

Nondeterministic Space Complexity Classes

- Let L be a language.
- Then

$$L \in \text{NSPACE}(f(n))$$

if there is an NTM with input and output that decides L and operates within space bound $f(n)$.

- $\text{NSPACE}(f(n))$ is a set of languages.
- As in the linear speedup theorem (Theorem 4 on p. 72), constant coefficients do not matter.

Graph Reachability

- Let $G(V, E)$ be a directed graph (digraph).
- REACHABILITY asks if, given nodes a and b , does G contain a path from a to b ?
- Can be easily solved in polynomial time by breadth-first search.
- How about the nondeterministic space complexity?

The First Try in NSPACE($n \log n$)

```
1:  $x_1 := a$ ; {Assume  $a \neq b$ .}
2: for  $i = 2, 3, \dots, n$  do
3:   Guess  $x_i \in \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$ ; {The  $i$ th node.}
4: end for
5: for  $i = 2, 3, \dots, n$  do
6:   if  $(x_{i-1}, x_i) \notin E$  then
7:     “no”;
8:   end if
9:   if  $x_i = b$  then
10:    “yes”;
11:   end if
12: end for
13: “no”;
```

In Fact REACHABILITY \in NSPACE($\log n$)

```
1:  $x := a$ ;  
2: for  $i = 2, 3, \dots, n$  do  
3:   Guess  $y \in \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$ ; {The next node.}  
4:   if  $(x, y) \notin E$  then  
5:     “no”;  
6:   end if  
7:   if  $y = b$  then  
8:     “yes”;  
9:   end if  
10:   $x := y$ ;  
11: end for  
12: “no”;
```

Space Analysis

- Variables i , x , and y each require $O(\log n)$ bits.
- Testing $(x, y) \in E$ is accomplished by consulting the input string with counters of $O(\log n)$ bits long.
- Hence

$\text{REACHABILITY} \in \text{NSPACE}(\log n)$.

- REACHABILITY with more than one terminal node also has the same complexity.
- $\text{REACHABILITY} \in \text{P}$ (p. 195).

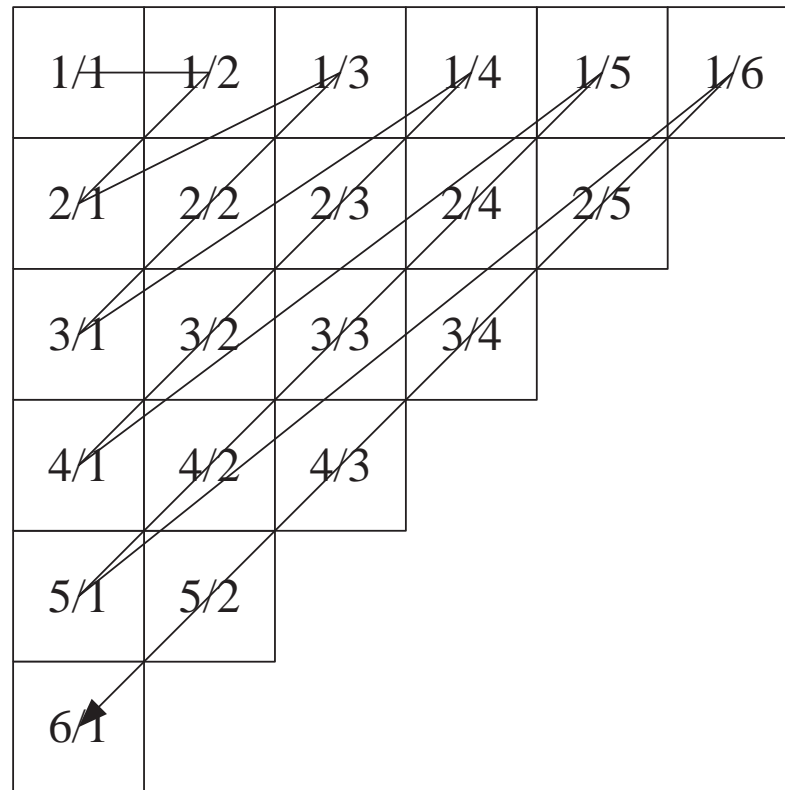
Undecidability

It seemed unworthy of a grown man
to spend his time on such trivialities,
but what was I to do?
— Bertrand Russell (1872–1970),
Autobiography, Vol. I

