## Info about homepage & tutorials

- For slides, handouts, typo corrections, and other information, see http://www.cs.bath.ac.uk/~cf/teaching
- You can give the tutors your solutions of the exercises and ask for feedback.

# Enumerability & diagonalization

### **Cantor's Zig-Zag**

### Pairs of integers: Cantor's Zig-Zag.

(2,1) (2,2) (2,3) (2,4) (2,5)

(3,1) (3,2) (3,3) (3,4) (3,5)

(4,1) (4,2) (4,3) (4,4) (4,5)(5,1) (5,2) (5,3) (5,4) (5,5)

 $f(1) = (1,1), f(2) = (1,2), f(3) = (2,1), f(4) = (1,3), f(5) = (2,2), \dots$ 

Show the following statements.

- 1. Every finite set is enumerable.
- 2. If a **non-empty** set *A* is enumerable, then it is enumerable by a **total** function. Why does this not work for the empty set?

#### **Code numbers**

**Definition.** Given an enumeration f of a set A, a **code numbers** of an element a of A is a number n such that f(n) = a. **Examples:** 

- The code number of (1,3) with respect to Cantor's Zig-Zag is 4.
- For the enumeration 2, 2, 4, 4, 6, 6, ... of the even numbers, the code numbers of 4 are 2 and 3.

### Encodings

**Definition.** An **encoding** of a set *A* is a total injective function  $c : A \rightarrow N$  into the natural numbers. For *a* in *A*, the number c(a) is called the **code** of *a*.

**Proposition.** A set *A* has an encoding if and only if it is enumerable.

The proof of this proposition follows on the next two slides.

## From encoding to enumeration

Let  $c : A \to N$  be an encoding. Then an enumeration  $f : N \to A$  is given by

$$f(n) = \begin{cases} a & \text{if } n = c(a) \\ \text{undefined otherwise} \end{cases}$$

f is well-defined (i.e. there is only one a for every n) because c is injective.

### From enumeration to encoding

Let  $f: N \to A$  be an enumeration. An encoding  $c: A \to N$  is given by

c(a) = some *n* such that f(n) is equal to *a*.

Because we need the function c to be an encoding, it must be total and injective. It is total because f is surjective. It is injective because f cannot send some n to two different values a and a'.

#### "Enumerable" vs. "equinumerous"

**Proposition.** Every enumerable set A is either finite or equinumerous with N.

**Proof.** Let *A* be a set which is enumerable but not finite. Let  $c : A \to N$  be an encoding of *A*. We define a bijection  $b : N \to A$  by

b(1) = the element of A with the smallest code b(2) = the element of A with the 2nd smallest code b(3) = the element of A with the 3rd smallest code

#### "Enumerable" vs. "equinumerous"

**Proposition.** A set A is enumerable if and only if it is finite or equinumerous with N.

**Proof.** The left-to-right direction is the result on the previous slide. For the right-to-left direction, suppose first that *A* is equinumerous with *N*. Then there is a bijection  $b : N \to A$ . In particular, *A* is the range of *b*, so *A* is enumerable. Second, suppose that *A* is finite. Then by an earlier

## Encoding pairs of integers

As we have seen, Cantor's Zig-Zag provides an encoding of pairs of natural numbers.

Here is an alternative encoding:

$$c_{N \times N}(m,n) = p^m \cdot q^n$$

where *p* and *q* are different primes. The total function  $c_{N \times N}$  is injective owing to the **uniqueness of prime decomposition**.

## Encoding other kinds of pairs

**Proposition.** If *A* and *B* are enumerable sets, then so is the set  $A \times B$  of pairs.

**Proof.** Let  $c_A : A \to N$  and  $c_B : B \to N$  be encodings of A and B. An encoding  $c_{A \times B} : A \times B \to N$  is given by

$$c_{A\times B}(a,b) = c_{N\times N}(c_A(a),c_B(b)),$$

where  $c_{N \times N}$  is some encoding of pairs of integers. ( $c_{A \times B}$  is injective because  $c_A$ ,  $c_B$ , and  $c_{N \times N}$  are.)

Show the following statements:

1. If *A*, *B*, and *C* are enumerable sets, then the set of triples

$$A \times B \times C = \{(a, b, c) : a \in A, b \in B, c \in C\}$$

#### is enumerable.

2. If  $A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_k$  are enumerable sets, then the set of k-tuples  $A_1 \times A_2 \times \cdots \times A_k$  is enumerable.

