

Infinities in Mathematics and Computation

This lecture answers the following questions

- Are there different “infinities”?
- How does the number of mathematical functions compare with the number of computer programs (both are infinite)?
- Can we precisely specify a function that cannot be written as computer program (there are more functions than programs) ?

Proof by Contradiction

- Assume a statement is TRUE.
- By mathematical logic, deduce the consequences of such a statement.
- If a statement known to be FALSE (a contradiction) is deduced, the original statement must be FALSE.

So, to prove S is TRUE, assume S is FALSE and show that such an assumption leads to a contradiction: then, S is proved TRUE.

$\sqrt{2}$ is Irrational: a Proof by Contradiction

To prove $\sqrt{2}$ is irrational, assume the opposite: that it is rational and can therefore be written as p/q , where p and q are two integers that have NO common factors (this is important).

- $\sqrt{2} = p/q$ Assumed above
- $2 = p^2/q^2$ Square both sides
- $2q^2 = p^2$ Multiply by q^2
- p^2 is even It has a factor of 2
- p is even If p odd $\rightarrow p^2$ odd

- write $p = 2m$ p is even
- $2q^2 = (2m)^2$ Substitute $2m$ for p
- $2q^2 = 4m^2$ Expand $(2m)^2$
- $q^2 = 2m^2$ Divide by 2
- q^2 is even It has a factor of 2
- q is even If q odd $\rightarrow q^2$ odd

Contradiction: p and q are both even, so they have a common factor, 2.

Since a contradiction was reached, then the original assumption must be FALSE; therefore $\sqrt{2}$ cannot be written as p/q , so it is irrational.

Comparing Sizes of Finite Sets

(let $|X|$ denote the size of set X)

1) Count the elements

$$A = \{a,b,c\}$$

$$X = \{x,y,z\}$$

$$|A| = 3$$

$$|X| = 3$$

Therefore, $|A| = |X|$

2) Pair the elements

$$A = \{a,b,c\} \quad \begin{array}{c} \updownarrow \\ \updownarrow \\ \updownarrow \end{array} \quad \text{or} \quad \begin{array}{c} \{a,b,c\} \\ \swarrow \quad \searrow \\ \searrow \quad \swarrow \end{array}$$
$$X = \{x,y,z\}$$

In a 1-1 mapping, every element in a set appears at the end of exactly 1 arrow.

Therefore,

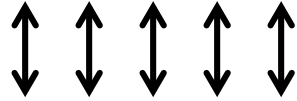
$$|A| = |X|$$

We do not need to know the actual size of either set to know they are the same size.

Comparing Sizes of Infinite Sets

Sets of Positive & Whole numbers have the same size:

$$P = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, \dots\}$$



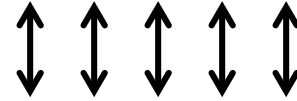
$$W = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, \dots\}$$

$$P\text{-to-}W(x) = x-1$$

$$W\text{-to-}P(x) = x+1$$

Sets of Positive & Even numbers have the same size:

$$P = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, \dots\}$$



$$E = \{0, 2, 4, 6, 8, \dots\}$$

$$P\text{-to-}E(x) = 2(x-1)$$

$$E\text{-to-}P(x) = (x+2) / 2$$

Comparing Sizes of Infinite Sets (continued)

Do sets of Positive numbers and Integers also have the same size?

$$P = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, \dots\}$$

$$I = \{\dots, -3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$$

Comparing Sizes of Infinite Sets (continued)

Do sets of Positive numbers and Integers also have the same size?

