

# Theory of computation

comprises :

- Automata theory
- Computability theory
- Complexity theory

Q. What are capabilities/limitations of computers ?

Origin of theory of computation:

- A central notion is algorithm

(e.g. Euclid's algor. for computing gcd of integers)

→ Theory of comp. started long time ago.

- A fundamental question is:  
Is there an algor. to solve a given problem?

For example, consider

Hilbert's 10th problem:

Input. A diophantine equation system, e.g.

$$P_1(x_1, \dots, x_n), \dots, P_m(x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{Z}[x_1, \dots, x_n]$$

Output. - yes if  $\exists a_1, \dots, a_n \in \mathbb{Z}$

s.t.  $P_1(a_1, \dots, a_n) = 0,$

$\dots P_m(a_1, \dots, a_n) = 0$

- No, otherwise

Q. Is Hilbert's 10th problem algorithmically solvable?  
(Hilbert, 1900)

1930s : Turing machines, Rec. fctns  
→ Theory of computability

1970 : Matijasevic proved  
Hilbert's 10th problem is  
algorithmically  
unsolvable.

In 1960s :

- Linguistics : N. Chomsky  
intro. phrase-structured grammar
- Programming: BNF to  
describe syntax of ALGOL 60
- Biology: Finite automata  
to describe neural nets.

Automata theory:

How to model various types of computation?

Computability theory:

What is computability? Is a given problem computable?

Complexity theory:

If a problem is solvable, how much resources (time/memory) does it require?

## Chapter 1. Math Background

Review of graphs, relations, strings,  
languages, ind. def., types of proof  
Functions & Relations

The Cartesian product of sets  $A, B$   
is  $A \times B = \{ (a, b) \mid a \in A, b \in B \}$

A function / mapping takes an  
input and produces an output.

Same inputs produce same outputs

Set of inputs of fct.  $f$ : domain

Set of outputs contained in: range

For fct  $f$  with domain  $D$  and  
range  $R$  we write

$$f: D \longrightarrow R$$

For subset  $A \subseteq D$  we write

$$f(A) := \{ f(a) \mid a \in A \}$$

$f: D \rightarrow R$  is said to be

- one-one if  $a \neq a' \Rightarrow f(a) \neq f(a')$   
(distinct inputs produce dist. outputs)
- onto if  $f(D) = R$   
( $\forall b \in R : \exists a \in D : f(a) = b$ )
- a bijection if  $f$  is one-one & onto

Notation:

$\mathbb{N}$  = set of natural numbers

$$(\text{=} \{ 1, 2, 3, \dots \})$$

$\mathbb{Z}$  = set of integers ( $\text{=} \{ \dots -2, -1, 0, 1, \dots \}$ )

$\mathbb{Q}$  = set of rationals

$\mathbb{R}$  = set of reals

For  $k \geq 1$ :

$$\mathbb{Z}_k = \{ 0, 1, 2, \dots, k-1 \}$$

= set of integers modulo  $k$

If  $f: A_1 \times \dots \times A_k \rightarrow R$ , then  
 inputs of  $f$  are  $k$ -tuples  $(a_1, \dots, a_k)$   
 $a_1, \dots, a_k$  are arguments to  $f$

$k=1$  :  $f$  is unary fct

$k=2$  :  $f$  is binary fct

Ex:  $\text{gcd} : \mathbb{Z}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$   
 $\text{sort} : \mathbb{Z}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^k$

If range of  $f$  is  $\{0,1\}$  ( $=\{T,F\}$ )  
 $f$  is called predicate/property

Ex:  $\text{even} : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \{0,1\}$

is property of integers

$\text{even}(0)=1$ ,  $\text{even}(-2)=1$ ,  $\text{even}(4)=1$

$\text{even}(3)=0$ ,  $\text{even}(5)=0$

A property with domain  $A \times \dots \times A =$   
 $A^k$  is called a  $k$ -ary relation on  $A$

It's a subset of  $A^k$ .

$k=1$  : unary rel.       $k=2$  : bin. rel.

