

Theory of Computing 2014: Decidability

(Based on [Sipser 2006, 2013])

Yih-Kuen Tsay

1 Introduction

Decidability/Solvability

- We shall demonstrate certain problems that can be solved algorithmically and others that cannot.
- Our objective is to explore the limits of algorithmic solvability.
- Why should you study unsolvability?
 - Knowing when a problem is algorithmically unsolvable is useful because then you realize that the problem must be simplified or altered before you can find an algorithmic solution.
 - A glimpse of the unsolvable can stimulate your imagination and help you gain an important perspective on computation.

2 Decidable Languages

Decidable Languages/Problems

- $A_{\text{DFA}} = \{\langle B, w \rangle \mid B \text{ is a DFA that accepts } w\}$.
- This is the *acceptance problem* (membership problem) for DFAs formulated as a language.

Theorem 1 (4.1). A_{DFA} is a decidable language.

- $M =$ “On input $\langle B, w \rangle$, where B is a DFA and w is a string:
 1. Simulate B on input w .
 2. If the simulation ends in an accept state, *accept*; otherwise, reject.”

Decidable Languages/Problems (cont.)

- $A_{\text{NFA}} = \{\langle B, w \rangle \mid B \text{ is an NFA that accepts } w\}$.

Theorem 2 (4.2). A_{NFA} is a decidable language.

- $N =$ “On input $\langle B, w \rangle$, where B is an NFA and w is a string:
 1. Convert NFA B to an equivalent DFA C .
 2. Run TM M for deciding A_{DFA} (as a “procedure”) on input $\langle C, w \rangle$.
 3. If M accepts, *accept*; otherwise, reject.”

Decidable Languages/Problems (cont.)

- $A_{\text{REX}} = \{\langle R, w \rangle \mid R \text{ is a regular expression that generates } w\}$.

Theorem 3 (4.3). A_{REX} is a decidable language.

- $P =$ “On input $\langle R, w \rangle$, where R is a regular expression and w is a string:
 1. Convert regular expression R to an equivalent DFA A .
 2. Run TM M for deciding A_{DFA} on input $\langle A, w \rangle$.
 3. If M accepts, *accept*; otherwise, reject.”

Decidable Languages/Problems (cont.)

- $E_{\text{DFA}} = \{\langle A \rangle \mid A \text{ is a DFA and } L(A) = \emptyset\}$.

Theorem 4 (4.4). E_{DFA} is a decidable language.

- $T =$ “On input $\langle A \rangle$, where A is a DFA:
 1. Mark the start state of A .
 2. Repeat Step 3 until no new states get marked.
 3. Mark any state that has a transition coming into it from any state that is already marked.
 4. If no accept state is marked, *accept*; otherwise, reject.”

Decidable Languages/Problems (cont.)

- $EQ_{\text{DFA}} = \{\langle A, B \rangle \mid A \text{ and } B \text{ are DFAs and } L(A) = L(B)\}$.

Theorem 5 (4.5). EQ_{DFA} is a decidable language.

- $F =$ “On input $\langle A, B \rangle$, where A and B are DFAs:
 1. Construct DFA $C = (A \cap \bar{B}) \cup (\bar{A} \cap B)$.
 2. Run TM T for deciding E_{DFA} on input $\langle C \rangle$.
 3. If T accepts, *accept*; otherwise, reject.”

Decidable Languages/Problems (cont.)

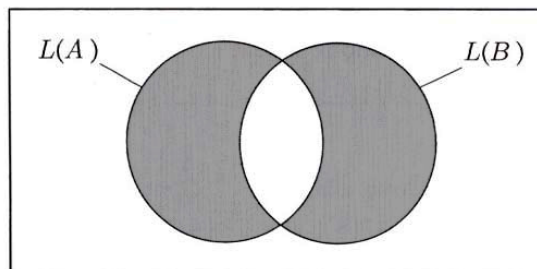


FIGURE 4.6
The symmetric difference of $L(A)$ and $L(B)$

Source: [Sipser 2006]

Decidable CFL Properties

- $A_{\text{CFG}} = \{\langle G, w \rangle \mid G \text{ is a CFG that generates } w\}$.

