

# DECISION PROBLEMS

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- A problem is **decidable** if it has an algorithmic solution, and **undecidable** otherwise.

## ***Examples of decision problems***

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### 4. **Termination.** $I$ consists of the programs $p$ (in Python say).

$P$  is “ $p$  terminates for all legal inputs.”

## ***A mystery problem: Integer Partition***

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- Primality, Connectivity and Substring have each an efficient solution.  
Termination does not have any solution.  
Here is a problem for which there is a solution  
but we don't know if there is an efficient one.

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is there a set  $P \subseteq S$  that adds up to half of  $\Sigma S$ .
- That is,
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- What algorithm is a solution?  
What's wrong with it?

# LANGUAGES



## ***Language = set of strings***

---

- Given an alphabet  $\Sigma$  a  $\Sigma$ -**language** (or **language over**  $\Sigma$ ) is a set of  $\Sigma$ -strings.
- Don't confuse strings and languages:  
Languages are sets, and can be finite or infinite.  
Strings are data-objects, and are finite by definition.

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- ▶ The decimal numerals for prime numbers:  
 $\{2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, 19, 23, 29 \dots\}$ .

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- ▶ The decimal numerals for prime numbers:  
 $\{2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, 19, 23, 29 \dots\}$ .
- ▶ The binary numerals for prime numbers:  
 $\{10, 11, 101, 111, 1011, 1101, 10001, 10011, 10111, 11101, \dots\}$ .



## ***More examples***

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- ▶ The syntactically correct JavaScript programs
- ▶ The Python programs that terminate for all input

# TEXTUAL DECISION PROBLEMS

## *Each language is a decision problem*

---

- Each language  $L \subseteq \Sigma^*$  is a decision problem:
  - ▶ Instances:  $w \in \Sigma^*$
  - ▶ Property:  $w \in L$

## ***Conversely: Each decision problem is a language***

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- The codes of the instances satisfying  $P$  form a language!
- Example: Using binary numerals the Primality problem becomes the language **10, 11, 101, 111, 1011, ...**
- Once we set a coding method, we write  $a^\#$  for the code of  $a$  (at least when distinguishing between  $a$  and  $a^\#$  matters).

# DELINEATING LANGUAGES

## *Operations on languages*

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- If  $L$  and  $M$  are languages then we obtain new languages by basic set operations, such as union ( $L \cup M$ ), intersection ( $L \cap M$ ), and difference ( $L - M$ ).
- Those operations work for any sets.  
We consider next operations that are specific to languages.

## *String operations applied pointwise*

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- Generally, a function  $f : \Sigma^* \rightarrow \Sigma^*$   
induces a function  $\hat{f}$  on  $\Sigma$ -languages:

$$\hat{f}(L) = \{ f(w) \mid w \in L \}$$

## Language concatenation

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- From concatenation on strings  
we get a concatenation operation on languages:  
The **concatenation** of languages  $L, M$  is

$$L \cdot M =_{\text{df}} \{u \cdot v \mid u \in L, v \in M\}$$

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  - ▶  $\Sigma^* \cdot \Sigma^* = \Sigma^*$

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So  $\{\epsilon\}$  is the unit of language concatenation,  
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- $\Sigma \cdot \Sigma =$

The  $\Sigma$ -strings of length 2.

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$$\{1, 11\} \cdot \{1, 11\} = \{1, 11, 111\}$$

## ***Associativity***

---

$$\begin{aligned}L \cdot (K \cdot M) &= \{x \cdot (y \cdot z) \mid x \in L, y \in K, z \in M\} \\ &= \{(x \cdot y) \cdot z \mid x \in L, y \in K, z \in M\} \\ &= (L \cdot K) \cdot M\end{aligned}$$

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Yes: E.g. the language  $E$  of strings of even length:

$E \subseteq E \cdot E$  because  $\varepsilon \in E$

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Also:  $\emptyset$ ,  $\{\varepsilon\}$

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To make this true for  $k = 0$ :  $L^n \cdot L^0 = L^{n+0}$

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the neutral language for concatenation

## *Iterated concatenation*

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- This is the **(Kleene) star** of  $L$ .

$x \in L^*$  iff  $x = \varepsilon$  or  $x = w_1 \cdot w_2 \cdots w_n$  for some  $w_i \in L$ .

