# Regular Languages and Finite State Automata

Data structures and algorithms for Computational Linguistics III

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# Why study finite-state automata?

- Unlike some of the abstract machines we discussed, finite-state automata are efficient models of computation
- There are many applications
  - Electronic circuit design
  - Workflow management
  - Games
  - Pattern matching
  - **–** ...

#### But More importantly;)

- Tokenization, stemming
- Morphological analysis
- Shallow parsing/chunking
- **–** ...

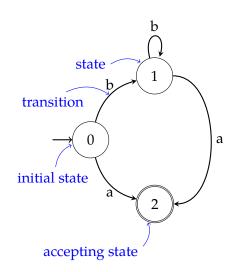
### Finite-state automata (FSA)

- A finite-state machine is in one of a finite-number of states in a given time
- The machine changes its state based on its input
- Every regular language is generated/recognized by an FSA
- Every FSA generates/recognizes a regular language
- Two flavors:
  - *Deterministic finite automata* (DFA)
  - Non-deterministic finite automata (NFA)

Note: the NFA is a superset of DFA.

# DFA as a graph

- States are represented as nodes
- Transitions are shown by the edges, labeled with symbols from an alphabet
- One of the states is marked as the initial state
- Some states are accepting states



#### DFA: formal definition

Formally, a finite state automaton, M, is a tuple  $(\Sigma, Q, q_0, F, \Delta)$  with

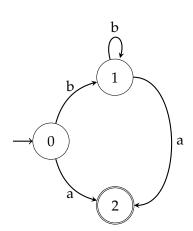
- $\Sigma$  is the alphabet, a finite set of symbols
- Q a finite set of states
- $q_0$  is the start state,  $q_0 \in Q$ 
  - F is the set of final states,  $F \subseteq Q$
  - $\Delta$  is a function that takes a state and a symbol in the alphabet, and returns another state ( $\Delta : Q \times \Sigma \to Q$ )

At any given time, for any input, a DFA has a single well-defined action to take.

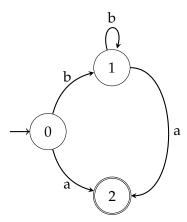
### DFA: formal definition

#### an example

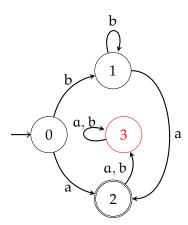
$$\begin{split} \Sigma &= \{a,b\} \\ Q &= \{q_0,q_1,q_2\} \\ q_0 &= q_0 \\ F &= \{q_2\} \\ \Delta &= \{(q_0,a) \rightarrow q_2, \\ (q_0,b) \rightarrow q_1, \\ (q_1,a) \rightarrow q_2, \\ (q_1,b) \rightarrow q_1 \} \end{split}$$



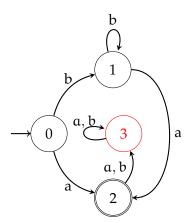
• Is this FSA deterministic?



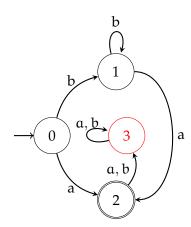
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- To make all transitions well-defined, we can add a sink (or error) state



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- For brevity, we skip the explicit error state



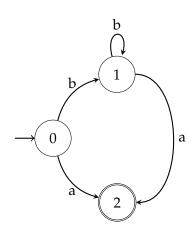
- Is this FSA deterministic?
- To make all transitions well-defined, we can add a sink (or error) state
- For brevity, we skip the explicit error state
  - In that case, when we reach a dead end, recognition fails



#### DFA: the transition table

# 

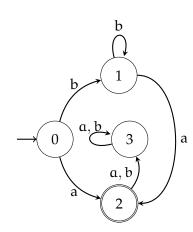
- $\rightarrow$  marks the start state
  - \* marks the accepting state(s)



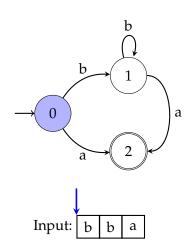
#### DFA: the transition table

able		
sy	symbol	
a	b	
2	1	•
2	1	
3	3	
3	3	
	sy a 2 2 3	symbol a b 2 1 2 1 3 3

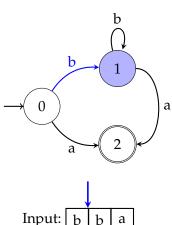
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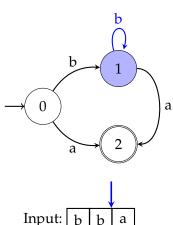
- 1. Start at qo
- 2. Process an input symbol, move accordingly
- 3. Accept if in a final state at the end of the input



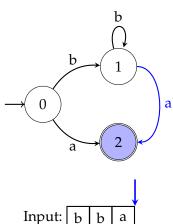
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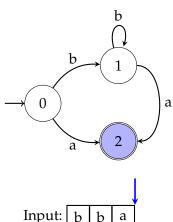
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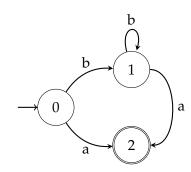


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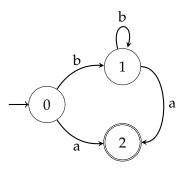
- What is the complexity of the algorithm?
- How about inputs:
  - bbbb
  - aa



Input:

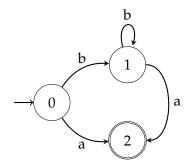
# A few questions

 What is the language recognized by this FSA?



