CS 611: Theory of Computation

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Part I

Syllabus

Course Overview

The three main computational models/problem classes in the course

Computational Model	Applications		
Finite State Machines/	text processing, lexical analysis,		
Regular Expressions	protocol verification		
Duchdown Automata/	compiler parsing coffware		
Pushdown Automata/	compiler parsing, software		
Context-free Grammars	modeling, natural language		
	processing		
Turing machines	undecidability, computational		
	complexity, cryptography		

Skills

- Comprehend mathematical definitions
- Write mathematical definitions
- Comprehend mathematical proofs
- Write mathematical proofs

Part II

Math Preliminaries

Sets, functions, relations and sequences

- A set is a collection of items. We use \in to denote the belongs to relation, that is, $a \in A$, denotes that a is an element of A. $A = \{1, 2, 3\}$ is a set whose elements are 1, 2 and 3. $N = \{1, 2, 3, ...\}$ is the set of natural numbers. It is an infinite set. $B = \{1, 2, 3, 2\}$ is NOT a set, it is a multiset, where duplicate matters. $C = \{n|n$ is an even number $\}$
- A subset of a set is a set containing zero or more elements of the set. A is a subset of N. Some subsets of A = $\{1, 2, 3\}$ are $\{2, 3\}$, $\{\}$, $\{1\}$, $\{1, 2, 3\}$. Here $1 \in A, 4 \notin A$.

Questions

How many subsets there exists for a set A that has n elements?

Special Sets

- The empty set $\{\}$: denote, \emptyset , a set that has no elements
- Universal set U: either especially stated or implicit, examples: natural numbers N = 0, 1, 2, 3, ..., integers $N = \{..., -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, ...\}$

Operations on Sets

- Cartesian Product of Sets: Given two sets A and B, the Cartesian product $A \times B$ is the set consisting of all elements of the form (x, y) where x is an element of A and y is an element of B. $A \times B = \{(x, y) | x \in A, y \in B\}$
- If A = $\{1, 2\}$, B = $\{a, b, c\}$, what is $A \times B$? $A \times B = \{(1, a), (2, a), (1, b), (2, b), (1, c), (2, c)\}$
- Power Set: Given a set A, a power set of A, is a SET which A consists of all the subsets of A. It is denoted as Pow(A) or 2^A.
 If A = {1,2}, 2^A = {{}, {1}, {2}, {1,2}}.
- Union $A \cup B = \{x | x \in A \text{ or } x \in B\}$ Intersection $A \cap B = \{x | x \in A \text{ and } x \in B\}$
- Complement with respect to a Universe U, $\overline{A} = \{x | x \in U, x \notin A\}.$



Sequence

• A sequence is a list of objects in order. Repetition and order both matter in a sequence. $(1,2,3) \neq (1,1,2,3) \neq (2,1,3)$

Relations

- A k-ary relation is a subset of $A_1 \times A_2 \times \cdots \times A_k$.
- For $A = \{1, 2\}$, $B = \{a, b, c\}$, $R = \{(1, a), (1, b), (2, b)\}$ is a relation.
- A binary relation $R \subseteq A \times A$ is a *equivalence relation* if it satisfies:
 - Reflexivity: for every $a \in A$, $(a, a) \in R$
 - Symmetricity: for every $a, b \in A$, if $(a, b) \in R$, then $(b, a) \in R$
 - Transitivity: for every $a, b, c \in A$, if $(a, b) \in R$ and $(b, c) \in R$, then $(a, c) \in R$.

Functions and Relations

- A function F from A to B, denoted $F: A \rightarrow B$, is a mapping where for every $a \in A$, there is a unique element $b \in B$ that it is mapped to. We call A the domain and B the range of F.
- $F: A \to B$ is a *one-one* function, if for every $a, a' \in A$, if $a \neq a'$, then $F(a) \neq F(a')$.
- $F: A \to B$ is a *onto* function, if for every $b \in B$, there is an a such that F(a) = b.
- A function is bijective if it is both one-one and onto.

Propositional Logic

- Propositions are facts that are true or false.
- Operations on propositions: negation ¬, conjunction ∧, disjunction ∨, implies →, iff ↔

The truth tables are as follows:

P | ¬*P* | T | F | T |

P	Q	$P \wedge Q$	$P \lor Q$	P o Q	$P \leftrightarrow Q$
Т	Т	Т	Т	T	T
Т	F	F	Т	F	F
F	Т	F	Т	Т	F
F	F	F	F	Т	Т

Proofs

We discussed the following:

- Definition capture objects, notions, concepts
- Mathematical statement
- Proof logical argument to establish the correctness of a mathematical statement
- Theorem a mathematical statement which has been proved correct

Example

- Definition ODD: A integer n is odd if n = 2k + 1 for some integer k, otherwise, it is even, that is, n = 2k for some integer k.
- Mathematical statement: If n is odd, then n^2 is odd.
- Proof: If n is odd, then n=2k+1 for some integer k. Then $n^2=(2k+1)^2=4k^2+4k+1=2(2k^2+2k)+1$. Since, $k'=2k^2+2k$ is an integer and $n^2=2k'+1$, n^2 is odd from the definition ODD.

Proofs

- For any two sets A and B, $A \bar{\cup} B = \bar{A} \cap \bar{B}$.
- An element x is in $A \bar{\cup} B$ iff it is not in $A \cup B$ (from the definition of complement) iff x is neither in A nor in B (from the definition of union) iff x is in \bar{A} and x is in \bar{B} (from the definition of complement) iff x is in their intersection $\bar{A} \cap \bar{B}$ (from the definition of intersection).

