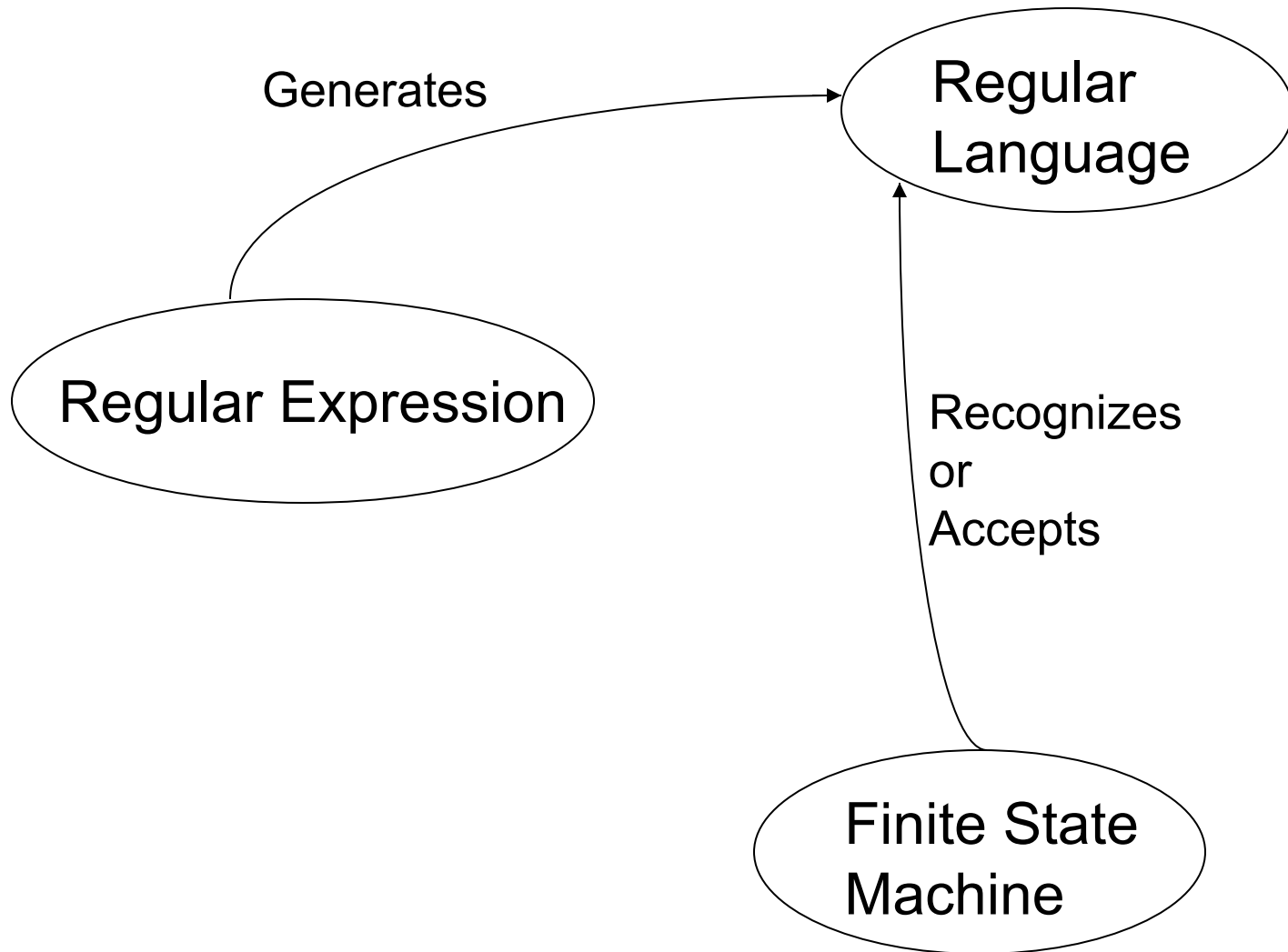


A decorative border on the left side of the slide, featuring a vertical strip with a colorful, intricate pattern of flowers and geometric shapes. This strip is flanked by two horizontal bands at the top, also with colorful patterns, and a large, light gray, stylized 'C' shape in the background.

Regular Expressions

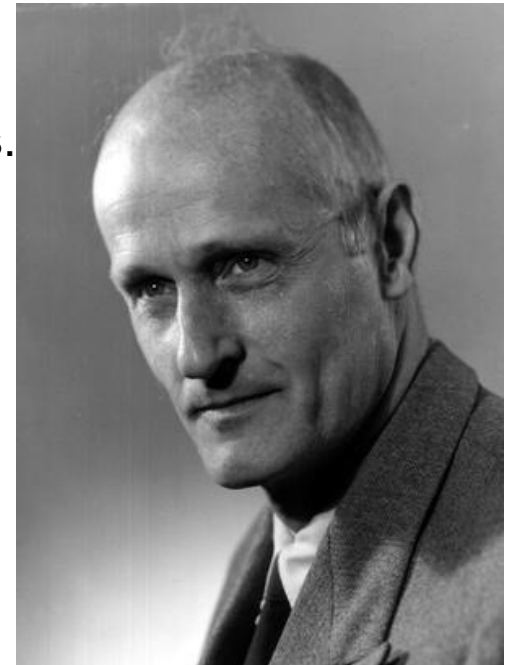
Chapter 6

Regular Languages



Stephen Cole Kleene

- 1909 – 1994, mathematical logician
- One of many distinguished students (e.g., Alan Turing) of Alonzo Church (lambda calculus) at Princeton.
- Best known as a founder of the branch of mathematical logic known as recursion theory.
- Also invented regular expressions.
- Kleene pronounced his last name *KLAY-nee*. *`kli:ni* and *`kli:n* are common mispronunciations.
 - His son, Ken Kleene, wrote: "As far as I am aware this pronunciation is incorrect in all known languages. I believe that this novel pronunciation was invented by my father. "
- Kleeneness is next to Godelness
 - Cleanliness is next to Godliness



Regular Expressions

Regular expression Σ contains two kinds of symbols:

- special symbols, \emptyset , ε , $*$, $+$, \cup , $($, $)$...
- symbols that regular expressions will match against

The regular expressions over an alphabet Σ are all and only the strings that can be obtained as follows:

1. \emptyset is a regular expression.
2. ε is a regular expression.
3. Every element of Σ is a regular expression.
4. If α , β are regular expressions, then so is $\alpha\beta$.
5. If α , β are regular expressions, then so is $\alpha\cup\beta$.
6. If α is a regular expression, then so is α^* .
7. α is a regular expression, then so is α^+ .
8. If α is a regular expression, then so is (α) .