Infinite Sets

- A set is **countable** if it is finite or if it can be put in one-one correspondence with $\mathbb{N} = \{0, 1, \dots\}$, the set of natural numbers.
 - Set of integers \mathbb{Z} .
 - * $0 \leftrightarrow 0, 1 \leftrightarrow 1, 2 \leftrightarrow 3, 3 \leftrightarrow 5, \dots, -1 \leftrightarrow 2, -2 \leftrightarrow 4, -3 \leftrightarrow 6, \dots$
 - Set of positive integers \mathbb{Z}^+ : $i - 1 \leftrightarrow i$.
 - Set of odd integers: $(i - 1)/2 \leftrightarrow i$.
 - Set of rational numbers: See next page.
 - Set of squared integers: $i \leftrightarrow \sqrt{i}$.

Rational Numbers Are Countable



Cardinality

- For any set A , define $|A|$ as A 's **cardinality** (size).
- Two sets are said to have the same cardinality, or

$$|A| = |B| \quad \text{or} \quad A \sim B,$$

if there exists a one-to-one correspondence between their elements.

- 2^A denotes set A 's **power set**, that is $\{B : B \subseteq A\}$.
 - If $|A| = k$, then $|2^A| = 2^k$.
 - So $|A| < |2^A|$ when A is finite.

Cardinality (concluded)

- $|A| \leq |B|$ if there is a one-to-one correspondence between A and one of B 's subsets.
- $|A| < |B|$ if $|A| \leq |B|$ but $|A| \neq |B|$.
- If $A \subseteq B$, then $|A| \leq |B|$.
- But if $A \subsetneq B$, then $|A| < |B|$?

Cardinality and Infinite Sets

- If A and B are infinite sets, it is possible that $A \subsetneq B$ yet $|A| = |B|$.
 - The set of integers *properly* contains the set of odd integers.
 - But the set of integers has the same cardinality as the set of odd integers (p. 107).
- A lot of “paradoxes.”

Hilbert's^a Paradox of the Grand Hotel

- For a hotel with a finite number of rooms with all the rooms occupied, a new guest will be turned away.
- Now let us imagine a hotel with an infinite number of rooms, and all the rooms are occupied.
- A new guest comes and asks for a room.
- “But of course!” exclaims the proprietor, and he moves the person previously occupying Room 1 into Room 2, the person from Room 2 into Room 3, and so on
- The new customer occupies Room 1.

^aDavid Hilbert (1862–1943).

Hilbert's Paradox of the Grand Hotel (concluded)

- Let us imagine now a hotel with an infinite number of rooms, all taken up, and an infinite number of new guests who come in and ask for rooms.
- “Certainly, gentlemen,” says the proprietor, “just wait a minute.”
- He moves the occupant of Room 1 into Room 2, the occupant of Room 2 into Room 4, and so on.
- Now all odd-numbered rooms become free and the infinity of new guests can be accommodated in them.
- “There are many rooms in my Father’s house, and I am going to prepare a place for you.” (*John 14:3*)

David Hilbert (1862–1943)



Galileo's^a Paradox (1638)

- The squares of the positive integers can be placed in one-to-one correspondence with all the positive integers.
- This is contrary to the axiom of Euclid^b that the whole is greater than any of its proper parts.
- Resolution of paradoxes: Pick the notion that results in “better” mathematics.
- The difference between a mathematical paradox and a contradiction is often a matter of opinion.

^aGalileo (1564–1642).

^bEuclid (325 B.C.–265 B.C.).

Cantor's^a Theorem

Theorem 7 *The set of all subsets of \mathbb{N} ($2^{\mathbb{N}}$) is infinite and not countable.*

- Suppose it is countable with $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow 2^{\mathbb{N}}$ being a bijection.
- Consider the set $B = \{k \in \mathbb{N} : k \notin f(k)\} \subseteq \mathbb{N}$.
- Suppose $B = f(n)$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

^aGeorg Cantor (1845–1918). According to Kac and Ulam, “[If] one had to name a single person whose work has had the most decisive influence on the present spirit of mathematics, it would almost surely be Georg Cantor.”

