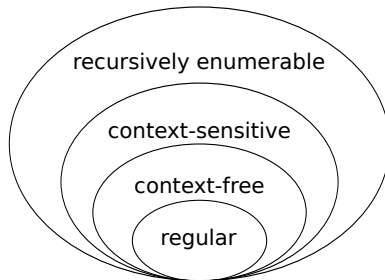


# CS3100 Final Note Sheet

## Notation

- $L^R$  The reversal of language  $L$ .  
 $L^*$  The Kleene-Star of  $L$ .  
 $AB$  The concatenation of language  $A$  and  $B$ .  
 $h(L)$  A homomorphism (a function that maps every input to a unique output) of  $L$ .  
 $A \setminus B$  Set difference of  $A$  and  $B$ .  $A - B$  is the same thing.  
 $\langle M \rangle$  String representation of Turing machine  $M$ .  
 $f : x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n \rightarrow y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n$  denotes a function  $f$  that when given  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  as inputs yields  $y_1, \dots, y_n$  as outputs.

## Chomsky Hierarchy



## Regular Languages

A regular language is any language that can be recognized with a DFA. Formally a DFA is a tuple  $(Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$ . Where:

- $Q$  A finite, non-empty set of states.  
 $\Sigma$  A finite, non-empty alphabet.  
 $\delta$  A function  $(\delta : Q \times \Sigma \rightarrow Q)$  that maps a state, and an input in  $\Sigma$  to a new state.  
 $q_0$  A state in  $Q$  that DFA starts execution from.  
 $F \subseteq Q$  A finite, possibly empty, set of accepting states.

## Closures

Where  $R$  is a regular language,  $L$  is 'not regular', and ? is Unknown.

### Closed:

$$\begin{aligned}\overline{R} &\rightarrow R & h(R) &\rightarrow R \\ R^* &\rightarrow R & R \cup R &\rightarrow R \\ R^R &\rightarrow R & R \cap R &\rightarrow R \\ RR &\rightarrow R & R \setminus R &\rightarrow R\end{aligned}$$

### Unclosed:

$$\begin{aligned}R \cap L &\rightarrow ? \\ R \cup L &\rightarrow ? \\ L \cup L &\rightarrow ?\end{aligned}$$

## Pumping Lemma

$$\begin{aligned}\exists N \in \mathbb{N} : \\ \forall w \in L : |w| \geq N \Rightarrow \\ \exists xyz \in \Sigma^* : \quad w = xyz \\ \quad \wedge |xy| \leq N \\ \quad \wedge y \neq \varepsilon \\ \quad \wedge \forall i \geq 0 : xy^iz \in L\end{aligned}$$

## Context Free Languages

### Closures

Where  $C$  is a context-free language,  $R$  is a regular language, and ? is an Unknown language.

### Closed:

$$\begin{aligned}C^R &\rightarrow C & C \cup C &\rightarrow C \\ C^* &\rightarrow C & C \cap R &\rightarrow C \\ CC &\rightarrow C & C \cup R &\rightarrow R \\ h(C) &\rightarrow C\end{aligned}$$

### Unclosed:

$$\begin{aligned}\overline{C} &\rightarrow ? \\ C \cap C &\rightarrow ? \\ C \setminus C &\rightarrow ?\end{aligned}$$

## Pumping Lemma

$$\begin{aligned}\exists N \in \mathbb{N} : \\ \forall w \in L : |w| \geq N \Rightarrow \\ \exists uvxyz \in \Sigma^* : \quad w = uvxyz \\ \quad \wedge |vy| > 0 \\ \quad \wedge |vxy| \leq N \\ \quad \wedge \forall i \geq 0 : uv^ixy^iz \in L\end{aligned}$$

## Ambiguous Context Free Languages

These are languages that have two separate parse-trees. To prove that a language is ambiguous, show that it actually has two separate parse-trees.

