

Chapter 6 cont...

Turing Machines

Turing's Thesis

Turing's thesis:

Any computation carried out by mechanical means can be performed by a Turing Machine

(1930)

Computer Science Law:

A computation is mechanical
if and only if
it can be performed by a Turing Machine

There is no known model of computation
more powerful than Turing Machines

Algorithms are Turing Machines

When we say:

There exists an algorithm

We mean:

There exists a Turing Machine
that executes the algorithm

Undecidability

- RE languages are **accepted (recognized)** by TM's.
- RE languages may be grouped into two classes:
 - Class 1 (**recursive language**) --- each language L in this class has a TM (thought as an **algorithm**) which not only accepts strings of L , but also tells us what strings are not in L by **halting**.
 - Class 2 (**RE but not recursive**) --- each language L in this class has a TM (**not** thought as an algorithm) which accepts strings of L , but may **not halt** when a given input string is not in L .

- Formally, a language L is *recursive* if $L = L(M)$ for some TM M such that:
 - (1) If $w \in L$, then M **accepts** (and therefore **halts**).
 - (2) If $w \notin L$, then M **eventually halts**, although it *never* enters an accepting state (**i.e.**, **"reject"**) .
- A TM of this type corresponds to the formal notion of **algorithm**.

Church-Turing Thesis

- A Turing machine that halts on **all inputs** is the precise formal notion corresponding to the intuitive notion of an **algorithm**.
- An "algorithm" means a precisely defined set of instructions
- This thesis cannot be formally **proven**

Consequence of Church-Turing Thesis:

If a problem cannot be solved by a Turing machine then it cannot be solved by a human using a precisely defined sequence of instructions

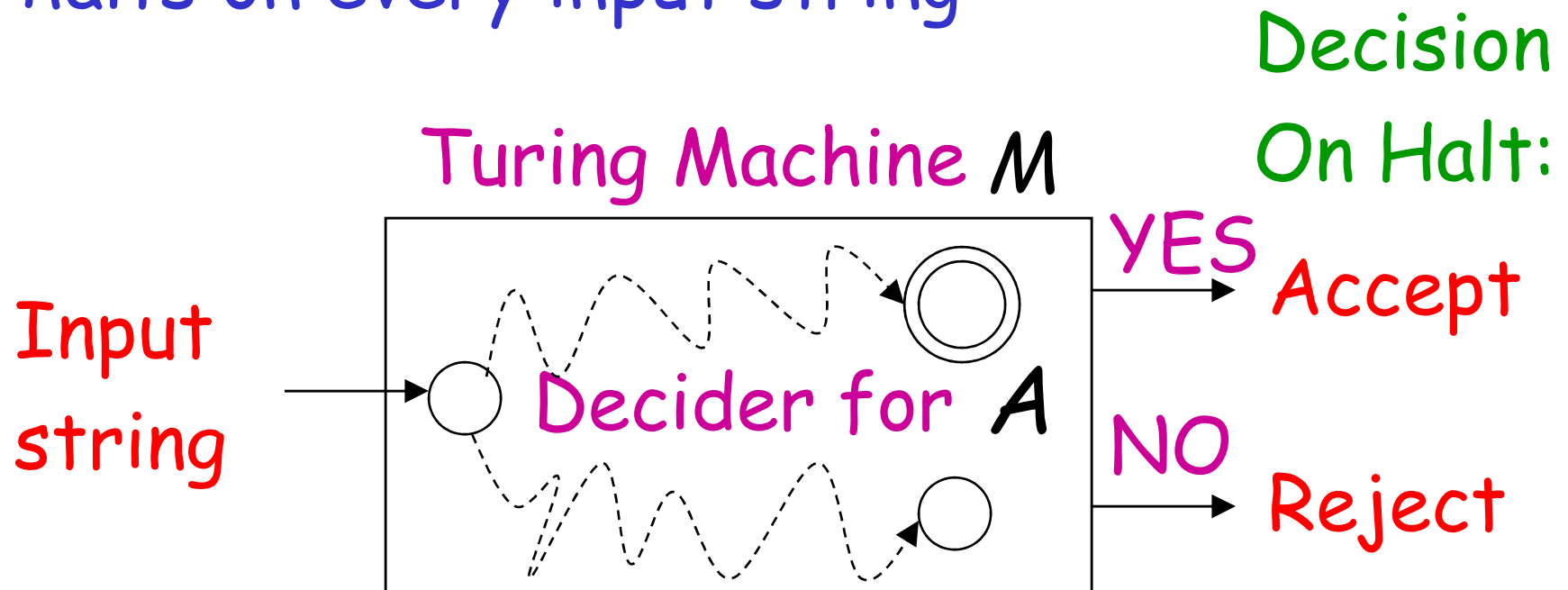
A given language L , regarded as a problem, is called *decidable* if L is a **recursive language**; and *undecidable* if not.

