



Chapter 7



Chapter 5

Part Two: Chapter 4

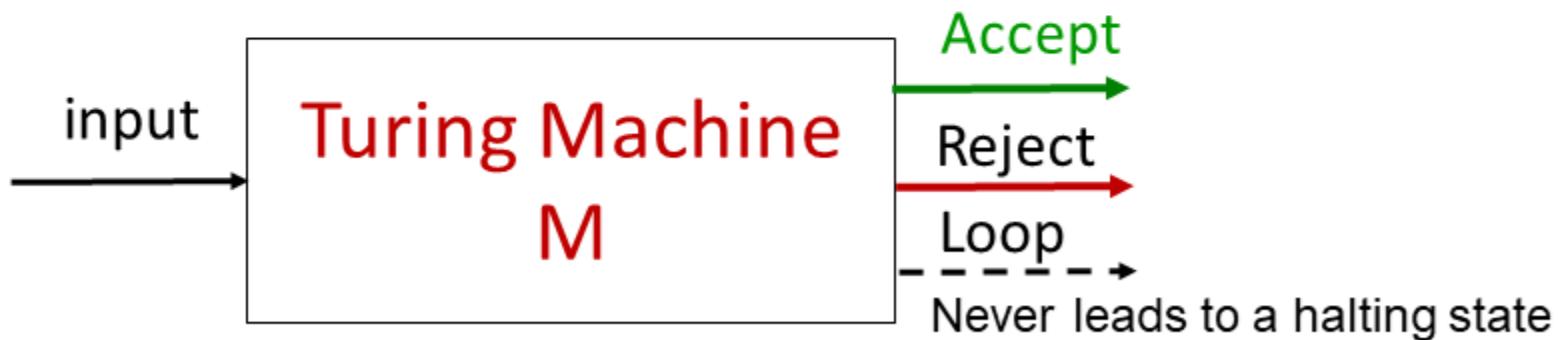
Decidability



Chapter 4

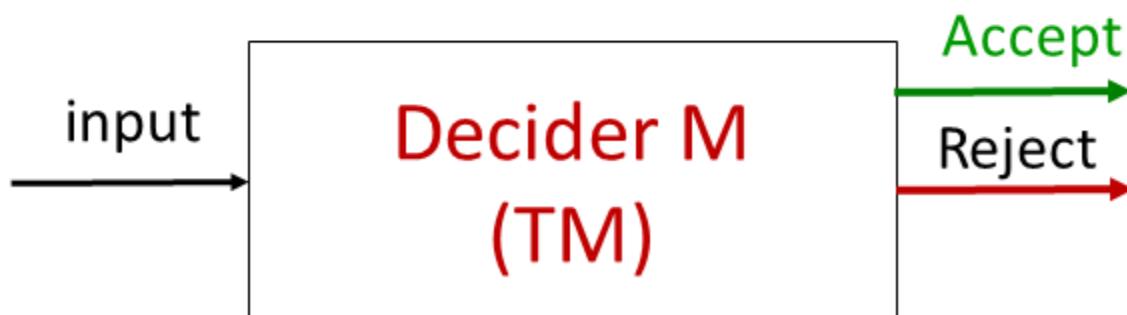
Recall: Turing-recognizable

- The collection of strings that TM M accepts is the language of M , or the language recognized by M , denoted $L(M)$.
- Call a language **Turing-recognizable** if some Turing machine recognizes it.



Recall: Decider

- we prefer Turing machines that halt on all inputs;
 - such machines never loop.
- These machines are called **deciders** because they always make a decision to **accept or reject**.
- A **decider that recognizes** some language also is said
 - to decide that language.



DECIDABILITY OVERVIEW

- Every question about regular languages is **decidable**.

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- Some questions about Context-free languages are **decidable**,
 - But some are not.

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- The “HALTING PROBLEM” is not decidable.

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 - But some are not.
- The “HALTING PROBLEM” is not decidable.
- Some languages are **not Turing recognizable**.

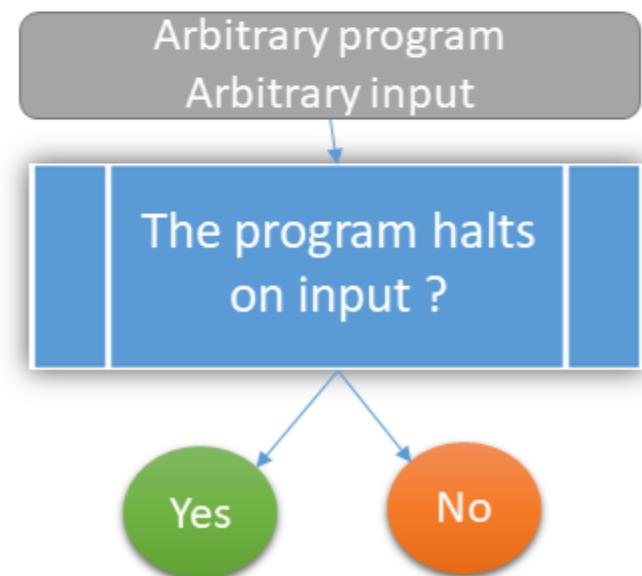
DECIDABILITY OVERVIEW

- Every question about **regular languages** is **decidable**.
- Some questions about **Context-free languages** are **decidable**,
 - But some are not.
- The “**HALTING PROBLEM**” is not decidable.
- Some **languages** are **not Turing recognizable**.
- Many **questions about Turing Machines** are **not decidable**.

THE HALTING PROBLEM

- Given a program
 - Will it **HALT**?
- Given a Turing machine,
 - Will it **HALT** when run on some particular input string.

In computability theory, the **halting problem** is the **problem** of determining, from a description of an arbitrary computer program and an input, whether the program will finish running (i.e., **halt**) or continue to run forever.



THE HALTING PROBLEM

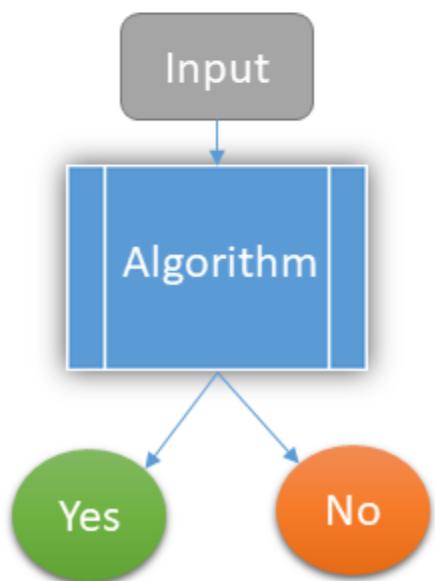
- Given a program
 - Will it HALT?
- Given a Turing machine,
 - Will it HALT when run on some particular input string.
- For many programs, we can prove “It always HALT.”
- For many programs, we can prove “It may sometimes LOOP.”
- But for programs in general, We cannot always know.
 - The question is undecidable.

DECISION PROBLEMS

- We may be interested in following questions:
 - Is a given natural number **prime**?
 - Is an **undirected graph connected**?
 - Does the **computation of TM halt before 10th transition**?

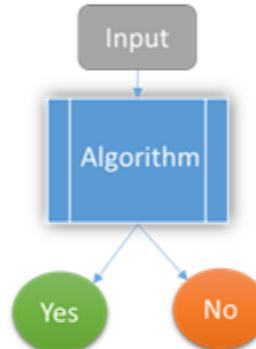
DECISION PROBLEMS

- We may be interested in following questions:
 - Is a given natural number prime?
 - Is an undirected graph connected?
 - Does the computation of TM halt before 10th transition?
- Each of these general question describe a **decision problem**.
- **Decision problem** = any problem whose **answer** is one bit: “yes” or “no”.



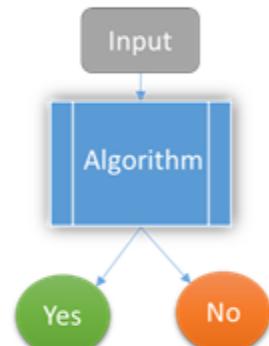
DECISION PROBLEMS

- A decision problem P is a set of related questions p_i , each of which has Yes/no answer. For example:
 - p_0 : Is 0 a perfect square?
 - p_1 : Is 1 a perfect square?
 - p_2 : Is 2 a perfect square?



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 - p_0 : Is 0 a perfect square?
 - p_1 : Is 1 a perfect square?
 - p_2 : Is 2 a perfect square?
- Each of the p_i is an instance of the problem P .
- The solution of a decision problem P is an algorithm that determines the answer of every question $p_i \in P$.
- A decision problem is decidable, if it has a solution.



THE ACCEPTANCE PROBLEM FOR FINITE AUTOMATA

- We begin with certain computational problems concerning finite automata.
- We give algorithms for testing
 - whether a finite automaton accepts a string,
 - whether the language of a finite automaton is empty,
 - and whether two finite automata are equivalent.
- For example, the acceptance problem for DFAs of testing whether a particular deterministic finite automaton accepts a given string can be expressed as a language, ADFA.

$$A_{\text{DFA}} = \{\langle B, w \rangle \mid B \text{ is a DFA that accepts input string } w\}.$$

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THE ACCEPTANCE PROBLEM FOR DFAs

- The **acceptance problem** for DFAs of testing whether **a particular deterministic finite automaton accepts a given string** can be expressed as a language, A_{DFA} .

$$A_{DFA} = \{\langle B, w \rangle \mid B \text{ is a DFA that accepts input string } w\}.$$

THE ACCEPTANCE PROBLEM FOR TMs

Theorem : A_{DFA} is a decidable language.

$$A_{DFA} = \{\langle B, w \rangle \mid B \text{ is a DFA that accepts input string } w\}.$$

PROOF IDEA We simply need to present a TM M that decides A_{DFA} .

