Theoretical Computer Science

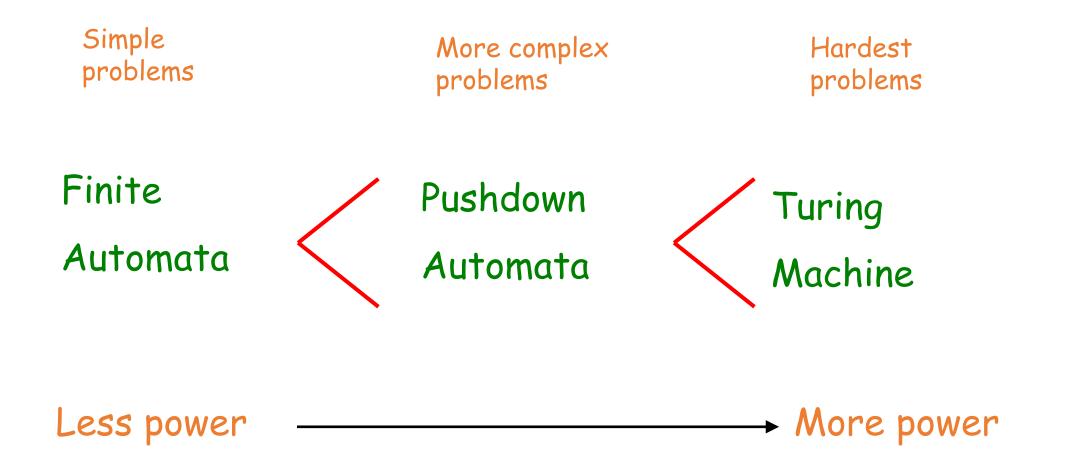
Overview of Automata

Lecture 2 - Manuel Mazzara

Different kind of Automata

- Finite State Automata (FSA)
 - no temporary memory, just states are used to memorize
- Pushdown Automata (PDA)
 - stack (destructive memory), need to destroy while reading
- Turing Machines (TMs)
 - equivalent to random (non-sequential) access memory
 - In fact, it is sequential, but does not change the computational power

Power of Automata



Solve more computational problems

A course-long question

• Turing Machine is the most powerful computational model known

Are there computational problems that a Turing Machine cannot solve?

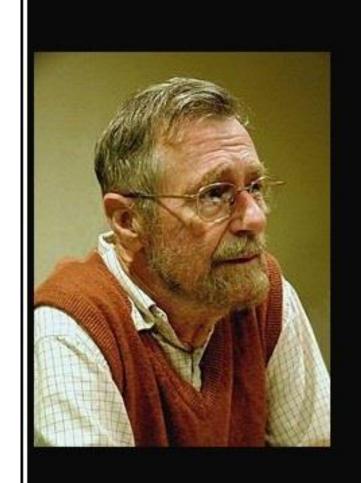
The Answer is "yes" (unsolvable problems)

 There are indeed unsolvable problems, and we will see in detail what this means

Theoretical Computer Science

About Theoretical Computer Science

Lecture 2 - Manuel Mazzara



Computer science is no more about computers than astronomy is about telescopes.

(Edsger Dijkstra)

Seminal Turing's article on Al

Vol. LIX. No. 236.]

