

CS100: Theory of Computation

Fall 2010

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What is a function?

- A function is a mapping from inputs to outputs
- Takes a set of **inputs** or **parameters**
- Produces a single or set of **outputs**
- Output is generally dependent on input

Simple functions

- Boolean AND
 - $\text{AND}(a, b) \rightarrow c$
- Addition
 - $\text{Add}(a, b) \rightarrow c$
- Yards to Meters
 - $\text{YtoM}(y) \rightarrow c$
- RGB to HSV
 - $\text{HSVtoRGB}(h,s,v) \rightarrow (r, g, b)$
- Sorted list
 - $\text{Sort}(\{L\}) \rightarrow \{SL\}$

Determining the mapping

- **Computing the function** is the process of determining the output from a given input
- Simplest approach is a look up table

Boolean AND

A	B	C
0	0	0
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	1

Lookup Tables are insufficient

- How do we design a look up table for yards to meters?
- Better to use a simple algebraic equation

$$m = 0.9144 * y$$

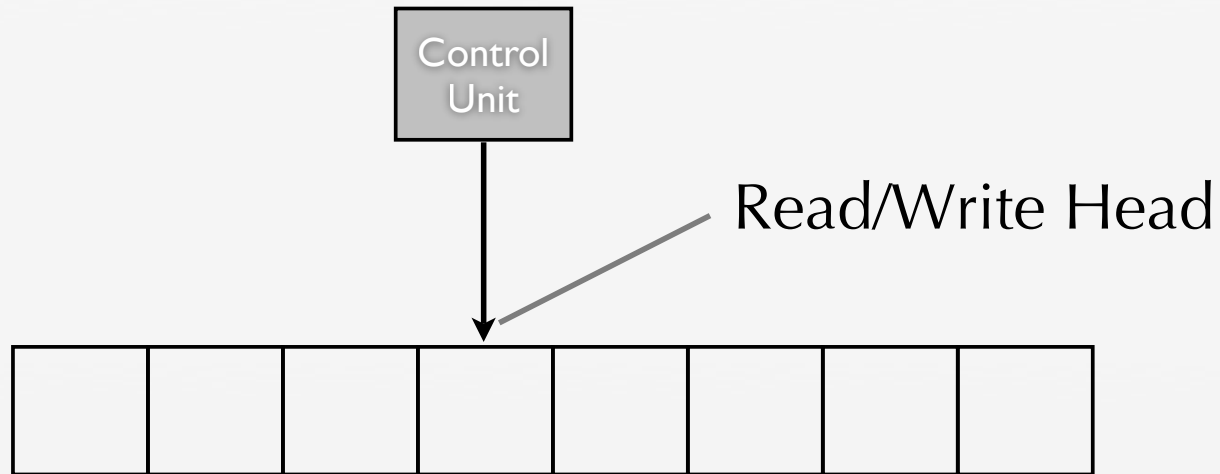
Can we compute any function?

- **No!** Some functions are too complex to compute
- What does this mean for computer scientists?
 - Machines can only perform tasks described by algorithms
 - If a function is not computable, a computer can't "solve" it
- How do we know what is computable?

Turing Machine

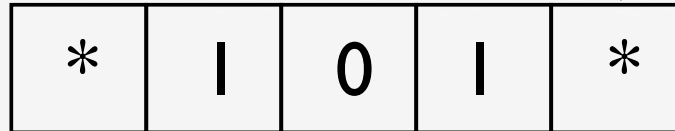
- Theoretical computing machine developed by **Alan Turing**
- Composed of:
 - a tape of **cells** (can be infinitely long)
 - cells have a finite set of symbols
 - a read/write head
 - for a single step the read/write head can move **one** cell left or right
 - a control unit
 - for which there are a finite set of states; special states for **START** and **HALT**
 - The current state coupled with the current symbol dictates next state and head movement