Proofs

- If n is an integer and 3n + 2 is odd, then n is odd.
- (Contrapositive) If n is not odd (even), then 3n + 2 is not odd (even).
- The truth of a statement is equivalent to its contrapositive.
 So, we can prove a statement, by proving its contrapositive.
- Suppose *n* is even, then n = 2k, 3n + 2 = 6k + 2 = 2(3k + 1) is even.

Proof by induction

- Show that $1 + 2 + \cdots + n = n(n+1)/2$.
- Let P(n) denote $1+2+\cdots+n=n(n+1)/2$. We need to show that $P(1), P(2), P(3), \cdots$ are all true.
- We cannot show each of them individually.

Proof by induction

- Induction is a proof technique that allows us to prove a certain fact P(n) holds for all n, by showing the following two facts:
 - *P*(1) is true.
 - For every k, if P(k) is true, then P(k+1) is true.
- The first statement is called the base case. The second statement is proved for any generic k. We need to argue that P(k+1) is true using the fact that P(k) is true. Here P(k) is called the induction hypothesis. "For every k, if P(k) is true, then P(k+1) is true." is the induction step.
- Note that if we prove the base case and the induction step, then we have shown that P(n) is true for all n.
- P(1) is true because of base case, P(2) is true by instantiating k = 1, P(3) is true by taking k = 2 and so on.

- Show that $1 + 2 + \cdots + n = n(n+1)/2$.
- **Step 0:**First, write the statement in the form of: Show that P(n) is true for all n.
- Let P(n) denote $1+2+\cdots+n=n(n+1)/2$. We need to show that P(n) is true for all n.
- **Step 1:** Prove the base case, that is, P(1) is true.
- Base case: Show that P(1) is true. To show P(1) is true, we need to show that 1 = 1(1+1)/2. Since, both L.H.S and R.H.S are equivalent, we have proved the statement.
- Step 2: Write down the induction hypothesis. $P(k): 1+2+\cdots+k=k(k+1)/2$. This will be assumed to be true.
- Step 3: Prove the induction step. That is, assuming P(k) is true, prove that P(k+1) is true.



- Show that $1 + 2 + \cdots + n = n(n+1)/2$.
- **Step 3:** Prove the induction step. That is, assuming P(k) is true, prove that P(k+1) is true.
- Need to show that $1+2+\cdots+k+1=k(k+1)/2$. Think how you can use the P(k) here. Alternative, how can you reduce the statement involving k+1 to one involving k.
- For instance, the L.H.S of P(k+1) can be written $(1+2+3+\cdots+k)+k+1$ where the first part matches with the L.H.S of P(k). Hence, you can replace $(1+2+3+\cdots+k)$ with k(k+1)/2. Now, L.H.S of P(k+1), namely, $(1+2+3+\cdots+k)+k+1$ is equal to k(k+1)/2+k+1=(k+1)(k/2+1)=(k+1)(k+2)/2, which is the required R.H.S for P(k+1).

- Show that the number of elements in the power set of A is 2^n , where n is the number of elements in A.
- **Step 0:** First, write the statement in the form of: Show that P(n) is true for all n.
- Let P(n) denote if a set has size n, then the number of elements in its power set is 2^n .
- **Step 1:** Prove the base case, that is, P(1) is true.
- Base case: Show that P(1) is true. To show P(1) is true, we need to show that if a set has size 1, then its power set has size 2¹ = 2. Consider a set of size 1. It is of the form A = {a}. Its power set is {{}, {a}}, it has size 2.
- **Step 2:** Write down the induction hypothesis. P(k): If a set has size k, then its power set has size 2^k .
- Step 3: Prove the induction step. That is, assuming P(k) is true, prove that P(k+1) is true.



- Show that the number of elements in the power set of A is 2^n , where n is the number of elements in A.
- Step 3: Prove the induction step. That is, assuming P(k) is true, prove that P(k+1) is true.
- Need to show that the power set of any set with k+1 elements has size 2^{k+1} . Think how you can use the P(k) here. Alternative, how can you reduce the statement involving k+1 to one involving k.
- How is a set of size k+1 related to a set of size k? Let A be a set of size k+1. Then $A=B\cup\{a\}$, where a is not an element of B, and B is of size k.
- Consider power set of A, it contains subsets of A.
- The subsets of A can be divided into two groups, X be the set of all subset of A, which do not contain a, and Y be the set of all subsets of A which contain a.



- How many elements are in X? Every element of X does not contain a, hence, it is a subset of B. And all subsets of B do not contain a, therefore they are elements of X. Therefore, X is exactly the power set of B, and contains 2^k elements.
- How many elements are in Y? Note that every element of Y contains a. That is, an element of Y is of the form $S \cup \{a\}$, where S is a subset of A and does not contain a, that is, S is a subset of B. In fact, a set S belongs to the power set of B exactly when $S \cup \{a\}$ belongs to Y. Therefore the elements of Y are obtained by adding a to every element of the power set of B. Hence, the number of elements of Y and that of power set of B are the same, and Y has 2^k elements. The total number of elements in power set of A is $2^k + 2^k = 2^{k+1}$.

- As a concrete example for the statements in the above proof, try the following.
- Take A = {1,2,3}. Write the subsets of A which do not contain 3, called X, and the elements in the power set of A which contain 3, called Y. You will notice that X is the power set of B = {1,2} and the number of elements in X and Y are the same.