1.4

Ex. (1)  $<$  is bin. rel. on  $\mathbb{N}$  ( $\mathbb{Z}$ ...)  
 $< : \mathbb{N}^2 \rightarrow \{0,1\}$   
 $<(1,0) = 0$        $<(1,3) = 1$   
or       $1 \not< 0$        $1 < 3$

(2)  $=$  is bin. rel. on  $\mathbb{N}$  ( $\mathbb{Z}$ ...)

A  $k$ -ary rel.  $R$  on a set  $A$  can also be described as a subset of  $A^k$ .

Ex. (1)  $< = \{(i,j) \mid i < j\}$   
 $= \{(1,2), (1,3), \dots, (2,3), (2,4), \dots\}$   
 $\subseteq \mathbb{N}^2$

(2)  $= = \{(i,i)\} \subseteq \mathbb{N}^2$



## Properties of bin. rel.

Let  $R$  be a bin. rel. on  $A$ . If  
 $(a, b) \in R$  we write  $a R b$ ;  
 otherwise  $a \not R b$

$R$  is said to be

reflexive if  $a R a \quad \forall a \in A$

irreflexive if  $a \not R a \quad \forall a \in A$

symmetric if  $a R b \Rightarrow b R a \quad \forall a, b \in A$

antisymmetric if  $a R b \wedge b R a \Rightarrow a = b$   
 $\forall a, b \in A$

transitive if  $a R b \wedge b R c \Rightarrow a R c$   
 $\forall a, b, c \in A$

Ex. (1)  $\leq$  on  $\mathbb{N}$  is refl., antisym., trans.

(2)  $<$  on  $\mathbb{N}$  is irrefl., antisym., trans.

$R$  is called an equiv. rel. if  $R$  is  
 refl., sym. & trans.

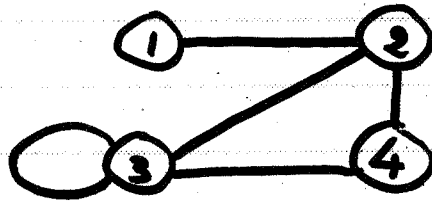
Ex. For  $k \geq 1$ , def.  $\equiv_k$  by  $x \equiv_k y$   
 if  $x - y = \lambda k$  for some  $\lambda \in \mathbb{Z}$ .  
 $\equiv_k$  is an equiv. rel.

## Graphs & Digraphs

A graph is a pair  $G = (V, E)$  where

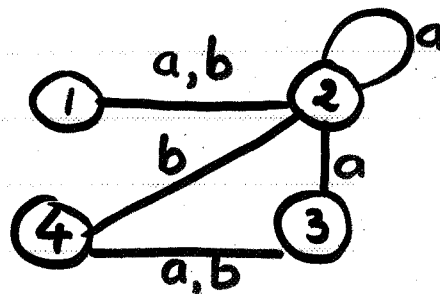
- $V$  is set of vertices
- $E \subseteq V \times V$  is set of edges

Ex.



A labeled graph is a graph whose edges are assigned labels from a finite sets

Ex.



$$\Sigma = \{a, b\}$$

Other notions concerning graphs:

degree of a node

path, simple path, cycle

connected graph

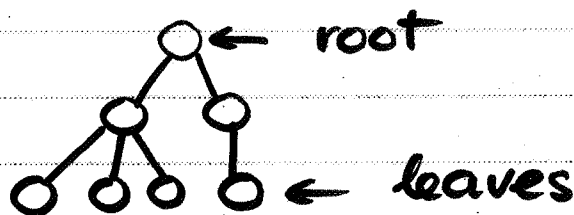
A graph  $T = (V, E)$  is a tree if  $T$  is connected and cycle-free.

Usually  $T$  has a distinguished node called root.

Node with degree 1 which is not a root is called a leaf; otherwise internal node.

(A single node tree has 1 leaf and 0 internal node.)

Ex.



○<sup>root</sup>

If edges of  $G = (V, E)$  are oriented,  $G$  is a directed graph (digraph)

Other notions concerning digraphs:  
 indegree, outdegree of a node  
 directed path, simple path, cycle  
 strongly connected digraph

## Strings & Languages

An alphabet  $\Sigma$  (or  $\Gamma$ ) is a finite set of symbols.

