

# **Theory of Computing**

#### Introduction and Preliminaries (Based on [Sipser 2006, 2013])

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Introduction and Preliminaries

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### What It Is



#### 😚 The central question:

What are the fundamental capabilities and limitations of computers?

#### 😚 Three main areas:

- Automata Theory
- 🌻 Computability Theory
- 🌻 Complexity Theory

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## **Complexity Theory**



- Some problems are easy and some hard.
   For example, sorting is easy and scheduling is hard.
- The central question of complexity theory: What makes some problems computationally hard and others easy?
- We don't have the answer to it.
- However, researchers have found a scheme for classifying problems according to their computational difficulty.
- One practical application: cryptography/security.

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# Dealing with Computationally Hard Problems



Options for dealing with a computationally hard problem:

- Try to simplify it (the hard part of the problem might be unnecessary).
- Settle for an approximate solution.
- Find a solution that usually runs fast.
- Consider alternative types of computation (such as randomized computation).

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# **Computability Theory**



- Alan Turing, among other mathematicians, discovered in the 1930s that certain basic problems cannot be solved by computers.
- One example is the problem of determining whether a mathematical statement is true or false.
- Theoretical models of computers developed at that time eventually lead to the construction of actual computers.
- The theories of computability and complexity are closely related.
- Complexity theory seeks to classify problems as easy ones and hard ones, while in computability theory the classification is by whether the problem is solvable or not.

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## **Automata Theory**



- The theories of computability and complexity require a precise, formal definition of a *computer*.
- Automata theory deals with the definitions and properties of mathematical models of computation.
- 😚 Two basic and practically useful models:
  - *Finite-state*, or simply *finite*, *automaton*
  - Context-free grammar (pushdown automaton)

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# A Few Things You May Find Useful



- Regular expressions, in their original simplest form, for describing patterns of strings/words.
- Context-free grammars for describing the syntax of a (programming) language.
- The so-called Turing machines, as the most commonly used model for a computer.
- Exemplar undecidable problems, which cannot be (perfectly) solved by computers.
- A proof of SAT being NP-hard, where every NP problem is shown to be polynomially reducible to SAT.

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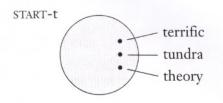
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- Set, element (member), subset, proper subset
- 😚 Multiset
- Description of a set
- Solution For the empty set (∅)
- 😚 Finite set, infinite set
- 📀 Union, intersection, complement
- 😚 Power set
- 😚 Venn diagram





#### **FIGURE 0.1** Venn diagram for the set of English words starting with "t"

Source: [Sipser 2006]

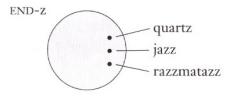
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#### **FIGURE 0.2** Venn diagram for the set of English words ending with "z"

Source: [Sipser 2006]

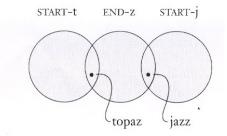
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**FIGURE 0.3** Overlapping circles indicate common elements

Source: [Sipser 2006]

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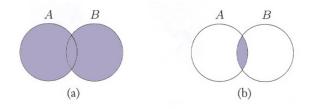
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# **FIGURE 0.4** Diagrams for (a) $A \cup B$ and (b) $A \cap B$

Source: [Sipser 2006]

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## **Sequences and Tuples**



- A sequence of objects is a list of these objects in some order. Order is essential and repetition is also allowed.
- Finite sequences are often called *tuples*. A sequence with k elements is a k-tuple; a 2-tuple is also called a *pair*.
- The *Cartesian product*, or cross product, of A and B, written as  $A \times B$ , is the set of all pairs (x, y) such that  $x \in A$  and  $y \in B$ .
- Cartesian products generalize to k sets,  $A_1$ ,  $A_2$ , ...,  $A_k$ , written as  $A_1 \times A_2 \times \ldots \times A_k$ . Every element in the product is a k-tuple.
- $A^k$  is a shorthand for  $A \times A \times \ldots \times A$  (k times).

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### **Functions**



- A function sets up an input-output relationship, where the same input always produces the same output.
- If f is a function whose output is b when the input is a, we write f(a) = b.
- A function is also called a mapping; if f(a) = b, we say that f maps a to b.