Example ambiguous grammar:

$$E \rightarrow E + E \mid E * E \mid \text{NUMBER}$$

## Consistency and Completeness

**Consistency:** All strings generated by a grammar are in the language.

**Completeness:** The grammar generates all strings in the language.

You cannot know that a grammar defines a language until you show both. For example, if we want to define the language  $\{a^n b^n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ , the grammar:

$$S \rightarrow aabb$$

Is *consistent* because it only generates strings in the language, but not complete because it doesn't generate all strings in the language. Likewise, the grammar:

$$S \rightarrow aS \mid bS \mid \varepsilon \quad (\text{grammar for } \{a, b\}^*)$$

Is complete, it generates all possible strings in the language, but not consistent because it generates many strings that are, in-fact, outside of the language.

## Cardinality

### Schröder-Bernstein Theorem

The Schröder-Bernstein theorem states that, for any two sets  $A$  and  $B$  if there exists an *injective* function from  $A \rightarrow B$ , and there exists an injective function from  $B \rightarrow A$ , then  $|A| = |B|$ . Note that the injective function doesn't require every item of  $A$  to map to every item of  $B$ , only that every item of  $A$  maps to *an* item of  $B$  (and vice versa).

## Decidability

### Halting Problem

The halting problem states building a Turing machine  $P$  that can detect whether any other Turing machine will halt is impossible. The proof is as follows:

Assume that we have a Turing machine  $P$ , that when given a Turing machine  $M$  and string  $w$  as input  $(\langle M, w \rangle)$ ,  $P$  will (in a finite computation time) accept in the case that  $M$  halts on input  $w$ , or reject in the case that  $M$  loops on input  $w$ . We can then define a new Turing machine  $Q$  that takes a single Turing machine  $M$  as input.  $Q$  will then ask  $P$  whether machine  $M$  halts when given itself as input (does  $P(\langle M, M \rangle)$  halt?). If  $P$

accepts (says that  $M$  halts) the  $Q$  will loop. If  $P$  rejects (says  $M$  will loop) then  $Q$  halts. Now, we can supply  $Q$  as input to machine  $Q$ .  $Q$  will then run  $P(\langle Q, Q \rangle)$ . If  $P$  accepts, then  $Q$  will begin to loop, but  $P$  said that  $Q$  would halt. This is a contraction, a general  $P$  decider for the halting problem cannot exist.

## Mapping Reduction

A mapping reduction between  $A \subseteq \Sigma^*$  and  $B \subseteq \Sigma^*$  is a function  $f : \Sigma^* \rightarrow \Sigma^*$  if  $\forall x \in \Sigma^*, x \in A \Leftrightarrow f(x) \in B$ . More plainly, a function  $f$  such that I can pick any  $x$  in  $A$ , and  $f(x)$  will also be in  $B$ . The “mapping reduction from  $A$  to  $B$ ” is typically denoted as  $A \leq_m B$ . A mapping reduction in polynomial time is denoted  $A \leq_p B$ . The general steps for a mapping reduction  $A \leq_m B$  are as follows:

1.  $A$  is designated the “known undecidable” language.
2.  $B$  is designated the “unknown” language.
3. Create a function  $f$  that maps all elements of  $A$  into  $B$ .

To form  $f$  you usually assume the decider for  $B$  ( $D_B$ ), then you construct a machine  $M$  that uses to decider  $D_B$  to become a decider for  $A$  ( $D_A$ ). For example, we can map  $A_{TM}$  onto  $Halt_{TM}$  using the following method:

Assume that a decider  $R$  for  $A_{TM}$  exists. We will now construct a decider  $S$  for  $Halt_{TM}$  from  $R$ .  $S$  has two inputs a machine  $M$  and an input string  $w$ . First,  $S$  will run decider  $R$  on  $\langle M, w \rangle$ , if  $R$  accepts, then  $S$  accepts. If  $R$  rejects, then  $S$  accepts. We now have a decider for  $Halt_{TM}$  which is undecidable, a decider for  $A_{TM}$  cannot exist.

## Rice’s Theorem

“Every non-trivial partitioning of the space of Turing machine codes based on the languages recognized by these Turing machines is undecidable.”

More formally, given a property  $\mathcal{P}$ , where  $\mathcal{P}$  is non-trivial (not  $\emptyset$  or  $\Sigma^*$ ) the language:

$$\langle M \rangle | M \text{ is a Turing machine and } \mathcal{P}(Lang(M))$$

Is undecidable.