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Computability

(Part 1)

Lecture 26 Day 28/31

CS 154
Formal Languages and Computability
Fall 2019

Agenda of Day 28

- Feedback and Solution of Quiz 10
- About Final Exam
- Summary of lecture 25
- Lecture 26: Teaching ...
 - Computability

Solution and Feedback of Quiz 10 (Out of 20)

Section	Average	High Score	Low Score
01 (TR 3:00 PM)	15.73	19	8
02 (TR 4:30 PM)	16.07	20	11.5
03 (TR 6:00 PM)	17.12	20	12

About Final Exam

• Value: 20%

Topics: Almost everything covered from the beginning of the semester

Type: Closed all means

Section	Date	Start Time	Venue
01 (TR 3:00)	Wednesday, Dec 11	2:45	SCI 311
02 (TR 4:30)	Tuesday, Dec 17	2:45	SCI 311
03 (TR 6:00)	Thursday, Dec 12	5:15	SCI 311

 As usual, I'll announce officially the type and number of questions via Canvas. (study guide)

Summary of Lecture 25: We learned ...

Non-Regular Languages

- We introduced an important property of infinite regular languages.
- We stated it as a theorem called pumping lemma.

Conclusions

- Pumping lemma is NOT applicable to finite languages.
- If an infinite language does not satisfy pumping lemma, it is non-regular.

Pumping Lemma Statement

If L is an infinite regular language,
Then

- (1) There exists an $m \ge 1$ such that
 - If (2) $w \in L$ and (3) $|w| \ge m$

Then //P. L. guarantees that ...

- (4) We must be able to divide w into xyz in such a way that all of the following conditions are satisfied:
- (5) $|xy| \le m$, and
- (6) $|y| \ge 1$, and
- (7) $w_i = x y^i z \in L$
- (8) W_i for i = 0, 1, 2, ...

Summary of Lecture 25: We learned ...

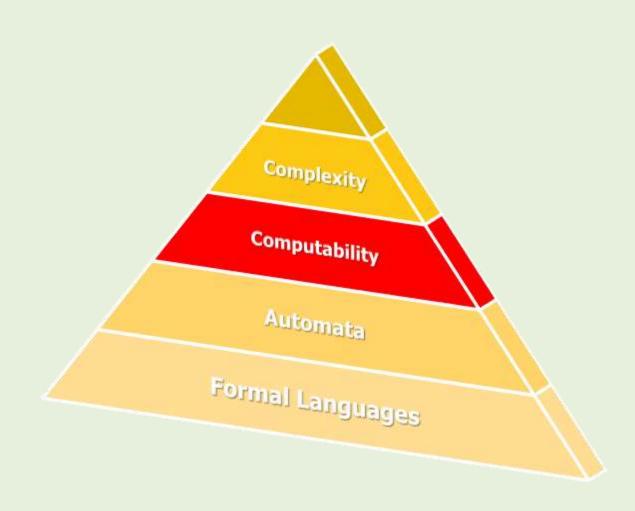
How to Prove a Language is Non-Regular?

- We use proof by contradiction:
 - Assume it is regular
 - Apply pumping lemma
 - Find a contradiction
 - Blame your assumption
- Pumping lemma CANNOT PROVE that a languages is regular.

Any Question

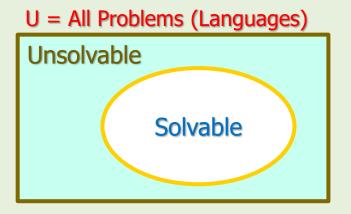
Recap

The Big Picture of the Course



Objective of This Lecture

- Is there an algorithmic solution for any kind of problems?
- Is there any unsolvable problems?
- Like any other tools, computers have capabilities and limitations.
- In this lecture, we want to show that:
 Some problems are beyond the theoretical limits of computation.



Warning!

- To understand these material, you'd need 190% attention!
- Don't panic if you see some black smoke ...
- That's your brain that's burning!
- Please call your family and give them heads up!
- Because when you reach at home, you'd look like this …!



