

week 6: **Decidability and Undecidability**

This Lecture Covers Chapter 9 of HMU: Decidability and Undecidability

slides created by: Dirk Pattinson, based on material by
Peter Hoefner and Rob van Glabbeek; with improvements by Pascal Bercher

convenor & lecturer: Pascal Bercher

The Australian National University

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Content of this Chapter

- › Preliminary Ideas
- › Example of a non-RE language
- › Recursive languages
- › Universal Language
- › Reductions of Problems
- › Rice's Theorem
- › Post's Correspondence Problem
- › Undecidable Problems about CFGs

Additional Reading: Chapter 9 of HMU.

Preliminary Ideas

Enumeration of (Binary) Strings

- We can construct a bijective map ϕ from the set of binary strings $\{0, 1\}^*$ to natural numbers $\mathbb{N}$.
 - Why might that appear surprising?
 - Because each number has a unique binary encoding, but for each we could add an arbitrary number of zeros in the front, so there seem to be more strings over $\{0, 1\}$ than numbers in $\mathbb{N}$.

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› Enlist all strings ordered by length, and for each length, order using lexicographic ordering.

w	$\phi(w)$
ϵ	0
0	1
1	2
00	3
01	4
10	5
11	6
000	7
$\vdots$	$\vdots$
111	16
0000	17
$\vdots$	$\vdots$
1111	32
$\vdots$	$\vdots$

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› Enlist all strings ordered by length, and for each length, order using lexicographic ordering.

› The set of finite binary strings is countable/denumerable.

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A Code for Turing Machines

- › For simplicity, let's assume the input alphabet is binary.
- › WLOG, we can assume that TMs halt at the final state. Consequently, we only need **one** final state (perhaps after collapsing all states into one).

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- › WLOG, we can assume that TMs halt at the final state. Consequently, we only need **one** final state (perhaps after collapsing all states into one).
- › Consider $M = (Q, \Sigma = \{0, 1\}, \Gamma = \{0, 1, B, X_4, \dots, X_\ell\}, \delta, q_1, B, F)$.
 - › Rename states $\{q_1, \dots, q_k\}$ for $k = |Q|$ with q_1 : start state and q_k : final state.
 - › Rename input alphabet using $X_1 = 0$, $X_2 = 1$, and blank B as X_3 .
 - › Rename the rest of the tape symbols by $X_4, \dots, X_\ell$ for $\ell = |\Gamma|$.
 - › Rename L as D_1 and R as D_2 . (The directions.)

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- › Every transition $\delta(q_i, X_j) = (q_k, X_l, D_m)$ can be represented as a tuple (i, j, k, l, m) .

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- › Every transition $\delta(q_i, X_j) = (q_k, X_l, D_m)$ can be represented as a tuple (i, j, k, l, m) .
- › Map each transition tuple (i, j, k, l, m) to a **unique** binary string $0^i 1 0^j 1 0^k 1 0^l 1 0^m$.
NB: No string representing a transition tuple contains 11.

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- Every transition $\delta(q_i, X_j) = (q_k, X_l, D_m)$ can be represented as a tuple (i, j, k, l, m) .
- Map each transition tuple (i, j, k, l, m) to a **unique** binary string $0^i 1 0^j 1 0^k 1 0^l 1 0^m$.
NB: No string representing a transition tuple contains 11.
- Order transition tuples lexicographically and concatenate all transitions using **11** to indicate end of a transition. Let the resultant string be w_M . For example, 3 transitions can be combined as

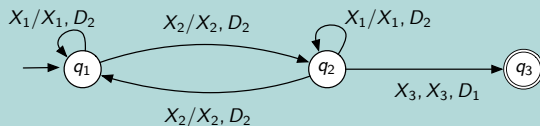
$0^{i_1} 1 0^{j_1} 1 0^{k_1} 1 0^{l_1} 1 0^{m_1}$
 1st transition

$11 0^{i_2} 1 0^{j_2} 1 0^{k_2} 1 0^{l_2} 1 0^{m_2}$
 2nd transition

$11 0^{i_3} 1 0^{j_3} 1 0^{k_3} 1 0^{l_3} 1 0^{m_3}$
 3rd transition
- For each TM M , define the code $\langle M \rangle$ for TM M as w_M .

