# Uncountability CSE 311 Winter 24 Lecture 25

#### Announcements

There will be a review session over the weekend!

Final review materials are on the webpage.

Multiple old exams

Also answers to questions like "what types of problems are likely to show up."

# Final Logistics

You'll get an email from us tonight with a form to request lefty-desk or righty-desk for the final. Please fill that out Thursday.

We'll be assigning seats in the room based on that information.

We'll be in this room.

Please only bring a bag you can fit under your chair. TAs need to walk around to answer questions, and these rows are tight.

Please bring a photo-ID (husky card or other ID)

#### Full outline

- 1. Suppose for the sake of contradiction that L is regular. Then there is some DFA M that recognizes L.
- 2. Let S be [fill in with an infinite set of prefixes].
- 3. Because the DFA is finite and S is infinite, there are two (different) strings x, y in S such that x and y go to the same state when read by M [you don't get to control x, y other than having them not equal and in S]
- 4. Consider the string z [argue exactly one of xz, yz will be in L]
- 5. Since x, y both end up in the same state, and we appended the same z, both xz and yz end up in the same state of M. Since  $xz \in L$  and  $yz \notin L$ , M does not recognize L. But that's a contradiction!
- 6. So L must be an irregular language.

# **Practical Tips**

When you're choosing the set S, think about what the DFA would "have to count"

That is fundamentally why a language is irregular. The set S is the way we prove it! Whatever we "need to remember" it's different for every element of S.

If your strings have an "obvious middle" (like between the 0's and 1's) that's a good place to start.

# Let's Try another

The set of strings with balanced parentheses is not regular.

What do you want S to be? What would you have to count?

The number of unclosed parentheses.

Let 
$$S = \dots$$

# Let's Try another

The set of strings with balanced parentheses is not regular.

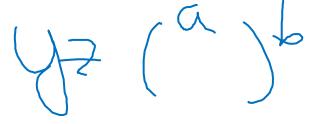
What do you want S to be? What would you have to count?

The number of unclosed parentheses.

Want S to be a set with infinitely many strings with different numbers of unclosed parentheses.

Let 
$$S = (^*$$

# Outline for $(*\times^2 - (^*)^*$



- 1. Suppose for the sake of contradiction that L is regular. Then there is some DFA M that recognizes L.
- 2. Let *S* be (\*
- 3. Because the DFA is finite and S is infinite, there are two (different) strings x, y in S such that x and y go to the same state when read by M Observe that  $x = (a \text{ for some integer } a, y = (b \text{ for some integer } b \text{ with } a \neq b.$
- 4. Consider the string z [argue exactly one of xz, yz will be in L]
- 5. Since x, y both end up in the same state, and we appended the same z, both xz and yz end up in the same state of M. Since  $xz \in L$  and  $yz \notin L$ , M does not recognize L. But that's a contradiction!
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## Full outline

- 1. Suppose for the sake of contradiction that L is regular. Then there is some DFA M that recognizes L.
- 2. Let *S* be (\*
- 3. Because the DFA is finite and S is infinite, there are two (different) strings x, y in S such that x and y go to the same state when read by M Observe that x = (a for some integer a, y = (b for some integer b) with  $a \neq b$ .
- 4. Consider the string  $z=)^a xz$  is a balanced set of parentheses (since there are the same number of each and all the open-parentheses come before the close parentheses). But yz is not balanced because  $a \neq b$ .
- 5. Since x, y both end up in the same state, and we appended the same z, both xz and yz end up in the same state of M. Since  $xz \in L$  and  $yz \notin L$ , M does not recognize L. But that's a contradiction!
- 6. So L must be an irregular language.

# Punchline for Today's Lecture

There are more functions than there are computer programs.

So for some functions there just isn't a computer program that computes it.

#### Outline

Some definitions – what do we mean by "more"?

How many programs are there?

Proving there are more functions.

# Sizes of sets

How do we know two sets are the same size?

Easy. Count the number of elements in both.

That works great for finite sets, but ∞ isn't really a number we get to count to...

