

CSE2315 Slides week 6

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25 March 2020

This lecture

- Infinity
- Countable vs. uncountable
- Hotel Hilbert
- Countability of \mathbb{Q}
- Uncountability of \mathbb{R}
- Intuition undecidability of the “Halting problem”
- Undecidability acceptance problem
- Universal Turing machine
- Undecidability of A_{TM} and diagonalization method
- Co-Turing-recognizability
- A non-Turing-recognizable problem
- What is reduction?
- Direct reduction

What is infinity?

(See also video [Infinity: Countable and Uncountable](#))

- Natural numbers $\mathbb{N} = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, n, \dots\}$
- Hotel Hilbert
- Countability
- Countably infinite

(Sipser p. 202)

Functions (Def. 4.12)

A function $f : A \rightarrow B$ is:

- **surjective** (onto): for each $b \in B$ there exists an $a \in A$ such that $f(a) = b$.
- **injective** (one-to-one): if $a \neq b$, then $f(a) \neq f(b)$.
- **bijective** (correspondence): f is both surjective and injective.

Equinumerosity (finite case)

Two **finite** sets A and B are **equinumerous** (the same size) if they contain equally many elements, so if there exists a bijection $f : A \rightarrow B$.

(Sipser, Def. 4.12)

Equinumerosity (infinite case)

For infinite sets, this can be generalized as follows:

Two **infinite** sets A and B are **equinumerous** (the same size) if there exists a bijection $f : A \rightarrow B$.

(Sipser, Def. 4.12)

Countability (Def. 4.14)

- A set A is *countably infinite* (**a.k.a. at most countable**) if there exists a bijection between A and \mathbb{N} .
- A set A is *countable* if A is finite, or if A is countably infinite.
- **Alternative definition:** A set A is *countable* if $A = \emptyset$ or if there exists a surjection from \mathbb{N} to A .
- A set is *uncountable* if it is not countable.

Countable sets

- \mathbb{Z}
- $\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$
- \mathbb{Q}
- The set of programs in language X^{++}

Example $\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$

Enumeration:

$(0, 0), (1, 0), (0, 1), (2, 0), (1, 1), (0, 2), (3, 0), (2, 1), (1, 2), (0, 3), \dots$

Define $f : \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$:

$$f(m, n) = \frac{(m+n)(m+n+1)}{2} + n.$$

For instance: $(2, 3) \mapsto 18$.

f is an injection.

Exercise

Think of an enumeration for all rational numbers greater than or equal to zero; in other words, think of an enumeration for the set

$$\{q \in \mathbb{Q} \mid q \geq 0\}.$$

\aleph is the first letter of the Hebrew alphabet. \aleph_0 denotes the first degree of infinity, the amount of natural numbers. We can compute using \aleph s (remember Hotel Hilbert):

- $\aleph_0 + 1 = \aleph_0$
- $\aleph_0 + \aleph_0 = \aleph_0$
- $\aleph_0 \cdot \aleph_0 = \aleph_0$

Clever construction needed

Given a table with rows of numbers:

8	13	99	71	...
101	94	99	34	...
37	94	49	85	...
20	54	67	12	...
⋮	⋮	⋮	⋮	⋮

How can one construct a row that does not occur in the table in a **systematic way**?

Diagonal

Do 'something' to the diagonal, for instance:

$8 + 1$	13	99	71	...
101	$94 + 1$	99	34	...
37	94	$49 + 1$	85	...
20	54	67	$12 + 1$...
\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\ddots

This yields the row:

9, 95, 50, 13, ...

This row cannot occur in the table!

\mathbb{R} is uncountable (Th. 4.17)

Proof:

The default proof shows that $(0, 1)$ is uncountable. If $(0, 1)$ is not countable, then \mathbb{R} is not either.

Suppose $(0, 1)$ is countable, derive a contradiction from this using diagonalization.

\mathbb{R} is uncountable (2)

Suppose $r_0, r_1, r_2, \dots, r_m, \dots$ is an enumeration of $(0, 1)$.

Every element $r_m \in (0, 1)$ can be written as:

$$r_m = 0.r_{m_0}r_{m_1}r_{m_2} \dots r_{m_n} \dots$$

Define:

$$d = 0.d_0d_1d_2 \dots d_n \dots$$

with

$$d_n = \begin{cases} 8 & \text{if } r_{nn} = 7, \\ 7 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Then we get a contradiction, since

- 1 $d \in (0, 1)$, but
- 2 due to the construction, $d \neq r_m$ for all $m = 0, 1, 2, \dots$, so d does not occur in the enumeration.

Exercise

Why can we not show that \mathbb{Q} is uncountable in the same way we did with \mathbb{R} ? After all, elements from \mathbb{Q} also admit a decimal representation. In other words, what would go wrong in that proof?