The existence or nonexistence of an algorithm to solve a problem (i.e., the problem is decidable or undecidable) is *more important* than the existence or nonexistence of a TM to solve the problem.

Decidable Languages

Recall that:

A language A is **decidable**,
if there is a Turing machine M (**decider**)
that accepts the language A and
halts on every input string



A computational problem is **decidable**
if the corresponding language is **decidable**

We also say that the problem is **solvable**

Undecidable Languages

undecidable language = not decidable language

There is no decider:

there is no Turing Machine
which accepts the language
and makes a decision (halts)
for every input string

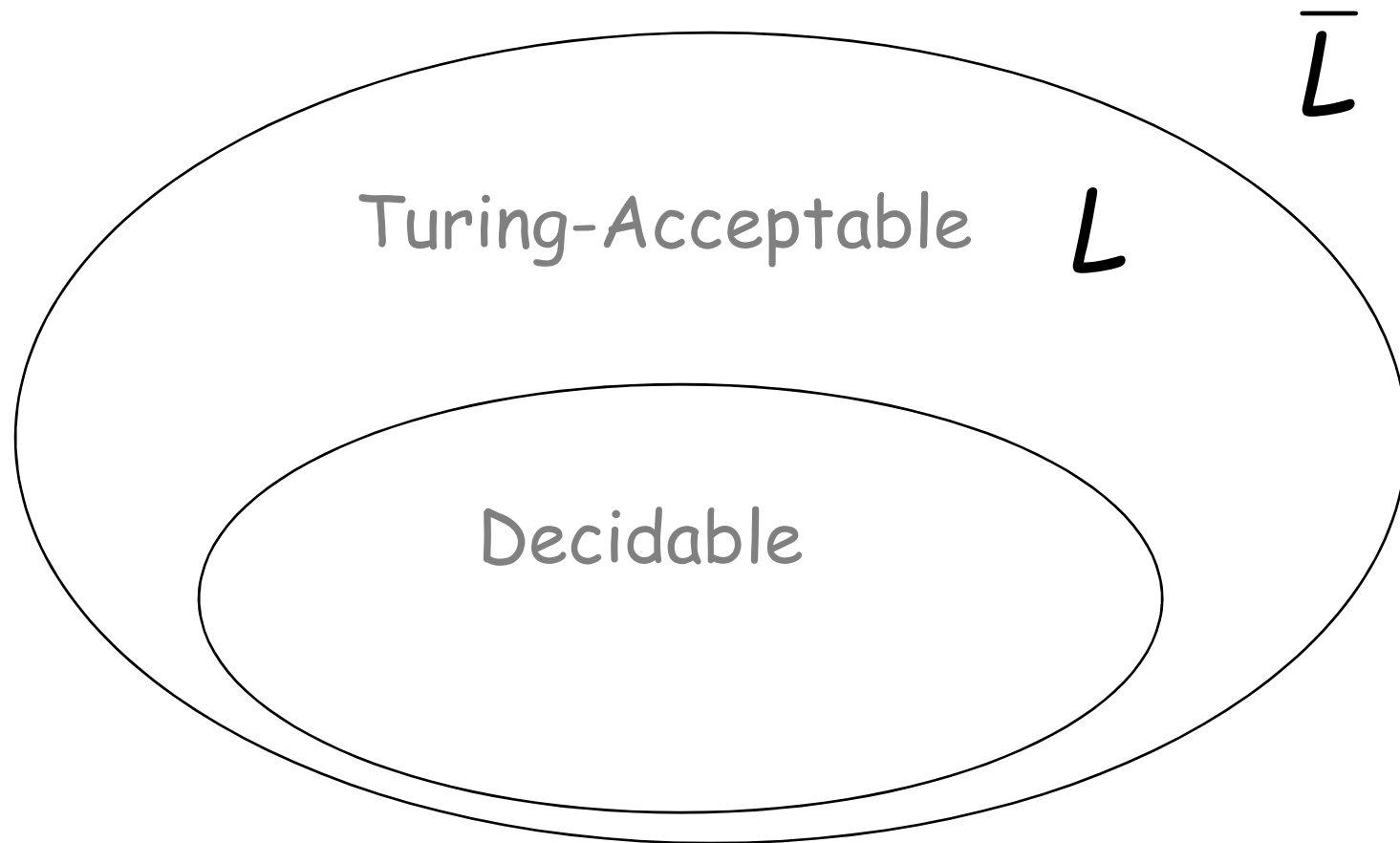
(machine may make decision for some input strings)

