

# Models of Computation: Limitations of the Regular Languages

## The Pumping Lemma Grammars

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Mindmap

Proof by  
contradiction

$a, b > 0 \Rightarrow a + b > 0$

Eulerian paths

Observation

A look back

Unary alphabet

Pumping  
Lemma

Game!

Examples

$a^n b^n$

$ww$

Implications

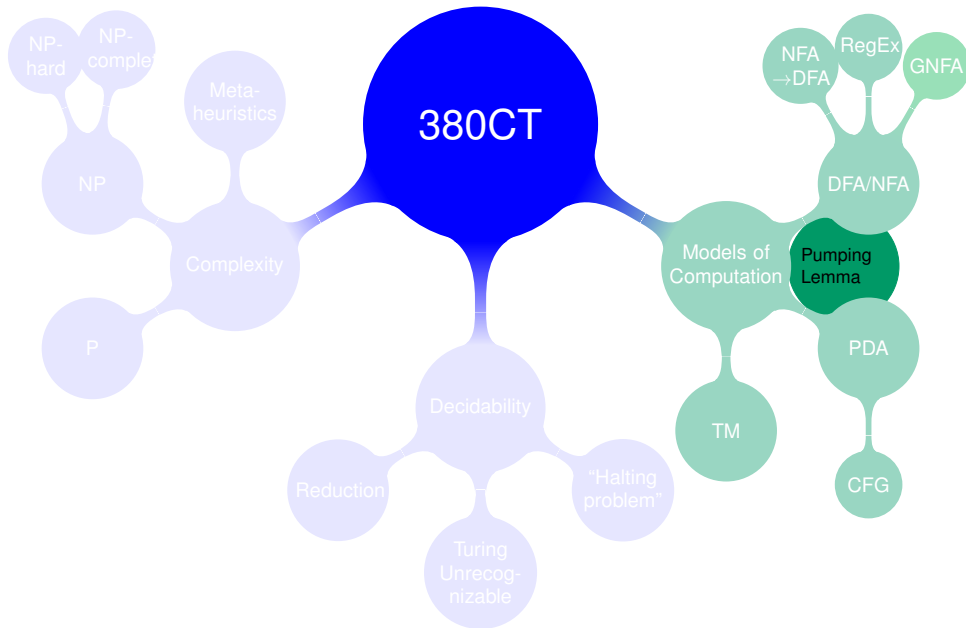
Constant Space

Grammars

Generation

Derivation

Parse trees



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## Regular Languages

The class of regular languages can be:

- 1 Recognized by NFAs. (equiv. GNFA or  $\epsilon$ -NFA or NFA or DFA).
- 2 Described using **Regular Expressions**.

Today:

- 1 See the limit of regular languages.
- 2 How to show a language is not regular.
- 3 Generate regular languages using **Regular Grammars**.

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We show a language is regular using **Proof by existence**:

- Construct an NFA recognizing it.
- Write a Regular Expression for it.

Using closure under the **union**, **concatenation** and **star** operations.

However, *not all languages are regular*, so how can we show that a given languages is **not** regular?!

To prove a language is not regular, we use **Proof by contradiction**.

- We need a property that all regular languages must satisfy.
- So if a given language does not satisfy it then it cannot be regular.

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# Proof by contradiction in general – example 1

The sum of two positive numbers is always positive.

- Suppose: The sum of two positive numbers is not always positive.
- So there exist positive numbers  $a$  and  $b$  that sum to a negative number.

$$a + b < 0$$

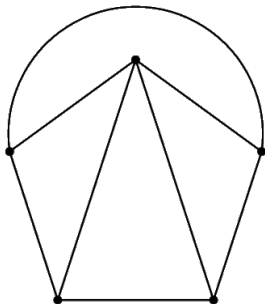
- Rearranging we get:

$$a < -b$$

- But since  $b$  is a positive number then  $-b$  must be a negative number.
- This means that  $a$ , which is positive, is less than a negative number!
- $\rightarrow$  Contradiction.
- So the supposition above must be false.

