# Lecture 2: Countability and Terminology

CSC 320: Foundations of Computer Science

Quinton Yong

quintonyong@ uvic.ca



### ${\mathbb R}$ is uncountable (Cantor's Diagonalization)

**Proof by contradiction**: Assume that the rational numbers  $\mathbb{R}$  is countable.

- If  $\mathbb{R}$  is countable, then we should be able to enumerate the real numbers **just** between 0 and 1.
- Let the enumeration  $(x_1, x_2, x_3, ...)$  be written as follows:

$$x_1 = 0. d_{11}d_{12}d_{13}d_{14} \dots$$
 $x_2 = 0. d_{21}d_{22}d_{23}d_{24} \dots$ 
 $x_3 = 0. d_{31}d_{32}d_{33}d_{34} \dots$ 
 $x_4 = 0. d_{41}d_{42}d_{43}d_{44} \dots$ 
 $\vdots$ 

- $x_n = 0.d_{n1}d_{n2}d_{n3}d_{n4}$  ... is the  $n^{th}$  real number in the enumeration
- $x_n$  has decimal digits  $0.d_{n1}d_{n2}d_{n3}d_{n4}$  (since we are enumerating real numbers between 0 and 1)

### R is uncountable (Cantor's Diagonalization)

• Consider the number  $\mathbf{c} = 0. c_1 c_2 c_3 c_4$  ... where  $c_i \neq d_{ii}$  for each i

```
x_1 = 0. d_{11} d_{12} d_{13} d_{14} \dots c \neq x_1 since the 1^{st} decimal digit is different (c_1 \neq d_{11}) c \neq x_2 since the 2^{nd} decimal digit is different (c_2 \neq d_{22}) c \neq x_2 since the 3^{rd} decimal digit is different (c_3 \neq d_{22}) c \neq x_3 since the 3^{rd} decimal digit is different (c_3 \neq d_{33}) c \neq x_4 since the 4^{th} decimal digit is different (c_4 \neq d_{44}) c \neq x_4 since the 4^{th} decimal digit is different (c_4 \neq d_{44}) c \neq x_4 since the a_1 decimal digit is different (a_2 decimal digit is different (a_3 decimal digit is different (a_4 decimal di
```

- Since c is a number between 0 and 1, it **should be enumerated** in this list
- However, since it differs from every element, it cannot be in this list

#### Clarification on c

- Consider the number  $\mathbf{c} = 0. c_1 c_2 c_3 c_4 \dots$  where  $c_i \neq d_{ii}$  for each i
- For example, suppose the numbers  $(x_1, x_2, x_3, ...)$  are as follows

```
x_1 = 0.4031...

x_2 = 0.1893...

x_3 = 0.5367...
```

- We define c = 0.  $c_1 c_2 c_3 c_4$  such that the digit  $c_i$  is something different than the  $i^{th}$  digit of  $x_i$
- In the example enumeration above:
  - $c_1$  can be any number other than 4
  - $c_2$  can be any number other than 8
  - $c_3$  can be any number other than 6
  - So, *c* could be something like 0.597...

#### Clarification on c

You may be wondering, if we enumerate the real numbers between 0 and 1 like

$$x_1 = 0.000 \dots 00$$
  
 $x_2 = 0.000 \dots 01$   
 $x_3 = 0.000 \dots 02$ 

then c must be in the list somewhere.

- Consider if  $\boldsymbol{c}$  appears in the list at position  $\boldsymbol{k}$ , that is  $\boldsymbol{x}_{\boldsymbol{k}} = \boldsymbol{c}$
- However, c is defined such that digit  $c_k$  is different than the  $k^{th}$  decimal digit of  $x_k$
- Thus, c can't possibly be in the list anywhere

### $\mathbb R$ is uncountable (Cantor's Diagonalization)

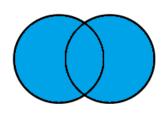
- The enumerated list  $x_1, x_2, x_3, ...$  **does not** contain all real numbers between 0 and 1 since it cannot contain c
- So, we cannot enumerate all the elements in this subset of  $\mathbb{R}$  (real numbers between 0 and 1)
- This is a **contradiction** since we assumed that  $\mathbb R$  is countable
- Therefore,  $\mathbb{R}$  is uncountable

