Proving Non-regularity

Lecture 6 Thursday, September 8, 2022

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6.1 Not all languages are regular

Regular Languages, DFAs, NFAs

Theorem 6.1.

Languages accepted by DFAs, NFAs, and regular expressions are the same.

Question: Is every language a regular language? No.

- Each DFA M can be represented as a string over a finite alphabet Σ by appropriate encoding
- Hence number of regular languages is <u>countably infinite</u>
- Number of languages is <u>uncountably infinite</u>
- Hence there must be a non-regular language!

A direct proof $L = \{0^{i}1^{i} \mid i \ge 0\} = \{\epsilon, 01, 0011, 000111, \dots, \}$

Theorem 6.2.

L is not regular.

A Simple and Canonical Non-regular Language $L = \{0^{i}1^{i} \mid i \geq 0\} = \{\epsilon, 01, 0011, 000111, \cdots, \}$

Theorem 6.3.

L is not regular.

Question: Proof?

Intuition: Any program to recognize **L** seems to require counting number of zeros in input which cannot be done with fixed memory.

How do we formalize intuition and come up with a formal proof?

Proof by Contradiction

Suppose L is regular. Then there is a DFA M such that L(M) = L.
Let M = (Q, {0, 1}, δ, s, A) where |Q| = n.
Consider strings ε, 0, 00, 000, · · · , 0ⁿ total of n + 1 strings.

What states does **M** reach on the above strings? Let $q_i = \delta^*(s, 0^i)$.

By pigeon hole principle $q_i = q_j$ for some $0 \le i < j \le n$. That is, M is in the same state after reading 0^i and 0^j where $i \ne j$.

M should accept $0^i 1^i$ but then it will also accept $0^j 1^i$ where $i \neq j$. This contradicts the fact that M accepts L. Thus, there is no DFA for L.

6.2 When two states are equivalent?

Equivalence between states

Definition 6.1. $M = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, s, A)$: DFA. *Two states* $p, q \in Q$ *are* <u>equivalent</u> *if for all strings* $w \in \Sigma^*$, *we have that*

 $\delta^*(\mathsf{p},\mathsf{w})\in\mathsf{A}\iff \delta^*(\mathsf{q},\mathsf{w})\in\mathsf{A}.$

One can merge any two states that are equivalent into a single state.

Distinguishing between states

Definition 6.2. $M = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, s, A)$: DFA. *Two states* $p, q \in Q$ *are* **distinguishable** *if there exists a string* $w \in \Sigma^*$, *such that*

$$\delta^*(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{w}) \in \mathbf{A}$$
 and $\delta^*(\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{w}) \notin \mathbf{A}$.
 $\delta^*(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{w}) \notin \mathbf{A}$ and $\delta^*(\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{w}) \in \mathbf{A}$.

or

Distinguishable prefixes

 $M = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, s, A): DFA$ Idea: Every string $w \in \Sigma^*$ defines a state $\nabla w = \delta^*(s, w)$.

Definition 6.3.

Two strings $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{w} \in \mathbf{\Sigma}^*$ are <u>distinguishable</u> for M (or L(M)) if $\nabla \mathbf{u}$ and $\nabla \mathbf{w}$ are distinguishable.

Definition 6.4 (Direct restatement).

Two prefixes $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{w} \in \mathbf{\Sigma}^*$ are **distinguishable** for a language \mathbf{L} if there exists a string \mathbf{x} , such that $\mathbf{u}\mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{L}$ and $\mathbf{w}\mathbf{x} \notin \mathbf{L}$ (or $\mathbf{u}\mathbf{x} \notin \mathbf{L}$ and $\mathbf{w}\mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{L}$).

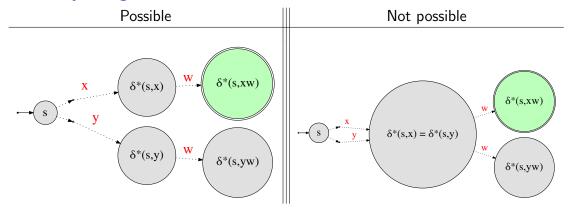
Distinguishable means different states

Lemma 6.5.

