# Discrete Maths Revision Notes

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1		Proofs
	1.	statement: a sentence that is either true or false, but not both
	2.	<pre>predicate: a statement whose truth relies on the value of one or more variables</pre>
	3.	contrapositive: $P \implies Q$ is the same as $\neg Q \implies \neg P$
		Proof strategy: to prove the $P \implies Q$ , assume $\neg Q$ and then show that $\neg P$ logically follows
	4.	$d n$ means $d$ divides $n.$ $n=k\cdot d$ for $d,n,k\in\mathbb{Z}$
		2 4 is true but $4 2$ is false
		$d m \wedge d n \implies d m+n$
		$d m \wedge m n \implies d n$
	5.	$a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ when $m (a-b)$
		$18 \equiv -2 \pmod{4}$ as $4 20$
	6.	universal instantiation - For an assumption of the form $\forall x. P(x)$ , you can strip the quantifier by replacing the $x$ for a variable $c$
		No humans can fly. Bob is human. Therefore Bob cannot fly.
		Humans are $x$ in this case. Bob is $c$

7. Prove: For  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ , we have  $6|n \quad iff \quad 2|n \wedge 3|n$ 

Forward is easy

Backward:  $n = 2 \cdot i$  and  $n = 3 \cdot j$ . RTP  $n = 6 \cdot k$ . Let k = i - j ...

- 8. For every positive integer n, there exists a natural number l such that  $2^l \le n < 2^{l+1}$ .
- 9.  $l|m \wedge m|n \implies l|n$
- 10.  $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}, n^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{4} \quad \lor \quad n^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$
- 11. For prime p and integer m where 0 < m < p then  $\binom{p}{m} \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$

Relies on the fact that  $\frac{(p-1)!}{m!\cdot(p-m)!}$  is an integer. We know that  $\frac{(p)!}{m!\cdot(p-m)!}$  is an integer and that  $p|m!\cdot(p-m)!$  is false as p is prime and m< p. Therefore (p-1)!|m!(p-m)! must be true, and therefore  $\frac{(p-1)!}{m!\cdot(p-m)!}\in\mathbb{Z}$ 

- 12. Binomial Theorem:  $(x+y)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} \cdot x^{n-k} \cdot y^k$  for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$
- 13.  $(z+1)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} \cdot z^k$  for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$
- 14.  $2^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k}$
- 15.  $2^p \equiv 2 \pmod{p}$  for prime p
- 16. Freshman's Dream:  $(m+n)^p \equiv m^p + n^p \pmod{p}$  for natural numbers m,n and prime p

expand the brackets and then use result 11

- 17. Dropout Lemma:  $(m+1)^p \equiv m^p + 1 \pmod{p}$  for natural numbers m and prime p
- 18. Many Dropout Lemma:  $(m+i)^p \equiv m^p + i \pmod{p}$  for natural numbers m and prime p

$$(m+i)^p = ((m+(i-1))+1)^p = (m+(i-1))^p + 1 \ (mod \ p)$$

repeat the above i times

- 19. Fermat's little theorem:  $i^p \equiv i \pmod{i}$
- 20.  $i^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$
- 21. Logical equivalences

$$\neg(P \Longrightarrow Q) \iff P \land \neg Q$$

$$\neg(P \iff Q) \iff P \iff \neg Q$$

$$\neg(\forall z.P(x)) \iff \exists x.\neg P(x)$$

$$\neg(P \land Q) \iff (\neg P) \lor (\neg Q)$$

$$\neg(\exists x.P(x)) \iff \forall x.\neg P(x)$$

$$\neg(p \lor Q) \iff (\neg P) \land (\neg Q)$$

$$\neg(\neg P) \iff P$$

$$\neg P \iff P \implies \mathsf{False}$$

- 22.  $\sqrt{2}$  is irrational
- 23. x is rational  $\iff \exists m, n \in \mathbb{Z}_+ \text{ s.t. } x = \frac{m}{n} \land \neg (\exists p : p | m \land p | n) \text{ for prime } p$

