

Week8 monday

Theorem: A_{TM} is not Turing-decidable.

Proof: Suppose **towards a contradiction** that there is a Turing machine that decides A_{TM} . We call this presumed machine M_{ATM} .

By assumption, for every Turing machine M and every string w

- If $w \in L(M)$, then the computation of M_{ATM} on $\langle M, w \rangle$ _____
- If $w \notin L(M)$, then the computation of M_{ATM} on $\langle M, w \rangle$ _____

Define a **new** Turing machine using the high-level description:

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

1. Run M_{ATM} on $\langle M, \langle M \rangle \rangle$.
2. If M_{ATM} accepts, reject; if M_{ATM} rejects, accept.”

Is D a Turing machine?

Is D a decider?

What is the result of the computation of D on $\langle D \rangle$?

Theorem (Sipser Theorem 4.22): A language is Turing-decidable if and only if both it and its complement are Turing-recognizable.

Proof, first direction: Suppose language L is Turing-decidable. WTS that both it and its complement are Turing-recognizable.

Proof, second direction: Suppose language L is Turing-recognizable, and so is its complement. WTS that L is Turing-decidable.

Give an example of a **decidable** set:

Give an example of a **recognizable undecidable** set:

Give an example of an **unrecognizable** set:

True or False: The class of Turing-decidable languages is closed under complementation?

Definition: A language L over an alphabet Σ is called **co-recognizable** if its complement, defined as $\Sigma^* \setminus L = \{x \in \Sigma^* \mid x \notin L\}$, is Turing-recognizable.

Notation: The complement of a set X is denoted with a superscript c , X^c , or an overline, \overline{X} .

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Mapping reduction

Motivation: Proving that A_{TM} is undecidable was hard. How can we leverage that work? Can we relate the decidability / undecidability of one problem to another?

If problem X is **no harder than** problem Y
... and if Y is easy,
... then X must be easy too.

If problem X is **no harder than** problem Y
... and if X is hard,
... then Y must be hard too.

“Problem X is no harder than problem Y ” means “Can answer questions about membership in X by converting them to questions about membership in Y ”.

Definition: A is **mapping reducible to** B means there is a computable function $f : \Sigma^* \rightarrow \Sigma^*$ such that *for all* strings x in Σ^* ,

$$x \in A \quad \text{if and only if} \quad f(x) \in B.$$

Notation: when A is mapping reducible to B , we write $A \leq_m B$.

Intuition: $A \leq_m B$ means A is no harder than B , i.e. that the level of difficulty of A is less than or equal the level of difficulty of B .

Computable functions

Definition: A function $f : \Sigma^* \rightarrow \Sigma^*$ is a **computable function** means there is some Turing machine such that, for each x , on input x the Turing machine halts with exactly $f(x)$ followed by all blanks on the tape

Examples of computable functions:

The function that maps a string to a string which is one character longer and whose value, when interpreted as a fixed-width binary representation of a nonnegative integer is twice the value of the input string (when interpreted as a fixed-width binary representation of a non-negative integer)

$$f_1 : \Sigma^* \rightarrow \Sigma^* \quad f_1(x) = x0$$

To prove f_1 is computable function, we define a Turing machine computing it.

High-level description

“On input w

1. Append 0 to w .
2. Halt.”

Implementation-level description

“On input w

1. Sweep read-write head to the right until find first blank cell.
2. Write 0.
3. Halt.”

Formal definition ($\{q_0, q_{acc}, q_{rej}\}, \{0, 1\}, \{0, 1, \sqcup\}, \delta, q_0, q_{acc}, q_{rej}$) where δ is specified by the state diagram:

The function that maps a string to the result of repeating the string twice.

$$f_2 : \Sigma^* \rightarrow \Sigma^* \quad f_2(x) = xx$$

The function that maps strings that are not the codes of Turing machines to the empty string and that maps strings that code Turing machines to the code of the related Turing machine that acts like the Turing machine coded by the input, except that if this Turing machine coded by the input tries to reject, the new machine will go into a loop.

$$f_3 : \Sigma^* \rightarrow \Sigma^* \quad f_3(x) = \begin{cases} \varepsilon & \text{if } x \text{ is not the code of a TM} \\ \langle (Q \cup \{q_{trap}\}, \Sigma, \Gamma, \delta', q_0, q_{acc}, q_{rej}) \rangle & \text{if } x = \langle (Q, \Sigma, \Gamma, \delta, q_0, q_{acc}, q_{rej}) \rangle \end{cases}$$

where $q_{trap} \notin Q$ and

$$\delta'((q, x)) = \begin{cases} (r, y, d) & \text{if } q \in Q, x \in \Gamma, \delta((q, x)) = (r, y, d), \text{ and } r \neq q_{rej} \\ (q_{trap}, \sqcup, R) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

The function that maps strings that are not the codes of CFGs to the empty string and that maps strings that code CFGs to the code of a PDA that recognizes the language generated by the CFG.