# Functions (cont.)



- The set of possible inputs to a function is called its *domain*; the outputs come from a set called its *range*.
- A function is onto if it uses all the elements of the range (it is one-to-one if ...).
- If the notation f : D → R says that f is a function with domain D and range R.
- More notions and terms: k-ary function, unary function, binary function, infix notation, prefix notation

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#### Relations



- A predicate, or property, is a function whose range is {TRUE,FALSE}.
- A predicate whose domain is A<sub>1</sub> × A<sub>2</sub> × ... × A<sub>k</sub> is called a k-ary relation on A<sub>1</sub>, A<sub>2</sub>, ..., A<sub>k</sub>. When the A<sub>i</sub>'s are the same set A, it is simply called a k-ary relation on A.
- A 1-ary relation is usually called a *unary relation* and a 2-ary relation is called a *binary relation*.

## **Equivalence Relations**



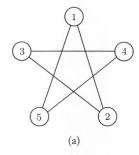
- An equivalence relation is a special type of binary relation that captures the notion of two objects being equal in some sense.
- A binary relation R on A is an equivalence relation if
  - 1. *R* is *reflexive* (for every *x* in *A*, *xRx*),
  - 2. *R* is *symmetric* (for every *x* and *y* in *A*, *xRy* if and only if *yRx*), and
  - 3. *R* is *transitive* (for every *x*, *y*, and *z* in *A*, *xRy* and *yRz* implies *xRz*).

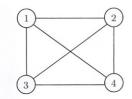
## Graphs



- 📀 Undirected graph, node (vertex), edge (link), degree
- Solution of a graph: G = (V, E)
- 😚 Labeled graph
- 📀 Subgraph, induced subgraph
- 😚 Path, simple path, cycle, simple cycle
- 😚 Connected graph
- 📀 Tree, root, leaf
- 😚 Directed graph, outdegree, indegree
- 📀 Strongly connected graph







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# FIGURE **0.12** Examples of graphs

Source: [Sipser 2006]

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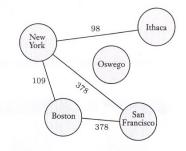


FIGURE **0.13** Cheapest nonstop air fares between various cities

Source: [Sipser 2006]

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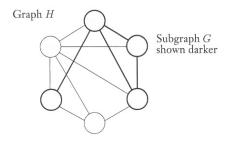
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**FIGURE 0.14** Graph *G* (shown darker) is a subgraph of *H* 

Source: [Sipser 2006]

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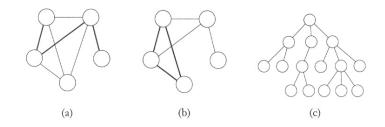
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#### FIGURE 0.15

(a) A path in a graph, (b) a cycle in a graph, and (c) a tree

Source: [Sipser 2006]

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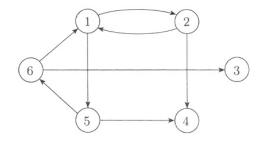


FIGURE **0.16** A directed graph

Source: [Sipser 2006]

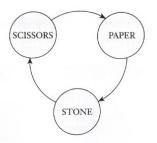
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**FIGURE 0.18** The graph of the relation *beats* 

Source: [Sipser 2006]

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## **Strings and Languages**



- An alphabet is any finite set of symbols.
- A string over an alphabet is a finite sequence of symbols from that alphabet.
- The *length* of a string w, written as |w|, is the number of symbols that w contains.
- $\clubsuit$  The string of length 0 is called the *empty string*, written as  $\varepsilon$ .
- The concatenation of x and y, written as xy, is the string obtained from appending y to the end of x.
- A *language* is a set of strings.
- More notions and terms: reverse, substring, lexicographic ordering.

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## **Boolean Logic**



- Boolean logic is a mathematical system built around the two Boolean values TRUE (1) and FALSE (0).
- Boolean values can be manipulated with Boolean operations: negation or NOT (¬), conjunction or AND (∧), disjunction or OR (∨).

$0 \wedge 0 \triangleq 0$	$0 \lor 0 \stackrel{\Delta}{=} 0$	$ eg 0 \stackrel{\Delta}{=} 1$
$0 \wedge 1 \stackrel{\Delta}{=} 0$	$0 \lor 1 \stackrel{\Delta}{=} 1$	$ eg 1 \stackrel{\Delta}{=} 0$
$1 \wedge 0  riangleq 0$	$1 \lor 0 \stackrel{\Delta}{=} 1$	
$1 \wedge 1 \stackrel{\Delta}{=} 1$	$1 \lor 1 \stackrel{\Delta}{=} 1$	

Unknown Boolean values are represented symbolically by Boolean variables or propositions, e.g., P, Q, etc.

