



Comp2022 cheatsheet

COMP2022 Models of Computation (University of Sydney)



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RE

A language $L \subseteq \Sigma^*$ is called **regular** if $L = L(M)$ for some DFA M , where $L(M)$ is the language produced by that DFA M .

That is, a language is **regular** if every string in it can be accepted by one DFA.

Regular languages are closed under:

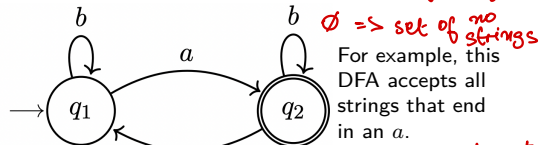
- Complement, if L is regular, then $\Sigma^* \setminus L$ is regular.
- Union, if L_1 and L_2 are regular, then $L_1 \cup L_2$ is regular.
- Intersection, if L_1 and L_2 are regular, then $L_1 \cap L_2$ is regular.
- Concatenation, if L_1 and L_2 are regular, then $L_1 L_2$ is regular.
- Kleene star, if L is regular, then L^* is regular.

For $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$, $(a|b)^*a$ means any string ending in a .

DFA

Deterministic finite automata, has: $\Sigma^*1 \Rightarrow$ all strings ending in 1

- Q : finite set of states $\Sigma^*11 \Rightarrow$ all strings contain a 11
- Σ : alphabet
- $\delta: Q \times \Sigma \rightarrow Q$: transition function $1^*1(1^*01^*)^*$ if $\delta(q, a) = q'$, we write $q \xrightarrow{a} q'$, a transition $\Rightarrow 0$ must read a 1
- $q_0 \in Q$: initial state
- $F \subseteq Q$: final/accepting states $\emptyset \Rightarrow$ empty string of length 0



State	a	b
q1	q2	q1
q2	q2	q1

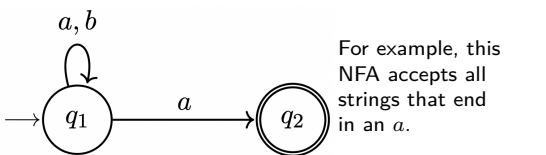
- Membership Problem: For a DFA M and a string w , decide if $w \in L(M)$.
- Non-emptiness Problem: For a DFA M , decide if $L(M) = \emptyset$.
- Equivalence Problem: For two DFAs M_1 and M_2 , decide if $L(M_1) = L(M_2)$.

NFA

Nondeterministic finite automata, has the same ingredients as DFA. NFA is a DFA except states can have zero, one, or more outgoing transitions on the same input symbol.

We also allow epsilon-transitions, which are transitions that do not use the next symbol.

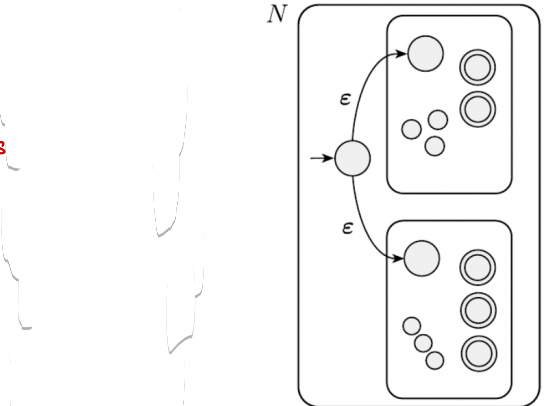
The input is accepted if at least one of its runs is accepting. *• traverse like a tree*



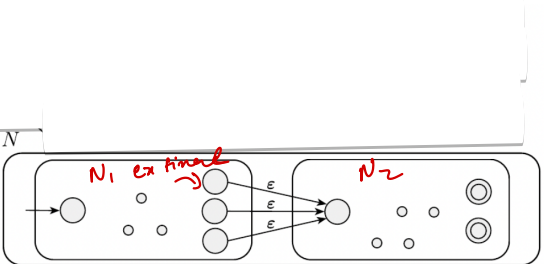
For every DFA M , there is at least one NFA N where $L(M) = L(N)$.

NFAs are closed under complement, union, intersection, concatenation and Kleene star. NFAs only recognise RE.