October, 1950

MIND

A QUARTERLY REVIEW

OF

PSYCHOLOGY AND PHILOSOPHY

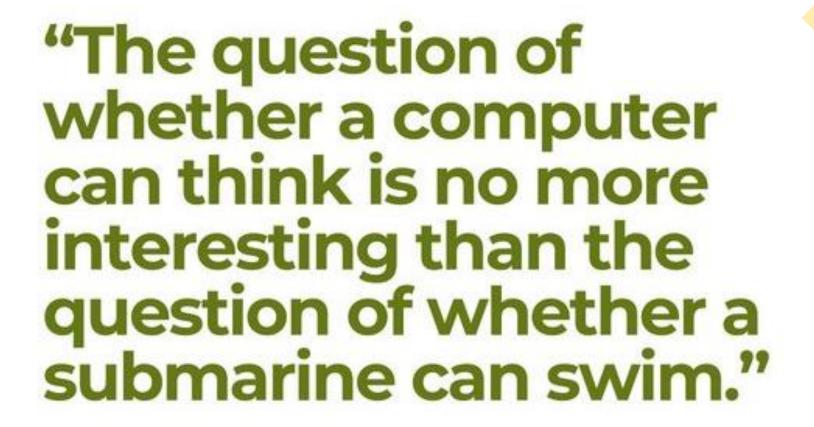


By A. M. TURING

INTELLIGENCE

1. The Imitation Game.

I PROPOSE to consider the question, 'Can machines think?' This should begin with definitions of the meaning of the terms 'machine' and 'think'. The definitions might be framed so as to reflect so far as possible the normal use of the words, but this attitude is dangerous. If the meaning of the words 'machine' and 'think' are to be found by examining how they are commonly



— Edsger W. Dijkstra

Edsger Wybe Dijkstra

11 May 1930 – 6 August 2002

- Structured Programming
- Software Engineering
- Concurrent and Distributed Computing
 - Semaphores
 - Mutual exclusion
 - Deadlock
- Solution of a Problem in Concurrent Programming Control - E.W. Dijkstra, Communications of the ACM, Vol. 8, No. 9, p. 569, <u>1965</u>



"The <u>revolution</u> in views of programming started by Dijkstra's iconoclasm led to a movement known as <u>structured</u> <u>programming</u>, which advocated a <u>systematic</u>, <u>rational</u> <u>approach to program construction</u>. Structured programming is <u>the basis for all that has been done since in programming</u> <u>methodology</u>, including object-oriented programming."

Bertrand Meyer - Touch of Class (page 188)



Mathematical abstractions

- Representing real systems
 - Abstraction allows you to focus on the important aspects of a problem

- Formal reasoning can improve our ability to design and build systems
 - Uncover design flaws
 - Precisely define requirements
 - Mathematics allows you to reason about solutions to the problem