L: regular language. $M = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, s, A)$: DFA for L. If $x, y \in \Sigma^*$ are distinguishable, then $\nabla x \neq \nabla y$.

Reminder: $\nabla x = \delta^*(s, x) \in Q$ and $\nabla y = \delta^*(s, y) \in Q$

Proof by a figure



Distinguishable strings means different states: Proof

Lemma 6.6.

L: regular language. $M = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, s, A)$: DFA for L. If $x, y \in \Sigma^*$ are distinguishable, then $\nabla x \neq \nabla y$.

Proof.

Assume for the sake of contradiction that $\nabla \mathbf{x} = \nabla \mathbf{y}$. By assumption $\exists \mathbf{w} \in \mathbf{\Sigma}^*$ such that $\nabla \mathbf{x} \mathbf{w} \in \mathbf{A}$ and $\nabla \mathbf{y} \mathbf{w} \notin \mathbf{A}$. $\implies \mathbf{A} \ni \nabla \mathbf{x} \mathbf{w} = \delta^*(\mathbf{s}, \mathbf{x} \mathbf{w}) = \delta^*(\nabla \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}) = \delta^*(\nabla \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{w})$ $= \delta^*(\mathbf{s}, \mathbf{y} \mathbf{w}) = \nabla \mathbf{y} \mathbf{w} \notin \mathbf{A}$. $\implies \mathbf{A} \ni \nabla \mathbf{y} \mathbf{w} \notin \mathbf{A}$. Impossible! Assumption that $\nabla \mathbf{x} = \nabla \mathbf{y}$ is false.

Review questions...

- 1. Prove for any $i\neq j$ then 0^i and 0^j are distinguishable for the language $\{0^k1^k\mid k\geq 0\}.$
- 2. Let L be a regular language, and let w_1, \ldots, w_k be strings that are all pairwise distinguishable for L. Prove that any DFA for L must have at least k states.
- 3. Prove that $\{\mathbf{0}^{\mathbf{k}}\mathbf{1}^{\mathbf{k}} \mid \mathbf{k} \ge \mathbf{0}\}$ is not regular.

6.3 Fooling sets: Proving non-regularity

Fooling Sets

Definition 6.1.

For a language L over Σ a set of strings F (could be infinite) is a fooling set or distinguishing set for L if every two distinct strings $x, y \in F$ are distinguishable.

Example: $F = \{0^i \mid i \ge 0\}$ is a fooling set for the language $L = \{0^k 1^k \mid k \ge 0\}$.

Theorem 6.2.

Suppose **F** is a fooling set for **L**. If **F** is finite then there is no DFA **M** that accepts **L** with less than $|\mathbf{F}|$ states.

Recall

Already proved the following lemma:

Lemma 6.3.

L: regular language. $M = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, s, A)$: DFA for L. If $x, y \in \Sigma^*$ are distinguishable, then $\nabla x \neq \nabla y$.

Reminder: $\nabla x = \delta^*(s, x)$.

Proof of theorem

Theorem 6.4 (Reworded.).

L: A language F: a fooling set for L. If F is finite then any DFA M that accepts L has at least |F| states.

Proof.

Let $F = \{w_1, w_2, \dots, w_m\}$ be the fooling set. Let $M = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, s, A)$ be any DFA that accepts L. Let $q_i = \nabla w_i = \delta^*(s, x_i)$. By lemma $q_i \neq q_j$ for all $i \neq j$. As such, $|Q| \ge |\{q_1, \dots, q_m\}| = |\{w_1, \dots, w_m\}| = |F|$.

Infinite Fooling Sets

Corollary 6.5.

If ${\sf L}$ has an infinite fooling set ${\sf F}$ then ${\sf L}$ is not regular.

Proof.

Let $w_1, w_2, \ldots \subseteq F$ be an infinite sequence of strings such that every pair of them are distinguishable. Assume for contradiction that $\exists M \text{ a } DFA$ for L. Let $F_i = \{w_1, \ldots, w_i\}$. By theorem, # states of $M \ge |F_i| = i$, for all i. As such, number of states in M is infinite. Contradiction: DFA = deterministic finite automata. But M not finite.