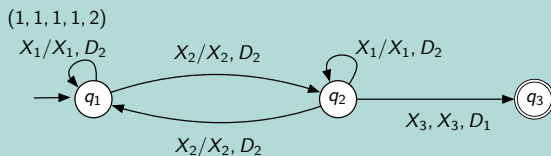
The Set of Turing Machines

An Example: A TM that accepts strings with odd # of 1s



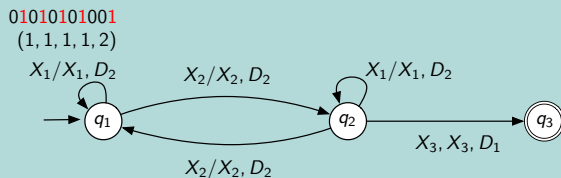
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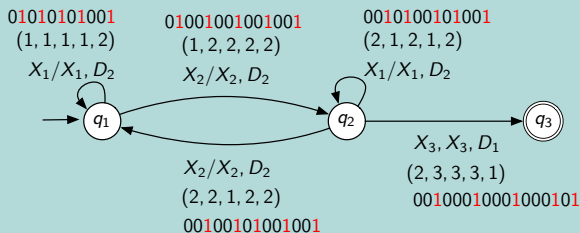
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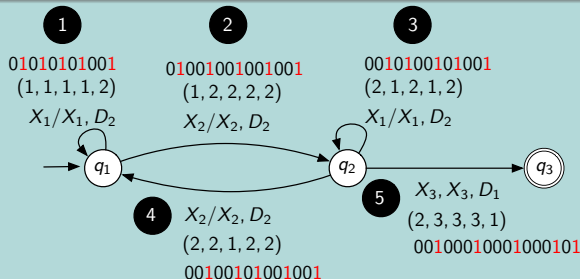
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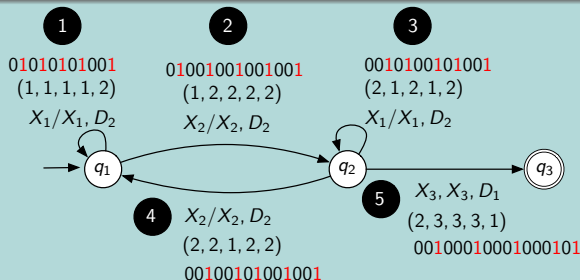
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$\langle M \rangle = (01)^4 0^2 111010^2 10^2 10^2 10^2 1110^2 1010^2 1010^2 1110^2 10^2 1010^2 10^2 1110^2 10^3 10^3 10^3 101.$

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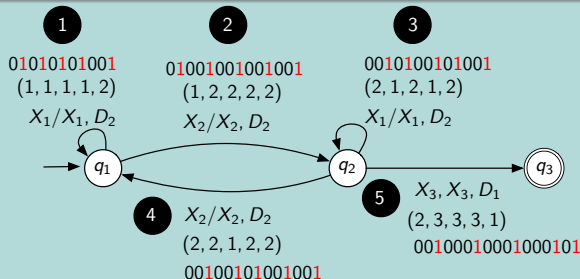
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Remark 9.1.1

- > Each TM M encoding has a unique natural number, i.e., $\phi(\langle M \rangle)$;
- Each TM M may have several codes $\langle M \rangle$ and thus several numbers;
- but each natural number corresponds to **at most one** TM.

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- The set of TMs/RE languages/CSLs/CFLs/regular languages is countable, i.e., finite or there is a bijection to the natural numbers. Careful: Countable $\not\Rightarrow$ RE membership! Clear, since every language is countable, but some are not in RE.

Example of a non-RE language

First, a recap:

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- › $L \in RE$: We know that there is a TM M with $L(M) = L$. (Recall that we can assume that it terminates on words in L .) However, for any $w \notin L$, M might not terminate. This means that we are only sure to learn about membership, but non-membership may be “stated” only sometimes. What's the worst about that?!

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- $\triangleright L \notin RE$: There does exist a TM with $L(M) = L$! So, what if we attempted to write a TM anyways? It will be "wrong"! E.g.,

 - $\bullet$ for some $w \in L$, it will reject, i.e., without accepting, terminate or loop forever.
 - $\bullet$ for some $w \notin L$, it will accept it.

Now: We see the most famous language L with $L \notin RE$.

Diagonalization Language L_d

- › Fix ϕ as on slide 4. Now, for each w_i (the i^{th} string in our enumeration) define an M_i : If w_i encodes a TM, take it! Otherwise, define it as a trivial one with empty language. Thus, we get $\phi(\langle M_i \rangle) = i$ for all $i \in \mathbb{N}$, where most M_i s are artificial/trivial, but we list all 'actual' ones!

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- Construct an infinite table. Rows: $M_0, M_1, \dots$ as above and cols: All Strings according to slide 4. Cell $(i, j) = 1$ iff M_i accepts $w_j := \phi^{-1}(j)$.

i.e., $\phi(\epsilon) = 0, \phi(0) = 1,$
 $\phi(1) = 2, \phi(00) = 3, \dots$
 just like on page 4!

E.g., $\phi(w_2) = 2$ with
 $0, 1, 00, 11 \in L(M_2)$,
 but is that true? No!
 $\phi^{-1}(2) = 1$,
 i.e., $\phi(1) = 2$,
 but 1 does not
 encode a TM, so
 M_2 is a trivial one
 with $L(M_2) = \emptyset$

So, this table is just
 an illustration!

	ϵ	0	1	00	01	10	11	...
	$\phi^{-1}(0)$	$\phi^{-1}(1)$	$\phi^{-1}(2)$	$\phi^{-1}(3)$	$\phi^{-1}(4)$	$\phi^{-1}(5)$	$\phi^{-1}(6)$	
$\epsilon = M_0$	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
$0 = M_1$	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	
$1 = M_2$	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	
$00 = M_3$	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	
$01 = M_4$	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	
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$\vdots$								

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- Construct an infinite table. Rows: $M_0, M_1, \dots$ as above and cols: All Strings according to slide 4. Cell $(i, j) = 1$ iff M_i accepts $w_j := \phi^{-1}(j)$.
- Define a language $L_d = \{w_j : M_j \text{ does not accept } w_j, \text{ where } j \in \mathbb{N}\}$.

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$\vdots$								

$L_d = \{\epsilon, 00, 10, \dots\}$ i.e., all TMs that do not accept their own encoding.

Because $\phi^{-1}(0) = \epsilon \notin L(M_0)$, $\phi^{-1}(3) = 00 \notin L(M_3)$, etc.

L_d is not a recursively enumerable language

> L_d cannot be accepted by **any** TM. Proof by contradiction.

	✓ ϵ $\phi^{-1}(0)$	0 $\phi^{-1}(1)$	1 $\phi^{-1}(2)$	✓ 00 $\phi^{-1}(3)$	01 $\phi^{-1}(4)$	✓ 10 $\phi^{-1}(5)$	11 $\phi^{-1}(6)$	...
$\epsilon = M_0$	0 ✓	0	0	0	0	0	0	
$0 = M_1$	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	
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- Assume it were. Then there is a TM M_j accepting L_d , i.e., $L(M_j) = L_d$.