Different models have different strengths and weaknesses



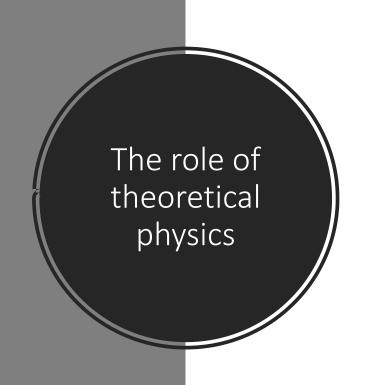


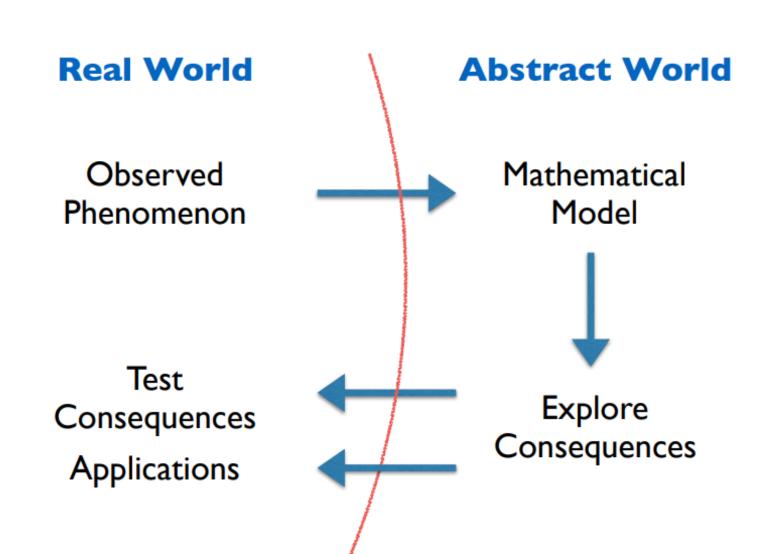


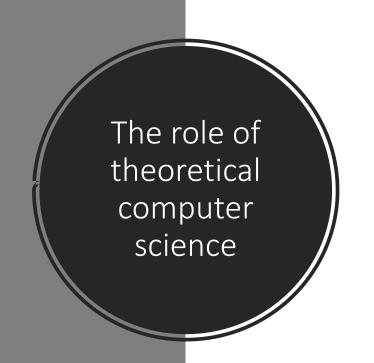


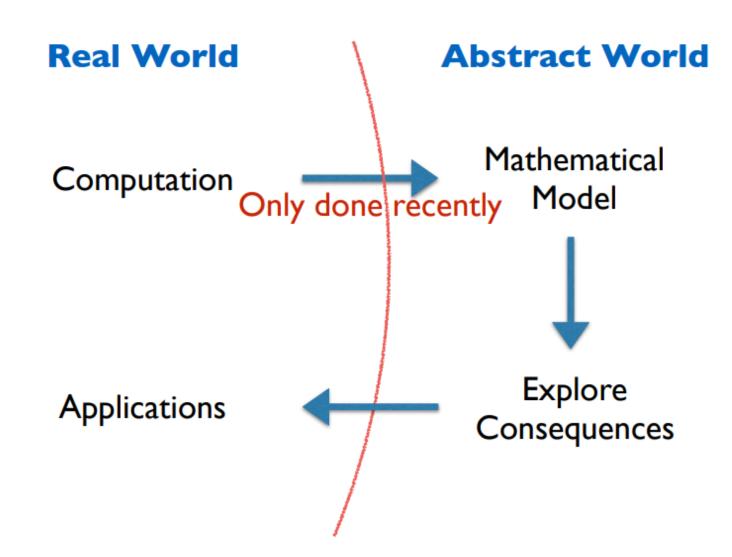


- Remove background from foreground
- Remove differences between each animal
- Remove "animal-ness" (treat lions as generic "lines")
- Remove need to count objects with literal lines
- Remove need to specify a fixed number



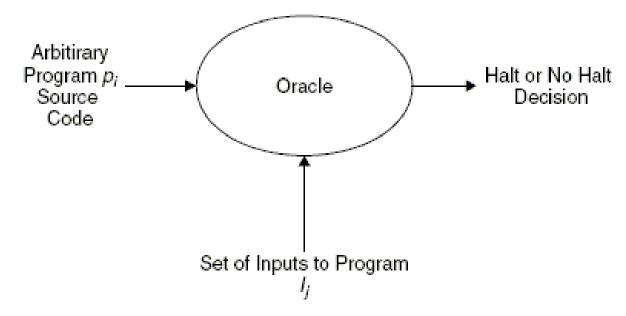






Our big question

- Is every function computable?
 - Can I write an algorithm for any function $N \rightarrow N$?
 - Halting Problem