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## Some properties of star

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- $L^*$  is the smallest language containing  $L$  and  $\varepsilon$  and closed under concatenation.
- $L^* \cdot L^* \subseteq L^*$  :  
If  $u = x_1 \cdots x_p$  and  $v = y_1 \cdots y_m$ , where  $x_i, y_j \in L$ ,  
then  $u \cdot v = x_1 \cdots x_p \cdot y_1 \cdots y_m \in L^*$   
(concatenation is associative!)
- A proof by induction on  $x \in L^*$  that for all  $y \in L^*$  we have  $x \cdot y \in L^*$  :
  - ▶ Basis: If  $y \in L^*$  then  $x \cdot y = \varepsilon \cdot y = y \in L^*$  .
  - ▶ Step: Assume  $x \cdot y \in L^*$  for all  $y \in L^*$ .  
Then for  $v \in L$   $(v \cdot x) \cdot y = v \cdot (x \cdot y)$  which is in  $L^*$  by definition  $L^*$ .

## *Some examples*

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- $\{\epsilon\}^* = \{\epsilon\}$
- $\emptyset^* = \{\epsilon\}$
- $\{00\}^* = \{0^{2n} \mid n \geq 0\}$

# LANGUAGE RESIDUES

## ***Acceptable complements***

---

- Given  $L \subseteq \Sigma^*$  and  $w \in \Sigma^*$   
consider the strings in  $L$  of the form  $w \cdot x$ ,  
i.e. that start with  $w$ .
- For example if  $L$  consists of English words  
and  $w$  is **con** then we look at words  
that start with **con**, such as  
**consider**, **contrary**, **condense**, and **con** itself.

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- Here are the remainders (the  $x$  in  $w \cdot x$ ) of the above:  
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I.e. the strings that complement **con** to an English word.
- The resulting language is the **residue** of the English language over **con**  
**con** itself is the **trunk** of that residue.
- In general, given  $L \subseteq \Sigma^*$  and  $w \in \Sigma^*$   
the **residue of  $L$  over  $w$**  is the language  $L/w = \{x \mid w \cdot x \in L\}$



## *Examples of residues*

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- Take  $L =$  English words.

$L/\text{invent}$  contains the strings **or, ion, ive, ed** and **ing**  
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For any other string  $w$ ,  $L/w = \emptyset$ .
- For any language  $L$  we have  $L/\epsilon = L$ :  
 $w \in L$  iff  $\epsilon \in L/w$ .

## Another example

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- $L = \{0, 00, 010\}$

$$L/\epsilon = L$$

$$L/0 = \{\epsilon, 1, 0\}$$

$$L/00 = \{\epsilon\}$$

$$L/01 = \{0\}$$

$$L/010 = \{\epsilon\}$$

$$L/w = \emptyset \quad \text{for any other } w$$

- $L/00 = L/010$ , so there are five distinct residues.

## *The regular languages*

---

- The **basic  $\Sigma$ -languages** are generated from the finite  $\Sigma$ -languages and  $\Sigma^*$  by the clauses
  - ▶ the set operations of union, intersection, and difference; and
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  - ▶ the set operations of union, intersection, and difference; and
  - ▶ the language operations of concatenation, plus and star.
- That is:
  - $\Sigma^*$  and the Finite languages are basic.
  - If  $L, M$  are basic then so are  $L \cap M$ ,  $L \cup M$  and  $L - M$ .
  - If  $L$  is basic then so are  $L^+$  and  $L^*$ .



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- The **regular**  $\Sigma$ -languages are generated:
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- Rephrased:
  - The finite languages are regular.
  - If  $L, M$  are regular then so are  $L \cap M, L \cup M$  and  $L - M$ .
  - If  $L$  is regular then so is  $L^*$ .

## Strictly-regular languages

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- A formally narrower definition:
  - ▶  $\emptyset, \{\varepsilon\}$  and  $\{\sigma\}$  (for every  $\sigma \in \Sigma$ ) are strictly-regular.
  - ▶ If  $L, M$  are regular then so is  $L \cup M$ .
  - ▶ If  $L, M$  are regular then so are  $L \cdot M$  and  $L^*$ .
- Every strictly-regular language is regular.
- We shall prove the converse later.

## *Regular expressions*

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each expression is a **road-map**, i.e. recipe, notation, for the strictly-regular definition of a language.

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  - for each  $\sigma \in \Sigma$  the singleton language  $\{\sigma\}$  is denoted by  $\sigma$ .
- Suppose language  $L$  is denoted by  $\alpha$  and  $K$  by  $\beta$ . Then
  - $L \cup K$  is denoted by  $(\alpha) \mathbf{U} (\alpha)$ ,
  - $L \cdot K$  by  $(\alpha) \bullet (\beta)$ , and
  - $L^*$  by  $(\alpha)^*$ .

## Examples

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- ▶  $\{ab\}$  is denoted by  $(a) \bullet (b)$ .



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- ▶  $\{a, b\}^*$  is denoted by  $((a) \mathbf{U} (b))^*$  .

## ***Abbreviation conventions***

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  - ▶  $(a^*b)^*$  for  $((a)^*) \bullet ((b)^*)$ .