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- Assume it were. Then there is a TM M_j accepting L_d , i.e., $L(M_j) = L_d$.
- But now we get a contradiction:
 - If $(j, j) = 1$, then $w_j \in L(M_j)$ by definition of $(j, j) = 1$.
But if $w_j \in L(M_j)$, then $w_j \notin L_d$, so cell (j, j) should be 0! $\nexists$

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 - If $(j, j) = 0$, then $w_j \notin L(M_j)$ by definition of L_d .
But if $w_j \notin L(M_j)$, then $w_j \in L_d$, so cell (j, j) should be 1! ✗

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	$\phi^{-1}(0)$	$\phi^{-1}(1)$	$\phi^{-1}(2)$	$\phi^{-1}(3)$	$\phi^{-1}(4)$	$\phi^{-1}(5)$	$\phi^{-1}(6)$	
$\epsilon = M_0$	0 ✓	0	0	0	0	0	0	
$0 = M_1$	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	
$1 = M_2$	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	
$00 = M_3$	1	1	1	0 ✓	0	1	1	
$01 = M_4$	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	
$10 = M_5$	1	1	0	0	0	0 ✓	1	
$\vdots$								

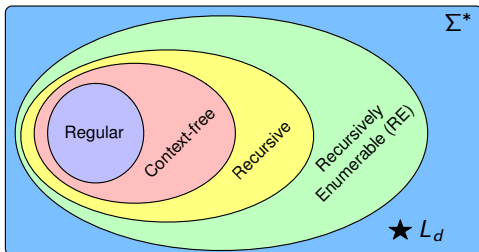
$L_d = \{\epsilon, 00, 10, \dots\}$

Recursive languages

Recursive Languages

Recall the following definitions:

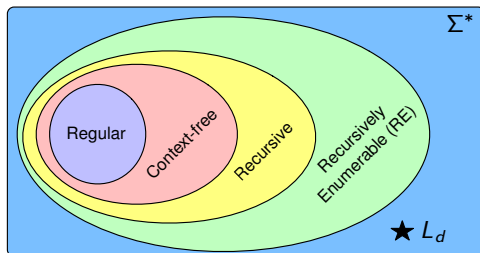
- › A language L is **recursive** if it is accepted by a TM M that halts on **all** inputs
 - › In such a case, the TM M is said to **decide** L .
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Recursive Languages

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- › Do not confuse deciding with accepting! TMs can accept without always terminating (namely, e.g, for languages in $RE \setminus R$, where R denotes the recursive languages).

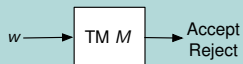
(Some Obvious) Properties of Recursive Languages

Theorem 9.3.1

If L is recursive, so is L^c .

Proof of Theorem 9.3.1

> Note that M always halts.



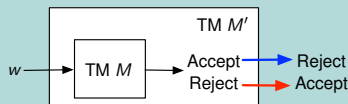
> Recursive languages are closed under complementation.

(Some Obvious) Properties of Recursive Languages

Theorem 9.3.1

If L is **recursive**, so is L^c .

Proof of Theorem 9.3.1



- > Note that M always halts. M' does too.
- > Accepting states of M with $L(M) = L$ are non-accepting states of M' with $L(M') = L^c$.
- > Add a new and only final state q_f in M' such that:

$$\delta_M(q, X) \text{ undefined and } q \notin F$$

(i.e., M rejects in q for X)

$\Downarrow$

$$\delta_{M'}(q, X) = (q_f, X, R).$$

(i.e., M' accepts in that case)

> Recursive languages are closed under complementation.

(Some Obvious) Properties of Recursive Languages

Theorem 9.3.2

If L and L^c are both recursively enumerable, then L (and hence L^c) is (are) recursive.

Proof of Theorem 9.3.2

- › Let $L = L(M_1)$ and $L^c = L(M_2)$. (By definition, M_1 and M_2 must exist!)
- › Simulate running M_1 and M_2 in parallel by using a 2-tape TM M . M 's states (q, q') use q from M_1 and q' from M_2 .
- › Declare final state of M is q is final in M_1 . If M_2 rejects, then M accepts.
- › Continue running M until a final state is reached.
- › Since for any word either sub machine will halt, M will terminate and accept L .

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Alternate Definition of Recursive Languages

L is recursive if both L and L^c are recursively enumerable.

The Universal Language and Turing Machine

Intermission

To what does a TM (somehow) correspond to?

- › To a (general purpose) computer?
- › Or to a (specific) program?

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- › To a (general purpose) computer?
- › Or to a (specific) program?

Any TM is like a program! Because it does one job and one job only! Your computer, on the other hand, can take any job (by loading different programs)!

So, how could we generalize that?

In a nutshell,

A TM is called universal TM iff it can simulate any TM.