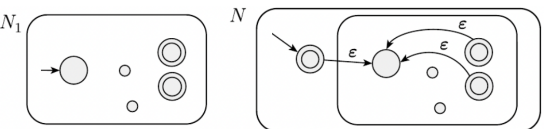
(Union) NFA N that recognises $L(N_1) \cup L(N_2)$:



(Concatenation) NFA N that recognises $L(N_1)L(N_2)$:

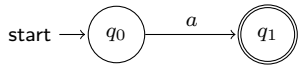


(Kleene star) NFA N that recognises $L(N_1)^*$:



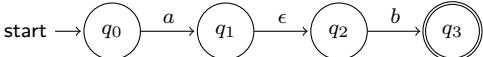
RE to NFA

NFA for $R = a, a \in \Sigma$:

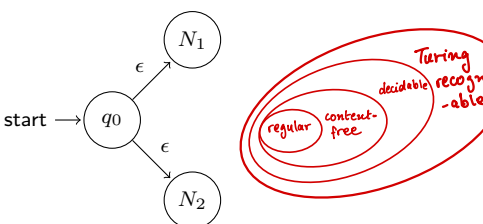


NFA for $R = ab, a, b \in \Sigma$ (concatenation):

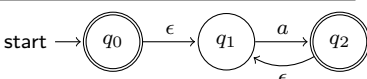
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NFA for $R = a | b, a, b \in \Sigma$ (union):



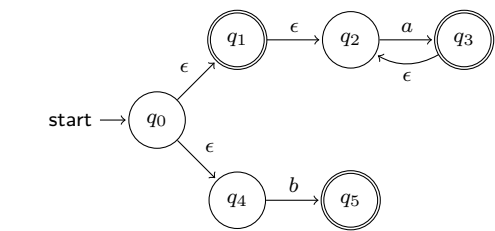
NFA for $R = a^*, a \in \Sigma$ (Kleene star):



We can put these NFA's together to build an NFA that expresses the a required RE.

NFA to NFA without epsilon-transitions $O(n)$

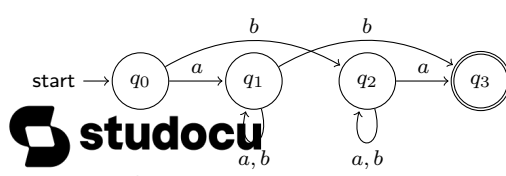
Simply remove all epsilon-transitions, and add final states if necessary. For example:



Note we do not remove states when removing epsilon transitions.

NFA without epsilon-transitions to DFA $O(2^n)$

We make the transition table of the NFA, then relabel states until we have a DFA. For example:



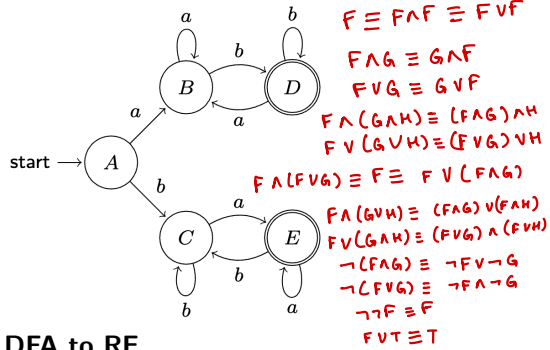
Original NFA:

State	a	b
q0	q1	q2
q1	q1	q1, q3
q2	q2, q3	q2
q1, q3	q1	q1, q3
q2, q3	q2, q3	q2

Relabelling states to get DFA:

State	a	b
A	B	C
B	B	D
C	E	C
D	B	D
E	E	C

Start state is A, or q_0 from NFA. Accept states are D and E, since they had the accept state q_3 from NFA.

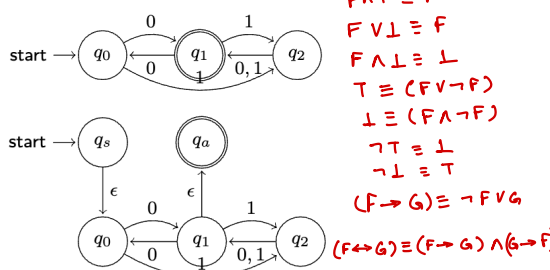


DFA to RE

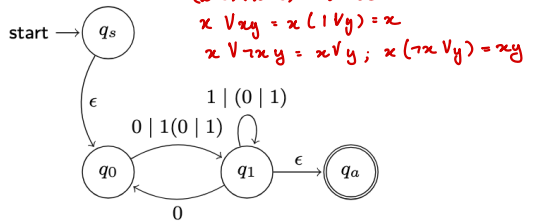
First convert the DFA to a GNFA: $O(4^n)$

- Instead of a, b in a transition, write $a | b$.
- Add initial state and epsilon-transition to original initial state, and final states.

