### CS3231

**Lecturer**: Sanjay Jain (COM1 03–36; sanjay@comp.nus.edu.sg **Web Page**: http://www.comp.nus.edu.sg/~sanjay/cs3231.html **Text Book**: Hopcroft, Motwani and Ullman — Introduction to Automata Theory, Languages and Computation, 3rd edition.

### **Tutorials**:

- start in second week; 11 or 12 tutorials
- Questions for tutorial will be given in class (previous week). Due at the start of the tutorial

# Grading:

- 2 midterms (25 % each)
- 1 final (50 %)

# Why Study Theory of Computation

- Computational devices appear all over the place besides the computers, several products have computational devices inside them: TV, vending machines, mobile phones, . . .
- Though models and forms of computation may differ, essential idea underlying them remain the same.
  - Example: vending machines may be despensing soft drinks, snacks, train tickets, . . .
- Theory of computation helps you develop an understanding of what computation is, what are its limits, what can be done and what cannot be done, how much resources (time, memory, ...) are needed to do a job, etc.
- We will mostly focus on acceptance of languages: automata, grammars, expressions, etc.

If you studied geometry by traditional methods, you would have seen how one proves validity of a statement by using a chain of arguments.

• Deductive proofs:

Example: if  $x \ge 4$ , then  $2^x \ge x^2$ .

• Modus Ponens:

 $A \Rightarrow B$ , A, then we can conclude B.

• Proof by Contradiction.

Example: Suppose U, the universal set, is infinite. Then for any set A, either A is infinite of  $\overline{A}$  is infinite (where  $\overline{A} = U - A$ ).

Counterexample.

Example: All primes are odd (False: counterexample is 2).

- Contrapositive:  $A \Rightarrow B$  can be proved by showing  $\neg B \Rightarrow \neg A$ .
- Equivalence (iff, if and only if)
  - Suppose x is a real number. Then  $x = \lfloor x \rfloor = \lceil x \rceil$  iff x is an integer.
  - $-\lfloor r \rfloor$  is the largest integer which is less than or equal to r
  - $-\lceil r \rceil$  is the smallest integer which is greater than or equal to r
- Converse
  - Converse of  $A \Rightarrow B$  is  $B \Rightarrow A$
  - Usage when we prove iff type statements

• Inductive Proofs.

$$-1+2+3+\ldots+n=n(n+1)/2.$$

• Inductive Proofs

Basic form: prove

- base case (n=1)
- induction step: If statement holds for n = k, then it holds for n = k + 1.

Course of values induction: prove

- base case (n = 1)
- induction step: If statement holds for smaller values of n (n = 1 to k), then it holds for n = k + 1.

Structural Induction

Example: If a claim holds for all trees of height at most k, then the claim holds for all trees of height k + 1.

Mutual Induction: showing several claims to be true simultaneously.

Quantifiers:  $(\exists x)[P(x)]$  and  $(\forall x)[P(x)]$ 

Sometimes also use  $(\exists x)[P(x)], (\exists !x)[P(x)].$ 

## Central Concepts of Automata Theory

# Alphabets

- Alphabet is a finite non-empty set of symbols. We usually use the symbol  $\Sigma$  to denote the alphabet.
- $-\{0,1\}.$
- $-\{A,B,\ldots,Z\}$
- $-\{0, A, s\}$

## • Strings:

Finite sequence of symbols chosen from a given alphabet. For example, 010001, ACB, 0sAss0.

• Empty String:  $\epsilon$ . Sometimes  $\Lambda$  is also used.

# Central Concepts of Automata Theory

- Length of a string: number of symbols in the string. Example: length of 01001 is 5.
- Powers of an Alphabet:

$$-\Sigma^{1} = \{0, 1\}$$

$$-\Sigma^{2} = \{00, 01, 10, 11\}$$

$$-\Sigma^{0} = \{\epsilon\}$$

$$-\Sigma^{\leq 2} = \Sigma^{0} \cup \Sigma^{1} \cup \Sigma^{2}$$

• Concatenation of Strings:

$$x = 00, y = 10, \text{ then } x \cdot y = xy = 0010.$$

- Substring.
- Subsequence.

• Languages: A set of strings (over an alphabet).

$$L = \{00, 11, 01, 110\}.$$

$$L = \emptyset$$
.

 $L = \{x \mid x \text{ is a binary representation of a prime number }\}.$ 

1.  $L_1 \cdot L_2 = \{xy \mid x \in L_1, y \in L_2\}.$ 

When there is no confusion, we often drop  $\cdot$ ,  $L_1L_2$  represents  $L_1 \cdot L_2$ .

2.  $L^* = \{x_1 x_2 \dots x_n \mid x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n \in L, n \in N\}.$ 

Here n can be 0 (thus  $\epsilon \in L^*$ ).

$$L^* = \{\epsilon\} \cup L \cup LL \cup LLL \cup \cdots$$

3. 
$$L^+ = \{x_1 x_2 \dots x_n \mid x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n \in L, n \ge 1\}.$$

$$L^+ = L \cup LL \cup LLL \cup \cdots$$

Number of strings over any fixed finite alphabet  $\Sigma$  is countable:

We do the proof for  $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$ .

The same idea can be generalized to prove the result for larger alphabets.

For any string x, let m(x) = value of 1x as binary number.

Thus we are mapping string  $\epsilon$  to 1, string 0 to 2,

string 1 to 3, string 00 to 4 and so on.

Thus, number of strings is countable.

Number of languages over any non-empty alphabet is uncountable. Consider  $\Sigma = \{a\}$ .

Then consider binary representation of any real number in [0, 1):  $0.b_0b_1\cdots$ 

Let L be the language  $\{a^i \mid b_i = 1\}$ .

Thus, we have formed a language corresponding to each real number in the interval [0, 1).

Thus, the number of languages is at least as large as the set of real numbers, which is uncountable.