Regular Expression Examples

If $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$, the following are regular expressions:

\emptyset

ε

a

$(a \cup b)^*$

$abba \cup \varepsilon$

Regular Expressions Define Languages

- Regular expressions are useful because each RE has a meaning
- If the meaning of an RE α is the language A , then we say that α defines or describes A .

Define L , a **semantic interpretation function** for regular expressions:

1. $L(\emptyset) = \emptyset$. //the language that contains no strings
2. $L(\varepsilon) = \{\varepsilon\}$. //the language that contains just the empty string
3. $L(c) = \{c\}$, where $c \in \Sigma$.
4. $L(\alpha\beta) = L(\alpha) L(\beta)$.
5. $L(\alpha \cup \beta) = L(\alpha) \cup L(\beta)$.
6. $L(\alpha^*) = (L(\alpha))^*$.
7. $L(\alpha^+) = L(\alpha\alpha^*) = L(\alpha) (L(\alpha))^*$. If $L(\alpha)$ is equal to \emptyset , then $L(\alpha^+)$ is also equal to \emptyset . Otherwise $L(\alpha^+)$ is the language that is formed by concatenating together one or more strings drawn from $L(\alpha)$.
8. $L((\alpha)) = L(\alpha)$.



The Role of the Rules

- Rules 1, 3, 4, 5, and 6 give the language its power to define sets.
- Rule 8 has as its only role grouping other operators.
- Rules 2 and 7 appear to add functionality to the regular expression language, but they don't.

2. ε is a regular expression.

7. α is a regular expression, then so is α^+ .

Analyzing a Regular Expression

The compositional semantic interpretation function lets us map between regular expressions and the languages they define.

$$\begin{aligned} L((a \cup b)^*b) &= L((a \cup b)^*) L(b) \\ &= (L((a \cup b)))^* L(b) \\ &= (L(a) \cup L(b))^* L(b) \\ &= (\{a\} \cup \{b\})^* \{b\} \\ &= \{a, b\}^* \{b\}. \end{aligned}$$

Examples

$$L(a^*b^*) =$$

$$L((a \cup b)^*) =$$

$$L((a \cup b)^*a^*b^*) =$$

$$L((a \cup b)^*abba(a \cup b)^*) =$$

$$L((a \cup b)(a \cup b)a(a \cup b)^*) =$$

Going the Other Way

Given a language, find a regular expression

$$L = \{w \in \{a, b\}^*: |w| \text{ is even}\}$$

$$((a \cup b) (a \cup b))^*$$

$$(aa \cup ab \cup ba \cup bb)^*$$

$$L = \{w \in \{a, b\}^*: w \text{ contains an odd number of } a's\}$$

$$b^* (ab^*ab^*)^* a b^*$$

$$b^* a b^* (ab^*ab^*)^*$$

Common Idioms

$(\alpha \cup \varepsilon)$

- Optional α , matching α or the empty string

$(a \cup b)^*$

- Set of all strings composed of the characters a and b
- The regular expression a^* is simply a string. It is different from the language $L(a^*) = \{w: w \text{ is composed of zero or more } a' \text{ s}\}$.
- However, when no confusion, we do not write the semantic interpretation function explicitly. We will say things like, “The language a^* is infinite”

Operator Precedence in Regular Expressions

Highest



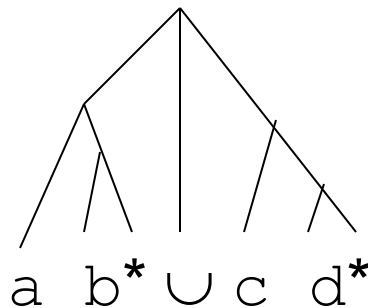
Lowest

Regular Expressions

Kleene star
concatenation
union

Arithmetic Expressions

exponentiation
multiplication
addition



$x y^2 + i j^2$

Details Matter

$$a^* \cup b^* \neq (a \cup b)^*$$

$$(ab)^* \neq a^*b^*$$

Kleene's Theorem

Finite state machines and regular expressions define the same class of languages. To prove this, we must show:

Theorem: Any language that can be defined with a regular expression can be accepted by some FSM and so is regular.

Theorem: Every regular language (i.e., every language that can be accepted by some DFSA) can be defined with a regular expression.

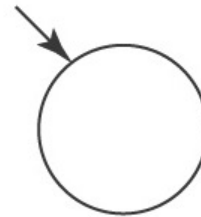
- Sometimes FSM is easy, sometimes RE is easy.

For Every Regular Expression α , There is a Corresponding FSM M s.t. $L(\alpha) = L(M)$

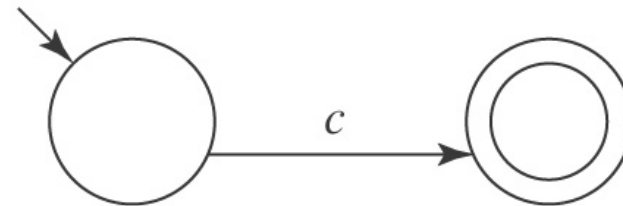
We'll show this by construction.