Other examples?

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Recall definition: A is **mapping reducible to** B means there is a computable function $f : \Sigma^* \rightarrow \Sigma^*$ such that *for all* strings x in Σ^* ,

$$x \in A \quad \text{if and only if} \quad f(x) \in B.$$

Notation: when A is mapping reducible to B , we write $A \leq_m B$.

Intuition: $A \leq_m B$ means A is no harder than B , i.e. that the level of difficulty of A is less than or equal the level of difficulty of B .

Example: $A_{TM} \leq_m A_{TM}$

Example: $A_{DFA} \leq_m \{ww \mid w \in \{0,1\}^*\}$

Example: $\{0^i 1^j \mid i \geq 0, j \geq 0\} \leq_m A_{TM}$

Theorem (Sipser 5.22): If $A \leq_m B$ and B is decidable, then A is decidable.

Theorem (Sipser 5.23): If $A \leq_m B$ and A is undecidable, then B is undecidable.

Halting problem

$$HALT_{TM} = \{\langle M, w \rangle \mid M \text{ is a Turing machine, } w \text{ is a string, and } M \text{ halts on } w\}$$

Define $F : \Sigma^* \rightarrow \Sigma^*$ by

$$F(x) = \begin{cases} const_{out} & \text{if } x \neq \langle M, w \rangle \text{ for any Turing machine } M \text{ and string } w \text{ over the alphabet of } M \\ \langle M', w \rangle & \text{if } x = \langle M, w \rangle \text{ for some Turing machine } M \text{ and string } w \text{ over the alphabet of } M. \end{cases}$$



where $const_{out} = \langle \text{triangle}, \varepsilon \rangle$ and M' is a Turing machine that computes like M except, if the computation ever were to go to a reject state, M' loops instead.



To use this function to prove that $A_{TM} \leq_m HALT_{TM}$, we need two claims:

Claim (1): F is computable

Claim (2): for every x , $x \in A_{TM}$ iff $F(x) \in HALT_{TM}$.

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	Suppose M is a TM that recognizes L	Suppose D is a TM that decides L	Suppose E is an enumerator that enumerates L
If string w is in L then ...			
If string w is not in L then ...			

Describing Turing machines (Sipser p. 185)

The Church-Turing thesis posits that each algorithm can be implemented by some Turing machine

High-level descriptions of Turing machine algorithms are written as indented text within quotation marks.

Stages of the algorithm are typically numbered consecutively.

The first line specifies the input to the machine, which must be a string. This string may be the encoding of some object or list of objects.

Notation: $\langle O \rangle$ is the string that encodes the object O . $\langle O_1, \dots, O_n \rangle$ is the string that encodes the list of objects O_1, \dots, O_n .

Assumption: There are Turing machines that can be called as subroutines to decode the string representations of common objects and interact with these objects as intended (data structures).

For example, since there are algorithms to answer each of the following questions, by Church-Turing thesis, there is a Turing machine that accepts exactly those strings for which the answer to the question is “yes”

- Does a string over $\{0, 1\}$ have even length?
- Does a string over $\{0, 1\}$ encode a string of ASCII characters?¹
- Does a DFA have a specific number of states?
- Do two NFAs have any state names in common?
- Do two CFGs have the same start variable?

¹An introduction to ASCII is available on the w3 tutorial [here](#).

A **computational problem** is decidable iff language encoding its positive problem instances is decidable.

The computational problem “Does a specific DFA accept a given string?” is encoded by the language

$$\begin{aligned} & \{\text{representations of DFAs } M \text{ and strings } w \text{ such that } w \in L(M)\} \\ = & \{\langle M, w \rangle \mid M \text{ is a DFA, } w \text{ is a string, } w \in L(M)\} \end{aligned}$$

The computational problem “Is the language generated by a CFG empty?” is encoded by the language

$$\begin{aligned} & \{\text{representations of CFGs } G \text{ such that } L(G) = \emptyset\} \\ = & \{\langle G \rangle \mid G \text{ is a CFG, } L(G) = \emptyset\} \end{aligned}$$

The computational problem “Is the given Turing machine a decider?” is encoded by the language

$$\begin{aligned} & \{\text{representations of TMs } M \text{ such that } M \text{ halts on every input}\} \\ = & \{\langle M \rangle \mid M \text{ is a TM and for each string } w, M \text{ halts on } w\} \end{aligned}$$

Note: writing down the language encoding a computational problem is only the first step in determining if it's recognizable, decidable, or ...

