# THE UNIVERSITY OF MELBOURNE SCHOOL OF COMPUTING AND INFORMATION SYSTEMS COMP30026 Models of Computation

## Selected Tutorial Solutions, Week 12

- 91. Here is how the 2-PDA recogniser for B operates:
  - (a) Push a \$ symbol onto stack 1 and also onto stack 2.
  - (b) As long as we find an a in input, consume it and push an a onto stack 1.
  - (c) As long as we find a b in input, consume it and push a b onto stack 2.
  - (d) As long as we find a c in input, consume it and pop both stacks.
  - (e) If the top of each stack has a \$ symbol, pop these.
  - (f) If we got to this point and the input has been exhausted, accept.

If the 2-PDA got stuck at any point, that meant reject.

92. To simulate M running on input  $x_1x_2\cdots x_n$ , the 2-PDA P first pushes a \$ symbol onto stack 1 and also onto stack 2. It then runs through its input, pushing  $x_1, x_2, \ldots x_{n-1}, x_n$  onto stack 1. It then pops each symbol from stack 1, pushing it to stack 2. That is, it pushes  $x_n, x_{n-1}, \ldots x_2, x_1$  onto stack 2, in that order. Note that  $x_1$  is on top.

P is now ready to simulate M. Note that it has consumed all of its input already, but it is not yet in a position to accept or reject.

For each state of M, P has a corresponding state. Assume P is in the state that corresponds to some M state q.

For each M-transition  $\delta(q, a) = (r, b, R)$ , P has a transition that pops a off stack 2 and pushes b onto stack 1. If stack 2 now has \$ on top, P pushes a blank symbol onto stack 2. Then P goes to the state corresponding to r.

For each M-transition  $\delta(q, a) = (r, b, L)$ , P has a transition that first pops a off stack 2, replacing it by b. It then pops the top element off stack 1 and transfers it to the top of stack 2, unless it happens to \$. And then of course P goes to the state corresponding to r.

If this seems mysterious, try it out for a simple Turing machine and draw some diagrams along to way, with snapshots of the Turing machine's tape and tape head next to the 2-PDA's corresponding pair of stacks. The invariant is that what sits on top of the 2-PDA's stack 2 is exactly what is under the Turing machine's tape head at the corresponding point in its computation.

93. Assume that H is a decider for the language

 $\mathit{Halt}\,_{TM} = \{\langle M, w \rangle \mid M \text{ is a Turing machine and } M \text{ halts when run on input } w\}$ 

Here is a decider for  $A_{TM}$ :

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On input x:

if x is not of the required form \langle M, w \rangle, reject;

else run H on \langle M, w \rangle;

if H rejects, reject;

else run M on w and accept x if M accepts w;

else reject.
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Since H halts for all input, the above Turing machine also halts, and it accepts if and only if M accepts w. Since we know that  $A_{TM}$  is undecidable, we conclude that  $Halt_{TM}$  is undecidable as well.

- 94. Yes,  $\{\langle G \rangle \mid G \text{ is a context-free grammar over } \{0,1\} \text{ and } L(G) \cap 1^* \neq \emptyset\}$  is decidable. Since 1\* is regular, the intersection  $L(G) \cap 1^*$  is context-free, and we can build a context-free grammar G' for it. We then run the emptiness decider from Lecture 21 on G'. If that decider accepts, we reject, and vice versa.
- 95. Let A and B be decidable languages, let  $M_A$  be a decider for A and  $M_B$  a decider for B. We construct a decider for  $A \cup B$  as a Turing machine which implements this routine:

- (1) Run  $M_A$  on input w and accept if  $M_A$  accepts.
- (2) Run  $M_B$  on input w and accept if  $M_B$  accepts; else reject.
- 96. Let  $M_A$  and  $M_B$  be recognisers for A and B, respectively. We want to construct a recogniser for  $A \cup B$  but we can't use the construction from the last question. The reason is that there could be some string  $w \in B$ , which should obviously be accepted by the recogniser we construct, but for which  $M_A$  fails to terminate. That is, step (1) above never terminates.

Instead we construct a recogniser for  $A \cup B$  by alternating the recognisers for A and B:

- (1) Let  $M_A$  take a single execution step; accept if  $M_A$  accepts;
- go to step (4) if  $M_A$  rejects.

  (2) Let  $M_B$  take a single execution step; accept if  $M_B$  accepts; go to step (5) if  $M_B$  rejects.
- (3) Go to step (1).
- (4) Run  $M_B$  alone; accept if  $M_B$  accepts; reject if it rejects.
- (5) Run  $M_A$  alone; accept if  $M_A$  accepts; reject if it rejects.

Note that this machine may fail to terminate on w, which will happen if both of  $M_A$  and  $M_B$ fail to terminate. That's okay, of course, as we are constructing a recogniser, not a decider.

97. This is easy enough. Let M be a decider for A. We get a decider for  $A^c$  simply by swapping the 'reject' and 'accept' states in M.

The construction won't work if all we know about M is that it is a recogniser for A. Namely, M may fail to terminate for some string  $w \in A^c$ .

98. We just show the case for concatenation. Let  $M_A$  and  $M_B$  be recognisers for A and B, respectively. We want to construct a recogniser for  $A \circ B$ . It will make our task easier if we utilise nondeterminism. We can construct a nondeterministic Turing machine to implement this routine:

- (1) Split w nondeterministically so that w = xy. (2) Run  $M_A$  on x; reject w if  $M_A$  rejects x.
- (2) Run  $M_B$  on y; reject w if  $M_B$  rejects y.
- (3) Otherwise accept w.

This makes good use of the nondeterministic Turing machine's bias towards acceptance.

99. Assume  $\mathcal{B}$  is countable. Then we can enumerate  $\mathcal{B}$ :

However, the infinite sequence which has

$$i'\text{th bit} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if the } i\text{th bit of } b_i \text{ is } 1\\ 1 & \text{if the } i\text{th bit of } b_i \text{ is } 0 \end{cases}$$

is different form each of the  $b_i$ . Hence no enumeration can exist, and  $\mathcal{B}$  is uncountable. This should not be surprising, because the set  $\mathcal{B}$  is really the same as (or is isomorphic to)  $\mathbb{N} \to \Sigma$ .