# Proof by contradiction in general – example 2

Is it possible to traverse this graph by travelling along **each path exactly once**?



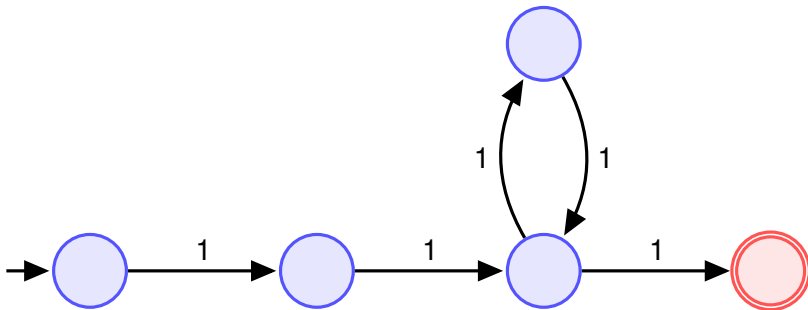
- Suppose it is possible.
- How many times would each vertex be visited?
  - Every time a vertex is entered, it is also exited.
  - Therefore, each vertex should have an **even number** of neighbours.
  - The exceptions to this are the starting vertex and ending vertex: these should have an **odd number** of paths coming from them.
  - There can only be one starting vertex and one ending vertex.
- However, this graph has 4 vertices with an odd number of paths coming from them.
- Thus, it is impossible to traverse the above graph by travelling along each path exactly once.

# A look back

Let us try to understand RLs a bit more. . . let us look back at some examples — for each automaton in the next slides, let us think about **RegEx** and the **path taken by an accepted string** (is it “straight” or does it loop?).

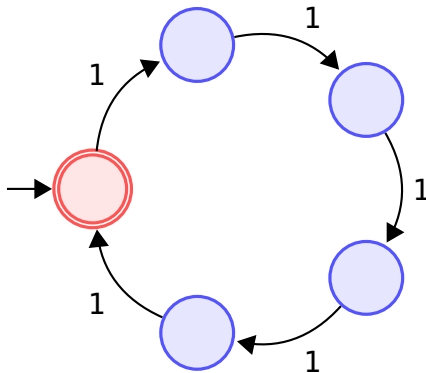
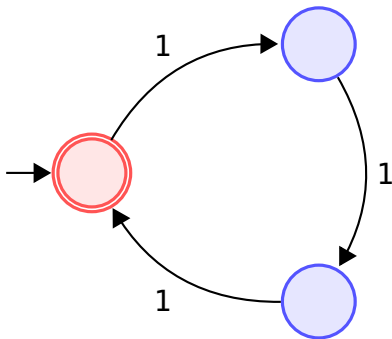
# Unary alphabet $\{1\}$

Strings of length 3, 5, 7, 9, ...

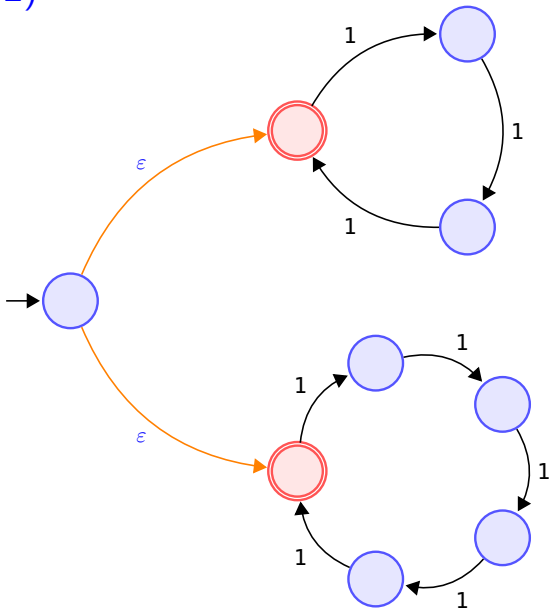




$(111)^*$  ,  $(11111)^*$



$$(111)^* + (11111)^*$$



# Unary alphabet – Special case

Let  $L$  be a regular languages over a unary alphabet  $\Sigma = \{1\}$ .

