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} .

Week8 wednesday

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

- \dots and if Y is easy,
- \dots then X must be easy too.

If problem X is **no harder than** problem Y

- \dots and if X is hard,
- \dots 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 $f: \Sigma^* \to \Sigma^*$ such that for all strings x in Σ^* ,

 $x \in A$ if and only if $f(x) \in B$.

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 $f: \Sigma^* \to \Sigma^*$ 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)

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

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 ($\{q0, qacc, qrej\}, \{0, 1\}, \{0, 1, \bot\}, \delta, q0, qacc, qrej$) where δ is specified by the state diagram:

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

$$f_2: \Sigma^* \to \Sigma^* \qquad f_2(x) = xx$$

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.

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

where $q_{trap} \notin Q$ and

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

The	function	that r	naps stri	ngs that	are not	the	codes	of	CFGs	to the	e empty	string	and	that	maps	strings
that	code CF	Gs to	the code	of a PD	A that	recog	gnizes	$th\epsilon$	e langu	age g	enerated	l by th	e CF	G.		

Other examples?

Week8 friday

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

$$x \in A$$
 if and only if $f(x) \in B$.

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

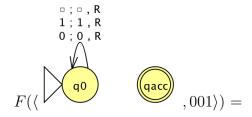
 $HALT_{TM} = \{\langle M, w \rangle \mid M \text{ is a Turing machine, } w \text{ is a string, and } M \text{ halts on } w\}$

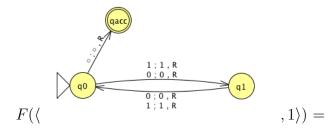
Define $F: \Sigma^* \to \Sigma^*$ by

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



where $const_{out} = \langle V, \varepsilon \rangle$ 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 $F(x) \in HALT_{TM}$.

Week6 monday

For Turing machine $M = (Q, \Sigma, \Gamma, \delta, q_0, q_{accept}, q_{reject})$ the **computation** of M on a string w over Σ is:

- Read/write head starts at leftmost position on tape.
- Input string is written on |w|-many leftmost cells of tape, rest of the tape cells have the blank symbol. **Tape alphabet** is Γ with $\bot \in \Gamma$ and $\Sigma \subseteq \Gamma$. The blank symbol $\bot \notin \Sigma$.
- Given current state of machine and current symbol being read at the tape head, the machine transitions to next state, writes a symbol to the current position of the tape head (overwriting existing symbol), and moves the tape head L or R (if possible). Formally, **transition function** is

$$\delta: Q \times \Gamma \to Q \times \Gamma \times \{L, R\}$$

• Computation ends if and when machine enters either the accept or the reject state. This is called halting. Note: $q_{accept} \neq q_{reject}$.

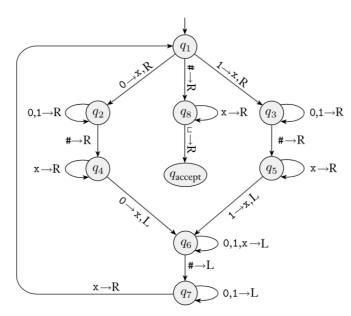
The language recognized by the Turing machine M, is

 $\{w \in \Sigma^* \mid \text{computation of } M \text{ on } w \text{ halts after entering the accept state}\} = \{w \in \Sigma^* \mid w \text{ is accepted by } M\}$

To define a Turing machine, we could give a

- Formal definition, namely the 7-tuple of parameters including set of states, input alphabet, tape alphabet, transition function, start state, accept state, and reject state; or,
- Implementation-level definition: English prose that describes the Turing machine head movements relative to contents of tape, and conditions for accepting / rejecting based on those contents.

Conventions for drawing state diagrams of Turing machines: (1) omit the reject state from the diagram (unless it's the start state), (2) any missing transitions in the state diagram have value (q_{reject}, \perp, R) .



