

Week9 friday

Recall: A is **mapping reducible to** B , written $A \leq_m B$, means there is a computable function $f : \Sigma^* \rightarrow \Sigma^*$ such that *for all* strings x in Σ^* ,

$$x \in A \quad \text{if and only if} \quad f(x) \in B.$$

$$EQ_{TM} = \{\langle M, M' \rangle \mid M \text{ and } M' \text{ are both Turing machines and } L(M) = L(M')\}$$

Example string in EQ_{TM} is _____. Example string not in EQ_{TM} is _____.

EQ_{TM} is decidable / undecidable and recognizable / unrecognizable .

$\overline{EQ_{TM}}$ is decidable / undecidable and recognizable / unrecognizable .

To prove, show that _____ $\leq_m EQ_{TM}$ and that _____ $\leq_m \overline{EQ_{TM}}$.

Verifying correctness:

Input string	Output string
$\langle M, w \rangle$ where M halts on w	
$\langle M, w \rangle$ where M loops on w	
x not encoding any pair of TM and string	

In practice, computers (and Turing machines) don't have infinite tape, and we can't afford to wait unboundedly long for an answer. "Decidable" isn't good enough - we want "Efficiently decidable".

For a given algorithm working on a given input, how long do we need to wait for an answer? How does the running time depend on the input in the worst-case? average-case? We expect to have to spend more time on computations with larger inputs.

A language is **recognizable** if _____

A language is **decidable** if _____

A language is **efficiently decidable** if _____

A function is **computable** if _____

A function is **efficiently computable** if _____

Definition (Sipser 7.1): For M a deterministic decider, its **running time** is the function $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ given by

$$f(n) = \max \text{ number of steps } M \text{ takes before halting, over all inputs of length } n$$

Definition (Sipser 7.7): For each function $t(n)$, the **time complexity class** $TIME(t(n))$, is defined by

$$TIME(t(n)) = \{L \mid L \text{ is decidable by a Turing machine with running time in } O(t(n))\}$$

An example of an element of $TIME(1)$ is

An example of an element of $TIME(n)$ is

Note: $TIME(1) \subseteq TIME(n) \subseteq TIME(n^2)$

Definition (Sipser 7.12) : P is the class of languages that are decidable in polynomial time on a deterministic 1-tape Turing machine

$$P = \bigcup_k TIME(n^k)$$

Compare to exponential time: brute-force search.

Theorem (Sipser 7.8): Let $t(n)$ be a function with $t(n) \geq n$. Then every $t(n)$ time deterministic multitape Turing machine has an equivalent $O(t^2(n))$ time deterministic 1-tape Turing machine.

Week4 wednesday

Regular sets are not the end of the story

- Many nice / simple / important sets are not regular
- Limitation of the finite-state automaton model: Can't "count", Can only remember finitely far into the past, Can't backtrack, Must make decisions in "real-time"
- We know actual computers are more powerful than this model...

The **next** model of computation. Idea: allow some memory of unbounded size. How?

- To generalize regular expressions: **context-free grammars**
- To generalize NFA: **Pushdown automata**, which is like an NFA with access to a stack: Number of states is fixed, number of entries in stack is unbounded. At each step (1) Transition to new state based on current state, letter read, and top letter of stack, then (2) (Possibly) push or pop a letter to (or from) top of stack. Accept a string iff there is some sequence of states and some sequence of stack contents which helps the PDA process the entire input string and ends in an accepting state.

Is there a PDA that recognizes the nonregular language $\{0^n 1^n \mid n \geq 0\}$?



The PDA with state diagram above can be informally described as:

Read symbols from the input. As each 0 is read, push it onto the stack. As soon as 1s are seen, pop a 0 off the stack for each 1 read. If the stack becomes empty and we are at the end of the input string, accept the input. If the stack becomes empty and there are 1s left to read, or if 1s are finished while the stack still contains 0s, or if any 0s appear in the string following 1s, reject the input.

Trace the computation of this PDA on the input string 01.

Trace the computation of this PDA on the input string 011.

A PDA recognizing the set { } can be informally described as:

Read symbols from the input. As each 0 is read, push it onto the stack. As soon as 1s are seen, pop a 0 off the stack for each 1 read. If the stack becomes empty and there is exactly one 1 left to read, read that 1 and accept the input. If the stack becomes empty and there are either zero or more than one 1s left to read, or if the 1s are finished while the stack still contains 0s, or if any 0s appear in the input following 1s, reject the input.