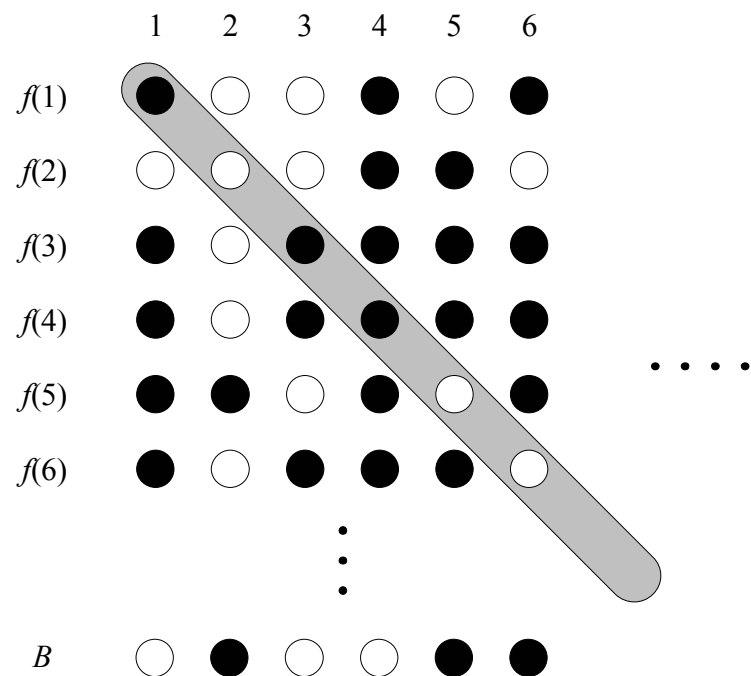
The Proof (concluded)

- If $n \in f(n) = B$, then $n \in B$, but then $n \notin B$ by B 's definition.
- If $n \notin f(n) = B$, then $n \notin B$, but then $n \in B$ by B 's definition.
- Hence $B \neq f(n)$ for any n .
- f is not a bijection, a contradiction.

Georg Cantor (1845–1918)



Cantor's Diagonalization Argument Illustrated



A Corollary of Cantor's Theorem

Corollary 8 *For any set T , finite or infinite,*

$$|T| < |2^T|.$$

- The inequality holds in the finite T case.
- Assume T is infinite now.
- To prove $|T| \leq |2^T|$, simply consider $f(x) = \{x\} \in 2^T$.
- To prove the strict inequality $|T| \not\leq |2^T|$, we use the same argument as Cantor's theorem.

A Second Corollary of Cantor's Theorem

Corollary 9 *The set of all functions on \mathbb{N} is not countable.*

- It suffices to prove it for functions from \mathbb{N} to $\{0, 1\}$.
- Every such function $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ determines a set

$$\{n : f(n) = 1\} \subseteq \mathbb{N}$$

and vice versa.

- So the set of functions from \mathbb{N} to $\{0, 1\}$ has cardinality $|2^{\mathbb{N}}|$.
- Corollary 8 (p. 120) then implies the claim.

Existence of Uncomputable Problems

- Every program is a finite sequence of 0s and 1s, thus a nonnegative integer.
- Hence every program corresponds to some integer.
- The set of programs is countable.
- A function is a mapping from integers to integers.
- The set of functions is not countable by Corollary 9 (p. 121).
- So there are functions for which no programs exist.

Universal Turing Machine^a

- A **universal Turing machine** U interprets the input as the *description* of a TM M concatenated with the *description* of an input to that machine, x .
 - Both M and x are over the alphabet of U .
- U simulates M on x so that

$$U(M; x) = M(x).$$

- U is like a modern computer, which executes any valid machine code, or a Java Virtual machine, which executes any valid bytecode.

^aTuring (1936).

The Halting Problem

- **Undecidable problems** are problems that have no algorithms or languages that are not recursive.
- We knew undecidable problems exist (p. 122).
- We now define a concrete undecidable problem, the **halting problem**:

$$H = \{M; x : M(x) \neq \nearrow\}.$$

- Does M halt on input x ?