Turing Machine



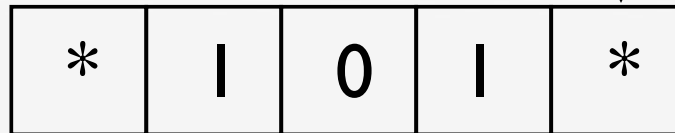
Turing Binary Add

State = START



Turing Binary Add

State = START



Current State	Current Cell	Write Value	Move Direction	Next State
START	*	*	LEFT	ADD
ADD	0	1	RIGHT	RETURN
ADD	1	0	LEFT	CARRY
ADD	*	*	RIGHT	HALT
CARRY	0	1	RIGHT	RETURN
CARRY	1	0	LEFT	CARRY
CARRY	*	1	LEFT	OVERFLOW
OVERFLOW	(any)	*	RIGHT	RETURN
RETURN	0	0	RIGHT	RETURN
RETURN	1	1	RIGHT	RETURN
RETURN	*	*	NO MOVE	HALT

Church-Turing

- A function that is computable by a turing machine is **Turing Computable**
- **Church-Turing** thesis states that any computable function is Turing Computable
- Turing machine would be a universal computation machine
- Any other machine that can compute every function a Turing Machine can must be a universal machine as well

Universal Language

- A programming language that can be used to define any Turing-computable function procedure
- Almost all modern languages have high-level complexity/abstraction for **convenience**, not universality
- Define a very simple language that is a universal language

Bare Bones Language

- Works with only non-negative integers
 - all other data types will be up to the programmer to define in terms of non-negative integers
- Allow for variable names
- End a statement with a ;
- Assignment operators:
 - *clear name;*
 - sets value of name to 0
 - *incr name;*
 - increases value of name by 1
 - *decr name;*
 - decreases value of name by 1 (unless 0)

BBL Control

- One Control Structure
 - while *name* not 0 do;
 -
 -
 -
 - end;
- This will execute so long as the variable name does not hold the value 0

Basic procedures

- How do we do direct assignment between variables?

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- How do we do direct assignment between variables
- Assignment without destruction? ($x \leftarrow y$)
- Adding two numbers? ($z \leftarrow x + y$)
- Multiplying two numbers? ($z \leftarrow x * y$)
- If-else?
 - e.g., if X not 0 then S1 else S2

Noncomputable functions

- **Halting problem** is an example of a noncomputable function
- Write a function that can predict whether a function will terminate or not
- Consider BB program:

```
while x not 0 do;  
  incr x;  
end;
```

- Termination depends on **input** value of x

Proving the Halting Problem

- We can logically prove that the halting problem is non-computable
- Termination or not depends on input, so we make a special termination case useful for our proof
- A **self-terminating** program is a program that will terminate if its input values are set to an encoding of the program code

Program encoding

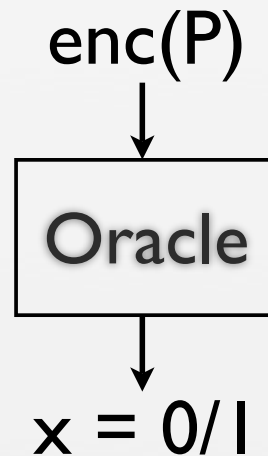
- Look at raw text of a program code
- Take the ASCII value of each character in the program code text and string them together into a single binary value
 - This is a really huge number because program code is usually many many bytes long in text
 - We don't care because this is all theoretical!
- while -> 'w' - 'h' - ...
'w' = 01110111
'h' = 01101000
- 0111011101101000...

Proof direction

- Key idea: if we cannot predict whether a program is self-terminating then we cannot compute the halting problem in general
 - since there is at least one input case where we can't: the self-terminating input case

Proof: Step 1

- Propose existence of program, **Oracle**, that states whether the encoding of another program X is self-terminating
 - that is, if program P sets its input to the value of its program's encoding, program oracle returns a value 1 if it halts, 0 otherwise



$x = 0$: P is self-terminating
 $x = 1$: P is NOT self-terminating

Proof: Step 2

- Propose a new program, **Paradox** defined as follows:

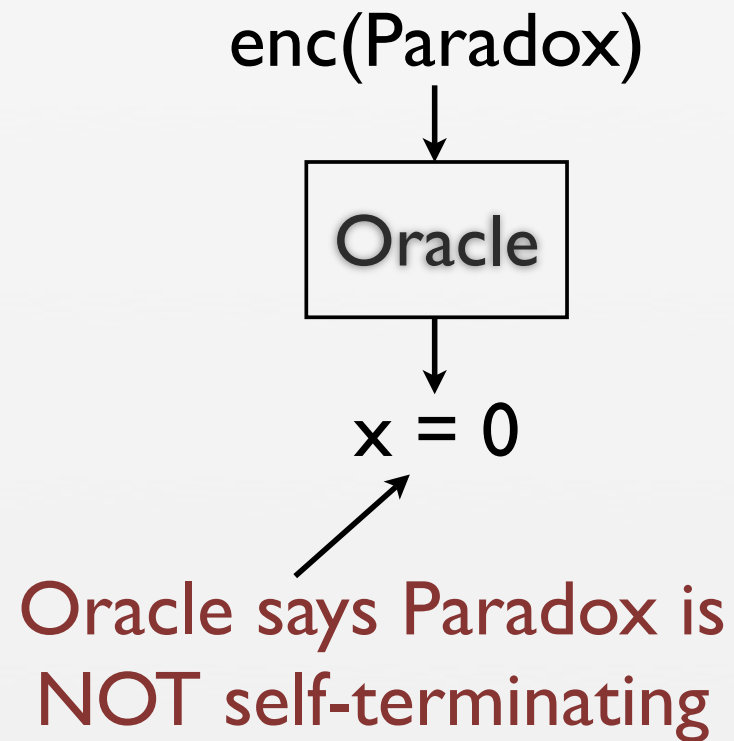
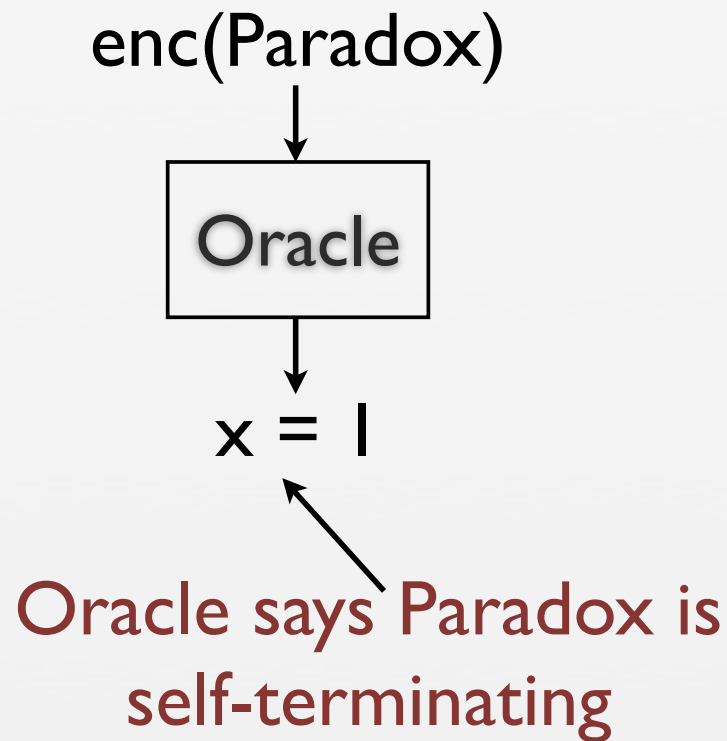
enc(P)
↓

Oracle

↓
x = 0/1
while x not 0 do;
 ;
end;

Proof Step 3

- Run Paradox through Oracle; 2 Possibilities



Proof: Step 4

- What happens when we actually run Paradox with its self encoding as input (self-terminating input)?

enc(Paradox)
↓
Oracle
↓
 $x = 1$
while x not 0 do;
 ;
end;

enc(Paradox)
↓
Oracle
↓
 $x = 0$
while x not 0 do;
 ;
end;

Proof: Step 4

- What happens when we actually run Paradox?

enc(Paradox)



$x = 1$

```
while x not 0 do;  
  ;  
end;
```

Loops forever!
Doesn't halt!

enc(Paradox)



$x = 0$

```
while x not 0 do;  
  ;  
end;
```

Proof: Step 4

- What happens when we actually run Paradox?

enc(Paradox)
↓
Oracle
↓
 $x = 1$
while x not 0 do;
;
end;

Won't loop!
Does halt!

enc(Paradox)
↓
Oracle
↓
 $x = 0$
while x not 0 do;
;
end;