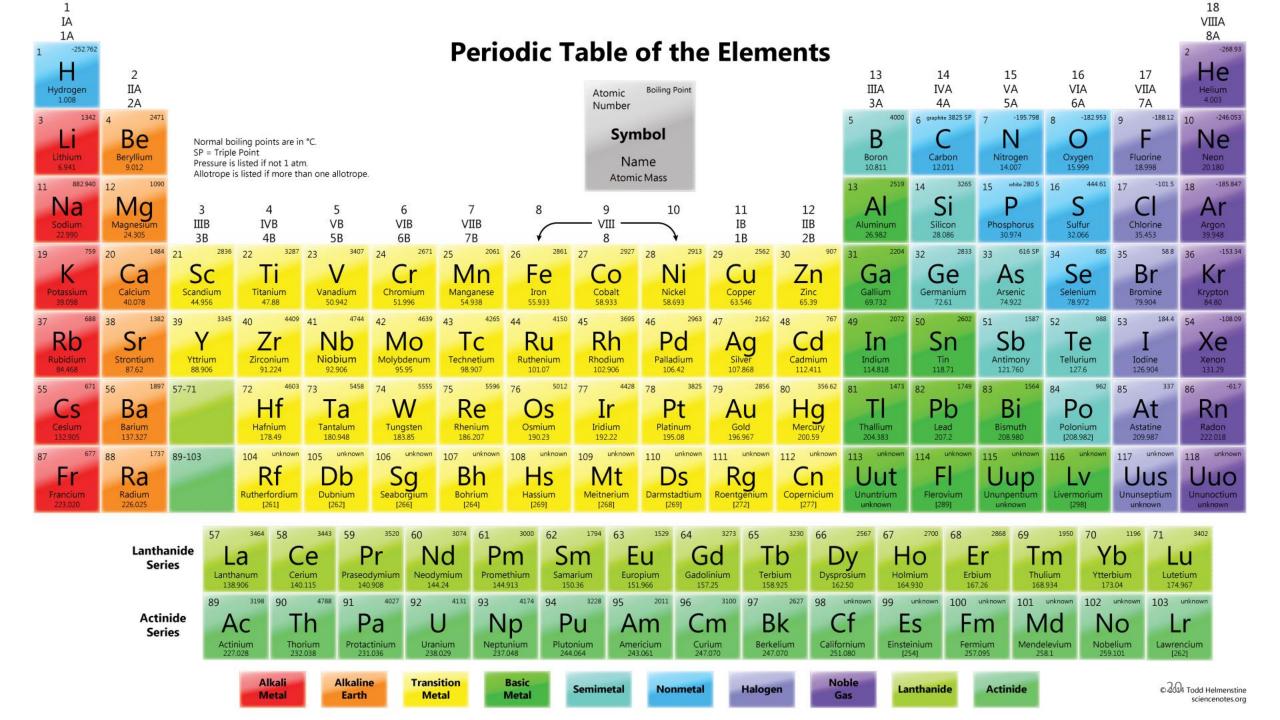
Theoretical Computer Science

Introduction to Formal Languages

Lecture 2 - Manuel Mazzara

Big "existential" question (1)

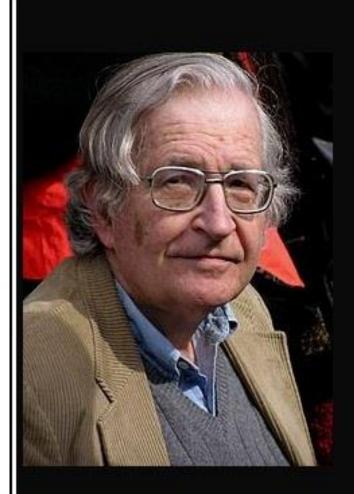
- Do you know anything in nature with an <u>infinite</u> set of "bricks" nor determined a-priori?
 - Think about <u>chemistry</u>, <u>physics</u> and and biology!
- Everything, including life seems to be expressed by **building bricks**, finite in nature and **pre-determined**, that do not change over time, and express complexity trough "combinatorial explosion"
- Can you falsify this statement?



Big "existential" question (2)

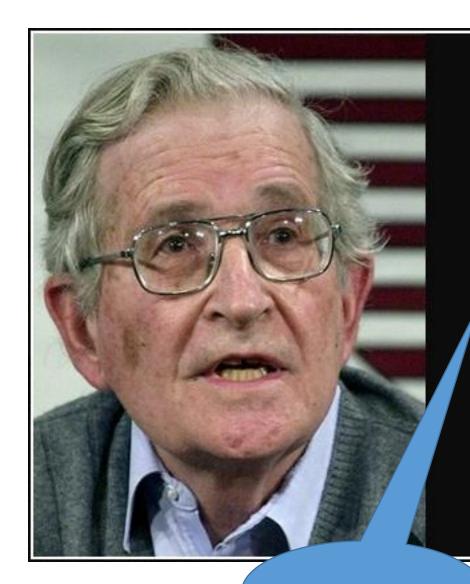
 Everything, including life seems to be expressed by building bricks, finite in nature and pre-determined, that do not change over time, and express complexity trough combinatorial explosion

- Is brain functioning any different?
- Language is not different!
- Computation is not different!



Language is a process of free creation; its laws and principles are fixed, but the manner in which the principles of generation are used is free and infinitely varied. Even the interpretation and use of words involves a process of free creation.

(Noam Chomsky)



From now on I will consider a language to be a set (finite or infinite) of sentences, each finite in length and constructed out of a finite set of elements. All natural languages in their spoken or written form are languages in this sense.