use proof by contradiction

24.  $P \implies Q \iff (\neg Q \implies \neg P)$ 

### 2 Numbers

- 1. natural numbers: counting numbers, including 0
- 2. monoid: set that is closed under an associative binary operation and has identity element  $I \in S$  such that  $\forall a \in S$ , Ia = aI = a. Elements do not need to have inverses. The monoid must contain at least one element.
- 3. associative monoid: monoid that is associative

e.g. 
$$(\mathbb{N}, 0, +), (\mathbb{N}, 1, \cdot)$$

- 4. group: monoid with inverses
- 5. semiring: set with two binary operators  $S(+,\cdot)$  that satisfies:
  - additive associativity
  - additive commutativity
  - multiplicative associativity
  - left and right distributivity

e.g.  $(\mathbb{N},0,+,1,\cdot)$  is a commutative semiring (with multiplicative commutativity)

- 6. ring: same conditions as a semiring but also has:
  - additive identity
  - additive inverse
  - multiplicative commutativity (for commutative ring)

e.g. integers 
$$\mathbb{Z}$$

- 7. field set that satisfies the following axioms for both addition and multiplication:
  - associative
  - communitative
  - distributive
  - identity
  - $\bullet$  inverse

e.g.  $\mathbb{C}$ ,  $\mathbb{Q}$ ,  $\mathbb{R}$  but not  $\mathbb{Z}$ 

- 8. Division Theorem For  $m \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $n \in \mathbb{N}_+, \exists \ q, r \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $q \geqslant 0, 0 \leqslant n < n$  and  $m = q \cdot n + r$
- 9. Division Algorithm

- This algorithms terminates if diviter(0, m) terminates, which terminates if  $\exists i \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $m i \cdot n \leq n$ , where i is the largest such number. This is always the case and therefore is guaranteed to terminated. (n cannot be 0)
- In order for the last output to be correct, each intermediate calculation of diviter must also be correct and satisfy:  $0 \le q \land 0 \le r \land m = q \cdot n + r$

The first call of diviter we have q=0, r=m.  $0 \le 0 \land 0 \le m \land m=0 \cdot n+m$  and therefore satisifies the conditions

In subsequent calls we have q=q+1, r=r-n.  $0 \le q+1 \land 0 \le r-n \land m=(q+1)\cdot n+r-n$  and therefore satisfies the condition

Therefore when diviter terminates, q, r will be the unique pair of integers that are the quotient and remainder for m, n

- 10.  $k \equiv l \pmod{m} \iff rem(k, m) = rem(l, m) \text{ for } m \in \mathbb{Z}_+ \text{ and } k, l \in \mathbb{N}$
- 11.  $n \equiv rem(n, m) \pmod{m}$
- 12. For every integer k, there exists unique integer  $[k]_m$  such that  $0 \leq [k]_m < m$  and  $k \equiv [k]_m \pmod{m}$

$$[k]_m = \operatorname{rem}(k + |k| \cdot m, m)$$

- 13. integers modulo:  $\mathbb{Z}_m$  is the natural numbers up to m-1
- 14. set of divisors:  $D(n) = d \in \mathbb{N}$  : d|n
- 15. set of common divisors:  $CD(m,n)=d\in\mathbb{N}$  :  $d|m\wedge d|n$

$$CD(l\cdot n,n)=D(n)$$

$$CD(m,n) = CD(n,m)$$

- 16. Let  $m, m' \in \mathbb{N}$ . Let  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$  such that  $m \equiv m' \pmod{n}$ . Then we have CD(m,n) = CD(m',n)
- 17. gcd(m, n): Let x = gcd(m, n) Then the following two properties must hold true:

$$x|m \wedge x|n$$

```
For d \in \mathbb{Z}_+, d|m \wedge d|n \implies d|x
```

18. Euclid's Algorithm

```
fun gcd(m,n) =
   let
    val(q, r) = divalg(m, n)
   in
    if r=0 then n
    else gcd(n, r)
end
```

Another way to write this is

```
fun gcd(m,n) =
   let
    val q = m div n
    val r = m - nq
   in
     if r=0 then n
     else gcd(n, r)
   end
```

This algorithm is guaranteed to terminate as say we assume that m > n. (If it is not the case, in the next step m, n are reversed). Either the algorithm terminates straight away when n|m. If not we calculate  $\gcd(n,r)$ . This maintains the ordering and also strictly decreases the second. This process cannot go on forever while maintaining both properties and the fact that the second has to be a positive integer. Therefore algorithm must terminate.