Examples

 $\blacktriangleright \ \{0^k1^k \mid k \geq 0\}$

{bitstrings with equal number of 0s and 1s}

 $\blacktriangleright \ \{\mathbf{0}^{\mathsf{k}}\mathbf{1}^\ell \mid \mathsf{k} \neq \ell\}$

Harder example: The language of squares is not regular $\{0^{k^2} \mid k \geq 0\}$

Really hard: Primes are not regular

An exercise left for your enjoyment

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\left\{ \mathbf{0}^{\mathbf{k}} \mid \mathbf{k} \text{ is a prime number} \right\}
Hints:
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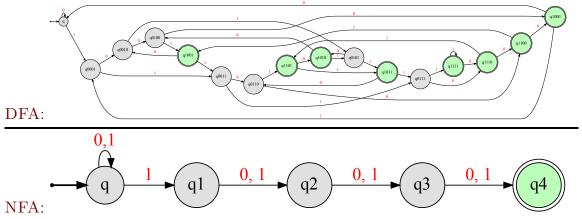
- 1. Probably easier to prove directly on the automata.
- 2. There are infinite number of prime numbers.
- 3. For every **n** > **0**, observe that **n**!, **n**! + **1**, ..., **n**! + **n** are all composite there are arbitrarily big gaps between prime numbers.

6.3.1

Exponential gap in number of states between $\ensuremath{\mathrm{DFA}}$ and $\ensuremath{\mathrm{NFA}}$ sizes

Exponential gap between NFA and DFA size

 $\mathsf{L}_4 = \{\mathsf{w} \in \{0,1\}^* \mid \mathsf{w} \text{ has a } 1 \text{ located 4 positions from the end} \}$



Exponential gap between NFA and DFA size

$$\label{eq:Lk} \begin{split} \mathsf{L}_{\mathsf{k}} &= \{\mathsf{w} \in \{0,1\}^* \mid \mathsf{w} \text{ has a } 1 \text{ k positions from the end} \} \\ \text{Recall that } \mathsf{L}_{\mathsf{k}} \text{ is accepted by a } \mathrm{NFA} \ \mathsf{N} \text{ with } \mathsf{k} + 1 \text{ states.} \end{split}$$

Theorem 6.6.

Every DFA that accepts L_k has at least 2^k states.

Claim 6.7.

 $F=\{w\in\{0,1\}^*:|w|=k\}$ is a fooling set of size 2^k for $L_k.$

Why?

- **>** Suppose $a_1a_2 \dots a_k$ and $b_1b_2 \dots b_k$ are two distinct bitstrings of length k
- Let **i** be first index where $\mathbf{a}_i \neq \mathbf{b}_i$
- $y = 0^{k-i-1}$ is a distinguishing suffix for the two strings

How do pick a fooling set

How do we pick a fooling set F?

- If x, y are in **F** and $x \neq y$ they should be distinguishable! Of course.
- ▶ All strings in **F** except maybe one should be prefixes of strings in the language **L**. For example if $L = \{0^k 1^k | k \ge 0\}$ do not pick 1 and 10 (say). Why?

6.4 Closure properties: Proving non-regularity

Non-regularity via closure properties H = {bitstrings with equal number of 0s and 1s}

 $\mathsf{H}'=\{0^k1^k\mid k\geq 0\}$

Suppose we have already shown that L' is non-regular. Can we show that L is non-regular without using the fooling set argument from scratch?

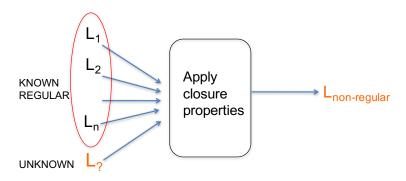
$\mathsf{H}'=\mathsf{H}\cap\mathsf{L}(0^*1^*)$

Claim: The above and the fact that L' is non-regular implies L is non-regular. Why?

Suppose **H** is regular. Then since $L(0^*1^*)$ is regular, and regular languages are closed under intersection, **H'** also would be regular. But we know **H'** is not regular, a contradiction.

