Recall that the single-tape TM we constructed to recognize the language $L=\left\{a^{m} b^{n}: m=n\right\}$ worked by maintaining the loop invariant (could call it a "tape invariant") that the tape has the form
XXX ... Xaaa ... abbb ...bX . . XXX
where the number of Xs is initially zero and stays balanced between the right-hand and left-hand sides. Assuming the TM $M$ is correct---or quickly fixable if not---we can ask, how long does it take to accept a good $x=a^{n} b^{n}$ in terms of $r=m+n=2 n$ here? The answer is, it takes $\Theta\left(r^{2}\right)$ steps, owing to lots of backing-and-forthing.

Can we make it run faster? There is a laborious way to make it run much faster on one tape, in $O(n \log n)$ time, but we can get an optimal $O(n)$ running time by using a second tape:


Note the straightforwardness of the design as well as the efficiency. Also note the usefulness of having the second tape be two-way infinite with a blank to the left of the "column" initially holding the first $a$ in $x$ (if any). An alternative convention is to make both tapes one-way infinite but with a special char $\wedge$ in cell 0 at the left end on tape $1--$-so that the initial configuration $I_{0}$ has $\wedge x_{1} \cdots x_{n}$ on tape 1 and just $\wedge$ on tape 2 "underneath" the $\wedge$ on tape 1 . We can still start with the tape heads scanning the cells in "column 1" even if both are blank (so $x=\epsilon$ ). Then the final accepting instruction in the "pop" state becomes (_ $\left.\wedge / \_\wedge, S S\right)$.

This two-tape DTM has the properties that:

- the input tape head never moves $L$ and never changes a character;
- whenever the second tape moves $L$, it writes a blank in the cell it just left.

The second condition forces the second tape to behave like a stack (except for some "flex" in how top-of-stack is treated). A TM obeying these condiitons is formally equivalent to a pushdown automaton (PDA). A language is context-free (and belongs to the class CFL) if it is recognized by some PDA that may be nondeterministic (an NPDA); if the machine is deterministic (hence a DPDA) then it belongs to the class DCFL. Every regular language is a DCFL, and $\left\{a^{n} b^{n}\right\}$ is an example of a DCFL that is not regular. We will not say much more about CFLs and DCFLs.

## Computations and Computability

An instantaneous description (ID), also called a configuration, of a Turing machine $M$ specifies:

1. The current internal state $q$ of $M$.
2. The contents $\vec{w}=w_{1}, \ldots, w_{k}$ of the $k$ tapes, such that all else on the tapes is blank.
3. The positions $\vec{h}=h_{1}, \ldots, h_{k}$ of the heads on those tapes.

We can write $I=\langle q, \vec{w}, \vec{h}\rangle$ to denote an ID.
Write $I \vdash_{M} J$ if there is an instruction in $\delta$ that when executed in ID $I$ produces ID $J$. For $r \geq 2$, write $I \vdash{ }_{M}^{r} K$ if there is an ID $J$ such that $I \vdash{ }_{M} J$ and $J \vdash{ }_{M}^{r-1} K$. Also write $I \vdash{ }_{M}^{0} I$ for all $I$ and $I \vdash{ }_{M}^{*} J$ if $I \vdash{ }_{M}^{r} J$ for some $r$. These notions apply to nondeterministic TMs as well as DTMs.

For a single-tape TM and input $x$, the initial ID can be written $I_{0}(x)=\langle s, x, 1\rangle$ (if we number the cells from 1) or $I_{0}(x)=\langle s, \wedge x, 1\rangle$ (if we use the convention of an initial $\wedge$ in cell 0 but still number $x$ from 1 and start up scanning the first bit rather than the $\wedge$ ). Yet another convention is to start in the ID $\langle s, \wedge x \$, 1\rangle$ with a right-endmarker $\$$ too. A 1-tape TM is a linear bounded automaton (LBA) if $\delta$ is syntactically coded so that the only instructions involving the endmarlers have the form ( $p, \wedge / \wedge, R, q$ ) or $(p, \$ / \$, L, q)$, so that the head always stays between $\wedge$ and $\$$.