# **Terminology Review: Sets**

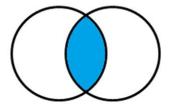
- **Set**: a collection of distinct **elements** / **members** (unordered, no repeats, can be finite or infinite)
  - $S = \{3, l, 20, \text{green}, \alpha\}$
- Set membership / non-membership:  $\alpha \in S$ ,  $\beta \notin S$
- **Empty set**: Set with no elements
  - Ø or {}
- Singleton set: set with exactly one member
- Unordered pair: set with exactly two members

# **Terminology Review: Set Operations**

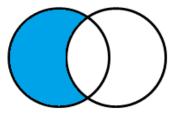
• Union of sets  $\boldsymbol{A}$  and  $\boldsymbol{B}$ :  $\boldsymbol{A} \cup \boldsymbol{B} = \{ x \mid x \in \boldsymbol{A} \text{ or } x \in \boldsymbol{B} \}$ 



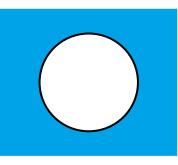
• Intersection of sets A and B:  $A \cap B = \{ x \mid x \in A \text{ and } x \in B \}$ 



• **Set difference** of sets A and B:  $A \setminus B$  or  $A - B = \{ x \mid x \in A \text{ and } x \notin B \}$ 



• Complement of set A:  $\overline{A} = \{ x \mid x \notin A \}$ 



# **Terminology Review: Powerset**

- Powerset  $\mathcal{P}(A)$  of set A: set of all subsets of A
  - $\mathcal{P}(A) = \{ S \mid S \subseteq A \}$
  - Note that  $\emptyset \in \mathcal{P}(A)$  since the empty set is a subset of all sets
- Example: Let  $A = \{1, 2, 3\}$ . Then  $\mathcal{P}(A)$  is

$$\begin{cases}
\emptyset, \\
\{1\}, \{2\}, \{3\}, \\
\{1, 2\}, \{1, 3\}, \{2, 3\}, \\
\{1, 2, 3\}
\end{cases}$$

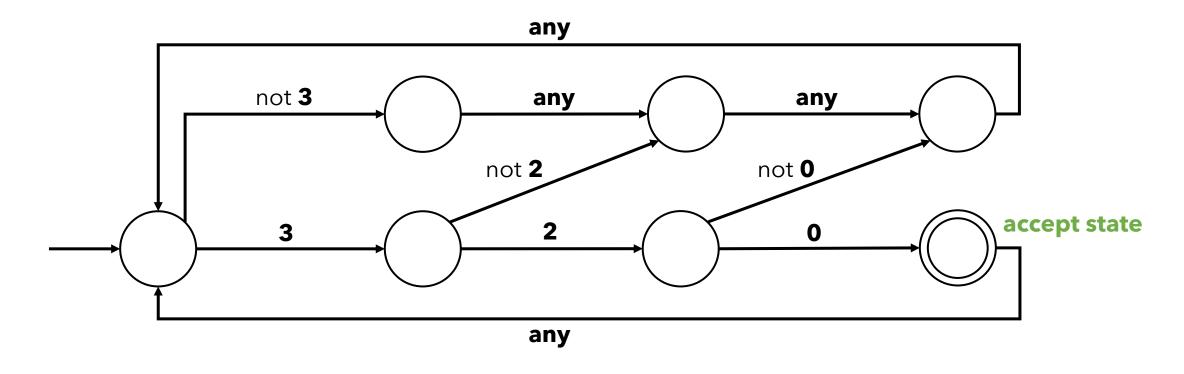
### Languages

- In this course, we will be evaluating the **computational power** of different computational models using **languages** 
  - "How complex of a language can a model compute / represent?"

- A language in this course is no different than other languages you know:
  - Given an alphabet, a language contains selected strings created by symbols in the alphabet
  - The **English** language: strings containing letters  $\{a-z\}$  which follow the rules of the language
  - Java: strings (text files) containing typed symbols which follow Java syntax