Characteristic function

Suppose we have a subset $A \subseteq \mathbb{N}$. A can be represented in at least two ways:

- 1 as a set, for instance $A = \{0, 1, 4, 9, 16, 25, \dots\} = \{n^2 \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$.
- 2 as a **characteristic function** $\chi_A : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$:

$$\chi_A(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \in A, \\ 0 & \text{if } x \notin A. \end{cases}$$

For instance, $\chi_A(0) = 1, \chi_A(1) = 1, \chi_A(2) = 0, \dots$

Characteristic function of a language

For a language $L \subseteq \Sigma^*$ we can also define a **characteristic function** $\chi_L : \Sigma^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$:

$$\chi_L(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \in L, \\ 0 & \text{if } x \notin L. \end{cases}$$

Characteristic sequence of a language

Instead of the characteristic function, Sipser uses the concept of **characteristic sequence**. This assumes a standard enumeration of $\Sigma^* = \{s_0, s_1, s_2, \dots, s_i, \dots\}$. Now χ_L is an infinite sequence of zeroes and ones: $\chi_L = b_0b_1b_2 \dots b_i \dots$ where:

$$b_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } s_i \in L, \\ 0 & \text{if } s_i \notin L. \end{cases}$$

(Sipser, p. 206)

Other uncountable sets

- The set $\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N}) = \{V \mid V \subseteq \mathbb{N}\}$ of all subsets of \mathbb{N} is uncountable.
- The set of all functions $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ is uncountable.

Non-recognizable languages (Cor. 4.18)

There exist languages that are not Turing-recognizable.

(See also video [Languages That Are Not Turing Recognizable](#))

Why?

- 1 Σ^* is countably infinite.
- 2 For a language L over Σ , we have: $L \subseteq \Sigma^*$.
- 3 The set of all languages over Σ equals $\mathcal{P}(\Sigma^*)$.
- 4 The set $\mathcal{P}(\Sigma^*)$ is uncountable (by Cantor's theorem).
- 5 There exist countably many Turing machines with input alphabet Σ since they can be encoded as a string over some alphabet.
- 6 Ergo!

The Halting problem

Does a program $P(x, y)$ exist that decides for every input consisting of a program x and input y , whether x **halts** on input y or not?

NO

Informal proof

Suppose $P(x, y)$ exists. Suppose now we have the following code:

```
procedure Q (x: string);  
  function P (x, y: string): boolean;  
    begin  
      ...  
    end;  
  begin  
    if not P(x, x)  
      then return  
      else loop  
    end;  
  end;
```

Does $Q(Q)$ halt?

The Acceptance problem, formally

(See also video [The Universal Turing Machine](#))

Before reviewing the Halting problem, we treat the **Acceptance problem**, which is a variant of it:

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

A_{TM} is not decidable (Th. 4.11), but is Turing-recognizable.

A_{TM} is Turing-recognizable

The following TM U recognizes the language A_{TM} :

U = “On input $\langle M, w \rangle$, with M a TM and w its input:

1. Simulate M on input w .
2. If M reaches an accepting state, **accept**;
if M reaches a rejecting state, **reject**.”

Note: U does not necessarily terminate on every input $\langle M, w \rangle$!

Universal Turing machine (UTM)

The TM U from the previous slide is a **Universal Turing machine** (UTM). A UTM can run arbitrary TMs on arbitrary input. In fact, every modern computer is a UTM: we can use it to run arbitrary programs.

A UTM embodies the concept of **stored program**: the TM (the program) and its input (the data) are both stored on the tape of the UTM. The TM and its input together form the input of the UTM.

A_{TM} is not decidable

(See also video [The Undecidability of the \[Acceptance\] Problem](#) ; the Acceptance problem is erroneously called the Halting problem there, but the proof is correct.)

Proof by contradiction: Suppose A_{TM} is decidable (the supposition).

We will show that we can derive a **contradiction** from this supposition.

Result of the supposition

Then there exists a TM H that decides A_{TM} :

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

Construction based on H

Now construct the following TM D that **uses** H :

D = “On input $\langle M \rangle$, with M 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**; if H rejects, **accept**.”

Contradiction

We arrive at a contradiction if we ask ourselves:

What happens with $D(\langle D \rangle)$???

D accepts $\langle D \rangle$ iff D rejects $\langle D \rangle$

Because of this contradiction, we conclude that a decider H cannot exist. Therefore, A_{TM} is not decidable.

In fact, this proof contains the diagonalization method in a hidden form. . .

A non-Turing-recognizable language

(See also video [A Language That Is Not Turing Recognizable](#))

A language L is **co-Turing-recognizable** if \bar{L} is Turing-recognizable.

A language is decidable iff it is both Turing-recognizable and co-Turing-recognizable (Th. 4.22).