$$P = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, \dots\}$$

$$I = \{\dots, -3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$$

$$P\text{-to-}I(\text{odd } x) = (x-1) / 2$$

$$I\text{-to-}P(x \geq 0) = 2x + 1$$

$$P\text{-to-}I(\text{even } x) = (-x) / 2$$

$$I\text{-to-}P(x < 0) = -2x$$

The First Infinity: X_0

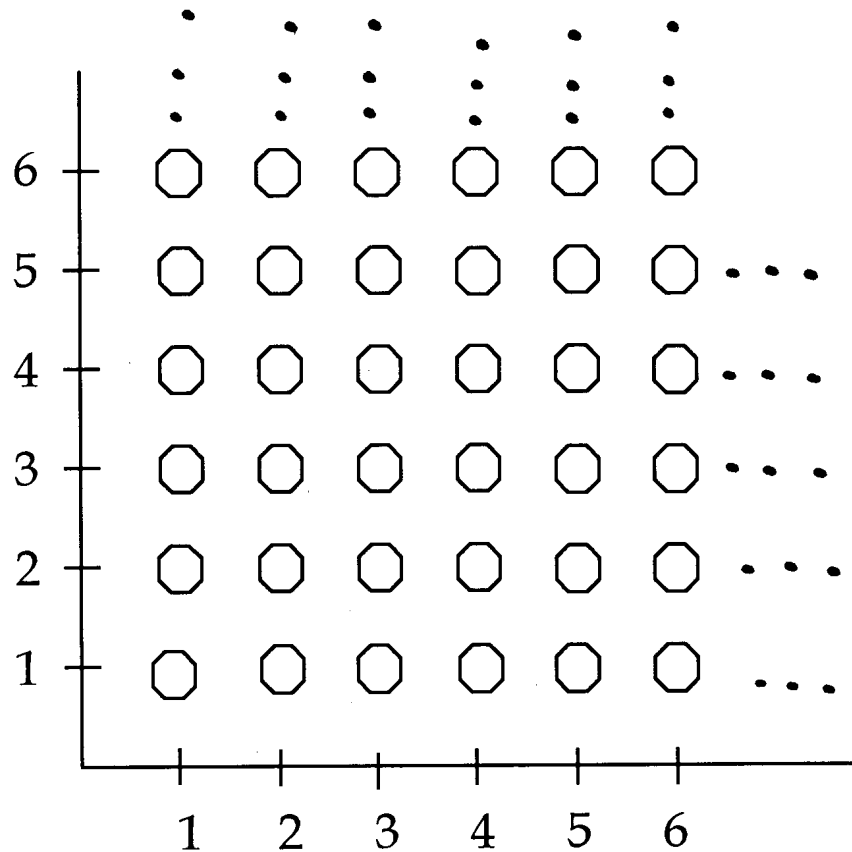
The sets of positive, whole, even, and integer numbers all have the same size

$$|P| = |W| = |E| = |I| = X_0 \text{ (aleph-naught)}$$

Georg Cantor (1845-1918): “A set is infinite if its elements can be put into a 1-1 mapping with a proper subset of themselves.”

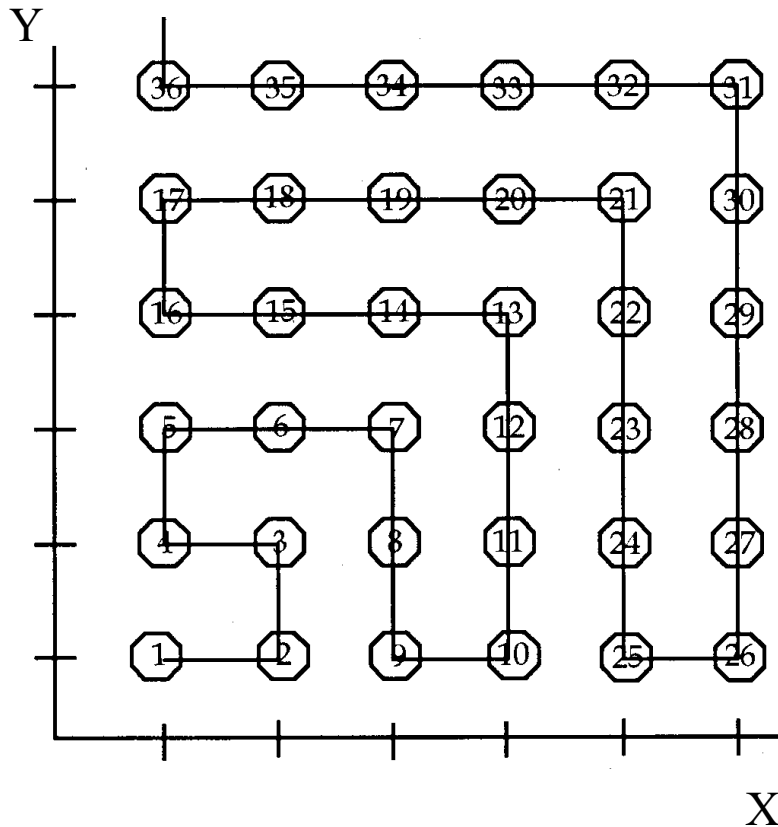
Dauben, *Georg Cantor: His Mathematics and Philosophy of the Infinite*, Princeton, 1979.