Show the following statements:

- 1. If A is enumerable and there is a surjective function  $A \rightarrow B$ , then B is enumerable.
- 2. If *B* is enumerable and there is a total injective function  $A \rightarrow B$ , then *A* is enumerable.

Remark: these two statements are useful for some of the following exercises.

Show that the following sets are enumerable:

- 1. The set  $Q^+$  of positive rational numbers.
- 2. The set Q of all rational numbers.
- **3.** The set  $A \cup B$  for enumerable sets A and B.
- 4. The set  $A^*$  of strings over an enumerable alphabet A.

Show that the following statements:

- 1. The set  $P_{fin}(N)$  of **finite subsets** of *N* is enumerable.
- 2. The set  $P_{fin}(A)$  of finite subsets of an arbitrary enumerable set A is enumerable.

### The limits of enumerability

- So far, we have seen various examples of enumerable sets.
- Next, we shall see counterexamples.
- This is important, because only enumerable sets can be used in computations.

### The set of sets of natural numbers

**Theorem.**[Cantor's Theorem] The set P(N) (powerset of the natural numbers) is not enumerable.

## Cantor's diagonal argument

The "diagonal argument" is Cantor's celebrated proof of his theorem. Here is the idea:

The proof proceeds **by contradiction**—that is, we assume that P(N) is enumerable and show that this leads to a contradiction.

So suppose that P(N) is enumerable. Then it has an enumeration  $s : N \to P(N)$ . To obtain the contradiction, we define a set  $\Delta(s)$  of natural numbers which cannot be in the range of s.

## Cantor's diagonal argument

The set  $\Delta(s)$  is defined as follows: for each pos. integer n,  $n \in \Delta(s)$  if and only if  $n \notin s(n)$ (Note the similarity wit Russell's Paradox!) To show that  $\Delta(s)$  is not in the range of s, we use again a proof by contradiction. So suppose that  $\Delta(s)$  is in the range of s, that is,  $\Delta(s) = s(m)$  for some m. Then

 $m \in \Delta(s)$  if and only if  $m \in s(m)$ 

But this is a contradiction to the definition of  $\Delta$ . q.e.d.

### Idea behind the diagonal argument

Think of the set s(i) of natural numbers as a function  $s_i: N \to \{0, 1\}$  such that

$$s_i(n) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n \in s(i) \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

( $s_i$  is called the **characteristic function** of the set s(i).)

### Idea behind the diagonal argument

For example, if  $s_i$  is like in the table below

it represents the set of even numbers.

### Idea behind the diagonal argument

n	1	2	3	4	5	• • •
$s_1(n)$		0	0	1	0	•••
$s_2(n)$ $s_3(n)$	0		0	1	0	
$s_3(n)$	1	0		1	0	
$s_4(n)$	1	0	0		1	
$s_5(n)$	0	0	1	1		
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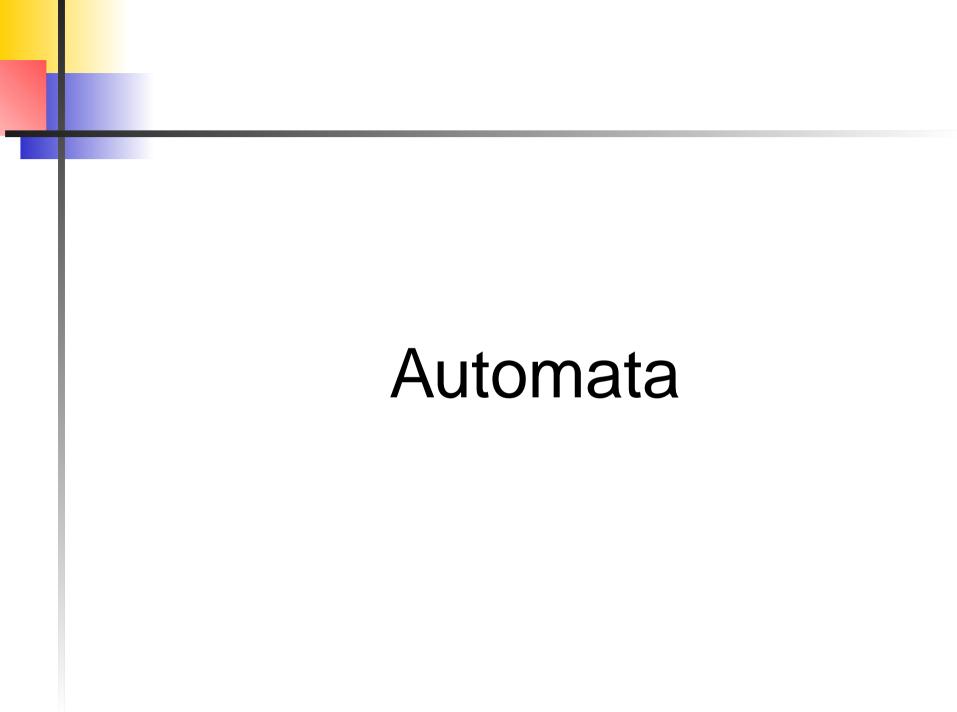
## Non-enumerability of functions $N \rightarrow N$