M = “On input $\langle B, w \rangle$, where B is a DFA and w is a string:

1. Simulate B on input w .
2. If the simulation ends in an accept state, *accept*. If it ends in a nonaccepting state, *reject*.”

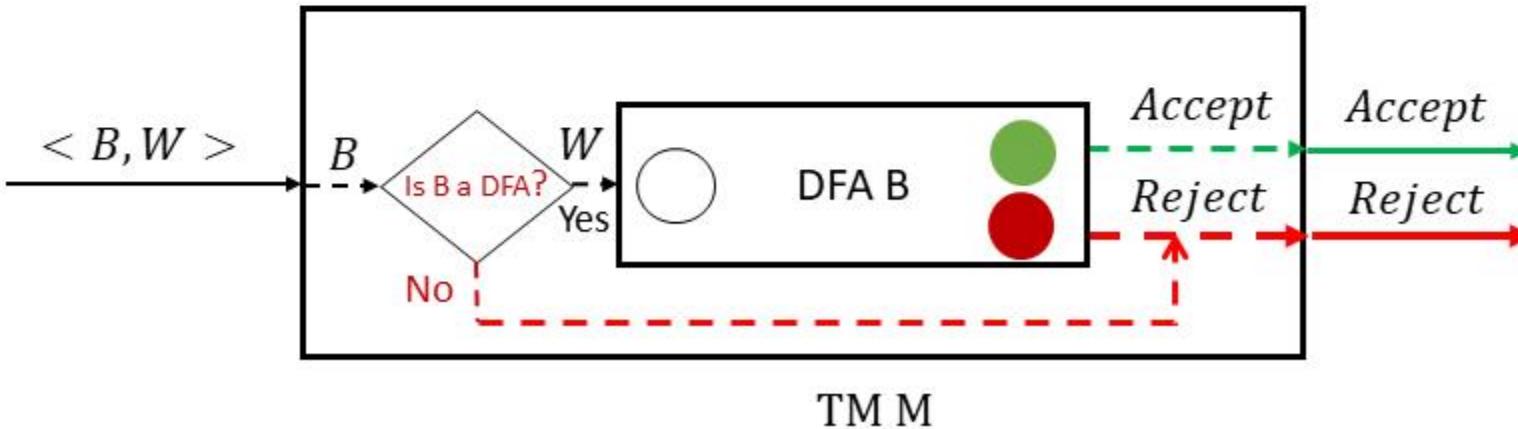
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N = “On input $\langle B, w \rangle$, where B is an NFA and w is a string:

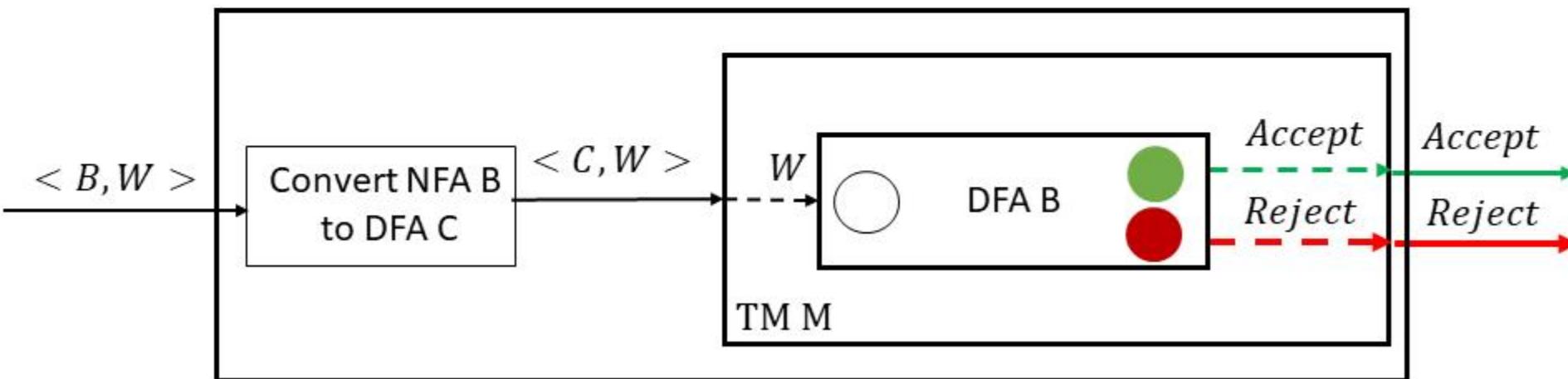
1. Convert NFA B to an equivalent DFA C , using the procedure for this conversion given in Theorem 1.39.
2. Run TM M from Theorem 4.1 on input $\langle C, w \rangle$.
3. If M accepts, accept; otherwise, reject.”

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THE ACCEPTANCE PROBLEM FOR TMs

Theorem : A_{REX} is a decidable language.

$$A_{REX} = \{\langle R, w \rangle \mid R \text{ is a regular expression that generates string } w\}.$$

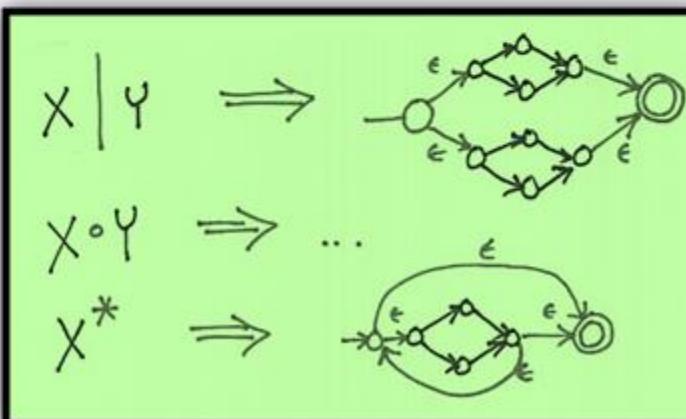
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P = “On input $\langle R, w \rangle$, where R is a regular expression and w is a string:

1. Convert regular expression R to an equivalent NFA A by using the procedure for this conversion given in Theorem 1.54.
2. Run TM N on input $\langle A, w \rangle$.
3. If N accepts, accept; if N rejects, reject.”

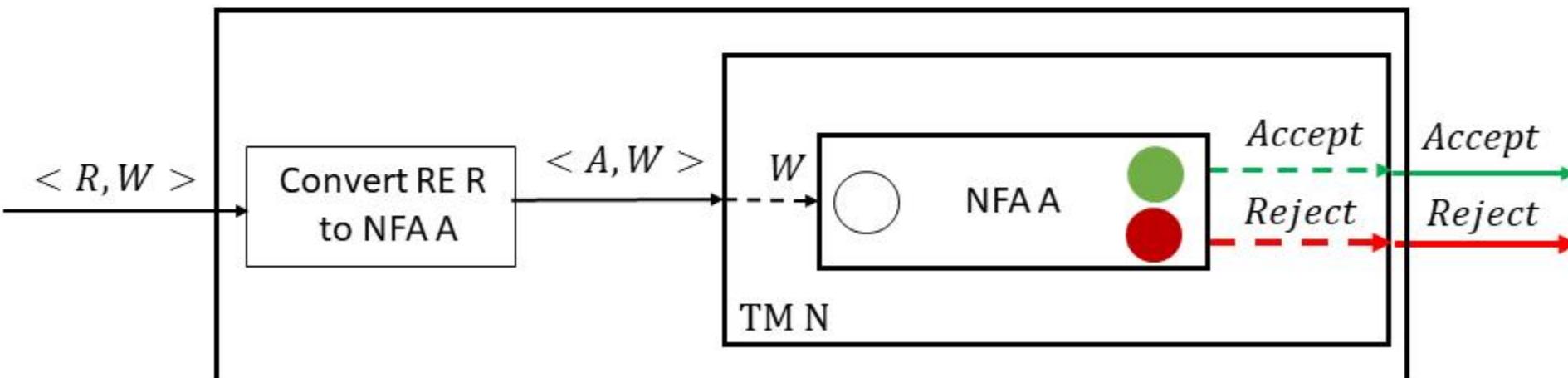


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EMPTINESS PROBLEM

- In the preceding three theorems we had to determine
 - whether a finite automaton accepts a particular string.
 - (**acceptance problem**)
- Now we turn to a different kind of problem concerning finite automata:
 - **emptiness testing** for the **language of a finite automaton**.
 - (**emptiness problem**)
-