Turing's Thesis

- Alan Turing in 1936 gave a conjecture, now known as "Turing's thesis".
- He gave us a high-level hint about what type of problems are computable.

Turing's Thesis



- Any computation carried out by a "mechanical procedure" can be performed by a TM.
- A procedure P is mechanical if:
 - P has a finite number of instructions.
 - P produces the desired result in a finite number of steps (no infinite loop).
 - P can be carried out by a human being (no specific ingenuity required) unaided by any machinery

Turing's Thesis

- We cannot prove Turing thesis and we could not refute (disprove) it yet.
 - Exactly the same way that we cannot prove Newton's laws of motion in physics.
 - Newton's laws is a model that explains much of the physical world.
- So, we claim:

Turing thesis is true as long as we cannot find a counterexample.

Turing's Thesis

Repeated

 Any computation carried out by a "mechanical procedure" can be performed by a TM.

Turing's Thesis: Notes

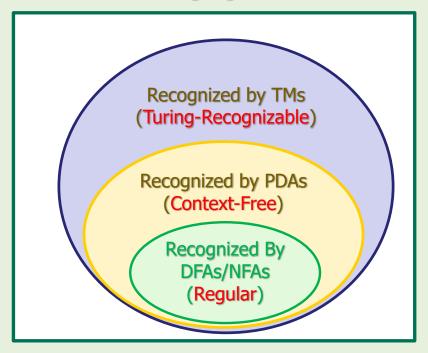
- 1. In Spring 2017, we simulated a microprocessor as a term project to prove Turing thesis experimentally.
- 2. In some documents, the thesis might be called Church-Turing thesis.
 - But we prefer to call it "Turing's Thesis"!

Decidability

Turing Recognizable Languages

- We've learned before that ...
- The languages recognized by TMs are called "Turing recognizable" (aka recursively enumerable).

U = All Formal Languages



Turing Recognizable Languages

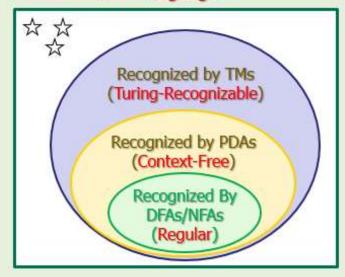
- Precisely speaking:
- A language L is called "Turing recognizable" if ...
- ... A TM halts in accepting-states to accept the strings of L.
- But to reject the strings of L̄, it ...
 - ... halts in non-accepting-states,

OR

... gets stuck in infinite-loops!

And this is a problem! Why?

U = All Formal Languages



The Problem of Turing Recognizable Languages

- Because we mentioned before that ...
- It is impossible to distinguish whether
 - ... a machine is in an infinite-loop,

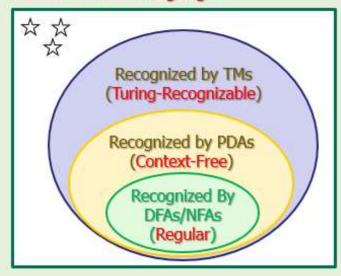
OR

... it is in the middle of a very long computation?

We'll prove this today!

 So, because of this ambiguity, we prefer TMs that ... always halt on all inputs.

U = All Formal Languages



Turing Decidable Languages



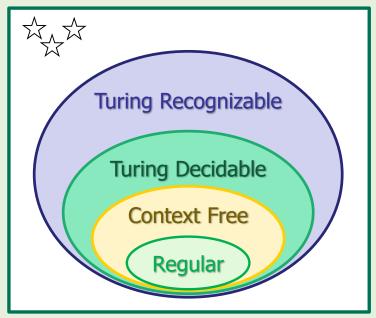
- Those TMs that always halt (for accepting and rejecting) are called "deciders".
 - Because they can always make a decision.
- A language is called "Turing-decidable" or simply "decidable" (aka recursive) if there is a decider for it.

So, now, let's take another look at the hierarchy of languages!