H Is Recursively Enumerable

- Use the universal TM U to simulate M on x .
- When M is about to halt, U enters a “yes” state.
- If $M(x)$ diverges, so does U .
- This TM accepts H .
- Membership of x in any recursively enumerative language accepted by M can be answered by asking

$M; x \in H?$

H Is Not Recursive

- Suppose there is a TM M_H that *decides* H .
- Consider the program $D(M)$ that calls M_H :
 - 1: **if** $M_H(M; M) = \text{“yes”}$ **then**
 - 2: \nearrow ; {Writing an infinite loop is easy, right?}
 - 3: **else**
 - 4: “yes” ;
 - 5: **end if**
- Consider $D(D)$:
 - $D(D) = \nearrow \Rightarrow M_H(D; D) = \text{“yes”} \Rightarrow D; D \in H \Rightarrow D(D) \neq \nearrow$, a contradiction.
 - $D(D) = \text{“yes”} \Rightarrow M_H(D; D) = \text{“no”} \Rightarrow D; D \notin H \Rightarrow D(D) = \nearrow$, a contradiction.

Comments

- Two levels of interpretations of M :
 - A sequence of 0s and 1s (data).
 - An encoding of instructions (programs).
- There are no paradoxes.
 - Concepts should be familiar to computer scientists.
 - Feed a C compiler to a C compiler, a Lisp interpreter to a Lisp interpreter, etc.

Self-Loop Paradoxes

Cantor's Paradox (1899): Let T be the set of all sets.^a

- Then $2^T \subseteq T$ because 2^T is a set.
- But we know $|2^T| > |T|$ (p. 120)!
- We got a “contradiction.”
- So what gives?
- Are we willing to give up Cantor's theorem?
- If not, what is a set?

^aRecall this ontological argument for the existence of God by St Anselm (–1109) in the 11th century: If something is possible but is not part of God, then God is not the greatest possible object of thought, a contradiction.

Self-Loop Paradoxes (continued)

Russell's Paradox (1901): Consider $R = \{A : A \notin A\}$.

- If $R \in R$, then $R \notin R$ by definition.
- If $R \notin R$, then $R \in R$ also by definition.
- In either case, we have a “contradiction.”

Eubulides: The Cretan says, “All Cretans are liars.”

Liar's Paradox: “This sentence is false.”

Hypochondriac: a patient with imaginary symptoms and ailments.

Bertrand Russell (1872–1970)



Self-Loop Paradoxes (concluded)

Sharon Stone in *The Specialist* (1994): “I’m not a woman you can trust.”

Spin City: “I am not gay, but my boyfriend is.”

Numbers 12:3, Old Testament: “Moses was the most humble person in all the world [· · ·]” (attributed to Moses).

Self-Loop Paradoxes and Turing Machine?^a

- Can self-loop paradoxes happen to Turing machine?
- If so, will it shake the foundation of the theory of computation?
- If not, why?

^aContributed by a student at Vanung University on June 6, 2008.

Reductions in Proving Undecidability

- Suppose we are asked to prove L is undecidable.
- Language H is known to be undecidable.
- We try to find a computable transformation (called **reduction**) R such that^a

$$\forall x \{R(x) \in L \text{ if and only if } x \in H\}.$$

- We can answer “ $x \in H?$ ” for any x by asking “ $R(x) \in L?$ ” instead.
- This suffices to prove that L is undecidable.

^aContributed by Mr. Tai-Dai Chou (J93922005) on May 19, 2005.

More Undecidability

- $H^* = \{M : M \text{ halts on all inputs}\}$.
 - Given the question “ $M; x \in H?$ ” we construct the following machine:^a

$$M_x(y) : M(x).$$

- M_x halts on all inputs if and only if M halts on x .
- In other words, $M_x \in H^*$ if and only if $M; x \in H$.
- So if the said language were recursive, H would be recursive, a contradiction.

^aSimplified by Mr. Chih-Hung Hsieh (D95922003) on October 5, 2006.

More Undecidability (concluded)

- $\{M; x : \text{there is a } y \text{ such that } M(x) = y\}$.
- $\{M; x : \text{the computation } M \text{ on input } x \text{ uses all states of } M\}$.
- $\{M; x; y : M(x) = y\}$.