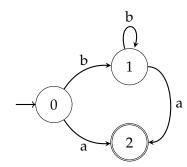
# A few questions

- What is the language recognized by this FSA?
- Can you draw a simpler DFA for the same language?



# A few questions

- What is the language recognized by this FSA?
- Can you draw a simpler DFA for the same language?
- Draw a DFA recognizing strings with even number of 'a's over  $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$



#### Non-deterministic finite automata

#### Formal definition

A non-deterministic finite state automaton, M, is a tuple  $(\Sigma,Q,q_0,F,\Delta)$  with

 $\Sigma$  is the alphabet, a finite set of symbols

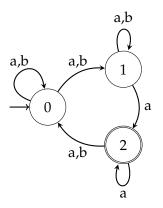
Q a finite set of states

 $q_0$  is the start state,  $q_0 \in Q$ 

F is the set of final states,  $F \subseteq Q$ 

 $\Delta$  is a function from  $(Q, \Sigma)$  to P(Q), power set of Q  $(\Delta: Q \times \Sigma \to P(Q))$ 

# An example NFA



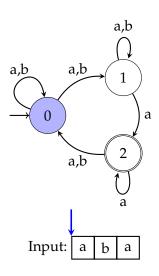
trans	ition	table		
		SY	mbol	-
		a	b	
	→0	0,1	0,1	
state	1	1,2	1	
18	*2	0,2	0	
				-

- We have nondeterminism, e.g., if the first input is a, we need to choose between states 0 or 1
- Transition table cells have sets of states

# Dealing with non-determinism

- Follow one of the links, store alternatives, and backtrack on failure
- Follow all options in parallel
- Use dynamic programming (e.g., as in chart parsing)

as search (with backtracking)

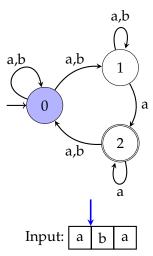


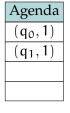


- 1. Start at q<sub>0</sub>
- 2. Take the next input, place all possible actions to an *agenda*
- 3. Get the next action from the agenda, act
- 4. At the end of input

Accept if in an accepting state
Reject not in accepting state &
agenda empty

as search (with backtracking)

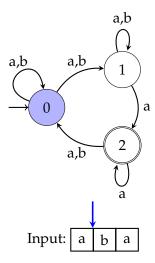


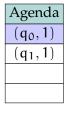


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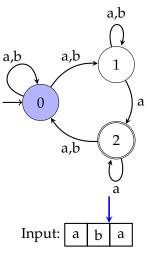




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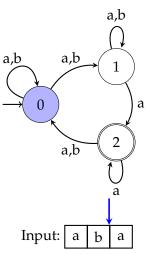


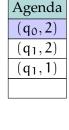
Agend	da
$(q_0, 2)$	2)
$(q_1, 2$	2)
$(q_1, 1$	)

- 1. Start at q<sub>0</sub>
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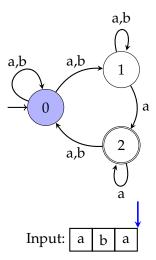




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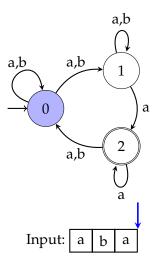


Agenda
$(q_0, 3)$
$(q_1, 3)$
$(q_1, 2)$
$(q_1, 1)$

- 1. Start at q<sub>0</sub>
- 2. Take the next input, place all possible actions to an *agenda*
- 3. Get the next action from the agenda, act
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Accept if in an accepting state
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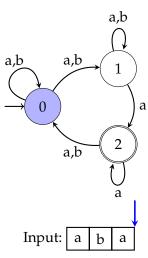


Agenda
$(q_0, 3)$
$(q_1, 3)$
$(q_1, 2)$
$(q_1, 1)$

- 1. Start at q<sub>0</sub>
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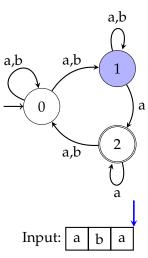


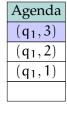
ŀ	$\frac{\text{Agenda}}{(q_1,3)}$
İ	$(q_1, 2)$
	$(q_1, 1)$

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- 2. Take the next input, place all possible actions to an *agenda*
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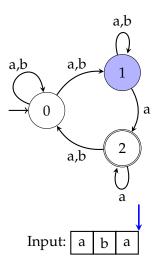


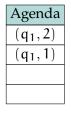


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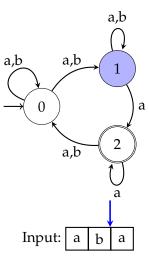


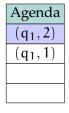


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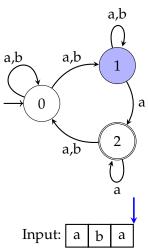




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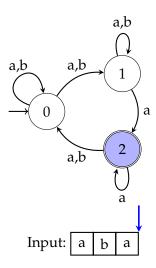