Theorem 6 (4.7). A_{CFG} is a decidable language.

- $S =$ “On input $\langle G, w \rangle$, where G is a CFG and w is a string:
 1. Convert G to an equivalent grammar in Chomsky normal form.
 2. List all derivations with $2|w| - 1$ steps.
 3. If any of these derivations generate w , *accept*; otherwise, reject.”

Decidable CFL Properties (cont.)

- $E_{\text{CFG}} = \{\langle G \rangle \mid G \text{ is a CFG and } L(G) = \emptyset\}$.

Theorem 7 (4.8). E_{CFG} is a decidable language.

- $R =$ “On input $\langle G \rangle$, where G is a CFG:
 1. Mark all terminals in G .
 2. Repeat Step 3 until no new variables get marked.
 3. Mark any variable A where $A \rightarrow U_1U_2 \cdots U_k$ is a rule in G and each symbol U_1, U_2, \dots, U_k has already been marked.
 4. If the start symbol is not marked, *accept*; otherwise, reject.”

Decidability of CFLs

Theorem 8 (4.9). Every context-free language is decidable.

- Let G be a CFG for the given language A and design a TM M_G that decides A .
- $M_G =$ “On input w :
 1. Run TM S for deciding A_{CFG} on input $\langle G, w \rangle$.
 2. If S accepts, *accept*; otherwise, reject.”

Classes of Languages

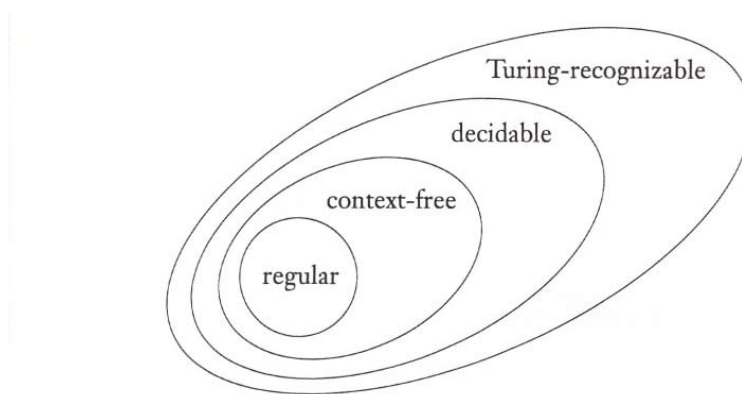


FIGURE 4.10
The relationship among classes of languages

Source: [Sipser 2006]

Classes of Languages (cont.)

Chomsky Hierarchy	Grammar	Language	Computation Model
Type-0	Unrestricted	R.E.	Turing Machine
N/A	(no common name)	Recursive	Decider
Type-1	Context-Sensitive	Context-Sensitive	Linear Bounded
Type-2	Context-Free	Context-Free	Pushdown
Type-3	Regular	Regular	Finite

- Recall that Recursively Enumerable (R.E.) \equiv Turing-recognizable and Recursive \equiv Decidable (Turing-decidable).
- Linear Bounded Automata will be introduced later.

3 The Halting Problem

Undecidability

- We shall prove that *there is a specific problem that is algorithmically unsolvable.*
- This result demonstrates that computers are limited in a very fundamental way.
- Unsolvable problems are not necessarily esoteric. Some ordinary problems that people want to solve may turn out to be unsolvable.
- For example, the general problem of software verification is not solvable by computer.
- The specific problem that we will prove algorithmically unsolvable is the one of *testing whether a Turing machine accepts a given input string.*

The Acceptance Problem

- $A_{TM} = \{\langle M, w \rangle \mid M \text{ is a TM and } M \text{ accepts } w\}$.

