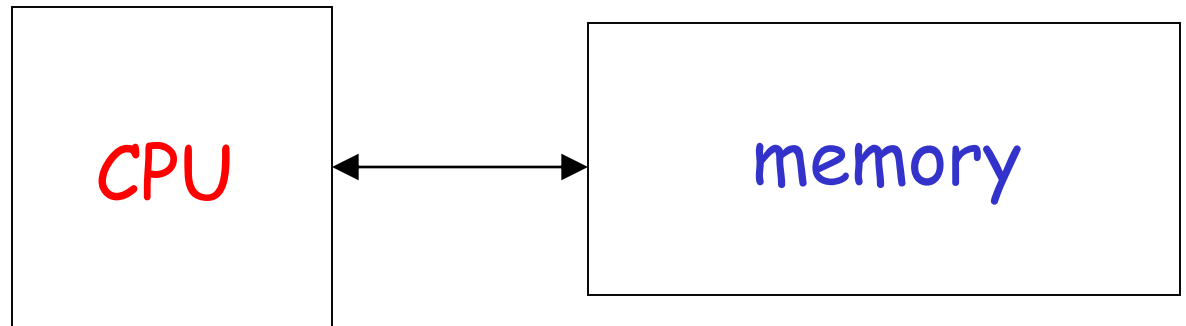
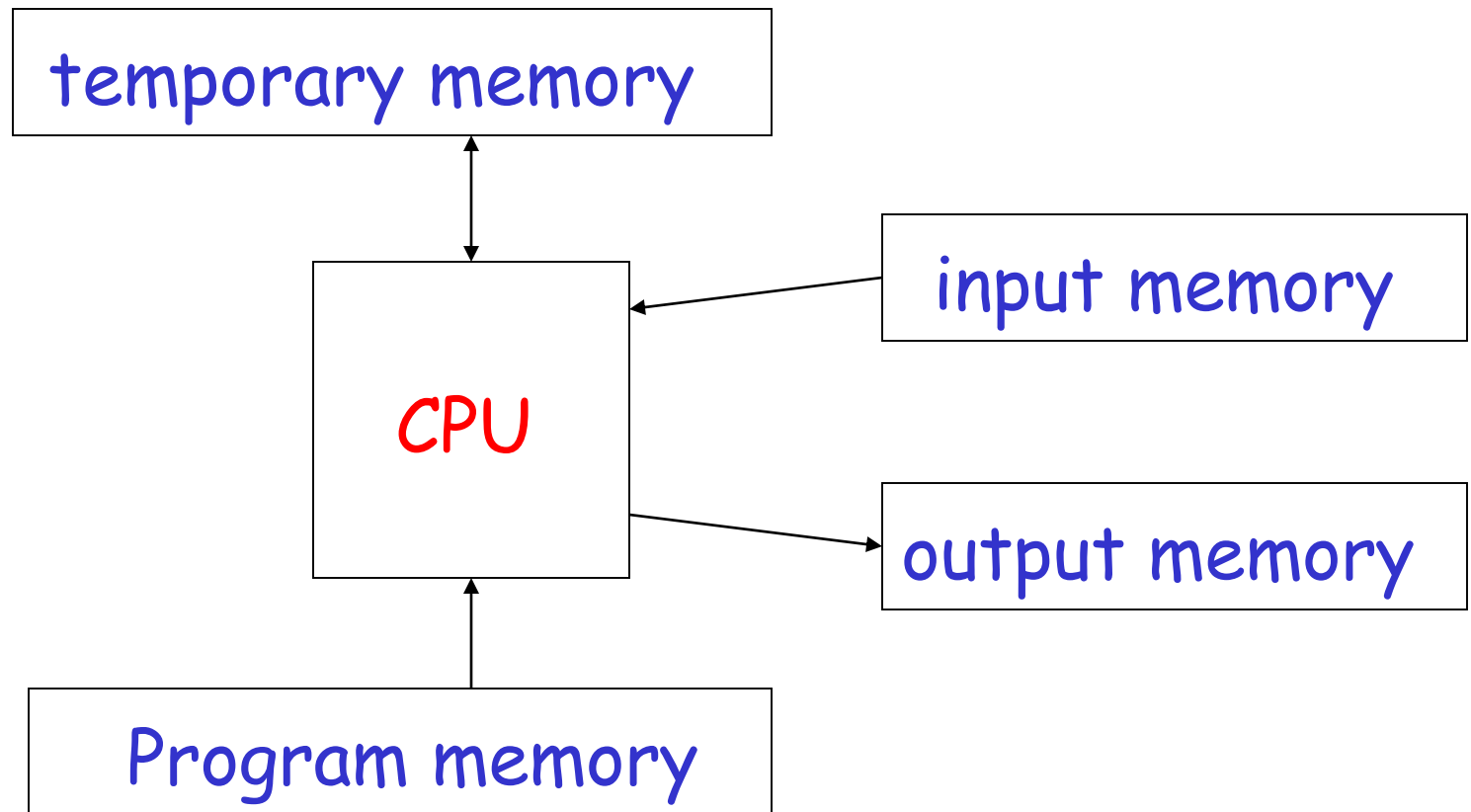


