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# Lecture I Mathematical Preliminaries and Notations

### COSE215: Theory of Computation

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### Contents

#### • Basic concepts of

- Sets
- Functions
- Graphs & Trees
- Proof techniques
- Alphabets & Strings
- Languages & Grammars

#### • A set is a collection of elements

If x is an element of set S, we can write this as follow

 $x \in S$ 

A set can be represented by naming all its elements

 $\bigstar S = \{x, y, z\}$ 

If the rules of the elements in the set are clear, we can use explicit notation

\*  $S = \{k: k > 0, k \text{ is even}\}$ 

- A set with no elements is called the empty set (or null set)
   \$\$\overline{\overlin}\overline{\overline{\overlin
- The size of a finite set is the number of elements in it

♦ If 
$$S = \{x, y, z\}$$
, then  $|S| = 3$ 

### Set operations

- Union
  - $A \cup B = \{x : x \in A \text{ or } x \in B\}$
- Intersection

$$A \cap B = \{ x : x \in A \text{ and } x \in B \}$$

- Difference
  - $A B = \{x : x \in A \text{ and } x \notin B\}$
- Complementation

 $\bigstar \ \bar{A} = \{x \colon x \in U, x \notin A\}$ 



#### • Subset

- If every element of A is also an element of B, we write this as
   ★ A ⊆ B
- If  $A \subseteq B$ , but B contains an element not in A

♦ We say that A is a **proper** subset of B:  $A \subset B$ 

### • Disjoint

If A and B have no common element

**\*** Then the sets are said to be **disjoint**:  $A \cap B = \emptyset$ 

#### • Powerset

The set of all subsets of a set S is called the powerset of S

• Denoted by  $2^s$ 

For example, if S is the set {a, b, c}, then its powerset is

• 
$$2^{s} = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{c\}, \{a, b\}, \{a, c\}, \{b, c\}, \{a, b, c\}\}$$
  
•  $|2^{s}| = 2^{|s|}$ 

#### Cartesian product

- Cartesian product of two sets
  - $A \times B = \{ (x, y) : x \in A \text{ and } y \in B \}$
  - \* Ordered pairs

### Functions

#### Function

- Rules for assigning elements in one set to a unique element in another set
   ♦ f: A → B
  - ✤ A = Domain
  - ✤ B = Range
- If the domain of f is all of A, we say that f is a **total function** 
  - $\clubsuit$  Otherwise, f is said to be a **partial function**

## **Graphs & Trees**

### • Graph

A graph consists of two finite sets: vertices and edges

\* G = (V, E), where  $V = \{v_1, v_2, ..., v_n\}$  and  $E = \{e_1, e_2, ..., e_m\}$ 

 $\clubsuit$  Each edge is a pair of vertices from V

• 
$$e_i = (v_j, v_k)$$

### • Directed graph (digraph)

Associate a direction with each edge



# **Graphs & Trees**

#### • Walk

Sequence of edges

### • Path

Walk with no repeated edges

### • Simple path

Path with no vertices repeated

### • Cycle

• A walk from  $v_i$  to itself with no repeated edges



# **Graphs & Trees**

#### • Tree

- Directed graph with no cycles
- One vertex designated as "root"
  - Exactly one path from root to every other vertex

#### Leaves

Vertices without outgoing edges

#### Level

The number of edges in the path from the root to a vertex

#### Height

The largest level number of any vertex



#### • How can we prove the truth of a claim?

- Proof by induction
- Proof by contradiction

#### Proof by induction

- Truth of a few instances => Truth of a number of statements
- Suppose we want to prove P<sub>1</sub>, P<sub>2</sub>, ... to be true

 $\bullet$  We first prove that it is true when  $n = I(P_1)$ 

Assuming it is true for  $n = k (P_k)$  and showing it is true for  $n = k+1 (P_{k+1})$ 

=> Then, every Pi is true

- A binary tree is a tree in which no parent can have more than two children.
   Prove that a binary tree of height n has at most 2<sup>n</sup> leaves.
  - ✤ l(n): Maximum number of leaves
  - ♦ We want to show that  $l(n) \le 2^n$

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   Prove that a binary tree of height n has at most 2<sup>n</sup> leaves.
  - I. When n = 0,  $l(0) = 1 = 2^0$

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    - $l(n+1) \leq 2l(n)$

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  - 3. To get a binary tree of height n+1 from one of height n, at most, two leaves in place of each previous one
    - $l(n+1) \leq 2l(n)$
  - 4. Therefore,  $l(n + 1) \le 2l(n) \le 2 \times 2^n = 2^{n+1}$

### Proof by contradiction

- To prove P is true, assume P is false
- If we arrive at a conclusion that we know is incorrect => P is true
- E.g., prove that  $\sqrt{2}$  is an irrational number
  - I. Assume that  $\sqrt{2}$  is a rational number:  $\sqrt{2} = \frac{n}{m}$  (n, m are integers without a common factor)

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$$2m^2 = n^2$$
, which implies that n is even (let n = 2k)