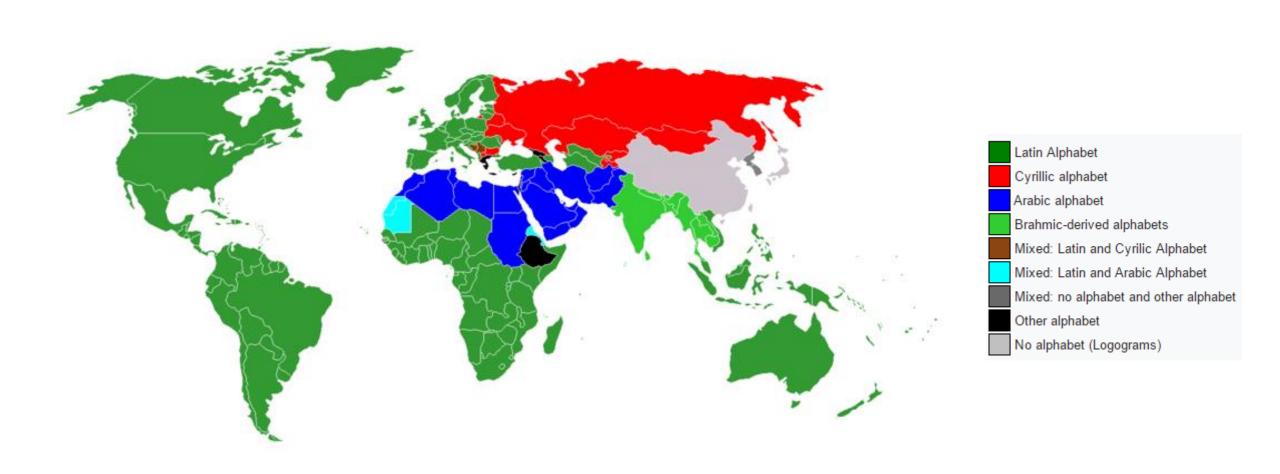
— Noam Chomsky —

And so are Programming Languages!

An Alphabet!

What is an alphabet?

Natural languages alphabets



Elements of languages

- Alphabet or vocabulary
 - Finite set of <u>basic symbols</u>
 - Examples:
 - Roman alphabet {a, b, ..., z}
 - Digits {0, 1, ..., 9}
 - Binary alphabet {0, 1}
- String over an alphabet A
 - Finite sequence of symbols of the alphabet A
 - Repetitions are allowed

Examples

- Roman alphabet A={a, b, ..., z}
 - a is a string on A
 - aa is a string on A
 - aba, add, aza, ... are strings on A
- Alphabet of digits **D**={0, 1, ..., 9}
 - 0, 1, 2, ...,9 are strings over **D**
 - 012, 999, 923456, ... are strings over D

Length of a string

- The <u>length</u> of a string is the <u>number of symbols</u> contained in the string
 - We denote the length of a string x as |x|
- Examples:
 - |a| = 1
 - **-** |991346|=6

- The <u>empty string</u> is a string that has zero symbols
 - We denote it as ε
 - $-|\epsilon|=0$

Comparing strings

Two strings

- $x = x_1 x_2 \dots x_n$
- $y = y_1 y_2 ... y_m$

are **equal** if and only if

-|x|=|y| (n=m)

- Same length
- $-x_i=y_i, \ \forall i \ (1\leq i\leq n)$ Corresponding elements are the same
- Examples
 - aabb and aabba are not equal
 - ababs and baasb are not equal

Concatenation

- Given two strings x and y, the <u>concatenation</u> (or product) of x and y is a string xy (or x·y), where x is followed by y
 - Example: strings on A={a, b, c, d}
 - •x=abadd
 - •y=dcc
 - •xy=abadddcc
 - •yx=dcc abadd
- Remarks
 - A string x concatenated with ε is still x
 - We abbreviate **xx** as **x²**, **xxx** as **x³**, ...
 - Concatenation is associative and non-commutative

Substrings

- A string x is a <u>substring</u> (or a factor) of a string s if there exist two strings y and z such that s=yxz
 - y or z can be ε
 - •If $y = \varepsilon$, x is called prefix
 - •If $z = \varepsilon$, x is called suffix
 - If both y and z are ε , x is equal to s
- Example: s=aadabbc
 - aad is a prefix of s
 - abbc is a suffix of s
 - ada is a substring of s