# Models of Computation

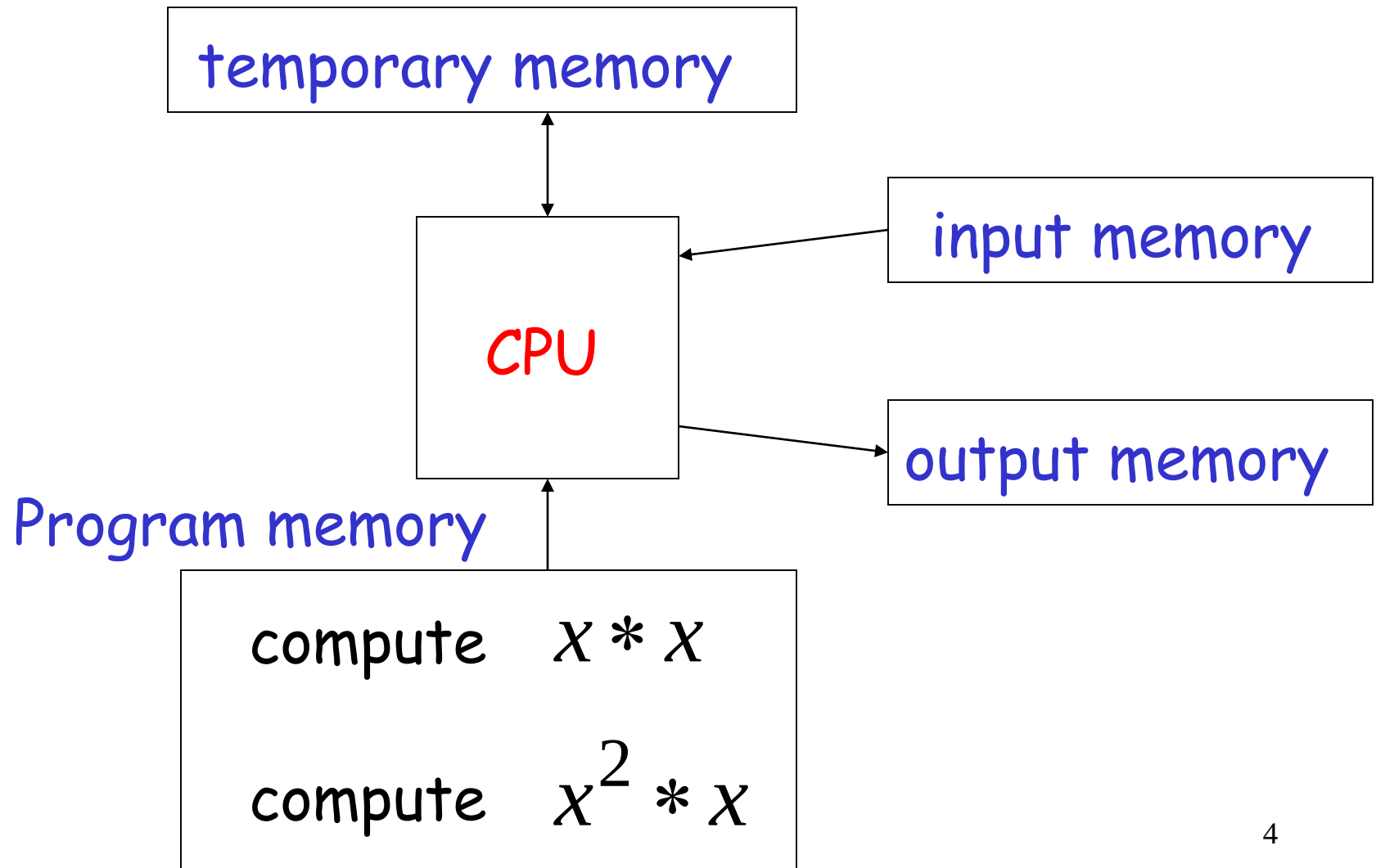
by Costas Busch, LSU

# Computation

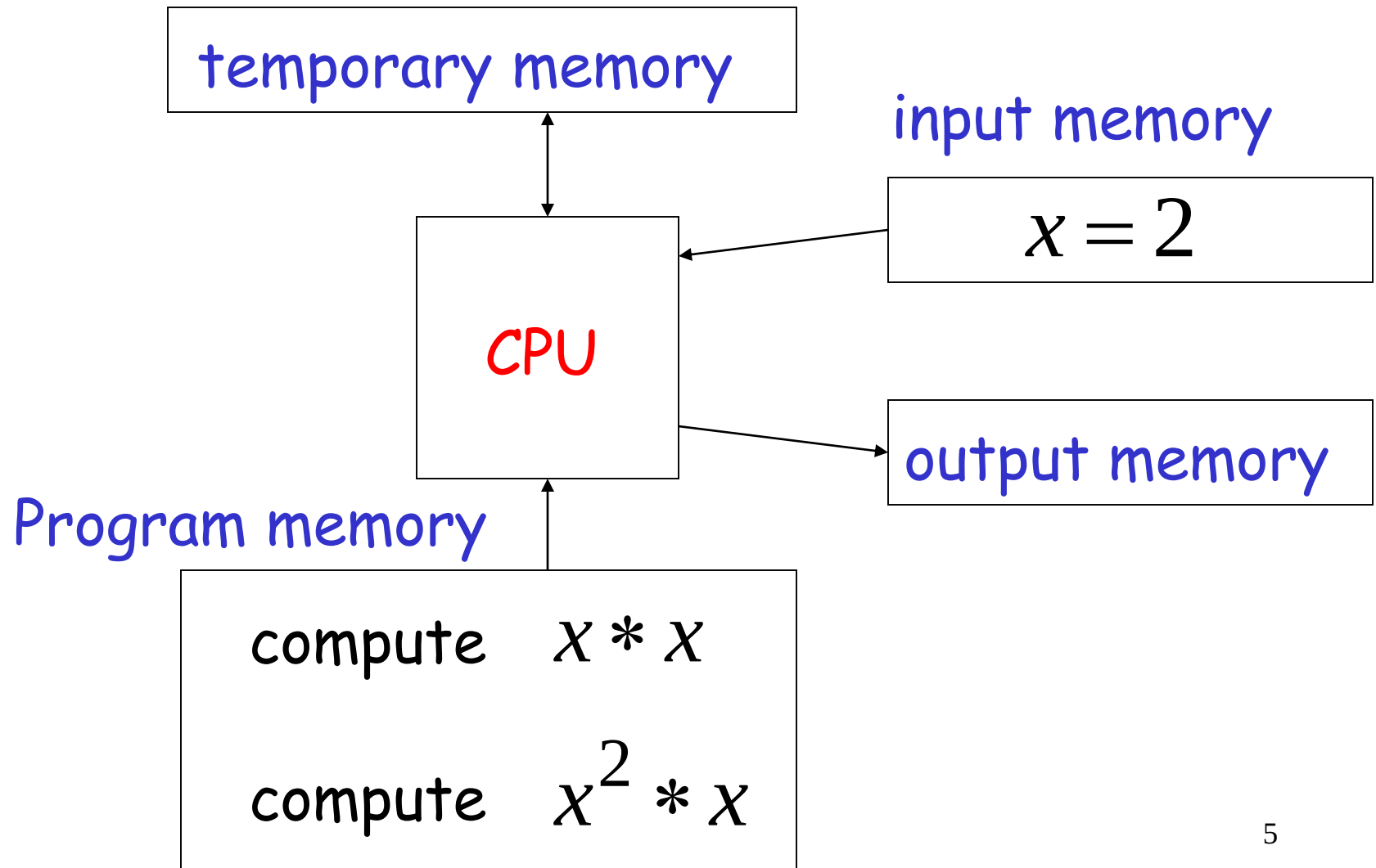




Example:  $f(x) = x^3$



$$f(x) = x^3$$



temporary memory

$$z = 2 * 2 = 4$$

$$f(x) = z * 2 = 8$$

$$f(x) = x^3$$

input memory

$$x = 2$$

CPU

output memory

Program memory

compute  $x * x$

compute  $x^2 * x$

temporary memory

$$z = 2 * 2 = 4$$
$$f(x) = z * 2 = 8$$

$$f(x) = x^3$$

input memory

$$x = 2$$

CPU

$$f(x) = 8$$

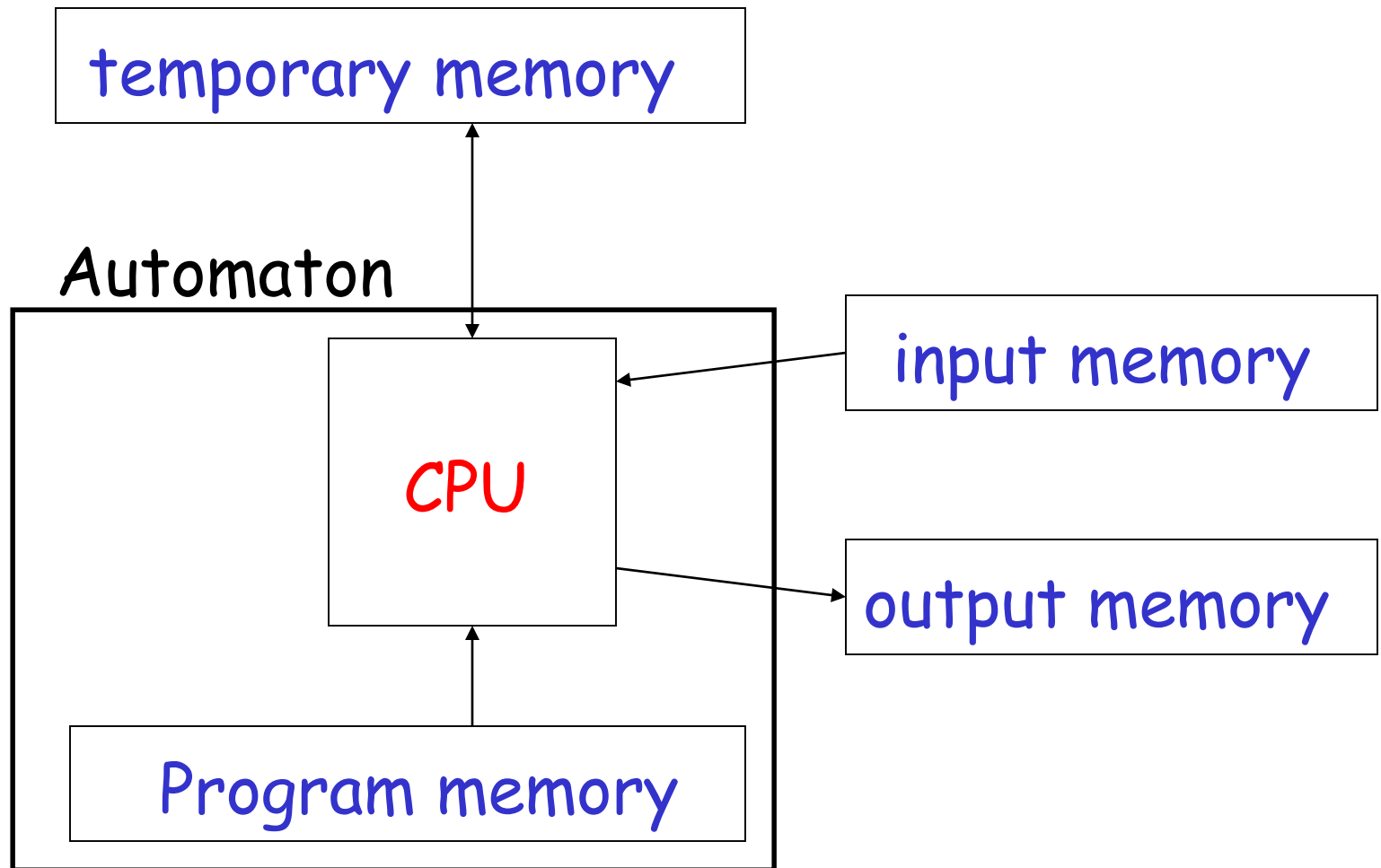
output memory

Program memory

compute  $x * x$

compute  $x^2 * x$

# Automaton



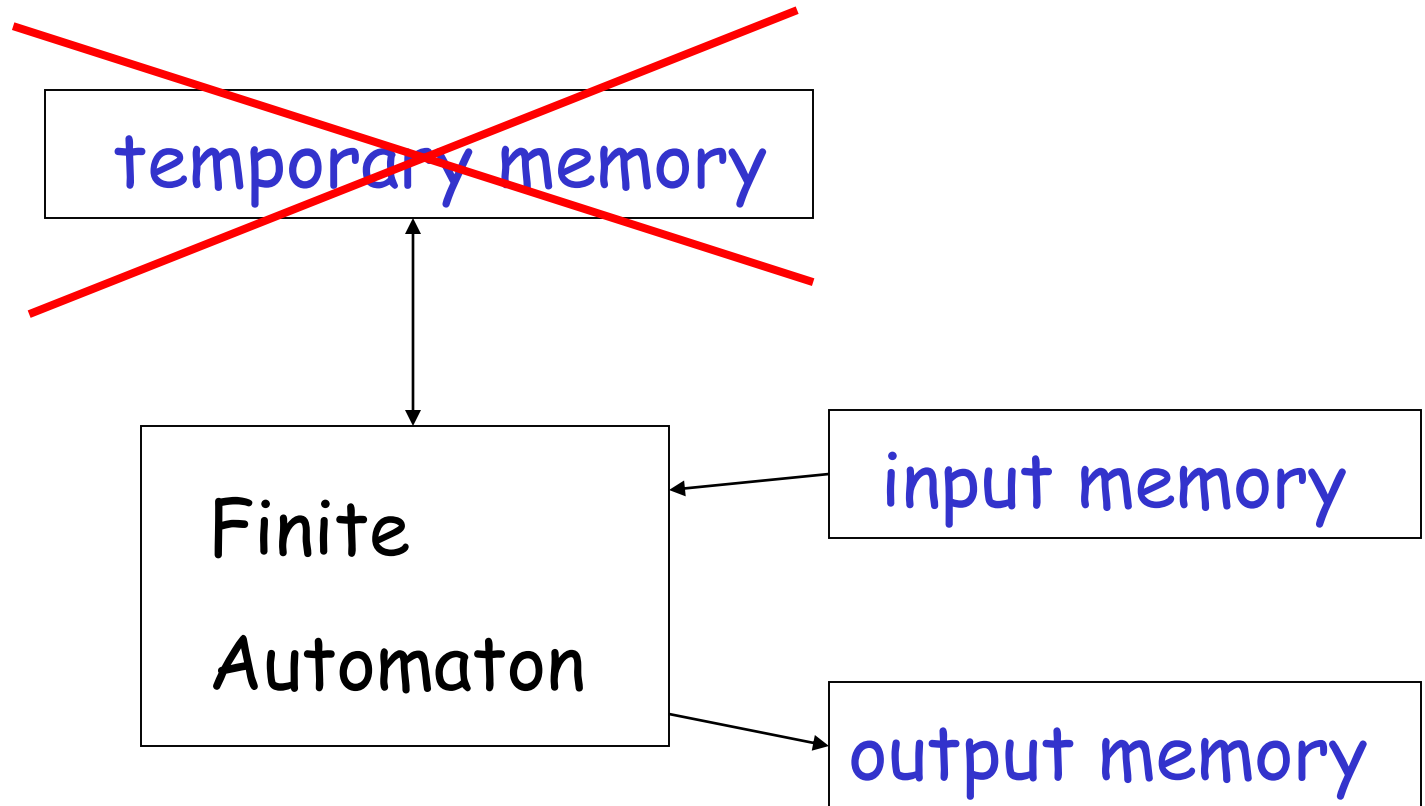


# Different Kinds of Automata

Automata are distinguished by the temporary memory

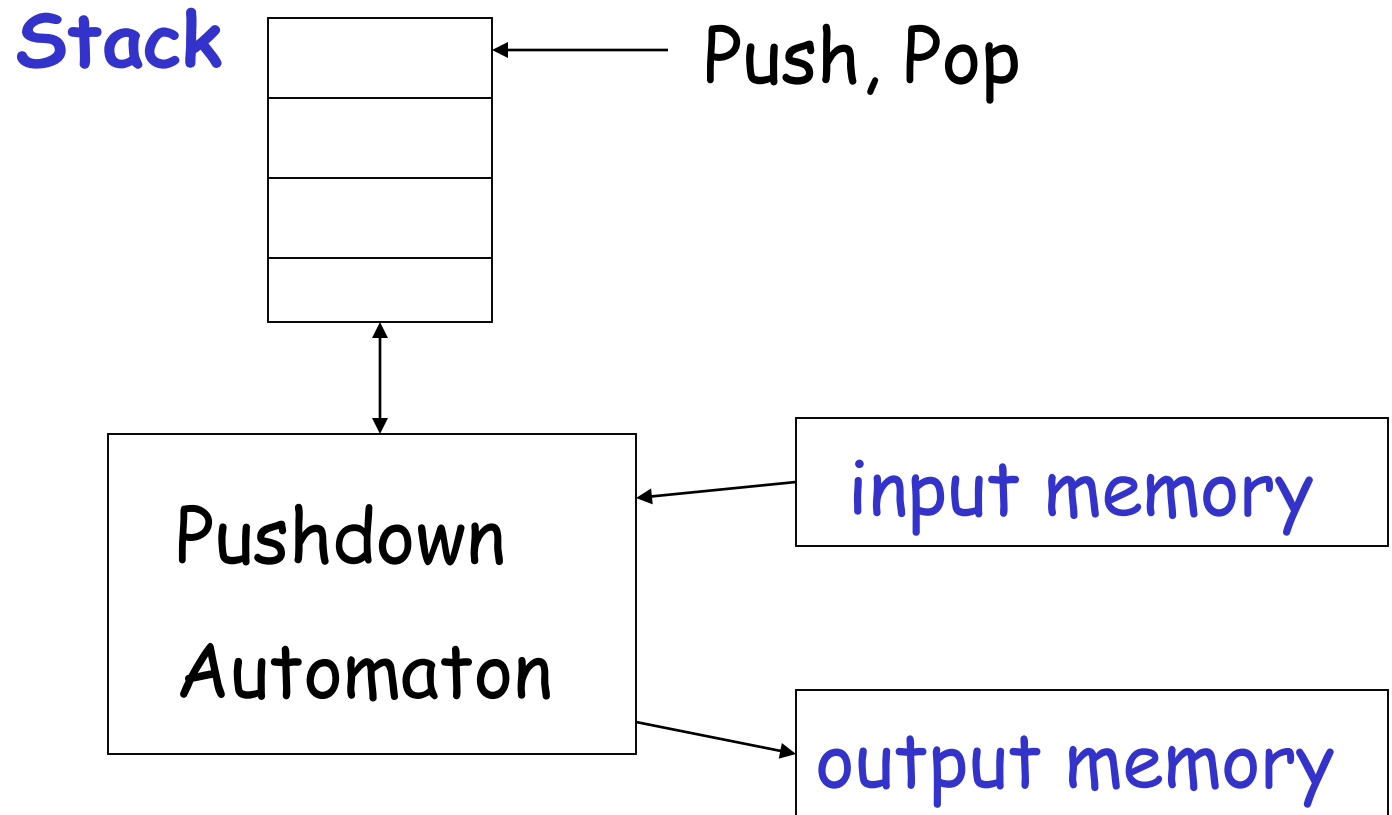
- **Finite Automata:** no temporary memory
- **Pushdown Automata:** stack
- **Turing Machines:** random access memory