#### More Practical

What does it mean that two sets have the same size?



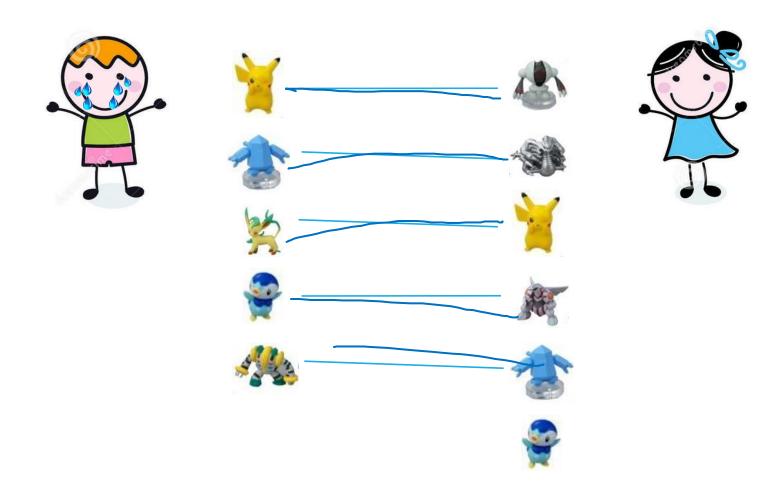






#### More Practical

What does it mean that two sets have the same size?



# Two Requirements for a Bijection

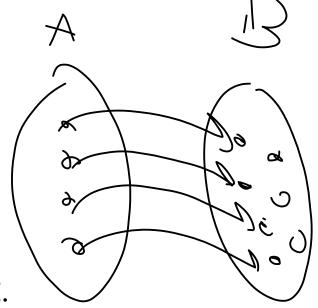
A function  $f: A \to B$  maps every element of A to one element of B

A is the "domain", B is the "co-domain"

#### One-to-one (aka injection)

A function f is one-to-one iff  $\forall a \forall b (f(a) = f(b) \rightarrow a = b)$ 

That is, every output has at most one possible input.



# Two Requirements for a Bijection

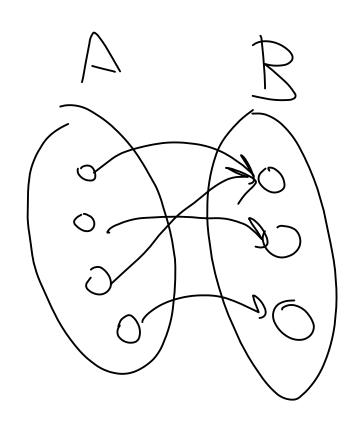
A function  $f: A \to B$  maps every element of A to one element of B

A is the "domain", B is the "co-domain"

#### Onto (aka surjection)

A function  $f: A \rightarrow B$  is onto iff  $\forall b \in B \exists a \in A(b = f(a))$ 

Every output has at least one input that maps to it.



# Bijection

#### One-to-one (aka injection)

A function f is one-to-one iff  $\forall a \forall b (f(a) = f(b) \rightarrow a = b)$ 

#### Onto (aka surjection)

A function  $f: A \rightarrow B$  is onto iff  $\forall b \in B \exists a \in A(b = f(a))$ 

#### Bijection

A function  $f: A \rightarrow B$  is a bijection iff f is one-to-one and onto

A bijection maps every element of the domain to **exactly** one element of the co-domain, and every element of the domain to **exactly** one element of the domain.

#### Definition

Two sets A, B have the same size (same cardinality) if and only if there is a bijection  $f: A \rightarrow B$ 

This matches our intuition on finite sets.

But it also works for infinite sets!

Let's see just how infinite these sets are.

#### Some infinite sets

Two sets A, B have the same size (same cardinality) if and only if there is a bijection  $f: A \rightarrow B$ 

Let's compare the sizes of  $\mathbb{N}[\mathbb{Z}, \{x : x \text{ is an even integer}\}$ 

12 - x - 1 12 - x - 1 13 - x - 1

Pollev.com/robbie

# They're all the same size. Z and even integers?

$$f(x) = 2x$$
 Is it a bijection?

$$f(x) = f(y) \rightarrow 2x = 2y \rightarrow x = y;$$

If z is even then z = 2k for some integer k and f(k) = z.

