CS 9601

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- Theory of Computation
 - Automata, languages & complexity ~50%
 - Advanced undergraduate/first-year graduate level
 - Recommended reference: Sipser's book
- Advanced algorithms
 - Online algorithms, online scheduling ~25%
 - Data structures for text indexing ~25%
 - Graduate level
 - References: research papers

Prerequisite

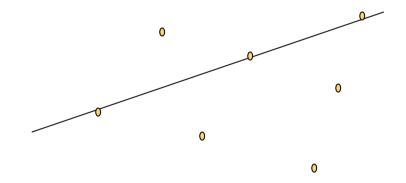
undergraduate-level discrete math, data structures & algorithms

• Examples:

- Logic, universal & existential quantification (for all, there exists), set theory, induction, proof by contradiction, counting, discrete probability, ...
- trees & graphs, graph algorithms, hashing, balanced search trees, string matching, dynamic programming, recursion, recurrence, greedy algorithms ...

Are you ready for this course?

- Given a finite set of n points on the 2-d plane with the following property.
 - For any two points x, y in A, the line containing x and y must contain another point z in A.



To prove: All points in A are on the same line.

All points in A on the same line!?

Is the following induction proof correct? If not, where is the bug?

- By induction on the number of points in A.
 - Basis: |A| = 3. Trivial.
 - Assume the statement is true for |A| = k > 3.
 - Consider the case when |A|=k+1.
- Pick A' of k points of A. Let x be the remaining point.

within the second line Induction hypothesis: All points in A' on the same line.

- Pick a point y in A', the x-y line must contain another point z in A'.
- Thus, x, y & z are on the same line.
- · x and all points in A' on the same line.

A simple observation

Consider a line L passing through 3 or more points, say, a, b, and c.

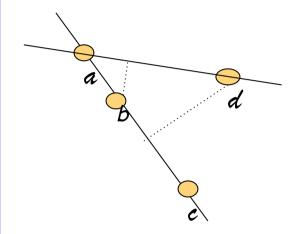
Let d be a point not on L.

Consider the perpendicular from d to L.

• at least 2 points, a and b, are on the same side.

Consider the line L' passing through d & a.

distance (b, L') < distance (d, L).



L, d => L', b =>

Consider a line L passing through 3 or more points, say, a, b, and c.

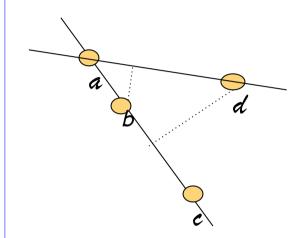
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Consider the line L' passing through d & a.

distance (b, L') < distance (d, L).



Summary: Line L + point d => Line L' + point b And the point-line distance is getting smaller.

Repeat this process. One can keep reducing the distance.

Doesn't make sense! Because A is finite.

Formal proof next page.

Proof by contradiction

Suppose for the sake of contradiction that the n points in A are not all on a line.

Consider any line L passing through 2 points A. Let d be a point in A not on L.

Since A is finite, we can choose L and d such that distance(L,d) is the smallest.

By the previous observation,

there exists a line L' passing through 2 points in A and a point b with distance (L',b) < distance (L,d).

This contradicts that distance (L,d) is the smallest.

$n^2 = O(n)$!? Does it make sense?

Consider the following mathematical induction.

Base case: when n=1, $n^2 = n = O(n)$.

Induction step:

Assume that $n^2 = O(n)$ for any $n \ge 1$.

Consider the case for n+1:

$$(n+1)^2 = n^2 + 2n + 1 = O(n) + 2n + 1 = O(n)$$
.

Induction hypothesis

Anything wrong?

Course Objectives

- To stimulate your interest in theoretical CS and to update you on some interesting research in theoretical CS.
- · To give you a flavor of rigorous mathematical analysis in CS.
- I hope that at the end of this course, you would have better skills of analyzing problems & algorithms.

Challenge: try to follow my lecture (including notations, lemmas/theorems, proofs, etc) and raise questions when you have doubt.