	$\frac{\text{genda}}{(q_2,3)}$
(	$(q_1, 3)$
(	$(q_1, 1)$

- 1. Start at q<sub>0</sub>
- 2. Take the next input, place all possible actions to an *agenda*
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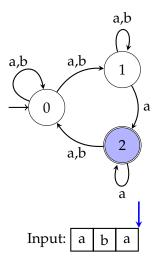


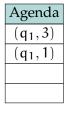
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Backtrack otherwise

as search (with backtracking)





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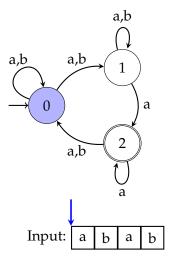
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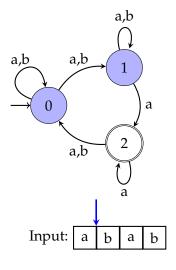
# NFA recognition as search

#### summary

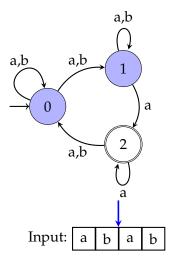
- Worst time complexity is exponential
  - Complexity is worse if we want to enumerate all derivations
- We used a stack as agenda, performing a depth-first search
- A queue would result in breadth-first search
- If we have a reasonable heuristic A\* search may be an option
- Machine learning methods may also guide finding a fast or the best solution



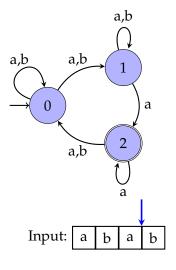
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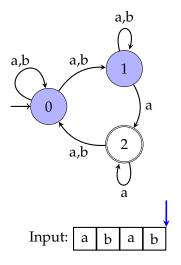
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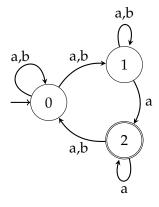


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#### parallel version



Input:

- 1. Start at q<sub>0</sub>
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- 3. If an accepting state is marked at the end of the input, accept

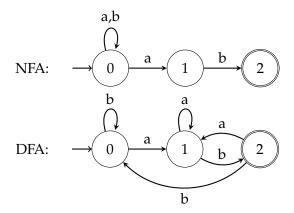
Note: the process is deterministic, and finite-state.

#### An exercise

Construct an NFA and a DFA for the language over  $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$  where all string end with ab.

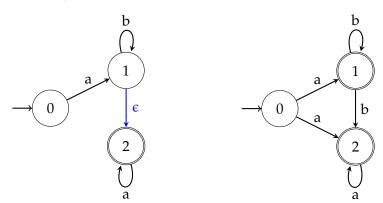
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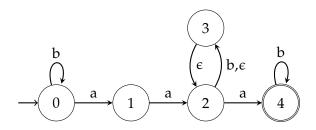


# One more complication: $\epsilon$ transitions

- An extension of NFA,  $\epsilon$ -NFA, allows moving without consuming an input symbol, indicated by an  $\epsilon$ -transition
- Any  $\epsilon$ -NFA can be converted to an NFA



#### €-transitions need attention



 How does the (depth-first) NFA recognition algorithm we described earlier work on this automaton?

# NFA-DFA equivalence

- The language recognized by every NFA is recognized by some DFA
- The set of DFA is a subset of the set of NFA (a DFA is also an NFA)
- The same is true for  $\epsilon$ -NFA
- All recognize/generate regular languages
- NFA can automatically be converted to the equivalent DFA

- NFA (or  $\epsilon$ -NFA) are often easier to construct
  - Intuitive for humans
  - Some representations are easy to convert to NFA rather than DFA, e.g., regular expressions
- NFA may require less memory (fewer states)

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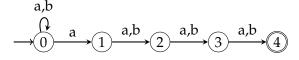
### A quick exercise

1. Construct (draw) an NFA for the language over  $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$ , such that 4th symbol from the end is an a

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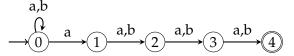
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### A quick exercise – and a not-so-quick one

1. Construct (draw) an NFA for the language over  $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$ , such that 4th symbol from the end is an a



2. Construct a DFA for the same language

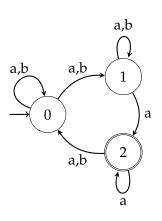
#### Determinization

the subset construction

Intuition: remember the parallel NFA recognition. We can consider an NFA being a deterministic machine which is at a set of states at any given time.