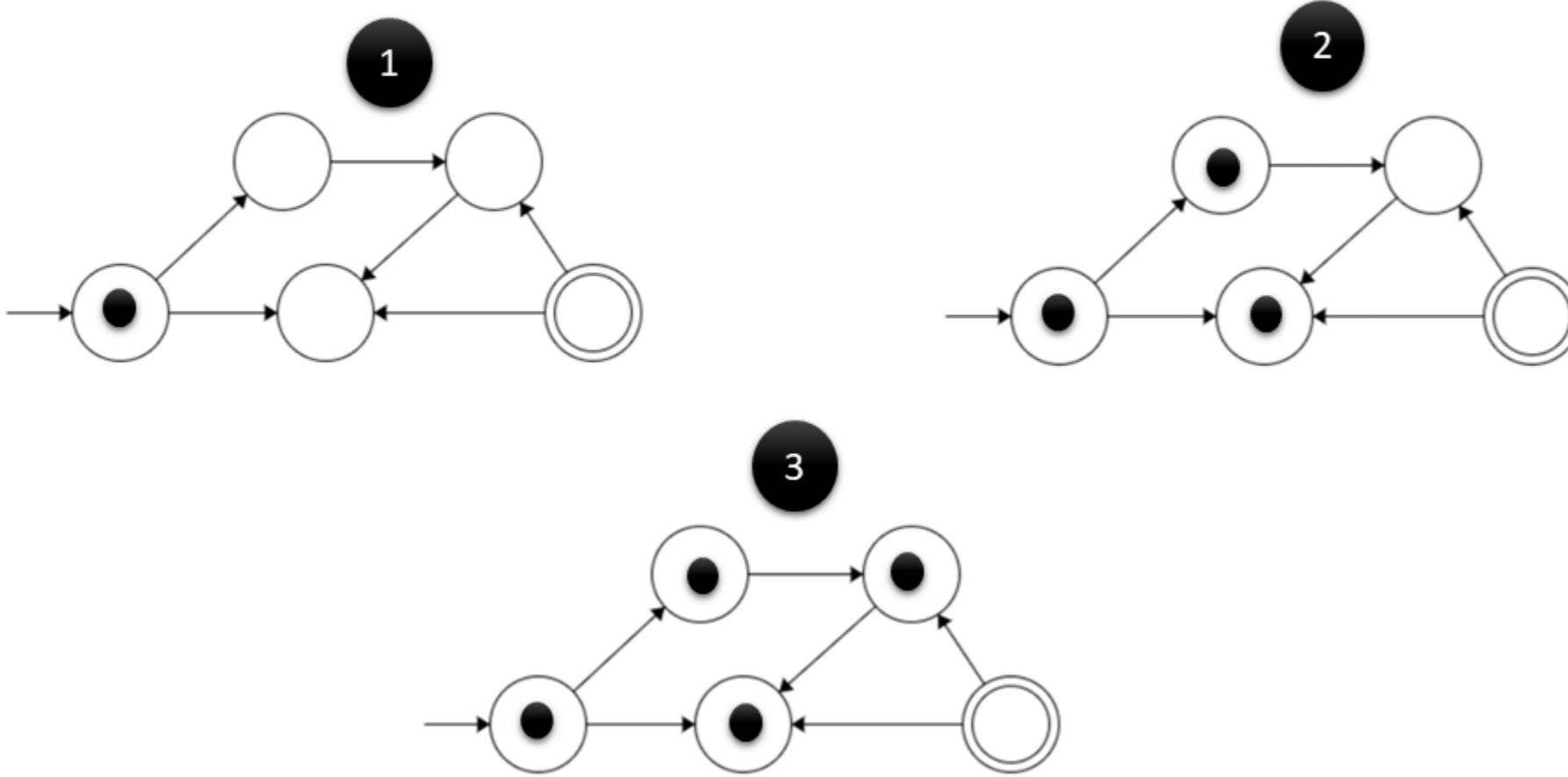
DECIDABILITY

Theorem : E_{DFA} is a decidable language.

$$E_{DFA} = \{\langle A \rangle \mid A \text{ is a DFA and } L(A) = \emptyset\}.$$

DECIDABILITY

Marking Algorithm:



- Mark any state that has a transition coming into it from any state that is already marked.

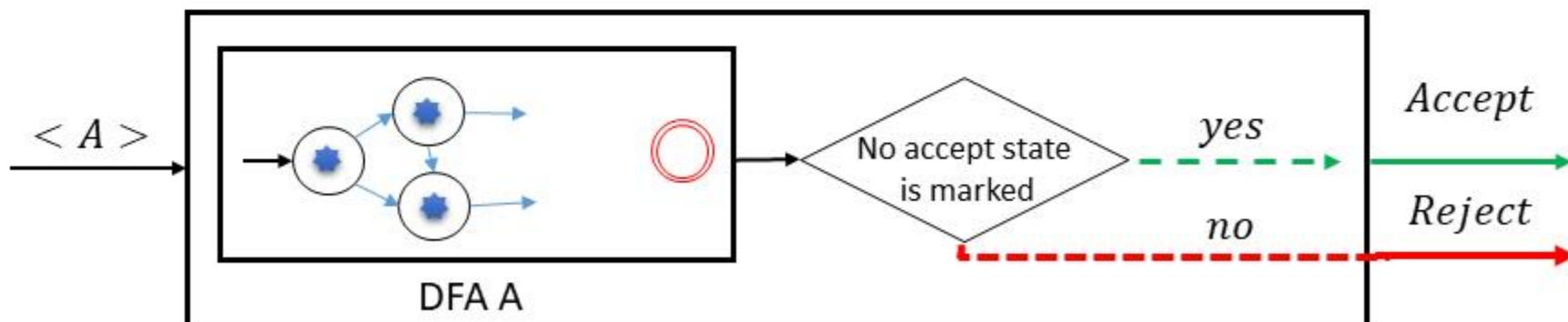
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T = “On input $\langle A \rangle$, where A is a DFA:

1. Mark the start state of A .
2. Repeat until no new states get marked:
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DECIDABILITY

Theorem : EQ_{DFA} is a decidable language.

$$EQ_{DFA} = \{\langle A, B \rangle \mid A \text{ and } B \text{ are DFAs and } L(A) = L(B)\}.$$

DECIDABILITY

Theorem : EQ_{DFA} is a decidable language.

Proof:

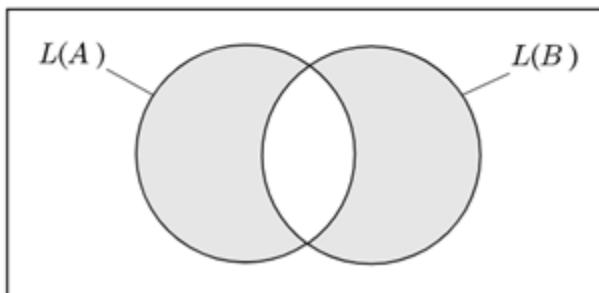
- We know that E_{DFA} is a decidable language.

DECIDABILITY

Theorem : EQ_{DFA} is a decidable language.

Proof:

- We know that E_{DFA} is a decidable language.
- We construct a new DFA C from A and B ,
 - where C accepts only those strings that are accepted by either A or B but not by both.



$$L(C) = \left(L(A) \cap \overline{L(B)} \right) \cup \left(\overline{L(A)} \cap L(B) \right).$$

symmetric difference of $L(A)$ and $L(B)$

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- We know that E_{DFA} is a decidable language.
- We construct a new DFA C from A and B ,
 - where C accepts only those strings that are accepted by either A or B but not by both.
- Thus, if A and B recognize the same language,
 - C will accept nothing.

$$L(C) = \left(L(A) \cap \overline{L(B)} \right) \cup \left(\overline{L(A)} \cap L(B) \right).$$

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Theorem : EQ_{DFA} is a decidable language.

Proof(cont.):

- $L(C) = \emptyset$ iff $L(A) = L(B)$.

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- $L(C) = \emptyset$ iff $L(A) = L(B)$.
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 - (the class of regular languages are closed under complement, union, and intersection)

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- These **constructions** are **algorithms**
 - that can be **carried out by** Turing machines.

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- $L(C) = \emptyset$ iff $L(A) = L(B)$.
- We can construct C from A and B .
 - (the class of regular languages are closed under complement, union, and intersection)
- These constructions are algorithms that can be carried out by Turing machines.
- Once we have constructed C ,
 - we can test whether $L(C)$ is empty.
 - If it is empty, $L(A)$ and $L(B)$ must be equal.

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F = “On input $\langle A, B \rangle$, where A and B are DFAs:

1. Construct DFA C as described.
2. Run TM T from Theorem 4.4 on input $\langle C \rangle$.
3. If T accepts, *accept*. If T rejects, *reject*.”

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- Approach 1: use G to go through all derivations to determine whether any is a derivation of w .
 - It is not a good idea!!
 - If G does not generate w , this algorithm would never halt.
 - The Turing machine will be a recognizer, but not a decider.

DECIDABILITY

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 - In Problem 2.26 (Textbook) :
 - if G is in Chomsky normal form, any derivation of w has $2n-1$ steps, where n is the length of w .

DECIDABILITY

Proof (cont.):

- Example: Consider the following Chomsky normal form (For simplicity we didn't follow the first rule in this example.)

$$\begin{array}{l} S \rightarrow SS \\ S \rightarrow a \end{array}$$

- At each step, the length grows by exactly 1
 - $S \Rightarrow SS \Rightarrow SSS \Rightarrow SSSS \Rightarrow SSSSS$ (N-1 steps for length N)
 - Plus 1 additional step for each terminal symbol
 - $\Rightarrow aSSSS \Rightarrow aaSSS \Rightarrow aaaSS \Rightarrow aaaaS \Rightarrow aaaaa$ (N steps for length N)
- Every derivation has $2N-1$ steps.

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Proof (cont.):

- We want to determine whether G generates w .
- Approach 2: We need to ensure that the algorithm tries only finitely many derivations.
 - See Problem 2.26 (Textbook) that says
 - if G is in Chomsky normal form, any derivation of w has $2n-1$ steps, where n is the length of w .
 - In that case, checking only derivations with $2n-1$ steps to determine whether G generates w would be sufficient.

DECIDABILITY

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Proof (cont.):

- The TM S for A_{CFG} follows.

S = “On input $\langle G, w \rangle$, where G is a CFG and w is a string:

1. Convert G to an equivalent grammar in Chomsky normal form.
2. List all derivations with $2n - 1$ steps, where n is the length of w ; except if $n = 0$, then instead list all derivations with one step.
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- The **algorithm** in TM S is very **inefficient**
- But the **efficiency** is **not our concern** here.