Ex:  $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$  (or  $\{a, b\}$ ): bin. alph.

$\Sigma = \{0, 1, \dots, 9, A, B, \dots, Z\}$

$\Sigma = \{0\}$  (or  $\{1\}$  or  $\{a\}$ ): unary alph.

A string over  $\Sigma$  is a finite sequence of symbols from  $\Sigma$ .

The length of a string  $w$  over  $\Sigma$  is the number of occurrences of symbols

Notation:  $|w|$

For  $a \in \Sigma$ ,  $|w|_a$  denotes the number of occurrences of  $a$  in  $w$ . ( $\#_a(w)$ )

Other notation for  $|w|_a$  is  $\#_a(w)$

Ex:  $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$        $w = 011001$

$|w| = 6$  ,  $|w|_0 = 3 = \#_0(w)$

The empty string is of length 0 and denoted by  $\varepsilon$  or  $\lambda$

The reverse of a string  $w = w_1 w_2 \dots w_k$ ,  $w_1, \dots, w_k \in \Sigma$ , is  $w^R = w_k w_{k-1} \dots w_1$

The concatenation of two strings

$x = x_1 \dots x_m$  and  $y = y_1 \dots y_n$  is

$$xy = x \cdot y = x_1 \dots x_m y_1 \dots y_n$$

Thus:  $|xy| = |x| + |y|$

$$\#_a(xy) = \#_a(x) + \#_a(y)$$

If  $\left\{ \begin{matrix} w = xyz \\ w = yz \\ w = xy \end{matrix} \right\}$ , then  $y$  is  $\left\{ \begin{matrix} \text{substring} \\ \text{prefix} \\ \text{suffix} \end{matrix} \right\}$  of  $w$

The lexicographic ordering of strings:

- shorter strings precede longer ones
- strings of same length are ordered according to dictionary ordering (assuming a total order of  $\Sigma$ )

A language over  $\Sigma$  is simply a set of strings over  $\Sigma$ .

If  $w = w^R$ ,  $w$  is a palindrome.

## Recursive Definitions

Ex: (set of well-formed parentheses strings  $D$  over  $\Sigma = \{ (, ) \}$  )

- (1) Basis.  $\epsilon$  is in  $D$
- (2) Recursive step. If  $x, y$  are strings in  $D$ , then so are  $(x)$  and  $xy$ .
- (3) Nothing else is in  $D$  unless it is obtained from (1) by finitely many applications of (2).

Ex: (set of palindromes over  $\Sigma$ )

- (1) Basis.  $\epsilon$  and  $a$  are palindromes  $\forall a \in \Sigma$
- (2) Recursive step. If  $w$  is a palindrome, then so are  $awa$ ,  $\forall a \in \Sigma$
- (3) As before ...

Remark. If  $a, a \in \Sigma$ , is not included in the basis, then odd-length palindromes are not included in the definition.

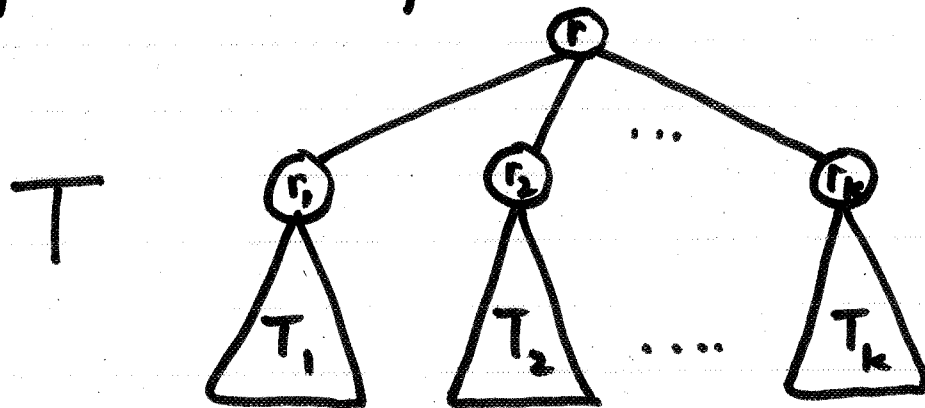
Ex. (Ordered trees)