# Finite Automaton



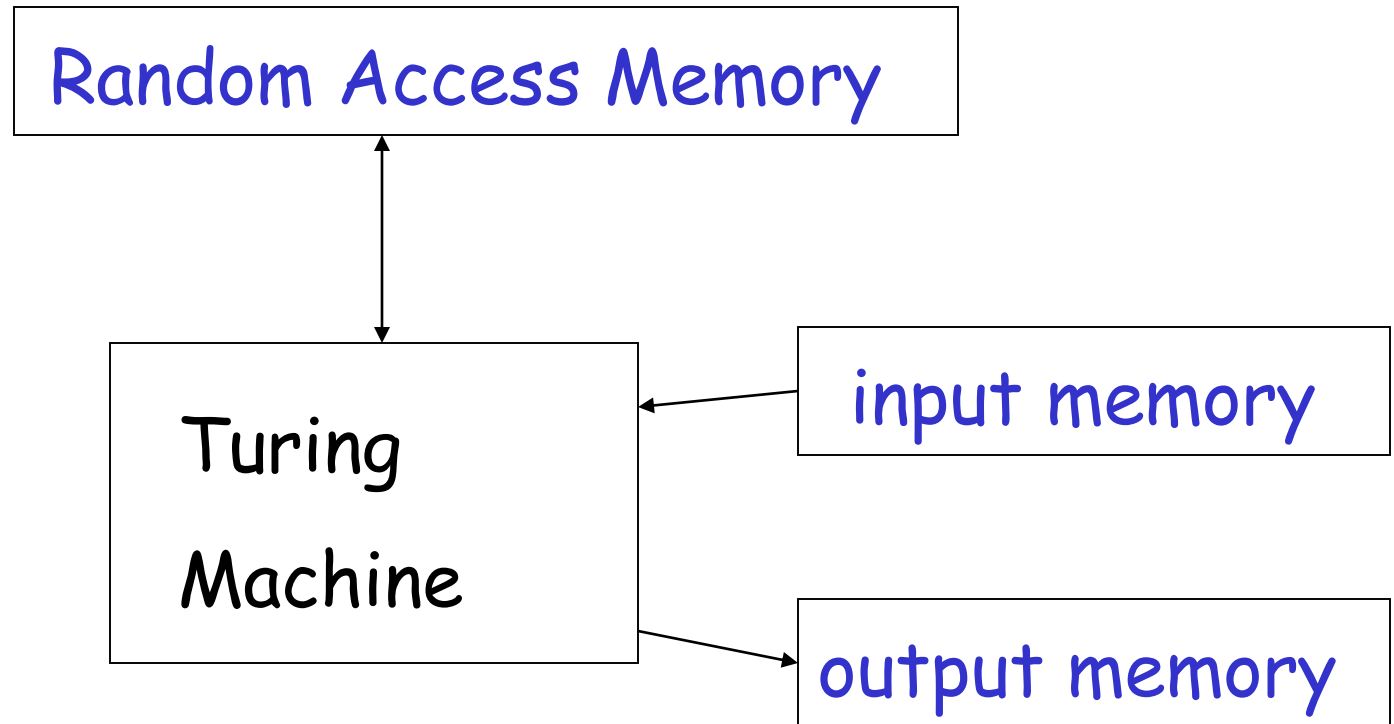
Example: Vending Machines  
(small computing power)

# Pushdown Automaton



Example: Compilers for Programming Languages  
(medium computing power)

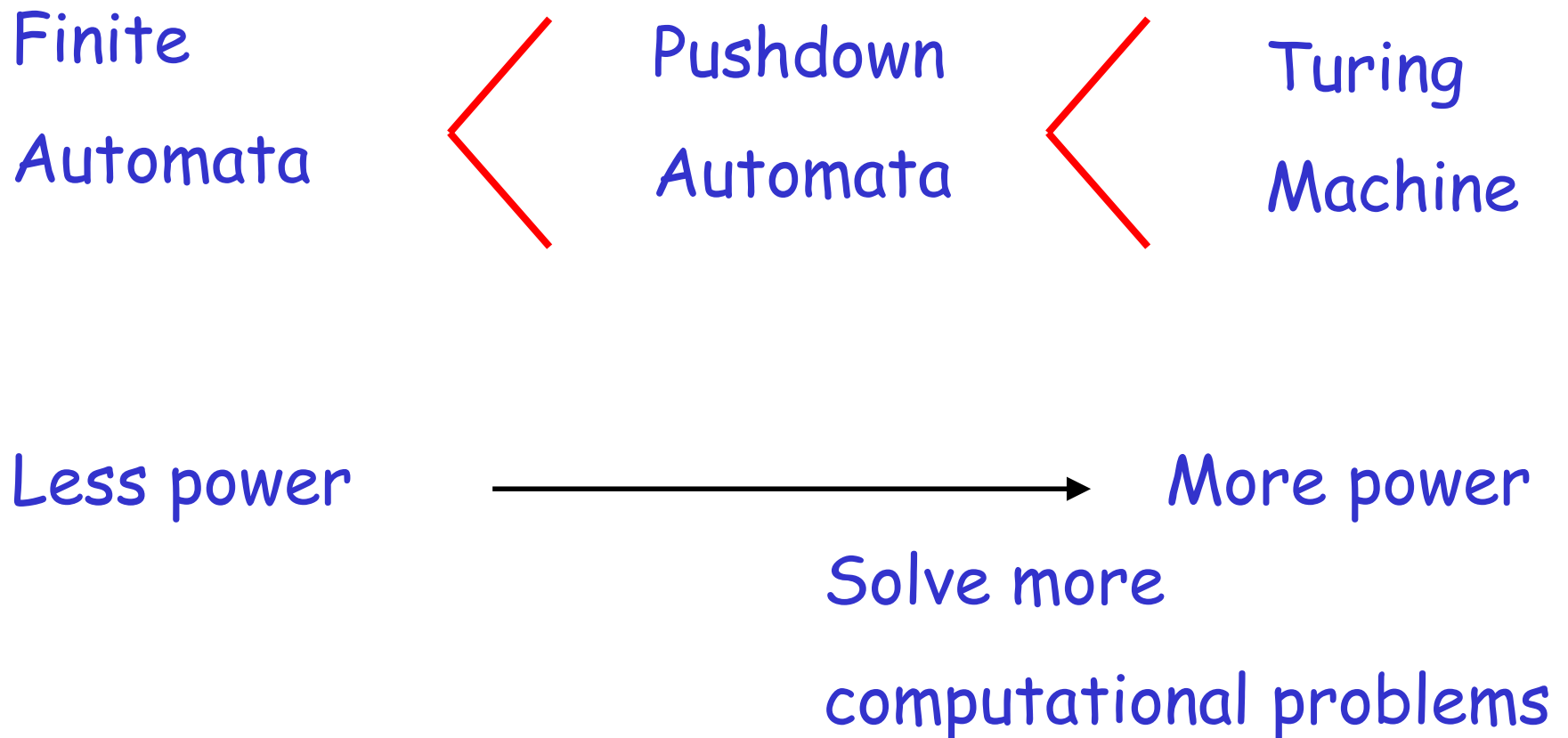
# Turing Machine



Examples: Any Algorithm

(highest computing power)

# Power of Automata



# Mathematical Preliminaries

# Mathematical Preliminaries

- Sets
- Functions
- Relations
- Graphs
- Proof Techniques

# SETS

A set is a collection of elements

$$A = \{1, 2, 3\}$$

$$B = \{train, bus, bicycle, airplane\}$$

We write

$$1 \in A$$

$$ship \notin B$$



# Set Representations

$$C = \{ a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i, j, k \}$$

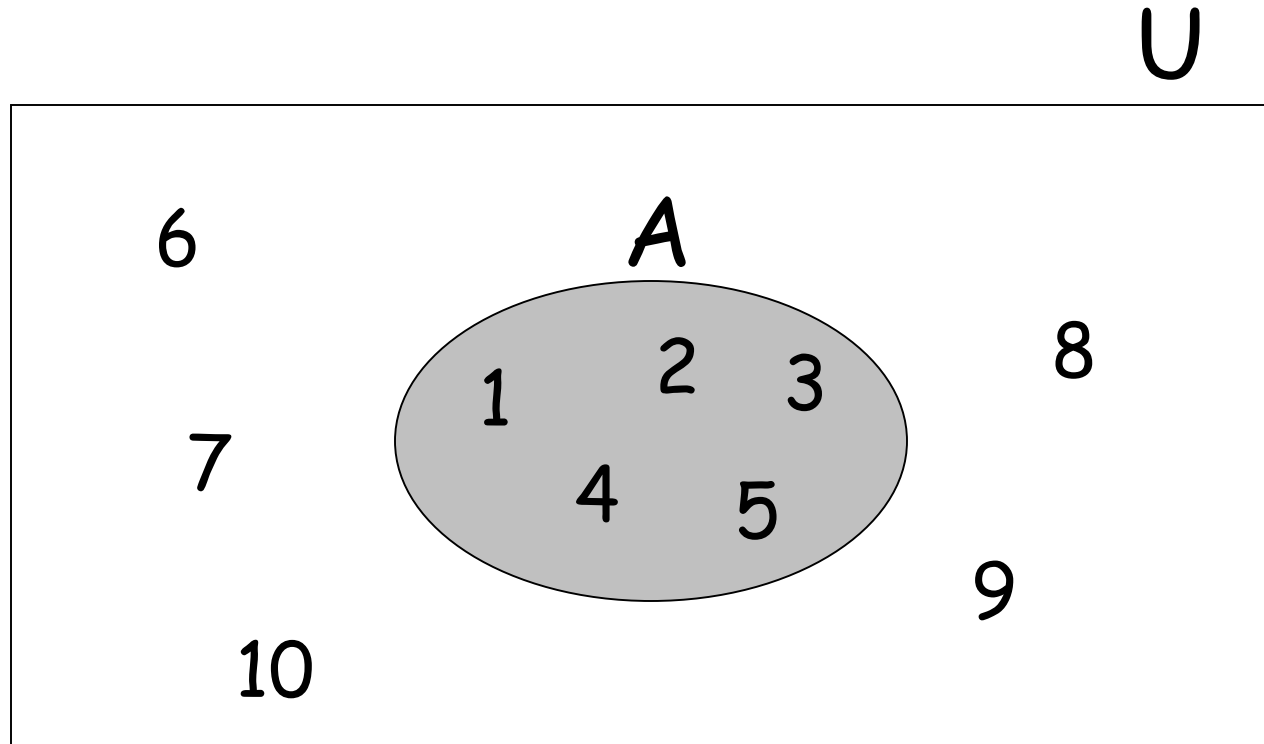
$$C = \{ a, b, \dots, k \} \longrightarrow \textit{finite set}$$