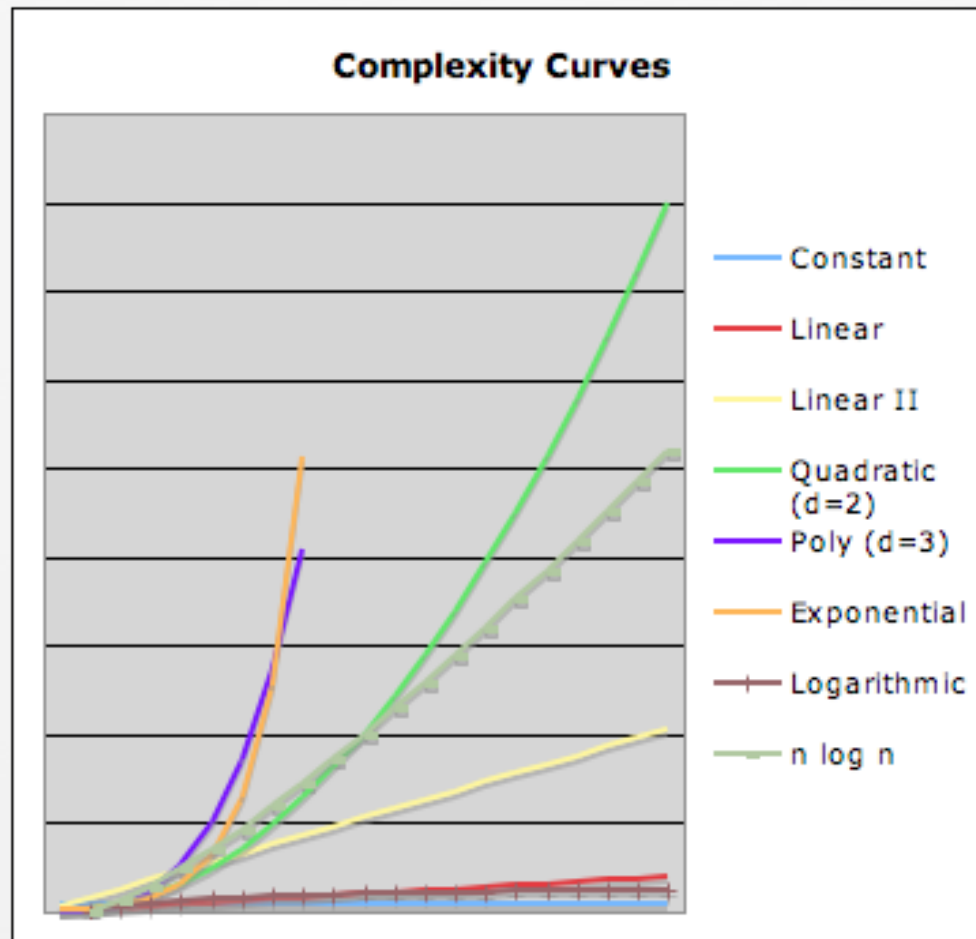
NP-Completeness

- Recall our time complexity analysis?
- Define a measure of how many **steps** it takes for an algorithm to complete based on the size of its input
- $O(f(n))$ means that a program's time step complexity is **dominated** by the function $f(n)$
 - where n is the input size

Complexity Classes

- $O(c)$: constant; program has a fixed number of steps regardless of input size
- $O(\log(n))$: number steps is dominated by a logarithmic growth in terms of the size of input
- $O(n)$: dominated by linear in terms of n
- $O(n \log(n))$: dominated by $n \log n$ term
- $O(n^c)$: dominated by polynomial in terms of n
- $O(c^n)$: dominated by exponential in terms of n