 $\mathbb{N}$  and  $\mathbb{Z}$ 

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{x}{2} & \text{if } x \text{ is even} \\ -\frac{x+1}{2} & \text{if } x \text{ is odd} \end{cases}$$

# They're all the same size...

N and even integers?

g(f(x)) will work nicely. You can also build one explicitly.

Good exercise: show that if f and g are bijections then  $f \circ g$  is also a bijection.

#### Countable

#### Countable

The set A is countable iff there is an injection from A to  $\mathbb{N}$ , Equivalently, A is countable iff it is finite or there is a bijection from A to  $\mathbb{N}$ 

 $\mathbb{N}$ ,  $\mathbb{Z}$ ,  $\{x: x \text{ is an even integer}\}$  are all countable.

To build a bijection from A to  $\mathbb{N}$ , just list all the elements!

# Let's Try one that's a little harder

What about Q. There's gotta be more of those right?

It's pretty intuitive to think there are more rationals than integers.

The rationals are dense.

Between every two rationals, there's another rational number.

Or said in more intimidating fashion: between every two rationals there are infinitely many others!

# The set of positive rational numbers

```
1/1 1/2 1/3 1/4 1/5 1/6 1/7 1/8 ...
2/1 2/2 2/3 2/4 2/5 2/6 2/7 2/8 ...
3/1 3/2 3/3 3/4 3/5 3/6 3/7 3/8 ...
4/1 4/2 4/3 4/4 4/5 4/6 4/7 4/8 ...
5/1 5/2 5/3 5/4 5/5 5/6 5/7 ...
6/1 6/2 6/3 6/4 6/5 6/6 ...
7/1 7/2 7/3 7/4 7/5 ....
```

# In bijection with the natural numbers

Order the rationals by their denominator (increasing), breaking ties by numerator.

1/1, 1/2, 1/3,2/3,1/4,3/4,1/5,2/5,3/5,4/5,1/6, ...

f(x) =the  $x^{\text{th}}$  number in that list (indexed from 0)

That's a bijection from  $\mathbb{N}$  to  $\mathbb{Q}^+$ (it's not a nice clean formula, but it's definitely a function)

# In Bijection with the natural numbers

How do we get all of Q?

We already know how to "get twice as many" – map the even naturals to positives, and the odds to negatives. Like when we were mapping  $\mathbb{N}$  to  $\mathbb{Z}$ .

#### Fun fact:

The "order via diagonals" technique is closely related to "dovetailing" a super-useful technique in computability theory (take 431 to learn more)

# Uncountable

Alright. There are clever ways to build bijections. Is there anything that's bigger than  $\mathbb{N}$ ?

And...like...how would we prove it?

# A proof idea

A set is countable iff it can be listed (a list is a bijection with  $\mathbb{N}$ ).

We'll take advantage of that to find an uncountable set.

Claim R is uncountable.

Actually, it's easier if we show [0,1) is uncountable (i.e. real numbers between 0 and 1).

## What do real numbers look like

- 0. 3 3 3 3 3 3 3...
- 0. 2 7 2 7 2 8 5 4...
- 0. 1 4 1 5 9 2 6 5...
- 0. 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2...
- 0. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8...
- 0. 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2...
- 0. 8 2 7 6 4 5 7 4...
- 0. 5 9 4 2 7 5 1 7...

A string of digits!

Well not a "string" An infinitely long sequence of digits is more accurate.

## Uncountable

Suppose, for the sake of contradiction, that [0,1) is countable.

Then there is a bijection  $f: \mathbb{N} \to [0,1)$ .

Use that bijection to make the following table...