$$S = \{ 2, 4, 6, \dots \} \longrightarrow \textit{infinite set}$$

$$S = \{ j : j > 0, \text{ and } j = 2k \text{ for some } k > 0 \}$$

$$S = \{ j : j \text{ is nonnegative and even} \}$$

$$A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$$



Universal Set: all possible elements

$$U = \{1, \dots, 10\}$$

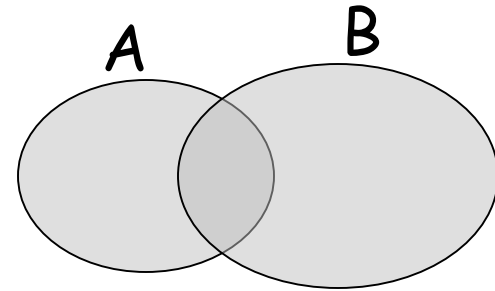
# Set Operations

$$A = \{1, 2, 3\}$$

$$B = \{2, 3, 4, 5\}$$

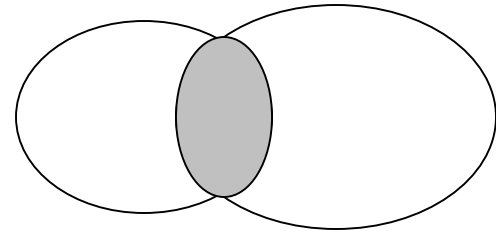
- Union

$$A \cup B = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$$



- Intersection

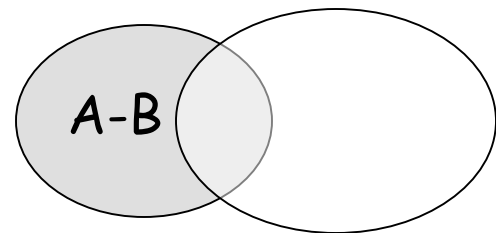
$$A \cap B = \{2, 3\}$$



- Difference

$$A - B = \{1\}$$

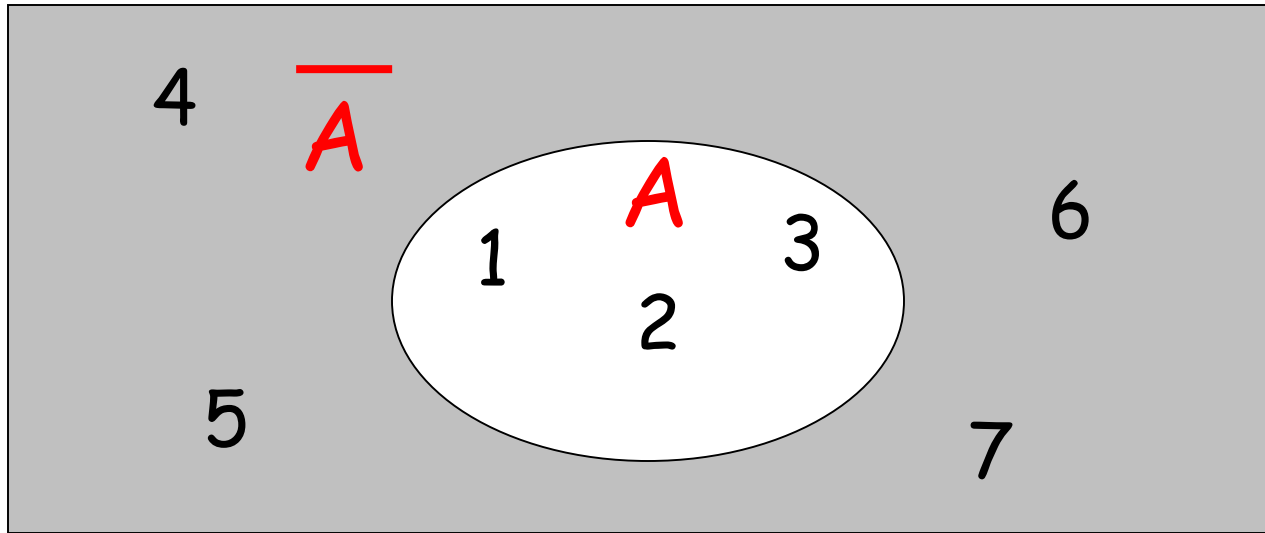
$$B - A = \{4, 5\}$$



- Complement

Universal set =  $\{1, \dots, 7\}$

$$A = \{1, 2, 3\} \longrightarrow \overline{A} = \{4, 5, 6, 7\}$$

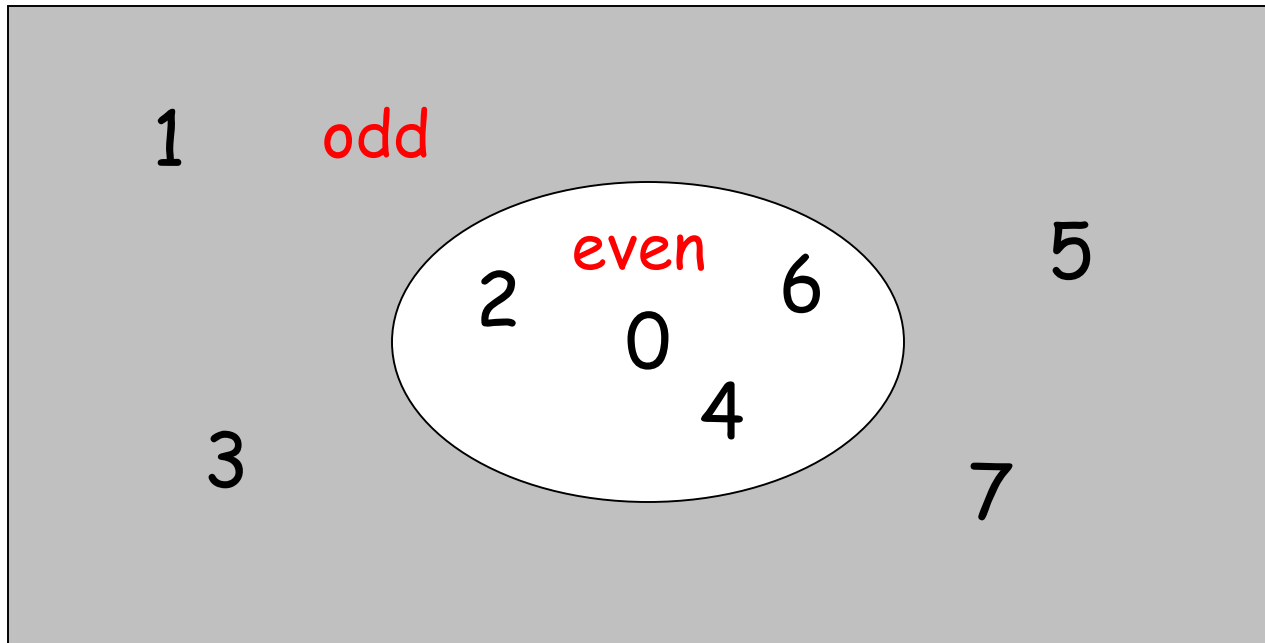


$$\overline{\overline{A}} = A$$

---

$$\{ \text{even integers} \} = \{ \text{odd integers} \}$$

Integers



# DeMorgan's Laws

$$\overline{A \cup B} = \bar{A} \cap \bar{B}$$

$$\overline{A \cap B} = \bar{A} \cup \bar{B}$$

# Empty, Null Set: $\emptyset$

$$\emptyset = \{ \}$$

$$S \cup \emptyset = S$$

$$S \cap \emptyset = \emptyset$$

$$S - \emptyset = S$$

$$\emptyset - S = \emptyset$$

$$\overline{\emptyset} = \text{Universal Set}$$

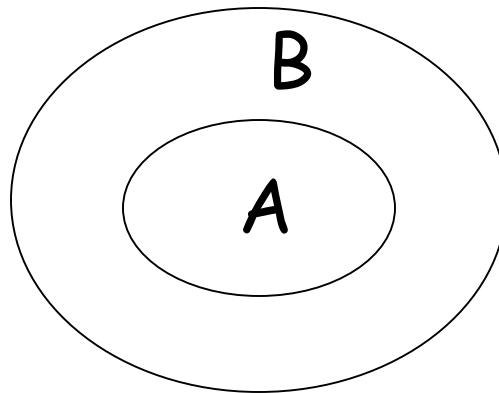
# Subset

$$A = \{1, 2, 3\}$$

$$B = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$$

$$A \subseteq B$$

Proper Subset:  $A \subset B$



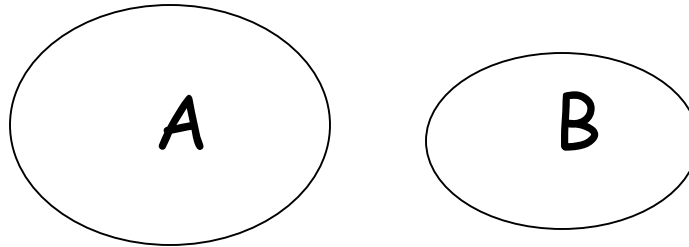


# Disjoint Sets

$$A = \{ 1, 2, 3 \}$$

$$B = \{ 5, 6 \}$$

$$A \cap B = \emptyset$$



# Set Cardinality

- For finite sets

$$A = \{ 2, 5, 7 \}$$

$$|A| = 3$$

# Powersets

A powerset is a set of sets

$$S = \{ a, b, c \}$$

Powerset of  $S$  = the set of all the subsets of  $S$

$$2^S = \{ \emptyset, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{c\}, \{a, b\}, \{a, c\}, \{b, c\}, \{a, b, c\} \}$$