Complexity Classes

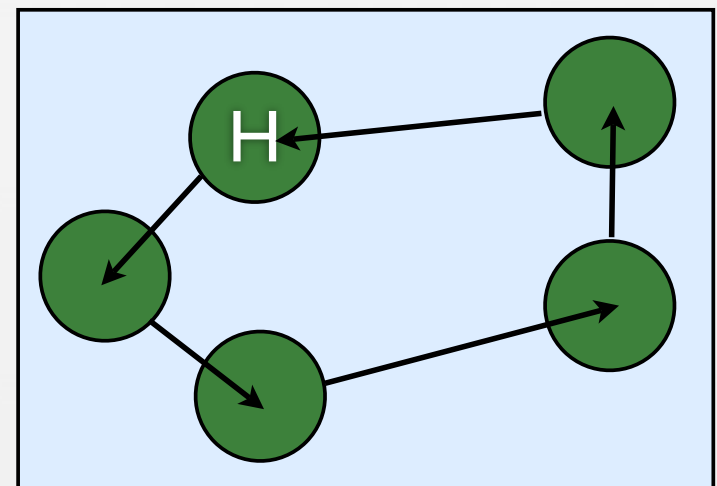
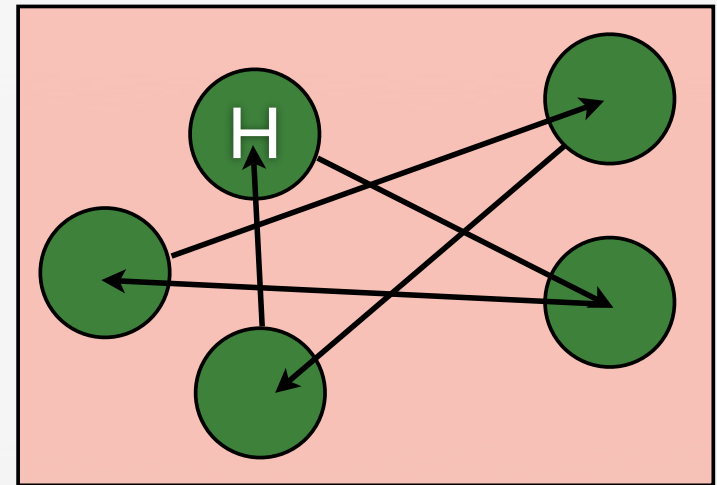


Tractability

- Generally we consider algorithms that can be executed in Polynomial time or better to be **tractable**
 - These grow slowly enough that we can use them on large problems and computer speed will increase until its feasible
 - Exists in complexity class **P**
- We claim that algorithms that are not bounded by a polynomial term as **intractable**
 - these grow way to fast to be practical on any large problem

Traveling Salesman (TSP)

- Given a set of n cities each at a different point in space (geography)
- Salesman starts from a home city and must visit each city exactly once and return home
- Salesman has a budget and must find a path that is cheap enough
 - short in number of miles



Determinism and Non-determinism

- An algorithm whose steps are fully defined is deterministic
 - will always execute the same way regardless of executor
 - This is the kind of algorithm in which we program computers
 - random numbers are even deterministic in terms of analysis, but in practice appear random to us
- An algorithm whose steps are not fully defined is non-deterministic
 - Different executors may execute certain steps differently

Algorithms for TSP

- Writing a deterministic algorithm for TSP requires an exponential number of steps
- A non-deterministic algorithm might only take a polynomial number of steps

Pick one of the possible paths, p
Compute distance of p , d
if $d < \text{allowable milage}$
 then (declare success)
 else (declare failure)

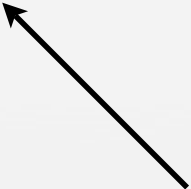
Algorithms for Traveling Salesman

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Pick one of the possible paths, p

Compute distance of p , d
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How is a good one
picked?



NP Class

- A problem is in the class NP if it can be solved with a non-deterministic polynomial time algorithm
- Any polynomial deterministic algorithm is in NP, but not all NP problems may be in P
 - we strongly believe they are not

NP-Hard

- Class of problems for which we have no known solution in P
- We can prove that a new problem is NP-Hard if we can show that being able to solve it in P would allow us to solve another NP-Hard problems (that are also NP-Complete) in P
 - Transform problems into the settings of others
- An NP-hard problem is at least as hard as the hardest problems in NP

NP-Complete

- Class of problems that both exist in NP and are NP-Hard
- If we ever find a polynomial solution to a single NP-complete problem, then all NP-Complete problems can be solved in Polynomial time
- We strongly believe this cannot be done, but we have no proof
- Prove $P = NP$ or $P \neq NP$
 - You'll be hugely famous, and if you prove the former, you'll have changed everything!