

Enumerability, effectivity, decidability

Markov algorithms

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First step: introduce a lexicographic ordering of $\mathcal{A}_{cc}$ -strings.

New auxiliary letter: F for the relation ‘follows’.

I. e., xFy should mean that the string y follows x in the lexicographic ordering.

Base: α follows the empty word.

Inductive rules define the follower of a string according to its last letter.

Lexicographic ordering

- 26. $F\alpha$
- 27. $x\alpha Fx\beta$
- 28. $x\beta Fx\xi$
- 29. $x\xi Fx \gg$
- 30. $x \gg Fx*$
- 31. $xFy \rightarrow x * Fy\alpha$

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From the language radix axioms it follows that:
Every $\mathcal{A}_{cc}$ -string has one and only one follower;
Except of the empty string, each string is the follower of one and only one string.

The empty string is not a follower of anything.

I. e., strings with the empty string as 0 and this follower-relation as the successor-function fulfil axioms of primitive Peano arithmetics without mathematical induction.

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Our hypercalculus $\mathbf{H}_3$ now consists of the rules 1-33. and it suffices to prove at least one important incompleteness result.

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Be $\mathbf{C}$ an arbitrary calculus.

The translation of $\mathbf{C}$ into our language is some $\mathcal{A}_{cc}$ -word a .

$\mathbf{H}_3$ derives Ka .

There is a numeral c s.t. $\mathbf{H}_3$ derives aGc , i. e. the Gödel number of $\mathbf{C}$ is c .

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Does $\mathbf{C}$ derive a string whose translation is c ?

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$$34. \quad xDy \rightarrow xGy \rightarrow Ay$$

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The numbers are the strings of the one-letter alphabet $\mathcal{A}_0 = \{\alpha\}$, so their class is $\mathcal{A}_0^\circ$ and it can be defined inductively. The class of autonomous numerals, in class theoretic notation:

$$\mathbf{Aut} = \{x : x \in \mathcal{A}_0^\circ \wedge \mathbf{H}_3 \mapsto Ax\}$$

By adding a release rule to $\mathbf{H}_3$ deleting A , we gain a definition of $\mathbf{Aut}$ by a canonical calculus.

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Theorem: There is no canonical calculus $\mathbf{C}$ over some $B \supseteq \mathcal{A}_{cc}$ s.t. for any string x ,

$$\mathbf{C} \mapsto x \Leftrightarrow x \in \mathcal{A}_0^\circ - \mathbf{Aut}$$

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This theorem is Gödel-like because it shows that no inductive definition can be given for the notion “non-autonomous calculus” just like Gödel’s first incompleteness theorem shows that no inductive definition can be given for the notion “arithmetical truth”. And this proof uses an analogue of the Liar Paradox, too.

Enumerability

In general, if we have a calculus to define some string class, we have an effective process to enumerate its members. We can enumerate the derivations in the calculus: first, the one-member derivations, then the two-member ones, etc. For any given n , the set of the n -member derivations is finite.

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The enumeration of derivations produces an enumeration of the derivable strings too. This informal consideration shows that inductively defined classes are effectively enumerable, i. e., we have a procedure that enumerates all of its members. What about the conversion of this claim? Is every effectively enumerable class inductively definable? We don't have an answer yet.

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The converse of the claim is obvious: if we have a decision procedure then we can enumerate both the set and its complement. Therefore we have an enumeration procedure both for a string class $\mathcal{B}$ over an alphabet $\mathcal{A}$ and its complement $\mathcal{A}^\circ - \mathcal{B}$ if and only if we have a decision procedure for $\mathcal{B}$.

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Our next task is to make precise and formally defined the notions used above: ‘procedure’, ‘effective enumeration’.

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If the answer is ‘yes’, then the class of autonomous numerals is not decidable (although it is enumerable).

But to establish such an answer, we need a (formal) notion of effective procedure.

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Enumeration procedure for a given sequence (of strings).

Example: from any string of the alphabet $\mathcal{A}_{cc}$, produce the next string in the lexicographic ordering.

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An $\mathcal{A}$ -command is a string of the form $\lceil a \rightarrow b \rceil$ or $\lceil a \rightarrow \cdot b \rceil$ where a (the input of the command) and b (the output) are $\mathcal{A}$ -strings. Commands of the latter form are called stop commands.