Observation:  $|2^S| = 2^{|S|} \quad (8 = 2^3)$

# Cartesian Product

$$A = \{ 2, 4 \}$$

$$B = \{ 2, 3, 5 \}$$

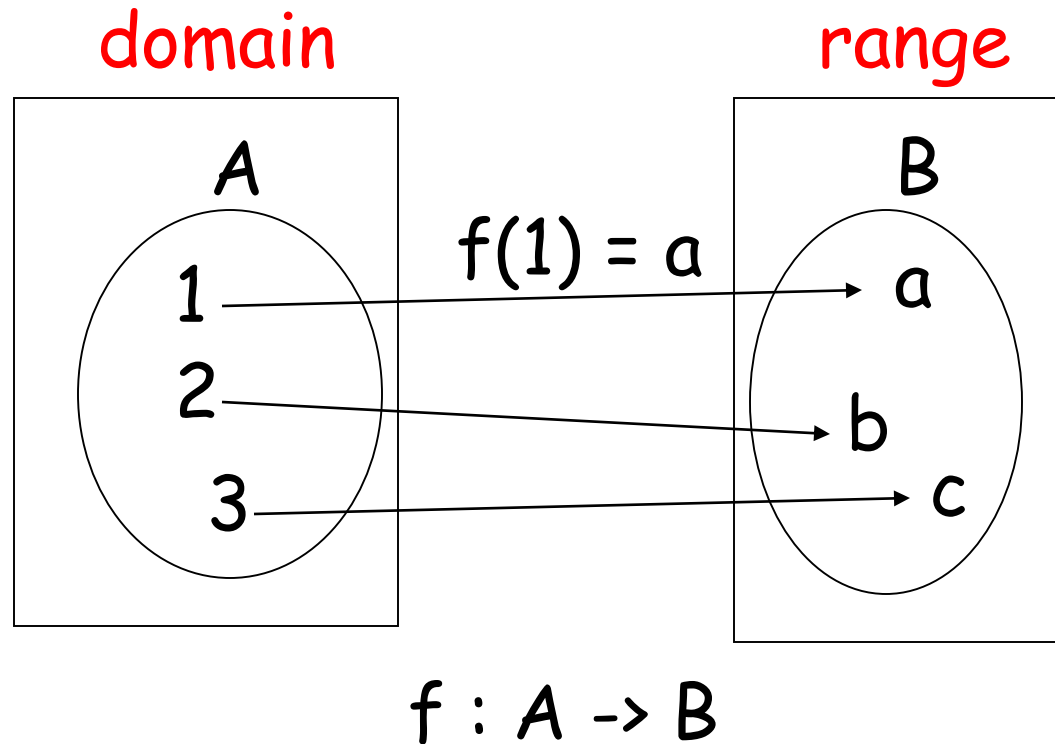
$$A \times B = \{ (2, 2), (2, 3), (2, 5), (4, 2), (4, 3), (4, 5) \}$$

$$|A \times B| = |A| |B|$$

Generalizes to more than two sets

$$A \times B \times \dots \times Z$$

# FUNCTIONS



If  $A = \text{domain}$

then  $f$  is a total function

otherwise  $f$  is a partial function

# RELATIONS

$$R = \{(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), (x_3, y_3), \dots\}$$

$$x_i R y_i$$

e. g. if  $R = '>'$ :  $2 > 1, 3 > 2, 3 > 1$

In relations  $x_i$  can be repeated

# Equivalence Relations

- Reflexive:  $x R x$
- Symmetric:  $x R y \longrightarrow y R x$
- Transitive:  $x R y$  and  $y R z \longrightarrow x R z$

Example:  $R = '='$

- $x = x$
- $x = y \longrightarrow y = x$
- $x = y$  and  $y = z \longrightarrow x = z$

# Equivalence Classes

For equivalence relation  $R$

equivalence class of  $x = \{y : x R y\}$

Example:

$$R = \{ (1, 1), (2, 2), (1, 2), (2, 1), \\ (3, 3), (4, 4), (3, 4), (4, 3) \}$$

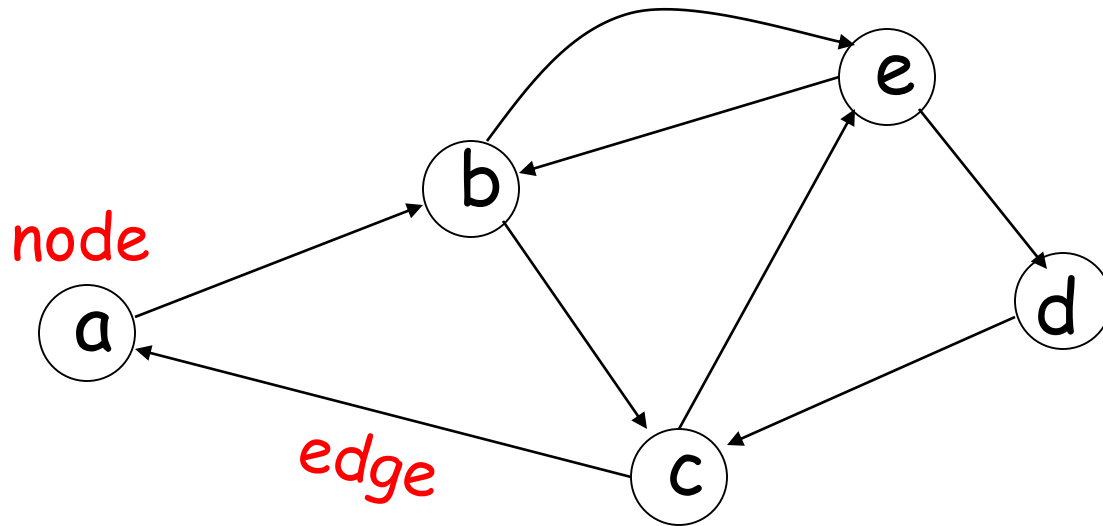
Equivalence class of 1 =  $\{1, 2\}$

Equivalence class of 3 =  $\{3, 4\}$



# GRAPHS

## A directed graph



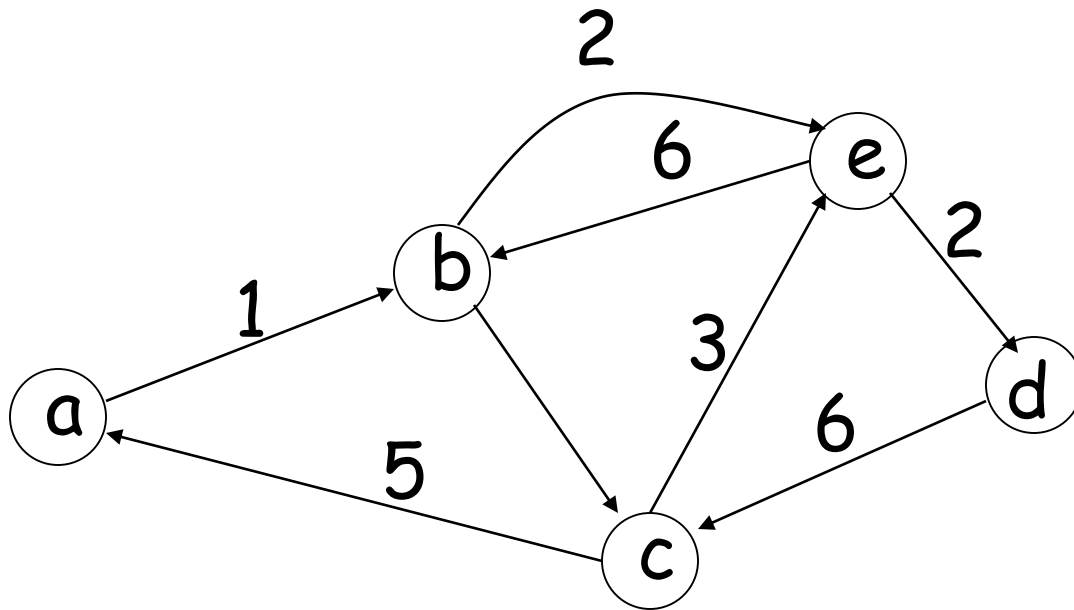
- Nodes (Vertices)