Modify the state diagram below to get a PDA that implements this description:



Definition A **pushdown automaton** (PDA) is specified by a 6-tuple $(Q, \Sigma, \Gamma, \delta, q_0, F)$ where Q is the finite set of states, Σ is the input alphabet, Γ is the stack alphabet,

$$\delta : Q \times \Sigma_\epsilon \times \Gamma_\epsilon \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(Q \times \Gamma_\epsilon)$$

is the transition function, $q_0 \in Q$ is the start state, $F \subseteq Q$ is the set of accept states.

Draw the state diagram and give the formal definition of a PDA with $\Sigma = \Gamma$.

Draw the state diagram and give the formal definition of a PDA with $\Sigma \cap \Gamma = \emptyset$.

Extra practice: Consider the state diagram of a PDA with input alphabet Σ and stack alphabet Γ .

Label	means
$a, b; c$ when $a \in \Sigma, b \in \Gamma, c \in \Gamma$	
$a, \varepsilon; c$ when $a \in \Sigma, c \in \Gamma$	
$a, b; \varepsilon$ when $a \in \Sigma, b \in \Gamma$	
$a, \varepsilon; \varepsilon$ when $a \in \Sigma$	

How does the meaning change if a is replaced by ε ?

Note: alternate notation is to replace ; with \rightarrow

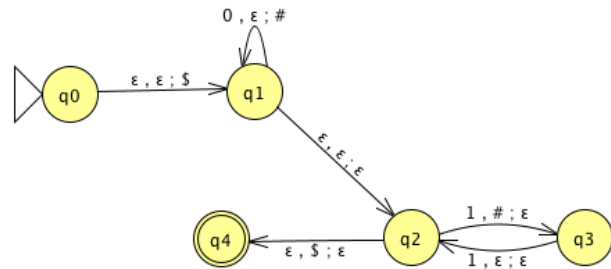
Week4 friday

For the PDA state diagrams below, $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$.

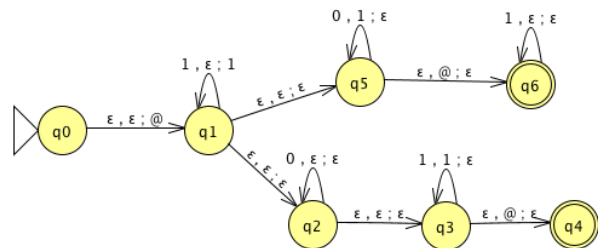
Mathematical description of language

State diagram of PDA recognizing language

$\Gamma = \{\$, \#\}$



$\Gamma = \{ @, 1 \}$



$$\{0^i 1^j 0^k \mid i, j, k \geq 0\}$$

Big picture: PDAs were motivated by wanting to add some memory of unbounded size to NFA. How do we accomplish a similar enhancement of regular expressions to get a syntactic model that is more expressive?

DFA, NFA, PDA: Machines process one input string at a time; the computation of a machine on its input string reads the input from left to right.

Regular expressions: Syntactic descriptions of all strings that match a particular pattern; the language described by a regular expression is built up recursively according to the expression’s syntax

Context-free grammars: Rules to produce one string at a time, adding characters from the middle, beginning, or end of the final string as the derivation proceeds.

Term	Typical symbol	Definition
Context-free grammar (CFG)	G	$G = (V, \Sigma, R, S)$
Variables	V	Finite set of symbols that represent phases in production pattern
Terminals	Σ	Alphabet of symbols of strings generated by CFG $V \cap \Sigma = \emptyset$
Rules	R	Each rule is $A \rightarrow u$ with $A \in V$ and $u \in (V \cup \Sigma)^*$
Start variable	S	Usually on LHS of first / topmost rule
Derivation	$S \implies \dots \implies w$	Sequence of substitutions in a CFG Start with start variable, apply one rule to one occurrence of a variable at a time
Language generated by the CFG G	$L(G)$	$\{w \in \Sigma^* \mid \text{there is derivation in } G \text{ that ends in } w\} = \{w \in \Sigma^* \mid S \implies^* w\}$
Context-free language		A language that is the language generated by some CFG
Sipser pages 102-103		

Examples of context-free grammars, derivations in those grammars, and the languages generated by those grammars

$G_1 = (\{S\}, \{0\}, R, S)$ with rules

$$\begin{aligned} S &\rightarrow 0S \\ S &\rightarrow 0 \end{aligned}$$

In $L(G_1)$...