Automata, Computability and Complexity

 Capabilities & limitations of computers; in particular, theory for explaining why some problems are so hard to solve.

- <u>Decision</u> problem: determine whether a number is prime; the answer is "yes" or "no"
- Computing a <u>function</u>: find the maximum matching of a graph.

- (a) No algorithm can solve the problem.
- (b) Algorithms exist, but they take too much time (or memory).

Basics (Formal language)

- An alphabet, usually denoted by Σ or Γ , is a set of symbols.
 - E.g., $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}; \Sigma = \{a,b,c,d,...,x,y,z\}.$
- · A string over an alphabet is a sequence of symbols from that alphabet.
 - E.g., 10111001 is a string over the alphabet {0,1};
 - "computers" is a string over the alphabet {a,b,.., y,z}.
- The length of a string is the number of symbols in the string.
 - The length of "computers" is 9.
- The null string or empty string is a string of length 0.

 Σ^* denotes the set of all possible strings over the alphabet Σ , including the empty string.

 Σ^{i} , where $i \ge 1$, denotes the set of strings of length exactly i. E.g., $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$, and $\Sigma^{2} = \{00, 10, 11, 01\}$

A language L over an alphabet Σ is a set of strings over Σ . I.e., $L \subseteq \Sigma^*$.

- E.g., $\Sigma = \{a,b,c,d,...,x,y,z\}$; $L_1 = \{algorithms, complexity, computer, PC, unix\}$; $L_2 = \{w \in \Sigma^* \mid w \text{ contains an "a"}\}$
- E.g., $\Sigma = \{ 0, 1 \}$; $L_3 = \{ w \in \Sigma^* \mid w \text{ is a prime binary number } \}$

Languages versus decision problems

- Decision problem: Given a binary string x, determine whether x is prime.
- · Language acceptance problem:

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Let L = \{ w \in \Sigma^* \mid w \text{ is a prime binary number } \}.
Given a binary string x, determine whether x \text{ is an element} of L.
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• Note that $x \in L$ if and only if x is prime.

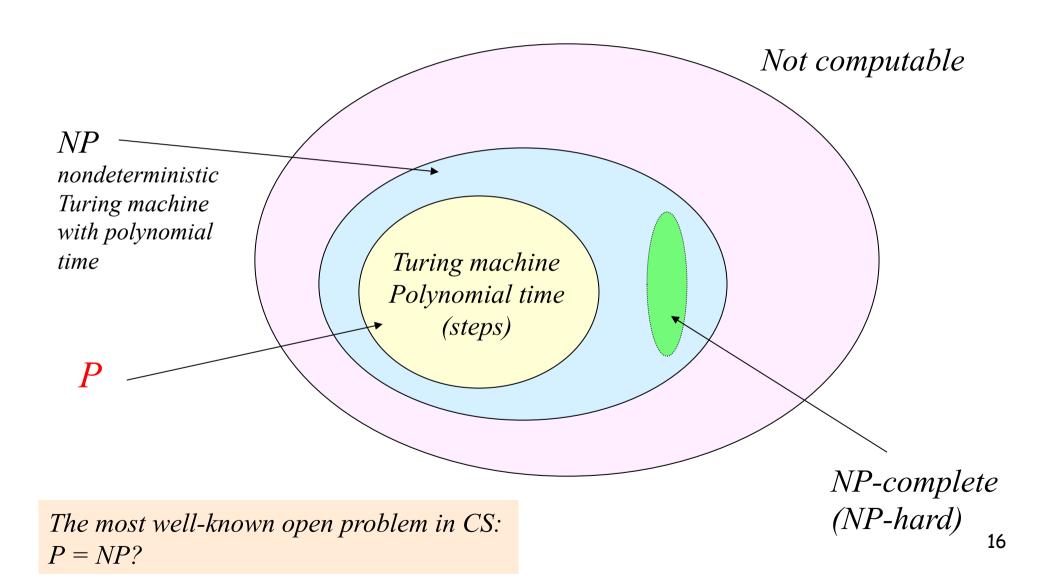
In general, any decision problem can be formulated as a <u>language acceptance problem</u>.