The language  $L$  is:

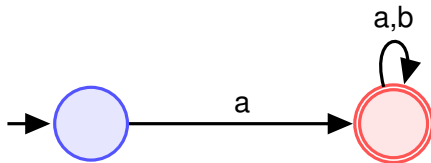
- either **finite**, in which case it is regular trivially,
- or **infinite**, in which case its DFA will have to **loop**:
  - The DFA that recognizes  $L$  has a finite number of states.
  - Any string in  $L$  determines a path through the DFA.
  - So any sufficiently long string must visit a state twice.
  - This forms a loop.

This looped part can be repeated any arbitrary number of times to produce other strings in  $L$ .

## Pigeon-hole principle

If we put **more than**  $n$  pigeons into  $n$  holes then there must be a hole with more than one pigeon in.

$a\Sigma^*$



## Pumping Lemma, Grammars

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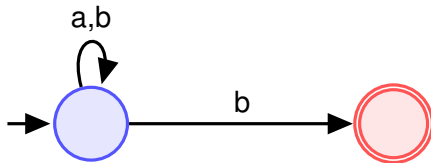
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$\Sigma^*b$



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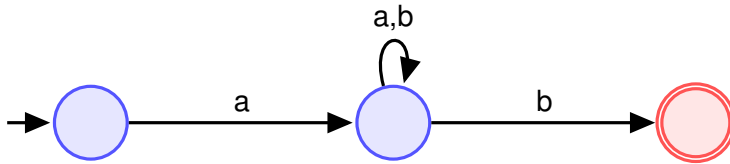
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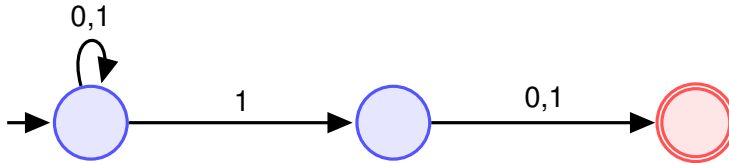
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$\Sigma^*1\Sigma$



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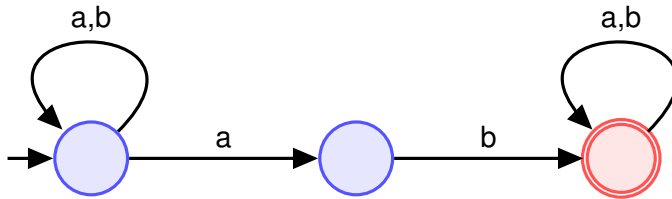
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$\Sigma^*ab\Sigma^*$



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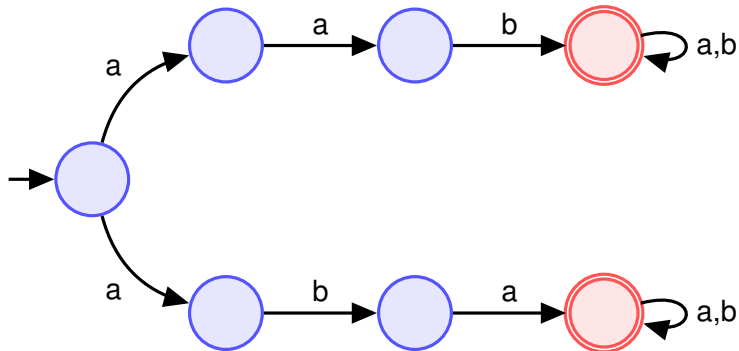
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Parse trees