Number	Digits after decimal	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	•••
f(0)	0.	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	•••
<i>f</i> (1)	0.	2	7	2	7	2	8	5	4	•••
<i>f</i> (2)	0.	1	4	1	5	9	2	6	5	•••
<i>f</i> (3)	0.	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	•••
f(4)	0.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	•••
<i>f</i> (5)	0.	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	•••
<i>f</i> (6)	0.	8	2	7	6	4	5	7	4	•••
<i>f</i> (7)	0.	5	9	4	2	7	5	1	7	•••
•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	• • •	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••

Number	Digits after decimal	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7				
f(0)	0.	3	3	3	3	3	Goal: find a real number						
<i>f</i> (1)	0.	2	7	2	7	2	between 0 and 1 that isn't or our table.  (contradiction to bijection)						
<i>f</i> (2)	0.	1	4	1	5	9							
<i>f</i> (3)	0.	2	2	2	2	2							
f(4)	0.	1	2	3	4	5	0	/	ŏ	•••			
<i>f</i> (5)	0.	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	•••			
<i>f</i> (6)	0.	8	2	7	6	4	5	7	4	•••			
<i>f</i> (7)	0.	5	9	4	2	7	5	1	7	•••			
•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••			

Number	Digits after decimal	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7			
f(0)	0.	3	3	3	3	3	How do we find a number that's not in our list?					
<i>f</i> (1)	0.	2	7	2	7	2						
<i>f</i> (2)	0.	1	4	1	5	9	Well let's make sure whateve our number is, it's not $f(0)$					
<i>f</i> (3)	0.	2	2	2	2	2						
<i>f</i> (4)	0.	1	2	3	4	5	0	/	8	•••		
<i>f</i> (5)	0.	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	•••		
<i>f</i> (6)	0.	8	2	7	6	4	5	7	4	•••		
<i>f</i> (7)	0.	5	9	4	2	7	5	1	7	•••		
•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••		

Number	Digits after decimal	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7				
f(0)	0.	3	3	3	3	3	\\\ell	let's m	iake sur	e whateve			
<i>f</i> (1)	0.	2	7	2	7	2		Well let's make sure whateve our number is, it's not $f(0)$					
<i>f</i> (2)	0.	1	4	1	5	9							
f(3)	0.	2	2	2	2	2	Se	Set the 0 column to not 3,					
f(4)	0.	1	2	3	4	5	0	/	say7.	•••			
<i>f</i> (5)	0.	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	•••			
<i>f</i> (6)	0.	8	2	7	6	4	5	7	4				
f(7)	^	-		4	2	7	5	1	7	•••			
				•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••			

Number	Digits after decimal	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	•••
f(0)	0.	3	3	3	3	3	Wel.	l let's m	aka sura	e whateve
<i>f</i> (1)	0.	2	7	2	7	2				s not $f(1)$
<i>f</i> (2)	0.	1	4	1	5	9				
<i>f</i> (3)	0.	2	2	2	2	2	Se			to not 7,
f(4)	0.	1	2	3	4	5	0	/	say3.	•••
<i>f</i> (5)	0.	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	•••
<i>f</i> (6)	0.	8	2	7	6	4	5	7	4	
f(7)	0	F	0	4	2	7	5	1	7	•••
3					•••	•••		•••	•••	

Number	Digits after decimal	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	•••		
f(0)	0.	3	3	3	3	3	ا الم/٨/	atic mal	a cura v	whatava		
<i>f</i> (1)	0.	2	7	2	7	2	Well let's make sure whateve our number is, it's not $f(2)$					
<i>f</i> (2)	0.	1	4	1	5	9						
<i>f</i> (3)	0.	2	2	2	2	2	Set the 2 column to not 1,					
<i>f</i> (4)	0.	1	2	3	4	5	0	sa /	y7.	•••		
<i>f</i> (5)	0.	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	•••		
<i>f</i> (6)	0.	8	2	7	6	4	5	7	4			
f(7)	^	5	0	4	2	7	5	1	7	•••		
737				•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••		