(1) Basis. Every single node  $n$  is an ordered tree with  $n$  being root

(2) Recursive step. Let  $T_1, \dots, T_k$  be ordered tree with roots  $r_1, \dots, r_k$ , and  $r$  be a new node. Then a new ordered tree  $T$  is obtained by

- adding edges  $(r, r_1), \dots, (r, r_k)$
- making  $r$  root of  $T$

(3) Nothing else is a tree unless it's obtained from (1) by finitely many applications of (2).



# Inductive Proofs

Ex: Claim.  $\forall w \in D: \#_c(w) = \#_s(w)$

Proof. (1) Basis.  $\#_c(\varepsilon) = 0 = \#_s(\varepsilon)$

(2) Ind. step.

Ind. Hypothesis: Assume that

$x, y \in D$  satisfy

$\#_c(x) = \#_s(x)$  and  $\#_c(y) = \#_s(y)$ .

Consider  $w = (x)$  or  $w = xy$ .

Case 1.  $w = (x)$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \#_c(w) &= \#_c(\underbrace{(x)}_w) \\ &= \#_c(x) + 1 \\ &= \#_s(x) + 1 \quad (\text{ind. hyp.}) \\ &= \#_s((x)) \\ &= \#_s(w) \end{aligned}$$

Case 2.  $w = xy$

$$\begin{aligned} \#_c(w) &= \#_c(xy) = \#_c(x) + \#_c(y) \\ &= \#_s(x) + \#_s(y) \quad (\text{ind. hyp.}) \\ &= \#_s(xy) \\ &= \#_s(w) \quad \square \end{aligned}$$



(accord. to rec. def)

Ex: Claim. For any palindrome  $w$ :  $w = w^R$

Proof. (1) Basis.  $w = \epsilon$ :  $\epsilon = \epsilon^R$   
 $w = a \in \Sigma$ :  $a = a^R$

(2) Ind. Step

Ind. hyp: Assume that a given palindrome  $x$  sat.  $x = x^R$

Consider  $w = axa$ ,  $a \in \Sigma$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Clearly, } w^R &= (axa)^R \\
 &= ax^R a \\
 &= axa \quad (\text{ind. hyp}) \\
 &= w \quad \square
 \end{aligned}$$

Ex: A bin. tree is strictly binary if every internal node has exactly two children

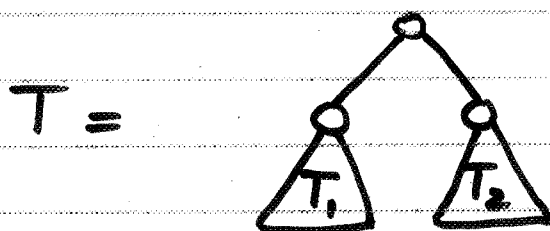
Claim. For all  $n \geq 1$ , every strictly bin. tree with  $n$  leaves has  $n-1$  internal nodes.

Proof. (1) Basis.  $n=1$ .  $T$  is a single-node tree with 1 leaf and 0 internal node

(2) Ind. step.

Ind. hyp: Assume for some  $n \geq 1$  that claim holds true for all strictly bin. trees with  $k$  leaves where  $1 \leq k \leq n$ .