Computation on input string 01#01

$\begin{array}{c c} q_1 \downarrow \\ \hline 0 \end{array}$	1	11	0	1		
U	1	#	0	1	u	ы
		l				
		I				
1						
						I
						ı
		T	Г			

Implementation level description of this machine:

Zig-zag across tape to corresponding positions on either side of # to check whether the characters in these positions agree. If they do not, or if there is no #, reject. If they do, cross them off.

Once all symbols to the left of the # are crossed off, check for any un-crossed-off symbols to the right of #; if there are any, reject; if there aren't, accept.

The language recognized by this machine is

 $\{w\#w \mid w \in \{0,1\}^*\}$

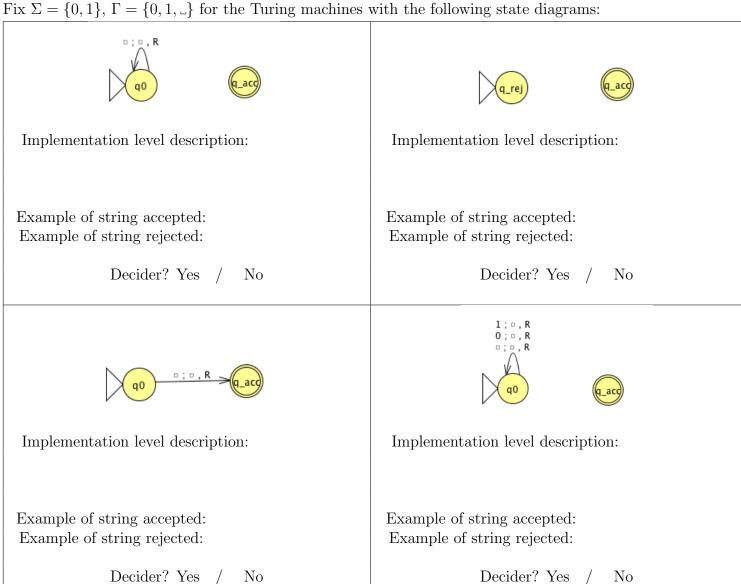
A language L is **recognized by** a Turing machine M means

A Turing machine M recognizes a language L if means

A Turing machine M is a **decider** means

A language L is **decided by** a Turing machine M means

A Turing machine M decides a language L means



Week6 wednesday

Two models of computation are called **equally expressive** when every language recognizable with the first model is recognizable with the second, and vice versa.

True / False: NFAs and PDAs are equally expressive.

True / False: Regular expressions and CFGs are equally expressive.

Some examples of models that are equally expressive with deterministic Turing machines:

May-stay machines The May-stay machine model is the same as the usual Turing machine model, except that on each transition, the tape head may move L, move R, or Stay.

Formally: $(Q, \Sigma, \Gamma, \delta, q_0, q_{accept}, q_{reject})$ where

$$\delta: Q \times \Gamma \to Q \times \Gamma \times \{L, R, S\}$$

Claim: Turing machines and May-stay machines are equally expressive. To prove . . .

To translate a standard TM to a may-stay machine:

To translate one of the may-stay machines to standard TM: any time TM would Stay, move right then left.

Formally: suppose $M_S = (Q, \Sigma, \Gamma, \delta, q_0, q_{acc}, q_{rej})$ has $\delta : Q \times \Gamma \to Q \times \Gamma \times \{L, R, S\}$. Define the Turing-machine

$$M_{new} = ($$

Multitape Turing machine A multitape Turing machine with k tapes can be formally representated as $(Q, \Sigma, \Gamma, \delta, q_0, q_{acc}, q_{rej})$ where Q is the finite set of states, Σ is the input alphabet with $\bot \notin \Sigma$, Γ is the tape alphabet with $\Sigma \subsetneq \Gamma$, $\delta : Q \times \Gamma^k \to Q \times \Gamma^k \times \{L, R\}^k$ (where k is the number of states)

If M is a standard TM, it is a 1-tape machine.