Some classes of computational problems help us understand the differences between the machine models we've been studying:

Acceptance problem		
... for DFA	A_{DFA}	$\{\langle B, w \rangle \mid B \text{ is a DFA that accepts input string } w\}$
... for NFA	A_{NFA}	$\{\langle B, w \rangle \mid B \text{ is a NFA that accepts input string } w\}$
... for regular expressions	A_{REX}	$\{\langle R, w \rangle \mid R \text{ is a regular expression that generates input string } w\}$
... for CFG	A_{CFG}	$\{\langle G, w \rangle \mid G \text{ is a context-free grammar that generates input string } w\}$
... for PDA	A_{PDA}	$\{\langle B, w \rangle \mid B \text{ is a PDA that accepts input string } w\}$
Language emptiness testing		
... for DFA	E_{DFA}	$\{\langle A \rangle \mid A \text{ is a DFA and } L(A) = \emptyset\}$
... for NFA	E_{NFA}	$\{\langle A \rangle \mid A \text{ is a NFA and } L(A) = \emptyset\}$
... for regular expressions	E_{REX}	$\{\langle R \rangle \mid R \text{ is a regular expression and } L(R) = \emptyset\}$
... for CFG	E_{CFG}	$\{\langle G \rangle \mid G \text{ is a context-free grammar and } L(G) = \emptyset\}$
... for PDA	E_{PDA}	$\{\langle A \rangle \mid A \text{ is a PDA and } L(A) = \emptyset\}$
Language equality testing		
... for DFA	EQ_{DFA}	$\{\langle A, B \rangle \mid A \text{ and } B \text{ are DFAs and } L(A) = L(B)\}$
... for NFA	EQ_{NFA}	$\{\langle A, B \rangle \mid A \text{ and } B \text{ are NFAs and } L(A) = L(B)\}$
... for regular expressions	EQ_{REX}	$\{\langle R, R' \rangle \mid R \text{ and } R' \text{ are regular expressions and } L(R) = L(R')\}$
... for CFG	EQ_{CFG}	$\{\langle G, G' \rangle \mid G \text{ and } G' \text{ are CFGs and } L(G) = L(G')\}$
... for PDA	EQ_{PDA}	$\{\langle A, B \rangle \mid A \text{ and } B \text{ are PDAs and } L(A) = L(B)\}$
Sipser Section 4.1		



Example strings in A_{DFA}

Example strings in E_{DFA}

Example strings in EQ_{DFA}

Food for thought: which of the following computational problems are decidable: A_{DFA} ?, E_{DFA} ?, EQ_{DFA} ?

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Deciding a computational problem means building / defining a Turing machine that recognizes the language encoding the computational problem, and that is a decider.

Acceptance problem		
for ...	A_{\dots}	$\{\langle B, w \rangle \mid B \text{ is a } \dots \text{ that accepts input string } w\}$
Language emptiness testing		
for ...	E_{\dots}	$\{\langle A \rangle \mid A \text{ is a } \dots \text{ and } L(A) = \emptyset\}$
Language equality testing		
for ...	EQ_{\dots}	$\{\langle A, B \rangle \mid A \text{ and } B \text{ are } \dots \text{ and } L(A) = L(B)\}$
Sipser Section 4.1		

$M_1 =$ “On input $\langle M, w \rangle$, where M is a DFA and w is a string:

0. Type check encoding to check input is correct type.
1. Simulate M on input w (by keeping track of states in M , transition function of M , etc.)
2. If the simulations ends in an accept state of M , accept. If it ends in a non-accept state of M , reject. ”

What is $L(M_1)$?

Is $L(M_1)$ a decider?

$M_2 =$ “On input $\langle M, w \rangle$ where M is a DFA and w is a string,

1. Run M on input w .
2. If M accepts, accept; if M rejects, reject.”

What is $L(M_2)$?

Is $L(M_2)$ a decider?

$A_{REX} =$

$A_{NFA} =$

True / False: $A_{REX} = A_{NFA} = A_{DFA}$

True / False: $A_{REX} \cap A_{NFA} = \emptyset$, $A_{REX} \cap A_{DFA} = \emptyset$, $A_{DFA} \cap A_{NFA} = \emptyset$

A Turing machine that decides A_{NFA} is:

A Turing machine that decides A_{REX} is:

$M_3 =$ “On input $\langle M \rangle$ where M is a DFA,

1. For integer $i = 1, 2, \dots$
2. Let s_i be the i th string over the alphabet of M (ordered in string order).
3. Run M on input s_i .
4. If M accepts, _____. If M rejects, increment i and keep going.”

Choose the correct option to help fill in the blank so that M_3 recognizes E_{DFA}

- A. accepts
- B. rejects
- C. loop for ever
- D. We can't fill in the blank in any way to make this work
- E. None of the above

$M_4 =$ “ On input $\langle M \rangle$ where M is a DFA,

1. Mark the start state of M .
2. Repeat until no new states get marked:
3. Loop over the states of M .
4. Mark any unmarked state that has an incoming edge from a marked state.
5. If no accept state of A is marked, _____; otherwise, _____”.