A similar argument shows that the functions from natural numbers to natural numbers are not enumerable:

## Non-enumerability of functions $N \rightarrow N$

Show the following statements:

- 1. The set P(A) of all subsets of an infinite enumerable set is non-enumerable.
- 2. Suppose that we have a programming language, such that every program describes a function  $N \rightarrow N$ . Show that there must be functions  $N \rightarrow N$  that are described by no program.



### Automata in computer science

In computer science:

automaton = abstract computing "machine"

### Automata in this lecture

- Turing machines (1937) and abacus machines (1960s): have all capabilities of today's computers. Used to study the boundary between computable and uncomputable.
- Finite automata (also called finite state machines, emerged during the 1940's and 1950's): useful e.g. text search, protocol verification, compilers, descriptions of certain formal grammars (N. Chomsky, 1950's).

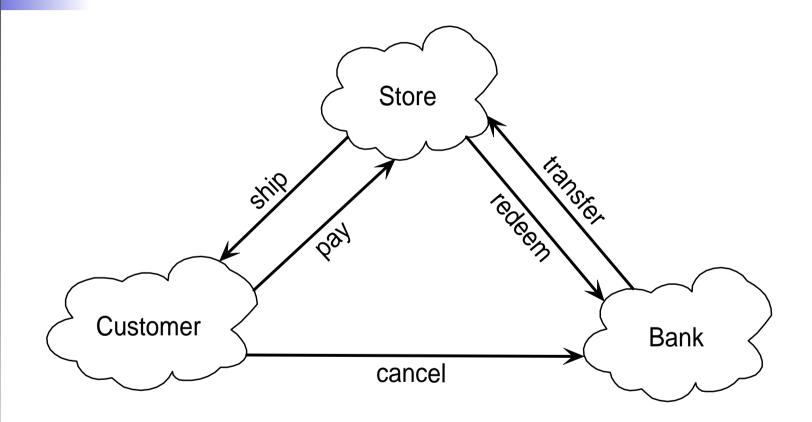
#### Finite automata

We shall study finite automata first, because they can be seen as a first step towards Turing machines and abacus machines.

### Uses of finite automata

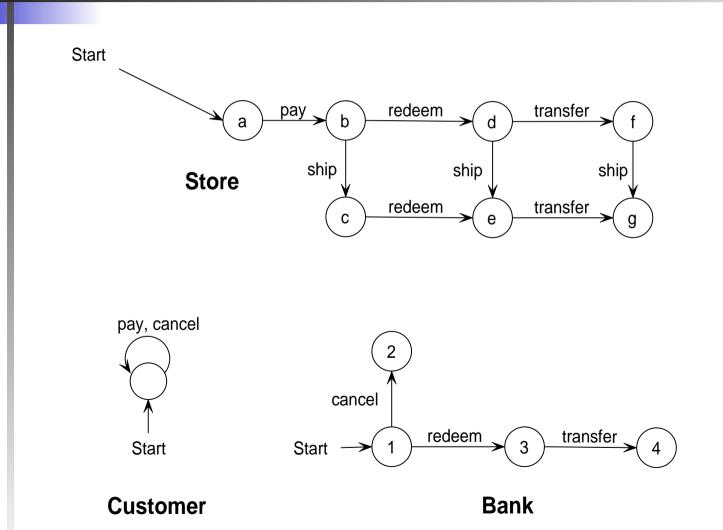
- Used in software for verifying all kinds of systems with a finite number of states, such as communication protocols
- Used in software for scanning text, to find certain patterns
- Used in "Lexical analyzers" of compilers (to turn program text into "tokens", e.g. identifiers, keywords, brackets, punctuation)
- Part of Turing machines and abacus machines

## Example: comm. protocol



Customer, Store, and Bank will be finite automata.