The Universal Language and Turing Machine

Universal Language L_u

$\triangleright L_u := \{ \langle M \rangle 111w : \langle M \rangle \text{ encodes TM } M \text{ and } w \in L(M) \}$. [See Slide 4]

Universal TM U (modelled as 5-tape TM)

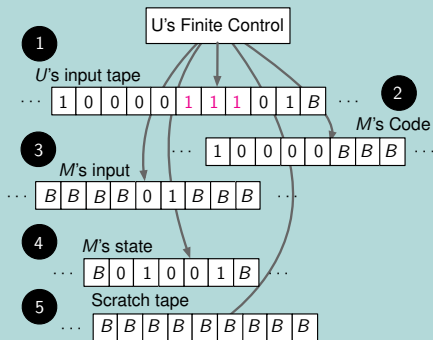
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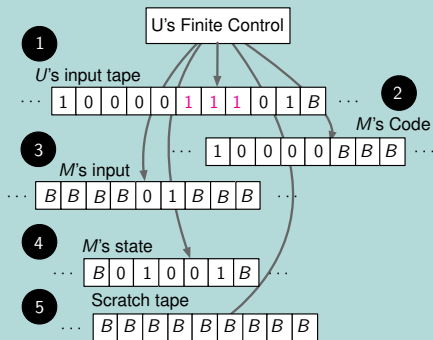
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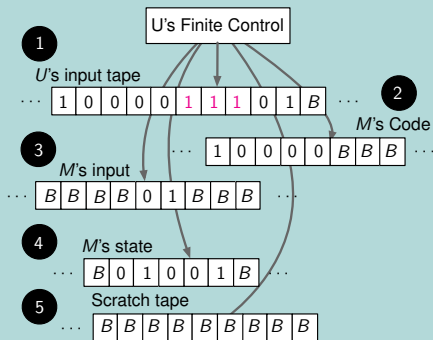
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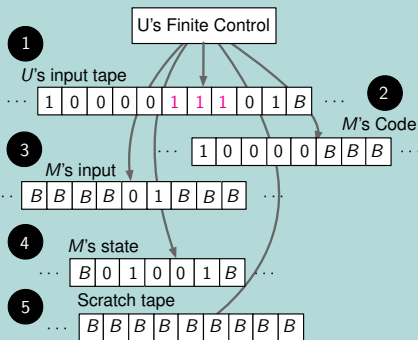
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- 3 Initiates 4th tape with 0^1 (M starts in q_1)
- 4 To simulate a move of M , U reads tapes 3 and 4 to identify M 's state and input as 0^i and 0^j ; if state is accepting, M (and hence U) accepts its inputs and halts. Else, U scans tape 2 for 110^i10^j1 or $BB0^i10^j1$.
 - > If found, using the transition, tapes 4 and 3 are updated, and tape 3's head moves to right or left.
 - > If not, M halts, and so does U .



Where does L_U Lie in the Hierarchy of Languages?

Theorem 9.4.1

L_U is recursively enumerable, but is not recursive.

Proof of Theorem 9.4.1

> $L_U := \{\langle M \rangle 111w : w \in L(M)\}$ is in RE because TM U accepts it.

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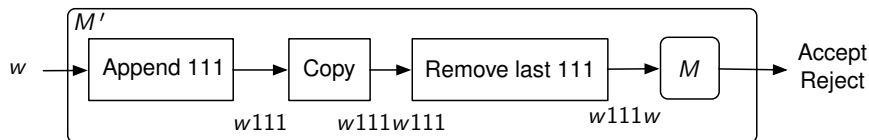
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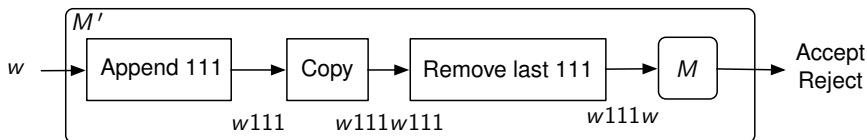
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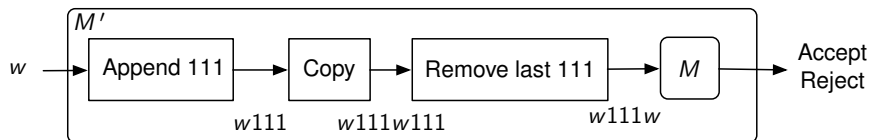
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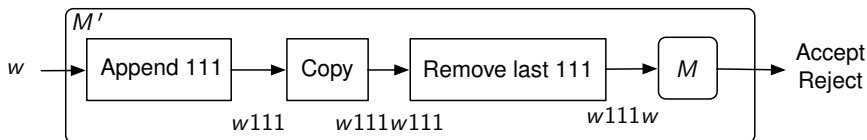
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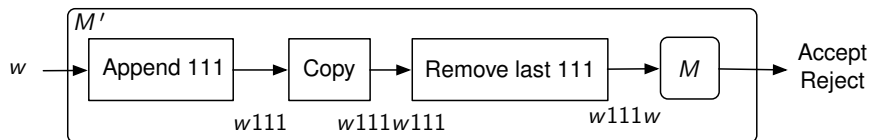
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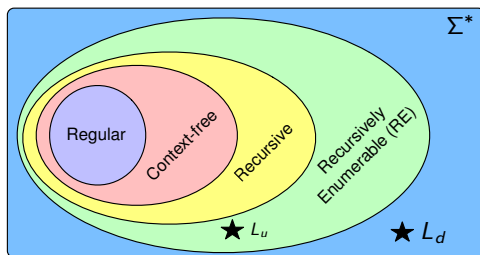
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- > Then, $L(M')$ is the L_d , for which there is no TM! But M' decides L_d !



Recap

Recap

- › There exists a bijection $\phi : \Sigma^* \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$.
- › There exists an injective function $\langle \cdot \rangle : \text{Set of TMs} \rightarrow \Sigma^*$.
- › RE languages are countable.



- › The diagonalization Language L_d is not recursively enumerable.
- › Recursive languages are closed under complementation. (See tutorials for more!)
- › The universal language $L_u = \{\langle M \rangle 111w : M \text{ accepts } w\}$ is RE, but not recursive.

Reductions of Problems

What is a Reduction?