Theorem 9 (4.11). A_{TM} is undecidable.

- We will prove this fundamental result later.
- On the other hand, A_{TM} is Turing-recognizable.

The Acceptance Problem (cont.)

- $U =$ “On input $\langle M, w \rangle$, where M is a TM and w is a string:
 1. Simulate M on input w .
 2. If M ever enters its accept state, *accept*; if M ever enters its reject state, reject.”
- If we had (actually not) some way to determine that M was not *halting* on w , then we could turn the recognizer U into a decider.

Note: The Turing machine U is an example of the *universal Turing machine*, as it is capable of simulating any other Turing machine from the description of that machine. The universal Turing machine inspired “stored-program” computers.

Countable vs. Uncountable Sets

Definition 10 (4.12). Let f be a function from A to B .

- We say that f is *one-to-one* if $f(a) \neq f(b)$ whenever $a \neq b$.
- Say that f is *onto* if, for every $b \in B$, there is an $a \in A$ such that $f(a) = b$.
- A function that is both one-to-one and onto is called a *correspondence*.
- Two sets are considered to have the same size if there is a correspondence between them.

Definition 11 (4.14). A set A is **countable** if either it is finite or it has the same size as $\mathcal{N} = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$; it is **uncountable**, otherwise.

Countable vs. Uncountable Sets (cont.)

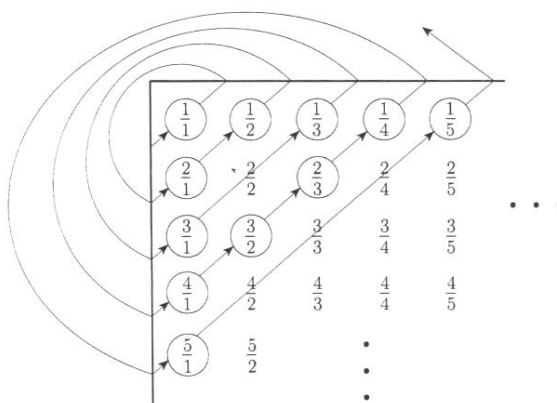


FIGURE 4.16
A correspondence of \mathcal{N} and \mathcal{Q}

Source: [Sipser 2006]

Uncountable Sets

- A real number is one that has a (possibly infinite) decimal representation.
- Let \mathcal{R} be the set of real numbers.

Theorem 12 (4.17). \mathcal{R} is uncountable.

Uncountable Sets (cont.)

- Assume that a correspondence f existed between \mathcal{N} and \mathcal{R} .

n	$f(n)$
1	3. <u>1</u> 4159...
2	55.5 <u>5</u> 555...
3	0.12 <u>3</u> 45...
4	0.500 <u>0</u> ...
⋮	⋮

- We can find an x , $0 < x < 1$, so that the i -th digit following the decimal point of x is different from that of $f(i)$; for example, $x = 0.4641\dots$ is a possible choice.
- This proof technique is called *diagonalization*, discovered by Georg Cantor in 1873.

Unrecognizability

Corollary 13 (4.18). *Some languages are not Turing-recognizable.*

- The set of all Turing machines is countable because each Turing machine M has an encoding into a string $\langle M \rangle$.
- Let \mathcal{L} be the set of all languages over alphabet Σ .
- We can show that there is a correspondence between \mathcal{L} and the uncountable set \mathcal{B} of all infinite binary sequences.
 - Let $\Sigma^* = \{s_1, s_2, s_3, \dots\}$.
 - Each language $A \in \mathcal{L}$ has a unique sequence in \mathcal{B} , where the i -th bit is a 1 if and only if $s_i \in A$.