- 19.  $gcd(m,n)|k \cdot m + l \cdot n \text{ for } k,l \in \mathbb{Z}$
- 20. If  $k \cdot m + l \cdot n = 1$  then gcd(m, n) = 1
- 21. gcd: commutative, associative, linear
- 22. For  $k, m, n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ , if  $k|m \cdot n$  and gcd(k, m) = 1 then k|n
- 23. Euclid's Theorem: If p is prime, for  $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$  if  $p|m \cdot n$  then p|m or p|n use previous result
- 24. For prime p, every non-zero element  $i \in \mathbb{Z}_p$  has  $[i^{p-2}]_p$  as inverse.  $\mathbb{Z}_p$  is a field.
- 25.  $r \in \mathbb{Z}$  is a linear combination of  $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$  when there exists  $s, t \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $s \cdot m + t \cdot n = r$
- 26.  $\gcd(m,n)$  is a linear combination of m and n. To get the linear combination we need to use the extended euclid's algorithm

```
fun egcd(m,n) =
  let
  fun egcditer(((s1, t1), r1), lc as ((s2, t2), r2)) =
    let
```

```
val (q,r) = divalg(r1, r2)
in
    if r=0 then lc
    else egcditer(lc, ((s1-q*s2), (t1-q*t2), r)
    end
in
    egcditer(((1,0), m), ((0,1), n))
end
```

- 27.  $n \cdot lc_1(m, n) \equiv gcd(m, n) \pmod{m}$
- 28. If gcd(m,n) = 1 then  $[lc_2(m,n)]_m$  is the multiplicative inverse of  $[n]_m$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_m$
- 29. Diffie Hellman Cryptographic Method a way to let two people determine a shared key. Two prime numbers c base (small), p modulus (big). Alice has own secret number a and sends Bob  $A = c^a \mod p$ . Bob has his own secret number b and sends Alice  $B = c^b \mod p$ . Then their shared key is  $A^b \mod p = B^a \mod p$

This relies on the fact that  $[([c^a]_p)^b]_p = [([c^b]_p)^a]_p$ 

$$30. \binom{n+1}{k} = \binom{n}{k} + \binom{n}{k-1}$$

useful to prove binomial theorem

- 31. strong induction: a more general form of mathematical induction
  - Goal: to show P(n) for  $n \ge a$  (a is the starting point)
  - Basis: prove P(a), P(a+1), ..., P(b)
  - Induction: Assume P(i) for  $a \le i \le k$
  - Prove P(k+1)

useful for proving for  $n \ge 2$ , n is prime or a product of primes

32. Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic: For every positive integer n there is a unique finite ordered sequence of primes  $(p_1 \leqslant \cdots \leqslant p_l, \ l \in \mathbb{N})$  such that  $n = \Pi(p_1 \dots p_l)$ 

we can prove uniqueness by saying either n+1 is prime or composite. If prime it is unique, else if composite, its the composition of 2 numbers, by strong induction are each unique, and therefore overall it is unique.

33. The set of primes is infinite

proof by contradiction

#### 3 Sets

1. Two sets are equal if they have the same elements

$$\forall$$
 sets  $A, B.A = B \iff (\forall x.x \in A \iff x \in B)$   
  $2 = 2, 2$ 

- 2.  $A \subseteq B \iff \forall x. x \in A \implies x \in B$
- 3.  $A \subset B \iff (\forall x. x \in A \implies x \in B) \land A \neq B$
- 4. reflexivity:  $A \subseteq A$
- 5. transitivity:  $(A \subseteq B \land B \subseteq C) \implies A \subseteq C$
- 6. antisymmetry:  $(A \subseteq B \land B \subseteq A) \implies A = B$
- 7. Russel's Paradox:  $x|x \notin x$  is this set a member of itself?

If it is a member of itself then by definition it isnt a member of itself.

If it isn't a member of itself, then it should be a member of itself.