Formal Languages Hierarchy

Our new hierarchy of languages:

U = All Formal Languages



- Let's see the difference via some examples.
- But before that, we'd need some background ...

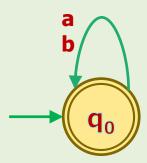
Encoding

- The input to a TM should be a string.
- So, if we want to input "objects" other than strings (e.g. graphs), then we have to convert them to strings.
- Converting an object to a string is called "encoding".
- In your term project, you have used this technique.

Example 1

 The following string shows the encoded string of this DFA.

D10101D101101F1



Encoding Notation

- Encoded object A is denoted by (A).
- If we want to encode several objects, e.g. A₁, A₂, ..., A_k, then we show them as:

$$\langle A_1, A_2, ..., A_k \rangle$$

Example 2

- The combination of a DFA M and a string w is denoted by (M, w).
 - w is the input string of M.

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Encoding: Notes

 By using this technique, we can encode all kind of objects in CS, such as:

Numbers, polynomials, graphs, grammars, automata, formal languages, matrices, etc., and any combination of these objects.

The encoding process can be done in many ways.For example, we could encode FIFAOs by binary numbers.

3. It does not matter what encoding system we use.

The result of the computation must be the same regardless of how we encode them.

Example 3

- Given language L_{DFA} as:
 - $L_{DFA} = \{(M, w) : M \text{ is a DFA that accepts input string } w\}$
- Is this a decidable language? (Is there a decider for this language?)
- Since DFAs always halt and never falls into infinite-loops,
 so, the TM that simulates DFAs' operation should always halt too.
- In other words, the TM always can decide whether the DFA accepts w or not.

In Fall 2017, we created a TM that could simulate DFAs operation.

Example 4

Is the following language decidable?

```
L_{REX} = \{(R, w) : R \text{ is a REGEX that generates string w}\}
```

- There is a theorem (we did not mention it) by which we can convert a REGEX to an NFA.
- Also, there is a theorem (we mentioned it before) by which we can convert an NFA to a DFA.
- By using these two theorems, we can convert the above problem to L_{DFA} (the previous example).

So, L_{REX} is decidable.

Example 5

Is the following language decidable?

```
L_{TM} = \{(M, w) : M \text{ is a TM that accepts string w}\}
```

 No, because TMs can fall into infinite-loops and consequently, the TM, called UTM, that simulates those TMs will fall into infinite-loops too.

Let's describe what could happen ...

Example 5 (cont'd)

- Precisely speaking, when UTM is simulating M against w, there would be three possibilities:
 - M accepts w and halts, so UTM halts in an accepting state.
 - 2. M rejects w and halts, so UTM halts in a non-accepting state.
 - 3. M rejects w by falling into an infinite-loop and so as UTM.
- So, UTM has the possibility of falling into infinite-loops.
- That's why L_{TM} is not decidable but is recognizable.

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Universal Turing Machine

- UTM in the previous example is called "universal Turing machine".
- It is called universal because it is capable of simulating other TMs.
- It was proposed by Alan Turing in 1936.
- It played a significant role in the development of stored-program computers (our current computers).

Halting Problem

Introduction

- Halting problem is one of the most famous problems in computer science.
- This is an example of the limitations of computation.
 - This problem was introduced and proved by Alan Turing in 1936.

 To understand halting problem, we need to review some paradoxes for warmup.

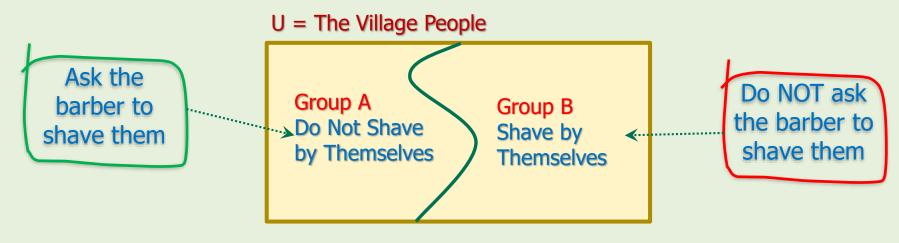
A Weird Game

- This game has two simple rules:
 - 1. Move if you see a still person.
 - 2. Stop if you see a moving person.
- Now play this game alone.
- Stand in front of a mirror, look at yourself and decide what to do!
- Will you move or stop?!