To build a Turing machine that decides EQ_{DFA} , notice that

$$L_1 = L_2 \quad \text{iff} \quad ((L_1 \cap \overline{L_2}) \cup (L_2 \cap \overline{L_1})) = \emptyset$$

There are no elements that are in one set and not the other

$M_{EQDFA} =$

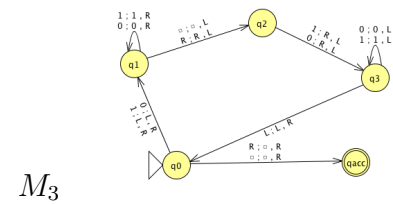
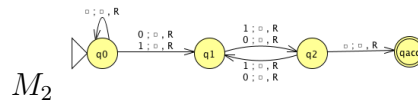
Summary: We can use the decision procedures (Turing machines) of decidable problems as subroutines in other algorithms. For example, we have subroutines for deciding each of A_{DFA} , E_{DFA} , EQ_{DFA} . We can also use algorithms for known constructions as subroutines in other algorithms. For example, we have subroutines for: counting the number of states in a state diagram, counting the number of characters in an alphabet, converting DFA to a DFA recognizing the complement of the original language or a DFA recognizing the Kleene star of the original language, constructing a DFA or NFA from two DFA or NFA so that we have a machine recognizing the language of the union (or intersection, concatenation) of the languages of the original machines; converting regular expressions to equivalent DFA; converting DFA to equivalent regular expressions, etc.

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Acceptance problem

...for DFA	A_{DFA}	$\{\langle B, w \rangle \mid B \text{ is a DFA that accepts input string } w\}$
...for NFA	A_{NFA}	$\{\langle B, w \rangle \mid B \text{ is a NFA that accepts input string } w\}$
...for regular expressions	A_{REX}	$\{\langle R, w \rangle \mid R \text{ is a regular expression that generates input string } w\}$
...for CFG	A_{CFG}	$\{\langle G, w \rangle \mid G \text{ is a context-free grammar that generates input string } w\}$
...for PDA	A_{PDA}	$\{\langle B, w \rangle \mid B \text{ is a PDA that accepts input string } w\}$

Acceptance problem
for Turing machines $A_{TM} \quad \{\langle M, w \rangle \mid M \text{ is a Turing machine that accepts input string } w\}$
Language emptiness testing
for Turing machines $E_{TM} \quad \{\langle M \rangle \mid M \text{ is a Turing machine and } L(M) = \emptyset\}$
Language equality testing
for Turing machines $EQ_{TM} \quad \{\langle M_1, M_2 \rangle \mid M_1 \text{ and } M_2 \text{ are Turing machines and } L(M_1) = L(M_2)\}$
Sipser Section 4.1



Example strings in A_{TM}

Example strings in E_{TM}

Example strings in EQ_{TM}

Theorem: A_{TM} is Turing-recognizable.

Strategy: To prove this theorem, we need to define a Turing machine R_{ATM} such that $L(R_{ATM}) = A_{TM}$.

Define $R_{ATM} =$ “

Proof of correctness:

We will show that A_{TM} is undecidable. *First, let's explore what that means.*

A **Turing-recognizable** language is a set of strings that is the language recognized by some Turing machine. We also say that such languages are recognizable.

A **Turing-decidable** language is a set of strings that is the language recognized by some decider. We also say that such languages are decidable.

An **unrecognizable** language is a language that is not Turing-recognizable.

An **undecidable** language is a language that is not Turing-decidable.

True or False: Any undecidable language is also unrecognizable.

True or False: Any unrecognizable language is also undecidable.

To prove that a computational problem is **decidable**, we find/ build a Turing machine that recognizes the language encoding the computational problem, and that is a decider.

How do we prove a specific problem is **not decidable**?

How would we even find such a computational problem?

Counting arguments for the existence of an undecidable language:

- The set of all Turing machines is countably infinite.
- Each Turing-recognizable language is associated with a Turing machine in a one-to-one relationship, so there can be no more Turing-recognizable languages than there are Turing machines.
- Since there are infinitely many Turing-recognizable languages (think of the singleton sets), there are countably infinitely many Turing-recognizable languages.
- Such the set of Turing-decidable languages is an infinite subset of the set of Turing-recognizable languages, the set of Turing-decidable languages is also countably infinite.

Since there are uncountably many languages (because $\mathcal{P}(\Sigma^*)$ is uncountable), there are uncountably many unrecognizable languages and there are uncountably many undecidable languages.

Thus, there's at least one undecidable language!

What's a specific example of a language that is unrecognizable or undecidable?

To prove that a language is undecidable, we need to prove that there is no Turing machine that decides it.

Key idea: proof by contradiction relying on self-referential disagreement.