Not in $L(G_1)$...

$$G_2 = (\{S\}, \{0, 1\}, R, S)$$

$$S \rightarrow 0S \mid 1S \mid \varepsilon$$

In $L(G_2) \dots$

Not in $L(G_2) \dots$

$(\{S, T\}, \{0, 1\}, R, S)$ with rules

$$S \rightarrow T1T1T1T$$

$$T \rightarrow 0T \mid 1T \mid \varepsilon$$

In $L(G_3) \dots$

Not in $L(G_3) \dots$

$G_4 = (\{A, B\}, \{0, 1\}, R, A)$ with rules

$$A \rightarrow 0A0 \mid 0A1 \mid 1A0 \mid 1A1 \mid 1$$

In $L(G_4) \dots$

Not in $L(G_4) \dots$

Extra practice: Is there a CFG G with $L(G) = \emptyset$?

Week6 friday

Nondeterministic Turing machine

At any point in the computation, the nondeterministic machine may proceed according to several possibilities: $(Q, \Sigma, \Gamma, \delta, q_0, q_{acc}, q_{rej})$ where

$$\delta : Q \times \Gamma \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(Q \times \Gamma \times \{L, R\})$$

The computation of a nondeterministic Turing machine is a tree with branching when the next step of the computation has multiple possibilities. A nondeterministic Turing machine accepts a string exactly when some branch of the computation tree enters the accept state.

Given a nondeterministic machine, we can use a 3-tape Turing machine to simulate it by doing a breadth-first search of computation tree: one tape is “read-only” input tape, one tape simulates the tape of the nondeterministic computation, and one tape tracks nondeterministic branching. Sipser page 178

Two models of computation are called **equally expressive** when every language recognizable with the first model is recognizable with the second, and vice versa.

Church-Turing Thesis (Sipser p. 183): The informal notion of algorithm is formalized completely and correctly by the formal definition of a Turing machine. In other words: all reasonably expressive models of computation are equally expressive with the standard Turing machine.

A language L is **recognized by** a Turing machine M means

A Turing machine M **recognizes** a language L if means

A Turing machine M is a **decider** means

A language L is **decided by** a Turing machine M means

A Turing machine M **decides** a language L means

Fix $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$, $\Gamma = \{0, 1, \sqcup\}$ for the Turing machines with the following state diagrams:

 <p>Decider? Yes / No</p>	 <p>Decider? Yes / No</p>
 <p>Decider? Yes / No</p>	 <p>Decider? Yes / No</p>

Claim: If two languages (over a fixed alphabet Σ) are Turing-recognizable, then their union is as well.

Proof using Turing machines:

Proof using nondeterministic Turing machines:

Proof using enumerators:

Describing Turing machines (Sipser p. 185)

To define a Turing machine, we could give a

- **Formal definition:** the 7-tuple of parameters including set of states, input alphabet, tape alphabet, transition function, start state, accept state, and reject state; or,
- **Implementation-level definition:** English prose that describes the Turing machine head movements relative to contents of tape, and conditions for accepting / rejecting based on those contents.
- **High-level description:** description of algorithm (precise sequence of instructions), without implementation details of machine. As part of this description, can “call” and run another TM as a subroutine.

The Church-Turing thesis posits that each algorithm can be implemented by some Turing machine

High-level descriptions of Turing machine algorithms are written as indented text within quotation marks.

Stages of the algorithm are typically numbered consecutively.

The first line specifies the input to the machine, which must be a string. This string may be the encoding of some object or list of objects.

Notation: $\langle O \rangle$ is the string that encodes the object O . $\langle O_1, \dots, O_n \rangle$ is the string that encodes the list of objects O_1, \dots, O_n .

Assumption: There are Turing machines that can be called as subroutines to decode the string representations of common objects and interact with these objects as intended (data structures).

For example, since there are algorithms to answer each of the following questions, by Church-Turing thesis, there is a Turing machine that accepts exactly those strings for which the answer to the question is “yes”

- Does a string over $\{0, 1\}$ have even length?
- Does a string over $\{0, 1\}$ encode a string of ASCII characters?¹
- Does a DFA have a specific number of states?
- Do two NFAs have any state names in common?
- Do two CFGs have the same start variable?