3. Then  $2m^2 = 4k^2$ , which implies that m is even => contradict

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  - 3. Then  $2m^2 = 4k^2$ , which implies that m is even => contradict
  - 4. Hence,  $\sqrt{2}$  is an irrational number

# **Alphabets & Strings**

### • Alphabets ( $\Sigma$ )

- Finite, non-empty set of symbols
- E.g.,  $\Sigma = \{a, b, c\}$

### • Strings

- Sequence of symbols
- E.g., "aaabbb", "abcbca"
- Empty string  $\lambda$ :  $|\lambda| = 0$

# **Alphabets & Strings**

#### • **\Sec:**

- A set of strings obtained by concatenating zero or more symbols from *S*
- E.g., if  $\Sigma = \{a\}$ , then  $\Sigma^* = \{\lambda, a, aa, aaa, ...\}$
- Σ<sup>+</sup>
  - $\blacksquare$  A set of strings obtained by concatenating **one** or more symbols from  $\varSigma$

• E.g., if 
$$\Sigma = \{a\}$$
, then  $\Sigma^+ = \{a, aa, aaa, ...\}$ 

•  $\Sigma^+ = \Sigma^* - \{\lambda\}$ 

#### • Language

- A set of character strings
- A subset of  $\Sigma^*$
- A string in a language L is called a sentence of L

• E.g., 
$$\Sigma = \{a, b\}$$

• Then  $\Sigma^* = \{\lambda, a, b, aa, ab, ba, bb, aaa, aab, ...\}$ 

 $\clubsuit$  {a, aa, aaa} is a language for  $\varSigma$ 

↔ L = {a<sup>n</sup>b<sup>n</sup>: n ≥ 0} is also a language for Σ

#### Language operations

- Union, intersection, and difference of two languages
- Complementation

$$\clubsuit \ \overline{L} = \ \Sigma^* - L$$

Reverse

$$\clubsuit L^R = \{ w^R \colon w \in L \}$$

Concatenation

★  $L_1L_2 = \{xy: x \in L_1, y \in L_2\}$ 

Star-closure

★  $L^* = L^0 \cup L^1 \cup L^2 \dots (L^0 = \{\lambda\} \text{ and } L^i \text{ as } L \text{ concatenated with itself } i \text{ times})$ 

Positive-closure

 $\bigstar L^+ = L^1 \cup L^2 \dots$ 

### • Grammar (G)

- A set of rules used to define the structure of the strings in a language
- G = (V, T, S, P)
  - ✤ V: Set of variables (non-empty)
  - T: Set of terminal symbols (non-empty; V and T are disjoint)
  - ↔ S: Start variable ( $S \in V$ )
  - P: Set of productions

#### Production rules

• Specify how the grammar transforms one string into another  $x \to y$ , where  $x \in (V \cup T)^+$  and  $y \in (V \cup T)^*$ 

• Given a string w = uxv

• If we apply  $x \to y$  then a new string z is obtained: z = uyv

**\bigstar** This is written as  $w \Rightarrow z$  (w **derives** z)

Shorthand representation

 $w \Rightarrow z \text{ (derives in one step)}$ 

$$• w \Rightarrow z \text{ (derives in one or more steps)}$$

$$\bigstar w \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} z \text{ (derives in zero or more steps)}$$

#### • Example grammar

• G = ({S}, {a, b}, S, P) with P given by

 $\bigstar S \to aSb \text{ and } S \to \lambda \ (S \to aSb \mid \lambda)$ 

We can derive the string "aabb"

 $S \Rightarrow aSb \Rightarrow aaSbb \Rightarrow aabb$ 

**\*** Therefore,  $S \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} aabb$ 

### • Grammar specifies a language

- The language of G
  - $\boldsymbol{\diamondsuit}$  Set of strings derived from the start symbol of G
  - $\clubsuit$  Denoted by L(G)
  - $\clubsuit$  For the previous example, L(G) can be defined as follows
    - $G = ({S}, {a, b}, S, P)$  with P given by
      - $S \rightarrow aSb$  and  $S \rightarrow \lambda \ (S \rightarrow aSb \mid \lambda)$
    - $L(G) = \{a^n b^n : n \ge 0\}$

### **Next Lecture**

#### • Finite automata

- Deterministic finite automata (DFA)
- Nondeterministic finite automata (NFA)

# Appendix

#### • Equivalence relation

• To indicate that a pair (x, y) is in an equivalence relation

 $x \equiv y$ 

- Satisfy three rules
  - **\*** Reflexivity rule  $x \equiv x$  for all x
  - Symmetry rule if  $x \equiv y$ , then  $y \equiv x$
  - **\*** Transitivity rule if  $x \equiv y$  and  $y \equiv z$ , then  $x \equiv z$
- E.g., x ≡ y if and only if x mod 3 = y mod 3
   ★ x mod 3 = x mod 3
  - $x \mod 3 = y \mod 3 \text{ then } y \mod 3 = x \mod 3$
  - $x \mod 3 = y \mod 3$ , and  $y \mod 3 = z \mod 3$ , then  $x \mod 3 = z \mod 3$