- Let P be any decision problem; assume the input is a string over an alphabet Σ .
 - The answer to P with respect to any input $\mathbf{w} \in \Sigma^*$ is either "YES" or "NO".
- The corresponding language L is $\{w \in \Sigma^* \mid \text{the answer to P w.r.t. input } w \text{ is "YES" }\}.$ NB. L includes all positive instances of P.
- An algorithm that accepts (decides) correctly the elements of L also solves the problem P.

Modeling computation

- We will study three models of computation: finite automata, pushdown automata and Turing machines.
- They are very simple; their computation can be argued mathematically.
- Finite automata are primitive, modelling computers with very limited memory.
- Turing machines are more powerful and can model the computation of a PC or any computer.
- Based on Turing machines, we can easily study the limitation of computers, showing that some problems cannot be solved by computers.

Computability & Complexity



Today's lecture

- A succinct review of finite automata, which is the simplest computational model.
- Key feature:
 - formal definitions
 - nondeterministic computation
 - limitation of finite automata.

Finite Automata

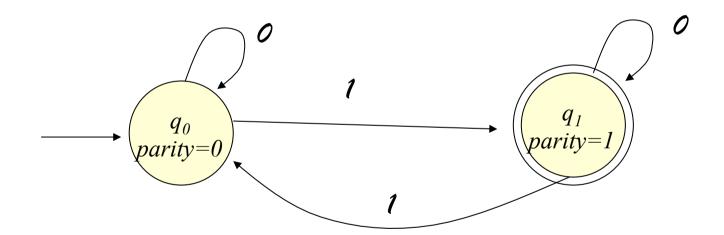


The control - At any time an automaton is in a particular state. In one step, it reads an input.

- Depending on <u>what is read</u> and the <u>current state</u>, the machine jumps to another state.
- The number of possible states is <u>fixed</u> in advance, i.e., independent of the input.
- The state transition (which state to jump) is pre-specified by a function (table).

Example

 A finite automaton for checking whether the input is a <u>binary</u> string with odd parity.



q₁ is the **final state**; final states are represented by double circles

E.g.,
$$input = 11011 \text{ (stops at } q_0; rejected)$$

 $input = 11011001 \text{ (stops at } q_1; accepted)$

Formal definition

A finite automaton M = (Q, Σ , f, q_0 , F) consists of

- · a finite set Q of states,
- a finite input alphabet Σ ,

What are the possible input symbols?

- a transition function $f: Q \times \Sigma \to Q$ that assigns a state (i.e., the next state) to each combination of state and input,
- a starting state q_0
- A set $F \subseteq Q$ of final states

Computation

Given a finite automaton M, how does it operate?

First, M starts off in the starting state q_0 .

Assume that $w = x_1 x_2 x_3 \dots x_n$ is the input, where each $x_i \in \Sigma$.

M reads the input symbols one by one.

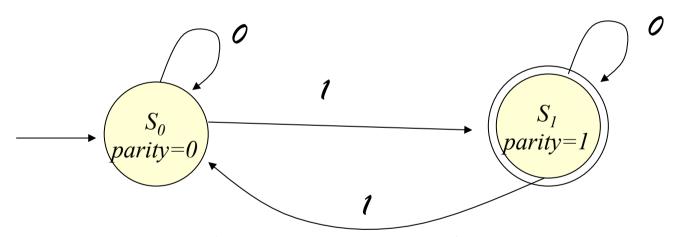
- After reading x_1 , M jumps to state $q = f(q_0, x_1)$.
- Next, M reads x_2 and jumps to state $q' = f(q, x_2)$.
- Next, M reads x_3 and jumps to state $q'' = f(q', x_3)$.
- ...
- Next, M reads x_n and jumps to state $q^{**} = f(q^*, x_n)$.
- The computation ends. If q^{**} is in F then w is said to be accepted (otherwise, rejected).

Transition function

can be represented by a table or a diagram.