Consider a strictly bin. tree  $T$  with  $n+1$  leaves. Then  $T$  has the form



That is  $T$  has 2 strictly bin. subtrees  $T_1, T_2$  with  $n_1$  and  $n_2$  leaves, where  $n_1 + n_2 = n+1$

By ind. hyp :

# of intern. nodes in  $T_1 = n_1 - 1$

# of intern. nodes in  $T_2 = n_2 - 1$

Hence, # of intern. nodes in  $T =$   
 # of intern. nodes in  $T_1 +$   
 # of intern. nodes in  $T_2 + 1$   
 $= (n_1 - 1) + (n_2 - 1) + 1$  → root ←  
 $= n_1 + n_2 - 1 = (n+1) - 1 = n$  ▣

Ex: (Correctness of a formula to calculate the amount of monthly payments of mortgages)

$P :=$  principal = loan amount

$I :=$  yearly interest rate

$Y :=$  monthly payment

Q.  $Y = ?$  s.t. mortgage is paid off in 30 years given  $P$  and  $I$ ?

For convenience, def.

monthly multiplier  $M = 1 + \frac{I}{12}$

Let  $P_t :=$  loan amount after  $t$  months

Then:  $P_0 = P$

$$P_1 = P_0 \left(1 + \frac{I}{12}\right) - Y = P_0 M - Y$$

$$P_2 = P_1 M - Y = (P_0 M - Y) M - Y = P_0 M^2 - Y(1 + M)$$

$$P_3 = P_0 M^3 - Y(1 + M + M^2)$$

$$P_t = P_0 M^t - Y(1 + M + M^2 + \dots + M^{t-1})$$

Claim.  $P_t = PM^t - Y \frac{M^t - 1}{M - 1}$

Claim can also be proved by ind.

Pf. (Claim) (1) Basis.  $t=0$ :  $P_0 = P$

(2) Ind. step.

Ind. Hyp. Suppose that claim holds true for  $t = k$

$k \rightarrow k+1$ :

$$\begin{aligned}
 P_{k+1} &= P_k M - Y \\
 &= \left[ P M^k - Y \frac{M^k - 1}{M - 1} \right] M - Y \quad (\text{ind hyp}) \\
 &= P M^{k+1} - Y \frac{M^k - 1}{M - 1} M - Y \\
 &= P M^{k+1} - Y \left( \frac{M^k - 1}{M - 1} M + 1 \right) \\
 &= P M^{k+1} - Y \left( \frac{M^{k+1} - M}{M - 1} + \frac{M - 1}{M - 1} \right) \\
 &= P M^{k+1} - Y \frac{M^{k+1} - 1}{M - 1} \quad \square
 \end{aligned}$$

If  $t = 360$  ( $= 30 \text{ years} \times 12$ ), then

$P_{360} = 0$  implies

$$P M^{360} - Y \left( \frac{M^{360} - 1}{M - 1} \right) = 0$$

or

$$\begin{aligned}
 Y &= P M^{360} \cdot \frac{M - 1}{M^{360} - 1} \\
 &= \frac{I}{12} \cdot P \cdot \frac{M^{360} - 1}{M^{360} - 1} \quad \square
 \end{aligned}$$

## Other types of proofs

### Proof by Contradiction

Ex: Claim:  $\sqrt{2}$  is irrational

Pf. We'll make use of the following

Fact.  $k$  is even  $\iff k^2$  is even

Now suppose by way of contradiction that  $\sqrt{2}$  were rational. Then

$$\sqrt{2} = \frac{m}{n}$$

where  $\gcd(m, n) = 1$ , i.e.,  $m, n$  are relatively prime.

Squaring both sides gives:

$$2n^2 = m^2$$

Clearly,  $m^2$  is even. From above fact, it follows that  $m$  is even.

Hence,  $m = 2l$  for some  $l$ .

Therefore,  $m^2 = 4l^2 = 2n^2$

Thus,  $n^2 = 2l^2$ .

So,  $n^2$  is even. Again by above fact,  $n$  is even. Since  $m, n$  are both even, they cannot be rel. prime  $\leadsto$  Contrad.  $\square$