Complements of Recursive Languages

Lemma 10 *If L is recursive, then so is \bar{L} .*

- Let L be decided by M (which is deterministic).
- Swap the “yes” state and the “no” state of M .
- The new machine decides \bar{L} .

Recursive and Recursively Enumerable Languages

Lemma 11 *L is recursive if and only if both L and \bar{L} are recursively enumerable.*

- Suppose both L and \bar{L} are recursively enumerable, accepted by M and \bar{M} , respectively.
- Simulate M and \bar{M} in an *interleaved* fashion.
- If M accepts, then $x \in L$ and M' halts on state “yes.”
- If \bar{M} accepts, then $x \notin L$ and M' halts on state “no.”

A Very Useful Corollary and Its Consequences

Corollary 12 *L is recursively enumerable but not recursive, then \bar{L} is not recursively enumerable.*

- Suppose \bar{L} is recursively enumerable.
- Then both L and \bar{L} are recursively enumerable.
- By Lemma 11 (p. 137), L is recursive, a contradiction.

Corollary 13 *\bar{H} is not recursively enumerable.*

R, RE, and coRE

RE: The set of all recursively enumerable languages.

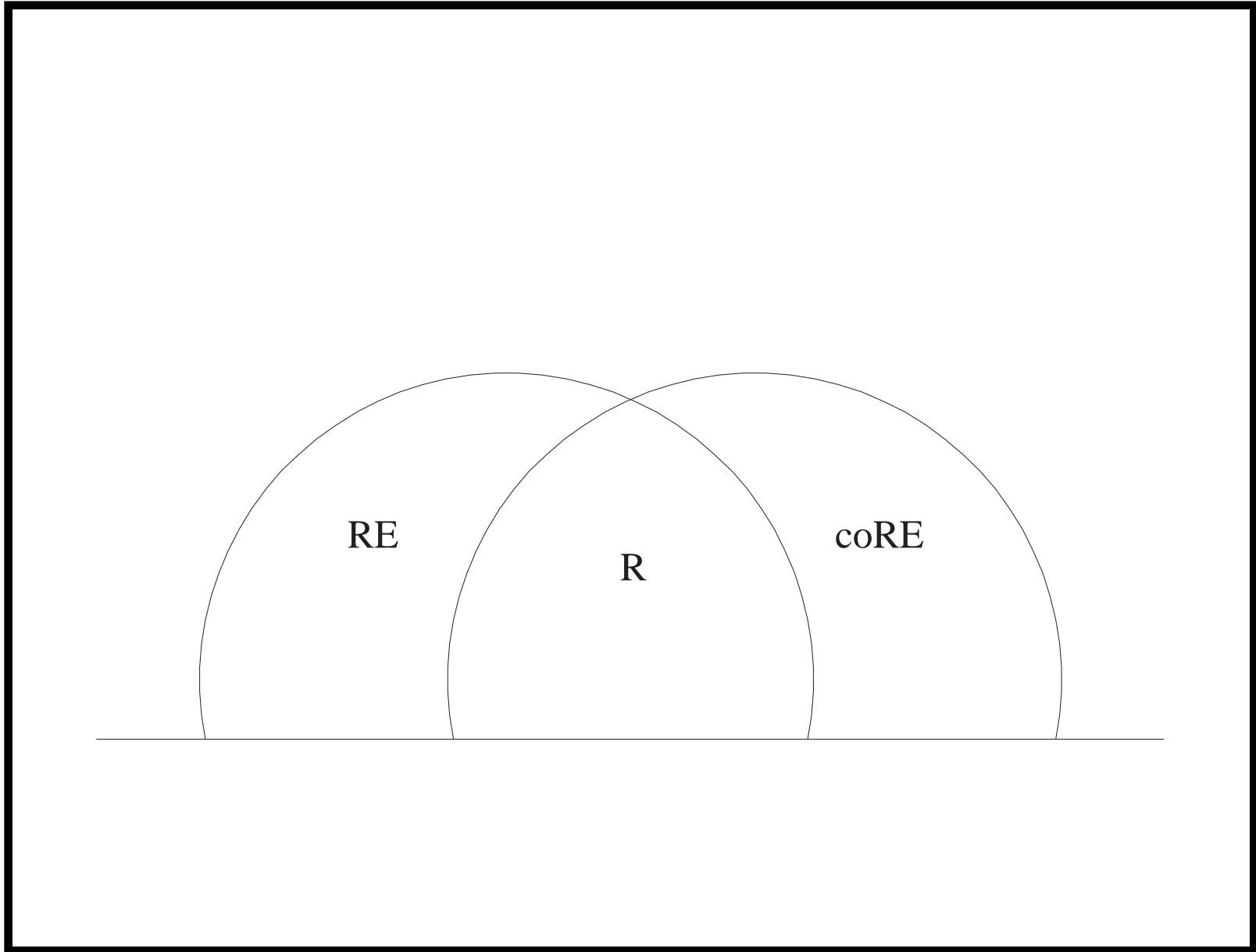
coRE: The set of all languages whose complements are recursively enumerable (note that coRE is not $\overline{\text{RE}}$).