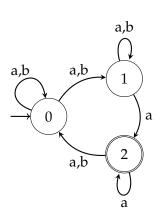
- Subset construction (sometimes called powerset construction) uses this intuition to convert an NFA to a DFA
- The algorithm can be modified to handle  $\epsilon$ -transitions (or we can eliminate  $\epsilon$ 's as a pre-processing step)

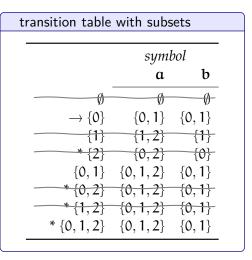
#### by example



### transition table with subsets symbol b $\mathfrak{a}$ $\rightarrow \{0\}$ $\{0, 1\}$ $\{0, 1\}$ {1} $\{1,2\}$ $\{1\}$ \* {2} {0, 2} {0} $\{0,1\}$ $\{0,1,2\}$ $\{0,1\}$ \* {0, 2} {0, 1, 2} {0, 1} \* {1, 2} {0, 1, 2} {0, 1} \* {0, 1, 2} {0, 1, 2} {0, 1}

#### by example

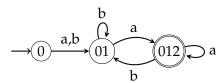




by example: the resulting DFA

### transition table without useless/inaccessible states

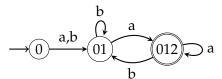
	symbol	
	a	b
$\rightarrow \{0\}$	{0, 1}	{0, 1}
$\{0, 1\}$	$\{0, 1, 2\}$	$\{0, 1\}$
* {0, 1, 2}	$\{0, 1, 2\}$	$\{0, 1\}$



by example: the resulting DFA

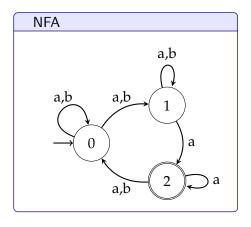
#### transition table without useless/inaccessible states

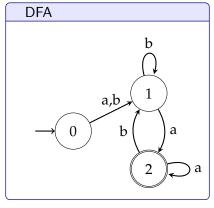
	symbol	
	a	b
$\rightarrow \{0\}$	{0, 1}	{0, 1}
$\{0, 1\}$	$\{0, 1, 2\}$	$\{0, 1\}$
* {0, 1, 2}	$\{0, 1, 2\}$	$\{0, 1\}$



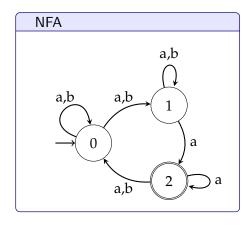
Do you remember the set of states marked during parallel NFA recognition?

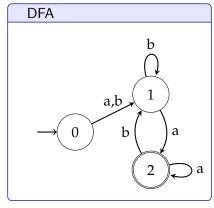
by example: side by side





by example: side by side

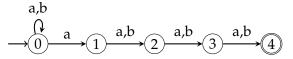




What language do they recognize?

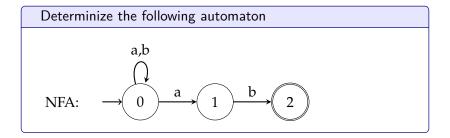
#### wrapping up

- In worst case, resulting DFA has 2<sup>n</sup> nodes
- Worst case is rather rare, in practice number of nodes in an NFA and the converted DFA are often similar
- In practice, we do not need to enumerate all 2<sup>n</sup> subsets
- We've already seen a typical problematic case:



 We can also skip the unreachable states during subset construction

### Yet another exercise



# Regular languages: definition

A regular grammar is a tuple  $G = (\Sigma, N, S, R)$  where

- $\Sigma$  is an alphabet of terminal symbols
- N are a set of non-terminal symbols
- S is a special 'start' symbol  $\in \mathbb{N}$
- R is a set of rewrite rules following one of the following patterns (A, B  $\in$  N,  $\alpha \in \Sigma$ ,  $\epsilon$  is the empty string)

Left regular	
1. $A \rightarrow a$	
2. $A \rightarrow Ba$	

3.  $A \rightarrow \epsilon$ 

Right regular	_
1. $A \rightarrow a$	
2. $A \rightarrow \alpha B$	
3. $A \rightarrow \epsilon$	

# Regular languages: another definition

A language is regular if there is an FSA that recognizes it

- We denote the language recognized by a finite state automaton M, as  $\mathcal{L}(M)$
- The above definition reformulated: if a language L is regular, there is a DFA M, such that  $\mathcal{L}(M) = L$
- Remember: any NFA (with or without  $\epsilon$  transitions) can be converted to a DFA

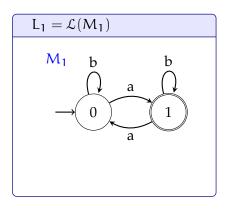
# Some operations on regular languages (and FSA)

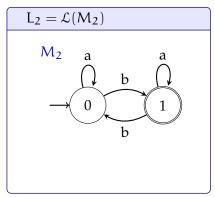
- $L_1L_2$  Concatenation of two languages  $L_1$  and  $L_2$ : any sentence of  $L_1$  followed by any sentence of  $L_2$ 
  - L\* Kleene star of L: L concatenated by itself 0 or more times
  - L<sup>R</sup> Reverse of L: reverse of any string in L
    - $\overline{L}$  Complement of L: all strings in  $\Sigma_L^*$  except the ones in L  $(\Sigma_L^* L)$
- $L_1 \cup L_2$  Union of languages  $L_1$  and  $L_2$ : strings that are in any of the languages
- $L_1 \cap L_2$  Intersection of languages  $L_1$  and  $L_2$ : strings that are in both languages

Regular languages are closed under all of these operations.

## Two example FSA

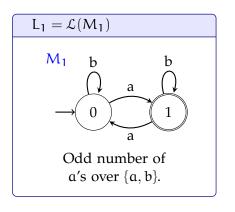
what languages do they accept?