For an **undecidable** language, the corresponding problem is **undecidable (unsolvable)**:

There is no Turing Machine (Algorithm)
that gives an answer (**yes or no**)
for every input instance

(answer may be given for some input instances)

Remember that there are undecidable languages (i.e. also **undecidable problems**):



L is Turing-Acceptable and undecidable

We will prove that two particular problems are unsolvable:

Membership problem

Halting problem

Proofs of *Decidability*

How can you prove a language is *decidable*?

What Decidable Means

A language L is **decidable** if there exists a TM M such that for all strings w :

- If $w \in L$, M enters q_{Accept} .
- If $w \notin L$, M enters q_{Reject} .

To prove a language is decidable, we can show how to construct a TM that decides it.

For a correct proof, need a convincing argument that the TM always eventually accepts or rejects any input.

Proofs of Undecidability

To prove a language is *undecidable*, need to show there is **no** Turing Machine that can decide the language.

This is hard: requires reasoning about *all* possible TMs.

Reducibility

Reducibility

- Method for proving that problems are computationally unsolvable.
- A reduction is a way of converting one problem to another problem in such a way that a solution to the second problem can be used to solve the first problem.

Reduction

Let's say we want to solve problem of class A and we know how to solve problems of class B

- If for **every** problem of class A , we can find a way to convert it **some** problem of class B , ...

then, we can solve all problems of class A using our method for solving problems of class B .

- We can also talk about how much effort is needed to **transform** the problem. For most of what we are interested in here, it is enough that the transformation can be **computed** by a Turing machine.

Proof by Reduction

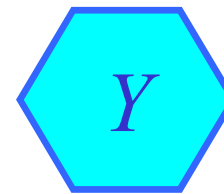


1. We know X does not exist.

(e.g., X = a TM that can decide A_{TM})