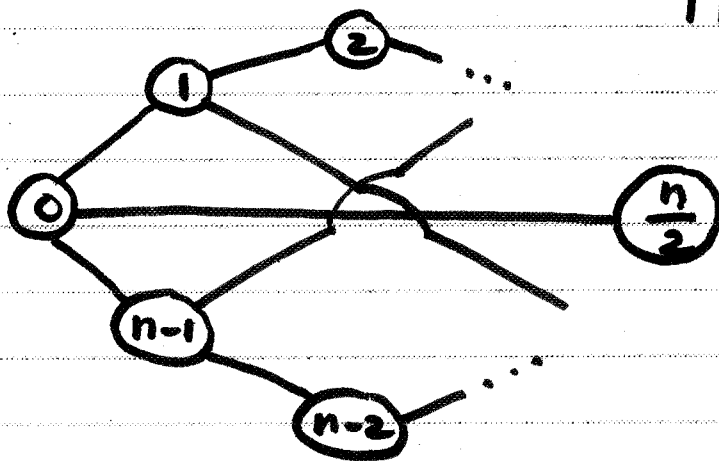
## Proof by Construction

Most proofs in CS are constructive. We devise algorithms to construct objects we're looking for. (Mathematicians are interested in proving the existence of such objects.)

Ex: A  $k$ -regular graph is a graph in which every node has degree  $k$ .

Claim.  $\forall$  even  $n \geq 4$  :  $\exists$  3-regular graphs with  $n$  nodes.

Proof. Place the  $n$  nodes  $0, 1, \dots, n-1$  on a circle and connect opposite nodes:



$$V = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1\}$$

$$E = \{(0, 1), (1, 2), \dots, (n-1, 0)\} \cup \{(0, \frac{n}{2}), (1, \frac{n}{2} + 1), \dots, (\frac{n}{2} - 1, n-1)\}$$

□

## Some Definitions

Let  $\Sigma$  be an alphabet. Then

$\Sigma^*$  = set of all strings over  $\Sigma$

e.g.  $\{a, b\}^* = \{\epsilon, a, b, aa, ab, ba, bb, \dots\}$

For  $L_i \subseteq \Sigma^*$ ,  $i=1, 2$ , the concatenation of  $L_1$  with  $L_2$  is

$$L_1 L_2 = L_1 \cdot L_2 = \{uv \mid u \in L_1, v \in L_2\}$$

For  $x \in \Sigma^*$  and  $n \geq 0$ :

$$x^n := \begin{cases} \epsilon & \text{if } n=0 \\ x^{n-1}x & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

For  $L \subseteq \Sigma^*$  and  $n \geq 0$ :

$$L^n := \begin{cases} \{\epsilon\} & \text{if } n=0 \\ L^{n-1}L & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Ex.  $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$

$$(1) L_1 = \{a, ab\} \quad L_2 = \{\epsilon, b\}$$

$$L_1 L_2 = \{a, ab, a\cancel{b}, abb\}$$

$$\text{So, } \text{Card}(L_1 L_2) = 3 \neq \text{Card}(L_1) \times \text{Card}(L_2)$$

$$(2) \quad L_1 = \{a^n \mid n \geq 0\}, \quad L_2 = \{b^n \mid n \geq 0\}$$

$$L_1 L_2 = \{a^m b^n \mid m, n \geq 0\}$$

$$L_1 L_1 = \{a^n \mid n \geq 0\} = L_1$$

$$(3) \quad L_1 = \{a^n \mid n \geq 1\}$$

$$L_1 L_1 = \{a^n \mid n \geq 2\} \neq L_1$$

Def. For  $L \subseteq \Sigma^*$ :

The Kleene closure of  $L$  is

$$L^* = L^0 \cup L^1 \cup L^2 \cup \dots$$

$$= \bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} L^n$$

The positive closure of  $L$  is

$$L^+ = L^1 \cup L^2 \cup L^3 \cup \dots$$

$$= \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} L^n$$

Ex. (1)  $L_1 = \{a^n \mid n \geq 0\}$

$$L_1^2 = L_1. \text{ By ind. } L_1^n = L_1, \quad \forall n \geq 1$$

$$\text{Hence, } L_1^* = L_1 = L_1^+$$

(2)  $L_2 = \{a^n \mid n \geq 1\}$

$$L_2^* = \{\epsilon\} \cup L_2 \cup L_2^2 \cup \dots = L_1$$

$$L_2^+ = L_2 \cup L_2^2 \cup \dots = L_2 \neq L_1$$