

# **Theory of Computing**

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

Yih-Kuen Tsay

Department of Information Management National Taiwan University

#### 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**



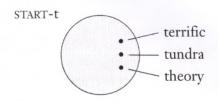
- The theories of computability and complexity require a precise, formal definition of a *computer*.
- Automata theory deals with the definitions and properties of mathematical models of computation.
- Two basic and practically useful models:
  - 🌞 Finite-state, or simply finite, automaton
  - Context-free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

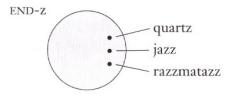




#### FIGURE 0.1

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"



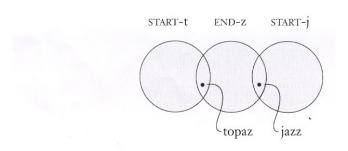


FIGURE **0.3**Overlapping circles indicate common elements



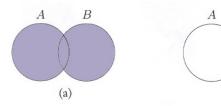


FIGURE **0.4** Diagrams for (a)  $A \cup B$  and (b)  $A \cap B$ 

Source: [Sipser 2006]

B

(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 . . . ).
- $\bigcirc$  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**



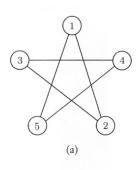
- An equivalence relation is a special type of binary relation that captures the notion of two objects being equal in some sense.
- lacksquare A binary relation R on A is an equivalence relation if
  - 1. R is *reflexive* (for every x in A, xRx),
  - 2. R is symmetric (for every x and y in A, xRy if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





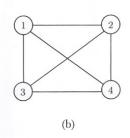


FIGURE **0.12** Examples of graphs



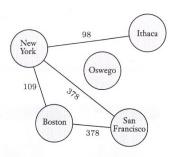


FIGURE **0.13**Cheapest nonstop air fares between various cities



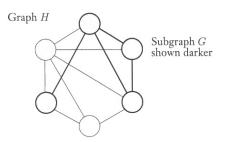


FIGURE **0.14** Graph G (shown darker) is a subgraph of H



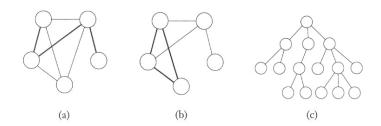
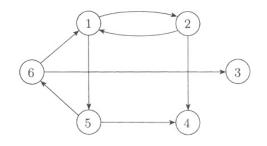


FIGURE 0.15

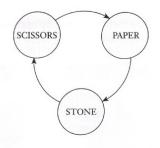
(a) A path in a graph, (b) a cycle in a graph, and (c) a tree





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.
- $\bigcirc$  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 (⊕), equality/equivalence ( $\leftrightarrow$  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)  $P \land (Q \lor R) \equiv (P \land Q) \lor (P \land R)$
  - $\red$  (Distributive)  $P \lor (Q \land R) \equiv (P \lor Q) \land (P \lor R)$
  - $(De\ Morgan's)\ \neg(P\lor Q)\equiv \neg P\land \neg Q$
  - $ilde{*}$  (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 
$$(x \in \overline{A \cup B} \to x \in \overline{A} \cap \overline{B})$$
:

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

$$\rightarrow x \not\in A \cup B$$
 , 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

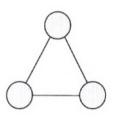
In any graph G, the sum of the degrees of the nodes of G is an even number.

#### Proof.

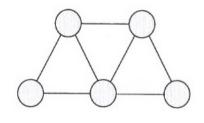
- Every edge in G connects two nodes, contributing 1 to the degree of each.
- Therefore, each edge contributes 2 to the sum of the degrees of all the nodes.
- If G has e edges, then the sum of the degrees of the nodes of G is 2e, which is even.

# **Another Example Proof (cont.)**





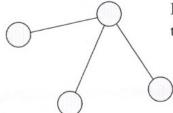
$$sum = 2+2+2 = 6$$



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

# **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  $\{0, 1, \dots, n-1\}$  and E be defined as

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

### **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.

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

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

*m* is even

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

, from the assumption , multipl. both sides by n

, square both sides

,  $m^2$  is even

$$2n^2 = (2k)^2 = 4k^2$$

$$2n^2 = (2k)^2 = 4k$$
  
 $n^2 = 2k^2$ 

, divide both sides by 2

. from the above two

, 
$$n^2$$
 is even

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  $t \geq 0$ ,

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

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