Rationals(Q): X_0 or Bigger?



Let Y / X represent the rational number at coordinate (X, Y) . To show that $|\mathbb{Q}| = X_0$, produce a “path” that systematically walks through every (X, Y) coordinate in this lattice: visit a 1st lattice point, a 2nd lattice point, a 3rd lattice point, ...

Rationals(Q): X_0 or Bigger?



Let Y / X represent the rational number at coordinate (X, Y) . Then the mapping is

$\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, \dots\}$

$\{1/1, 1/2, 2/2, 2/1, 3/1, 3/2, 3/3, 2/3, \dots\}$

Therefore, $|Q| = X_0$

Real (\mathbb{R}): X_0 or Bigger

$|R| > X_0$: Proof by Contradiction (Diagonalization)

Assume there is a 1-1 Mapping from P to $R[0,1]$

1	\leftrightarrow	.0	0	0	0	0	0	...
2	\leftrightarrow	.5	0	0	0	0	0	...
3	\leftrightarrow	.3	3	3	3	3	3	...
4	\leftrightarrow	.6	9	3	1	4	7	...
5	\leftrightarrow	.3	1	8	3	0	9	...
6	\leftrightarrow	.1	0	1	0	0	1	...

Real (R): X_0 or Bigger

$|R| > X_0$: Proof by Contradiction (Diagonalization)

Assume there is a 1-1 Mapping from P to $R[0,1]$

	1	2	3	4	5	6	...
1 ↔	.0	0	0	0	0	0	...
2 ↔	.5	0	0	0	0	0	...
3 ↔	.3	3	3	3	3	3	...
4 ↔	.6	9	3	1	4	7	...
5 ↔	.3	1	8	3	0	9	...
6 ↔	.1	0	1	0	0	1	...
⋮							

We can construct a value V that differs from every value in this list. Make the i^{th} digit of V be $1 +$ (the i^{th} digit of the i^{th} number_, or 0 if the i^{th} digit is 9. For this mapping:

$$V = .114212\dots$$

So V is not on the list, leading to a contradiction, so there is no possible mapping.

We say $|R| = X_1$

The Continuum Hypothesis

In summary, $X_0 = |P| < |R| = X_1$

The Continuum Hypothesis (unproved):

“There exists no set S such that
 $X_0 < |S| < X_1$ ”

Although the Continuum Hypothesis (CH) remains unproved, it has been proven that most of mathematics remains the same regardless of whether the CH is TRUE or FALSE.

$\mathbb{R}[0,1] \times \mathbb{R}[0,1]$: $=X_1$ or Bigger?

$\mathbb{R}[0,1] \times \mathbb{R}[0,1] := \{(x,y) \mid x \text{ in } [0,1] \text{ and } y \text{ in } [0,1]\}$

This set describes all points in a unit square.