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S₁ is the final state; final states are represented by **double circles**

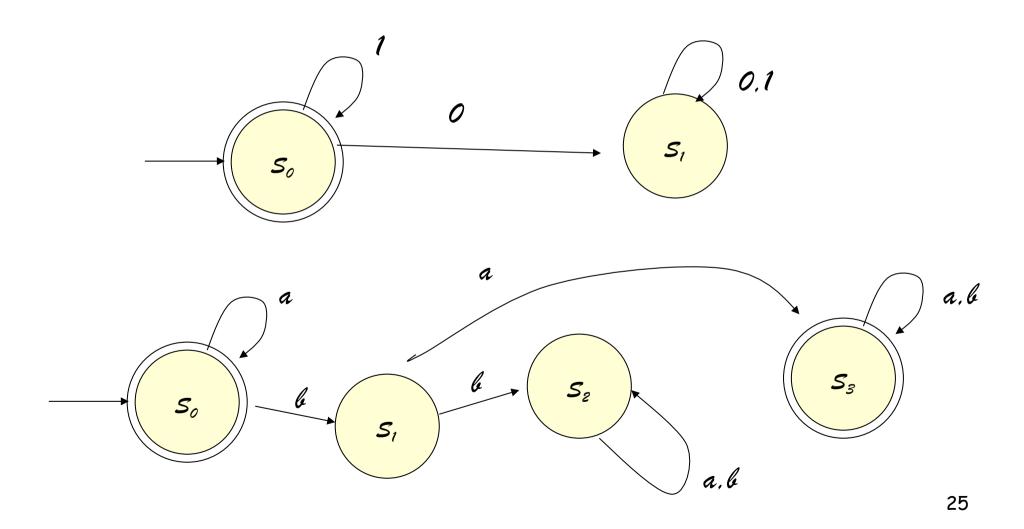
E.g., $input = 11011 \text{ (stops at } S_0; rejected)$ $input = 11011001 \text{ (stops at } S_1; accepted)$

How to signal the acceptance of input?

- Some of the states in the automaton are marked as final states.
- If the automaton, after reading the entire input, stops at a final state, the input is said to be <u>accepted</u> (Yes);
- if the automaton stops at a non-final state, the input is said to be <u>rejected</u> (No).

More examples

What are the inputs accepted by the following finite automata?



Definition of acceptance

Let $M = (Q, \Sigma, f, q_0, F)$ be a finite state automaton.

Let $w = x_1 x_2 \dots x_n$ be a string with n characters over Σ .

With w as the input, M will visit a sequence of states r_0 , r_1 , r_2 , ... r_n such that

- $r_0 = q_0$
- $\mathbf{r}_{i+1} = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{r}_i, \mathbf{x}_{i+1})$ for i = 0, 1, 2, ..., n-1

We say that M accepts w if r_n is in F. Otherwise, M rejects w.

Languages

- Recall that a language is a subset of strings over a certain alphabet.
- The language accepted (recognized) by finite state automaton M comprises all the input strings over Σ that are accepted by M.

I.e.,
$$L(M) = \{ w \mid M \text{ accepts } w \}.$$

DFA

Nondeterministic finite automaton

- The finite automata discussed so far are <u>deterministic</u> in the sense that given any pair of state and input, an automaton goes to a unique state in the next step (because f is a function).
- A <u>nondeterministic finite automaton</u> is more flexible, allowing <u>more</u> than one <u>possible next state</u>.

NFA

DFA

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 NFA

 $E.g., f(q_0, b) = \{q_0, q_1\}$ g_0 g_1 g_2 g_3 g_4 g_4 g_5 g_6 g_7 g_8 g_8 g_8 g_9 g_1 g_1 g_2 g_3 g_4 g_8 g_9 g_1 g_1 g_2 g_3 g_4 g_8 g_8 g_9 g_1 g_1 g_2 g_3 g_4 g_8 g_8 g_8 g_9 g_1 g_1 g_2 g_3 g_4 g_8 g_8 g_8 g_9 g_1 g_8 g_8 g_8 g_8 g_9 g_9

NFA

Formal definition

A nondeterministic finite automaton $M = (Q, \Sigma, f, q_0, F)$ consists of

- a finite set Q of states, an input alphabet Σ ,
- a transition function f that assigns a set of states to each pair of state and input
- a starting state q_0 , and a set of $F \subseteq Q$ of final states.