8.  $x \in A|P(x)$  - prevents Russel's paradox

$$a \in x \in A|P(x) \iff (a \in A \land P(a))$$

- 9. x|x = x universal set
- 10.  $x \mid x \neq x$  empty set

0

11. For any set A, the set of all of its subsets is called the power set, denoted  $\mathcal{P}(A)$ 

$$\mathcal{P}(A) = x | x \subseteq A$$

- 12. For all finite sets:  $\#\mathcal{P}(A) = 2^{\#A}$
- 13.  $A \cup B = x \in U | x \in A \lor x \in B \in \mathcal{P}(U)$
- 14.  $A \cap B = x \in U | x \in A \land x \in B \in \mathcal{P}(U)$
- 15.  $A^c = x \in U | \neg (x \in A) \in \mathcal{P}(U)$
- 16. Let U be a set,  $A, B, C \in \mathcal{P}(U)$  Then:

$$C = A \cup B$$
 iff

$$A \subseteq C \land B \subseteq C$$
 and

$$\forall X \in \mathcal{P}(U).(A \subseteq X \land B \subseteq X) \implies C \subseteq X$$

17. Let U be a set,  $A, B, C \in \mathcal{P}(U)$  Then:

$$C = A \cap B$$
 iff

$$C \subseteq A \land C \subseteq B$$
 and

$$\forall X \in \mathcal{P}(U).(X \subseteq A \land X \subseteq B) \implies X \subseteq C$$

- 18.  $\emptyset \in \emptyset$  but  $\emptyset \nsubseteq \emptyset$
- 19. For every a and b there is a set with a, b as its only elements
- 20. Product of Sets:  $A \times B = x | \exists a \in A \land \exists b \in B.x = (a, b)$
- 21.  $\Pi_{i=1}^n A = A_1 \times \cdots \times A_n$

$$\Pi_{i=1}^{0} A_i = ()$$

22.  $\#(A \times B) = \#A \times \#B$ 

23. Big Union  $\bigcup F = x \in U | \exists A \in F. x \in A \in \mathcal{P}(U)$ 

$$x \in \bigcup F \iff \exists X \in F.x \in X$$

$$[\ ]1,2,2,3=1,2,3$$

24. Big Intersection  $\bigcap F = x \in U | \forall A \in F. x \in A$ , for  $F \subseteq \mathcal{P}(U)$ 

$$\forall x.x \in \bigcap F \iff \forall A \in F, x \in A$$

$$\bigcap x^n | n \in [0, 1, 2] | x \in [1, 2, 3] = 1$$

- 25. Disjoint Union  $A \uplus B = 1 \times A \cup 2 \times B$
- 26. This means that you can union A and B without losing repeats and being able to identify original set
- 27.  $A \cap B = \emptyset \implies \#(A \cup B) = \#A + \#B = \#(A \uplus B)$
- 28. Binary Relation:  $R:A\mapsto B$

$$R \subseteq A \times B \text{ or } R \in \mathcal{P}(A \times B)$$

also written as a R b for  $(a, b) \in R$ 

Examples:

- Empty relation:  $\emptyset : A \mapsto B$
- Integer square root  $R_2 = (m, n) | m = n^2 : \mathbb{N} \mapsto \mathbb{Z}$
- 29. Generalised Pigeon Hole Principle: Let  $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ . If m objects are put in n boxes and  $m > n \cdot k$  for  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  then at least one box contains at least k+1 objects.

For finite sets  $A_1 \dots A_n$ , if  $\#A_i \leq k, \forall 1 \leq i \leq n$  and  $\#(\biguplus_{i=1}^n A_i = m)$  then  $m \leq n \cdot k$ 