¹An introduction to ASCII is available on the w3 tutorial here.

Week3 monday

Warmup: Design a DFA (deterministic finite automaton) and an NFA (nondeterministic finite automaton) that each recognize each of the following languages over $\{a, b\}$

$$\{w \mid w \text{ has an } a \text{ and ends in } b\}$$

$$\{w \mid w \text{ has an } a \text{ or ends in } b\}$$

Strategy: To design DFA or NFA for a given language, identify patterns that can be built up as we process string and create states for intermediate stages. Or: decompose the language to a simpler one that we already know how to recognize with a DFA or NFA.

Recall (from Wednesday of last week, and in textbook Exercise 1.14): if there is a DFA M such that $L(M) = A$ then there is another DFA, let's call it M' , such that $L(M') = \overline{A}$, the complement of A , defined as $\{w \in \Sigma^* \mid w \notin A\}$.

Let's practice defining automata constructions by coming up with other ways to get new automata from old.

Suppose A_1, A_2 are languages over an alphabet Σ . **Claim:** if there is a NFA N_1 such that $L(N_1) = A_1$ and NFA N_2 such that $L(N_2) = A_2$, then there is another NFA, let's call it N , such that $L(N) = A_1 \cup A_2$.

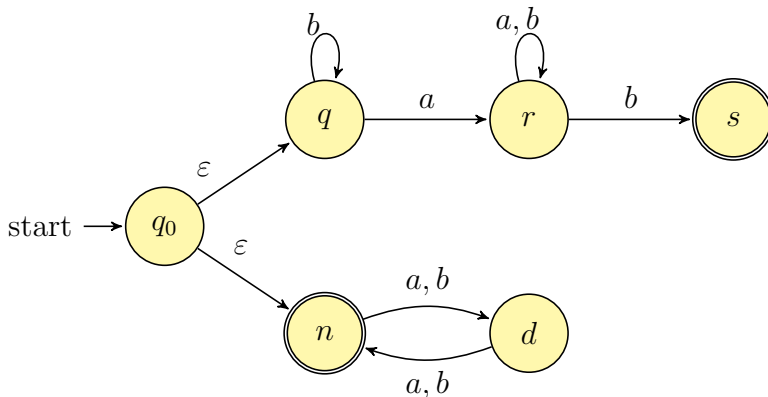
Proof idea: Use nondeterminism to choose which of N_1, N_2 to run.

Formal construction: Let $N_1 = (Q_1, \Sigma, \delta_1, q_1, F_1)$ and $N_2 = (Q_2, \Sigma, \delta_2, q_2, F_2)$ and assume $Q_1 \cap Q_2 = \emptyset$ and that $q_0 \notin Q_1 \cup Q_2$. Construct $N = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F_1 \cup F_2)$ where

- $Q =$
- $\delta : Q \times \Sigma_\epsilon \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(Q)$ is defined by, for $q \in Q$ and $x \in \Sigma_\epsilon$:

Proof of correctness would prove that $L(N) = A_1 \cup A_2$ by considering an arbitrary string accepted by N , tracing an accepting computation of N on it, and using that trace to prove the string is in at least one of A_1, A_2 ; then, taking an arbitrary string in $A_1 \cup A_2$ and proving that it is accepted by N . Details left for extra practice.

Example: The language recognized by the NFA over $\{a, b\}$ with state diagram



is:

Could we do the same construction with DFA?

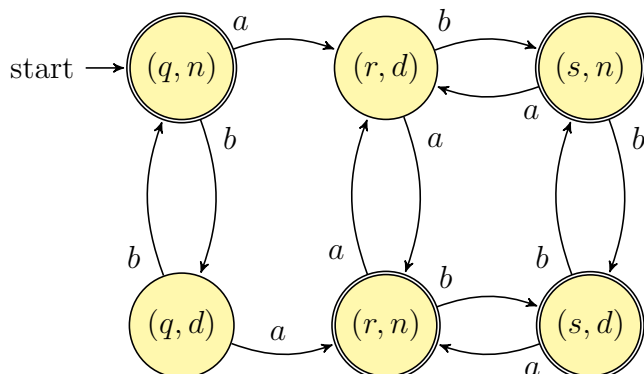
Happily, though, an analogous claim is true!