DECIDABILITY IN PDAs

- Recall that we have given procedures for converting back and forth between CFGs and PDAs.
- Hence everything we say about the decidability of problems concerning CFGs applies equally well to PDAs.

DECIDABILITY in CFGs

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Proof :

- In order to determine whether the **language of a grammar is empty**,
 - we **need to test** whether **the start variable can generate a string of terminals**.

$$S \xrightarrow{*} (\text{string of terminals})$$

- **Approach:** Marking algorithm

DECIDABILITY in CFGs

Proof (cont.):

- **Marking algorithm Example:**
- Consider the following grammar. Which nonterminal can generate a string of terminals? (Nonterminals: A,B, C and D Terminals: **a, b, c and d**)
 - $S \rightarrow ABCD$
 - $A \rightarrow BCA$
 - $A \rightarrow abc$
 - $B \rightarrow CA$
 - $B \rightarrow AB$
 - $B \rightarrow BBd$
 - $C \rightarrow CB$
 - $C \rightarrow dd$
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 - $D \rightarrow DC$

DECIDABILITY in CFGs

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Since D doesn't generate any string,
then S cannot generate any string.

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Proof (cont.) :

R = “On input $\langle G \rangle$, where G is a CFG:

1. Mark all terminal symbols in G .
2. Repeat until no new variables get marked:
 3. Mark any variable A where G has a rule $A \rightarrow U_1 U_2 \dots U_k$ and each symbol U_1, \dots, U_k has already been marked.
 4. If the start variable is not marked, *accept*; otherwise, *reject*.”

DECIDABILITY

Is EQ_{CFG} a decidable language ?

$$EQ_{CFG} = \{\langle G, H \rangle \mid G \text{ and } H \text{ are CFGs and } L(G) = L(H)\}.$$

DECIDABILITY

Is EQ_{CFG} a decidable language ?

$$EQ_{CFG} = \{\langle G, H \rangle \mid G \text{ and } H \text{ are CFGs and } L(G) = L(H)\}.$$

- We have already seen an algorithm that decides the language EQ_{DFA} for finite automata.
- We used the **decision procedure** for E_{DFA} to prove that EQ_{DFA} is decidable.

DECIDABILITY

Is EQ_{CFG} a decidable language ?

$$EQ_{CFG} = \{\langle G, H \rangle \mid G \text{ and } H \text{ are CFGs and } L(G) = L(H)\}.$$

- We have already seen an algorithm that decides the language EQ_{DFA} for finite automata.
- We used the **decision procedure** for E_{DFA} to prove that EQ_{DFA} is decidable.
- Because E_{CFG} also is decidable, can we **use a similar strategy to prove** that EQ_{CFG} is decidable?

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- We used the **decision procedure** for E_{DFA} to prove that EQ_{DFA} is decidable.
- Because E_{CFG} also is decidable, can we use a similar strategy to prove that EQ_{CFG} is decidable?
- NO. something is wrong with this idea!
- The **class of context-free languages** is not closed under **complementation** or **intersection**.
- In fact, EQ_{CFG} is not decidable. (the prove is presented in Chapter 5)

DECIDABILITY

Theorem : Every context-free language is a decidable language.

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Proof :

- Approach1 :
- Let **A** be a CFL.
- **Convert** a PDA for **A** directly into a TM.
 - simulating a stack with the TM's more tape

DECIDABILITY

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Proof :

- **Approach1 :**
- Let A be a CFL.
- Convert a PDA for A directly into a TM.
 - simulating a stack with the TM's more tape
 - The PDA for A may be **nondeterministic**
 - convert it into a **nondeterministic TM**
 - any nondeterministic TM can be converted into an **equivalent deterministic TM**.
 - **But, some branches** of the PDA's computation **may go on forever**
 - **The simulating TM** then would also have some **non-halting branches** in its computation, and so the **TM would not be a decider**.

DECIDABILITY

Theorem : Every context-free language is a decidable language.

Proof (cont.) :

- Approach2 :
- Let G be a CFG for A and design a TM M_G that decides A .
- We build a copy of G into M_G . It works as follows.

DECIDABILITY

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- Approach2 :
- Let G be a CFG for A and design a TM M_G that decides A .
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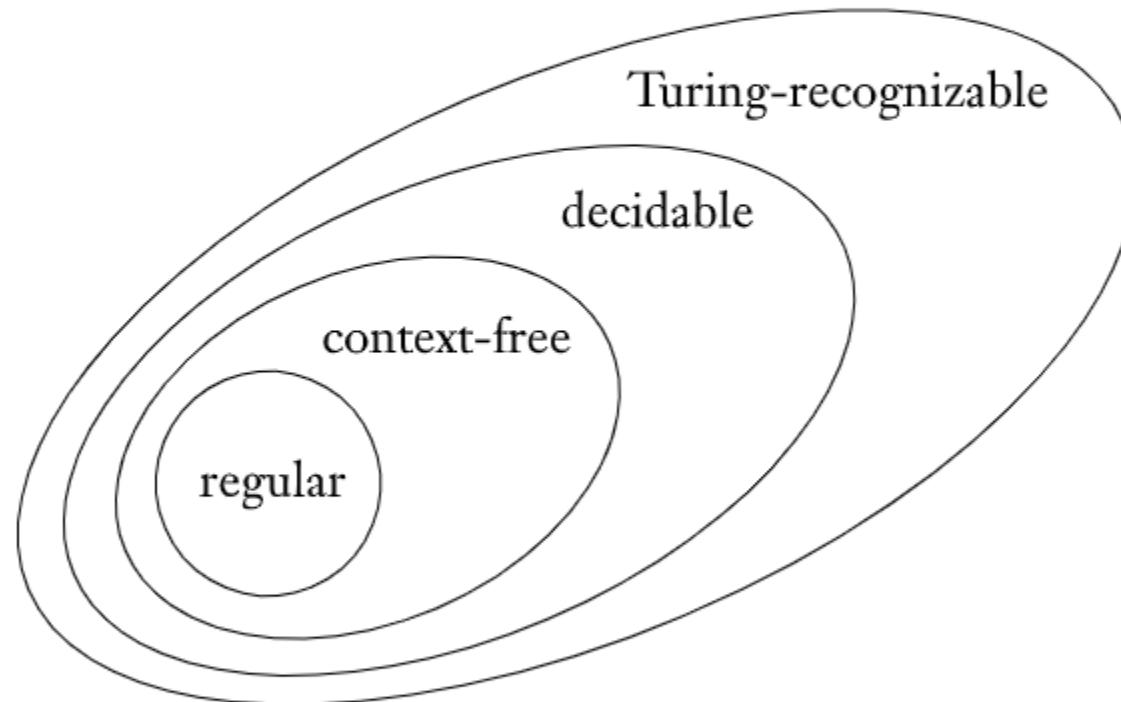
M_G = “On input w :

1. Run TM S on input $\langle G, w \rangle$.
2. If this machine accepts, *accept*; if it rejects, *reject*.”

S = “On input $\langle G, w \rangle$, where G is a CFG and w is a string:

1. Convert G to an equivalent grammar in Chomsky normal form.
2. List all derivations with $2n - 1$ steps, where n is the length of w ; except if $n = 0$, then instead list all derivations with one step.
3. If any of these derivations generate w , *accept*; if not, *reject*.”

THE RELATIONSHIP AMONG THE FOUR MAIN CLASSES OF LANGUAGES



4.2 Undecidability

UNDECIDABILITY

- What sorts of problems are unsolvable by computer?
- The unsolvable problems are only in the minds of theoreticians?

UNDECIDABILITY

- What sorts of problems are unsolvable by computer?
- The unsolvable problems are only in the minds of theoreticians?
- Answer: There are some ordinary problems that they are computationally unsolvable.

UNDECIDABILITY

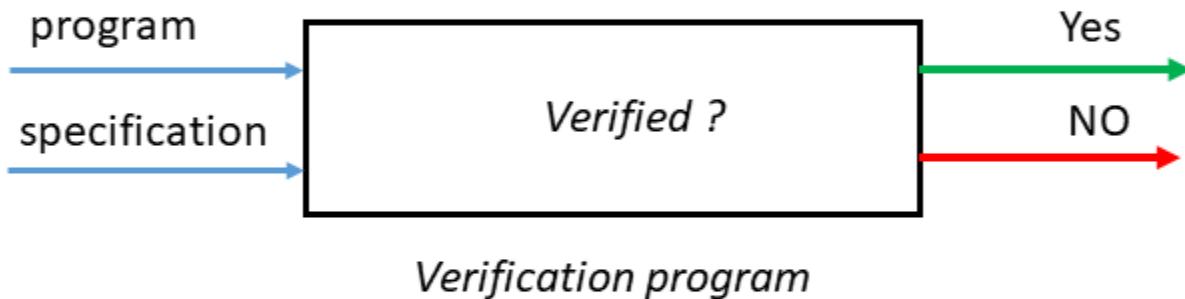
- **In this section we will see:**
 - There is a **specific problem** that is **algorithmically unsolvable**.
- **The theorem presented here:**
 - demonstrates that **computers are limited in a fundamental way**.

SOFTWARE VERIFICATION

- One example of unsolvable problem:
 - Given :
 - a computer program and
 - a precise specification of what that program is supposed to do.
 - Verify that
 - the program performs as specified.

SOFTWARE VERIFICATION

- One example of unsolvable problem: (Cont.)



The general problem of **software verification is not solvable** by computer.

THE HALTING PROBLEM

Theorem : A_{TM} is undecidable.

$$A_{TM} = \{\langle M, w \rangle \mid M \text{ is a TM and } M \text{ accepts } w\}.$$

- Q: Given the **description** of a TM and **some input**,
 - can we **determine** whether the machine accepts the input?

