

Theory of Computing

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

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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

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.

Dealing with Hard Problems



Options for dealing with a 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.

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.

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)

Sets



- 😚 Set, element (member), subset, proper subset
- Multiset
- Description of a set
- \bigcirc The empty set (\emptyset)
- 📀 Finite set, infinite set
- 🚱 Union, intersection, complement
- Power set
- 🚱 Venn diagram



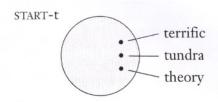


FIGURE 0.1

Venn diagram for the set of English words starting with "t"



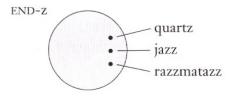


FIGURE 0.2

Venn diagram for the set of English words ending with "z"



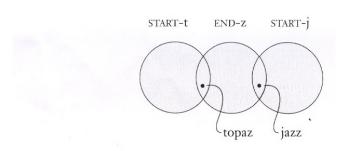
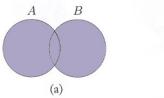


FIGURE **0.3**Overlapping circles indicate common elements





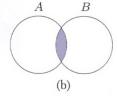


FIGURE **0.4** Diagrams for (a) $A \cup B$ and (b) $A \cap B$

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, \ldots, A_k , written as $A_1 \times A_2 \times \ldots \times A_k$. A^k is a shorthand for $A \times A \times \ldots \times A$ (k times).

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 . . .).
- The notation $f: D \longrightarrow R$ 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

Relations



- A predicate, or property, is a function whose range is {TRUE,FALSE}.
- A predicate whose domain is a set of k-tuples $A \times ... \times A$ is called a (k-ary) *relation* on A.
- A 2-ary relation is also called a binary relation.

Equivalence Relations



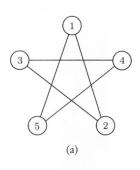
- An *equivalence relation* is a special type of binary relation that captures the notion of two objects being *equal* in some sense.
- lacktriangle A binary relation R on A is an equivalence relation if
 - 1. R is *reflexive* (for every x in A, xRx),
 - 2. R is symmetric (for every x and y in A, xRy 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
- ightharpoonup Description 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





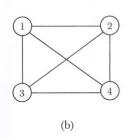


FIGURE **0.12** Examples of graphs



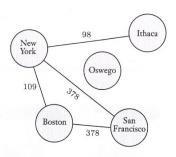


FIGURE **0.13** Cheapest nonstop air fares between various cities



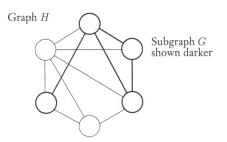


FIGURE **0.14** Graph G (shown darker) is a subgraph of H



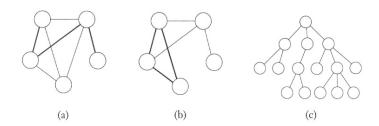
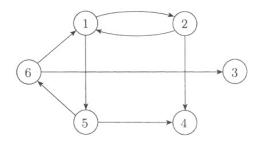


FIGURE 0.15

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





A directed graph



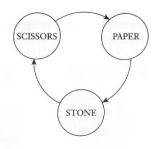


FIGURE **0.18**The graph of the relation *beats*

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.
- lacktriangle The string of length 0 is called the *empty string*, written as arepsilon.
- 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.

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 (∨).

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

Boolean Logic (cont.)



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

All in terms of conjunction and negation:

$$P \lor Q \equiv \neg(\neg P \land \neg Q)$$

$$P \to Q \equiv \neg P \lor Q$$

$$P \leftrightarrow Q \equiv (P \to Q) \land (Q \to P)$$

$$P \oplus Q \equiv \neg(P \leftrightarrow Q)$$

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.
- 📀 Equivalence plays a role analogous to equality in algebra.
- 😚 Some laws of Boolean logic:
 - \red (Distributive) $P \land (Q \lor R) \equiv (P \land Q) \lor (P \land R)$
 - $(Distributive) P \lor (Q \land R) \equiv (P \lor Q) \land (P \lor R)$
 - \red (De Morgan's) $\neg (P \lor Q) \equiv \neg P \land \neg Q$
 - $ilde{*}$ (De Morgan's) $\lnot (P \land Q) \equiv \lnot P \lor \lnot Q$

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.

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: $P \to Q$ (the forward direction) and $Q \to P$ (the reverse direction).
 - 4. Try to get an intuitive feeling of why it should be true.

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 $\overline{A} \cap \overline{B}$ and vice versa.

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

$$x \in \overline{A \cup B}$$

$$\rightarrow x \notin A \cup B$$
 , def. of complement

$$\rightarrow x \notin A$$
 and $x \notin B$, def. of union

$$ightarrow x \in \overline{A} \text{ and } x \in \overline{B} \quad \text{, def. of complement}$$

$$\rightarrow x \in \overline{A} \cap \overline{B}$$
 , def. of intersection

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

Another Example Proof



Theorem

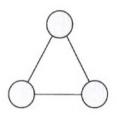
In any graph G, the sum of the degrees of the nodes of G is an even number.

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.

Another Example Proof (cont.)



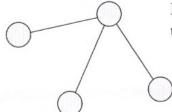


$$sum = 2+2+2 = 6$$

$$sum = 2+3+4+3+2 \\
= 14$$

Another Example Proof (cont.)





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

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.

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 $n (= 2k \ge 2)$ nodes as follows.

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

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

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.

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

. n^2 is even

Now both m and n are even, a contradiction.

n is even

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 $t \geq 0$,

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

Proof by Induction



Theorem

For each $t \geq 0$,

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

Proof. The proof is by induction on t.

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

Proof by Induction (cont.)



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

$$P_{k+1}$$
= {definition of P_t }
$$P_k M - Y$$
= {the induction hypothesis}
$$(PM^k - Y(\frac{M^k - 1}{M - 1}))M - Y$$
= {distribute M and rewrite Y }
$$PM^{k+1} - Y(\frac{M^{k+1} - M}{M - 1}) - Y(\frac{M - 1}{M - 1})$$
= {combine the last two terms}
$$PM^{k+1} - Y(\frac{M^{k+1} - 1}{M - 1})$$