CSE 311: Foundations of Computing

Lecture 28: Undecidability, Reductions, and Turing Machines



Final exam Monday, Review session Sunday

- Monday at either 2:30-4:20 or 4:30-6:20
 JHN 102
 - Must select your exam time by Saturday
 No changes permitted after that
 - Bring your **UW ID**
- **Comprehensive:** Full probs only on topics that were covered in homework. May have small probs on other topics.
 - May includes pre-midterm topics, e.g., formal proofs.
 - Reference sheets will be included. Closed book. No notes.
- Review session: Sunday starting at 1 pm on Zoom
 Bring your questions !!

Review: Countability vs Uncountability

- To prove a set A countable you must show
 - There exists a listing x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots such that every element of A is in the list.
- To prove a set B uncountable you must show
 - For every listing x₁,x₂,x₃, ... there exists some element in B that is not in the list.
 - The diagonalization proof shows how to describe a missing element d in B based on the listing $x_1, x_2, x_3, ...$. *Important:* the proof produces a d no matter what the listing is.

Last time: Undecidability of the Halting Problem

CODE(P) means "the code of the program **P**"

The Halting Problem

Given: - CODE(**P**) for any program **P** - input **x**

Output: true if P halts on input x false if P does not halt on input x

Theorem [Turing]: There is no program that solves the Halting Problem

Proof: By contradiction.

Assume that a program **H** solving the Halting program does exist. Then program **D** must exist



by Geoffrey K. Pullum (U. Edinburgh)

No general procedure for bug checks succeeds. Now, I won't just assert that, I'll show where it leads: I will prove that although you might work till you drop, you cannot tell if computation will stop.

For imagine we have a procedure called *P* that for specified input permits you to see whether specified source code, with all of its faults, defines a routine that eventually halts.

You feed in your program, with suitable data, and *P* gets to work, and a little while later (in finite compute time) correctly infers whether infinite looping behavior occurs... Here's the trick that I'll use – and it's simple to do. I'll define a procedure, which I will call *Q*, that will use *P*'s predictions of halting success to stir up a terrible logical mess.

And this program called *Q* wouldn't stay on the shelf; I would ask it to forecast its run on *itself*. When it reads its own source code, just what will it do? What's the looping behavior of *Q* run on *Q*?

...

. . .

...

Full poem at:

http://www.lel.ed.ac.uk/~gpullum/loopsnoop.html

Can use the fact that the Halting Problem is undecidable to show that other problems are undecidable

General method:

Prove that if there were a program deciding B then you can use it to build a program deciding the Halting Problem.

- **1.** "B decidable \rightarrow Halting Problem decidable" Shown by general method
- 2. "Halting problem undecidable" Turing
- 3. "Halting Problem undecidable \rightarrow B undecidable" Contrapositive from 1
- 4. "B undecidable"

Modus Ponens 2 & 3

Students should write a Java program that:

- Prints "Hello" to the console
- Eventually exits

Our auto-grading program needs to grade the students.

How do we write that grading program?

WE CAN'T: THIS IS IMPOSSIBLE!

A related undecidable problem

- HelloWorldTesting Problem:
 - Input: CODE(Q) and x
 - Output:

True if **Q** outputs "HELLO WORLD" on input **x**

False if **Q** does not output "HELLO WORLD" on input **x**

- Theorem: The HelloWorldTesting Problem is undecidable.
- Proof idea: Show that if there is a program T to decide HelloWorldTesting then there is a program H to decide the Halting Problem for code(P) and x.

A related undecidable problem

- Suppose there is a program T that solves the HelloWorldTesting problem. Define program H that takes input CODE(P) and x and does the following:
 - Creates CODE(Q) from CODE(P) by
 - (1) removing all output statements from CODE(P), and
 - (2) adding a System.out.println("HELLO WORLD") immediately before any spot where P could halt

Then runs **T** on input CODE(Q) and x.

- If P halts on input x then Q prints HELLO WORLD and halts and so H outputs true (because T outputs true on input CODE(Q))
- If P doesn't halt on input x then Q won't print anything since we removed any other print statement from CODE(Q) so H outputs false

We know that such an H cannot exist. Therefore T cannot exist.

The HaltsNoInput Problem

- Input: CODE(R) for program R
- Output: True if R halts without reading input False otherwise.

Theorem: HaltsNoInput is undecidable

General idea "hard-coding the input":

Show how to use CODE(P) and x to build CODE(R) so
 P halts on input x ⇔ R halts without reading input

"Hard-coding the input":

- Show how to use CODE(P) and x to build CODE(R) so
 P halts on input x ⇔ R halts without reading input
- Replace input statement in CODE(P) that reads input x into variable var, by a hard-coded assignment statement:
 var = x
 to produce CODE(R).
- So if we have a program N to decide HaltsNoInput then we can use it as a subroutine as follows to decide the Halting Problem, which we know is impossible:
 - On input CODE(P) and x, produce CODE(R). Then run N on input CODE(R) and output the answer that N gives.

• The impossibility of writing the **CSE 121** grading program follows by combining the ideas from the undecidability of **HaltsNoInput** and **HelloWorld**.