The language $\overline{A_{\text{TM}}}$ is not Turing-recognizable (Cor. 4.23).

Exercise

We say C **separates** languages A and B iff $A \subseteq C$ and $B \subseteq \overline{C}$.

Prove that for every pair of disjoint co-Turing-recognizable languages, a decidable language exists that separates the two of them.

Hint: remember the proof of Th. 4.22.

What is reduction?

(See also video [Reducibility: A Technique for Proving Undecidability](#))

Suppose we have two problems A and B , and there is a method to solve B .

Suppose we also have a method to **reduce** A to problem B .

Conclusion: now we can also solve problem A .

Example reduction

We know how to add natural numbers (primary school). Using this, we can also multiply, since:

$$\begin{cases} 0 \cdot m & = 0 \\ (n + 1) \cdot m & = n \cdot m + m. \end{cases}$$

Using this recursive definition, multiplication has been reduced to repeated addition.

Reduction

Let A and B be problems (languages). If A can be reduced to B , this means:

- 1 a way to solve B yields a way to solve A ;
- 2 if there is no way to solve A , there cannot be a way to solve B .

Notation for reduction: $A \leq B$.

This can also be read as:

A easier than or as difficult as B .

Forms of reduction

Sipser gives three forms of reduction:

- 1 **direct** reduction (own terminology),
- 2 reduction via **computation histories**, and
- 3 reduction via **mappings** (mapping reducibility).

The Halting problem (direct reduction)

The Halting problem

$$HALT_{TM} = \{ \langle M, w \rangle \mid M \text{ is a TM and } M \text{ halts on input } w \}.$$

is not decidable (Th. 5.1).

Proof: Reduction from A_{TM} to $HALT_{TM}$. We must show that $A_{TM} \leq HALT_{TM}$.

We suppose there is a decision procedure for $HALT_{TM}$ and show how this would yield a decision procedure for A_{TM} .

(See also video [Halting Problem: A Proof by Reduction](#))

Direct reduction 2

(See also video [Does a TM Accept Any String?](#))

The language E_{TM} defined as

$$E_{\text{TM}} = \{ \langle M \rangle \mid M \text{ is a TM and } L(M) = \emptyset \}$$

is not decidable (Th. 5.2).

Proof: via direct reduction:

$$A_{\text{TM}} \leq E_{\text{TM}}.$$

Suppose R is a TM that decides E_{TM} .

Auxiliary construction

Suppose we have $\langle M, w \rangle$. To be able to use R , we modify M into M_1 :

M_1 = “On input x :

1. If $x \neq w$, **reject**.
2. If $x = w$, run M on input w and **accept** when M accepts input w .”

Now:

$$L(M_1) = \{w\} \neq \emptyset \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad M \text{ accepts } w.$$

This M_1 can be “fed” to the decider R .

Nonregular languages

There exist nonregular languages:

Let $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$. The language $L \subseteq \Sigma^*$ defined as

$$L = \{0^n 1^n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$$

is not regular (Sipser, Ex. 1.73).

“A DFA cannot remember what it has read.”

Direct reduction 3

The language $REGULAR_{TM}$ defined as

$$REGULAR_{TM} = \{\langle M \rangle \mid M \text{ is a TM and } L(M) \text{ is regular}\}$$

is not decidable (Th. 5.3).

Proof: via direct reduction:

$$A_{TM} \leq REGULAR_{TM}.$$

Suppose R is a TM that decides $REGULAR_{TM}$. Now use the fact that there exist nonregular languages.

Construction

Based on $\langle M, w \rangle$, define the following M_2 :

- M_2 = “On input x :
1. If x is of the form $0^n 1^n$, **accept**.
 2. If x is not of this form, run M on w and **accept** if M accepts.”

We now have:

$$\begin{aligned} L(M_2) = \Sigma^* & \Leftrightarrow M \text{ accepts } w \\ L(M_2) = \{0^n 1^n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\} & \Leftrightarrow M \text{ does not accept } w \end{aligned}$$

This M_2 can be “fed” to the decider R .

Non-context-free languages

There exist non-context-free languages:

Let $\Sigma = \{a, b, c\}$. The language $L \subseteq \Sigma^*$ defined as

$$L = \{a^n b^n c^n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$$

is not context-free (Sipser, Ex. 2.36).

“A PDA can only pop once what it has pushed.”

Exercise

Use direct reduction to prove that

$$CF_{\text{TM}} = \{ \langle M \rangle \mid M \text{ is a TM and } L(M) \text{ is context free} \}$$

is not decidable.

Exercise

Use direct reduction to show that

$$EQ_{\text{TM}} = \{ \langle M_1, M_2 \rangle \mid M_1 \text{ and } M_2 \text{ are equivalent TMs} \}$$

is not decidable.