30. Composition of Relations: if  $R:A\mapsto B, S:B\mapsto C$  then  $S\circ R:A\mapsto C$ 

$$a(S \circ R)c \iff \exists b \in B, aRb \land bSc$$

- 31. Directed Graph: (A, R) consists of a set A and a relation R on A (relation from A to A)
- 32.  $Rel(A) = \mathcal{P}(A \times A)$  set of relations on A
- 33.  $(Rel(A), id_A, \circ)$  is a monoid for every set A
- 34. Path of length  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  with source s and target t, is a tuple  $(a_0, \ldots, a_n) \in A^{n+1}$  such that  $a_0 = s, a_n = t$  and  $a_i R a_i + 1$  for all  $0 \le i \le n$
- 35. (A, R) is a directed graph. For all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $s, t \in A, s R^{\circ n} t$  iif there exsits a path of length n from s to t
- 36. For  $R \in Rel(A)$  let  $R^{\circ *} = \bigcup R^{\circ n} \in Rel(A) | n \in N = \bigcup_{n \in N} R^{\circ N}$
- 37. (A,R) is a directed graph. For all  $s,t\in A,s\,R^{\circ*}t\iff$  there exists a path with source s and target t in R
- 38. Preorder  $(P, \sqsubseteq)$  consists of a set P and a relation  $\sqsubseteq$  on P (i.e.  $\sqsubseteq \in \mathcal{P}(P \times P)$ ). It satisfies the following two axioms:

- Reflexivity  $\forall x \in P.x \sqsubseteq x$
- Transitivity  $\forall x, y, z \in P.(x \sqsubseteq y \land y \sqsubseteq z) \implies x \sqsubseteq z$
- 39. Partial Order (Poset): preorder that further satisfies:

Antisymmetry  $\forall x, y \in P.(x \sqsubseteq y \land y \sqsubseteq x) \implies x = y$ 

40. Partial Function: A relation  $R:A\mapsto B$  is said to be functional. It is a partial function when

$$\forall a \in A. \ \forall b_1, b_2 \in B. \ a R b_1 \land a R b_2 \implies b_1 = b_2$$

Every a has only one output b

We write this as  $f: A \rightarrow B$ 

Partial functions do not need to be defined for all their input values

e.g. if the input and output domains are both  $\mathbb N$  then  $y=\frac x2$  is not defined for odd numbers.

- 41.  $g(f(a)) = g \circ f$  at a
- 42.  $f(a) \downarrow$  indicates that the partial function is defined at a
- 43. For all finite sets A, B

$$\#(A \implies B = (\#B + 1)^{\#A})$$

44. total function: a partial function whose domain of definition coincides with its source.

$$f: a \rightarrow b$$

- 45.  $(A \Rightarrow B) \subseteq (A \Rightarrow B) \subseteq Rel(A, B)$
- 46. For all  $f \in Rel(A, B)$ ,

$$f \in (A \to B) \iff \forall a \in A. \exists! b \in B. afb$$

47. For all finite sets A, B

$$\#(A \Rightarrow B) = \#B^\#A$$

48. Injective: If  $x_1 \neq x_2$  then  $f(x_1) \neq f(x_2)$ 

Often easier to prove contrapositive:  $f(x_1) = f(x_2) \implies x_1 = x_2$  e.g.  $y = x^2$  is not injective.

- 49. Surjective: For all possible values of y, there is some x for which f(x) = y
- 50. Bijective: Must be injective and surjective. A function  $f:A\to B$  is said to be bijective if there exists a function  $g:B\to A$  such that g is a left and right inverse for f.
- 51.  $Bij(A, B) \subseteq Fun(A, B) \subseteq PFun(A, B) \subseteq Rel(A, B)$

52. Isomorphic: Two sets are said to be isomorphic and have the same cardinality whenever there is a bijection between them

$$A \cong B$$

$$\#A = \#B$$

$$\mathbb{N} \cong \mathbb{N}_+$$

$$\mathbb{N} \cong \mathbb{Z}$$

$$\mathbb{N} \cong \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$$

$$\mathbb{N}\cong\mathbb{Q}$$

$$\mathbb{N} \not\cong \mathbb{R}$$

53. partition: A partition, P of set A is a set of non-empty subsets of A, that is  $P \subseteq \mathcal{P}(A)$  and  $\emptyset \notin P$  such that:

$$\bigcup P = A$$

$$\forall b_1, b_2 \in P, b_1 \neq b_2 \implies b_1 \cap b_2 = \emptyset$$

- 54. equivalence relation: a binary relation that is reflexive, symmetric and transitive.
  - $\forall x \in A. x E x$
  - $\forall x, y \in A. \ x E y \implies y E x$
  - $\forall x, y, z \in A. (x : e \rightarrow y \land y : E \rightarrow z) \implies x : E \rightarrow z$

