

Theory of Computation Assignment no. 1

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- (1) If $x = \text{True}$ and $y = \text{True}$, then the LHS equals False since $\neg(\text{True} \wedge \text{True}) = \neg\text{True} = \text{False}$. The RHS equals $(\neg\text{True} \vee \neg\text{True}) = \text{False} \vee \text{False} = \text{False}$, which is equal to the LHS. Thus, when both x and y are True , the LHS = RHS.

When $x = \text{True}$ or $y = \text{True}$, but not $x = \text{True}$ and $y = \text{True}$, we see that the LHS equals True since $\neg(\text{True} \wedge \text{False}) = \neg\text{False} = \text{True}$ and $\neg(\text{False} \wedge \text{True}) = \neg\text{False} = \text{True}$. The RHS in both cases equals True because $(\neg\text{True} \vee \neg\text{False}) = \text{False} \vee \text{True} = \text{True}$ and $(\neg\text{False} \vee \neg\text{True}) = \text{True} \vee \text{False} = \text{True}$. Thus, when either x or y is True (but not both), the LHS = RHS.

Finally, if $x = \text{False}$ and $y = \text{False}$, then the LHS equals True since $\neg(\text{False} \wedge \text{False}) = \neg\text{False} = \text{True}$. The RHS equals $(\neg\text{False} \vee \neg\text{False}) = \text{True} \vee \text{True} = \text{True}$, which is equal to the LHS. Thus, when both x and y are False , the LHS = RHS.

We see that for every setting for the binary variables x and y , the LHS and RHS of the equation evaluate the same truth value. $\therefore \neg(x \wedge y) = (\neg x \vee \neg y)$.

- (2) Suppose there are $2n + 1$ beads on a necklace. Assign a color to every 2 beads, this gives us $2n$ beads colored with n colors. By the pigeonhole principle, there is a remaining bead that forms a match with one of the n colors we have. Thus, there is at least a set of at least 3 beads on the necklace that will have the same color.
- (3) Let $T(n)$ be the function over natural numbers n , defined as follows: $T(1) = 2$ and $T(2) = 4$ and for any other n :

$$T(n) = 2 + \min_{i=1 \dots n-2} \{T(i) + T(n-i-1)\}.$$

Using strong induction we prove that $T(n) = 2n$ for all n .

Base case. $n = 3$.

$T(3) = 2 + \min_{i=1 \dots 1} \{T(i) + T(2-i)\} = 2 + T(1) + T(1) = 2 + 2 + 2 = 6 = 2 \times 3 = 2n$ \therefore holds true for base case.

Inductive step. We show for $k \geq 3$, that if $T(h) = 2h$ for all $h \leq k$ then $T(k+1)$ is also true.

$$\begin{aligned} T(k+1) &= 2 + \min_{i=1 \dots k+1-2} \{T(i) + T(k+1-i-1)\} \\ &= 2 + \min_{i=1 \dots k-1} \{T(i) + T(k-i)\} \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

In (1) we see that the \min operator attempts to find the minimum between the range $i = 1$ to $k-1$ of $T(i) + T(k-i)$. For all i in that range, each iteration of the \min operator will evaluate the value of $T(k)$ since by the induction hypothesis, $T(i) + T(k-i) = 2i + 2(k-i) = 2i + 2k - 2i = 2k = T(k)$ for all i, k . Thus, the \min operator in (1) will always evaluate to the value of $T(k)$. From the induction hypothesis, we see that $T(k) = 2k$ and thus equation (1) evaluates to:

$$\begin{aligned} T(k+1) &= 2 + \min_{i=1 \dots k-1} \{T(i) + T(k-i)\} \\ &= 2 + T(k) && \text{[by evaluating the min operator]} \\ &= 2 + 2k && \text{[by the induction hypothesis]} \\ &= 2(k+1). \end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

Conclusion. By the principle of strong induction, we see that for $n \geq 3$, $T(n) = 2n$. Furthermore, by definition, $T(1) = 2$ and $T(2) = 4$. $\therefore T(n) = 2n$ for all n .

- (4) Consider the algorithm E , given below, which uses H as a subroutine.

```

function E(x)
   $A \leftarrow H(x, xx)$ 
  if  $A = \text{"Yes"}$  then loop forever
  else ( $A = \text{"No"}$  and)  $D(x)$  outputs "Yes"
  end if
end function

```

If x is not a valid program or x is not a double then $H(x, x)$ evaluates to "Yes". However, to consider valid programs with inputs that are doubles, we must modify H used to determine A such that H gets a valid program x , which may or not be a double, and a string representation of x which is a double, making the second input xx . Here if the program string were to be a double, such as $x = yy$, then $xx = yyy$ is still a double and the program logic is held (H still attempts to solve the 2HALT problem).

Now consider what happens if we run E on its own code ($E(E)$). We then get the following contradiction:

$$\begin{aligned}
 E(E) \text{ never halts} &\implies H(E, EE) = \text{"Yes"} \\
 &\implies E(E) \text{ halts} \implies H(E, EE) = \text{"No"} \\
 &\implies E(E) \text{ never halts} \implies \dots
 \end{aligned}$$

From the contradiction we see that there is no algorithm $H(P, x)$ that solves 2HALT. (Note: if we change $H(x, xx)$ to $H(x, x)$ we will obtain the same contradiction. However, now the algorithm E will not be attempting to solve the 2HALT problem.)