- › A decision problem P is said to reduce to decision problem Q if **every** instance of P can be transformed to **some** instance of Q and a yes (or no) answer to that instance of Q yields a yes (or no) answer to original instance of P , respectively.
 - We did already make use of reductions in this lecture multiple times!
 - E.g., reduce the problem of deciding L^c to the problem of deciding L : Here the new problem was only a minimal modification, by flipping results (see slide 13).
- › Here, **transform** implies the existence of a Turing machine that takes an instance of P written on a tape and **always halts** with an instance of Q written on it.

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Theorem 9.6.1

If a problem P reduces to a problem Q then:

- (a) P is undecidable $\Rightarrow Q$ is undecidable.*
- (b) P is non-RE $\Rightarrow Q$ is non-RE.*

Problem Reduction

Proof of Theorem 9.6.1

(a) **P is undecidable $\Rightarrow Q$ is undecidable.**

Suppose P is undecidable and Q is decidable. Let TM M_Q decide Q .

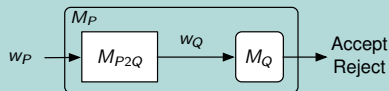
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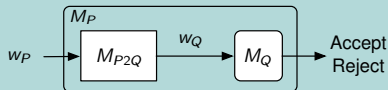
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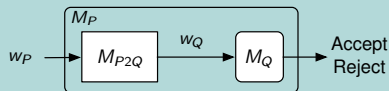
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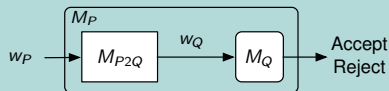
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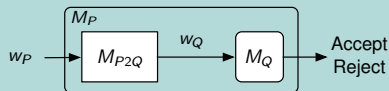
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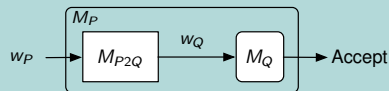


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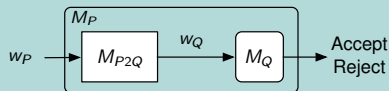
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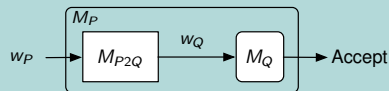


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- This is a TM that accepts all instances of P , a contradiction.

Rice's Theorem

Some More Abstract Languages

Language of TMs Accepting Empty and Non-empty Languages

- > $L_e = \{\langle M \rangle : L(M) = \emptyset\}$.
- > $L_{ne} = \{\langle M \rangle : L(M) \neq \emptyset\}$. (Note: $L_{ne} = L_e^c$ and $L_{ne}^c = L_e$)

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Theorem 9.7.1

L_{ne} is recursively enumerable.

Note that this theorem doesn't say whether it's recursive or not!

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Cause we might get stuck in one word! The alternative: “dovetailing”, exactly how the proof for compiling away non-determinism worked!

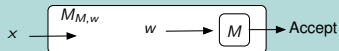
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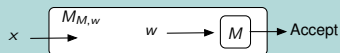
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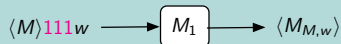
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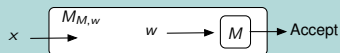
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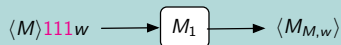
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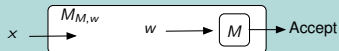
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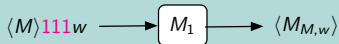
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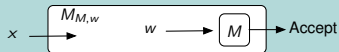
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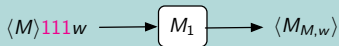
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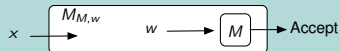
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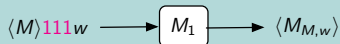
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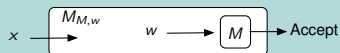
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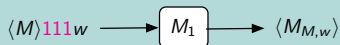
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- We thus decide L_u , which is impossible (it's only recursively enumerable).

Rice's Theorem

Given: alphabet Σ and let $RE = \{L \subseteq \Sigma^* \mid L \text{ is recursively enumerable}\}$.

› A **property** of RE languages is subset $\mathcal{P} \subseteq RE$ of the set of RE languages over Σ .

Why do we call sets of languages a property? Think of examples:

- $\mathcal{P}_1 = \{L \subseteq \Sigma^* : |L| < \infty\}$ (the property is being finite)
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- So, Rice's theorem says something about some (many!) subsets
 $S \subseteq \{\langle M \rangle : M \text{ is a TM}\}$ (So we want to know something about TMs!)

Rice's Theorem (Example 1)

How about the “property” that a TM has 10 states? (Should be decidable!)

- › Let $L_{10} = \{\langle M \rangle : M \text{ has 10 states}\}$. But we have to be able to write it as:
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- › This doesn't work since we can take some M_9 with 9 states (and thus $\langle M_9 \rangle \notin L_{10}$) and add a dummy state, so we have 10 in the resulting TM M_{10} . Now we have:

 - $\langle M_9 \rangle \notin L_{10}$, and $\langle M_{10} \rangle \in L_{10}$, but
 - $L(M_9) = L(M_{10})$, so $L(M_9) \in \mathcal{P}_{10}$ and $L(M_{10}) \in \mathcal{P}_{10}$.
 - Recall $L_{\mathcal{P}} = \{\langle M \rangle \mid L(M) \in \mathcal{P}\}$, so $\langle M_9 \rangle \in L_{\mathcal{P}_{10}}$. $\nmid$

→ So it doesn't work! It's not a property of languages!
 (So Rice's theorem doesn't apply.)