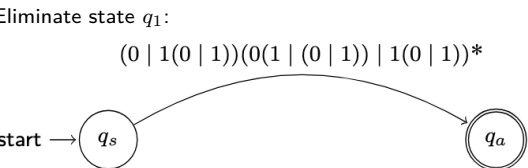
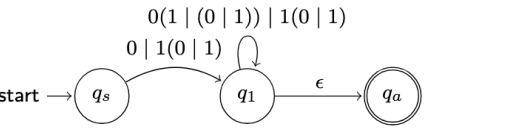
Then eliminate states until only 2 states left with 1 transition. For example:



Eliminate state q_2 :



Eliminate state q_0 :



So we get RE $(0|1(0|1))(0|1|(0|1))^*$
Prove a language is not regular

We can conclude $L(M) \neq L$ for a language L and any DFA M ; if we can find strings x and y that go to the same state in M , then find another string z such that $xz \in L$ but $yz \notin L$.

That is there is no DFA for L and L is not regular.

For example, $L = \{a^n b^n : n \geq 0\}$ is not regular:

- Let $x_i = a^i, i \in \mathbb{N}$
 - For $i \neq j$, let $z = b^i$
 - Then $x_i z = a^i b^i \in L$
 - But $x_j z = a^j b^i \notin L$
- CFG**

Context free grammars, has:

- Variables, S, T
- Terminals (input symbols), a, b, c
- Rules, 3 in this case
- Start variable S

$S \rightarrow aSb$
 $S \rightarrow T$
 $T \rightarrow c$

The grammar derives strings of terminals as following:

- Write the starting variable
- Repeat the following until no variables are written:
 - Pick a variable X that is written down
 - Pick a rule $X \rightarrow \dots$
 - Replace X with the RHS of the rule
- The remaining string is derived from the grammar

For example: $S \Rightarrow T \Rightarrow c$
 $S \Rightarrow aSb \Rightarrow aTb \Rightarrow acb$

Note a leftmost derivation always replaces the leftmost variable in the grammar at step 2(a).

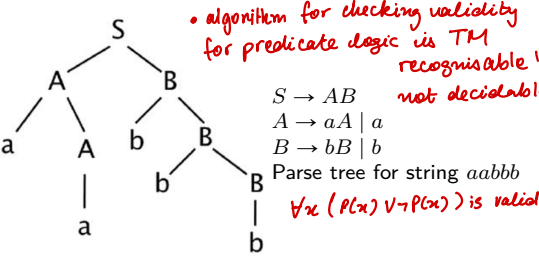
Derivation notation:
 \Rightarrow derives in 1 step

\xRightarrow{n} derives in n steps
 $\xRightarrow{0}$ derives in 0 or more steps
 $\xRightarrow{+}$ derives in 1 or more steps

A language is called context-free if it can be derived from a CFG.

Parse Trees

- Root is labelled by start variable
- Nodes are labelled by variables
- Children are labelled by RHS of a rule
- Leaf nodes are a terminal or ϵ
- Read the string off the leaves, left to right



Ambiguous strings have ≥ 2 parse trees in one CFG. A grammar is ambiguous if it generates at least 1 ambiguous string.

CFG to CNF

A CFG is in Chomsky Normal Form if every rule is in one of these forms:

- $A \rightarrow BC$
- $A \rightarrow a$
- $S \rightarrow \epsilon$

We do **not** allow forms like $A \rightarrow 0A1, A \rightarrow B, A \rightarrow ab$, or the start variable on the RHS.

We can use any amount of $|$ in a CNF.

Note parse trees of a grammar in CNF are binary trees.

Every CFG is guaranteed to have a CNF.