NFA

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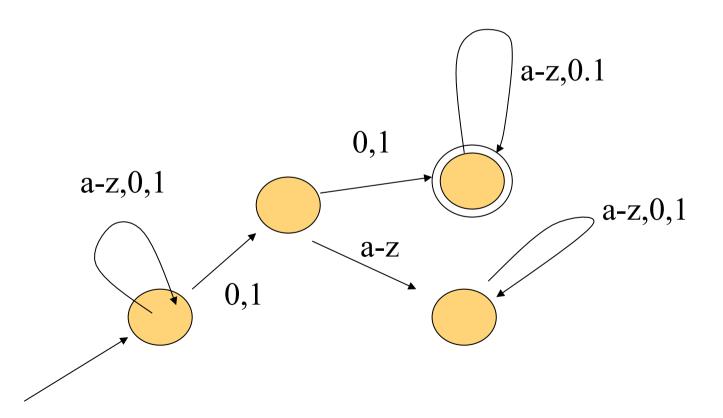
Given an input x, M can <u>take different sequence of moves</u>, <u>stopping</u> <u>at different states</u>. Some of these states may be final and others may not.

We say that x is accepted if, among all the states at which M can stop, there is one in F.

An NFA also defines a language, which comprises all the input strings it accepts.

Example

 Design an NFA to accept the set of strings of lower-case letters or digits containing at least two consecutive digits.



NFA more powerful than DFA?

- Is there a decision problem that can be solved by an NFA but not by a DFA?
- Is there a language that be accepted by an NFA but not by a DFA?
- The answer is NO.

Theorem Let M be any NFA accepting a language L. Then there exists a DFA M' that can accept exactly all strings of L.

Proof: Subset construction

- Consider any NFA M = (Q, Σ, f, q_0, F) . Let *n* be the number of states in M. Note that *n* is a constant.
- After reading some input symbols, M can possibly reach more than one state, more precisely, a certain subset of states.
 - How many possible subsets of states M can reach?

Proof: Subset construction

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How many possible subsets of states M can reach?

Answer: at most 2^n , which is also a constant.

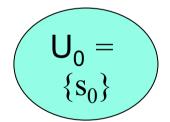
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 - How many possible subsets of states M can reach?
 - Answer: at most 2^n , which is also a constant.
- E.g., n=10. There are 1024 different subsets of states. No matter what is the input, the subset of states M can reach is one of these 1024 subsets.
- By definition, an input x is accepted by M means that one of the states at which M stops is a final state (i.e., in F).

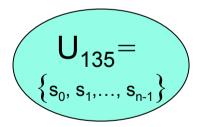
DFA

We construct a DFA M' to simulate any given NFA M as follows:

- Let $M = (Q, \Sigma, f, q_0, F)$, and let $Q = \{s_0, s_1, ..., s_{n-1}\}$ be the set of states of M.
- Define $M' = (Q', \Sigma, f', U_0, F')$ to be a DFA with 2^n states, each state $\in Q'$ represents a subset of Q.
- · Example. We use the symbol U to denote a state in Q'



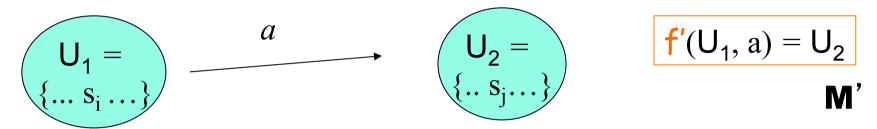
$$\begin{pmatrix}
U_1 = \\
\{s_2, s_8\}
\end{pmatrix}$$



Intuitively, M' uses one state to memorize all the possible states that can be reached in M.

