

## University of Nevada, Las Vegas Computer Science 456/656

### Sets

We write  $x \in X$  to mean that  $x$  is a member of a set  $X$ .

A set is defined by what its members are. Items are either members of  $X$  or not. There is no such thing as being a member twice.

Finite sets can be written using braces. For example,  $\{x, y\}$  is the set whose members are  $x$  and  $y$ .

We write  $X \subseteq Y$  to mean that  $X$  is a subset of  $Y$ , that is, every member of  $X$  is a member of  $Y$ .

We write  $\emptyset$  to denote the empty set, the set which has no members.

If  $X$  and  $Y$  are sets,  $X \cup Y$ , sometimes written  $X + Y$ , is the union of  $X$  and  $Y$ , the set of all items which are members of either  $X$  or  $Y$ .

If  $X$  and  $Y$  are sets,  $X \cap Y$  is the intersection of  $X$  and  $Y$ , the set of all items which are members of both  $X$  and  $Y$ .

### Languages

An *alphabet* is a finite set. The members of an alphabet are called *symbols*. One very important alphabet is the binary alphabet  $\{0, 1\}$ .

A *string* is a finite sequence of symbols. The *empty string* is the string with no symbols, usually indicated as either  $\epsilon$  or  $\lambda$ . If all the symbols of a string  $w$  are members of an alphabet  $\Sigma$ , we say that  $w$  is a string *over*  $\Sigma$ . A *binary string* is a string over the binary alphabet.  $\lambda, 0, 1, 00, 01, \dots, 110100, \dots$  are binary strings.

A *language*  $L$  over an alphabet  $\Sigma$  is a set of strings over  $\Sigma$ . A language over the binary alphabet is called a binary language.

We write  $\Sigma^*$  to mean the set of all strings over an alphabet  $\Sigma$ . Note that  $\Sigma^*$  is a language over  $\Sigma$ .  $L$  is a language over  $\Sigma$  if and only if  $L \subseteq \Sigma^*$ .

### Problems

A 0/1 problem is a problem such that the answer is always either true or false. For example, *primality* is the problem of whether a given numeral represents a prime. We distinguish between a problem and an *instance* of the problem. For example, “549755813887” is an instance of the primality problem.

Every language  $L$  gives rise to a 0/1 problem, its *membership* problem, which is whether a given string is a member of  $L$ . Conversely, every 0/1 problem can be expressed as the membership problem of some language. For example, primality is the membership problem of  $P$ , the language consisting of all binary numerals representing prime numbers.

As another example, consider the 0/1 problem of whether a graph is connected, which we’ll call the “graph

connectivity problem.” An instance of that problem is a graph  $G$ . How do we change this problem into a language? We first need to encode members of the class of graphs as strings. A graph  $G$  is defined to be an ordered pair  $(V, E)$ , where  $V$  is a set, the set of vertices, and  $E$  is the set of edges. Each member of  $E$  is a set  $\{u, v\}$  where  $u$  and  $v$  are members of  $V$ . We then select an encoding. We encode  $G = (E, V)$  as first an integer  $n$ , the size of  $V$ , followed by a list of pairs of numbers in the range  $1 \dots n$ , one for each member of  $E$ . We’ll use base 10 numerals to encode integers, since you are familiar with them.  $\Sigma = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, (, )\}$ . Then an encoding of a graph  $G$ , using the encoding scheme described above, is a string over  $\Sigma$ , which we call  $[G]$ , be the encoding of  $G$ .  $L_{graph}$  be the language of all encodings of graphs.

As an example, a clique of size 3 could be encoded as the string “3,(1,2)(1,3)(2,3).” We now define  $L_{CONNECTED}$  to be the subset of  $L_{GRAPH}$  consisting of the encodings of connected graphs. The *graph connectivity* problem is the membership problem of  $L_{CONNECTED}$ . For example, “3,(1,2)(1,3)(2,3)”  $\in L_{CONNECTED}$  because it is the encoding of a connected graph.

“4,(1,2)(3,4)”  $\notin L_{CONNECTED}$  because it is the encoding of a disconnected graph.

“)6,,5)”  $\notin L_{CONNECTED}$  because it is not the encoding of any graph, hence not of any connected graph.

An algorithm which solves the connected graph problem has two parts: Given a string  $w \in \Sigma^*$ , the “easy” part is to determine whether  $w \in L_{GRAPH}$ . If the answer is “no,” the algorithm is done; otherwise it must do the “hard” part: determine whether the encoded graph is connected.

To simplify our presentations, we usually ignore the easy part, assuming that the input string encodes an instance of the problem.

## Complexity of a Language

The *computational complexity* of a language is defined to be the computational complexity of its membership problem.

For example, we say that a language  $L$  over an alphabet  $\Sigma$  is *quadratic time* if there is an algorithm which takes as input any string  $w \in \Sigma^*$  and determines, within  $O(n^2)$  steps, whether  $w \in L$ , where  $n = |w|$ . We define  $\mathcal{P}_{TIME}$ , which we usually abbreviate as just  $\mathcal{P}$ , to be the class of languages which are  $O(n^k)$  time for some constant  $k$ . We call those *polynomial time* languages, or, equivalently, problems.

## Classes of Languages

We will consider many classes of formal languages during the course. Classes can be nested or overlap. For example, every regular language is also a decidable language, but not vice-versa.

The smallest class we consider in this course is the class of *regular* languages. A simple definition is that a language  $L$  is regular if and only if there is a deterministic finite-state machine  $M$  such that, given any string,  $w$ ,  $M$  can decide whether  $w \in L$  in finite time.