$aab\Sigma^* + aba\Sigma^*$



Pumping  
Lemma,  
Grammars

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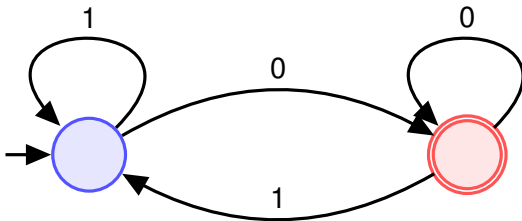
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$\Sigma^*0$



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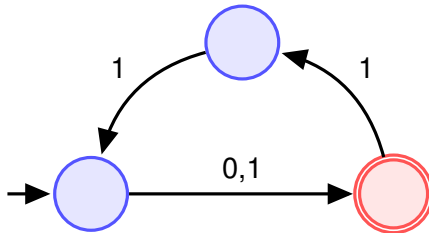
#### Grammars

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Parse trees

$$(\Sigma 11)^* \Sigma$$



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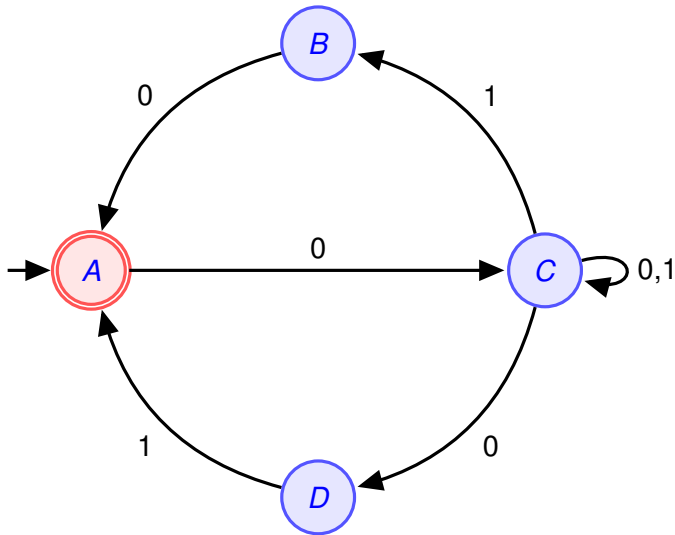
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$$(0\Sigma^*(01 + 10))^*$$



DFA's have a finite number of states, so once a string gets beyond a certain length, the DFA must repeat one or more states.

- When a DFA repeats a state (say  $q_8$ ), we may divide the input string up into three substrings:
  - 1 The substring  $x$  before the first occurrence of  $q_8$
  - 2 The substring  $y$  between the first and last occurrence of  $q_8$
  - 3 The substring  $z$  after the last occurrence of  $q_8$
- It follows that if the DFA accepts  $xyz$ , then it will also accept  $xz, xy^2z, xy^3z, \dots$

Therefore, for any RL, once a string extends above a certain length (the pumping length  $p$ ) it becomes possible to divide the string up into three substrings  $xyz$ , in such a way that  $xy^*z$  is also a member of that language

- $x, z$  can be  $\epsilon$
- $y$  cannot be  $\epsilon$
- $|xy| \leq p$

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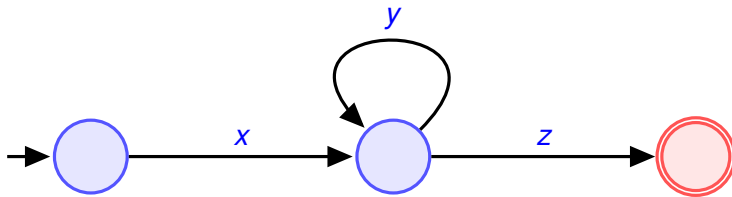
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# The Pumping Lemma – informal

**Observation:** path from the start to the accept state for a string  $xyz$ :



The strings  $x$  and  $z$  can be  $\varepsilon$ , but **not**  $y$ .

## Idea of the Pumping Lemma

Any “sufficiently long” string in a regular language can be broken into three parts such that if we “**pump**” the **middle part** (repeat it zero or more times) then the result would still be in the language.