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# Boolean Logic (cont.)



Additional Boolean operations: exclusive or or XOR  $(\oplus)$ , equality/equivalence ( $\leftrightarrow$  or  $\equiv$ ), implication ( $\rightarrow$ ).

$0 \oplus 0 \stackrel{\Delta}{=} 0$	$0 \leftrightarrow 0 \stackrel{\Delta}{=} 1$	$0  ightarrow 0 \stackrel{\Delta}{=} 1$
$0\oplus 1 \stackrel{\Delta}{=} 1$	$0\leftrightarrow 1\stackrel{\Delta}{=} 0$	$0  ightarrow 1 \stackrel{\Delta}{=} 1$
$1\oplus 0 \stackrel{\Delta}{=} 1$	$1\leftrightarrow 0 \stackrel{\Delta}{=} 0$	$1  ightarrow 0 \stackrel{\Delta}{=} 0$
$1\oplus 1 \stackrel{\Delta}{=} 0$	$1\leftrightarrow 1 \stackrel{\Delta}{=} 1$	$1  ightarrow 1 \stackrel{\Delta}{=} 1$

All in terms of conjunction and negation:

$$P \lor Q \equiv \neg(\neg P \land \neg Q) P \to Q \equiv \neg P \lor Q P \leftrightarrow Q \equiv (P \to Q) \land (Q \to P) P \oplus Q \equiv \neg(P \leftrightarrow Q)$$

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## Logical Equivalences and Laws



- Two logical expressions/formulae are equivalent if each of them implies the other, i.e., they have the same truth value.
- Fquivalence plays a role analogous to equality in algebra.
- Some laws of Boolean logic:

  - (Distributive)  $P \lor (Q \land R) \equiv (P \lor Q) \land (P \lor R)$
  - ${\overset{ heta}{
    ightarrow}}$  (De Morgan's)  $eg(P ee Q) \equiv 
    eg P \land 
    eg Q$
  - (De Morgan's)  $\neg (P \land Q) \equiv \neg P \lor \neg Q$

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## **Definitions, Theorems, and Proofs**



- Definitions describe the objects and notions that we use.
   Precision is essential to any definition.
- After we have defined various objects and notions, we usually make *mathematical statements* about them. Again, the statements must be precise.
- A proof is a convincing logical argument that a statement is true. The only way to determine the truth or falsity of a mathematical statement is with a mathematical proof.
- A theorem is a mathematical statement proven true. Lemmas are proven statements for assisting the proof of another more significant statement.
- Corollaries are statements seen to follow easily from other proven ones.

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## **Finding Proofs**



- Find proofs isn't always easy; no one has a recipe for it.
- Below are some helpful general strategies:
  - 1. Carefully read the statement you want to prove.
  - 2. Rewrite the statement in your own words.
  - 3. Break it down and consider each part separately. For example,  $P \iff Q$  consists of two parts:  $P \rightarrow Q$  (the forward direction) and  $Q \rightarrow P$  (the reverse direction).
  - 4. Try to get an intuitive feeling of why it should be true.

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## **Tips for Producing a Proof**



- A well-written proof is a sequence of statements, wherein each one follows by simple reasoning from previous statements in the sequence.
- Tips for producing a proof:
  - Be patient. Finding proofs takes time.
  - Come back to it. Look over the statement, think about it, leave it, and then return some time later.
  - Be neat. Use simple, clear text and/or pictures; make it easy for others to understand.
  - Be concise. Emphasize high-level ideas, but be sure to include enough details of reasoning.

## An Example Proof



#### Theorem

For any two sets A and B,  $\overline{A \cup B} = \overline{A} \cap \overline{B}$ .

Proof. We show that every element of  $\overline{A \cup B}$  is also an element of  $\overline{A \cap B}$  and vice versa.

Forward 
$$(x \in \overline{A \cup B} \to x \in \overline{A} \cap \overline{B})$$
:  
 $x \in \overline{A \cup B}$   
 $\to x \notin A \cup B$ , def. of complement  
 $\to x \notin A$  and  $x \notin B$ , def. of union  
 $\to x \in \overline{A}$  and  $x \in \overline{B}$ , def. of complement  
 $\to x \in \overline{A} \cap \overline{B}$ , def. of intersection

Reverse  $(x \in \overline{A} \cap \overline{B} \to x \in \overline{A \cup B})$ : ...