- $\text{coRE} = \{ L : \overline{L} \in \text{RE} \}$.
- $\overline{\text{RE}} = \{ L : L \notin \text{RE} \}$.

R: The set of all recursive languages.

R, RE, and coRE (concluded)

- $R = RE \cap \text{coRE}$ (p. 137).
- There exist languages in RE but not in R and not in coRE.
 - Such as H (p. 125, p. 126, and p. 138).
- There are languages in coRE but not in RE.
 - Such as \bar{H} (p. 138).
- There are languages in neither RE nor coRE.



Undecidability in Logic and Mathematics

- First-order logic is undecidable.^a
- Natural numbers with addition and multiplication is undecidable.^b
- Rational numbers with addition and multiplication is undecidable.^c

^aChurch (1936).

^bRosser (1937).

^cRobinson (1948).

Undecidability in Logic and Mathematics (concluded)

- Natural numbers with addition and equality is decidable and complete.^a
- Elementary theory of groups is undecidable.^b

^aPresburger's Master's thesis (1928), his only work in logic. The direction was suggested by Tarski. Mojżesz Presburger (1904–1943) died in Nazi's concentration camp.

^bTarski (1949).

Julia Hall Bowman Robinson (1919–1985)



Boolean Logic

Boolean Logic^a

Boolean variables: x_1, x_2, \dots

Literals: $x_i, \neg x_i$.

Boolean connectives: \vee, \wedge, \neg .

Boolean expressions: Boolean variables, $\neg\phi$ (**negation**),
 $\phi_1 \vee \phi_2$ (**disjunction**), $\phi_1 \wedge \phi_2$ (**conjunction**).

- $\bigvee_{i=1}^n \phi_i$ stands for $\phi_1 \vee \phi_2 \vee \dots \vee \phi_n$.
- $\bigwedge_{i=1}^n \phi_i$ stands for $\phi_1 \wedge \phi_2 \wedge \dots \wedge \phi_n$.

Implications: $\phi_1 \Rightarrow \phi_2$ is a shorthand for $\neg\phi_1 \vee \phi_2$.

Biconditionals: $\phi_1 \Leftrightarrow \phi_2$ is a shorthand for
 $(\phi_1 \Rightarrow \phi_2) \wedge (\phi_2 \Rightarrow \phi_1)$.

^aGeorge Boole (1815–1864) in 1847.

Truth Assignments

- A **truth assignment** T is a mapping from boolean variables to **truth values** **true** and **false**.
- A truth assignment is **appropriate** to boolean expression ϕ if it defines the truth value for every variable in ϕ .
 - $\{x_1 = \mathbf{true}, x_2 = \mathbf{false}\}$ is appropriate to $x_1 \vee x_2$.

Satisfaction

- $T \models \phi$ means boolean expression ϕ is true under T ; in other words, T **satisfies** ϕ .
- ϕ_1 and ϕ_2 are **equivalent**, written

$$\phi_1 \equiv \phi_2,$$

if for any truth assignment T appropriate to both of them, $T \models \phi_1$ if and only if $T \models \phi_2$.

- Equivalently, for any truth assignment T appropriate to both of them, $T \models (\phi_1 \Leftrightarrow \phi_2)$.