First, primitive regular expressions, then regular expressions that exploit the operations of union, concatenation, and Kleene star.

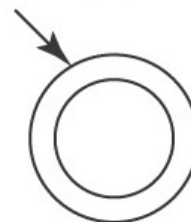
\emptyset :



A single element of Σ :

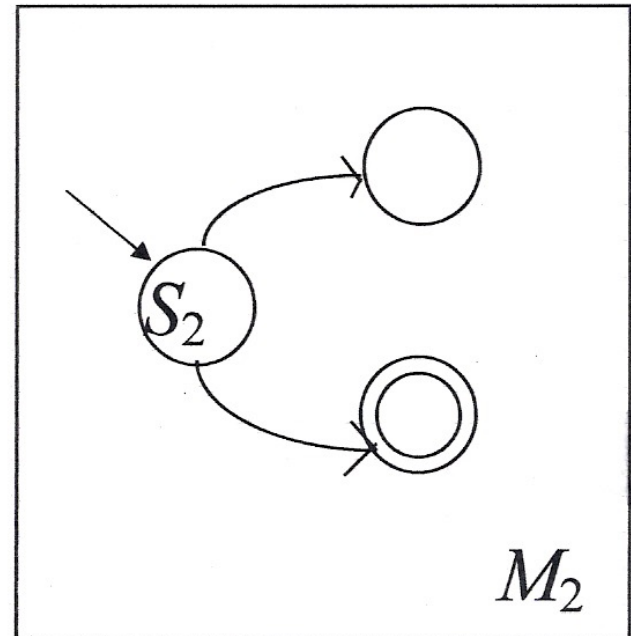
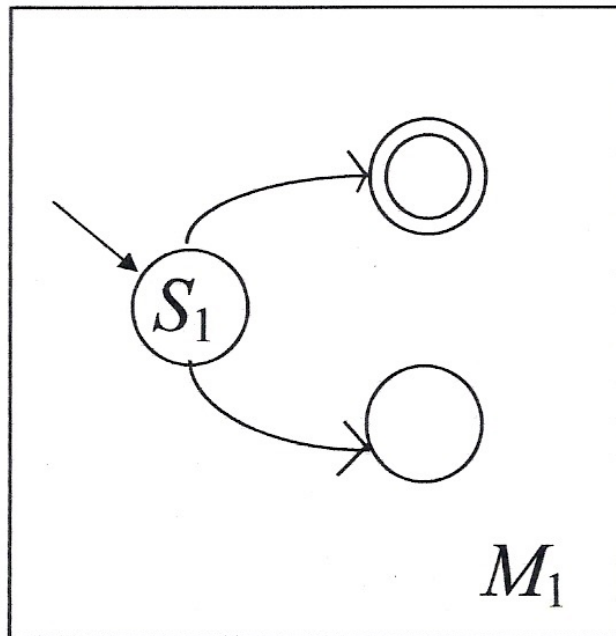


ε (\emptyset^*):



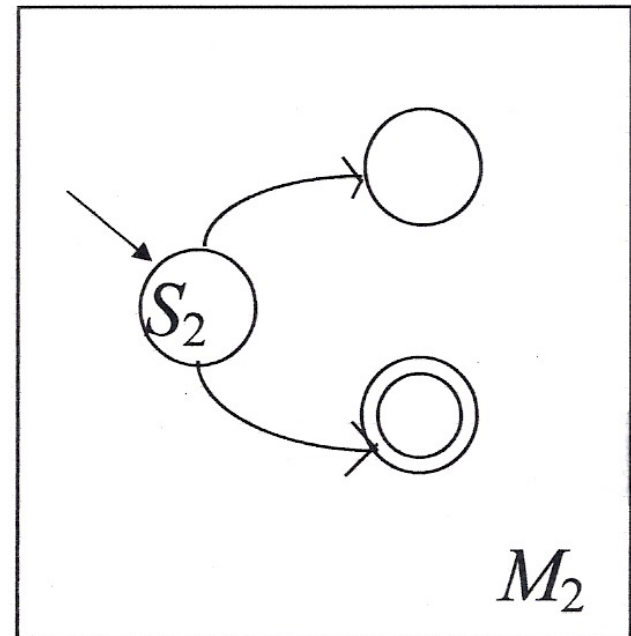
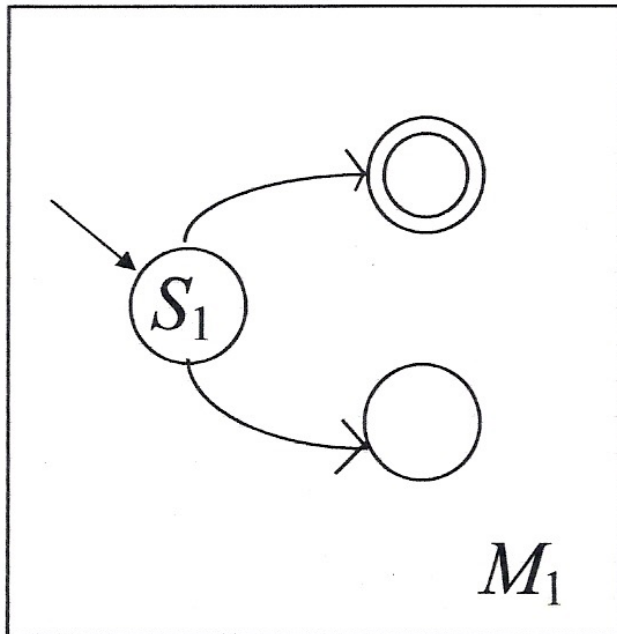
Union

If α is the regular expression $\beta \cup \gamma$ and if both $L(\beta)$ and $L(\gamma)$ are regular:



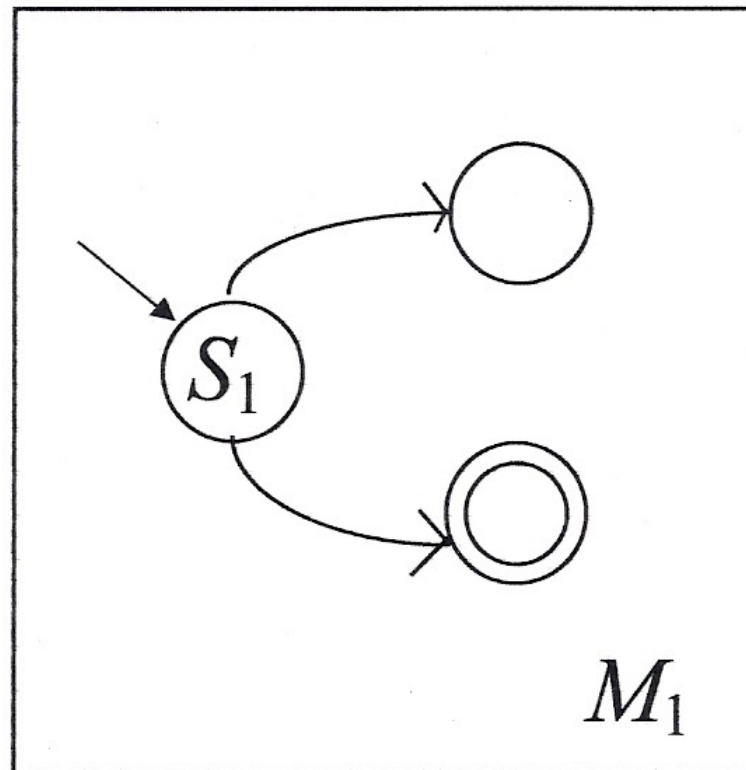
Concatenation

If α is the regular expression $\beta\gamma$ and if both $L(\beta)$ and $L(\gamma)$ are regular:



Kleene Star

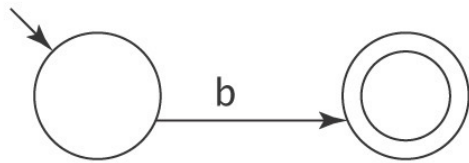
If α is the regular expression β^* and if $L(\beta)$ is regular:



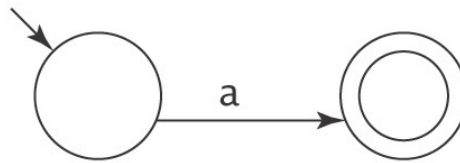
From RE to FSM: An Example

$(b \cup ab)^*$

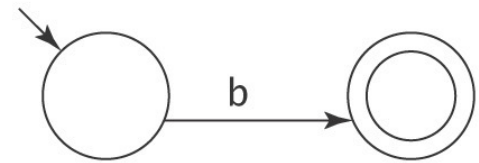
An FSM for b



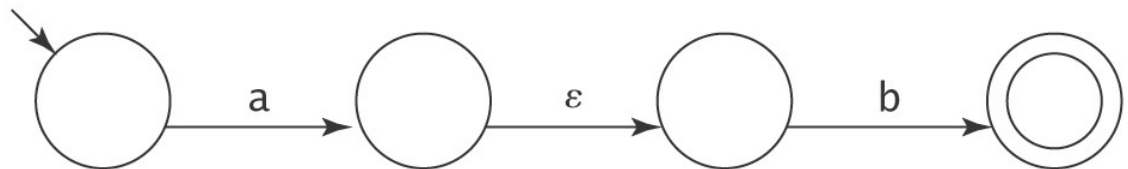
An FSM for a



An FSM for b



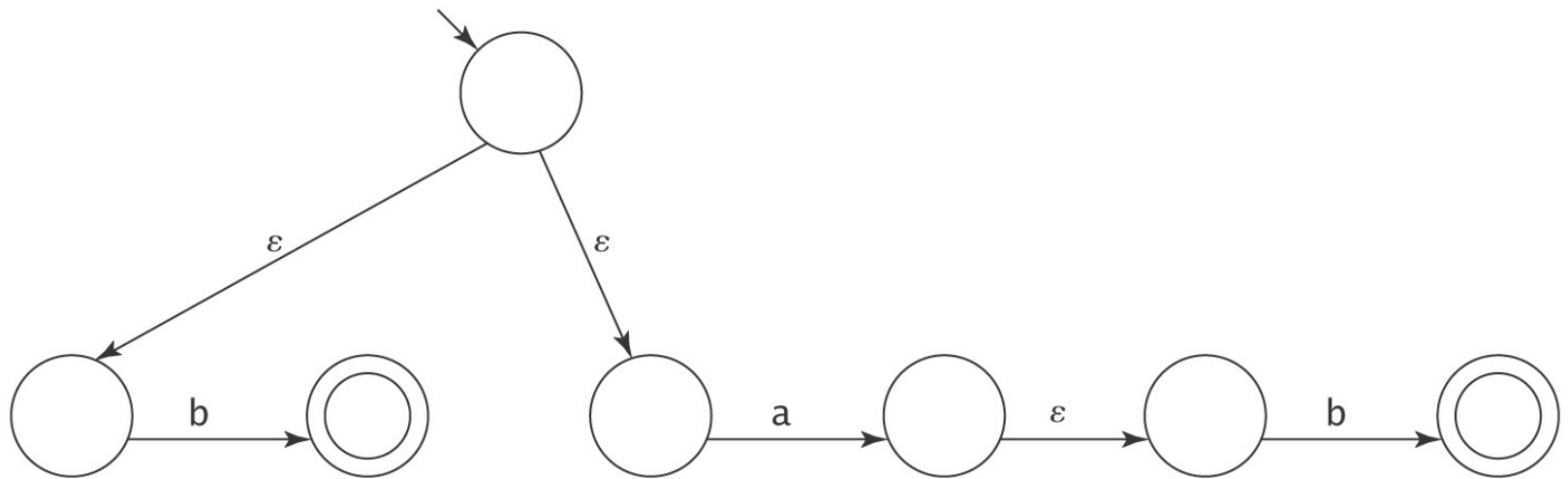
An FSM for ab :