Rice's Theorem (Example 2)

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- › Thus, $L_{\mathcal{P}_{01}} = \{\langle M \rangle : L(M) \in \mathcal{P}_{01}\}$ is undecidable. In other words: We can't decide whether a given TM accepts a language that contains a 01.

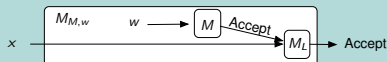
Recap on what that means practically:

For some TMs M , we might be able to correctly answer yes or no – and even terminate! But we cannot design a single TM D (for decider) that receives as input an arbitrary TM M and we always terminate with the correct yes/no answer!

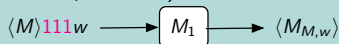
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- WLOG, we can assume that $\emptyset \notin \mathcal{P}$. Else consider $\mathcal{P}^c$.
- Since $\mathcal{P}$ is non-trivial, there is a language $L \in \mathcal{P}$ and a TM M_L that accepts L
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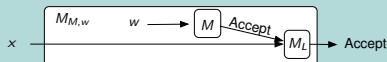


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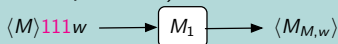
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- M accepts $w \iff L(M_{M,w}) = L \in \mathcal{P}$
- If $\mathcal{P}$ were decidable, then there is a TM M_2 such that M_2 accepts $\langle M \rangle$ iff $L(M) \in \mathcal{P}$.
- Then, we can devise a TM M_3 such that it reads $\langle M \rangle 111w$ operates first as M_1 and then when M_1 has halted, it operates as M_2 .
- M_3 accepts/**rejects** $\langle M \rangle 111w \iff L(M_{M,w}) \in / \notin \mathcal{P} \iff M$ accepts/**rejects** w .
- Then, L_u is recursive, a contradiction

Post's Correspondence Problem

PCP: Definition

- › Suppose we are given two ordered lists of strings over Σ , say $A = (u_1, \dots, u_k)$ and $B = (v_1, \dots, v_k)$. We say (u_i, v_i) to be a **corresponding pair**.
- › PCP Problem: Is there a sequence of integers $i_1, \dots, i_m$ such that:

$$u_{i_1} \cdots u_{i_m} \\ = v_{i_1} \cdots v_{i_m}?$$

- › m can be greater than the list length k .
- › We can reuse pairs as many times as we like.

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A PCP example

A	110	0011	0110
B	110110	00	110

- A solution cannot start with $i_1 = 3$.
- A solution can start with $i_1 = 1$, but then $i_2 = 1$, and $i_3 = 1 \dots$ Consequently, i_1 cannot equal 1.
- A solution does exist: $(i_1, i_2, i_3) = (2, 3, 1)$.
- $(i_1, i_2, i_3, i_4, i_5, i_6) = (2, 3, 1, 2, 3, 1)$ is also a solution.

Modified PCP (MPCP): Definition

- › Suppose we are again given two ordered lists of strings over Σ , say $A = (u_1, \dots, u_k)$ and $B = (v_1, \dots, v_k)$.
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- › The previous example does not have a solution when viewed as an MPCP problem.
- › So MPCP is indeed a different problem to PCP, but...

Theorem 9.8.1

MPCP reduces to PCP

MPCP: Thoughts/Ideas before constructing a Proof

- So we want to prove that MPCP reduces to PCP.
(So, PCP is at least as hard as MPCP.)
- More specifically we need to:
 - Turn every MPCP problem into a PCP problem (with preserving solutions).
 - I.e., **how can we enforce PCP to always select the first element first?**

Thus, the problem we need to solve is:

- To make sure that the first string gets selected first, but
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Initial thoughts:

- We add a new start symbol to u_1 and v_1 so that they match.
- But that still doesn't enforce that the “normal PCP” starts with them! ...

Outline of Proof of Theorem 9.8.1

- › Given MPCP's lists $A = (u_1, \dots, u_k)$ and $B = (v_1, \dots, v_k)$. We now transform this into a PCP problem! Suppose that symbols $\diamond, \triangle$ are not in the strings of A and B .

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- › Construct lists $C = (w_0, \dots, w_{k+1})$ and $D = (x_0, \dots, x_{k+1})$ for PCP as follows.
 - › For $i = 1, \dots, k$,
 - if $u_i = s_1 \dots s_\ell$, then $w_i = s_1 \diamond s_2 \diamond \dots \diamond s_\ell \diamond$ [$\diamond$ succeeds symbols]
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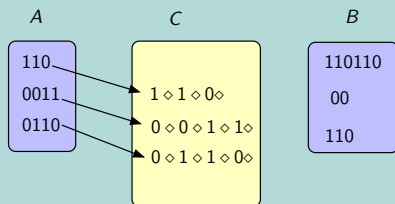
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 \diamond w_1 w_{i_1} \dots \diamond w_{i_n} &= x_1 x_{i_1} \dots x_{i_n} \diamond && \Longleftrightarrow \\
 w_0 w_{i_1} \dots w_{i_n} \triangle &= x_0 x_{i_1} \dots x_{i_n} \diamond \triangle
 \end{aligned}$$

Outline of Proof of Theorem 9.8.1

- > Given MPCP's lists $A = (u_1, \dots, u_k)$ and $B = (v_1, \dots, v_k)$. We now transform this into a PCP problem! Suppose that symbols $\diamond, \triangle$ are not in the strings of A and B .
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 - if $v_i = s_1 \dots s_\ell$, then $x_i = \diamond s_1 \diamond s_2 \diamond \dots \diamond s_\ell$ [$\diamond$ precedes symbols]
 - > $w_0 = \diamond w_1$ and $x_0 = x_1$. [Ensures any solution to PCP also starts with $i_1 = 1$]
 - > $w_{k+1} = \triangle$ and $x_{k+1} = \diamond \triangle$. [Balances the extra $\diamond$]