## **Another Example Proof**



#### Theorem

In any graph G, the sum of the degrees of the nodes of G is an even number.

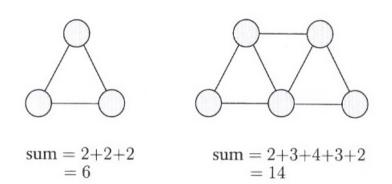
Proof.

- Every edge in *G* connects two nodes, contributing 1 to the degree of each.
- Therefore, each edge contributes 2 to the sum of the degrees of all the nodes.
- If G has e edges, then the sum of the degrees of the nodes of G is 2e, which is even.

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### Another Example Proof (cont.)





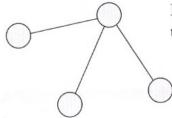
Source: [Sipser 2006]

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## Another Example Proof (cont.)





Every time an edge is added, the sum increases by 2.

Source: [Sipser 2006]

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## **Types of Proof**



#### 😚 Proof by construction:

prove that a particular type of object exists, by showing how to construct the object.

#### Proof by contradiction:

prove a statement by first assuming that the statement is false and then showing that the assumption leads to an obviously false consequence, called a contradiction.

#### 😚 Proof by induction:

prove that all elements of an infinite set have a specified property, by exploiting the inductive structure of the set.

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## **Proof by Construction**



#### 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) with n (= 2k > 2) nodes as follows.

Let V be  $\{0, 1, \dots, n-1\}$  and E be defined as

$$E = \{\{i, i+1\} \mid \text{for } 0 \le i \le n-2\} \cup \\ \{\{n-1, 0\}\} \cup \\ \{\{i, i+n/2\} \mid \text{for } 0 \le i \le n/2 - 1\}.$$

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# **Proof by Contradiction**



#### Theorem

 $\sqrt{2}$  is irrational.

Proof. Assume toward a contradiction that  $\sqrt{2}$  is rational, i.e.,  $\sqrt{2} = \frac{m}{n}$  for some integers *m* and *n*, which *cannot both be even*.

 $\begin{array}{ll} \sqrt{2} = \frac{m}{n} & , \mbox{ from the assumption} \\ n\sqrt{2} = m & , \mbox{ multipl. both sides by } n \\ 2n^2 = m^2 & , \mbox{ square both sides} \\ m \mbox{ is even} & , \mbox{ } m^2 \mbox{ is even} \\ 2n^2 = (2k)^2 = 4k^2 & , \mbox{ from the above two} \\ n^2 = 2k^2 & , \mbox{ divide both sides by } 2 \\ n \mbox{ is even} & , \mbox{ } n^2 \mbox{ is even} \end{array}$ 

Now both m and n are even, a contradiction.

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## **Example: Home Mortgages**



*P*: the *principle* (amount of the original loan).

- *I*: the yearly *interest rate*.
- Y: the monthly payment.
- *M*: the *monthly* multiplier = 1 + I/12.
- $P_t$ : the amount of loan outstanding after the *t*-th month;  $P_0 = P$  and  $P_{k+1} = P_k M Y$ .

#### Theorem

For each  $t \geq 0$ ,

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

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## **Proof by Induction**



#### Theorem

For each  $t \geq 0$ ,

$${\sf P}_t={\sf P}{\sf M}^t-{\sf Y}(rac{{\sf M}^t-1}{{\sf M}-1}).$$

Proof. The proof is by induction on t.

• Basis: When 
$$t = 0$$
,  $PM^0 - Y(\frac{M^0 - 1}{M - 1}) = P = P_0$ .

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## Proof by Induction (cont.)



• Induction step: When t = k + 1  $(k \ge 0)$ ,

$$P_{k+1}$$

$$= \{ \text{definition of } P_t \}$$

$$P_k M - Y$$

$$= \{ \text{the induction hypothesis} \}$$

$$(PM^k - Y(\frac{M^k - 1}{M - 1}))M - Y$$

$$= \{ \text{distribute } M \text{ and rewrite } Y \}$$

$$PM^{k+1} - Y(\frac{M^{k+1} - M}{M - 1}) - Y(\frac{M - 1}{M - 1})$$

$$= \{ \text{combine the last two terms} \}$$

$$PM^{k+1} - Y(\frac{M^{k+1} - 1}{M - 1})$$

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