Undecidability of the Acceptance Problem

- Suppose H is a decider for A_{TM} :

$$H(\langle M, w \rangle) = \begin{cases} \text{accept} & \text{if } M \text{ accepts } w \\ \text{reject} & \text{if } M \text{ does not accept } w \end{cases}$$

- Let $D =$ “On input $\langle M \rangle$, where M is a TM:
 1. Run H on input $\langle M, \langle M \rangle \rangle$.
 2. If H accepts, reject and if H rejects, *accept*.”
- When D takes itself, namely $\langle D \rangle$, as input:

$$D(\langle D \rangle) = \begin{cases} \text{accept} & \text{if } D \text{ does not accept } \langle D \rangle \\ \text{reject} & \text{if } D \text{ accepts } \langle D \rangle \end{cases}$$

Undecidability of the Acceptance Problem (cont.)

	$\langle M_1 \rangle$	$\langle M_2 \rangle$	$\langle M_3 \rangle$	$\langle M_4 \rangle$	\dots
M_1	<i>accept</i>		<i>accept</i>		
M_2	<i>accept</i>	<i>accept</i>	<i>accept</i>	<i>accept</i>	
M_3					\dots
M_4	<i>accept</i>	<i>accept</i>			
\vdots			\vdots		

FIGURE 4.19
Entry i, j is *accept* if M_i accepts $\langle M_j \rangle$

Source: [Sipser 2006]

Undecidability of the Acceptance Problem (cont.)

	$\langle M_1 \rangle$	$\langle M_2 \rangle$	$\langle M_3 \rangle$	$\langle M_4 \rangle$	\dots
M_1	<i>accept</i>	<i>reject</i>	<i>accept</i>	<i>reject</i>	
M_2	<i>accept</i>	<i>accept</i>	<i>accept</i>	<i>accept</i>	\dots
M_3	<i>reject</i>	<i>reject</i>	<i>reject</i>	<i>reject</i>	
M_4	<i>accept</i>	<i>accept</i>	<i>reject</i>	<i>reject</i>	
\vdots			\vdots		

FIGURE 4.20
Entry i, j is the value of H on input $\langle M_i, \langle M_j \rangle \rangle$

Source: [Sipser 2006]

Undecidability of the Acceptance Problem (cont.)

	$\langle M_1 \rangle$	$\langle M_2 \rangle$	$\langle M_3 \rangle$	$\langle M_4 \rangle$	\dots	$\langle D \rangle$	\dots
M_1	<u><i>accept</i></u>	<i>reject</i>	<i>accept</i>	<i>reject</i>	\dots	<i>accept</i>	
M_2	<i>accept</i>	<u><i>accept</i></u>	<i>accept</i>	<i>accept</i>	\dots	<i>accept</i>	\dots
M_3	<i>reject</i>	<i>reject</i>	<u><i>reject</i></u>	<i>reject</i>	\dots	<i>reject</i>	\dots
M_4	<i>accept</i>	<i>accept</i>	<i>reject</i>	<u><i>reject</i></u>	\dots	<i>accept</i>	\dots
\vdots			\vdots		\ddots		
D	<i>reject</i>	<i>reject</i>	<i>accept</i>	<i>accept</i>	\dots	<u>?</u>	\dots
\vdots			\vdots		\ddots		\ddots

FIGURE 4.21
If D is in the figure, a contradiction occurs at “?”

Source: [Sipser 2006]

A Turing-Unrecognizable Language

- A language is *co-Turing-recognizable* if it is the complement of a Turing-recognizable language.

Theorem 14 (4.22). *A language is decidable if and only if it is both Turing-recognizable and co-Turing-recognizable.*

- Let M_1 be a recognizer for A and M_2 be a recognizer for \overline{A} .
- $M =$ “On input w :
 1. Run both M_1 and M_2 on input w in parallel. (M takes turns simulating one step of each machine until one of them halts.)
 2. If M_1 accepts, *accept* and if M_2 accepts, *reject*.”

A Turing-Unrecognizable Language (cont.)

- $\overline{A_{TM}} = \{ \langle M, w \rangle \mid M \text{ is a TM and } M \text{ does not accept } w \}$.

Corollary 15 (4.23). *$\overline{A_{TM}}$ is not Turing-recognizable.*