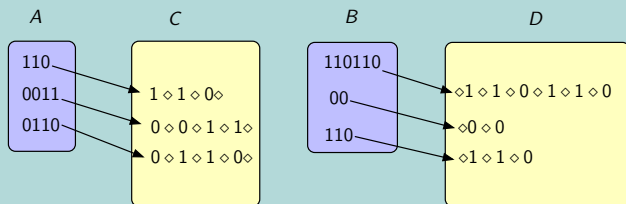
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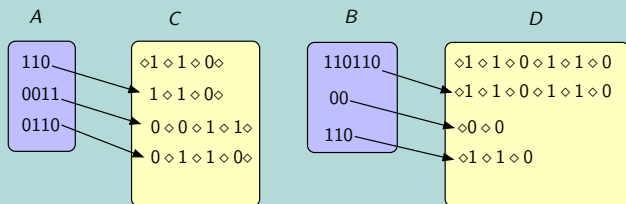
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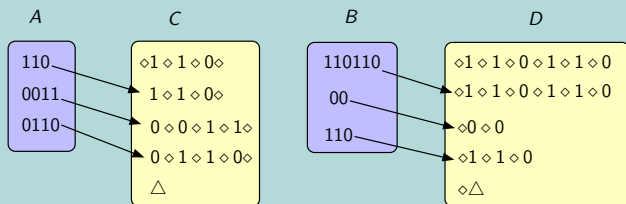
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PCP is undecidable

Theorem 9.8.2

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Outline of Proof of Theorem 9.8.2 (Overview)

We reduce L_u to MPCP (and did already MPCP to PCP).

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- › Hence, MPCP is undecidable. [following Theorem 9.6.1]

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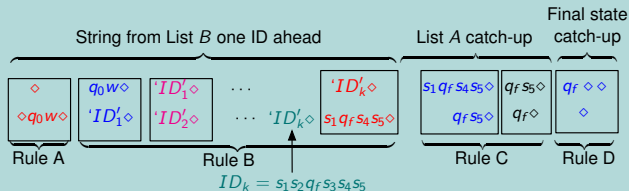
So, the hard work is to solve/model $\langle M \rangle 111w \in L_u$ via MPCP!

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(More detailed proof at the end)

Outline of Proof of Theorem 9.8.2 (Overview)

Abstract overview of existing pairs in the constructed MPCP:

The rules $A \dots, D$ are in the appendix.**The overall idea is as follows:**

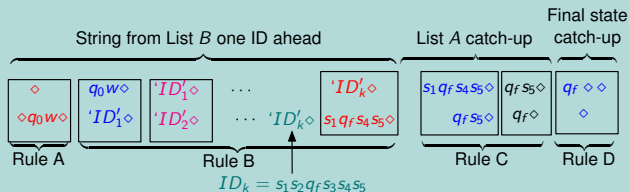
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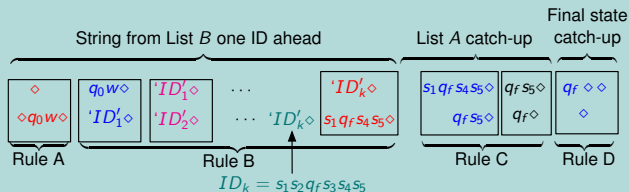
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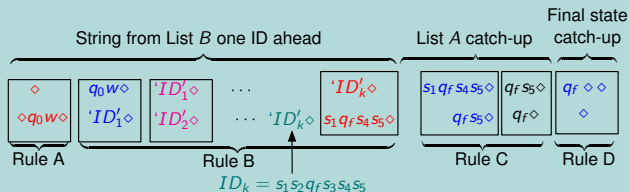
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In such a pair, the first line/entry is the old configuration and the second the new.

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- › We construct a pair for every valid TM transition! (Rule B)
In such a pair, the first line/entry is the old configuration and the second the new.
- › We have/need a few more rules to make all strings equal and deal with final states.
Note how we have to move the first line to get matching strings. (Rules C, D)

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(More detailed proof at the end)

Proof of Theorem 9.8.2 (Short Example)

Before we look at an example, recap:

- > A TM ID looks as: $X_1 \dots, X_{i-1}qX_i \dots X_\ell$ where X_i is below the head.

Now, with TM's start state q_0 and initial tape $w = s_1s_2s_3$ let:

- > Word in line 1: $\diamond$
- > Word in line 2: $\diamond q_0 s_1 s_2 s_3 \diamond$

We get this by our first pair, created by Rule A:

- > First entry in 1st list: $\diamond$
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What's next? Create the transitions! (Via Rules in B)

- › Assume $\delta(q_0, s_1) = (p, t_1, R)$, then $q_0s_1s_2s_3 \vdash_M$
- › So we put this into a new pair!

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- › Word in line 2: $\diamond q_0s_1s_2s_3 \diamond t_1p$

We get this by another pair, created by Rule B:

- › Entry in 1st list: q_0s_1
- › Entry in 2nd list: t_1p

since $\delta(q_0, s_1) = (p, t_1, R)$
and thus $q_0s_1s_2s_3 \vdash_M t_1ps_2s_3$

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What's next? The remaining symbols from last configuration are missing...

- › We add a pair (s, s) for all $s \in \Gamma$ (Rule I)
- › and one pair $(\diamond, \diamond)$ (Rule I)

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- > A TM ID looks as: $X_1 \dots, X_{i-1}qX_i \dots X_\ell$ where X_i is below the head.