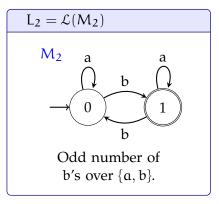




## Two example FSA

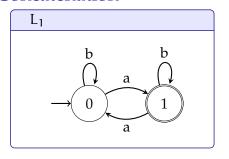
what languages do they accept?

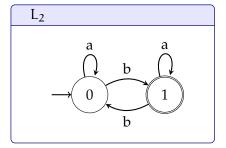


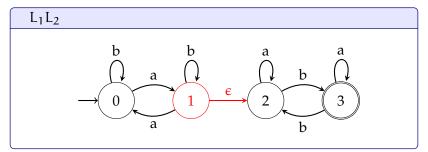


We will use these languages and automata for demonstration.

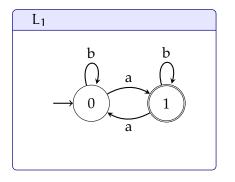
### Concatenation

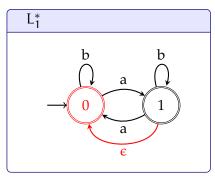






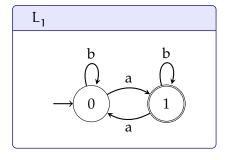
### Kleene star

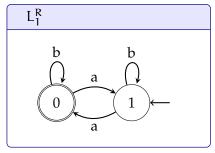




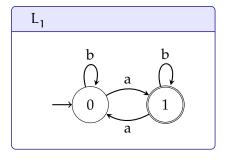
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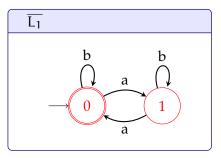
### Reversal





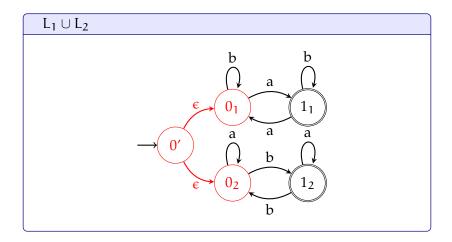
# Complement



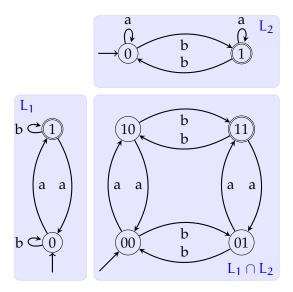


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### Union



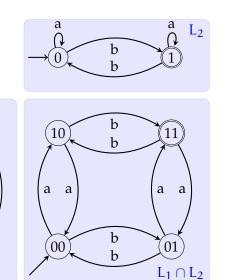
### Intersection



### Intersection

 $L_1$ 

a a



...or

$$L_1\cap L_2=\overline{\overline{L_1}\cup\overline{L_2}}$$

## Closure properties of regular languages

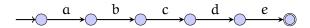
- Since results of all the operations we studied are FSA:
   Regular languages are closed under
  - Concatenation
  - Kleene star
  - Reversal
  - Complement
  - Union
  - Intersection

### Is a language regular?

- or not

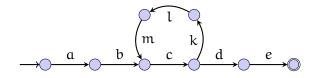
- To show that a language is regular, it is sufficient to find an FSA that recognizes it.
- Showing that a language is *not* regular is more involved
- We will study a method based on pumping lemma

intuition



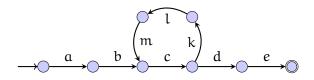
• What is the length of longest string generated by this FSA?

intuition



• What is the length of longest string generated by this FSA?

#### intuition



- What is the length of longest string generated by this FSA?
- Any FSA generating an infinite language has to have a loop (application of recursive rule(s) in the grammar)
- Part of every string longer than some number will include repetition of the same substring ('cklm' above)

#### definition

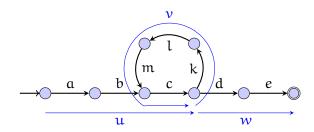
For every regular language L, there exist an integer p such that a string  $x \in L$  can be factored as x = uvw,

- $uv^iw \in L, \forall i \geqslant 0$
- $\nu \neq \varepsilon$
- $|uv| \leqslant p$

#### definition

For every regular language L, there exist an integer p such that a string  $x \in L$  can be factored as x = uvw,

- $uv^iw \in L, \forall i \geqslant 0$
- $v \neq \epsilon$
- $|uv| \leqslant p$



# How to use pumping lemma

- We use pumping lemma to prove that a language is not regular
- Proof is by contradiction:
  - Assume the language is regular
  - Find a string x in the language, for all splits of x = uvw, at least one of the pumping lemma conditions does not hold
    - $uv^iw \in L \ (\forall i \geq 0)$
    - $v \neq \epsilon$
    - $|uv| \leq p$

### Pumping lemma example

prove  $L = a^n b^n$  is not regular

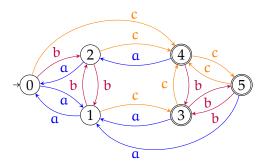
- Assume L is regular: there must be a p such that, if uvw is in the language
  - 1.  $uv^iw \in L \ (\forall i \geq 0)$
  - 2.  $v \neq \epsilon$
  - 3.  $|uv| \leq p$
- Pick the string a<sup>p</sup>b<sup>p</sup>
- For the sake of example, assume p = 5, x = aaaaabbbbb
- Three different ways to split