# The Pumping Lemma – formal

## Pumping Lemma

Let  $L$  be a regular language. Then there exists a constant  $p$  such that for every string  $w$  in  $L$ , with  $|w| \geq p$ , we can break  $w$  into three strings  $w = xyz$  such that

- 1  $y \neq \varepsilon$  (or equivalently  $|y| > 0$  or  $|y| \neq 0$ )
- 2  $|xy| \leq p$
- 3 For all  $k \geq 0$ , the string  $xy^kz$  is also in  $L$

The length  $p$  is called **the pumping length**.

Its main purpose in practice is to prove that a language is not regular.

*That is, if we can show that a language does not have the required property, then we can conclude that it cannot be expressed as a regular expression or recognized by a DFA.*

# Game!

The Pumping Lemma when used to prove that a language  $L$  is **not regular** can be viewed as a “game” between a **Prover** and a **Falsifier** as follows:

① **Prover** claims  $L$  is regular and fixes the pumping length  $p$ .

③ **Prover** writes  $w = xyz$  where  $|xy| \leq p$  and  $y \neq \epsilon$ .

② **Falsifier** challenges **Prover** and picks a string  $w \in L$  of length at least  $p$  symbols.

④ **Falsifier** wins by finding a value for  $k$  such that  $xy^kz$  is **not** in  $L$ . If it cannot then it fails and **Prover** wins.

The language  $L$  is not regular if **Falsifier** can always win systematically.



## Example ( $L = \{a^n b^n \mid n \geq 0\}$ )

① **Prover** claims  $L$  is regular and fixes the pumping length  $p$ .

③ **Prover** tries to write  $w$  as  $w = xyz$  but sees that the condition  $|xy| \leq p$  forces  $x$  and  $y$  to only contain the symbol  $a$ . Also,  $y$  cannot just be the empty string because of the condition  $y \neq \varepsilon$ . So the only option available is to have  $xy = a^m$  for some  $m \geq 1$ , and then we get  $z = a^{p-m} b^p$ .

② **Falsifier** challenges **Prover** and picks  $w = a^p b^p \in L$  ( $|w| = 2p \geq p$ ).

④ **Falsifier** now sees that  $xy^0 z, xy^2 z, xy^3 z, \dots$  all do not belong to  $L$  because they either have less or more  $a$ 's than there are  $b$ 's. So, any such string will be enough for **Falsifier** to win the game.

Example ( $L = \{ww \mid w \in \{0, 1\}^*\}$ )

① **Prover** claims  $L$  is regular and fixes the pumping length  $p$ .

③ **Prover** The PL now guarantees that  $w$  can be split into three substrings  $w = xyz$  satisfying  $|xy| \leq p$  and  $y \neq \varepsilon$ .

② **Falsifier** challenges **Prover** and Choose  $w = (0^p 1)(0^p 1) \in L$ . This has length  $|w| = (p+1) + (p+1) = 2p+2 \geq p$ .

④ **Falsifier** Since  $w = (0^p 1)(0^p 1) = xyz$  with  $|xy| \leq p$  then we must have that  $y$  only contains the symbol  $0$ . We can then pump  $y$  and produce  $xy^2z = xyyz \notin L$ , causing a contradiction. So  $L$  is not regular.

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LemmaGame!  
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- If modern computer = finite state machine: a finite amount of data, say  $1\text{TB} = 1024^4 \times 8 = 2^{43}$  bits of information, i.e. a maximum of  $2^{2^{43}} \approx 10^{2,647,887,844,335}$  states – a finite number still!
- Consequently, it is unable to recognize the (entire) language  $a^n b^n$
- This means that at some point, my computer can no longer count the number of  $a$ 's in a string. This occurs when the number of  $a$ 's becomes greater than  $2^{2^{43}}$ .
- We are assuming that the computer is not storing the string (in which case it would just run out of memory anyway)
- At 3GHz, this would take... a length of time so inconceivably huge that the age of the universe would be negligible by comparison

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# Space Complexity: Constant Space $\longleftrightarrow$ NFAs

- Finite State Automaton: good model for algorithms which require **constant space**.  
*Space complexity  $O(1)$ , i.e. space used does not grow with respect to the input size.*
- Some languages cannot be recognized by NFAs.  
*Space used must grow with respect to input size.*
- We will see a more powerful model of computation next week!