Suppose A_1, A_2 are languages over an alphabet Σ . **Claim:** if there is a DFA M_1 such that $L(M_1) = A_1$ and DFA M_2 such that $L(M_2) = A_2$, then there is another DFA, let's call it M , such that $L(M) = A_1 \cup A_2$.
Theorem 1.25 in Sipser, page 45

Proof idea:

Formal construction:

Example: When $A_1 = \{w \mid w \text{ has an } a \text{ and ends in } b\}$ and $A_2 = \{w \mid w \text{ is of even length}\}$.



Suppose A_1, A_2 are languages over an alphabet Σ . **Claim:** if there is a DFA M_1 such that $L(M_1) = A_1$ and DFA M_2 such that $L(M_2) = A_2$, then there is another DFA, let's call it M , such that $L(M) = A_1 \cap A_2$.
Sipser Theorem 1.25, page 45

Proof idea:

Formal construction:

Week3 wednesday

So far we have that:

- If there is a DFA recognizing a language, there is a DFA recognizing its complement.
- If there are NFA recognizing two languages, there is a NFA recognizing their union.
- If there are DFA recognizing two languages, there is a DFA recognizing their union.
- If there are DFA recognizing two languages, there is a DFA recognizing their intersection.

Our goals for today are (1) prove similar results about other set operations, (2) prove that NFA and DFA are equally expressive, and therefore (3) define an important class of languages.

Suppose A_1, A_2 are languages over an alphabet Σ . **Claim:** if there is a NFA N_1 such that $L(N_1) = A_1$ and NFA N_2 such that $L(N_2) = A_2$, then there is another NFA, let's call it N , such that $L(N) = A_1 \circ A_2$.

Proof idea: Allow computation to move between N_1 and N_2 “spontaneously” when reach an accepting state of N_1 , guessing that we've reached the point where the two parts of the string in the set-wise concatenation are glued together.

Formal construction: Let $N_1 = (Q_1, \Sigma, \delta_1, q_1, F_1)$ and $N_2 = (Q_2, \Sigma, \delta_2, q_2, F_2)$ and assume $Q_1 \cap Q_2 = \emptyset$. Construct $N = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$ where

- $Q =$
- $q_0 =$
- $F =$
- $\delta : Q \times \Sigma_\epsilon \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(Q)$ is defined by, for $q \in Q$ and $a \in \Sigma_\epsilon$:

$$\delta((q, a)) = \begin{cases} \delta_1((q, a)) & \text{if } q \in Q_1 \text{ and } q \notin F_1 \\ \delta_1((q, a)) & \text{if } q \in F_1 \text{ and } a \in \Sigma \\ \delta_1((q, a)) \cup \{q_2\} & \text{if } q \in F_1 \text{ and } a = \epsilon \\ \delta_2((q, a)) & \text{if } q \in Q_2 \end{cases}$$

Proof of correctness would prove that $L(N) = A_1 \circ A_2$ by considering an arbitrary string accepted by N , tracing an accepting computation of N on it, and using that trace to prove the string can be written as the result of concatenating two strings, the first in A_1 and the second in A_2 ; then, taking an arbitrary string in $A_1 \circ A_2$ and proving that it is accepted by N . Details left for extra practice.

Suppose A is a language over an alphabet Σ . **Claim:** if there is a NFA N such that $L(N) = A$, then there is another NFA, let's call it N' , such that $L(N') = A^*$.

Proof idea: Add a fresh start state, which is an accept state. Add spontaneous moves from each (old) accept state to the old start state.

Formal construction: Let $N = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_1, F)$ and assume $q_0 \notin Q$. Construct $N' = (Q', \Sigma, \delta', q_0, F')$ where

- $Q' = Q \cup \{q_0\}$
- $F' = F \cup \{q_0\}$
- $\delta' : Q' \times \Sigma_\varepsilon \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(Q')$ is defined by, for $q \in Q'$ and $a \in \Sigma_\varepsilon$:

$$\delta'((q, a)) = \begin{cases} \delta((q, a)) & \text{if } q \in Q \text{ and } q \notin F \\ \delta((q, a)) & \text{if } q \in F \text{ and } a \in \Sigma \\ \delta((q, a)) \cup \{q_1\} & \text{if } q \in F \text{ and } a = \varepsilon \\ \{q_1\} & \text{if } q = q_0 \text{ and } a = \varepsilon \\ \emptyset & \text{if } q = q_0 \text{ and } a \in \Sigma \end{cases}$$

Proof of correctness would prove that $L(N') = A^$ by considering an arbitrary string accepted by N' , tracing an accepting computation of N' on it, and using that trace to prove the string can be written as the result of concatenating some number of strings, each of which is in A ; then, taking an arbitrary string in A^* and proving that it is accepted by N' . Details left for extra practice.*

Application: A state diagram for a NFA over $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$ that recognizes $L((a^*b)^*)$:

Suppose A is a language over an alphabet Σ . **Claim:** if there is a NFA N such that $L(N) = A$ then there is a DFA M such that $L(M) = A$.