<u>a aaa abbbbb</u>	violates 1
aaaa ab bbbb	violates 1 & 3
aaaaab bbb b	violates 1 & 3
ů v w	

### DFA minimization

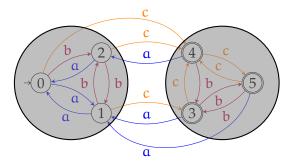
- For any regular language, there is a unique minimal DFA
- By finding the minimal DFA, we can also prove equivalence (or not) of different FSA
- In general the idea is:
  - Throw away unreachable states (easy)
  - Merge equivalent states
- There are two well-known algorithms for minimization:
  - Hopcroft's algorithm: find and eliminate equivalent states by partitioning the set of states
  - Brzozowski's algorithm: 'double reversal'

# Finding equivalent states Intuition



# Finding equivalent states

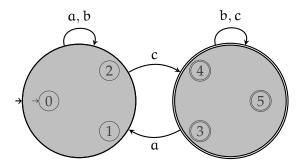
#### Intuition



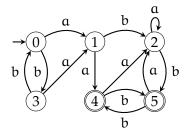
The edges leaving the group of nodes are identical. Their *right languages* are the same.

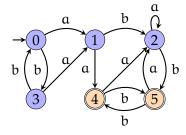
## Finding equivalent states

#### Intuition



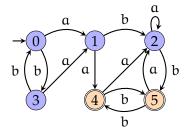
The edges leaving the group of nodes are identical. Their *right languages* are the same.





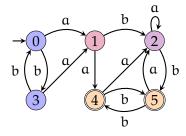
• Accepting & non-accepting states form a partition

$$Q_2 = \{0, 1, 2, 3\}, Q_2 = \{4, 5\}$$



- Accepting & non-accepting states form a partition  $Q_2 = \{0, 1, 2, 3\}, Q_2 = \{4, 5\}$
- If any two nodes go to different sets for any of the symbols split

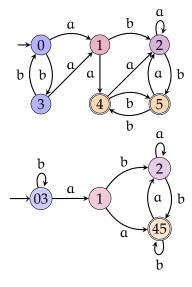
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 Accepting & non-accepting states form a partition

$$Q_2 = \{0, 1, 2, 3\}, Q_2 = \{4, 5\}$$

- If any two nodes go to different sets for any of the symbols split
- $Q_1 = \{0, 3\}, Q_3 = \{1\}, Q_4 = \{2\}, Q_2 = \{4, 5\}$

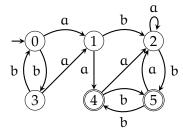


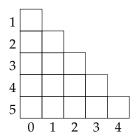
- Accepting & non-accepting states form a partition
   Q<sub>2</sub> = {0, 1, 2, 3}, Q<sub>2</sub> = {4, 5}
- If any two nodes go to different sets

for any of the symbols split

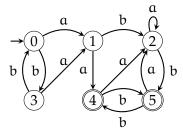
- $Q_1 = \{0, 3\}, Q_3 = \{1\}, Q_4 = \{2\}, Q_2 = \{4, 5\}$
- Stop when we cannot split any of the sets

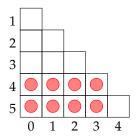
#### tabular version



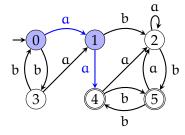


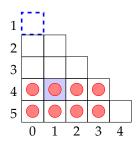
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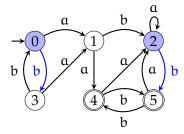


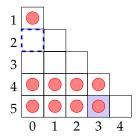
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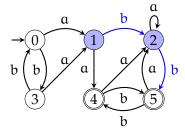


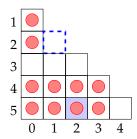
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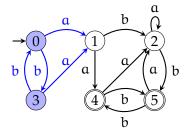


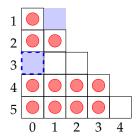
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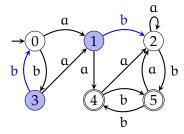


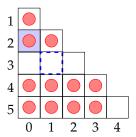
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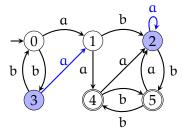


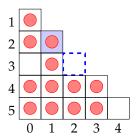
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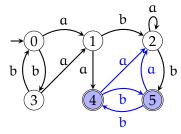


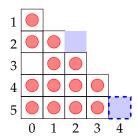
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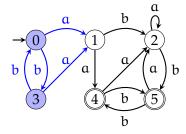


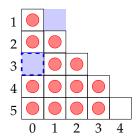
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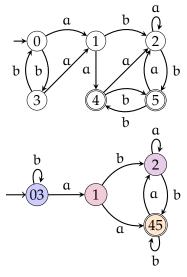


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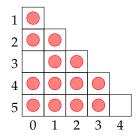




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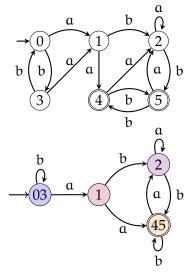