# “Language recognition” and “Language generation”

	<b>Regular Languages</b>
<b>Recognizer:</b>	NFA/DFA
<b>Generator:</b>	RegEx / Regular Grammar

## Grammars:

- more powerful at describing languages than RegEx's.  
Can be used to describe all RLs, as well as some non regular ones
- first used in the study of natural languages.

# Grammars

Grammars are defined by **production rules** such as

$$A \rightarrow aAb$$

$$A \rightarrow B$$

$$B \rightarrow \varepsilon$$

The rules of the grammar represent possible *replacements*

e.g.  $A \rightarrow aAb$  means the variable  $A$  may be replaced with the string  $aAb$ .

- **Lower case symbols**  $a$  and  $b$  are **terminals** (like symbols for NFAs).  
They constitute the alphabet for the grammar.
- **Upper case symbols**  $A$  and  $B$  are **variables** (or **non-terminals**).  
They are to be replaced by terminals or strings.
- $A$  is the **start variable**.

# Derivation of strings – generation of a language

$$A \rightarrow aAb$$

$$A \rightarrow B$$

$$B \rightarrow \varepsilon$$

Commencing with the start variable, these replacements can be used iteratively to produce strings e.g.

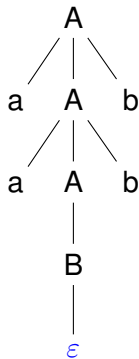
$$A \rightarrow aAb \rightarrow aaAbb \rightarrow aaBbb \rightarrow aa\varepsilon bb = aabb$$

This is called a **derivation** of the string  $aabb$ .

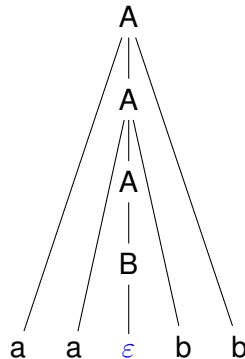
# Parse Trees

Diagrammatic way of representing the derivation process.

$A \rightarrow aAb \rightarrow aaAbb \rightarrow aaBbb \rightarrow aa\epsilon bb = aabb$



or





# RL $\leftrightarrow$ DFA/NFA/RegEx $\leftrightarrow$ Regular Grammar

- Make a variable  $V_i$  for each state  $q_i$
- Add a rule  $V_i \rightarrow aV_j$  for each transition from  $q_i$  to  $q_j$  on symbol  $a$ .
- Add a rule  $V_i \rightarrow \varepsilon$  if  $q_i$  is an accepting state

## Example

Variables:  $A, B$ .

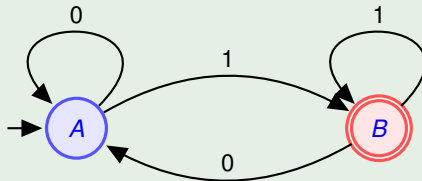
$A \rightarrow 0A$

$A \rightarrow 1B$

$B \rightarrow 1B$

$B \rightarrow 0A$

$B \rightarrow \varepsilon$



# Notation

To make writing grammars compact, we combine rules starting with the same variable:

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} A \rightarrow 0A \\ A \rightarrow 1B \\ \\ B \rightarrow 1B \\ B \rightarrow 0A \\ B \rightarrow \epsilon \end{array} \right\} \text{ become } \left\{ \begin{array}{l} A \rightarrow 0A \mid 1B \\ B \rightarrow 1B \mid 0A \mid \epsilon \end{array} \right.$$

Here the  $|$  symbol means “or” or “union”.