DFA

Let U_1 be a "state" of M'. For any a in Σ , how to define $f'(U_1, a)$?



 $f'(U_1, \alpha) = U_2$ if and only if

 U_2 represents the subset $\{s_j \mid s_j \in f(s_i,a) \text{ for some state } s_i \text{ in } U_1 \}$.



M' simulates M

- What is the starting state of M'? $U_0 = \{s_0\}$.
- Which are the final states of M'? All the states U in Q' such that $U \subseteq Q$ and U contains a state in F.

Lemma. On any input x, M can reach a <u>subset</u> U of states $\Leftrightarrow M'$ can reach the <u>state</u> U.

NB. This can be proven using an induction on the length of x.

Corollary. M accepts $x \Leftrightarrow U$ contains a state in F

- ⇔ U is a final state of M'
- \Leftrightarrow M' accepts x.

Limitation of finite automata

Let L be the set of strings aa...aaabb...bbbwhich contain the same number of a's and b's.

I.e., $L = \{ab, aabb, aaabbb, \}$.

Notation: Let a' denote the string with i a's.

??? Construct a DNA or NFA to accept L.

In other words, we want a finite automaton to check the number of a's and b's.

No, such an automaton doesn't exist.

NB. Roughly speaking, DFA has no memory to store a counter.

Proof (by contradiction)

Suppose that there is a DFA M accepting L.

Assume that M has n states and the starting state is s_0 . Note that n is a constant.

Consider the string $x = a^n b^n$. By definition, M should accept x.

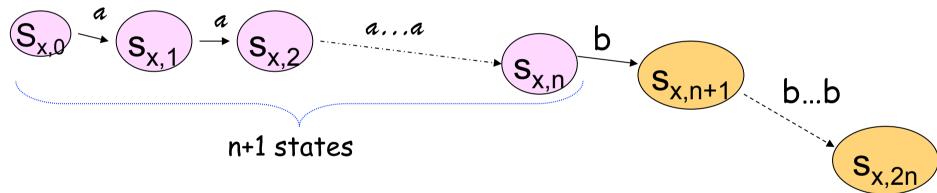
Denote the state of M after reading the 1st symbol of x as $s_{x,1}$.

And similarly, $s_{x,2}$, ..., $s_{x,k}$ for the 2nd symbol, ..., k-th symbol, respectively.

For convenience, we denote $s_{x,0} = s_0$.

The pigeonhole principle

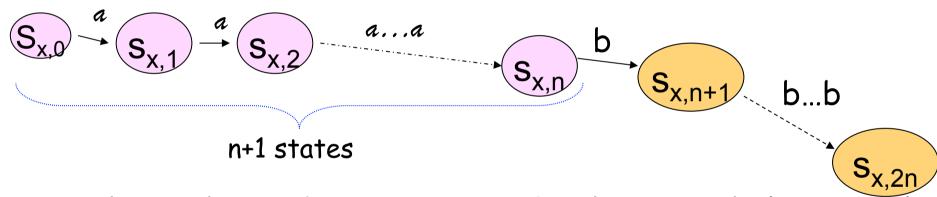
Consider the states s_0 , $s_{x,1}$, $s_{x,2}$, ..., $s_{x,n}$, $s_{x,n+1}$, ..., $s_{x,2n}$. Since M accepts x, $s_{x,2n}$ is a final state of M.



Note that M has n distinct states. By the pigeonhole principle, there exist $0 \le j < k \le n$ such that $s_{x,j} = s_{x,k}$

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What can we conclude?

Let m = k-j. M accepts the string $a^{n-m} b^n$.

What about an+mbn?

A contradiction occurs.

Pumping Lemma

Theorem Let L be a language that can be accepted by a DFA M with n states. For any string s in L of length at least n, s can be divided into three pieces, s = xyz such that

- |y| > 0,
- $|xy| \le n$, and
- for all $i \ge 0$, xy^iz is in L.



Exercise: prove it yourself, or read the proof from somewhere (say, Sipser Chapter 1).