To translate a k-tape machine to a standard TM: Use a new symbol to separate the contents of each tape and keep track of location of head with special version of each tape symbol. Sipser Theorem 3.13



FIGURE 3.14
Representing three tapes with one

Extra practice: Wikipedia Turing machine Define a machine $(Q, \Gamma, b, \Sigma, q_0, F, \delta)$ where Q is the finite set of states Γ is the tape alphabet, $b \in \Gamma$ is the blank symbol, $\Sigma \subsetneq \Gamma$ is the input alphabet, $q_0 \in Q$ is the start state, $F \subseteq Q$ is the set of accept states, $\delta: (Q \setminus F) \times \Gamma \not\to Q \times \Gamma \times \{L, R\}$ is a partial transition function If computation enters a state in F, it accepts If computation enters a configuration where δ is not defined, it rejects. Hopcroft and Ullman, cited by Wikipedia

Enumerators Enumerators give a different model of computation where a language is **produced**, **one string at a time**, rather than recognized by accepting (or not) individual strings.

Each enumerator machine has finite state control, unlimited work tape, and a printer. The computation proceeds according to transition function; at any point machine may "send" a string to the printer.

$$E = (Q, \Sigma, \Gamma, \delta, q_0, q_{print})$$

Q is the finite set of states, Σ is the output alphabet, Γ is the tape alphabet $(\Sigma \subseteq \Gamma, \bot \in \Gamma \setminus \Sigma)$,

$$\delta: Q \times \Gamma \times \Gamma \to Q \times \Gamma \times \Gamma \times \{L,R\} \times \{L,R\}$$

where in state q, when the working tape is scanning character x and the printer tape is scanning character y, $\delta((q, x, y)) = (q', x', y', d_w, d_p)$ means transition to control state q', write x' on the working tape, write y' on the printer tape, move in direction d_w on the working tape, and move in direction d_p on the printer tape. The computation starts in q_0 and each time the computation enters q_{print} the string from the leftmost edge of the printer tape to the first blank cell is considered to be printed.

The language **enumerated** by E, L(E), is $\{w \in \Sigma^* \mid E \text{ eventually, at finite time, prints } w\}$.



q0						
_ *]	1	J	1	1	_
_ *	J	u	u	J]	u

Theorem 3.21 A language is Turing-recognizable iff some enumerator enumerates it. *Proof next time . . .*

Week6 friday

To define a Turing machine, we could give a

- Formal definition: the 7-tuple of parameters including set of states, input alphabet, tape alphabet, transition function, start state, accept state, and reject state; or,
- Implementation-level definition: English prose that describes the Turing machine head movements relative to contents of tape, and conditions for accepting / rejecting based on those contents.
- **High-level description**: description of algorithm (precise sequence of instructions), without implementation details of machine. As part of this description, can "call" and run another TM as a subroutine.

Theorem 3.21 A language is Turing-recognizable iff some enumerator enumerates it.

Proof:

Assume L is enumerated by some enumerator, E, so L = L(E). We'll use E in a subroutine within a high-level description of a new Turing machine that we will build to recognize L.

Goal: build Turing machine M_E with $L(M_E) = L(E)$.

Define M_E as follows: M_E = "On input w,

- 1. Run E. For each string x printed by E.
- 2. Check if x = w. If so, accept (and halt); otherwise, continue."

Assume L is Turing-recognizable and there is a Turing machine M with L = L(M). We'll use M in a subroutine within a high-level description of an enumerator that we will build to enumerate L.

Goal: build enumerator E_M with $L(E_M) = L(M)$.

Idea: check each string in turn to see if it is in L.

How? Run computation of M on each string. But: need to be careful about computations that don't halt.

Recall String order for $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$: $s_1 = \varepsilon$, $s_2 = 0$, $s_3 = 1$, $s_4 = 00$, $s_5 = 01$, $s_6 = 10$, $s_7 = 11$, $s_8 = 000$, ...

