# Theory of Computation

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Before we go into details,

what are the two fundamental questions in theoretical Computer Science?



- **1. Can** a given problem **be solved** by computation?
- 2. **How efficiently** can a given problem be solved by computation?

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We focus on *problems* rather than on specific *algorithms* for solving problems.

To answer both questions mathematically, we need to start by formalizing the notion of "computer" or "machine".

So, course outline breaks naturally into three parts:

- 1. Models of computation (Automata theory)
  - Finite automata
  - Push-down automata
  - Turing machines
- 2. What can we compute? (Computability Theory)
- 3. How efficient can we compute? (*Complexity Theory*)

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We start with overview of the first part

# Models of Computations or Automata Theory

First we will consider more restricted models of computation

- Finite State Automata
- Pushdown Automata

Then,

• (universal) Turing Machines

We will define "regular expressions" and "context-free grammars" and will show their close relation to Finite State Automata and to Pushdown Automata.

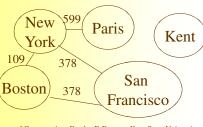
Used in compiler construction (lexical analysis)

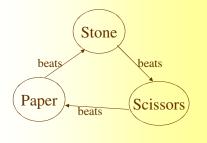
Used in linguistic and in programming languages (syntax)

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### Graphs

- G=(V,E)
- vertices (V), edges (E)
- labeled graph, undirected graph, directed graph
- subgraph
- path, cycle, simple path, simple cycle, directed path
- connected graph, strongly connected digraph
- tree, root, leaves
- degree, outdegree, indegree





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#### Strings and Languages

• *Alphabet* (any finite set of symbols)

$$\Sigma_1 = \{0,1\}$$

$$\sum_{2} = \{a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i, j, k, l, m, n, o, p, q, r, s, t, u, v, w, x, y, z\}$$

• A *string* over an alphabet (a finite sequence of symbols from that alphabet)

 $w_1 = 01001$  over  $\Sigma_1$ 

 $w_2 = abracadabra$  over  $\Sigma_2$ 

 $|w_1|$  is the length of string  $w_1$  (=5)

 $\varepsilon$  is an empty string

the reverse of  $w_1$  is  $w_1^R = 10010$ 

substring, concatenation ( $(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ )

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#### Strings and Languages

• A *language* is a set of strings over a given alphabet  $(\Sigma_1)$ .

$$L_1 = \{w: w \text{ contains } 001 \text{ as a substring } \}$$

$$L_2 = \{w: |w| \text{ is even }\}$$

 $\varepsilon \in L_2$ 

 $|L_1|$  is the length of  $L_1$  (this is an infinite language)

• Usual set operations as union and intersection can be applied to

languages. 
$$L_1 = \{11,001\}$$
  
 $L_2 = \{0,10\}$ 

$$L_1 \cup L_2 = \{0, 10, 11, 001\}$$
$$L_1 \cap L_2 = \{\}$$

*concatenation* of two languages

$$L_1L_2 = \{110,1110,0010,00110\}$$
  
 $L_2L_1 = \{011,0001,1011,10001\}$ 

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#### Definitions, theorems, proofs

- *Definitions* describe the objects and notations
  - Defining some object we must make clear what constitutes that object and what does not.
- Mathematical statements about objects and notions
  - a statement which expresses that some object has a certain property
  - it may or may not be true, but must be precise
- A *proof* is a convincing logical argument that a statement is true
- A *theorem* is a mathematical statement proved true
  - this word is reserved for statements of special interest
  - statements that are interesting only because they assist in the proof of another, more significant statement, are called *lemmas*
  - a theorem or its proof may allow us to conclude easily that another, related statements are true; these statements are called *corollaries* of the theorem

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#### An example

- Definitions:
  - A graph G=(V,E), a node v, an edge (v,u), # of edges |E|,
  - incident, the degree d(v) of a node v,
  - sum, even number.
- **Theorem:** For every graph G, the sum of the degrees of all the nodes in G is 2|E|.
- *Corollary:* For every graph G, the sum of the degrees of all the nodes in G is an even number.

OR

- **Lemma:** For every graph G, the sum of the degrees of all the nodes in G is 2|E|.
- **Theorem:** For every graph G, the sum of the degrees of all the nodes in G is an even number.
- **Proof:** (easy)

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# Types of proofs:

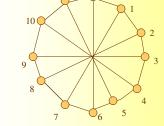
#### Proof by construction

- If theorem states that a particular type of object exists.
- A way to prove such a theorem is by demonstrating how to construct the object.
- A way to disprove a "theorem" is to construct an object that contradicts that statement (called a *counterexample*).
- **Definition:** A graph is **k-regular** if every node in the graph has degree **k**
- **Theorem:** For each even number n greater than 2, there exists a 3-regular graph with n nodes.
- **Proof:** Construct a graph G=(V,E) as follows.

$$V = \{0,1,...,n-1\}$$

$$E = \{\{i, i+1\}: for \ 0 \le i \le n-2\} \cup \{\{n-1, 0\}\}$$

 $\bigcup \{\{i,i+n/2\}: for \ 0 \le i \le n/2-1\}$ 



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#### Proof by induction

- Prove a statement S(X) about a family of objects X (e.g., integers, trees) in two parts:
- 1. Basis: Prove for one or several small values of X directly.
- 2. *Inductive step:* Assume S(Y) for Y ``smaller than" X; prove S(X) using that assumption.