#### Proof that [0,1) is not countable

Number	Digits after decimal	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	•••
f(0)	0.	3	3	3	3	3	Flinni	na Rule	· let's se	et the $i^{th}$
<i>f</i> (1)	0.	2	7	2	7	2	тпррп		mn to:	
<i>f</i> (2)	0.	1	4	1	5	9				is not 7
f(3)	0.	2	2	2	2	2	3 if <i>j</i>	$f(i)'s i^{t}$	th colun	nn is 7.
f(4)	0.	1	2	3	4	5	0	/	8	•••
<i>f</i> (5)	0.	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	•••
<i>f</i> (6)	0.	8	2	7	6	4	5	7	4	•••
f(7)	^	-		4	2	7	5	1	7	•••
37777	33			•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••

#### Wrapping Up

0.73777733...

What is it?

It's a real number between 0 and 1(!!!)

Is the number on the list? Well it's not f(0), they differ in column 0.

It's not f(1), they differ in column 1.

It's not f(i), they differ in column i.

But...f was a bijection. That's a contradiction!

### Diagonalization

This proof technique is called diagonalization

Often "Cantor's Diagonalization" (after Cantor, who developed it).

#### Takeaway 1

There are differing levels of infinity.

Some infinite sets are equal in size.

Other infinite sets are bigger than others.

If this is mind-bending you're in good company.

Cantor's contemporaries accused him of being a "scientific charlatan" and a "corruptor of youth"

But Cantor was right – and his ideas eventually were recognized as correct.

### Let's Do Another!

Let  $B = \{0,1\}$ . Call a function  $g: \mathbb{N} \to B$  a "binary valued function"

Intuitively, g would be something like public boolean g(BigInteger input){}

If we could write that g in Java.

How many possible  $g: \mathbb{N} \to B$  are there?

### Proof that <del>[0,1)</del> set of binary-valued functions is not countable

$f$ bijection from $\mathbb N$ to function	Output on 0	Output on 1	Output on 2	Output on 3	Output on 4	Output on 5	Output on 6	Output on 7	
<i>f</i> (0)	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	•••
<i>f</i> (1)	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	•••
<i>f</i> (2)	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	•••
<i>f</i> (3)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	•••
<i>f</i> (4)	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	•••
<i>f</i> (5)	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	•••
<i>f</i> (6)	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	•••
<i>f</i> (7)	0	2	0	1	1	0	1	0	•••
•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••

$f$ bijection from $\mathbb N$ to function	Output on 0	Output on 1	Output on 2	Output on 3	Output on 4	Output on 5	Output on 6	Output on 7	
f(0)	1	0	1	1					
f(1)	0	1	1	0	Goal				$\mathbb{N} \to \{0,1$
<i>f</i> (2)	1	1	1	0			isn't on idiction		
<i>f</i> (3)	0	0	0	0		(COTTO	MICCIOIT	to bijec	.(1011)
<i>f</i> (4)	1	0	1	1	1	U	1	1	•••
<i>f</i> (5)	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	
<i>f</i> (6)	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	
<i>f</i> (7)	0	2	0	1	1	0	1	0	•••
•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••

$f$ bijection from $\mathbb N$ to function		Output on 0	Output on 1	Output on 2	Output on 3	Output on 4	Output on 5	Output on 6	Output on 7	•••
f(0)		1	0	1	1	Hov	w do we	e find a	function	n not or
f(1)		0	1	1	0	\	l ( l	our li		C ( O ) ( ( l
<i>f</i> (2)		1	1	1	0	VVel			it's not ; e first ro	
<i>f</i> (3)		0	0	0	0				$y_{1}(0) = 0$	
f(4)		1	0	1	1	1	U	I	I	•••
<i>f</i> (5)		0	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	•••
(0:	f ag	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	•••
$g(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & l \end{cases}$	f x =	_ 1	2	0	1	1	0	1	0	•••
			•••	•••	•••	•••	•••		•••	•••