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- Q: Given the **description** of a TM and **some input**,
 - can we **determine** whether the machine accepts the input?
- A: Yes. Just simulate/Run the TM on the input.

U = “On input $\langle M, w \rangle$, where M is a TM and w is a string:

1. Simulate M on input w .
2. If M ever enters its accept state, *accept*; if M ever enters its reject state, *reject*.”

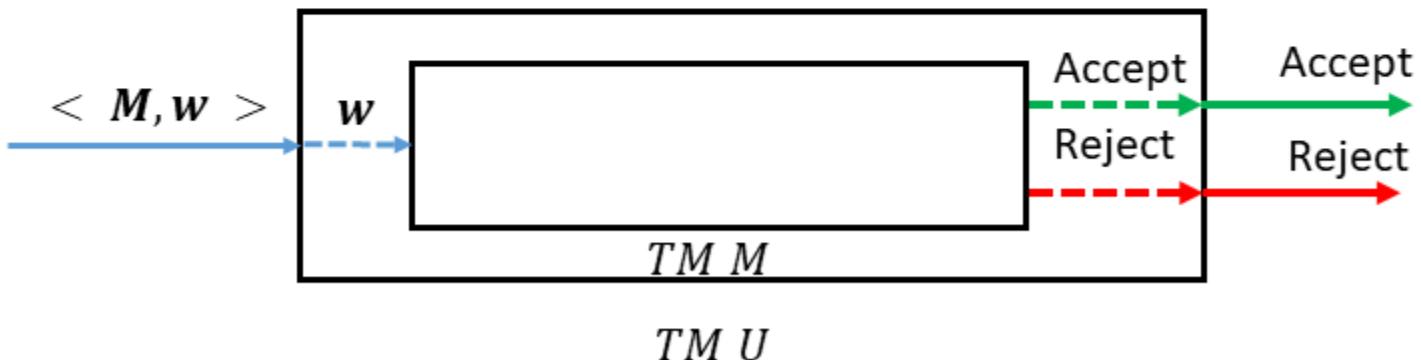
DECIDABILITY

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- This machine loops on input $\langle M, w \rangle$ if M loops on w . A_{TM} is Turing-recognizable.

DECIDABILITY

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U = “On input $\langle M, w \rangle$, where M is a TM and w is a string:

1. Simulate M on input w .
2. If M ever enters its accept state, *accept*; if M ever enters its reject state, *reject*.”

- This machine **loops** on input $\langle M, w \rangle$ if M **loops** on w .
- A_{TM} is **Turing-recognizable**.
- Is A_{TM} **decidable** ?

THE DIAGONALIZATION METHOD

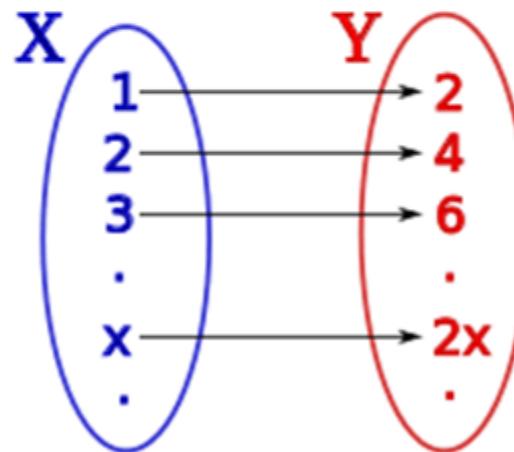
- The proof of the **undecidability** of A_{TM} uses a technique
 - called **diagonalization**
 - discovered by mathematician **Georg Cantor** in 1873.
 - Based on the problem of **measuring the sizes of infinite sets**.

THE DIAGONALIZATION METHOD

- Assume that we have **two infinite sets**, how can we tell
 - whether **one is larger** than the other or
 - whether **they are of the same size?**
- **For finite set:** by counting the elements in a finite set
- **For infinite set:** we can't use the counting method to determine the relative sizes of infinite sets.

THE DIAGONALIZATION METHOD

- Cantor observed that two **finite sets** have the **same size**
 - if the **elements** of one set **can be paired** with the **elements** of the other set.
- This method **compares the sizes without resorting to counting**.
- We can **extend** this idea **to infinite sets**.



RECALL: FUNCTIONS

- Assume that we have sets A and B and a function f from A to B.
- f is **one-to-one** : if it never maps two different elements to the same place
 - that is, if $f(a) \neq f(b)$ whenever $a \neq b$.

RECALL: FUNCTIONS

- Assume that we have sets A and B and a function f from A to B.
- f is **onto** : if it hits every element of B
 - that is, if for every $b \in B$ there is an $a \in A$ such that $f(a) = b$.

RECALL: FUNCTIONS

- Assume that we have sets A and B and a function f from A to B.
- A and B are the **same size** : if there is a **one-to-one, onto** function $f: A \rightarrow B$.
 - or a **correspondence**.
 - In a correspondence :
 - every element of A **maps** to a **unique element** of B and
 - each element of B has **a unique element** of A mapping to it.
 - A correspondence is simply a way of **pairing** the **elements of A** with the **elements of B**.

THE DIAGONALIZATION METHOD

Example:

- Let N be the set of **natural numbers** $\{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ and let E be the set of **even natural numbers** $\{2, 4, 6, \dots\}$.
- The **correspondence** f mapping N to E is simply $f(n) = 2n$.

n	$f(n)$
1	2
2	4
3	6
\vdots	\vdots

COUNTABLE SET

- A set A is **countable**
 - if either it is **finite** or it has the **same size** as N.

Example:

- $Q = \left\{ \frac{m}{n} \mid m, n \in N \right\}$
 - the set of **positive rational numbers**
 - Q seems to be **much larger than N**.
 - these two sets are the **same size** according to our definition.

COUNTABLE SET

Example: (Cont.)

- The i th row contains all numbers with numerator i and
- The j th column has all numbers with denominator j .
- Now we turn this matrix into a list.

	1/1	1/2	1/3	1/4 ...
	2/1	2/2	2/3	2/4 ...
	3/1	3/2	3/3	3/4 ...
	4/1	4/2	4/3	4/4
	:	:	:	:

COUNTABLE SET

Example: (Cont.)

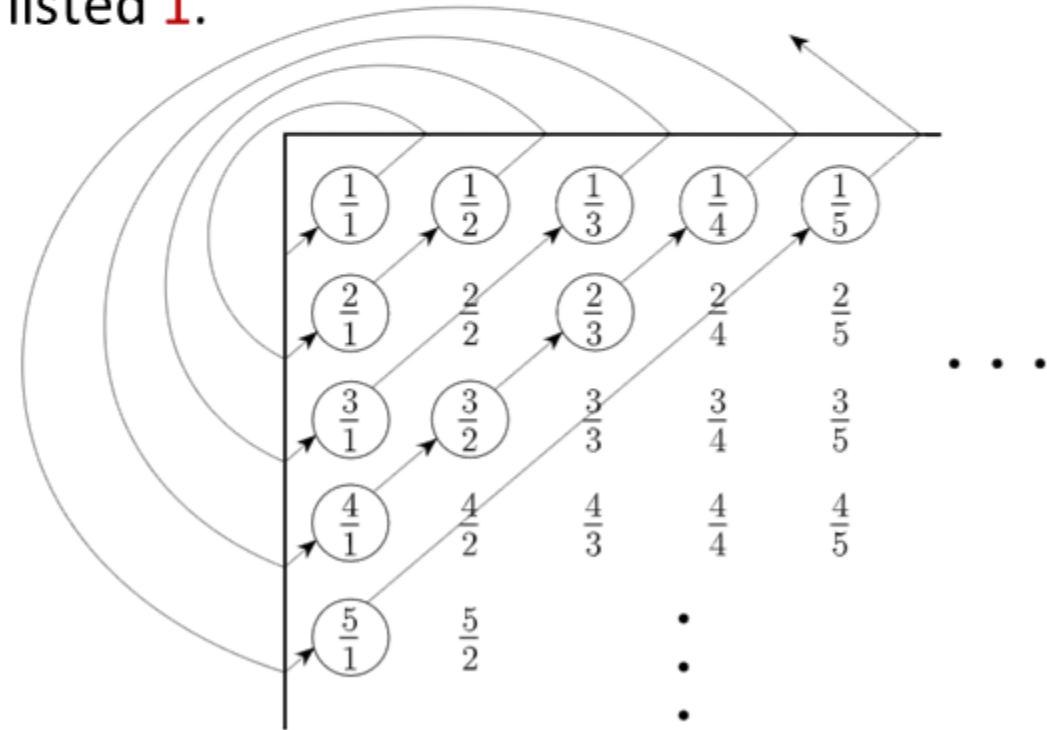
- Approach 1:
 - listing row by row
 - Never goes to the 2nd row

1/1	1/2	1/3	1/4 ...
2/1	2/2	2/3	2/4 ...
3/1	3/2	3/3	3/4 ...
4/1	4/2	4/3	4/4
:	:	:	:

COUNTABLE SET

Example: (Cont.)

- Approach 2:
- listing diagonal Based on $i+j$
- And removing the redundant values
 - Such as $2/2$, since we had already listed 1 .



UNCOUNTABLE SET

- For some infinite sets, no correspondence with \mathbb{N} exists.
 - These sets are simply too big.
 - Such sets are called uncountable.
-
- The set of real numbers is an example of an uncountable set.
 - The numbers $\pi = 3.1415926 \dots$ and $\sqrt{2} = 1.4142135 \dots$ are examples of real numbers.

UNCOUNTABLE SET

- **Theorem:** \mathbb{R} is uncountable.
- **Proof:**
 - we show that **no correspondence exists** between \mathbb{N} and \mathbb{R} .
 - The proof is by **contradiction**.