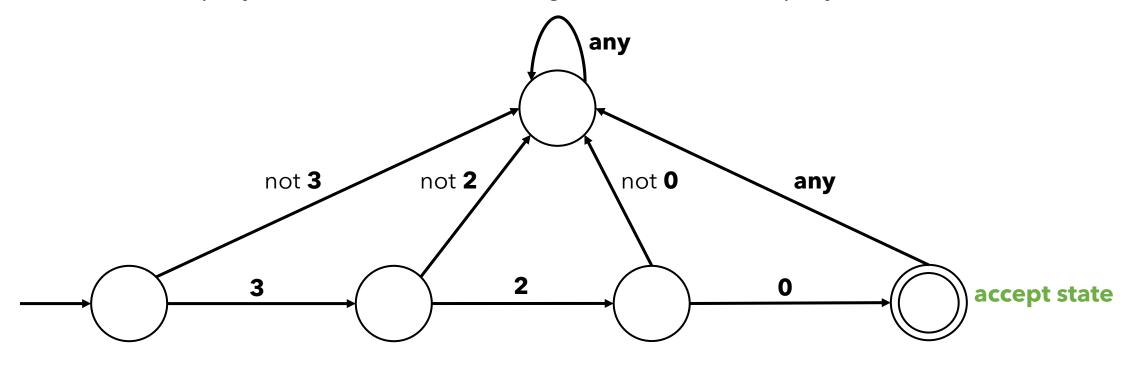
#### **Deterministic Finite Automata**

• **DFA state diagram** for the 3-digit passcode game:



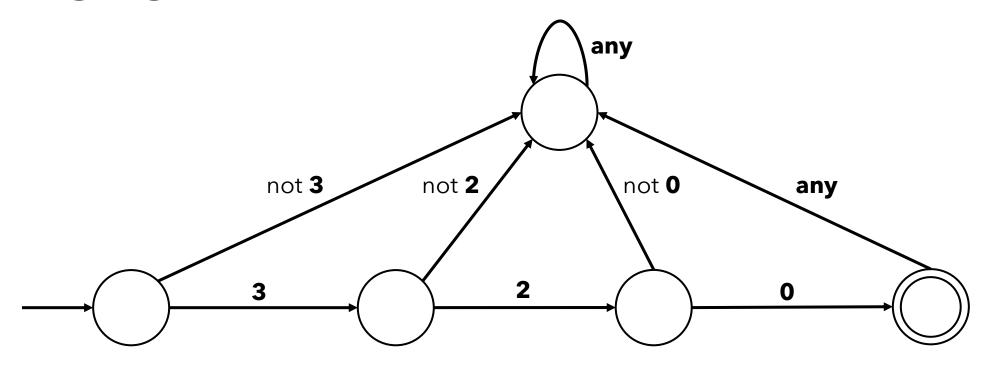
#### **Deterministic Finite Automata**

• If we don't display \* and don't reset the game, we can simplify the DFA to:



- Accepts if the input is 320
- Does not accept (lands on a non-accept state) if the input is shorter than 3 digits, the wrong 3 digit code, or longer than 3 digits

#### Languages



- In the passcode game, alphabet is  $\{0-9\}$  and the language is  $\{320\}$
- DFA's are powerful enough to represent this language and others
- However, DFA's can't represent the language "O's followed by the same number of 1s"

### **Terminology: Strings**

- An alphabet  $\Sigma$  is a **finite** set of symbols
  - e.g. binary alphabet  $\{0, 1\}$ , the Roman / Latin alphabet
- A **string** over an alphabet  $\Sigma$  is a finite sequence of symbols from  $\Sigma$ 
  - e.g. 0001 is a string over alphabet {0, 1}
- The **empty string**  $\varepsilon$  is the string with no symbols
- The set of all possible strings over an alphabet  $\Sigma$  is denoted  $\Sigma^*$ 
  - Important note:  $\varepsilon$  is in  $\Sigma^*$  ( $\varepsilon$  is a string over any alphabet)
- Example: Let  $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$ . Then  $\Sigma^* = \{\varepsilon, a, b, aa, ab, ba, bb, aaa, aab, aba, abb, baa, bab, bba bbb, ... \}$

# **Terminology: Strings**

- The length |w| of a string  $w \in \Sigma^*$  is the number of symbols of w
  - Length of the empty string:  $|\varepsilon| = 0$
  - Let w = ab, |w| = 2

- For a string  $w \in \Sigma^*$ , the symbol in the  $i^{th}$  position of w is denoted  $w_i$ 
  - Let  $\mathbf{w} = \text{aba}$ ,  $\mathbf{w_2} = b$

# **Terminology: String Operations and Relations**

- The concatenation for strings x and y yields string xy
  - Let  $\Sigma = \{a, b, c\}$ , and strings x = ab, y = bac, and z = bba
  - xyz = abbacbba
- A string v is a **substring** of string w if and only if there are strings x and y such that w = xvy
  - If  $x = \varepsilon$ , then w = vy and v is a **prefix** of w
  - If  $y = \varepsilon$ , then w = xv and v is a suffix of w
  - Example: w = abbacbba, then cbba is a suffix of w, and abb is a prefix of w
- A string w written backwards is denoted  $w^R$  and is called the **reversal** of w
  - If w = abc, then  $w^R = cba$

