 1 ตัว
- 3 $\Sigma^*001\Sigma^*$. \rightarrow 0 0 1 0 หนึ่งตัว
- 4 $(01^+)^*$ \rightarrow 0 1 0 หนึ่งตัว 1 หนึ่งตัว 1 ตัว
- 5 $(\Sigma\Sigma)^*$ \rightarrow 0 1 0 หนึ่งตัว
- 6 $01 \cup 10 \rightarrow \{01, 10\}$
- 7 $0\Sigma^*0 \cup 1\Sigma^*1 \cup 0 \cup 1 \rightarrow$ 0 หนึ่งตัว 0 หนึ่งตัว 1 หนึ่งตัว 1
- 8 $1^*\emptyset = \emptyset$
- 9 $\emptyset^* = \{\epsilon\}$

Properties

- $R \cup \emptyset = R$

Properties

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Properties



- $R \cup \emptyset = R$
- $R \circ \varepsilon = R$
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regular languages



\$ FA

is describes or

DFA, NFA

(Machine)

language



regular
expression

(grammar)

Equivalence

Theorem 4

A language is regular [↔] iff some regular expression describes it.

Machine	Recognize	language
RegEx	describe	language

Equivalence

$\alpha \in \Sigma^*$ 2 m1

Theorem 4

A language is regular iff some regular expression describes it.

There are two directions to prove the theorem:

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

Equivalence

Theorem 4

A language is regular iff some regular expression describes it.

There are two directions to prove the theorem:

- If a language is described by a regular expression, then it is regular. \leftarrow
- If a language is regular, \Rightarrow then it can be described by a regular expression.

Today we'll prove only the first direction.

↓
FA in
recognize it

Practice

- Let alphabet $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$.

Practice

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- Find an FA M_1 that recognizes 01^+

Practice

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Practice

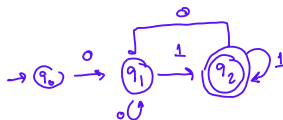
- Let alphabet $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$.

I • Find an FA M_1 that recognizes 01^+

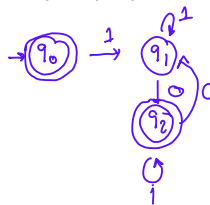
II • Find an FA M_2 that recognizes $(10)^*$

III • Find an FA M_3 that recognizes $(01^+) \cup (10)^*$

I



II



$$\text{III} = \text{I} \cup \text{II}$$

Practice

- Let alphabet $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$.
- Find an FA M_1 that recognizes 01^+
- Find an FA M_2 that recognizes $(10)^*$
- Find an FA M_3 that recognizes $(01^+) \cup (10)^*$
- Find an FA M_4 that recognizes $1^+ \circ ((01^+) \cup (10)^*)$

A regular expression describes a regular language

Lemma 5

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

A regular expression describes a regular language

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

To prove this, we'll look at how a regular expression is constructed.

Rule 1

R is a **regular expression** if R is a for some $a \in \Sigma$.

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What is a DFA that recognizes R ?

Rule 2

R is a **regular expression** if R is ε .

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What is a DFA that recognizes R ?

Rule 3

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Rule 4

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Given an NFA N_1 and N_2 that recognize R_1 and R_2 , what is a NFA that recognizes R ?

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Rule 6

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R is a **regular expression** if R is (R_1^*) where R_1 is a regular expression.

Given an NFA N_1 that recognizes R_1 , what is a NFA that recognizes R ?

Proof by Structural Induction

- In proving Lemma 5, we show how to construct an NFA of a regular expression given NFAs of its subexpressions.

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- In proving Lemma 5, we show how to construct an NFA of a regular expression given NFAs of its subexpressions.
- The proof is again an inductive proof.
- Sometimes, this kind of inductive proofs is called structural induction.
 - Inductive Hypothesis (when considering a regular expression R): Assume that for all smaller regular expressions R' , the language described by R' can be recognized by some NFA N' .

Practice

- 1 Find an NFA recognizing $(01 \cup 0)^*$.

Practice

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Try to build an NFA using the construction discussed in class.

Practice

- ① Find an NFA recognizing $(01 \cup 0)^*$.
Try to build an NFA using the construction discussed in class.
- ② Find an NFA recognizing $(0 \cup 1)^*010$.