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- > Word in line 1: $\diamond q_0 s_1 s_2 s_3 \diamond$
- > Word in line 2: $\diamond q_0 s_1 s_2 s_3 \diamond t_1 p s_2 s_3 \diamond$

We get this by several new pairs, created by Rule I:

- > $(s_0, s_0), (s_1, s_1), (s_2, s_2), \dots$ (for all $s \in \Gamma$)
- > and the pair $(\diamond, \diamond)$

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What's next? We continue! Next transition!

- › Assume $\delta(p, s_2) = (r, t_2, L)$, then $t_1ps_2s_3 \vdash_M$
- › So we put this into a new pair!

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Now, with TM's start state q_0 and initial tape $w = s_1s_2s_3$ let:

- › Word in line 1: $\diamond q_0s_1s_2s_3\diamond t_1ps_2$
- › Word in line 2: $\diamond q_0s_1s_2s_3\diamond t_1ps_2s_3\diamond rt_1t_2$

We get this by another pair, created by Rule B:

- › Entry in 1st list: t_1ps_2
- › Entry in 2nd list: rt_1t_2

since $\delta(p, s_2) = (r, t_2, L)$
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What's next?

- › First, we again add the missing symbols, until
- › eventually we find a final state. We have more rules for that (see appendix).

Ambiguity in CFGs/CFLs

- › We'll now revisit CFGs and prove that ambiguity in CFGs is undecidable.

Theorem 9.9.1

The problem if a CFG is ambiguous is undecidable.

Outline of Proof of Theorem 9.8.2

- › We'll reduce ... which one? (1) PCP to CFG or (2) CFG to PCP?

- › We'll now revisit CFGs and prove that ambiguity in CFGs is undecidable.

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The problem if a CFG is ambiguous is undecidable.

Outline of Proof of Theorem 9.8.2

- › We'll reduce every instance of a PCP problem to a CFG.
- › Given a PCP problem with $A = (w_1, \dots, w_k)$ and $B = (x_1, \dots, x_k)$, pick symbols $a_1, \dots, a_k$ that don't appear in any string in list A or B .
- › Now define a grammar G with production rules

$$S \rightarrow A \mid B$$

$$A \rightarrow w_1 A a_1 \mid \dots \mid w_k A a_k \mid w_1 a_1 \mid \dots \mid w_k a_k$$

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$$S \longrightarrow A \mid B$$

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$$B \longrightarrow x_1 B a_1 \mid \dots \mid x_k B a_k \mid x_1 a_1 \mid \dots \mid x_k a_k$$

- › If there are two leftmost derivations of a string in $L(G)$, one must use $S \longrightarrow A$ and $S \longrightarrow B$, respectively.
- › Every solution to the PCP leads to 2 leftmost derivations of some string in $L(G)$ and vice versa. (Note how the solution indices are encoded in the end of each word.)
- › Since PCP is undecidable, the ambiguity of CFGs must be undecidable [Thm 9.6.1]

Overview of (Some) Undecidable Problems Concerning CFGs

- › Given a CFG G , is it ambiguous? (We just had that.)

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- › Given CFGs G_1 and G_2 , is $L(G_1) = L(G_2)$?
- › Given CFG G and regular language L , is $L(G) = L$?

Overview of (Some) Undecidable Problems Concerning CFGs

- › Given a CFG G , is it ambiguous? (We just had that.)
- › Given CFL L , is it inherently ambiguous?
- › Given CFGs G_1 and G_2 , is $L(G_1) \cap L(G_2) = \emptyset$?
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- › Given CFG G and regular language L , is $L(G) = L$?
- › Given CFG G and regular language L , is $L \subseteq L(G)$?
- › Given CFG G , is $L(G) = \Sigma^*$?

Appendix: PCP Proof Details

PCP is undecidable

Proof Details of Theorem 9.8.2 (Rule Definitions)

› For the proof we construct an MPCP for each TM M and input w .

Rule A: Construct two lists A and B whose first entries are $\diamond$ and $\diamond q_0 w \diamond$, respectively.

Rule I: Add corresponding pairs (X, X) (for all $X \in \Gamma$) and $(\diamond, \diamond)$

Rule B: Suppose q is not a final state. Then, append to the list the following entries:

List A	List B	
qX	Yp	<i>if</i> $\delta(q, X) = (p, Y, R)$
ZqX	pZY	<i>if</i> $\delta(q, X) = (p, Y, L)$
$q\diamond$	$Yp\diamond$	<i>if</i> $\delta(q, B) = (p, Y, R)$
$Zq\diamond$	$pZY\diamond$	<i>if</i> $\delta(q, B) = (p, Y, L)$

Rule C: For $q \in F$, let (XqY, q) , (Xq, q) , and (qY, Y) be corresponding pairs for $X, Y \in \Gamma$

Rule D: For $q \in F$ $(q \diamond \diamond, \diamond)$ is a corresponding pair.

PCP is undecidable

Proof Details of Theorem 9.8.2 (Construction/Explanation)

- Suppose there is a solution to the MPCP problem. The solution starts with the first corresponding pair, and the string constructed from List B is already an ID of TM M ahead of the string from List A .
- As we select strings from List A (corresponding to Rule B) to match the last ID, the string from List B adds to its string another valid ID.
- The sequence of IDs constructed are valid sequences of IDs for M starting from q_0w .
- Suppose the last ID constructed in the string constructed from List B corresponds to a final state, then we can gobble up one neighboring symbol at a time using Rule C.
- Once we are done gobbling up all tape symbols, the string from List B is still one final state symbol ahead of List A 's string.
- We then use Rule D to match and complete.