#### **Communication** protocol



## Simulating the whole system

- Idea: running Customer, Store, and Bank "in parallel".
- Initially, each automaton is in its start position.
- The system can move on for every action that is possible in each of the three automata.

## The missing irrelevant actions

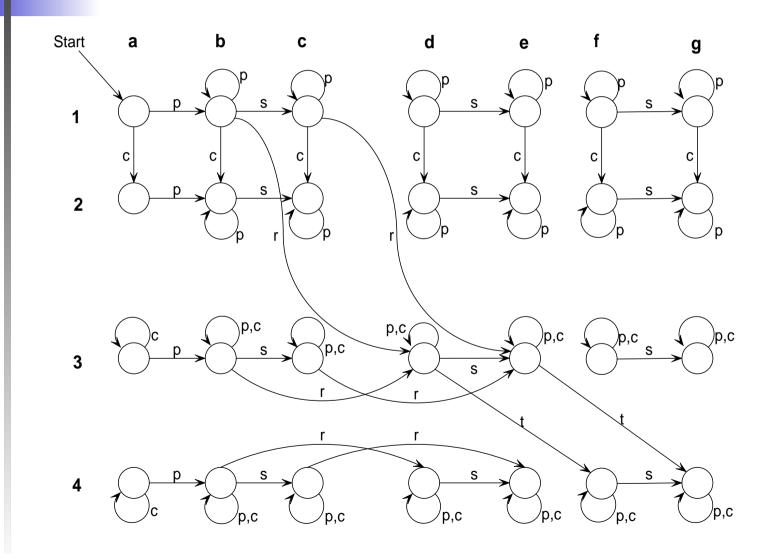
- Problem: Bank gets stuck during the pay action, although paying is only between Customer and Store.
- Solution: we need to add a loop labeled "pay" to state 1 of Bank.
- More generally, we need loops for all such irrelevant actions.
- But illegal actions should remain impossible. E.g. Bank should not allow "redeem" after "cancel".

## Adding irrelevant actions

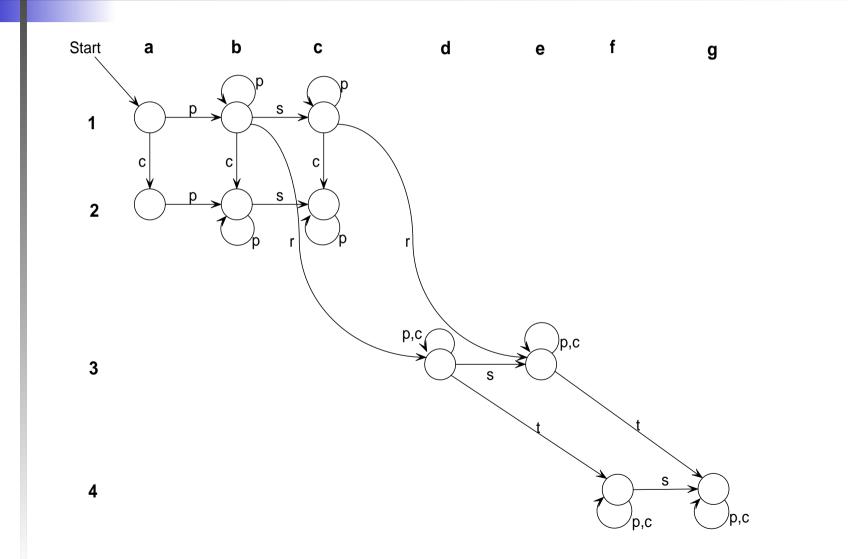
## Simulating the whole system

- Simulation by **product automaton**.
- Its states are pairs (StoreState, BankState), e.g. (a,1) or (c,3). (Because Customer has only one state and allows every action, it can be neglected.)
- It has a transition  $(StoreState, BankState) \xrightarrow{action} (StoreState', BankState')$ whenever Store has a transition  $StoreState \xrightarrow{action} StoreState'$  and Bank has a transition  $BankState \xrightarrow{action} BankState'$ .

#### **Product automaton**



### Without unreachable states



### Usefulness for protocol verification

- We can now answer all kinds of interesting questions, e.g. "Can it happen that Store ships the product and never receives the money transfer?"
- Yes! If Customer has indicated to pay, but sent a cancellation message to the Bank, we are in state (b,2). If Store ships then, we make a transition into (c,2), and the Store will never receive a money transfer!
- So store should never ship before redeeming.