Non-regularity via closure properties

General recipe:



Proving non-regularity: Summary

- Method of distinguishing suffixes. To prove that L is non-regular find an infinite fooling set.
- Closure properties. Use existing non-regular languages and regular languages to prove that some new language is non-regular.
- Pumping lemma. We did not cover it but it is sometimes an easier proof technique to apply, but not as general as the fooling set technique.

6.5 Myhill-Nerode Theorem

One automata to rule them all

"Myhill-Nerode Theorem": A regular language L has a unique (up to naming) minimal automata, and it can be computed efficiently once any DFA is given for L.

6.5.1 Myhill-Nerode Theorem: Equivalence between strings

Indistinguishability

Recall:

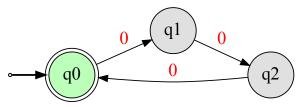
Definition 6.1.

For a language L over Σ and two strings $x, y \in \Sigma^*$ we say that x and y are distinguishable with respect to L if there is a string $w \in \Sigma^*$ such that exactly one of xw, yw is in L. x, y are indistinguishable with respect to L if there is no such w.

Given language L over Σ define a relation \equiv_L over strings in Σ^* as follows: $x \equiv_L y$ iff x and y are indistinguishable with respect to L.

Definition 6.2. $x \equiv_L y$ means that $\forall w \in \Sigma^* : xw \in L \iff yw \in L$. In words: x is equivalent to y under L.

Example: Equivalence classes



Indistinguishability

Claim 6.3.

 \equiv_{L} is an equivalence relation over $\mathbf{\Sigma}^*$.

Proof.

- 1. Reflexive: $\forall x \in \Sigma^*$: $\forall w \in \Sigma^*$: $xw \in L \iff xw \in L$. $\implies x \equiv_L x$.
- 2. Symmetry: $\mathbf{x} \equiv_{\mathsf{L}} \mathbf{y}$ then $\forall \mathbf{w} \in \mathbf{\Sigma}^*$: $\mathbf{x}\mathbf{w} \in \mathsf{L} \iff \mathbf{y}\mathbf{w} \in \mathsf{L}$ $\forall \mathbf{w} \in \mathbf{\Sigma}^*$: $\mathbf{y}\mathbf{w} \in \mathsf{L} \iff \mathbf{x}\mathbf{w} \in \mathsf{L} \implies \mathbf{y} \equiv_{\mathsf{L}} \mathbf{x}$.
- 3. Transitivity: $x \equiv_L y$ and $y \equiv_L z$ $\forall w \in \Sigma^*$: $xw \in L \iff yw \in L$ and $\forall w \in \Sigma^*$: $yw \in L \iff zw \in L$ $\implies \forall w \in \Sigma^*$: $xw \in L \iff zw \in L$ $\implies x \equiv_L z$.

Equivalences over automatas...

Claim 6.4 (Just proved.).

 \equiv_{L} is an equivalence relation over $\mathbf{\Sigma}^*$.

Therefore, \equiv_{L} partitions Σ^{*} into a collection of equivalence classes.

Definition 6.5.

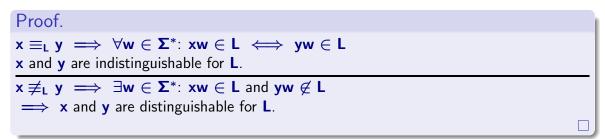
L: A language For a string $x \in \Sigma^*$, let $[x] = [x]_L = \{y \in \Sigma^* \mid x \equiv_L y\}$ be the equivalence class of x according to L.

Definition 6.6. $[L] = \{[x]_L \mid x \in \Sigma^*\} \text{ is the set of } \underline{equivalence \ classes} \text{ of } L.$

Strings in the same equivalence class are indistinguishable

Lemma 6.7.

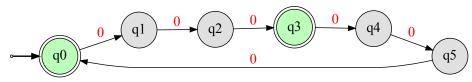
Let \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} be two distinct strings. $\mathbf{x} \equiv_{\mathbf{I}} \mathbf{y} \iff \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}$ are indistinguishable for \mathbf{L} .