UNCOUNTABLE SET

- Proof (Cont.):
 - Suppose that a correspondence f existed between N and R.
 - f must pair all the members of N with all the members of R.
 - But we will find an x in R that is not paired with anything in N.
 - The way we find this x is by actually constructing it.

UNCOUNTABLE SET

- Proof Idea (cont.):
 - The following table shows a few values of a hypothetical correspondence f between N and R .
 - We will show that there is an x in R that
 - is not $f(n)$ for any n .

n	$f(n)$
1	3.14159...
2	55.55555...
3	0.12345...
4	0.50000...
:	:

UNCOUNTABLE SET

- Proof Idea (cont.):
 - How to construct the desired x ?
 - It is a number between 0 and 1,
 - so all its significant digits are fractional digits following the decimal point.

n	$f(n)$
1	3. <u>1</u> 4159...
2	55. <u>5</u> 5555...
3	0.12 <u>3</u> 45...
4	0.500 <u>0</u> ...
:	:

UNCOUNTABLE SET

- Proof Idea (cont.):
 - How to construct the desired x ?
 - It is a number between 0 and 1,
 - so all its significant digits are fractional digits following the decimal point.
 - To ensure that $x \neq f(1)$, we let the first digit of x be any thing different from the first fractional digit 1 of $f(1)=3.14159$
 - Arbitrarily, we let it be 4.

n	$f(n)$
1	3. <u>1</u> 4159...
2	55.5 <u>5</u> 5555...
3	0.12 <u>3</u> 45...
4	0.500 <u>0</u> 0...
:	:
X =	0.4

UNCOUNTABLE SET

- Proof Idea (cont.):
 - How to construct the desired x ?
 - It is a number between 0 and 1,
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 - To ensure that $x \neq f(1)$, we let the first digit of x be any thing different from the first fractional digit 1 of $f(1)=3.14159$
 - Arbitrarily, we let it be 4.
 - The 2nd fractional digit of $f(2)=55.555555\dots$ is 5, so we let x be anything different—say,6.
 - We know that x is not $f(n)$ for any n .

n	$f(n)$
1	3. <u>1</u> 4159 ...
2	55. 5 <u>5</u> 5555 ...
3	0. 12 <u>3</u> 45 ...
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:	:
X =	0. 46

UNCOUNTABLE SET

- Proof Idea (cont.):
 - How to construct the desired x ?
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 - Arbitrarily, we let it be 4.
 - The 2nd fractional digit of $f(2)=55.555555\dots$ is 5, so we let x be anything different—say, 6.
 - we select all of the other digits in the same way.
 - We know that x is not $f(n)$ for any n .

n	$f(n)$
1	3. <u>1</u> 4159 ...
2	55. 5 <u>5</u> 5555 ...
3	0. 12 <u>3</u> 45 ...
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:	:
X =	0. 4652...

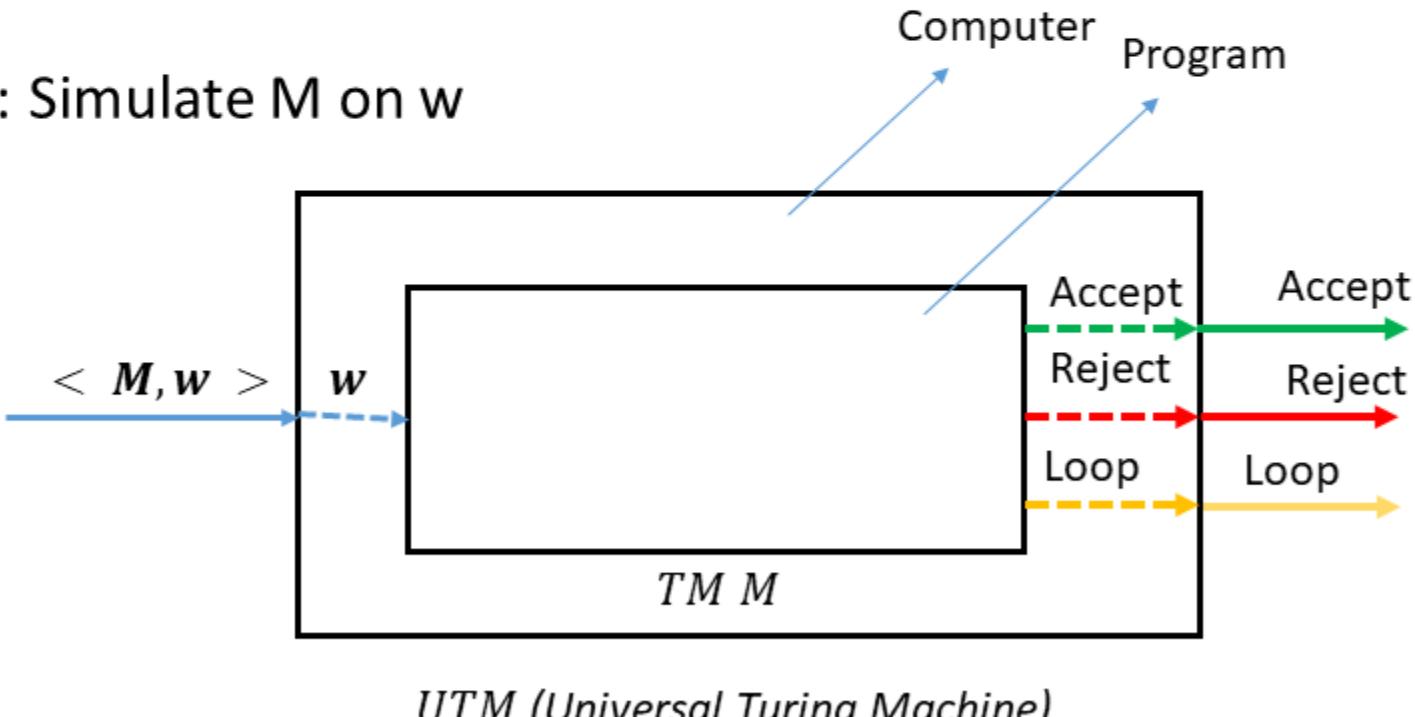
UNCOUNTABLE SET

- **Corollary:** The set of irrational numbers is uncountable.
- **Proof:**
 - By using the same technique

THE UNIVERSAL TURING MACHINE

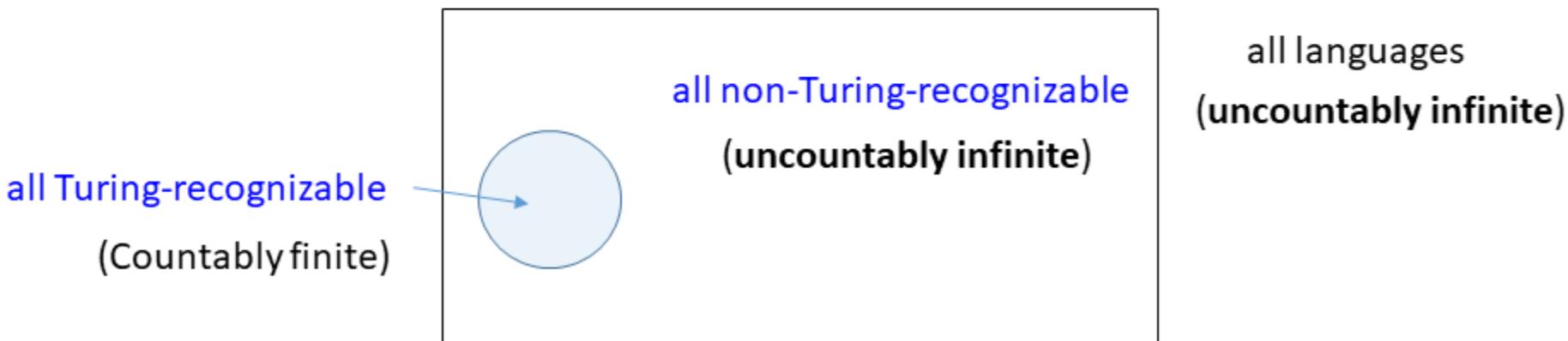
- **Input:** $\langle M, w \rangle$
 - M : the description of some TM
 - w : an input string for M

- **Action:** Simulate M on w



THE HALTING PROBLEM

- Corollary: Some languages are not Turing-recognizable.
- Proof:
 - Part a) We first show that **the set of all Turing machines is countable**.
 - Part b) Then, we show that **the set of all languages is uncountable**.
 - Part c) Finally, we will prove that **Some languages are not Turing-recognizable**.



UNCOUNTABLE SET

- Part a) The set of all Turing machines is countable.
 - Every **Turing machine** can be **encoded** into a string of finite length, Because:
 - The number of the **states** are **finite**.
 - The **input alphabet** is **finite**.
 - The **tape alphabet** is **finite**.
 - The **transitions** are in form of $a \rightarrow b, dir$, which **a**, **b**, and **dir** are from **finite** sets.

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 - The input alphabet is finite.
 - The tape alphabet is finite.
 - The transitions are in form of $a \rightarrow b$, dir , which a, b, and dir are from finite sets.
 - Any string is a valid TM representation or NOT.
 - How to list the TMs:
 - Generate all string, one after the other
 - Check to see if it is a valid TM.

UNCOUNTABLE SET

- Part b) The set of all languages is not countable.
- Theorem : The set of all infinite length strings over $\{0,1\}$ is uncountable infinite.
- Proof: by Diagonalization method

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(correspondence with N)

UNCOUNTABLE SET

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- Theorem : The set of all infinite length strings over {0,1} is uncountable infinite.
- Proof: by Diagonalization method
 - Assume the set of infinite binary strings can be enumerated. (correspondence with N)
 - We can construct an infinite length binary string x which is not equal to any string on this list.
 - That is a contradiction.
 - Then, the set of all languages is not countable.