For $k$-tape TMs we could use $\epsilon$ 's to stand for the other tapes being blank and 1's for the other head positions, but we won't go any further into details of IDs until we hit complexity theory. An accepting ID has $q_{a c c}$ as its state and a rejecting ID has $q_{r e j}$. Now we can formally define the language of a TM (NTMs too):

Formal Definition: $L(M)=\left\{x: I_{0}(x) \vdash{ }_{M}^{*} I_{f}\right.$ for some accepting $\left.I D I_{f}\right\}$.
We can also simiularly define a function $g(x)=y$ being computable by a Turing machine. We want to say that we get an accepting ID $I_{f}$ that has $y$ on the tape in some recognizable form. Here is an "adhoc" definition that helps with some technicalities of doing so:

Definition: A Turing machine $M=(Q, \Sigma, \Gamma, \delta, \ldots, s, F)$ does "good housekeeping" if:

1. $F=\left\{q_{a c c}\right\}$ and $q_{r e j}$ is the only other halting state;
2. $M$ never writes the blank _ between two chars that are not blank, on any tape;
3. Whenever $M$ "wants to accept", it first blanks out all of its tapes---it can find the nonblank extremities because there are no internal blanks and then blank them in one right-to-left pass. Then it writes a single 1 on tape 1 and accepts, so $I_{f}=\left\langle q_{a c c}, 1,1\right\rangle$.
4. Similarly, in a rejecting condition, it blanks all tapes, writes 0 , and ends in $I_{r}=\left\langle q_{r e j}, 0,1\right\rangle$.

Again, we can vary the details but the ideas remain helpful. The main variation is that if we consider the input tape to be read-only and one-way (no L moves on tape 1), then $M$ does not blank the input $x$ but leaves it alone, ends on the blank to its right, and writes the final 1 or 0 on another tape, which could be designated the output tape. More generally, we can code such a machine to compute a function $f(x)=y$, with everything except $x$ on the input tape and $y$ on the output tape blanked out, and the output tape head scanning the first bit of $y$. Such an $M$, especially when it is deterministic, is called a transducer.

It is a useful self-study exercise to show that every TM (using the more-liberal definitions in some other texts or implemented by the "Turing Kit" program) can be converted into an equivalent one that does good housekeeping and is basically no less efficient. Then you may assume a given $M$ does good housekeeping to begin with.

Then for instance, we can rigorously define that a DTM $M$ on an input $x$ halts, written $M(x) \downarrow$, we can specify this means $I_{0}(x) \vdash{ }_{M}^{*} I_{f} \vee I_{0}(x) \vdash I_{r}$. Else, we write $M(x) \uparrow$ and can say the computation of $M$ on $x$ diverges. A DTM $M$ is total if for all $x \in \Sigma^{*}, M(x) \downarrow$. To be sure, these formal definitions agree with the informal ideas of halting, and of recognizing a language or computing a function, that we had to begin with.
[If time allows---even taking HW questions now or earlier---do these definitions too]

## Computability and (Un)Decidability

Definition: For any language $A$ over an alphabet $\Sigma$, or function $f: \Sigma^{*} \rightarrow \Sigma^{*}$ :

- $A$ is computably enumerable (c.e.) if there is a TM $M$ such that $L(M)=A$.
- Synonyms: recursively enumerable (r.e.), Turing-acceptable.
- $A$ is decidable if there is a total DTM $M$ such that $L(M)=A$.
- Synonym: recursive. (Avoid the term "recognizable"---it is used both ways).
- $f$ is computable if there is a transducer $M$ that computes $f(x)$ for all $x \in \Sigma^{*}$.
- Note that writing $f: \Sigma^{*} \rightarrow \Sigma^{*}$ standardly means that the domain of $f$ is all of $\Sigma^{*}$, so any $M$ computing $f$ must be total. But we often say $f$ is total computable to remind about this and clarify when we are not allowing $f$ to be a partial function. Other synonyms: recursive function, total recursive.