All strings arriving at a state are in the same class

Lemma 6.8.
$$\begin{split} \mathsf{M} &= (\mathsf{Q}, \mathsf{\Sigma}, \delta, \mathsf{s}, \mathsf{A}) \text{ a DFA for a language } \mathsf{L}. \\ \text{For any } \mathsf{q} \in \mathsf{A}, \text{ let } \mathsf{L}_{\mathsf{q}} &= \{\mathsf{w} \in \mathsf{\Sigma}^* \mid \nabla \mathsf{w} = \delta^*(\mathsf{s}, \mathsf{w}) = \mathsf{q}\}. \\ \text{Then, there exists a string } \mathsf{x}, \text{ such that } \mathsf{L}_{\mathsf{q}} \subseteq [\mathsf{x}]_{\mathsf{L}}. \end{split}$$

An inefficient automata



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6.5.2 Stating and proving the Myhill-Nerode Theorem

Equivalences over automatas...

Claim 6.9 (Just proved).

Let \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} be two distinct strings. $\mathbf{x} \equiv_{\mathsf{L}} \mathbf{y} \iff \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}$ are indistinguishable for L .

Corollary 6.10.

If \equiv_{L} is finite with **n** equivalence classes then there is a fooling set **F** of size **n** for **L**.

Corollary 6.11.

If \equiv_{L} has infinite number of equivalence classes $\implies \exists$ infinite fooling set for L. $\implies L$ is not regular.

Equivalence classes as automata

Lemma 6.12. For all $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbf{\Sigma}^*$, if $[\mathbf{x}]_{\mathsf{L}} = [\mathbf{y}]_{\mathsf{L}}$, then for any $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbf{\Sigma}$, we have $[\mathbf{x}\mathbf{a}]_{\mathsf{L}} = [\mathbf{y}\mathbf{a}]_{\mathsf{L}}$.

 $\begin{array}{l} \mathsf{Proof.} \\ [x] = [y] \implies \forall \mathsf{w} \in \mathbf{\Sigma}^*: \mathsf{x}\mathsf{w} \in \mathsf{L} \iff \mathsf{y}\mathsf{w} \in \mathsf{L} \\ \implies \forall \mathsf{w}' \in \mathbf{\Sigma}^*: \mathsf{x}\mathsf{a}\mathsf{w}' \in \mathsf{L} \iff \mathsf{y}\mathsf{a}\mathsf{w}' \in \mathsf{L} \qquad // \mathsf{w} = \mathsf{a}\mathsf{w}' \\ \implies [\mathsf{x}\mathsf{a}]_{\mathsf{L}} = [\mathsf{y}\mathsf{a}]_{\mathsf{L}}. \end{array}$

Set of equivalence classes

Lemma 6.13.

If L has n distinct equivalence classes, then there is a DFA that accepts it using n states.

Proof.

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Set of states: \mathbf{Q} = [\mathbf{L}]

Start state: \mathbf{s} = [\varepsilon]_{\mathsf{L}}.

Accept states: \mathbf{A} = \{[\mathbf{x}]_{\mathsf{L}} \mid \mathbf{x} \in \mathsf{L}\}.

Transition function: \delta([\mathbf{x}]_{\mathsf{L}}, \mathbf{a}) = [\mathbf{x}\mathbf{a}]_{\mathsf{L}}.

\mathbf{M} = (\mathbf{Q}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}, \delta, \mathbf{s}, \mathbf{A}): The resulting DFA.

Clearly, \mathbf{M} is a DFA with \mathbf{n} states, and it accepts \mathsf{L}.
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Myhill-Nerode Theorem

Theorem 6.14 (Myhill-Nerode).

L is regular $\iff \equiv_{\mathsf{L}}$ has a finite number of equivalence classes. If \equiv_{L} is finite with **n** equivalence classes then there is a DFA **M** accepting **L** with exactly **n** states and this is the minimum possible.

Corollary 6.15.

A language L is non-regular if and only if there is an infinite fooling set F for L.

Algorithmic implication: For every DFA M one can find in polynomial time a DFA M' such that L(M) = L(M') and M' has the fewest possible states among all such DFAs.