An Example

$(b \cup ab)^*$

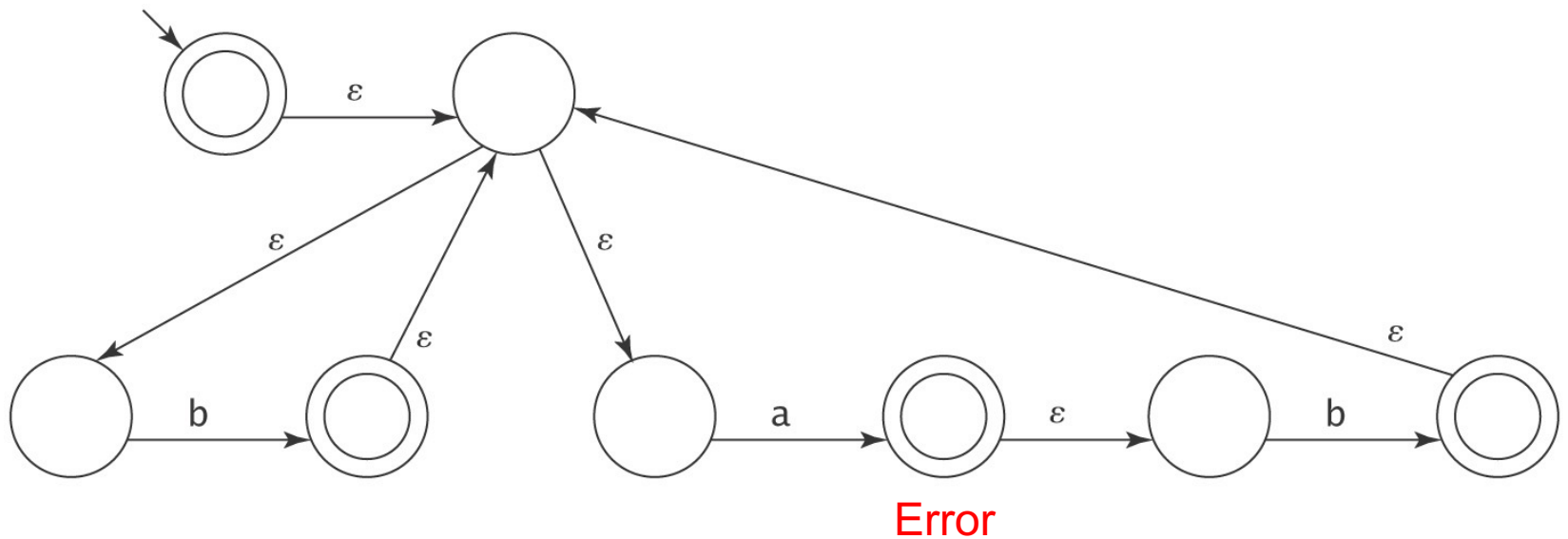
An FSM for $(b \cup ab)^*$:



An Example

$(b \cup ab)^*$

An FSM for $(b \cup ab)^*$:





The Algorithm *regextofsm*

regextofsm(α : regular expression) =

Beginning with the primitive subexpressions of α and working outwards until an FSM for all of α has been built do:

Construct an FSM as described above.



For Every FSM There is a Corresponding Regular Expression

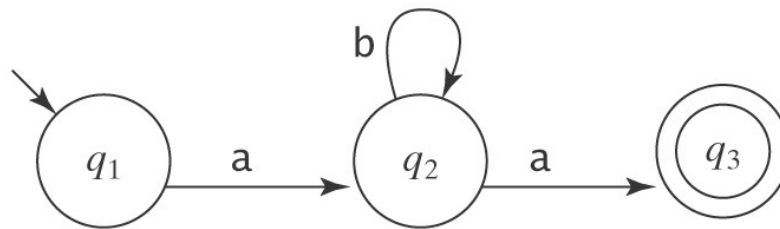
We'll show this by construction.

The key idea is that we'll allow arbitrary regular expressions to label the transitions of an FSM.

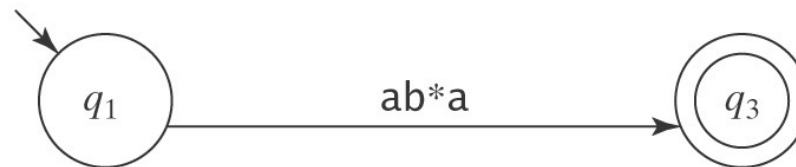
Read if interested ...

A Simple Example

Let M be:



Suppose we rip out state 2:



The Algorithm *fsmtoregexheuristic*

fsmtoregexheuristic(M : FSM) =

1. Remove unreachable states from M .
2. If M has no accepting states then return \emptyset .
3. If the start state of M is part of a loop, create a new start state s and connect s to M 's start state via an ε -transition.
4. If there is more than one accepting state of M or there are any transitions out of any of them, create a new accepting state and connect each of M 's accepting states to it via an ε -transition.

The

old accepting states no longer accept.

5. If M has only one state then return ε .
6. Until only the start state and the accepting state remain do:
 - 6.1 Select *rip* (not s or an accepting state).
 - 6.2 Remove *rip* from M .
 - 6.3 *Modify the transitions among the remaining states so M accepts the same strings.
7. Return the regular expression that labels the one remaining transition from the start state to the accepting state.