Proof idea: States in M are “macro-states” – collections of states from N – that represent the set of possible states a computation of N might be in.

Formal construction: Let $N = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$. Define

$$M = (\mathcal{P}(Q), \Sigma, \delta', q', \{X \subseteq Q \mid X \cap F \neq \emptyset\})$$

where $q' = \{q \in Q \mid q = q_0 \text{ or is accessible from } q_0 \text{ by spontaneous moves in } N\}$ and

$\delta'((X, x)) = \{q \in Q \mid q \in \delta(r, x) \text{ for some } r \in X \text{ or is accessible from such an } r \text{ by spontaneous moves in } N\}$

Consider the state diagram of an NFA over $\{a, b\}$. Use the “macro-state” construction to find an equivalent DFA.



Consider the state diagram of an NFA over $\{0, 1\}$. Use the “macro-state” construction to find an equivalent DFA.



Note: We can often prune the DFAs that result from the “macro-state” constructions to get an equivalent DFA with fewer states (e.g. only the “macro-states” reachable from the start state).

The class of regular languages

Fix an alphabet Σ . For each language L over Σ :

There is a DFA over Σ that recognizes L $\exists M$ (M is a DFA and $L(M) = A$)
if and only if

There is a NFA over Σ that recognizes L $\exists N$ (N is a NFA and $L(N) = A$)
if and only if

There is a regular expression over Σ that describes L $\exists R$ (R is a regular expression and $L(R) = A$)

A language is called **regular** when any (hence all) of the above three conditions are met.

We already proved that DFAs and NFAs are equally expressive. It remains to prove that regular expressions are too.

Part 1: Suppose A is a language over an alphabet Σ . If there is a regular expression R such that $L(R) = A$, then there is a NFA, let's call it N , such that $L(N) = A$.

Structural induction: Regular expression is built from basis regular expressions using inductive steps (union, concatenation, Kleene star symbols). Use constructions to mirror these in NFAs.

Application: A state diagram for a NFA over $\{a, b\}$ that recognizes $L(a^*(ab)^*)$:

Part 2: Suppose A is a language over an alphabet Σ . If there is a DFA M such that $L(M) = A$, then there is a regular expression, let's call it R , such that $L(R) = A$.

Proof idea: Trace all possible paths from start state to accept state. Express labels of these paths as regular expressions, and union them all.

1. Add new start state with ε arrow to old start state.
2. Add new accept state with ε arrow from old accept states. Make old accept states non-accept.
3. Remove one (of the old) states at a time: modify regular expressions on arrows that went through removed state to restore language recognized by machine.

Application: Find a regular expression describing the language recognized by the DFA with state diagram



Week2 friday

Nondeterministic finite automaton (Sipser Page 53) Given as $M = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, F)$

Finite set of states Q	Can be labelled by any collection of distinct names. Default: q_0, q_1, \dots
Alphabet Σ	Each input to the automaton is a string over Σ .
Arrow labels Σ_ϵ	$\Sigma_\epsilon = \Sigma \cup \{\epsilon\}$. Arrows in the state diagram are labelled either by symbols from Σ or by ϵ
Transition function δ	$\delta : Q \times \Sigma_\epsilon \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(Q)$ gives the set of possible next states for a transition from the current state upon reading a symbol or spontaneously moving.
Start state q_0	Element of Q . Each computation of the machine starts at the start state.
Accept (final) states F	$F \subseteq Q$.

M accepts the input string $w \in \Sigma^*$ if and only if **there is** a computation of M on w that processes the whole string and ends in an accept state.

The formal definition of the NFA over $\{0, 1\}$ given by this state diagram is:



The language over $\{0, 1\}$ recognized by this NFA is:

Change the transition function to get a different NFA which accepts the empty string (and potentially other strings too).

