OPENCOURSEWARE



Theory of Computer Science – SCJ 3203

Introduction

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- Overview of:
 - Automata Theory
 - Complexity Theory, and
 - Computability Theory
- Mathematical Preliminaries





Automata Theory

- deals with the definitions and properties of mathematical models of computation.
 - Finite Automata (FA) used in text processing, compilers and hardware design.
 - Context-free Grammar (CFG) used in programming languages and artificial intelligence.





Complexity Theory

- Computer problems :
 - − easy ⇒ sorting
 - − hard ⇒ scheduling
- What makes some problems computationally hard and others easy ?
- We don't know what make them easy and hard but we know how to classify each problems with an elegant scheme.
 - Cryptography is supposed to be a hard problem.





Computability Theory

- There are some problems which can't be solved by computers, e.g., determining whether a mathematical statement is true or false.
- The object of the Computability Theory is to classify the problems whether they are solvable by computers or not.





Mathematical Notions and Terminology Used

- Sets
- Functions and Relations
- Sequences and Tuples
- Trees
- Strings and Languages
- Boolean Logic
- Proof Techniques





Sets

- Importance: languages are sets
- A set is a collection of "things," called the elements or members of the set. It is essential to have a criterion for determining, for any given thing, whether it is or is not a member of the given set. This criterion is called the membership criterion of the set.







- There are two common ways of indicating the members of a set:
 - List all the elements, e.g. {a, e, i, o, u}
 - Provide some sort of an algorithm or rule, such as a grammar







- Notation:
 - To indicate that x is a member of set S, we write $x \in S$
 - We denote the empty set (the set with no members) as {}
 or Ø
 - If every element of set A is also an element of set B, we say that A is a subset of B, and write A ⊆ B
 - If every element of set A is also an element of set B, but B also has some elements not contained in A, we say that A is a proper subset of B, and write $A \subset B$





Operations on Sets

- The union of sets A and B, written
 A ∪ B, is a set that contains everything that is in A, or in B, or in both.
- The intersection of sets A and B, written A

 B, is a set that contains exactly those elements that are in both A and B.





Operations on Sets

- The set difference of set A and set B, written A B, is a set that contains everything that is in A but not in B.
- The complement of a set A, written as -A or (better) A with a bar drawn over it, is the set containing everything that is not in A. This is almost always used in the context of some universal set U that contains "everything" (meaning "everything we are interested in at the moment"). Then -A is shorthand for U - A.





Additional terminology

- The cardinality of a set A, written |A|, is the number of elements in a set A.
- The powerset of a set Q, written 2Q, is the set of all subsets of Q. The notation suggests the fact that a set containing n elements has a powerset containing 2n elements, including empty set.
- Two sets are disjoint if they have no elements in common, that is, if $A \cap B = \emptyset$.





Sequences and Tuples

- A sequence of objects is a list of those objects in some order.
- Usually designate by writing the list within parenthesis, e.g. (3,2,5).
- may be finite or infinite.
- finite sequences called tuples.
- sequence with k elements is a k-tuple, e.g., (3,2,5) is a 3-tuple.



Cartesian product (Cross product)

 If A and B are two sets, the Cartesian product of A and B, written A x B, is the set of all pairs wherein the first element is a member of A and the second element is a member of B.





Relations and Functions

- Importance: need basic familiarity with the terminology
- A relation on sets S and T is a set of ordered pairs (s, t), where
 - $s \in S$ (s is a member of S),
 - $-t \in T$,
 - S and T need not be different,
 - The set of all first elements (s) is the domain of the relation, and
 - The set of all second elements is the range of the relation.





Trees

- Importance: Trees are used in some algorithms.
- A tree is a kind of digraph:
 - It has one distinguished vertex called the root;
 - There is exactly one path from the root to each vertex; and
 - The level of a vertex is the length of the path to it from the root.





Trees

- Terminology:
 - if there is an edge from A to B, then A is the parent of B, and B is the child of A.
 - A leaf is a node with no children.
 - The height of a tree is the largest level number of any vertex.





Boolean Logic

- AND (conjunction) \wedge
- OR (disjunction) \lor
- NOT (negation) —
- XOR (exclusive or) \oplus
- Equality ↔ : 1 if both of its operands have the same value.
- Implication → : 0 if its first operand is 1 and the second operand is 0; otherwise 1.





Proof techniques

- Construction
 - Prove a "there exists" statement by finding the object that exists
- Contradiction
 - Assume the opposite and find a contradiction
- Induction
 - Show true for a base case and show that if the property holds for the value k, then it must also hold for the value k + 1





Proof by Construction - Example

- A graph is k-regular if all vertices has degree k
- Proof the following theorem:
 - For all even numbers n > 2, there exists a 3-regular graph with n nodes.
- Strategy:
 - Find such graph, G by providing formal description of it:

$$- V = \{0, 1, ..., n-1\}$$

 $\begin{array}{l} - \ E = \{ \{i, i{+}1\} \mid for \ 0 \leq i \leq n{-}2 \ \} \cup \{ \{n{-}1, 0\} \} \cup \{ \{i, i + n/2\} \\ \mid 0 \leq i \leq n/2 \ {-}1 \ \} \} \end{array}$





Proof by Contradiction - Example

- A number is rational if it is a fraction m/n where m and n are integers (e.g. 2/3 is a rational number, 4/6 is irrational)
- Proof that $\sqrt{2}$ is irrational.
- Strategy:
 - Assume that $\sqrt{2}$ is rational: $\sqrt{2} = m/n$
 - When m/n is rational, both m and n cannot be even numbers
 - $n\sqrt{2} = m$, $2n^2 = m^2$ by squaring both sides
 - so m^2 is an even number and can be written as 2k, proceed!





Proof by induction - Example

- Theorem: A binary tree with n leaves has 2n 1 nodes
- Proving the theorem by induction:
 - <u>Basis</u>: Compute number of nodes for a binary tree with one leave.
 - <u>Induction step</u>:
 - Assume the theorem is true for binary trees with number of leaves, n ≥ 1
 - Compute the number of nodes for case of n + 1