Regular Expressions in Perl

| <i>Syntax</i> | <i>Name</i> | <i>Description</i> |
|------------------|-----------------|--|
| <i>abc</i> | Concatenation | Matches <i>a</i> , then <i>b</i> , then <i>c</i> , where <i>a</i> , <i>b</i> , and <i>c</i> are any regexs |
| <i>a b c</i> | Union (Or) | Matches <i>a</i> or <i>b</i> or <i>c</i> , where <i>a</i> , <i>b</i> , and <i>c</i> are any regexs |
| <i>a*</i> | Kleene star | Matches 0 or more <i>a</i> 's, where <i>a</i> is any regex |
| <i>a+</i> | At least one | Matches 1 or more <i>a</i> 's, where <i>a</i> is any regex |
| <i>a?</i> | | Matches 0 or 1 <i>a</i> 's, where <i>a</i> is any regex |
| <i>a{n, m}</i> | Replication | Matches at least <i>n</i> but no more than <i>m</i> <i>a</i> 's, where <i>a</i> is any regex |
| <i>a*?</i> | Parsimonious | Turns off greedy matching so the shortest match is selected |
| <i>a+?</i> | " | " |
| . | Wild card | Matches any character except newline |
| ^ | Left anchor | Anchors the match to the beginning of a line or string |
| \$ | Right anchor | Anchors the match to the end of a line or string |
| [a-z] | | Assuming a collating sequence, matches any single character in range |
| [^a-z] | | Assuming a collating sequence, matches any single character not in range |
| \d | Digit | Matches any single digit, i.e., string in [0-9] |
| \D | Nondigit | Matches any single nondigit character, i.e., [^0-9] |
| \w | Alphanumeric | Matches any single "word" character, i.e., [a-zA-Z0-9_] |
| \W | Nonalphanumeric | Matches any character in [^a-zA-Z0-9_] |
| \s | White space | Matches any character in [space, tab, newline, etc.] |

Regular Expressions in Perl

| <i>Syntax</i> | <i>Name</i> | <i>Description</i> |
|--------------------|------------------|--|
| <code>\S</code> | Nonwhite space | Matches any character not matched by <code>\s</code> |
| <code>\n</code> | Newline | Matches newline |
| <code>\r</code> | Return | Matches return |
| <code>\t</code> | Tab | Matches tab |
| <code>\f</code> | Formfeed | Matches formfeed |
| <code>\b</code> | Backspace | Matches backspace inside <code>[]</code> |
| <code>\b</code> | Word boundary | Matches a word boundary outside <code>[]</code> |
| <code>\B</code> | Nonword boundary | Matches a non-word boundary |
| <code>\0</code> | Null | Matches a null character |
| <code>\nnn</code> | Octal | Matches an ASCII character with octal value <i>nnn</i> |
| <code>\xnn</code> | Hexadecimal | Matches an ASCII character with hexadecimal value <i>nn</i> |
| <code>\cX</code> | Control | Matches an ASCII control character |
| <code>\char</code> | Quote | Matches <i>char</i> ; used to quote symbols such as <code>.</code> and <code>\</code> |
| <code>(a)</code> | Store | Matches <i>a</i> , where <i>a</i> is any regex, and stores the matched string in the next variable |
| <code>\1</code> | Variable | Matches whatever the first parenthesized expression matched |
| <code>\2</code> | | Matches whatever the second parenthesized expression matched |
| <code>...</code> | | For all remaining variables |

Testing. many other online tools

Using Regular Expressions in the Real World

Matching numbers:

`-?([0-9]+(\.[0-9]*)?)|\.[0-9]+)`

Matching ip addresses:

`[0-9]{1,3}(\.[0-9]{1,3}){3}`

Trawl for email addresses:

`\b[A-Za-z0-9_%-]+\@[A-Za-z0-9_%-]+(\.[A-Za-z0-9_%-]{1,4})\b`

From Friedl, J., Mastering Regular Expressions, O' Reilly, 1997.

IE: information extraction, unstructured data management



A Biology Example – BLAST

Given a protein or DNA sequence, find others that are likely to be evolutionarily close to it.

ESGHDTTTYYNKNRYPAGWNNHHDQMFFWV

Build a DFMS that can examine thousands of other sequences and find those that match any of the selected patterns.

Simplifying Regular Expressions

Regex' s describe sets:

- Union is commutative: $\alpha \cup \beta = \beta \cup \alpha$.
- Union is associative: $(\alpha \cup \beta) \cup \gamma = \alpha \cup (\beta \cup \gamma)$.
- \emptyset is the identity for union: $\alpha \cup \emptyset = \emptyset \cup \alpha = \alpha$.
- Union is idempotent: $\alpha \cup \alpha = \alpha$.

Concatenation:

- Concatenation is associative: $(\alpha\beta)\gamma = \alpha(\beta\gamma)$.
- ε is the identity for concatenation: $\alpha \varepsilon = \varepsilon \alpha = \alpha$.
- \emptyset is a zero for concatenation: $\alpha \emptyset = \emptyset \alpha = \emptyset$.

Concatenation distributes over union:

- $(\alpha \cup \beta) \gamma = (\alpha \gamma) \cup (\beta \gamma)$.
- $\gamma (\alpha \cup \beta) = (\gamma \alpha) \cup (\gamma \beta)$.

Kleene star:

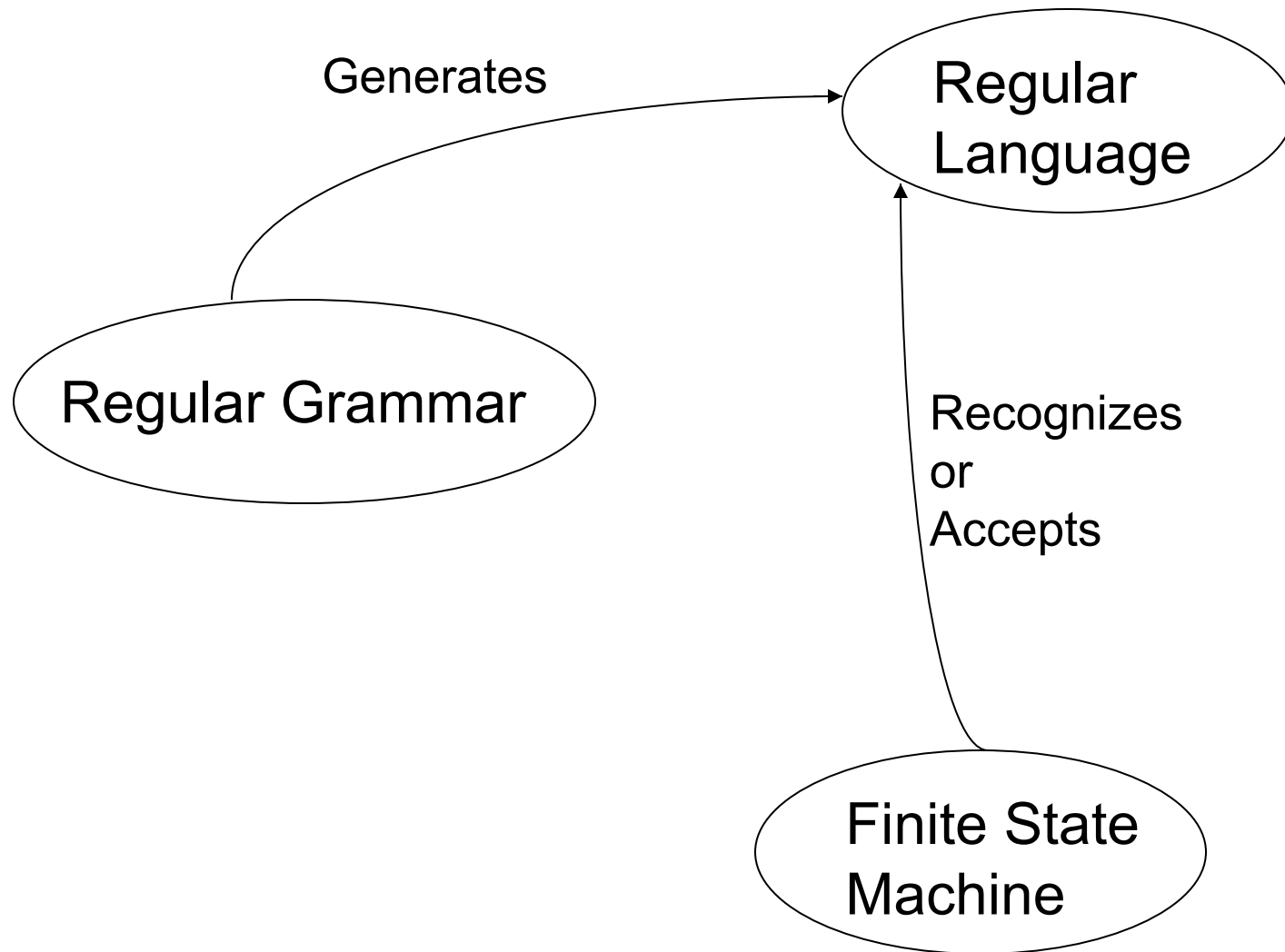
- $\emptyset^* = \varepsilon$.
- $\varepsilon^* = \varepsilon$.
- $(\alpha^*)^* = \alpha^*$.
- $\alpha^* \alpha^* = \alpha^*$.
- $(\alpha \cup \beta)^* = (\alpha^* \beta^*)^*$.



Regular Grammars

Chapter 7

Regular Languages



Regular Grammars

A regular grammar G is a quadruple (V, Σ, R, S) , where:

- V (rule alphabet) contains nonterminals and terminals
 - terminals: symbols that can appear in strings generated by G
 - nonterminals: symbols that are used in the grammar but do not appear in strings of the language
- Σ (the set of terminals) is a subset of V ,
- R (the set of rules) is a finite set of rules of the form:

$$X \rightarrow Y$$

- S (the start symbol) is a nonterminal

Regular Grammars

In a regular grammar, all rules in R must:

- have a left hand side that is a single nonterminal
- have a right hand side that is:
 ϵ , or a single terminal, or a single terminal followed by a single nonterminal.

Legal: $S \rightarrow a$, $S \rightarrow \epsilon$, and $T \rightarrow aS$

Not legal: $S \rightarrow aSa$ and $aSa \rightarrow T$

- Regular grammars must always produce strings one character at a time, moving left to right.



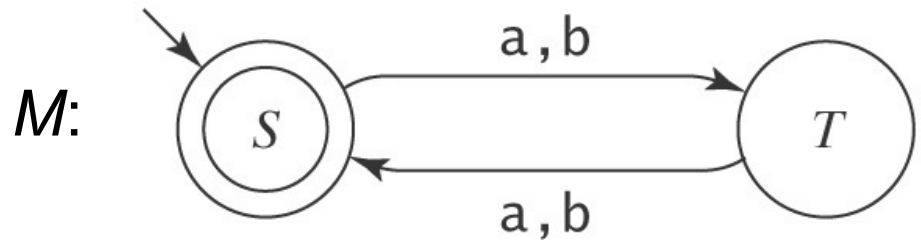
Regular Grammars

- The one we study is actually ***right regular grammar***.
 - Also called right linear grammar
 - Generates regular languages, recognized by FSM
 - Note FSM reads the input string w left to right
- ***Left regular grammar*** (left linear grammar)
 - $S \rightarrow a$, $S \rightarrow \varepsilon$, and $T \rightarrow Sa$
 - Does it generate regular languages?

Regular Grammar Example

$$L = \{w \in \{a, b\}^* : |w| \text{ is even}\} \quad ((aa) \cup (ab) \cup (ba) \cup (bb))^*$$

$G:$

$$\begin{aligned} S &\rightarrow \varepsilon \\ S &\rightarrow aT \\ S &\rightarrow bT \\ T &\rightarrow aS \\ T &\rightarrow bS \end{aligned}$$


- By convention, the start symbol of any grammar G will be the symbol on the left-hand side of the first rule
- **Notice the clear correspondence between M and G**
 - Given one, easy to derive the other
 - Works for DFSM, and NDFSM without ε -transitions
 - T or F: For any NDFSM M , we can find M' , an NDFSM without ε -transitions, such that $L(M) = L(M')$.