Kleene Star

- The <u>Kleene star</u> is a <u>unary operator</u> that applies to a set of symbols or a set of strings
 - It is denoted as *
 - In algebra it is called the free monoid on a set
- If A is an alphabet then A* is the <u>set of all strings over</u> <u>symbols in A</u>, including the <u>empty string</u>.
- Examples:
 - If $A = \{a, b, c\}$ then $A^* = \{\epsilon, a, b, c, aa, ab, ac, ba, bb, bc, ca, ...\}$
 - If $B=\{0, 1\}$ then $B^*=\{\epsilon, 0, 1, 00, 01, 10, 11, 000, 001, 010, 011, 100, ...\}$

Do you remember what is a monoid in abstract algebra (the study of algebraic structures)?

Free monoid

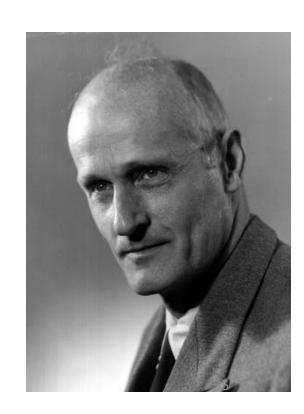
- A monoid is a set equipped with an associative binary operation and an identity element
- The free monoid on a set is the monoid whose elements are all the finite sequences (or strings) of zero or more elements from that set
 - String concatenation is the monoid operation
 - The unique sequence of zero elements, the empty string (denoted by ϵ or λ) is the **identity element** (it leaves any element of the set unchanged when combined with it)
- The <u>free monoid</u> on a set A is usually denoted A*

Stephen Kleene

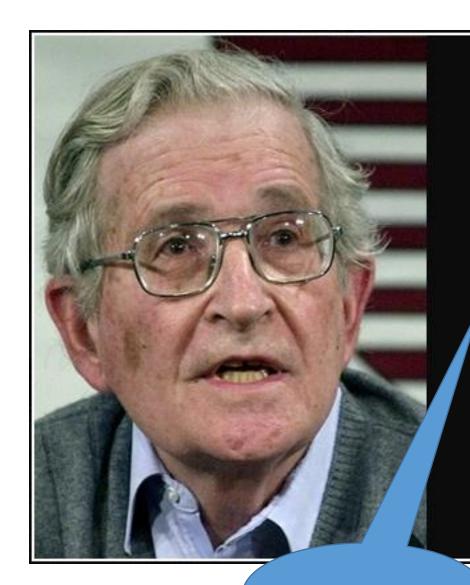
Kleene star is widely used for regular expressions

- It was introduced by **Stephen Kleene** in this context
- Stephen Kleene (1909-1994)
 - American mathematician
 - Student of Alonzo Church

Lambda calculus Church-Turing thesis



What is a language?



From now on I will consider a language to be a set (finite or infinite) of sentences, each finite in length and constructed out of a finite set of elements. All natural languages in their spoken or written form are languages in this sense.

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Languages

- A language is a set of strings over an alphabet
- Languages:
 - Russian, Italian, English, French
 - C, Java, Pascal, Eiffel

but also

- Graphical languages
- Music
- Multimedia

Formally

- A language L over an alphabet A is a <u>subset</u> of A*
- Examples

```
-A=\{a, b, c\}
A^*=\{\epsilon, a, b, c, aa, ab, ac, ba, bb, bc, ca, ...\}
L_1=\{\epsilon, a, b, c, bc, ca\}
L_2=\{aa, ab, ac, ba, bb, bc, ca, cb, cc\}
```

Operations

- Operations on <u>sets</u> apply also to <u>languages</u>
 - A language is a <u>set of strings</u>
- Operations on languages are
 - Union
 - Intersection
 - Difference
 - Complement
 - Concatenation
 - Power of n
 - Kleene star/closure

Set operations (1)

• $L_1 \cup L_2$ – Example: $L_1 = \{\varepsilon, a, b, c, bc, ca\}$ L_2 = {ba, bb, **bc**, **ca**, cb, cc} $L_1 \cup L_2 = \{\varepsilon, a, b, c, ba, bb, bc, ca, cb, cc\}$ • $L_1 \cap L_2$ - Example: $L_1 \cap L_2 = \{bc, ca\}$

Set operations (2)