### **Terminology: Languages**

- A language is a set of strings over an alphabet  $\Sigma$
- Since languages are sets, we can **apply set operations** to languages (union, intersection, etc.) to create new languages
- For a language L over an alphabet  $\Sigma$ , its **complement**  $\overline{L}$  is  $\overline{L} = \Sigma^* L$ 
  - i.e. all strings in  $\Sigma^*$  that aren't in L
- Given languages  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  over alphabet  $\Sigma$ , their **concatenation** denoted  $L_1L_2$  is defined as  $L_1L_2=\{w\in\Sigma^*\mid w=xy \text{ for some }x\in L_1 \text{ and }y\in L_2\}$ 
  - E.g. Let  $L_1 = \{0, 10\}$  and  $L_2 = \{0, 11\}$ . Then  $L_1L_2 = \{00, 011, 100, 1011\}$

# **Terminology: Languages**

• For a language L over alphabet  $\Sigma$ , the Kleene star  $L^*$  of L is the set of all strings obtained by concatenating zero or more strings from L

$$L^* = \{ w \in \Sigma^* \mid w = w_1 w_2 \dots w_k , k \ge 0 \text{ and } w_i \in L \text{ for } 1 \le i \le k \}$$

• Example: Let  $L = \{0, 10\}$ , then  $L^* = \{\varepsilon, 0, 10, 00, 010, 100, 1010, ...\}$ 

- For a language L over alphabet  $\Sigma$ , the **positive closure**  $L^+$  of L is  $L^+ = LL^*$
- Basically,  $\boldsymbol{L}^+$  is  $\boldsymbol{L}^*$  but without the "zero strings concatenated" case
- Example: Let  $L = \{0, 10\}$ , then  $L^+ = \{0, 10, 00, 010, 100, 1010, ...\}$

#### **Decision Problems**

- In this course, the kinds of problems we will be working with are decision problems, which are problems with a yes or no answer
- Formally, a decision problem is a mapping from a set of problem instances (inputs) to yes / no (yes-instances and no-instances)

#### • Examples:

- Did the user input the passcode 320?
- Does the input consist of 0's followed by the same number of 1's?
- Is the given sequence in sorted order?

# **Decision Problems Languages**

- We can use languages as an abstract representation of decision problems
- The strings in the language are **yes-instances**

$$L = \{x \in \Sigma^* \mid x \text{ is a yes instance of the problem}\}$$

#### • Examples:

• Did the user input the passcode 320?

$$\Sigma = \{0 - 9\}, \ L_1 = \{x \in \Sigma^* \mid x = 320\}$$

• Does the input consist of 0's followed by the same number of 1's?

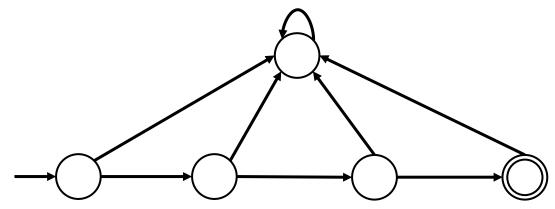
$$\Sigma = \{0, 1\}, \ L_2 = \{x \in \Sigma^* \mid x \text{ has form } 0^i 1^i, i \ge 0\}$$

Is the given sequence in sorted order?

 $L_{\text{SortedSequence}} = \{ \text{list of elements } l \mid \text{the elements of } l \text{ are in sorted order} \}$ 

### **Decision Problems and Computational Models**

- Recall that we are using languages to evaluate the computational power of computational models
- i.e. can we build an "algorithm" in the model to represent the accepted strings in the language



- Then, we are using languages as representations of a decision problem
- If we can build an "algorithm" in the model which accepts all yes-instances of a problem language, then the decision problem can be solved using the model

# **Are Decision Problems Enough?**

- There are other types of problems that computers solve:
  - Search problems: find the desired solution (e.g. find the path between two vertices u and v)
  - Optimization problems: maximize or minimize a solution (e.g. find the weight of the minimum spanning tree)
- There is usually a way to form **roughly equivalent decision problems** from other types of problems:
  - e.g. does there exist a path between vertices u and v?
  - e.g. is there a minimum spanning tree of weight  $\leq k$ ?
- Note: the problem may not be identical (running time), but it can tell us if the problem is solvable on a computational model