1 →	0	0	0	0	0	1	...
2 →	1	1	1	0	0	1	...
3 →	0	0	0	1	1	0	...
4 →	1	0	0	0	1	0	...
5 →	0	0	0	1	1	1	...
6 →	1	0	0	0	1	1	...
X =	1	0	1	1	0	0	...

UNCOUNTABLE SET

- **Part c)** Finally, we will prove that some languages are not Turing-recognizable.

UNCOUNTABLE SET

- **Part c)** Finally, we will prove that Some languages are not Turing-recognizable.
- The set of all finite length string over $\Sigma = \{0,1\}$ is **countable**.

$$\Sigma^* = \{ \varepsilon, 0, 1, 00, 01, 10, 11, 000, 001, \dots \} ;$$

Lexicographical
order

UNCOUNTABLE SET

- **Part c)** Finally, we will prove that Some languages are not Turing-recognizable.
- The set of all finite length string over $\Sigma = \{0,1\}$ is **countable**.
- **Language A** contains **some of these strings** and not others.

$$A = \{ \quad 0, \quad 00, \quad 01, \quad 000, \quad 001, \quad \dots \} ;$$

$$\Sigma^* = \{ \quad \epsilon, \quad 0, \quad 1, \quad 00, \quad 01, \quad 10, \quad 11, \quad 000, \quad 001, \quad \dots \} ;$$

UNCOUNTABLE SET

- Part c) Finally, we will prove that Some languages are not Turing-recognizable.
- The set of all finite length string over $\Sigma = \{0,1\}$ is countable.
- Language A contains some of these strings and not others.
- Language A can be fully specified by giving an infinite length binary string.

Lexicographical
order

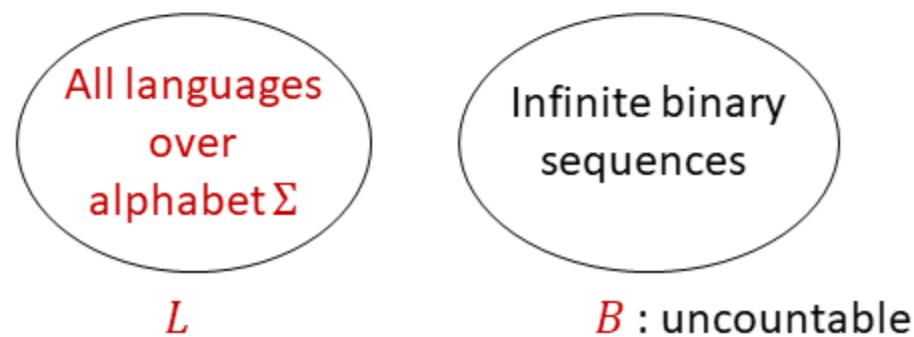
$$\begin{aligned}\Sigma^* &= \{ \varepsilon, 0, 1, 00, 01, 10, 11, 000, 001, \dots \} ; \\ A &= \{ 0, 00, 01, 000, 001, \dots \} ; \\ \chi_A &= 0 \ 1 \ 0 \ 1 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1 \ 1 \ \dots .\end{aligned}$$

characteristic sequence of A

- In X_A , $a_i = (0)1$, means that A (doesn't) contain(s) the i th element of Σ^* .

UNDECIDABILITY

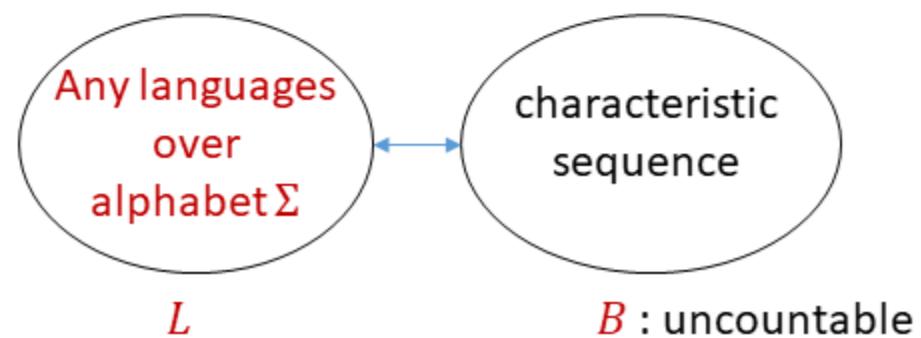
- Let L be the set of all languages over alphabet Σ .
- Let B be the set of all infinite binary sequences.



UNDECIDABILITY

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- The function $f: L \rightarrow B$, where $f(A)$ equals the characteristic sequence of A , is one-to-one and onto, and hence is a correspondence.
- Therefore, as B is uncountable, L is uncountable as well.

$$\begin{aligned}\Sigma^* &= \{ \varepsilon, 0, 1, 00, 01, 10, 11, 000, 001, \dots \} ; \\ A &= \{ 0, 00, 01, 000, 001, \dots \} ; \\ \chi_A &= 0 \quad 1 \quad 0 \quad 1 \quad 1 \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad 1 \quad 1 \quad \dots .\end{aligned}$$



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THE HALTING PROBLEM

- Now we are ready to prove the following Theorem:
- **Theorem :** A_{TM} is undecidable.

$$A_{TM} = \{\langle M, w \rangle \mid M \text{ is a TM and } M \text{ accepts } w\}.$$

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- Proof: We assume that A_{TM} is decidable and obtain a contradiction.
- Suppose that H is a decider for A_{TM} .
- On input $\langle M, w \rangle$, where M is a TM and w is a string,

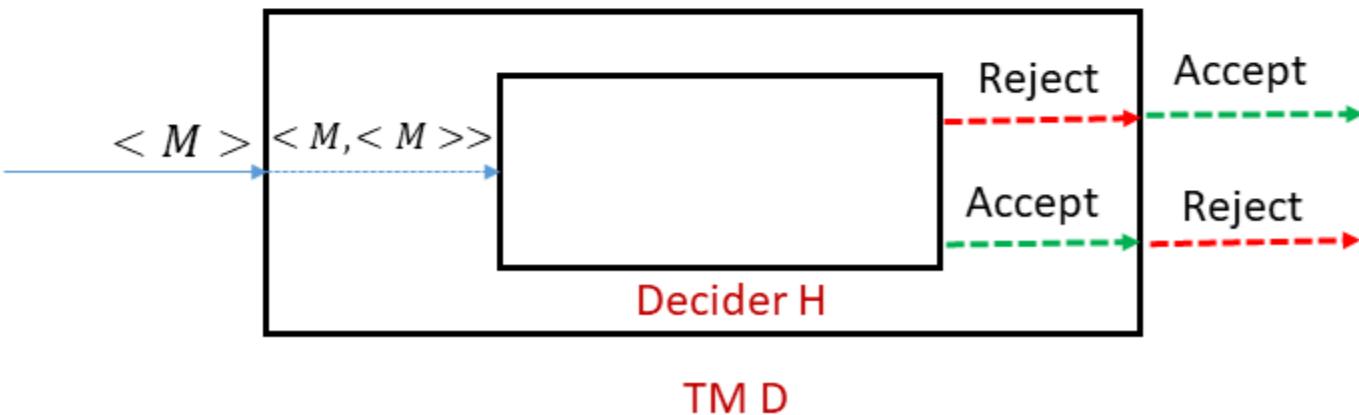
$$H(\langle M, w \rangle) = \begin{cases} \text{accept} & \text{if } M \text{ accepts } w \\ \text{reject} & \text{if } M \text{ does not accept } w. \end{cases}$$

THE HALTING PROBLEM

- Proof(Cont.):
- Now we construct a new Turing machine D with H as a subroutine.

D = “On input $\langle M \rangle$, where M is a TM:

1. Run H on input $\langle M, \langle M \rangle \rangle$.
2. Output the opposite of what H outputs. That is, if H accepts, *reject*; and if H rejects, *accept*.”



THE HALTING PROBLEM

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1. Run H on input $\langle M, \langle M \rangle \rangle$.
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- In summary:

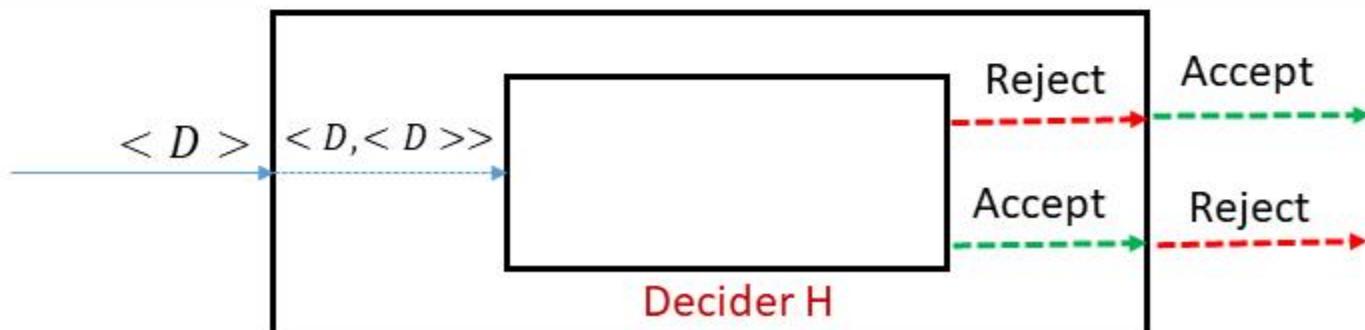
$$D(\langle M \rangle) = \begin{cases} \text{accept} & \text{if } M \text{ does not accept } \langle M \rangle \\ \text{reject} & \text{if } M \text{ accepts } \langle M \rangle. \end{cases}$$