Proof that $|\mathbb{R}[0,1] \times \mathbb{R}[0,1]| = X_1$

Let (x,y) be written $(.x_1x_2x_3x_4x_5 \dots, .y_1y_2y_3y_4y_5 \dots)$

Map $(x,y) \leftrightarrow .x_1y_1x_2y_2x_3y_3x_4y_4x_5y_5$

So $|\mathbb{R}[0,1] \times \mathbb{R}[0,1]| = |\mathbb{R}| = X_1$

English Statements(E): X_0 or Bigger

Assume an alphabet with 26 letters, a space (written ~), and a period (written .); e.g., SEE~DICK~RUN.

1 A
2 B
...
26 Z
27 ~
28 .

29 AA
30 AB
...
54 AZ
55 A~
56 A.
57 BA
...
784 ..
...
 6.5×10^{18}

Thus, we can list all possible *statements* in the following order: first all one-letter *statements* in dictionary order then all two-letter *statements* in dictionary order, etc. mapping each positive number to a *statement*.

Therefore $|E| = X_0$

SEE~DICK~RUN.

Computer Programs (C): X_0 or Bigger?

Computer programs are written in a special alphabet that, like English, includes letters and punctuation. They can be considered *statements* written over this enlarged alphabet.

Therefore by the same reasoning process $|C| = X_0$

Mathematical Functions (M): X_0 or Bigger?

$|M| > X_0$: Look at functions mapping P to T/F

Assume there is a 1-1 Mapping from P to M

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	...
f_1 ↔	F	F	F	F	F	F	...
f_2 ↔	T	T	T	T	T	T	...
f_3 ↔	T	F	T	F	T	F	...
f_4 ↔	F	F	F	T	T	T	...
f_5 ↔	F	F	F	T	F	F	...
f_6 ↔	F	T	T	F	T	F	...

We can construct a function f that differs from every f_i on this list.

Make the i^{th} value of f be the opposite of $f_i(i)$: e.g.

$$f(1) = T, f(2) = F, f(3) = F, \dots$$

So $f(i)$ differs from every $f(i)$ and therefore is not on the list, leading to a contradiction, so there is no possible mapping

$$|M| > X_0$$

Mathematical Functions and Programs

$|C| < |M|$ so there are more mathematical functions than computer programs.

Therefore, some mathematical functions cannot be programmed on a computer.

Are there any “interesting” mathematical functions that cannot be programmed?

The Halting Problem

Does there exist a program H , which given any program P and data D determines whether or not P halts when run on D ?

Let $P(D)$ denote running program P on data D .

So $H(P,D)$ is either T or F , depending on whether or not $P(D)$ halts.

H itself must always halt and produce an answer telling whether $P(D)$ halts.

Half Solving the Halting Problem

We can *almost* compute H by running program P on data D and returning T whenever $P(D)$ halts; but such a function would never return a value if $P(D)$ never halted. At some point an actual H would have to return F – when it *knew* that $P(D)$ would never halt – if it could somehow know.

Proving the Halting Problem is Unsolvable

Assume $H(P,D)$ exists as described; define
 $G(x) = \text{if } H(x,x) \text{ then } \textit{loop forever} \text{ else } \textit{halt};$

Does $G(G)$ halt?

If we assume it halts, we can prove it runs forever; if we assume it runs forever, we can prove it halts. Therefore, we have constructed a function G that cannot exist; therefore H cannot exist, because if H existed, we could easily construct G as described above.

H is a Powerful Theorem Prover

If H existed, we could use it as a powerful theorem prover in mathematics.

Fermat's Conjecture:

“There are no integral solutions to the equation: $a^n + b^n = c^n$ (with $n > 2$)”

Write a program that generates every possible integral value for (a,b,c,n similar to generating rationals) and halts when $a^n + b^n = c^n$ and $n > 2$.

The program halts iff the conjecture is FALSE.

Computability References

- Davis, *Computability and Unsolvability*, Dover, 1973.
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- Minsky, *Computation: Finite and Infinite Machines*, Prentice hall, 1968.
- Rayward-Smith, *A First Course in Computability*, Blackwell, 1986.
- Walker, *The Limits of Computing*, Jones and Bartlett, 1994.