$$V = \{ a, b, c, d, e \}$$

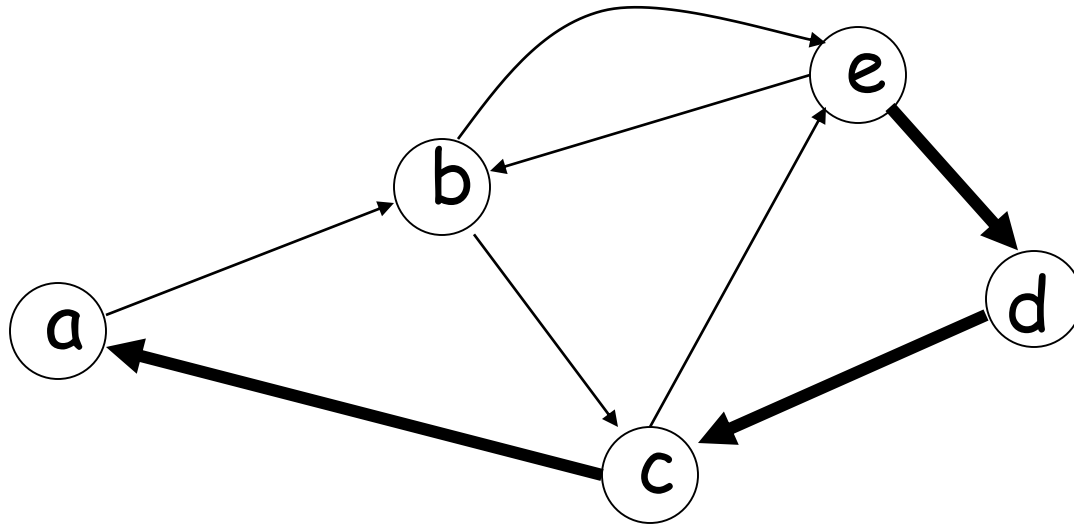
- Edges

$$E = \{ (a,b), (b,c), (b,e), (c,a), (c,e), (d,c), (e,b), (e,d) \}$$

# Labeled Graph



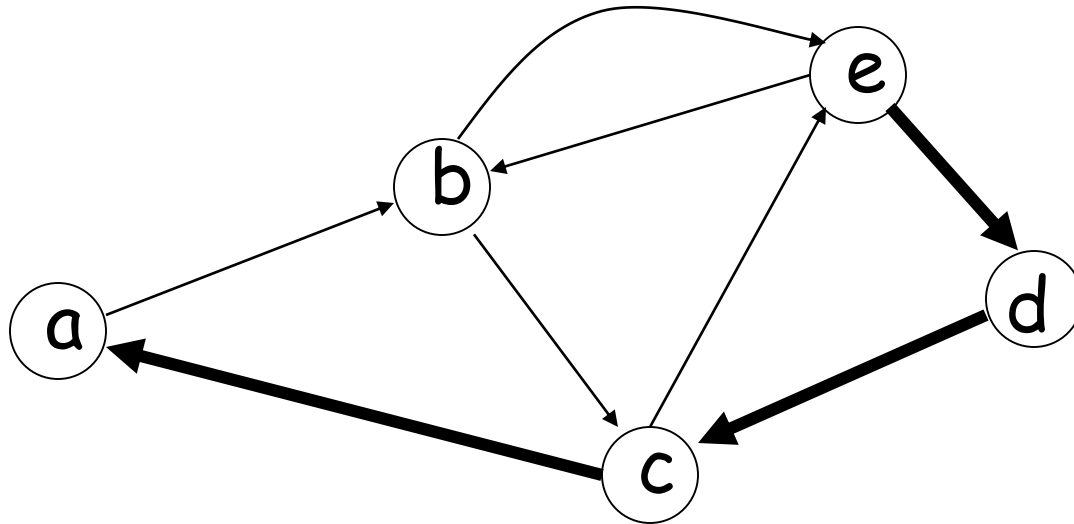
# Walk



Walk is a sequence of adjacent edges

$(e, d), (d, c), (c, a)$

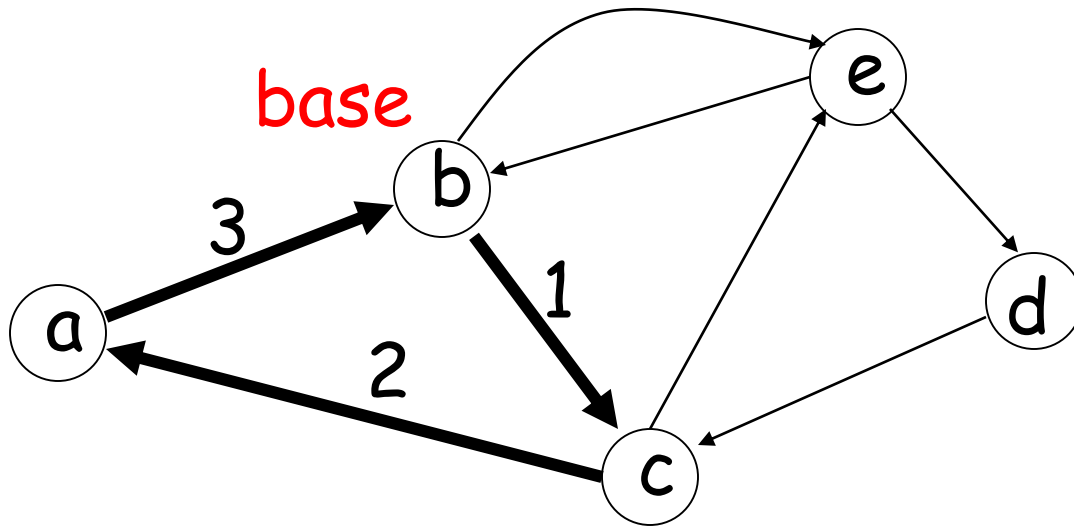
# Path



Path is a walk where no edge is repeated

Simple path: no node is repeated

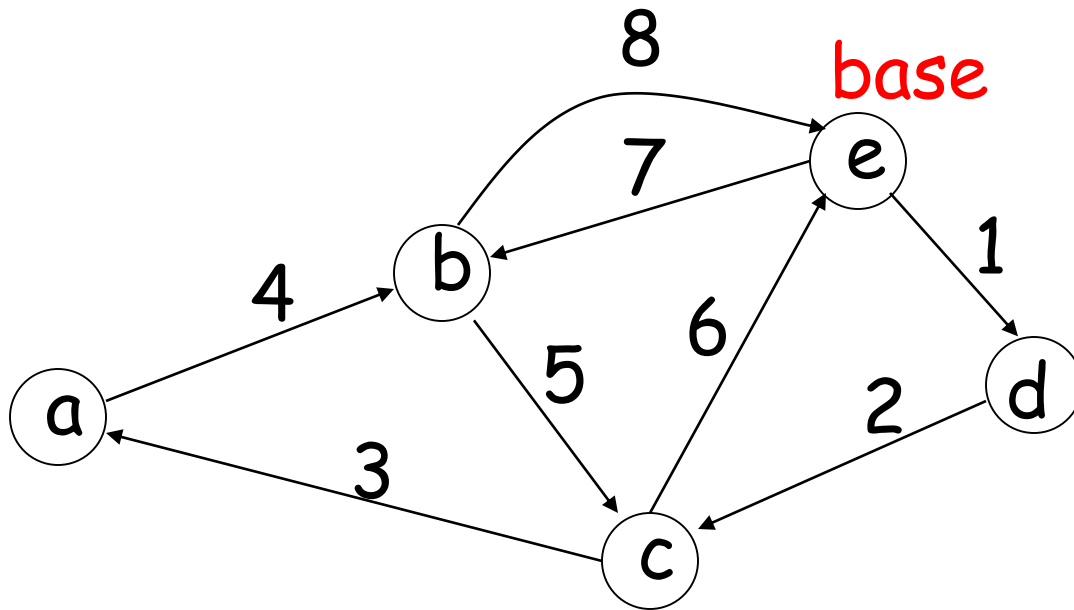
# Cycle



Cycle: a walk from a node (base) to itself

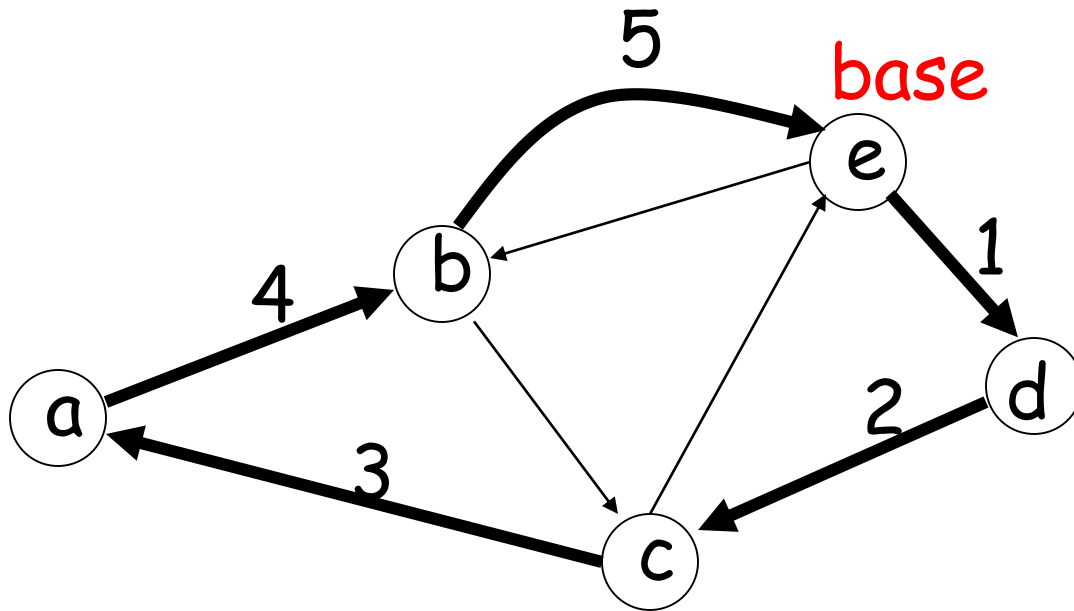
Simple cycle: only the base node is repeated