THE HALTING PROBLEM

- Proof(Cont.):
- What happens when we run D with its own description $\langle D \rangle$ as input?

$$D(\langle M \rangle) = \begin{cases} \text{accept} & \text{if } M \text{ does not accept } \langle M \rangle \\ \text{reject} & \text{if } M \text{ accepts } \langle M \rangle. \end{cases}$$

$$D(\langle D \rangle) = \begin{cases} \text{accept} & \text{if } D \text{ does not accept } \langle D \rangle \\ \text{reject} & \text{if } D \text{ accepts } \langle D \rangle. \end{cases}$$



THE HALTING PROBLEM

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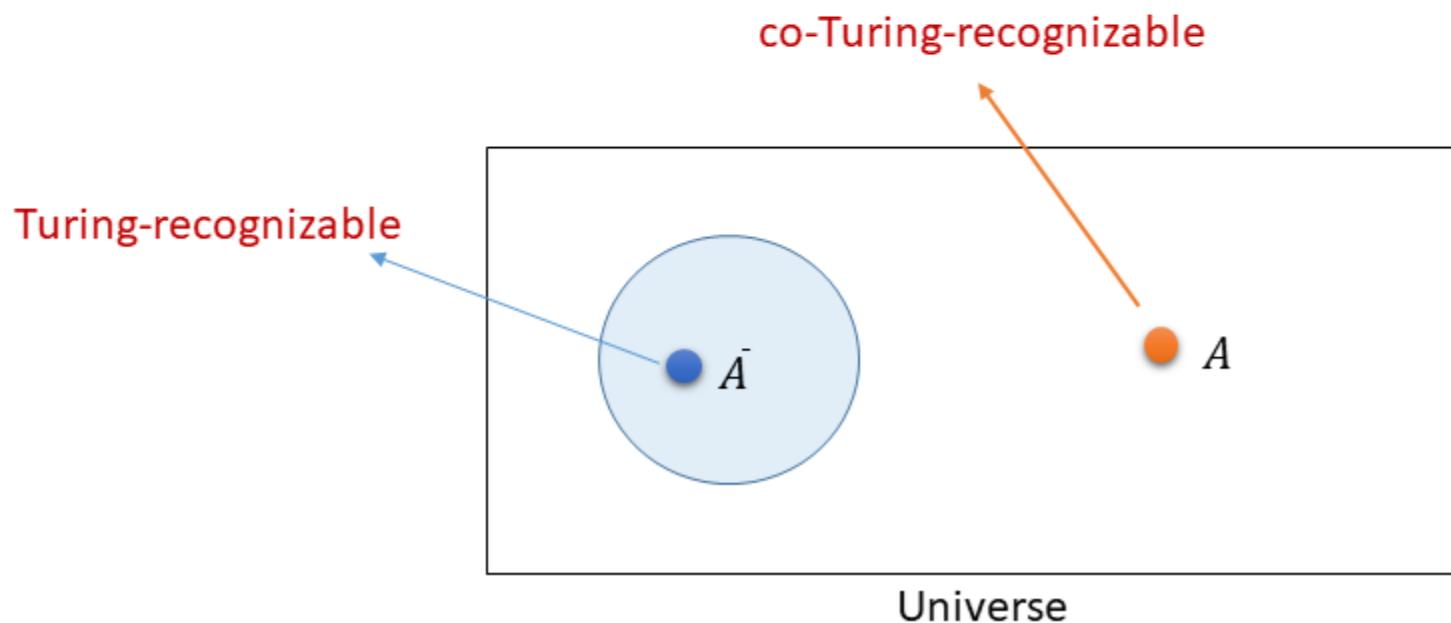
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- No matter what D does, it is forced to do the opposite,
 - which is obviously a contradiction.
- Thus, neither TM D nor TM H can exist.

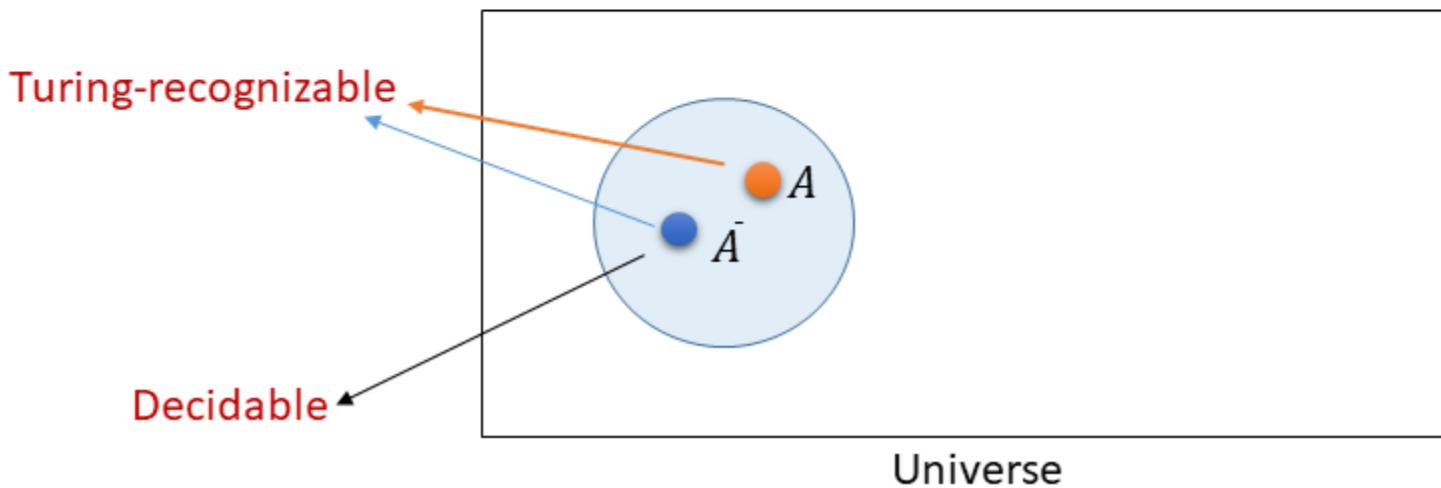
CO-TURING-RECOGNIZABLE

- A language is **co-Turing-recognizable** if it is **the complement of a Turing-recognizable language**.



CO-TURING-RECOGNIZABLE

- A language is **co-Turing-recognizable** if it is **the complement** of a Turing-**recognizable** language.
- **Theorem:** A language is **decidable** **iff** it is **Turing-recognizable** and **co-Turing-recognizable**.



CO-TURING-RECOGNIZABLE

- A language is **co-Turing-recognizable** if it is **the complement of a Turing-recognizable** language.
- **Theorem:** A language is **decidable** iff it is **Turing-recognizable** and **co-Turing-recognizable**.

Proof:

- **If part:**
- Any **decidable language** is **Turing-recognizable**.
- and the **complement of a decidable language** also is **decidable**.
 - So, it will be **Turing-recognizable**.

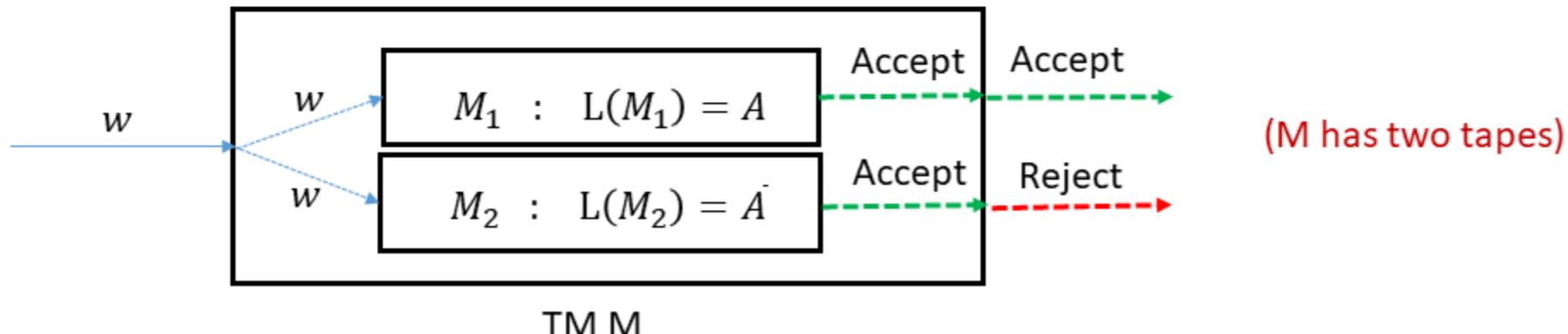
CO-TURING-RECOGNIZABLE

Proof (Cont.):

- Else-If part:
- if both A and \bar{A} are Turing-recognizable, we let M_1 be the recognizer for A and M_2 be the recognizer for \bar{A} .
- The following Turing machine M is a decider for A .

M = “On input w :

1. Run both M_1 and M_2 on input w in parallel.
2. If M_1 accepts, accept; if M_2 accepts, reject.”



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Theorem:

- $\overline{A_{TM}}$ is not Turing-recognizable.

CO-TURING-RECOGNIZABLE

Theorem:

- $\overline{A_{TM}}$ is not Turing-recognizable.

Proof:

- We know that A_{TM} is Turing-recognizable.
- If $\overline{A_{TM}}$ also were Turing-recognizable,
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- We proved that A_{TM} is not decidable,
 - so $\overline{A_{TM}}$ must not be Turing-recognizable



A_{TM} would be decidable.