The state diagram of an NFA over $\{a, b\}$ is below. The formal definition of this NFA is:



The language recognized by this NFA is:

Week10 monday

Recall Definition (Sipser 7.1): For M a deterministic decider, its **running time** is the function $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ given by

$$f(n) = \max \text{ number of steps } M \text{ takes before halting, over all inputs of length } n$$

Recall Definition (Sipser 7.7): For each function $t(n)$, the **time complexity class** $TIME(t(n))$, is defined by

$$TIME(t(n)) = \{L \mid L \text{ is decidable by a Turing machine with running time in } O(t(n))\}$$

Recall Definition (Sipser 7.12) : P is the class of languages that are decidable in polynomial time on a deterministic 1-tape Turing machine

$$P = \bigcup_k TIME(n^k)$$

Definition (Sipser 7.9): For N a nondeterministic decider. The **running time** of N is the function $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ given by

$$f(n) = \max \text{ number of steps } N \text{ takes on any branch before halting, over all inputs of length } n$$

Definition (Sipser 7.21): For each function $t(n)$, the **nondeterministic time complexity class** $NTIME(t(n))$, is defined by

$$NTIME(t(n)) = \{L \mid L \text{ is decidable by a nondeterministic Turing machine with running time in } O(t(n))\}$$

$$NP = \bigcup_k NTIME(n^k)$$

True or False: $TIME(n^2) \subseteq NTIME(n^2)$

True or False: $NTIME(n^2) \subseteq DTIME(n^2)$

Examples in P

Can't use nondeterminism; Can use multiple tapes; Often need to be "more clever" than naïve / brute force approach

$$PATH = \{\langle G, s, t \rangle \mid G \text{ is digraph with } n \text{ nodes there is path from } s \text{ to } t\}$$

Use breadth first search to show in P

$$RELPRIME = \{\langle x, y \rangle \mid x \text{ and } y \text{ are relatively prime integers}\}$$

Use Euclidean Algorithm to show in P

$$L(G) = \{w \mid w \text{ is generated by } G\}$$

(where G is a context-free grammar). Use dynamic programming to show in P .

Examples in NP

"Verifiable" i.e. NP, Can be decided by a nondeterministic TM in polynomial time, best known deterministic solution may be brute-force, solution can be verified by a deterministic TM in polynomial time.

$$HAMPATH = \{\langle G, s, t \rangle \mid G \text{ is digraph with } n \text{ nodes, there is path from } s \text{ to } t \text{ that goes through every node exactly once}\}$$

$$VERTEX - COVER = \{\langle G, k \rangle \mid G \text{ is an undirected graph with } n \text{ nodes that has a } k\text{-node vertex cover}\}$$

$$CLIQUE = \{\langle G, k \rangle \mid G \text{ is an undirected graph with } n \text{ nodes that has a } k\text{-clique}\}$$

$$SAT = \{\langle X \rangle \mid X \text{ is a satisfiable Boolean formula with } n \text{ variables}\}$$

Every problem in NP is decidable with an exponential-time algorithm

Nondeterministic approach: guess a possible solution, verify that it works.

Brute-force (worst-case exponential time) approach: iterate over all possible solutions, for each one, check if it works.

Problems in P	Problems in NP
(Membership in any) regular language	Any problem in P
(Membership in any) context-free language	
A_{DFA}	SAT
E_{DFA}	$CLIQUE$
EQ_{DFA}	$VERTEX - COVER$
$PATH$	$HAMPATH$
$RELPRIME$	\dots
\dots	

Million-dollar question: Is $P = NP$?

One approach to trying to answer it is to look for *hardest* problems in NP and then (1) if we can show that there are efficient algorithms for them, then we can get efficient algorithms for all problems in NP so $P = NP$, or (2) these problems might be good candidates for showing that there are problems in NP for which there are no efficient algorithms.

Week10 wednesday

Definition (Sipser 7.29) Language A is **polynomial-time mapping reducible** to language B , written $A \leq_P B$, means there is a polynomial-time computable function $f : \Sigma^* \rightarrow \Sigma^*$ such that for every $x \in \Sigma^*$

$$x \in A \quad \text{iff} \quad f(x) \in B.$$

The function f is called the polynomial time reduction of A to B .

Theorem (Sipser 7.31): If $A \leq_P B$ and $B \in P$ then $A \in P$.