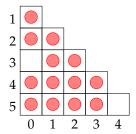
• Create a state-by-state table, mark distinguishable pairs:  $(q_1, q_2)$  such that  $(\Delta(q_1, x), \Delta(q_2, x))$  is a distinguishable pair for any  $x \in \Sigma$ 



Merge indistinguishable states

#### tabular version

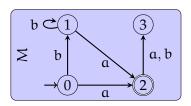




- Merge indistinguishable states
- The algorithm can be improved by choosing which cell to visit carefully

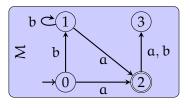
### Brzozowski's algorithm

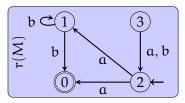
double reverse (r), determinize (d)



### Brzozowski's algorithm

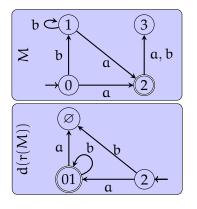
double reverse (r), determinize (d)

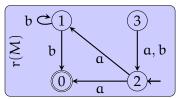




### Brzozowski's algorithm

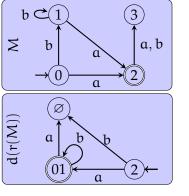
double reverse (r), determinize (d)

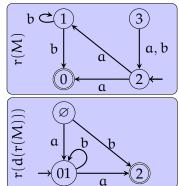




### Brzozowski's algorithm

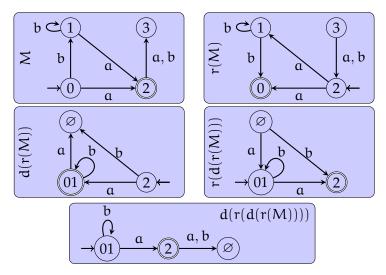
double reverse (r), determinize (d)





### Brzozowski's algorithm

double reverse (r), determinize (d)



### Minimization algorithms

#### final remarks

- There are many versions of the 'partitioning' algorithm. General idea is to form equivalence classes based on *right-language* of each state.
- Partitionin algorithm has  $O(n \log n)$  complexity
- 'Double reversal' algorithm has exponential worst-time complexity
- Double reversal algorithm can also be used with NFA's (resulting in the minimal equivalent DFA – NFA minimization is intractable)
- In practice, there is no clear winner, different algorithms run faster on different input

# Regular expressions

- Another way to specify a regular language (RL) is use of regular expressions (RE)
- Every RL can be expressed by a RE, and every RE defines a RL
- A RE x defines a RL  $\mathcal{L}(x)$
- Relations between RE and RL

$$\begin{array}{lll} - \ \mathcal{L}(\varnothing) = \varnothing, & - \ \mathcal{L}(\mathtt{a} \, | \, \mathtt{b}) = \mathcal{L}(\mathtt{a}) \cup \mathcal{L}(\mathtt{b}) \\ - \ \mathcal{L}(\varepsilon) = \varepsilon, & (\text{some author use the} \\ - \ \mathcal{L}(\mathtt{a}) = \mathtt{a} & \text{notation a+b, we will use} \\ - \ \mathcal{L}(\mathtt{ab}) = \mathcal{L}(\mathtt{a}) \mathcal{L}(\mathtt{b}) & \mathtt{a} \, | \, \mathtt{b} \, \mathtt{as in many practical} \\ - \ \mathcal{L}(\mathtt{a*}) = \mathcal{L}(\mathtt{a})^* & \text{implementations} \end{array}$$

where,  $a, b \in \Sigma$ ,  $\epsilon$  is empty string,  $\varnothing$  is the language that accepts nothing (e.g.,  $\Sigma^* - \Sigma^*$ )

• Note: no stadard complement operation in RE

### Regular

#### some extensions

- Concatenation (ab), Kleene star (a\*) and union (a|b) are the common operations
- Parentheses can be used to group the sub-expressions.
   Otherwise, the priority of the operators as specified above a | bc\* = a | (b(c\*))
- In practice some short-hand notations are common

$$\begin{array}{lll} - & . & = (a_1 | \ldots | a_n), & - & [^a-c] = . & - & (a|b|c) \\ & & for \; \Sigma = \{\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n\} & - & d = (0|1|\ldots|8|9) \\ & - & a+= aa* & - & [a-c] = (a|b|c) & - & ... \end{array}$$

And some non-regular extensions, like (a\*)b\1
 (sometimes the term regexp is used for expressions with non-regular extensions)

### Kleene algebra

These identities are often used to simplify regular expressions.

• 
$$\epsilon u = u$$

• 
$$\varnothing \mathbf{u} = \varnothing$$

• 
$$u(vw) = (uv)w$$

• 
$$\varnothing * = \epsilon$$

• 
$$\epsilon * = \epsilon$$

• 
$$(u*)* = u*$$

• 
$$u | v = v | u$$

• 
$$\mathbf{u} \mid \varnothing = \mathbf{u}$$

• 
$$\mathbf{u} \mid \epsilon = \mathbf{u}$$

• 
$$u|(v|w) = (u|v)|w$$

• u ( v | w ) = (u | v ) | w

Note: most of these follow from set theory, and some can be derived from others.

### Kleene algebra

These identities are often used to simplify regular expressions.