# Euler Tour



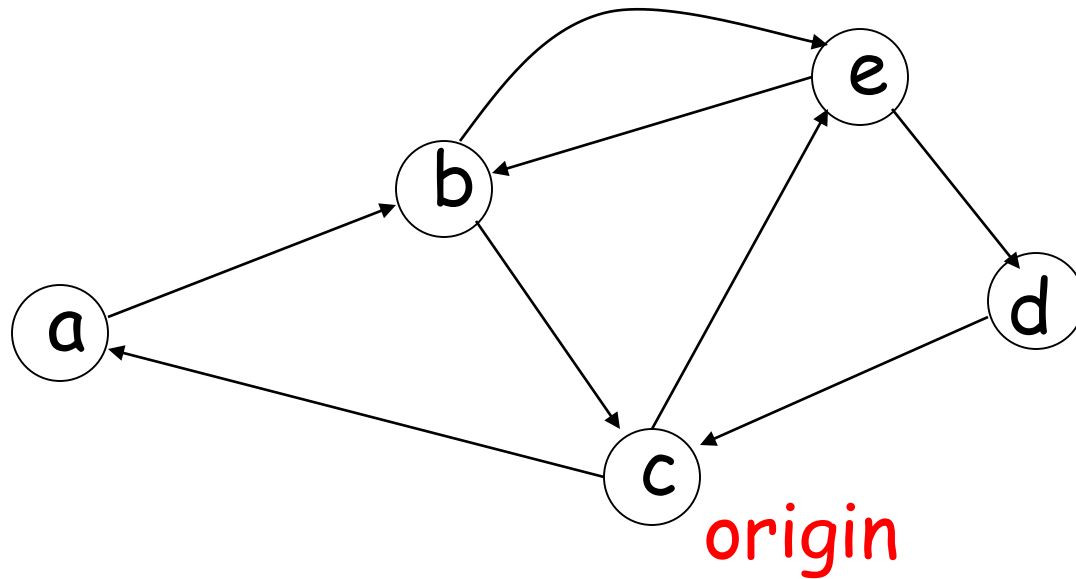
*A cycle that contains each edge once*

# Hamiltonian Cycle



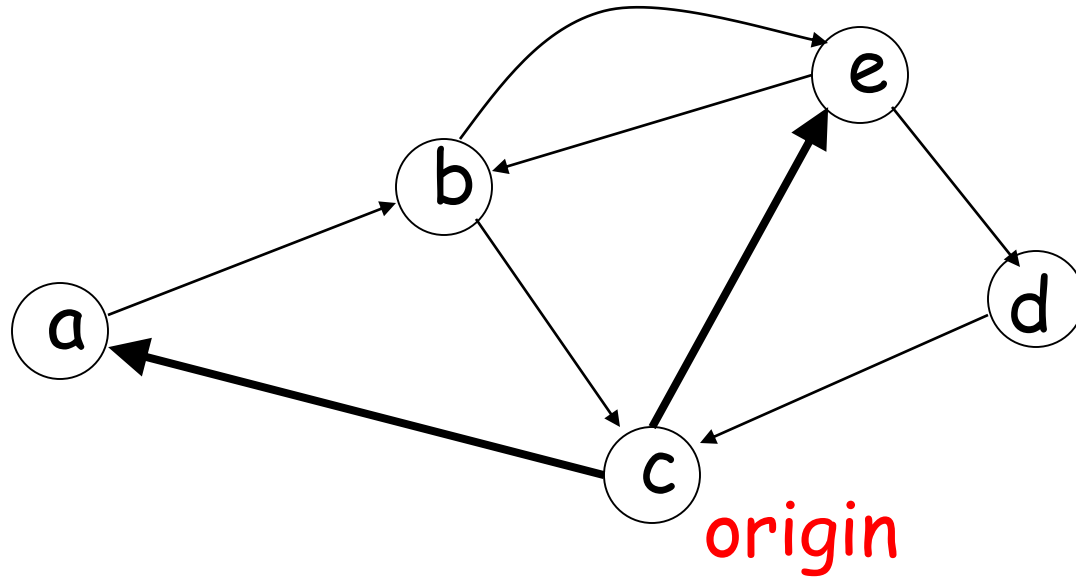
A simple cycle that contains all nodes

# Finding All Simple Paths





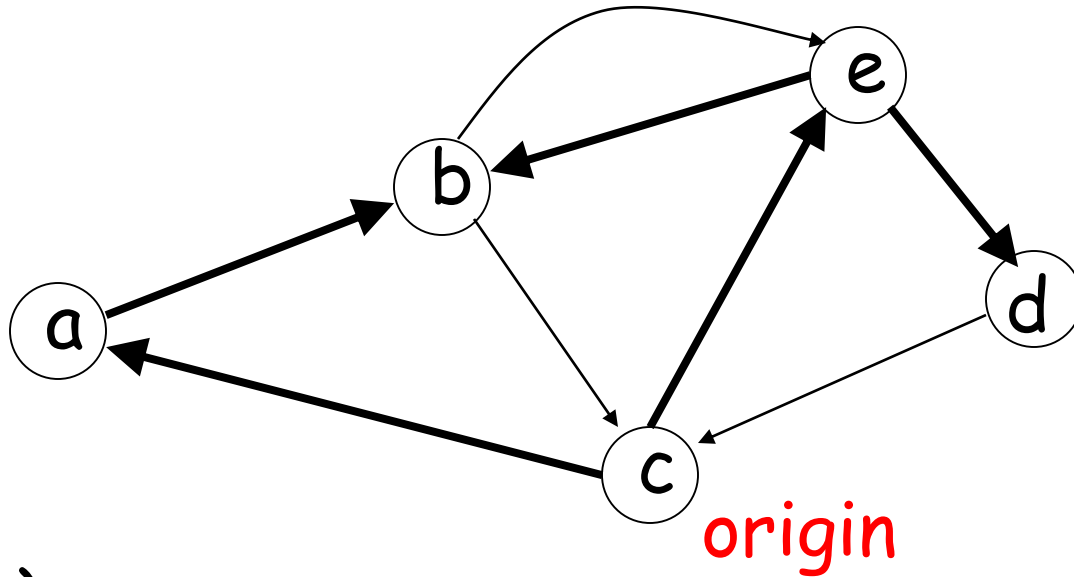
# Step 1



$(c, a)$

$(c, e)$

## Step 2



$(c, a)$

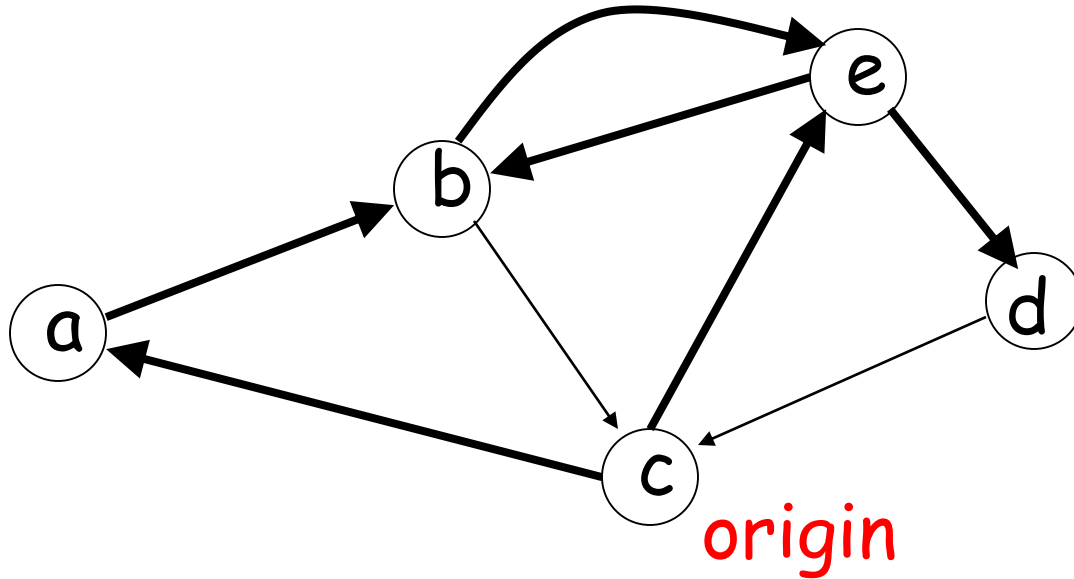
$(c, a), (a, b)$

$(c, e)$

$(c, e), (e, b)$

$(c, e), (e, d)$

# Step 3



(c, a)

(c, a), (a, b)

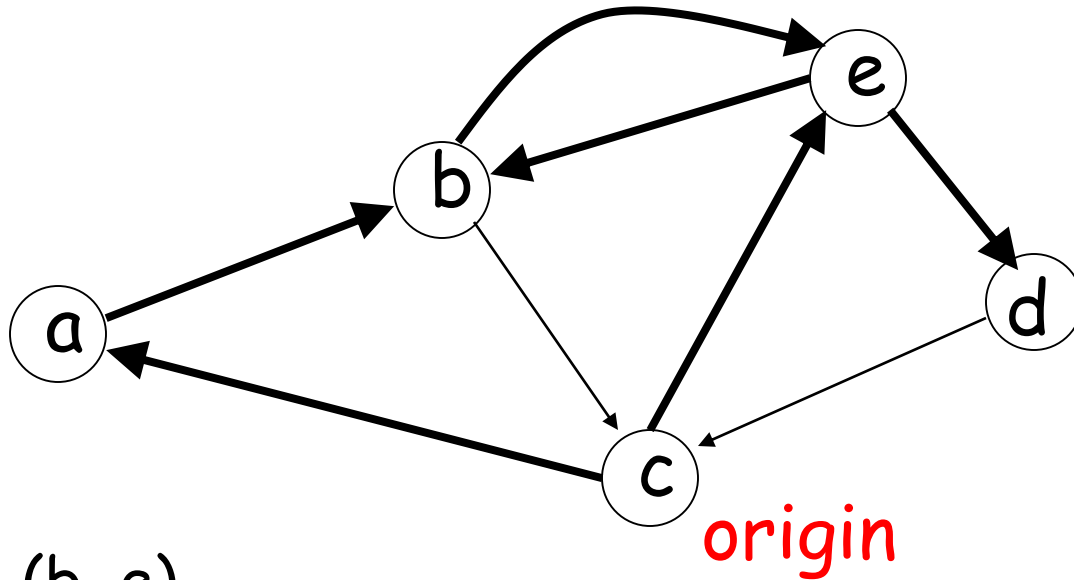
(c, a), (a, b), (b, e)

(c, e)

(c, e), (e, b)

(c, e), (e, d)