Proof:

Definition (Sipser 7.34; based in Stephen Cook and Leonid Levin's work in the 1970s): A language B is **NP-complete** means (1) B is in NP **and** (2) every language A in NP is polynomial time reducible to B .

Theorem (Sipser 7.35): If B is NP-complete and $B \in P$ then $P = NP$.

Proof:

3SAT: A literal is a Boolean variable (e.g. x) or a negated Boolean variable (e.g. \bar{x}). A Boolean formula is a **3cnf-formula** if it is a Boolean formula in conjunctive normal form (a conjunction of disjunctive clauses of literals) and each clause has three literals.

$$3SAT = \{\langle \phi \rangle \mid \phi \text{ is a satisfiable 3cnf-formula}\}$$

Example strings in $3SAT$

Example strings not in $3SAT$

Cook-Levin Theorem: $3SAT$ is NP -complete.

Are there other NP -complete problems? To prove that X is NP -complete

- *From scratch:* prove X is in NP and that all NP problems are polynomial-time reducible to X .
- *Using reduction:* prove X is in NP and that a known-to-be NP -complete problem is polynomial-time reducible to X .

CLIQUE: A k -**clique** in an undirected graph is a maximally connected subgraph with k nodes.

$$CLIQUE = \{\langle G, k \rangle \mid G \text{ is an undirected graph with a } k\text{-clique}\}$$

Example strings in $CLIQUE$

Example strings not in $CLIQUE$

Theorem (Sipser 7.32):

$$3SAT \leq_P CLIQUE$$

Given a Boolean formula in conjunctive normal form with k clauses and three literals per clause, we will map it to a graph so that the graph has a clique if the original formula is satisfiable and the graph does not have a clique if the original formula is not satisfiable.

The graph has $3k$ vertices (one for each literal in each clause) and an edge between all vertices except

- vertices for two literals in the same clause
- vertices for literals that are negations of one another

Example: $(x \vee \bar{y} \vee \bar{z}) \wedge (\bar{x} \vee y \vee z) \wedge (x \vee y \vee z)$

Week10 friday

Model of Computation	Class of Languages
<p>Deterministic finite automata: formal definition, how to design for a given language, how to describe language of a machine? Nondeterministic finite automata: formal definition, how to design for a given language, how to describe language of a machine? Regular expressions: formal definition, how to design for a given language, how to describe language of expression? <i>Also:</i> converting between different models.</p>	<p>Class of regular languages: what are the closure properties of this class? which languages are not in the class? using pumping lemma to prove nonregularity.</p>
<p>Push-down automata: formal definition, how to design for a given language, how to describe language of a machine? Context-free grammars: formal definition, how to design for a given language, how to describe language of a grammar?</p>	<p>Class of context-free languages: what are the closure properties of this class? which languages are not in the class?</p>
<p>Turing machines that always halt in polynomial time</p> <p>Nondeterministic Turing machines that always halt in polynomial time</p>	<p>P</p> <p>NP</p>
<p>Deciders (Turing machines that always halt): formal definition, how to design for a given language, how to describe language of a machine?</p>	<p>Class of decidable languages: what are the closure properties of this class? which languages are not in the class? using diagonalization and mapping reduction to show undecidability</p>
<p>Turing machines formal definition, how to design for a given language, how to describe language of a machine?</p>	<p>Class of recognizable languages: what are the closure properties of this class? which languages are not in the class? using closure and mapping reduction to show unrecognizability</p>

Given a language, prove it is regular

Strategy 1: construct DFA recognizing the language and prove it works.

Strategy 2: construct NFA recognizing the language and prove it works.

Strategy 3: construct regular expression recognizing the language and prove it works.

“Prove it works” means ...

Example: $L = \{w \in \{0,1\}^* \mid w \text{ has odd number of 1s or starts with } 0\}$

Using NFA

Using regular expressions

Example: Select all and only the options that result in a true statement: “To show a language A is not regular, we can...”

- a. Show A is finite
- b. Show there is a CFG generating A
- c. Show A has no pumping length
- d. Show A is undecidable

Example: What is the language generated by the CFG with rules

$$S \rightarrow aSb \mid bY \mid Ya$$

$$Y \rightarrow bY \mid Ya \mid \varepsilon$$

Example: Prove that the language $T = \{\langle M \rangle \mid M \text{ is a Turing machine and } L(M) \text{ is infinite}\}$ is undecidable.

Example: Prove that the class of decidable languages is closed under concatenation.