2. Assume Y exists.

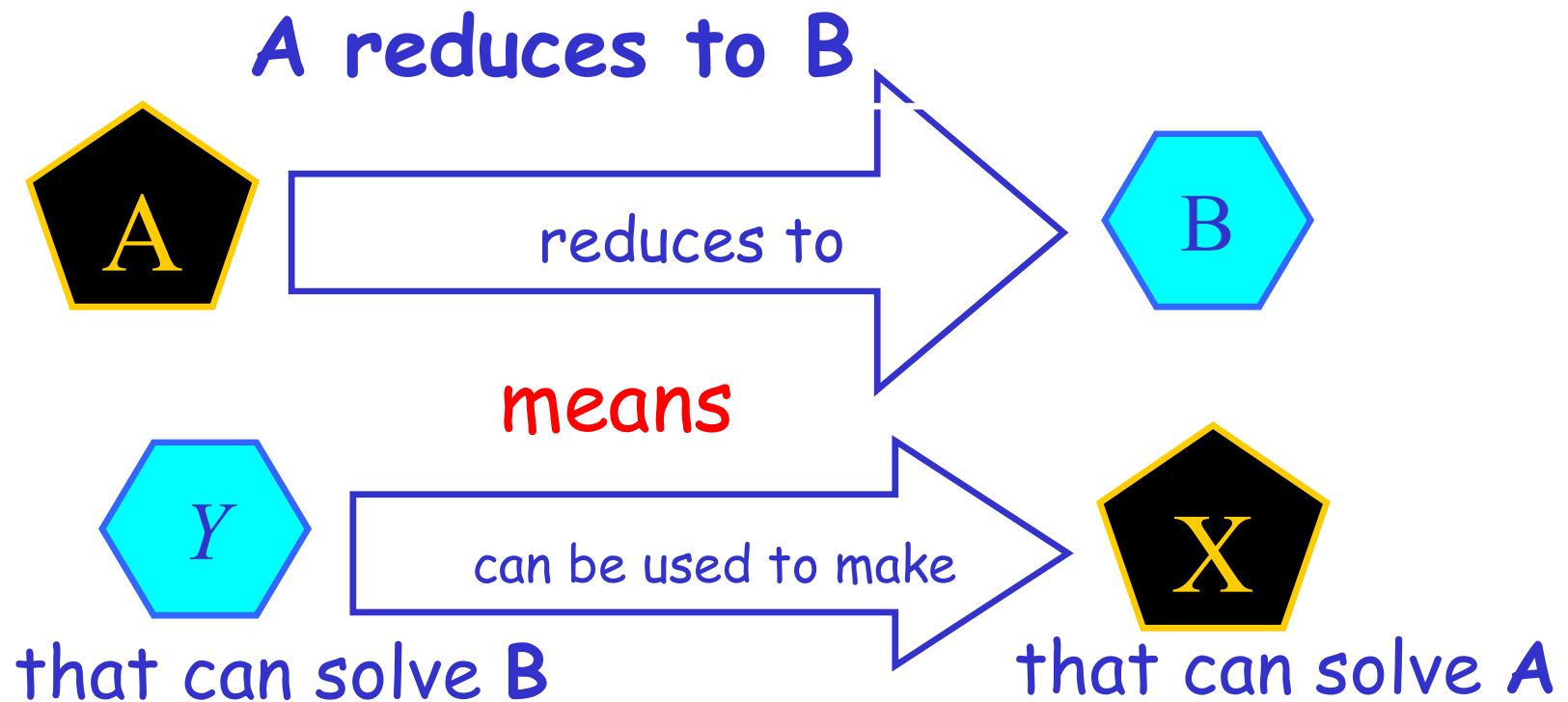
(e.g., Y = a TM that can decide B)



3. Show how to use Y to make X .

4. Since X does not exist, but Y could be used to make X , then Y must not exist.

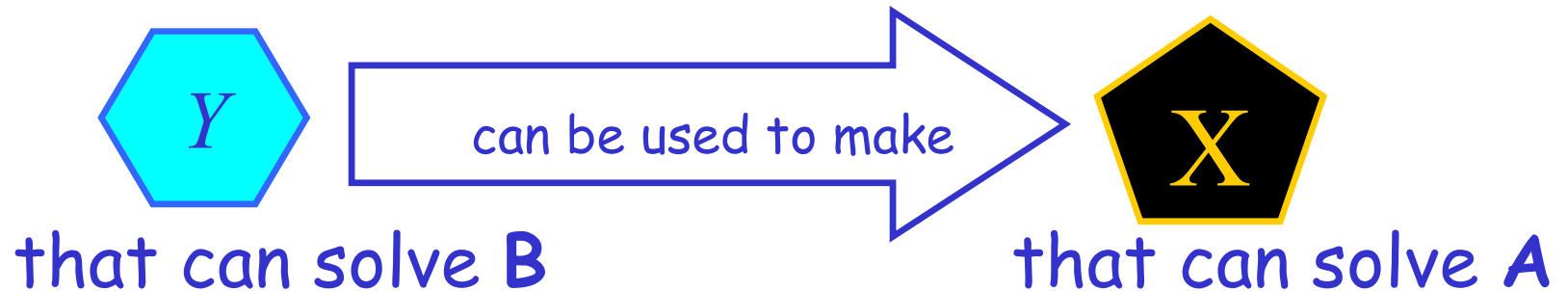
Reduction Proofs



Hence, **A is not a harder problem than B.**

Converse?

A reduces to B



A is not a harder problem than B.

Does this mean B is as hard as A?

No! Y can be **any** solver for B. X is **one** solver for A. There might be easier solvers for A.

Generally...

- Reducibility plays an important role in classifying problems by **decidability**, and later in **complexity theory** as well.
- When A is reducible to B , solving A cannot be harder than solving B because a solution to B gives a solution to A .
- In terms of computability theory, if A is reducible to B and B is decidable, A also is decidable. Equivalently, *if A is undecidable and reducible to B , B is undecidable.*
- This last version is key to proving that various problems are undecidable.