The Barber Paradox

- There exists an isolated village with only one male barber with two strict rules:
 - If someone does NOT shave by himself, he should ask the barber to shave him. (Group A)
 - 2. If someone shave by himself, he should NOT ask the barber to shave him. (Group B)

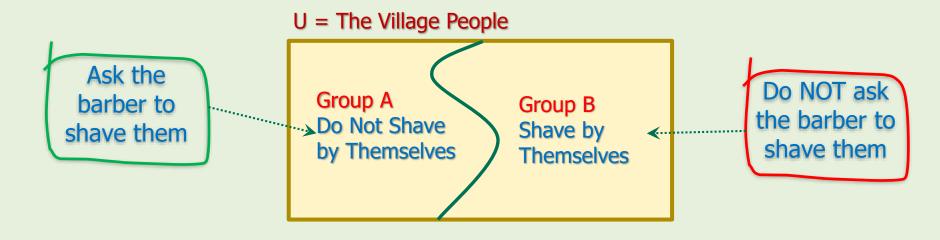




• Question: should the barber shave himself?

The Barber Paradox

- When the barber starts shaving, he falls in group B that should not ask the barber to shave them.
- So, he should stop shaving!
- When the barber stops shaving, he falls in group A that should ask the barber to shave them.
- So, he should start shaving!



The Barber Paradox

- What is the resolution of this kind of paradoxes?
- The important fact is that:
 - This physical universe in which we are living, does not permit contradiction.
- So, if any assumption leads to a contradiction, then we have to conclude that the assumption was wrong.
 - For this paradox, the assumption ...
 "there exists an isolated village ..." is wrong.
 - In other words, there CANNOT exist any village with these stupid strict rules in this universe!

A Classical Paradox

Is the following sentence true or false?

 $p \equiv This sentence is false!$

- If p is true, then it should be false!
 - Because the sentence itself is saying it is false!
- If p is false, then it should be true!
 - Because if p is false, then its negation should be true.
 - The negation of the sentence is "This sentence is true!".

Bertrand Russell's Paradox

 British philosopher, logician, mathematician, historian, writer, social critic, political activist,
 Bertrand A. W. Russell (1872-1970) introduced the following set in 1901:



"The set of all sets that do not contain themselves."

To understand this set, let's take some examples.

Bertrand Russell's Paradox

Example 6

The set of all pens in the world.

$$A = \{x : x \text{ is a pen}\}$$



- Does A contain itself?
- No, because the set A IS NOT a pen!



Example 7

The set of all non-pens in the world.

$$B = \{x : x \text{ is a non-pen}\}\$$



- Does B contain itself?
- Yes, because the set B IS a non-pen!

Bertrand Russell's Paradox

- Now let's get back to the Russell's set.
 "The set of all sets that do not contain themselves."
- This set contains all sets like set A in example 6.

•
$$R = \{A_1, A_2, A_3, ...\}$$

R = {x : x is a set, x ∉ x}



- Does R contain R (itself)? Can one of those A's be R?
- If R ∉ R, then R ∈ R!
 If R ∈ R, then R ∉ R!
- Again, the resolution of Russell's paradox is to declare that the set R cannot exist!



Self-Referential Paradoxes

- In all aforementioned paradoxes, something was referring to itself.
- That's why these kind of paradoxes are called "self-referential paradoxes".
- A rough conclusion would be:
- If in a problem, something is referring to itself, there could be a problem!

References

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- Yanofsky, Nosan, "Paradoxes, Contradictions, and the Limits of Science," American Scientist, May 2016
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