# Step 4



$(c, a)$

$(c, a), (a, b)$

$(c, a), (a, b), (b, e)$

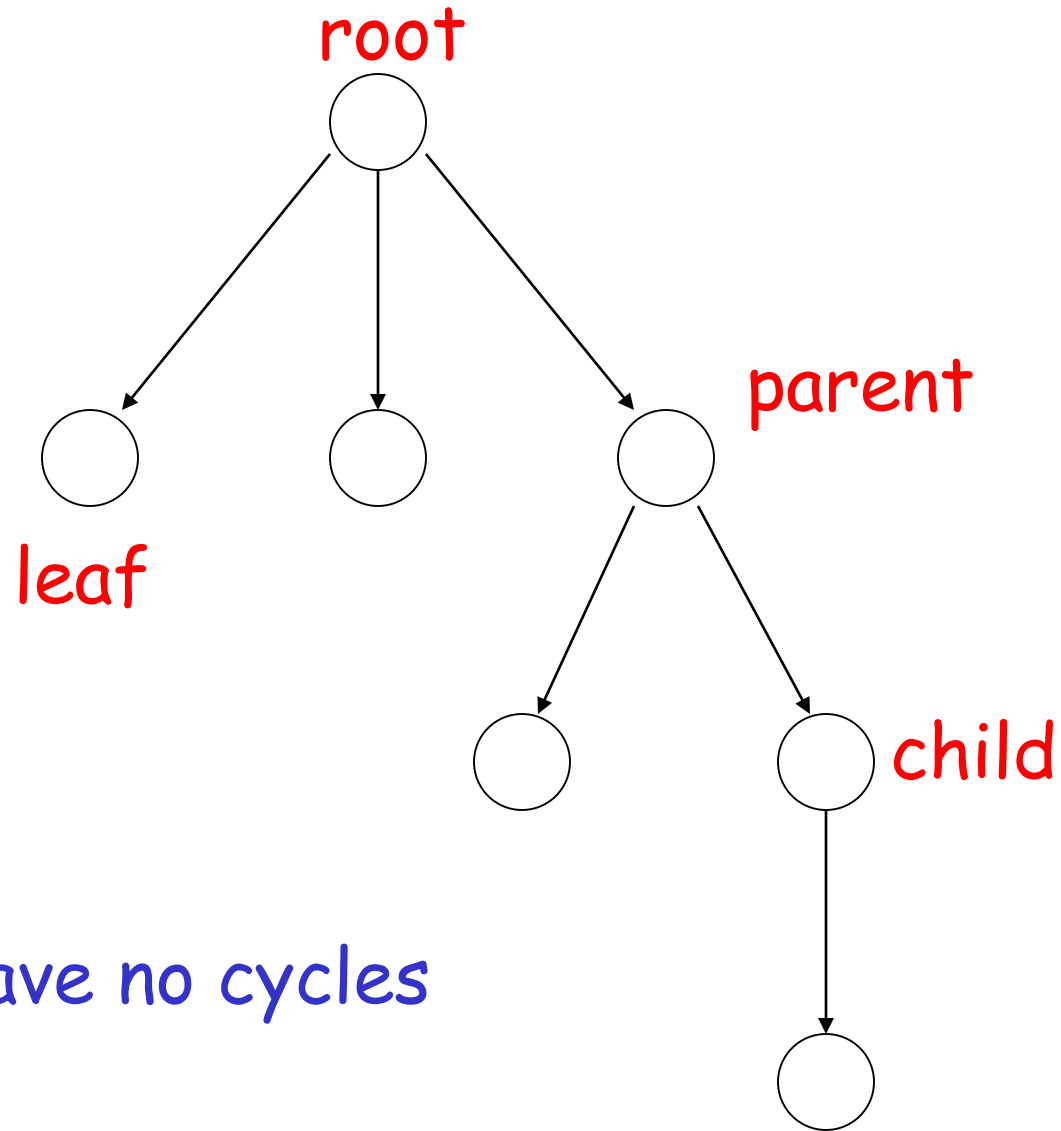
$(c, a), (a, b), (b, e), (e, d)$

$(c, e)$

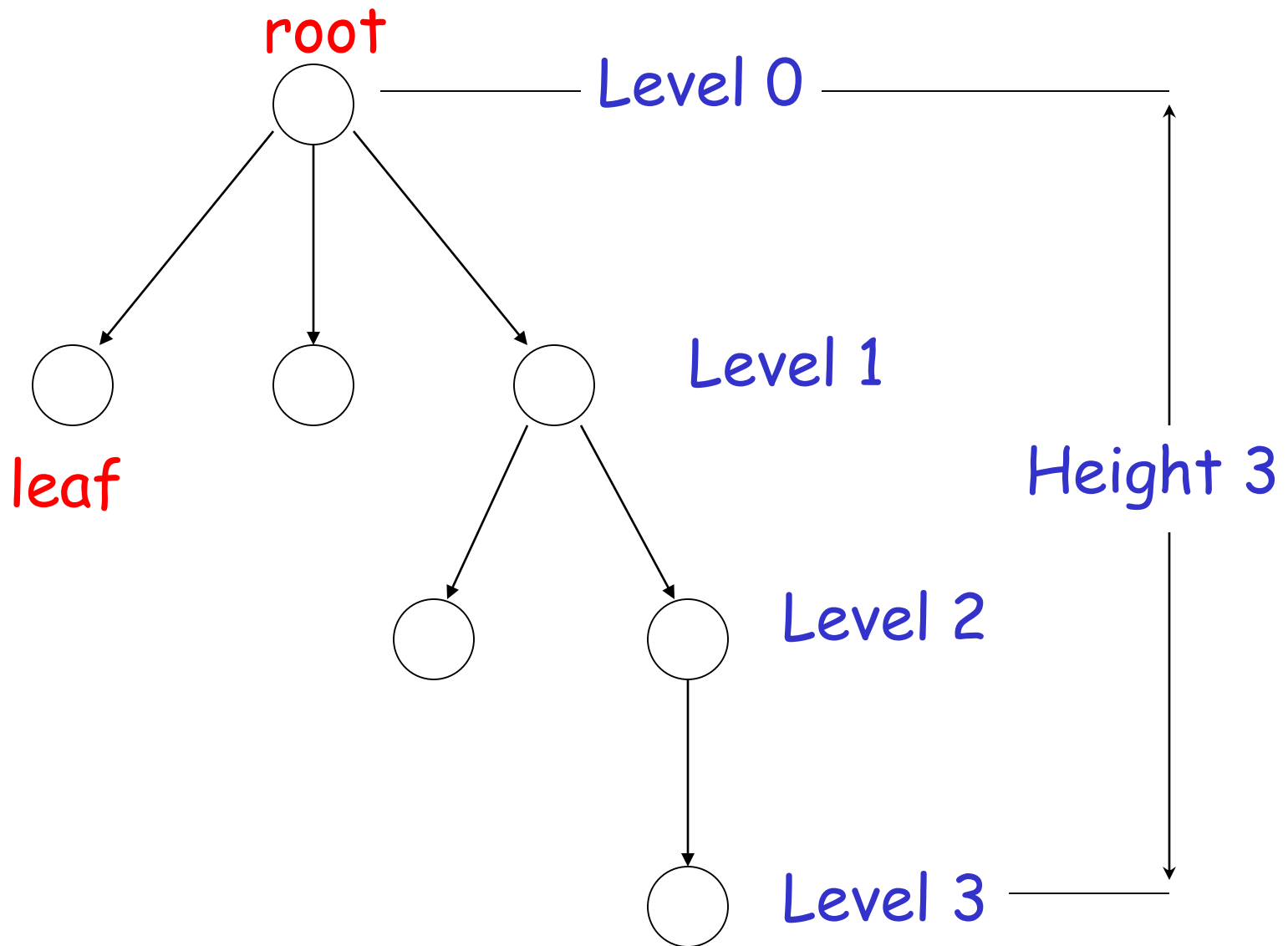
$(c, e), (e, b)$

$(c, e), (e, d)$

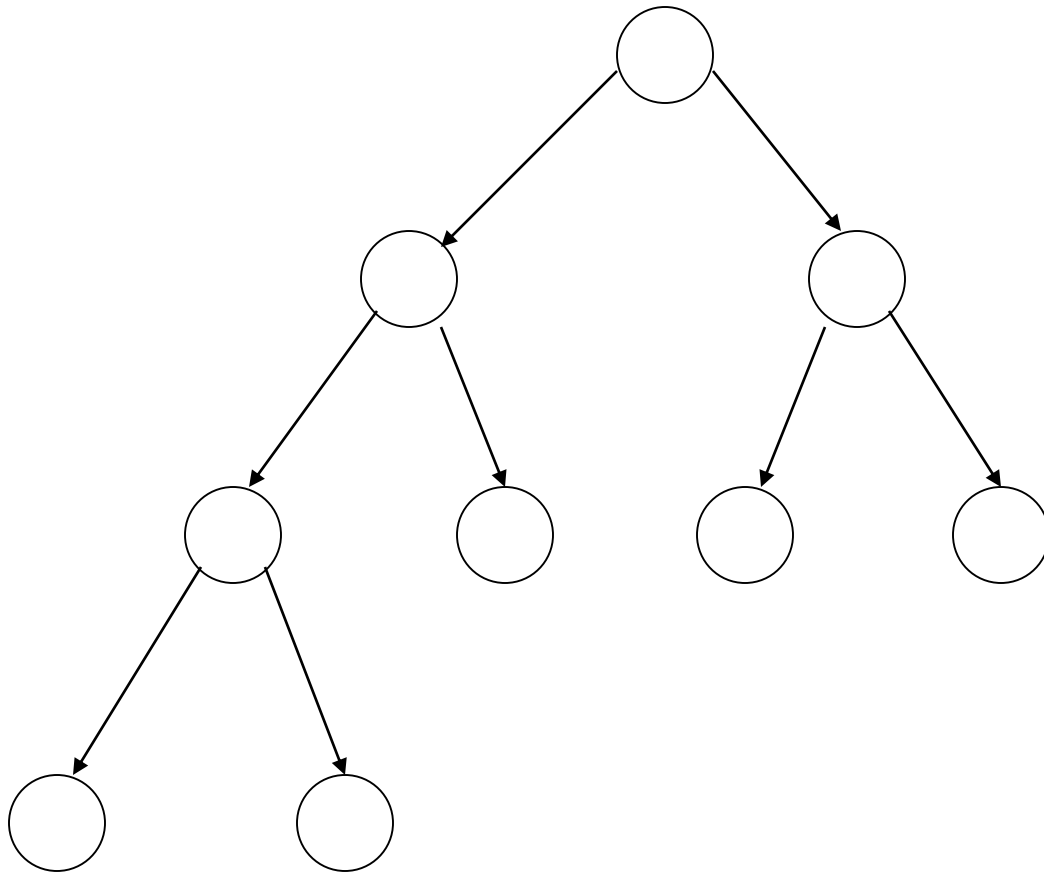
# Trees



Trees have no cycles



# Binary Trees



# PROOF TECHNIQUES

- Proof by induction
- Proof by contradiction



# Induction

We have statements  $P_1, P_2, P_3, \dots$

If we know

- for some  $b$  that  $P_1, P_2, \dots, P_b$  are true
- for any  $k \geq b$  that

$$P_1, P_2, \dots, P_k \text{ imply } P_{k+1}$$

Then

Every  $P_i$  is true

# Proof by Induction

- Inductive basis

Find  $P_1, P_2, \dots, P_b$  which are true

- Inductive hypothesis

Let's assume  $P_1, P_2, \dots, P_k$  are true,  
for any  $k \geq b$

- Inductive step

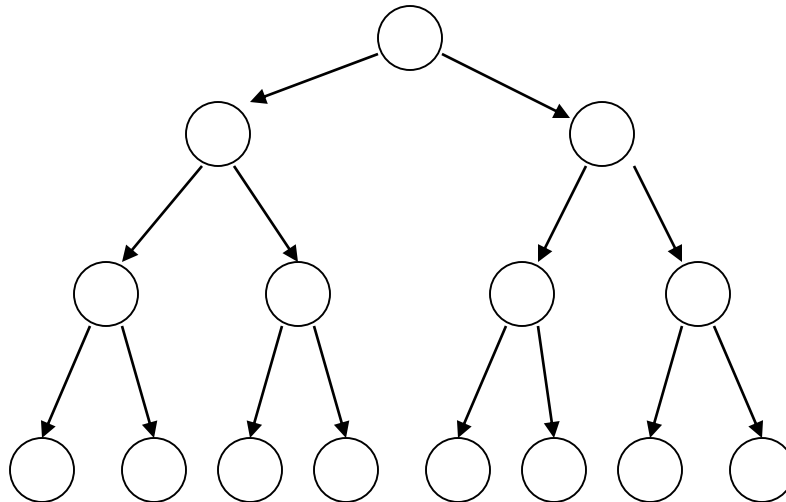
Show that  $P_{k+1}$  is true

# Example

**Theorem:** A binary tree of height  $n$  has at most  $2^n$  leaves.

## Proof by induction:

let  $L(i)$  be the number of leaves at level  $i$



$$L(0) = 1$$

$$L(1) = 2$$

$$L(2) = 4$$

$$L(3) = 8$$

We want to show:  $L(i) \leq 2^i$

- Inductive basis

$$L(0) = 1 \quad (\text{the root node})$$

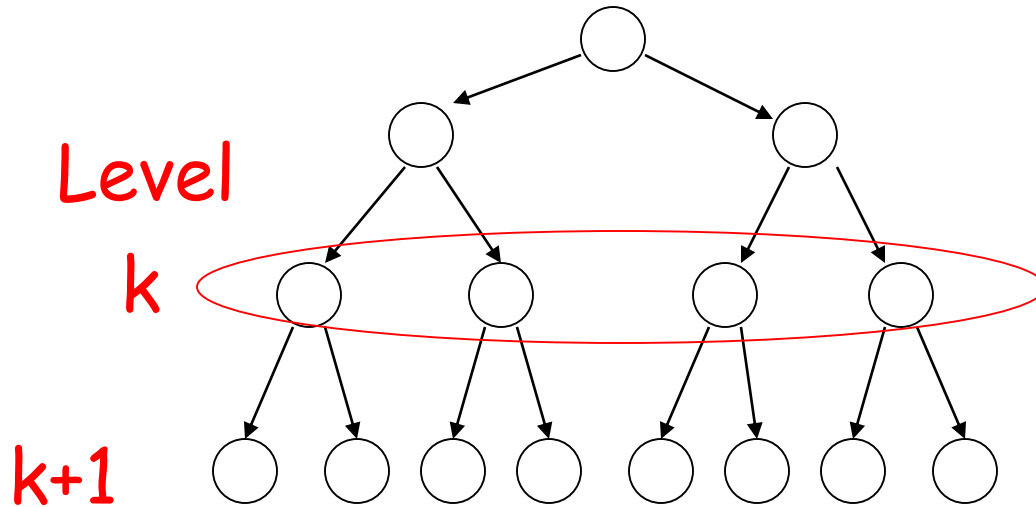
- Inductive hypothesis

Let's assume  $L(i) \leq 2^i$  for all  $i = 0, 1, \dots, k$

- Induction step

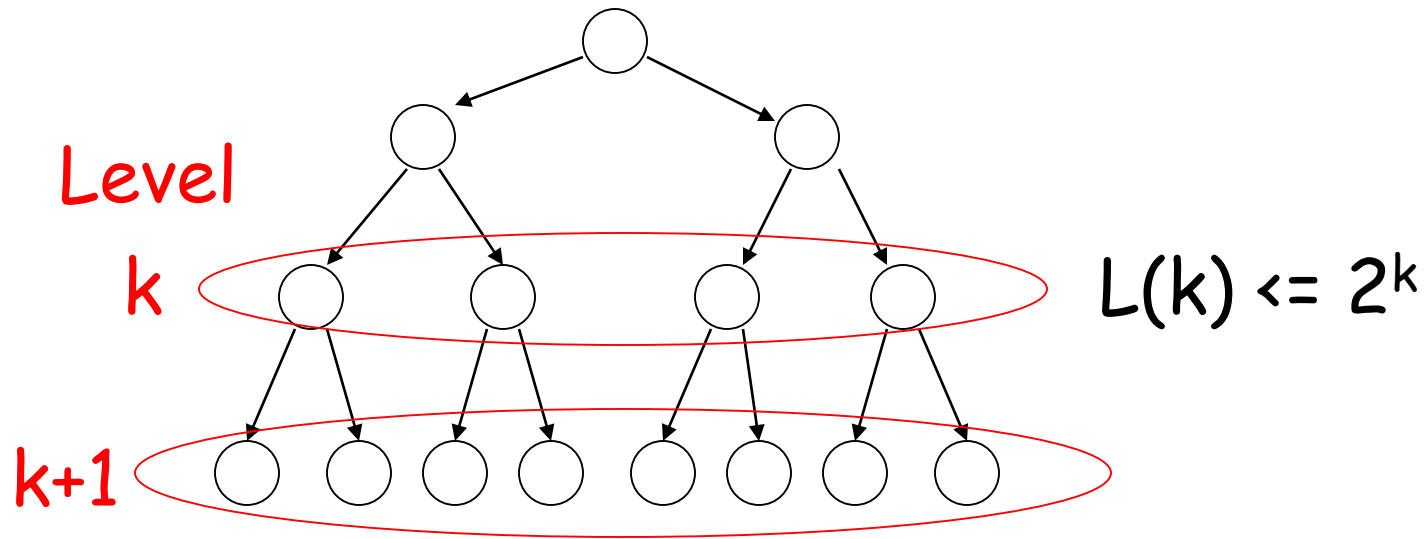
we need to show that  $L(k + 1) \leq 2^{k+1}$

# Induction Step



From Inductive hypothesis:  $L(k) \leq 2^k$

# Induction Step



$$L(k+1) \leq 2 * L(k) \leq 2 * 2^k = 2^{k+1}$$

# Remark

Recursion is another thing

Example of recursive function:

$$f(n) = f(n-1) + f(n-2)$$

$$f(0) = 1, \quad f(1) = 1$$

# Proof by Contradiction

We want to prove that a statement  $P$  is true

- we assume that  $P$  is false
- then we arrive at an incorrect conclusion
- therefore, statement  $P$  must be true



# Example

Theorem:  $\sqrt{2}$  is not rational

Proof:

Assume by contradiction that it is rational

$$\sqrt{2} = n/m$$

$n$  and  $m$  have no common factors

We will show that this is impossible

$$\sqrt{2} = n/m \quad \longrightarrow \quad 2 m^2 = n^2$$

Therefore,  $n^2$  is even  $\longrightarrow$   $n$  is even  
 $n = 2 k$

$$2 m^2 = 4 k^2 \quad \longrightarrow \quad m^2 = 2 k^2 \quad \longrightarrow \quad \begin{array}{l} m \text{ is even} \\ m = 2 p \end{array}$$

Thus,  $m$  and  $n$  have common factor 2

**Contradiction!**