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- ➋ Otherwise, apply the *first* applicable command C_0 to f_0 . The result is $f_1 = C_0(f_0)$.
- ➌ If C_0 was a stop command, then N applies to f_0 and transforms it to f_1 . In symbols, $N(f_0) = f_1$.
- ➍ If it was not, then N leads f_0 to f_1 (in symbols, $N(f_0/f_1)$) and the algorithm continues with step 1, but f_1 takes the place of f_0 . If we arrive to a stop command, then the original string, f_0 is transformed into the last result.

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The first case can be avoided by inserting the command $\emptyset \rightarrow \cdot\emptyset$ to the end of the algorithm. It is applicable to any string and does nothing but stops the algorithm.

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Simultaneous inductive definition of the relations $N(f) = \sharp$ (f blocks N), $N(f) = g$ (N transforms f into g) and $N(f/g)$ (N leads f to g). (N is an algorithm over $\mathcal{A}$, f and g are $\mathcal{A}$ -strings and $\sharp \notin \mathcal{A}$.)

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- i If no command in N is applicable to f , then $N(f) = \sharp$.
- ii If C is the first command in N that is applicable to f , $C(f) = g$, then
 - a if C is a stop command, then $N(f) = g$;
 - b if C is not a stop command, then $N(f/g)$.

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Simultaneous inductive definition of the relations $N(f) = \sharp$ (f blocks N), $N(f) = g$ (N transforms f into g) and $N(f/g)$ (N leads f to g). (N is an algorithm over $\mathcal{A}$, f and g are $\mathcal{A}$ -strings and $\sharp \notin \mathcal{A}$.)

- i If no command in N is applicable to f , then $N(f) = \sharp$.
- ii If C is the first command in N that is applicable to f , $C(f) = g$, then
 - a if C is a stop command, then $N(f) = g$;
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Simultaneous inductive definition of the relations $N(f) = \#$ (f blocks N), $N(f) = g$ (N transforms f into g) and $N(f/g)$ (N leads f to g). (N is an algorithm over $\mathcal{A}$, f and g are $\mathcal{A}$ -strings and $\# \notin \mathcal{A}$.)

- i If no command in N is applicable to f , then $N(f) = \#$.
- ii If C is the first command in N that is applicable to f , $C(f) = g$, then
 - a if C is a stop command, then $N(f) = g$;
 - b if C is not a stop command, then $N(f/g)$.
- iii If $N(f/g)$ and $N(g/h)$, then $N(f/h)$.
- iv If $N(f/g)$ and $N(g) = h$, then $N(f) = h$.
- v If $N(f/g)$ and $N(g) = \#$, then $N(f) = \#$.

Examples

Erase a letter. Be $a \in \mathcal{A}$. Let us erase every occurrence of a from any string.

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The letter x is a metalanguage variable for letters and the first command is an usual and obvious abbreviation of n commands, if $\mathcal{A}$ has n members.

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We can use auxiliary letters in algorithms as well as in calculi. It means only that to solve algorithmically some problem concerning the $\mathcal{A}$ -strings, we write an algorithm over some $\mathcal{B} \supset \mathcal{A}$ and *we regard* the members of $\mathcal{B} - \mathcal{A}$ auxiliary letters.

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The following algorithm brings any $\mathcal{A}$ -string $a_0a_1 \dots a_n$ into the string $a_0a_1 \dots a_n \mid a_na_{n-1} \dots a_0$ ($\mid \notin \mathcal{A}$, and the algorithm uses the auxiliary letters A, C , too.).

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1. $Cxy \rightarrow yCx$ $x \in \mathcal{A}, y \in \mathcal{A} \cup \{\mid\}$
2. $Cx \rightarrow x$ $x \in \mathcal{A}$
3. $xA \rightarrow AxCx$ $x \in \mathcal{A}$
4. $A \rightarrow \cdot \emptyset$
5. $\mid x \rightarrow x \mid$ $x \in \mathcal{A}$
6. $x \mid \rightarrow xA \mid$ $x \in \mathcal{A}$
7. $\emptyset \rightarrow \mid$

Homework

Write an algorithm that decides identity of strings of some alphabet $\mathcal{A}$ in the following sense: Let V and W arbitrary $\mathcal{A}$ -strings. Your algorithm should transform the string $V \mid W$ into Y if they are the same string, and in N if they are different. (Y , $\mid$ and N are auxiliary letters.)