- L₁ \ L₂ (or L₁ L₂)
 Generally used when L₂ ⊆ L₁
 Example:
 L₁= { ba, bb, bc, ca, cb, cc }
 - L_2 = { bc, ca } $L_1 \setminus L_2$ = {ba, bb, cb, cc}
- Lc=A* \ L
 - A is the alphabet over which L is defined
 - Example: L₁^c = set of all strings on {a,b,c}* except the strings of length
 2 that start with a 'b' or a 'c'

Concatenation

- $L_1 \cdot L_2$ (or L_1L_2)={x·y | x∈L₁, y∈L₂}
 - Remark: '·' is not commutative
 - $-L_1 \cdot L_2 \neq L_2 \cdot L_1$

Example

```
L_1 = \{\epsilon, a, b, c, bc, ca\} L_2 = \{ba, bb, bc, ca, cb, cc\} L_1 L_2 = \{ba, bb, bc, ca, cb, cc, aba, abb, abc, aca, acb, acc, bba, bbb, bbc, bca, bcb, bcc, cba, cbb, cbc, cca, ccb, ccc, bcba, bcbb, bcbc,
```

bcca, bccb, bccc, caba, cabb, cabc, caca, cacb, cacc}

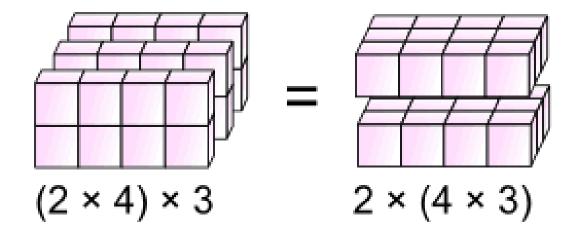
Power

- Lⁿ is obtained by concatenating L with itself n times
 - $-L_0 = \{\epsilon\}$
 - $-L^{i}=L^{i-1}\cdot L$
- Examples:
 - $-L^2=L\cdot L$
 - $-L^3=L\cdot L\cdot L$
 - $-L^4=L\cdot L\cdot L\cdot L$
 - ...
- Remark: '·' is associative

Associative Law (1)

Do you remember it?

Associative Law (2)



Do you remember it?

Kleene Star (1)

 Kleene star is a <u>unary operation</u>, either on sets of strings or on sets of symbols

The application of the Kleene star to a set A is written as A*

 Defined by Stephen Kleene in the context of regular expressions (will see this later in the course)

Kleene Star (2)

Given a set *V* we define:

 $V_0 = \{\epsilon\}$ (the language consisting only of the empty string),

$$V_1 = V$$

 $V_{i+1} = \{ wv : w \in V_i \text{ and } v \in V \} \text{ for each } i>0.$

Inductive definition

$$V^* = \bigcup_{i \in \mathbb{N}} V_i = \{\varepsilon\} \cup V \cup V_2 \cup V_3 \cup V_4 \cup \dots$$

What do formal languages represent?

A language is a <u>set of strings</u>

```
- L_1= {bc, ca}

- L_2= {ba, bb, bc, ca, cb, cc}

- L_3= {x∈{a,b}*| (∃ y ∈{a,b}*) x=ay}
```

- How can sets of strings be applied in computer science?
 - Formal languages are not only mere mathematical representations

Languages in CS

- A language is a way of <u>representing</u> or <u>communicating</u> information
 - Not just meaningless strings
- There are many kinds of languages
 - Natural languages
 - Programming languages
 - Logic languages

— ...

Example (1)

- Consider the following languages:
 - L₁: set of "Word@Mac" documents
 - L₂: set of "Word@PC" documents
- Operations:
 - − L₁^c is set of documents that are not compatible with "Word@Mac"
 - $L_1 \cup L_2$ is the set of documents that are compatible with either Mac or PC
 - − L₁∩L₂ is the set of documents that are compatible with both Mac and
 PC

Example (2)

- Consider the following languages:
 - − L₁: set of e-mail messages
 - L₂: set of spam messages
- Operations:
 - L₁-L₂ implements a filter

Languages in practice

- A language can represent
 - Computations
 - Documents
 - Programs
 - Multimedia

 Operations on languages create new classes of languages