Define E_M as follows: $E_M =$ " ignore any input. Repeat the following for i = 1, 2, 3, ...

- 1. Run the computations of M on s_1, s_2, \ldots, s_i for (at most) i steps each
- 2. For each of these i computations that accept during the (at most) i steps, print out the accepted string."

Nondeterministic Turing machine

At any point in the computation, the nondeterministic machine may proceed according to several possibilities: $(Q, \Sigma, \Gamma, \delta, q_0, q_{acc}, q_{rej})$ where

$$\delta: Q \times \Gamma \to \mathcal{P}(Q \times \Gamma \times \{L, R\})$$

The computation of a nondeterministic Turing machine is a tree with branching when the next step of the computation has multiple possibilities. A nondeterministic Turing machine accepts a string exactly when some branch of the computation tree enters the accept state.

Given a nondeterministic machine, we can use a 3-tape Turing machine to simulate it by doing a breadth-first search of computation tree: one tape is "read-only" input tape, one tape simulates the tape of the nondeterministic computation, and one tape tracks nondeterministic branching. Sipser page 178

Two models of computation are called **equally expressive** when every language recognizable with the first model is recognizable with the second, and vice versa.

Church-Turing Thesis (Sipser p. 183): The informal notion of algorithm is formalized completely and correctly by the formal definition of a Turing machine. In other words: all reasonably expressive models of computation are equally expressive with the standard Turing machine.

Claim: If two languages (over a fixed alphabet Σ) are Turing-recognizable, then their union is as well.
Proof using Turing machines:
Proof using nondeterministic Turing machines:
Proof using enumerators:

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

Describing Turing machines (Sipser p. 185)

Week7 monday

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. $\langle O_1, \ldots, O_n \rangle$ is the string that encodes the list of objects O_1, \ldots, 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"
\bullet Does a string over $\{0,1\}$ have even length?
\bullet 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?
¹ An 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

```
{representations of DFAs M and strings w 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)\}
```

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

```
{representations of CFGs G such that L(G) = \emptyset}
=\{\langle G\rangle\mid G \text{ is a CFG}, L(G)=\emptyset\}
```

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

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

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

```
\{\langle A \rangle \mid A \text{ is a DFA and } L(A) = \emptyset\}
... for DFA
                                              E_{DFA}
...for NFA
                                              E_{NFA}
                                                            \{\langle A \rangle \mid A \text{ is a NFA and } L(A) = \emptyset\}
                                                            \{\langle R \rangle \mid R \text{ is a regular expression and } L(R) = \emptyset\}
... for regular expressions
                                              E_{REX}
... for CFG
                                                            \{\langle G \rangle \mid G \text{ is a context-free grammar and } L(G) = \emptyset\}
                                              E_{CFG}
... for PDA
                                              E_{PDA}
                                                            \{\langle A \rangle \mid A \text{ is a PDA and } L(A) = \emptyset\}
```

Language equality testing

```
...for DFA
                                                       \{\langle A, B \rangle \mid A \text{ and } B \text{ are DFAs and } L(A) = L(B)\}
                                        EQ_{DFA}
                                                       \{\langle A, B \rangle \mid A \text{ and } B \text{ are NFAs and } L(A) = L(B)\}
...for NFA
                                        EQ_{NFA}
                                                       \{\langle R, R' \rangle \mid R \text{ and } R' \text{ are regular expressions and } L(R) = L(R')\}
... for regular expressions
                                        EQ_{REX}
... for CFG
                                        EQ_{CFG}
                                                       \{\langle G, G' \rangle \mid G \text{ and } G' \text{ are CFGs and } L(G) = L(G')\}
...for PDA
                                                       \{\langle A, B \rangle \mid A \text{ and } B \text{ are PDAs and } L(A) = L(B)\}
                                        EQ_{PDA}
```

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} ?