To turn a CFG into CNF:

- START: Eliminate start variable from RHS of all rules
- TERM: Eliminate rules with terminals (except those of form $A \rightarrow a$)
- BIN: Eliminate rules with more than 2 variables
- EPSILON: Eliminate epsilon rules ($A \rightarrow \epsilon$), except $S \rightarrow \epsilon$
- Eliminate unit rules ($A \rightarrow B$)

CYK

Find if any CNF CFG accepts a string. Example, string aabb:

S, T			
aabb			
\emptyset	X		
aab	abb		
\emptyset	S, T	\emptyset	
aa	ab	bb	
A	A	B	B
a	a	b	b

Runs in $O(|w|^3)$ time for fixed CFG, varying w .

TM

- Can only use variables (states) with finite domains
- Has infinite tape, made of cells
- There is a pointer/head on the tape
- The pointer can move left, right or stay still
- The pointer can read and write symbols from a bigger alphabet (tape alphabet, Γ)
- At first, the input string is written on the tape
- Depending on the state, the machine can decide to halt (stop running) and halt-accept or halt-reject
- Deterministic
- The language recognised by TM M is the set of strings it accepts

Each instruction in a TM is of form:

<current state><current symbol><new symbol>
<direction><new state>

E.g. $q_1 a b R q_2$, tells the TM if it reads an a and is in state q_1 , write a b , move right, and change to state q_2 .

Symbols are the tape alphabet Γ , which include the input alphabet Σ and blank $_$.

Directions are L, R, and * (stay still, or S).

The machine stops when it reaches any state starting with "halt", i.e. halt-accept, halt-reject.

A TM can fail to accept an input for 2 reasons:

- its computation is **rejecting**, i.e. halt-reject
- its computation is **diverging**, i.e. it never halts

A language is **Turing-recognisable** if some TM M recognises it, that is it accepts all inputs in $L(M)$, but does not halt for all other inputs.

A language is **Turing-decidable** if some decider (TM that halts on all inputs) recognises it.

A TM runs in time $f(n)$ if $f(n)$ is the largest number of steps taken by the TM for any input of length n .

Must-move TM: Head cannot stay, must move. Every basic TM is equivalent to a must-move TM.

Left-bounded TM: Head starts at left-most cell of the tape, and the head cannot move further left than that point. Every basic TM is equivalent to a left-bounded TM.

Multitape TM: Multiple tapes, each with their own head, heads move simultaneously. Every basic TM is equivalent to a multitape TM.

Decidable languages are closed under complement, union and intersection.

A language is decidable when it and its complement are recognisable.

NTMs: Nondeterministic TM, multiple possible transitions at one state, kinda like NFA.

P vs NP

P: Collection of languages decidable in polynomial time on deterministic TMs. Every RE and context-free language is in P.

NP: Collection of languages decidable in polynomial time on nondeterministic TMs. All languages in P are in NP. The **CLIQUE** problem is in NP. The **halting problem** (given an algorithm/program, find if it will ever halt) is in NP.

Propositional Logic

\wedge conjunction (and), \vee disjunction (or), \neg negation (not).
 \rightarrow implication, \leftrightarrow bi-implication. \top true. \perp false.

An atom is a variable, and a formula is recursively by:

- Every atom is a formula
- If F is formula, $\neg F$ is formula
- If F, G are formula, $F \vee G$ and $F \wedge G$ are formulas

F	G	$(F \rightarrow G)$	
0	0	1	A formula is valid if every assignment satisfies it.
0	1	1	A formula is satisfiable if at least one assignment satisfies it.
1	0	0	Satisfiability problem, decide if a formula is satisfiable, is in NP.
1	1	1	

To show F is a logical consequence \models of E_0, \dots, E_k we use truth tables, see if every assignment that satisfies all formulas E_i also satisfies F .

NNF: Negation Normal Form, where \neg negations only occur in front of atoms

CNF: Conjunctive Normal Form. Conjunction \wedge of clauses (literal or disjunction \vee of literals, a literal being p or $\neg p$).

Predicate Logic

Instead of " x is even" we write $\text{even}(x)$. We cannot compose predicates, e.g. $\text{odd}(\text{prime}(x))$ is not a formula and has no meaning. We can use propositional logic syntax.

We have two quantifiers, $\exists x F$, existential qualifiers (there is an element d in the domain that F is true when d replaces x), and $\forall x F$ for all, universal qualifiers (for all elements d in the domain, F is true when d replaces x).

Bound and free variables ex: $\forall x(P(x, y) \rightarrow \exists y Q(x, y, z))$