Truth Tables

- Suppose ϕ has n boolean variables.
- A **truth table** contains 2^n rows, one for each possible truth assignment of the n variables together with the truth value of ϕ under that truth assignment.
- A truth table can be used to prove if two boolean expressions are equivalent.
 - Check if they give identical truth values under all 2^n truth assignments.

A Truth Table

p	q	$p \wedge q$
0	0	0
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	1

De Morgan's^a Laws

- De Morgan's laws say that

$$\neg(\phi_1 \wedge \phi_2) = \neg\phi_1 \vee \neg\phi_2,$$

$$\neg(\phi_1 \vee \phi_2) = \neg\phi_1 \wedge \neg\phi_2.$$

- Here is a proof for the first law:

ϕ_1	ϕ_2	$\neg(\phi_1 \wedge \phi_2)$	$\neg\phi_1 \vee \neg\phi_2$
0	0	1	1
0	1	1	1
1	0	1	1
1	1	0	0

^aAugustus DeMorgan (1806–1871).

Conjunctive Normal Forms

- A boolean expression ϕ is in **conjunctive normal form (CNF)** if

$$\phi = \bigwedge_{i=1}^n C_i,$$

where each **clause** C_i is the disjunction of zero or more literals.^a

- For example, $(x_1 \vee x_2) \wedge (x_1 \vee \neg x_2) \wedge (x_2 \vee x_3)$.
- Convention: An empty CNF is satisfiable, but a CNF containing an empty clause is not.

^aImproved by Mr. Aufbu Huang (R95922070) on October 5, 2006.

Disjunctive Normal Forms

- A boolean expression ϕ is in **disjunctive normal form (DNF)** if

$$\phi = \bigvee_{i=1}^n D_i,$$

where each **implicant** D_i is the conjunction of one or more literals.

- For example,

$$(x_1 \wedge x_2) \vee (x_1 \wedge \neg x_2) \vee (x_2 \wedge x_3).$$

Any Expression ϕ Can Be Converted into CNFs and DNFs

$\phi = x_j$: This is trivially true.

$\phi = \neg\phi_1$ and a **CNF** is sought: Turn ϕ_1 into a DNF and apply de Morgan's laws to make a CNF for ϕ .

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$\phi = \phi_1 \vee \phi_2$ and a **DNF** is sought: Make ϕ_1 and ϕ_2 DNFs.

$\phi = \phi_1 \vee \phi_2$ and a **CNF** is sought: Let $\phi_1 = \bigwedge_{i=1}^{n_1} A_i$ and $\phi_2 = \bigwedge_{j=1}^{n_2} B_j$ be CNFs. Set

$$\phi = \bigwedge_{i=1}^{n_1} \bigwedge_{j=1}^{n_2} (A_i \vee B_j).$$

Any Expression ϕ Can Be Converted into CNFs and DNFs
(concluded)

$\phi = \phi_1 \wedge \phi_2$ and a **CNF** is sought: Make ϕ_1 and ϕ_2 CNFs.

$\phi = \phi_1 \wedge \phi_2$ and a **DNF** is sought: Let $\phi_1 = \bigvee_{i=1}^{n_1} A_i$ and $\phi_2 = \bigvee_{j=1}^{n_2} B_j$ be DNFs. Set

$$\phi = \bigvee_{i=1}^{n_1} \bigvee_{j=1}^{n_2} (A_i \wedge B_j).$$

An Example: Turn $\neg((a \wedge y) \vee (z \vee w))$ into a DNF

$$\begin{aligned} & \neg((a \wedge y) \vee (z \vee w)) \\ \stackrel{\neg(\text{CNF} \vee \text{CNF})}{=} & \neg(((a) \wedge (y)) \vee (z \vee w)) \\ \stackrel{\neg(\text{CNF})}{=} & \neg((a \vee z \vee w) \wedge (y \vee z \vee w)) \\ \stackrel{\text{de Morgan}}{=} & \neg(a \vee z \vee w) \vee \neg(y \vee z \vee w) \\ = & (\neg a \wedge \neg z \wedge \neg w) \vee (\neg y \wedge \neg z \wedge \neg w). \end{aligned}$$