Here is a helpful little proposition that helps in understanding these concepts. Recall that with the Myhill-Nerode theorem, we have been writing $L(x)$ as if the langauge $L$ is a Boolean-valued function. We can distinguish the function from $L$ by calling it $\chi_{L}(x)$, where $\chi$ is the Greek letter chi to stand for characteristic function.

Proposition: A language $L$ is decidable if and only if $\chi_{L}$ is a total computable function.

The proof is "by good housekeeping." The important contrast is that when $L$ is only known to be c.e., then $\chi_{L}$ need not be computable: on some $x \notin L$, the machine might never halt. For a pivotal example, consider the language of the " $3 n+1$ Problem" shown in the opening week:
$L=\left\{x \in \mathbb{N}^{+}:(\exists r) f^{r}(x)=1\right\}$, where $f(x)=$ if $x$ is even then $x / 2$ else $3 x+1$.

We can regard binary numbers and binary strings as interchangeable, in various ways. One way specific to $\mathbb{N}^{+}$, meaning the positive natural numbers, is to delete the leading 1 in standard binary notation, which gives a 1-to-1 correspondence to a language $L^{\prime}$ over $\{0,1\}^{*}$. The demo showed a particular TM $M$ that ends on a single 1 whenever $x \in L$ but does not halt otherwise.

- The Collatz conjecture says that $L$ equals all of $\mathbb{N}^{+}$, likewise $L^{\prime}=\Sigma^{*}$. Then $M$ is actually total and that makes $L$ "trivially" decidable.
- But all we know at this point is that $L$ is computably enumerable. The $M$ shown in the demo is, I believe, the tiniest program that no one has been able to prove is total.

If a language is not decidable, it is called undecidable. This includes c.e. languages that are not decidable. Starting next week we will cover techniques for showing that languages are undecidable. It helps to have notation to map out classes of languages:

- The class of c.e. languages is denoted (only) by RE.
- The class of decidable languages is denoted by REC (occasionally, DEC).
- The class of regular languages is denoted by REG. The facts that every regular language is decidable, and some decidable languages are not regular (such as $\left\{a^{n} b^{n}\right\}$ ) can be neatly captured by writing REG $\subset$ REC.
- The classes of langauges recognized by deterministic and nondeterministic PDAs are denoted by DCFL and CFL, respectively, as we have seen.
- The classes of languages recognized by deterministic and nondeterministic LBAs are denoted by DLBA and NLBA, respectively.
- The progression REG $\subset C F L \subset$ NLBA $\subset$ RE is called the Chomsky Hierarchy after Noam Chomsky, who characterized these classes via notions of grammars. One can insert DCFL and REC and keep a proper progression, but the corresponding grammar notions are "wonky" in the
former case and nonexistent in the latter.
- However, although CFL $\subset$ DLBA, whether DLBA is properly contained in NLBA is unknown. It is rather like the $P$ versus NP question. We will not address grammars but we will later see that DLBA and NLBA equal deterministic and nondeterministic space, respectively.
- For any class $C$, the complements of languages in $C$ form the class co-C. Note that since the complement of a regular language is always regular, we have co-REG $=$ REG; the co-does not mean "not regular" here.
- We will concentrate on REC, RE, co-RE, and "neither c.e. nor co-c.e." for the two coming weeks. Here is a little roadmap:
neither c.e. nor co-c.e.


This diagram conveys some extra information:
() REC is closed under complements, ( $)$ RE $\cap$ co-RE $=$ REC, and ( ) All three classes are closed downward under computable many-one/mapping reductions. We will prove these after we establish the equivalence between Turing machines and high-level programming languages.