- €u = u
- $\varnothing u = \varnothing$
- u(vw) = (uv)w
- $\varnothing * = \epsilon$
- $\epsilon * = \epsilon$
- (u\*)\* = u\*
- u | v = v | u
- u | u = u
- $\mathbf{u} \mid \varnothing = \mathbf{u}$
- $u \mid \epsilon = u$
- u|(v|w) = (u|v)|w

• 
$$(u|v)* = (u*|v*)*$$

#### An exercise

Simplify a | ab\*

Note: most of these follow from set theory, and some can be derived from others.

### Kleene algebra

These identities are often used to simplify regular expressions.

- $\epsilon \mathbf{u} = \mathbf{u}$
- $\varnothing \mathbf{u} = \varnothing$
- u(vw) = (uv)w
- $\varnothing * = \epsilon$
- $\epsilon * = \epsilon$
- (u\*)\* = u\*
- u | v = v | u
- u | u = u
- $\mathbf{u} \mid \varnothing = \mathbf{u}$
- u | ε = u
- u|(v|w) = (u|v)|w

- u(v|w) = uv|uw
- (u|v)\* = (u\*|v\*)\*

### An exercise

Simplify 
$$a \mid ab*$$
  
 $a \mid ab* = a\epsilon \mid ab*$ 

Note: most of these follow from set theory, and some can be derived from others.

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### Kleene algebra

These identities are often used to simplify regular expressions.

- $\epsilon \mathbf{u} = \mathbf{u}$
- $\varnothing \mathbf{u} = \varnothing$
- u(vw) = (uv)w
- $\varnothing * = \epsilon$
- $\epsilon * = \epsilon$
- (u\*)\* = u\*
- u | v = v | u
- u | u = u
- $\mathbf{u} \mid \varnothing = \mathbf{u}$
- $\mathbf{u} \mid \epsilon = \mathbf{u}$
- u|(v|w) = (u|v)|w

• 
$$u(v|w) = uv|uw$$

#### An exercise

Simplify a | ab\*  

$$a|ab* = a\epsilon|ab*$$
  
 $= a(\epsilon|b*)$ 

Note: most of these follow from set theory, and some can be derived from others.

### Kleene algebra

These identities are often used to simplify regular expressions.

- $\epsilon \mathbf{u} = \mathbf{u}$
- $\varnothing \mathbf{u} = \varnothing$
- u(vw) = (uv)w
- $\varnothing * = \epsilon$
- $\epsilon * = \epsilon$
- (u\*)\* = u\*
- u | v = v | u
- u | u = u
- $\mathbf{u} \mid \varnothing = \mathbf{u}$
- $\mathbf{u} \mid \epsilon = \mathbf{u}$
- u|(v|w) = (u|v)|w

- u(v|w) = uv|uw
- (u|v)\* = (u\*|v\*)\*

### An exercise

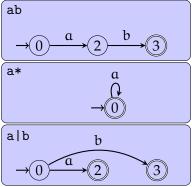
Simplify 
$$a \mid ab*$$
  
 $a \mid ab* = a\epsilon \mid ab*$   
 $= a(\epsilon \mid b*)$   
 $= ab*$ 

Note: most of these follow from set theory, and some can be derived from others.

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## Converting between RE and FSA

### Converting to NFA is easy:



Note the similarity with operations on regular languages discussed earlier.

- For more complex expressions, one can replace the paths for individual symbols with corresponding automata
- Using  $\epsilon$  transitions may be ease the task
- The reverse conversion (from automata to regular expressions) is also easy:
  - identify the patterns on the left, collapse paths to single transitions with regular expressions

## Wrapping up

- FSA and regular expressions express regular languages
- FSA have two flavors: DFA, NFA (or maybe three:  $\epsilon$ -NFA)
- DFA recognition is linear
- Any NFA can be converted to a DFA (in worst case number of nodes increase exponentially)
- Regular languages and FSA are closed under

ConcatenationKleene starUnion

ComplementIntersection

• Every FSA has a unique minimal DFA

# Wrapping up

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ConcatenationKleene starReversalUnion

ComplementIntersection

Every FSA has a unique minimal DFA

#### Next:

- Finite state transducers (FSTs)
- Applications of FSA and FSTs

# References / additional reading material

- Hopcroft and Ullman (1979, Ch. 2&3) (and its successive editions) covers (almost) all topics discussed here
- Jurafsky and Martin (2009, Ch. 2)
- Other textbook references include:
  - Sipser (2006)
  - Kozen (2013)

# References / additional reading material (cont.)

- Hopcroft, John E. and Jeffrey D. Ullman (1979). Introduction to Automata Theory, Languages, and Computation. Addison-Wesley Series in Computer Science and Information Processing. Addison-Wesley. ISBN: 9780201029888.
- Jurafsky, Daniel and James H. Martin (2009). Speech and Language Processing: An Introduction to Natural Language Processing, Computational Linguistics, and Speech Recognition. second. Pearson Prentice Hall. ISBN: 978-0-13-504196-3.
- Kozen, Dexter C. (2013). Automata and Computability. Undergraduate Texts in Computer Science. Berlin Heidelberg: Springer.
- Sipser, Michael (2006). *Introduction to the Theory of Computation*. second. Thomson Course Technology. ISBN: 0-534-95097-3.