**Theorem:** A binary tree with *n* leaves has 2*n*-1 nodes.

**Proof:** • formally, S(T): if T is a binary tree with n leaves, then T has 2n - 1 nodes.

• induction is on the size = # of nodes in T.

Basis: if T has I node, it has I leaf. l=2-1, so OK

*Induction:* Assume S(U) for trees with fewer nodes that T.

- T must be a root plus two subtrees U and V
- If U and V have u and v leaves, respectively, and T has t leaves, then u + v = t.
- By the induction hypothesis, U and V have 2u 1 and 2v 1 nodes, respectively.
- Then T has 1 + (2u 1) + (2v 1) nodes
  - $\bullet = 2 (u + v) 1$
  - = 2 t 1, proving inductive step.

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### If-And-Only-If Proofs

- Often, a statement we need to prove is of the form "X if and only if Y". We are often required to do two things:
- 1. Prove the *if-part*: Assume *Y* and prove *X*.
- 2. Prove the *only-if-part*: Assume X and prove Y.

#### Remember:

- the *if* and *only-if* parts are *converses* of each other.
- one part, say "if X then Y", says nothing about whether Y is true when X is false.
- an equivalent form to "if X then Y" is "if not Y then not X": the latter is the *contrapositive* of the former.

#### **Equivalence** of Sets

- many important facts in language theory are of the form that two sets of strings, described in two different ways, are really the same set.
- to prove sets S and T are the same, prove: x is in S if and only if x is in T. That is
  - Assume x is in S; prove x is in T.
  - Assume x is in T; prove x is in S.

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#### **Example:** Balanced Parentheses

- Here are two ways that we can define ``balanced parentheses'':
- 1. Grammatically:
  - a) The empty string  $\varepsilon$  is balanced.
  - b) If w is balanced, then (w) is balanced.
  - c) If w and x are balanced, then so is wx.
- 2. By Scanning: w is balanced if and only if:
  - a) w has an equal number of left and right parentheses.
  - b) Every prefix of w has at least as many left as right parentheses.
- Call these **GB** and **SB** properties, respectively.

**Theorem:** A string of parentheses w is **GB** if and only if it is **SB**.

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## If part of the proof

• An induction on |w| (length of w). Assume w is SB; prove it is GB.

*Basis:* If  $w = \varepsilon$  (length = 0), then w is **GB** by rule (a).

• Notice that we do not even have to address the question of whether  $\varepsilon$  is SB (it is, however).

*Induction:* Suppose the statement ``SB implies GB" is true for strings shorter than w.

- Case 1: w is not  $\mathcal{E}$ , but has no nonempty prefix that has an equal number of (and).
  - Then w must begin with (and end with); i.e., w = (x).
  - *x* must be **SB** (why?).
  - By the **IH**, *x* is **GB**.
  - By rule (b), (x) is **GB**; but (x) = w, so w is **GB**.
- Case 2: w = xy, where x is the shortest, nonempty prefix of w with an equal number of (and), and y is not  $\varepsilon$ .
  - x and y are both **SB** (why?).
  - By the **IH**, x and y are **GB**.
  - *w* is **GB** by rule (c).

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#### Only-If part of the proof

• An induction on |w| (length of w). Assume w is GB; prove it is SB.

*Basis:* If  $w = \mathcal{E}$  (length = 0), then clearly w is **SB**.

*Induction:* Suppose the statement ``GB implies SB" is true for strings shorter than w, and assume that w is not  $\varepsilon$ .

- Case 1: w is GB because of rule (b); i.e., w = (x) and x is GB.
  - by the **IH**, x is **SB**.
  - Since x has equal numbers of ('s and )'s, so does (x).
  - Since x has no prefix with more )'s than ('s, so does (x).
- Case 2: w is not  $\varepsilon$  and is GB because of rule (c); i.e., w = xy, and x and y are GB.
  - By the IH, x and y are SB.
  - (Aside) Trickier than it looks: we have to argue that neither x nor y could be  $\mathcal{E}$ , because if one were, the other would be w, and this rule application could not be the one that first shows w to be **GB**.
  - xy has equal numbers of ('s and )'s because x and y both do.
  - If w had a prefix with more )'s than ('s, that prefix would either be a prefix of x (contradicting the fact that x has no such prefix) or it would be x followed by a prefix of y (contradicting the fact that y also has no such prefix).
  - (Aside) Above is an example of *proof by contradiction*. We assumed our conclusion about w was false and showed it would imply something that we know is false.

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#### Finite Automata

- An important way to describe certain simple, but highly useful languages called `regular languages."
  - A graph with a finite number of nodes, called states.
  - Arcs are labeled with one or more symbols from some alphabet.
  - One state is designated the *start state* or *initial state*.
  - Some states are *final states* or accepting states.
  - The *language* of the FA is the set of strings that label paths that go from the start state to some accepting state.

#### Example

- This FA scans HTML documents, looking for a list of what could be titleauthor pairs, perhaps in a reading list for some literature course.
- It accepts whenever it finds the end of a list item.
- In an application, the strings that matched the title (before 'by') and author (after) would be stored in a table of titleauthor pairs being accumulated.

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