The relation = is the classic example

Any equivalence relation provides a partition of the underlying set into disjoint equivalence classes

$$EqRel(A) \cong Part(A)$$

55. For all finite sets A

$$\#EqRel(A) = \#Part(A) = B_{\#A}$$

where for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  the Bell Numbers are defined by

$$B_n = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{, for } n = 0\\ \sum_{i=0}^m {m \choose i} B_i & \text{, for } n = m+1 \end{cases}$$

- 56. Finite Cardinality: A set A is said to be finite whenever  $A \cong [n]$  for some  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , in which case we write #A = n
- 57. Infinity Axiom: There is an infinite set, containing  $\emptyset$  and closed under successor.

$$\exists I (\varnothing \in I \land \forall x \in I((x \cup \{x\}) \in I))$$

This forms the set of natural numbers

58. 
$$Bij(A,B) \subseteq Sur(A,B) \subseteq Fun(A,B) \subseteq PFun(A,B) \subseteq Rel(A,B)$$

59. Enumerability: A set A is said to be enumerable whenever there is a surjection  $\mathbb{N} \twoheadrightarrow A$ 

a countable set is either empty of enumerable

$$e: \mathbb{N} \twoheadrightarrow A$$
  $e(n) \in A | n \in \mathbb{N} = A$ 

- 60. Every non-empty subset of an enumerable set is enumerable
- 61.  $\mathbb{N}, \mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Q}$  are countable
- 62. The product and disjoint unions of countable sets is countable
- 63. A set A is of less than or equal cardinality to set B whenever there is an injection  $A \rightarrow B$

$$\#A \leqslant \#B$$

$$A \lesssim B$$

- 64. Cantor-Schroeder-Bernstein Theorem:  $(A \lesssim B \land B \lesssim A) = A \cong B$
- 65. Cantor's Diagonalisation Theorem: For every set A, there is no surjection from A to  $\mathcal{P}(A)$
- 66. Foundation Axiom: The membership relation is well founded

Infinite chain of 
$$x_n \in x_n \in \dots x_1 \in x_0$$
 not possible

A set contains no infinitely descending membership sequence

A set contains a membership minimal element - there is an element of the set that shares no member with the set

$$x \neq \emptyset \implies \exists y (y \in x \land y \cap x = \emptyset)$$

### 4 Formal Languages and Automata

#### 4.1 Regular Expressions

- 1. Used for representing certain sets of strings in an algebraic way. Satisfy the following rules:
  - $\bullet$  Any terminal symbol is in  $\Sigma$ . This includes the empty and null symbol.
  - Union of two regex is a regex. (e.g. a|b)
  - Concat of two regex is a regex (e.g. ab)
  - Star of regex is a regex (e.g. aa)
  - Regex over  $\Sigma$  are precisely those obtained recursively by the application of the above rules once or several times.
- 2. Identities of Regex
  - $\emptyset + R = R$
  - $\emptyset R + R\emptyset = \emptyset$

- ER = RE = R
- $E^* = E$
- $\emptyset^* = E$
- $\bullet$  R|R=R
- $R^*R^* = R^*$
- $RR^* = R^*R$
- $(R^*)^* = R^*$
- $\bullet \ E|RR^* = E|R^*R = R^*$
- $\bullet \ (PQ)^*P = P(QP)^*$
- $(P|Q)^* = (P^*Q^*)^* = (P^*|Q^*)^*$
- (P|Q)R = PR|QR
- R(P|Q) = RP|RQ
- 3. Arden's Theorem: If P and Q are two regex over  $\Sigma$ , and if P does not contain  $\epsilon$  then the following equation in R is given by R = R|RP has a unique solution  $R = QP^*$

### 4.2 Pumping Lemma

This is used to prove that a language is **NOT REGULAR**. It cannot be used to show that a language is regular

If A is a regular language, then A has a Pumping Length P such that any string S where  $|S| \ge P$  may be divided into three parts: S = xyz such that the following conditions must be true:

- $xy^iz \in A$  for every  $i \ge 0$
- |y| > 0
- $|xy| \leq P$