More Reductions

- Can use undecidability of these problems to show that other problems are undecidable.
- For instance: EQUIV(P,Q):
- Trueif P(x) and Q(x) have the same
behavior for every input xFalseotherwise



 $(pur) \rightarrow l$

Rice's Theorem (a.k.a. Compilers Suck Theorem - informal): Any "non-trivial" property of the input-output behavior of Java programs is undecidable.

Computers and algorithms

- Does Java (or any programming language) cover all possible computation? Every possible algorithm?
- There was a time when computers were people who did calculations on sheets paper to solve computational problems



• Computers as we known them arose from trying to understand everything these people could do.

1930's:

How can we formalize what algorithms are possible?

- Turing machines (Turing, Post)
 - basis of modern computers
- Lambda Calculus (Church) basis for functional programming, LISP
- μ-recursive functions (Kleene)
 - alternative functional programming basis

Church-Turing Thesis:

Any reasonable model of computation that includes all possible algorithms is equivalent in power to a Turing machine

Evidence

- \mathcal{V} Intuitive justification
- Huge numbers of models based on radically different ideas turned out to be equivalent to TMs

• Finite Control

- Brain/CPU that has only a finite # of possible "states of mind"
- Recording medium
 - An unlimited supply of blank "scratch paper" on which to write & read symbols, each chosen from a finite set of possibilities
 - Input also supplied on the scratch paper
- Focus of attention
 - Finite control can only focus on a small portion of the recording medium at once
 - Focus of attention can only shift a small amount at a time

Turing machines

Recording medium

- An infinite read/write "tape" marked off into cells
- Each cell can store one symbol or be "blank"
- Tape is initially all blank except a few cells of the tape containing the input string
- Read/write head can scan one cell of the tape starts on input
- In each step, a Turing machine
 - 1. Reads the currently scanned cell
 - 2. Based on current state and scanned symbol
 - i. Overwrites symbol in scanned cell
 - ii. Moves read/write head left or right one cell
 - iii. Changes to a new state
- Each Turing Machine is specified by its finite set of rules

Turing machines

		_	0	1
$\overline{)}$	S ₁	(1, L, s ₃)	(1, L, s ₄)	(0, R, s ₂)
	S 2	(0, R, s ₁)	(1, R, s ₁)	(0, R, s ₁)
	S 3			
	S 4			



UW CSE's Steam-Powered Turing Machine



Original in Sieg Hall stairwell

Ideal Java/C programs:

- Just like the Java/C you're used to programming with, except you never run out of memory
 - Constructor methods always succeed
 - malloc in C never fails

Equivalent to Turing machines except a lot easier to program:

- Turing machine definition is useful for breaking computation down into simplest steps
- We only care about high level so we use programs

Original Turing machine definition:

- A different "machine" M for each task
- Each machine M is defined by a finite set of possible operations on finite set of symbols
- So... M has a finite description as a sequence of symbols, its "code", which we denote <M>

You already are used to this idea with the notion of the program code or text but this was a new idea in Turing's time.

Turing's big idea part 2: A Universal TM

- A Turing machine interpreter **U**
 - On input <M> and its input x,
 - U outputs the same thing as M does on input x
 - At each step it decodes which operation M would have performed and simulates it.
- One Turing machine is enough
 - Basis for modern stored-program computer

Von Neumann studied Turing's UTM design



Takeaway from undecidability

- You can't rely on the idea of improved compilers and programming languages to eliminate major programming errors
 - truly safe languages can't possibly do general computation
- Document your code
 - there is no way you can expect someone else to figure out what your program does with just your code; since in general it is provably impossible to do this!

We've come a long way!

- Propositional Logic.
- Boolean logic and circuits.
- Boolean algebra.
- Predicates, quantifiers and predicate logic.
- Inference rules and formal proofs for propositional and predicate logic.
- English proofs.
- Modular arithmetic.
- Prime numbers.
- GCD, Euclid's algorithm, modular inverse, and exponentiation.
- Set theory.

We've come a long way!

- Induction and Strong Induction.
- Recursively defined functions and sets.
- Structural induction.
- Regular expressions.
- Context-free grammars and languages.
- Relations and composition.
- Transitive-reflexive closure.
- Graph representation of relations and their closures.

- DFAs, NFAs and language recognition.
- Product construction for DFAs.
- Finite state machines with outputs at states.
- Minimization algorithm for finite state machines
- Conversion of regular expressions to NFAs.
- Subset construction to convert NFAs to DFAs.
- Equivalence of DFAs, NFAs, Regular Expressions
- Finite automata for pattern matching.
- Method to prove languages not accepted by DFAs.
- Cardinality, countability and diagonalization
- Undecidability: Halting problem and evaluating properties of programs.

What's next? ...after the final exam...

431

• Foundations II (312)

- Fundamentals of counting, discrete probability, applications of randomness to computing, statistical algorithms and analysis
- Ideas critical for machine learning, algorithms
- Data Abstractions (332)
 - Data structures, a few key algorithms, parallelism
 - Brings programming and theory together
 - Makes heavy use of induction and recursive defns

- Fill this out by Sunday night!
 - Your ability to fill it out will disappear at 11:59 p.m. on Sunday.
 - We really value your feedback!

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