$f$ bijection from $\mathbb N$ to function		Output on 0	Output on 1	Output on 2	Output on 3	Output on 4	Output on 5	Output on 6	Output on 7	•••
f(0)		1	0	1	1	Hov	w do we	e find a	function	n not or
f(1)		0	1	1	0	\	l ( l	our li		C ( O ) ( ( l
<i>f</i> (2)		1	1	1	0	VVel			it's not ; e first ro	
<i>f</i> (3)		0	0	0	0				$y_{1}(0) = 0$	
f(4)		1	0	1	1	1	U	I	I	•••
<i>f</i> (5)		0	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	•••
(0:	f ag	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	•••
$g(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & l \end{cases}$	f x =	_ 1	2	0	1	1	0	1	0	•••
			•••	•••	•••	•••	•••		•••	•••

$f$ bijection from $\mathbb N$ to function		Output on 0	Output on 1	Output on 2	Output on 3	Output on 4	Output on 5	Output on 6	Output on 7	
f(0)		1	0	1	1	Hov	w do we	e find a	function	n not or
<i>f</i> (1)		0	1	1	0	\	l 4 a al	our li		C(') (+ -
<i>f</i> (2)		1	1	1	0	VVel			it's not j ne i <sup>th</sup> ro	
<i>f</i> (3)		0	0	0	0				= 1 - f(	
f(4)		1	0	1	1	1	U	I		•••
<i>f</i> (5)		0	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	•••
(0)	f	_ 1	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	•••
$g(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & 0 \end{cases}$	f(x)		2	0	1	1	0	1	0	•••
			•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••

$f$ bijection from $\mathbb N$ to function	Output on 0	Output on 1	Output on 2	Output on 3	Output on 4	Output on 5	Output on 6	Output on 7				
f(0)	1	0	1	1	Но	w do we	e find a	functio	n not or			
<i>f</i> (1)	0	1	1	0	\ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \		our li		C(1) (1)			
<i>f</i> (2)	1	1	1	0	VVel	Well to make sure it's not $f(i)$ function in the $i^{th}$ row)						
f(3)	0	0	0	0	Have $g_{diag}(i) = 1 - f(i)(i)$							
<i>f</i> (4)	1	0	1	1	1	0		, 	•••			
<i>f</i> (5)	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	•••			
(1 i:	f(x) out	toute O	on innu	t oc	0	1	1	0	•••			
	f f(x) out $f f(x)$ out				1	0	1	0	•••			
					•••	•••	•••	•••	•••			

### Wrapping up the proof

Wrapping up the proof.

Observe that  $g_{diag}$  is a fully-defined function, and that it has  $\mathbb{N}$  as its domain and  $\{0,1\}$  as its codomain. It therefore should be in the codomain of f. But it cannot be on the list, as g(i) is different from the function in the  $i^{th}$  row on input i for all i.

This contradicts f being onto! So we have that the set of binary-valued functions (with  $\mathbb{N}$  as their domains) is uncountable.

### Our Second big takeaway

How many Java methods can we write:

public boolean g(int input)?

Can you list them?

Yeah!! Put them in lexicographic order

i.e. in increasing order of length, with ties broken by alphabetical order.

Wait...that means the number of such Java programs is countable.

And...the number of functions we're supposed to write is uncountable.

### Our Second big takeaway

There are more functions  $g: \mathbb{N} \to B$  than there are Java programs to compute them.

Some function must be uncomputable.

That is there is no piece of code which tells you the output of the function when you give it the appropriate input.

#### Not just Java

This isn't just about java programs. (all we used about java was that its programs are strings)...that's...well every programming language.

There are functions that simply cannot be computed.

Doesn't matter how clever you are. How fancy your new programming language is. Just doesn't work.\*

\*there's a difference between int and N here, for the proof to work you really need all integers to be valid inputs, not just integers in a certain range.

#### Does this matter?

It's even worse than that – almost all functions are not computable.

So...how come this has never happened to you?

This might not be meaningful yet. Almost all functions are also inexpressible in a finite amount of English (English is a language too!)

You've probably never decided to write a program that computes a function you couldn't describe in English...

Are there any problems anyone is **interested** in solving that aren't computable?