What was that all about

Summary: A regular language L has a unique (up to naming) minimal automata, and it can be computed efficiently once any DFA is given for L.

Exercise

- 1. Given two DFAs M_1 , M_2 describe an efficient algorithm to decide if $L(M_1) = L(M_2)$.
- 2. Given DFA M, and two states q, q' of M, show an efficient algorithm to decide if q and q' are distinguishable. (Hint: Use the first part.)
- 3. Given a DFA **M** for a language **L**, describe an efficient algorithm for computing the minimal automata (as far as the number of states) that accepts **L**.

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6.6

Roads not taken: Non-regularity via pumping lemma

Non-regularity via "looping"

Claim 6.1.

The language $L=\{a^nb^n\mid n\geq 0\}$ is not regular.

Proof: Assume for contradiction L is regular. $\implies \exists DFA \ M = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F) \text{ for } L. \text{ That is } L = L(M).$ n = |Q|: number of states of M.Consider the string $a^n b^n$. Let $p_{\tau} = \delta^*(q_0, a^{\tau})$, for $\tau = 0, \dots, n$. $p_0 p_1 \dots p_n: n + 1$ states. M has n states. By pigeon hole principle, must be i < j, such that $p_i = p_j$. $\implies \delta^*(p_i.a^{j-i}) = p_i \text{ (its a loop!)}.$ For $x = a^i, y = a^{j-i}, z = a^{n-j}b^n$, we have

$$\delta^*(\mathbf{q}_0, \mathbf{a}^{n+j-i}\mathbf{b}^n) = \delta^*(\mathbf{q}_0, \mathsf{xyyz}) = \delta^*\left(\delta^*\left(\delta^*(\mathbf{q}_0, \mathsf{x}), \mathsf{y}\right), \mathsf{y}\right), \mathsf{z}\right)$$

Proof continued

Non-regularity via "looping"

We have: $\mathbf{p}_i = \delta^*(\mathbf{q}_0, \mathbf{a}^i)$ and $\delta^*(\mathbf{p}_i.\mathbf{a}^{j-}) = \mathbf{p}_i$.

$$\begin{split} \delta^*(\mathbf{q}_0, \mathbf{a}^{n+j-i}\mathbf{b}^n) &= \delta^* \left(\delta^* \left(\delta^* (\mathbf{q}_0, \mathbf{a}^i), \mathbf{a}^{j-i} \right), \mathbf{a}^{j-i} \right), \mathbf{a}^{n-j} \mathbf{b}^n \right) \\ &= \delta^* \left(\delta^* \left(\delta^* \left(\delta^* (\mathbf{p}_i, \mathbf{a}^{j-i}), \mathbf{a}^{j-i} \right), \mathbf{a}^{n-j} \mathbf{b}^n \right) \\ &= \delta^* \left(\delta^* \left(\delta^* \left(\delta^* (\mathbf{q}_0, \mathbf{a}^i), \mathbf{a}^{j-i} \right), \mathbf{a}^{n-j} \mathbf{b}^n \right) \\ &= \delta^* \left(\delta^* \left(\delta^* \left(\mathbf{p}_i, \mathbf{a}^{j-i} \right), \mathbf{a}^{n-j} \mathbf{b}^n \right) \\ &= \delta^* (\mathbf{q}_0, \mathbf{a}^n \mathbf{b}^n) \in \mathbf{A}. \end{split}$$

 $\implies a^{n+j-i}b^n \in L$, which is false. Contradiction. \Box

The pumping lemma

The previous argument implies that any regular language must suffer from loops (we omit the proof):

Theorem 6.2 (Pumping Lemma.).

Let **L** be a regular language. Then there exists an integer **p** (the "pumping length") such that for any string $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbf{L}$ with $|\mathbf{w}| \ge \mathbf{p}$, **w** can be written as **xyz** with the following properties:

- ► |**xy**| ≤ **p**.
- $|\mathbf{y}| \ge 1$ (i.e. \mathbf{y} is not the empty string).
- $\blacktriangleright xy^kz \in L \text{ for every } k \ge 0.$