Regular Languages and Regular Grammars

Theorem: The class of languages that can be defined with regular grammars is exactly the regular languages.

Proof: By two constructions.

Regular Languages and Regular Grammars

Regular grammar \rightarrow FSM:

$\text{grammartofsm}(G = (V, \Sigma, R, S)) =$

1. Create in M a separate state for each nonterminal in V .
2. Start state is the state corresponding to S .
3. If there are any rules in R of the form $X \rightarrow w$, for some $w \in \Sigma$, create a new state labeled $\#$.
4. For each rule of the form $X \rightarrow w Y$, add a transition from X to Y labeled w .
5. For each rule of the form $X \rightarrow w$, add a transition from X to $\#$ labeled w .
6. For each rule of the form $X \rightarrow \varepsilon$, mark state X as accepting.
7. Mark state $\#$ as accepting.

FSM \rightarrow Regular grammar: Similarly.

Strings That End with aaaa

$L = \{w \in \{a, b\}^* : w \text{ ends with the pattern } aaaa\}.$

$S \rightarrow aS$

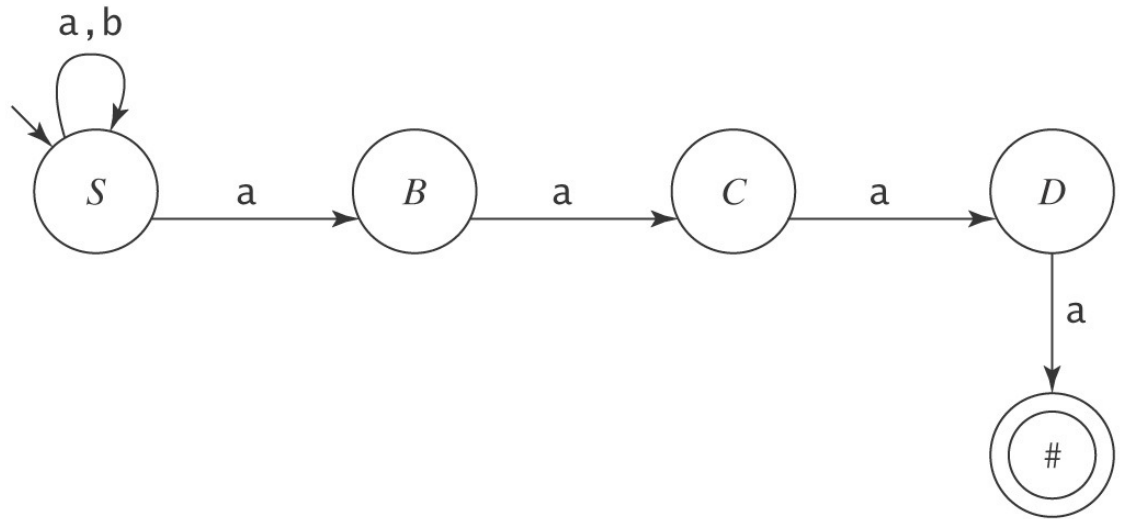
$S \rightarrow bS$

$S \rightarrow aB$

$B \rightarrow aC$

$C \rightarrow aD$

$D \rightarrow a$



One Character Missing

$L = \{w \in \{a, b, c\}^*: \text{there is a symbol in the alphabet not appearing in } w\}.$

$$S \rightarrow \varepsilon$$

$$S \rightarrow aB$$

$$S \rightarrow aC$$

$$S \rightarrow bA$$

$$S \rightarrow bC$$

$$S \rightarrow cA$$

$$S \rightarrow cB$$

$$A \rightarrow bA$$

$$A \rightarrow cA$$

$$A \rightarrow \varepsilon$$

$$B \rightarrow aB$$

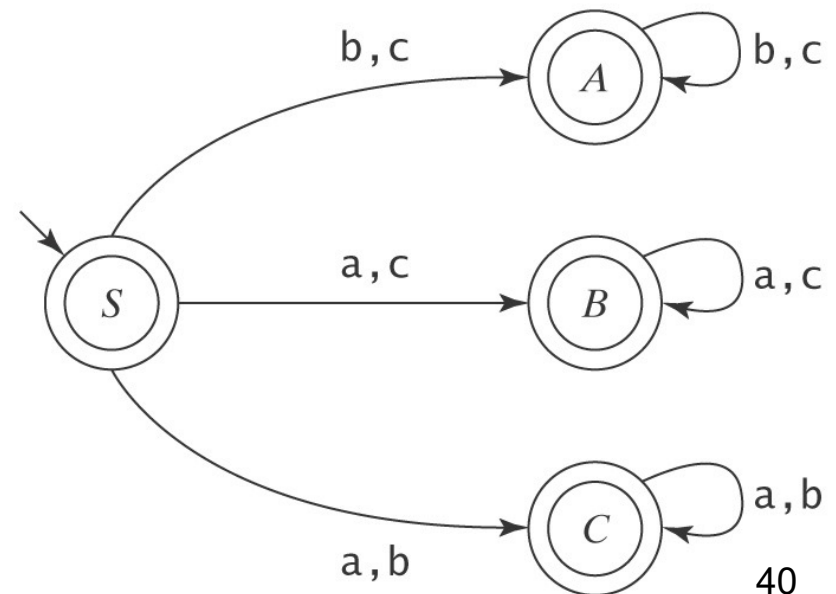
$$B \rightarrow cB$$

$$B \rightarrow \varepsilon$$

$$C \rightarrow aC$$

$$C \rightarrow bC$$

$$C \rightarrow \varepsilon$$



ε Transitions are removed.