

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?

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*)

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

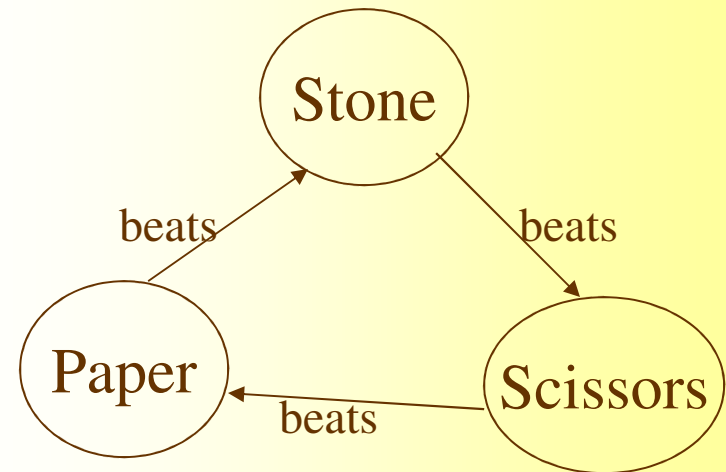
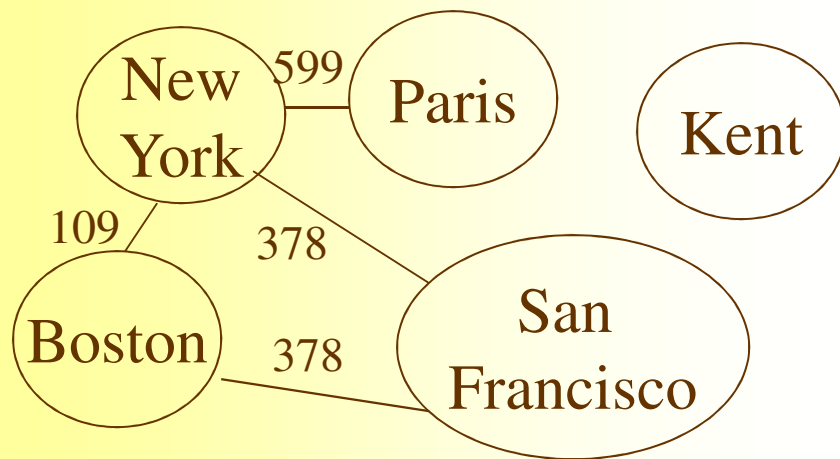
We will define “*regular expressions*” and “*context-free grammars*” and will show their close relation to Finite State Automata and to Pushdown Automata.

Used in compiler construction (lexical analysis)

Used in linguistic and in programming languages (syntax)

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



Strings and Languages

- *Alphabet* (any finite set of symbols)

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

$$\Sigma_2 = \{a,b,c,d,e,f,g,h,i,j,k,l,m,n,o,p,q,r,s,t,u,v,w,x,y,z\}$$

$$\Gamma = \{0,1,x,y,z\}$$

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

$$w_1 = 01001 \quad \text{over } \Sigma_1$$

$$w_2 = \textit{abracadabra} \quad \text{over } \Sigma_2$$

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

ε is an empty string

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

substring, concatenation ($\overbrace{xx \cdots x}^k = x^k$)

Strings and Languages

- A *language* is a set of strings over a given alphabet (Σ_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. $L_1 = \{11, 001\}$ \rightarrow $L_1 \cup L_2 = \{0, 10, 11, 001\}$
 $L_2 = \{0, 10\}$ $L_1 \cap L_2 = \{\}$

concatenation of two languages

$$L_1 L_2 = \{110, 1110, 0010, 00110\}$$

$$L_2 L_1 = \{011, 0001, 1011, 10001\}$$

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

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)

Types of proofs:

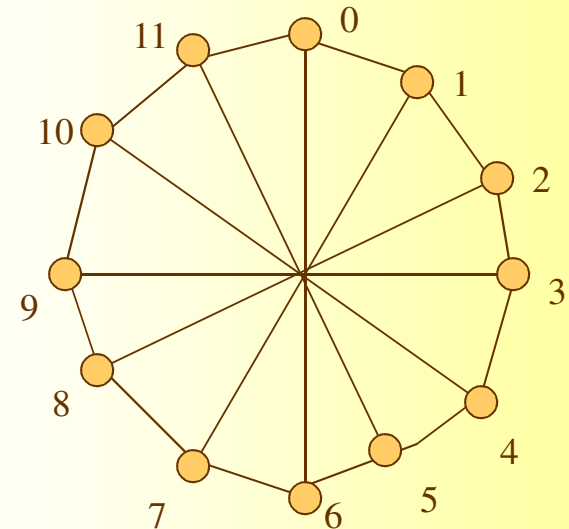
Proof by construction

- 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.

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

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

$$\cup \{\{i,i+n/2\} : \text{for } 0 \leq i \leq n/2-1\}$$



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 $2n-1$ 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 1 node, it has 1 leaf. $1=2-1$, so OK

Induction: Assume $S(U)$ for trees with fewer nodes than 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
 - $= 2(u + v) - 1$
 - $= 2t - 1$, proving inductive step.

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 .

Example: Balanced Parentheses

- Here are two ways that we can define ``balanced parentheses``:

1. *Grammatically*:

- a) The empty string ϵ 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**.

If part of the proof

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

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

- Notice that we do not even have to address the question of whether ϵ is **SB** (it is, however).

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

- *Case 1:* w is not ϵ , 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 ϵ .
 - x and y are both **SB** (why?).
 - By the **IH**, x and y are **GB**.
 - w is **GB** by rule (c).

Only-If part of the proof

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

Basis: If $w = \epsilon$ (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 ϵ .

- *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 ϵ 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 ϵ , 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.

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 title-author 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 title-author pairs being accumulated.