Week7 wednesday

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_{...} \quad \{\langle B, w \rangle \mid B \text{ is a . . . that accepts input string } w\}

Language emptiness testing for . . . \{\langle A \rangle \mid A \text{ is a . . . and } L(A) = \emptyset\}

Language equality testing for . . . EQ_{...} \quad \{\langle A, B \rangle \mid A \text{ and } B \text{ are . . . 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

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

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} , E_{QDFA} . 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.

Week7 friday

```
Acceptance problem
... for DFA
                                                \{\langle B, w \rangle \mid B \text{ is a DFA that accepts input string } w\}
                                     A_{DFA}
...for NFA
                                               \{\langle B, w \rangle \mid B \text{ is a NFA that accepts input string } w\}
                                     A_{NFA}
... 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
                                                \{\langle B, w \rangle \mid B \text{ is a PDA that accepts input string } w\}
                                     A_{PDA}
```

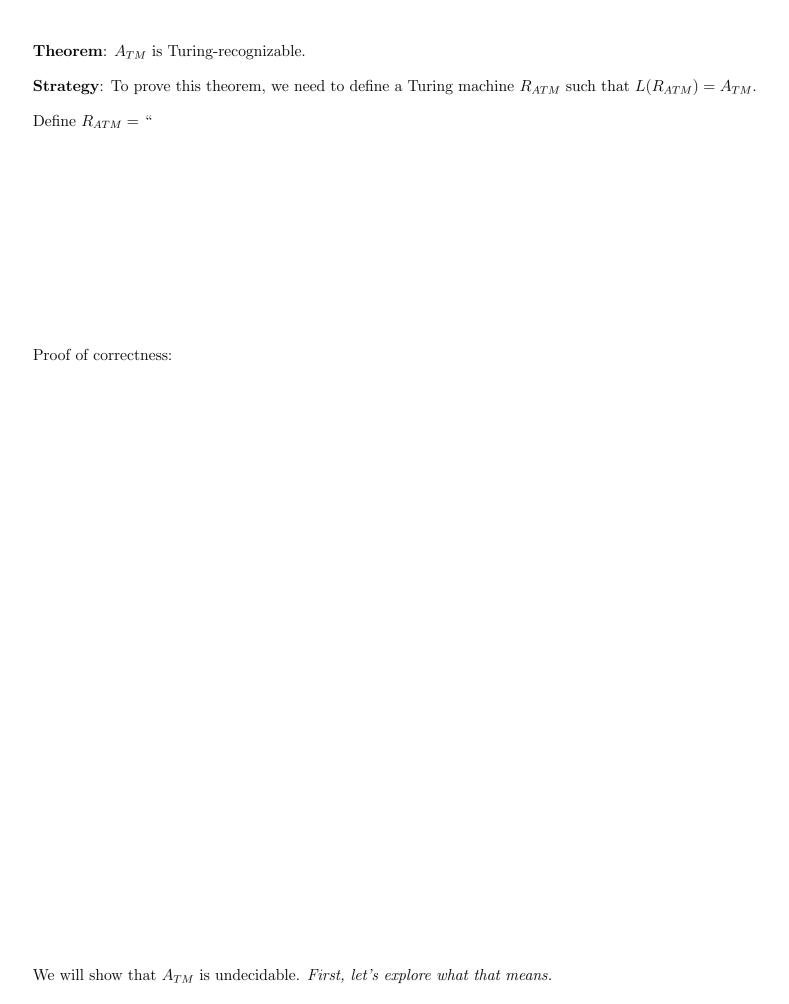
Acceptance proble	m	
for Turing machines	A_{TM}	$\{\langle M, w \rangle \mid M \text{ is a Turing machine that accepts input string } w\}$
Language emptine	ss testin	g
for Turing machines	E_{TM}	$\{\langle M \rangle \mid M \text{ is a Turing machine and } L(M) = \emptyset\}$
Language equality	testing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



Example strings in A_{TM}

Example strings in E_{TM}

Example strings in EQ_{TM}



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.