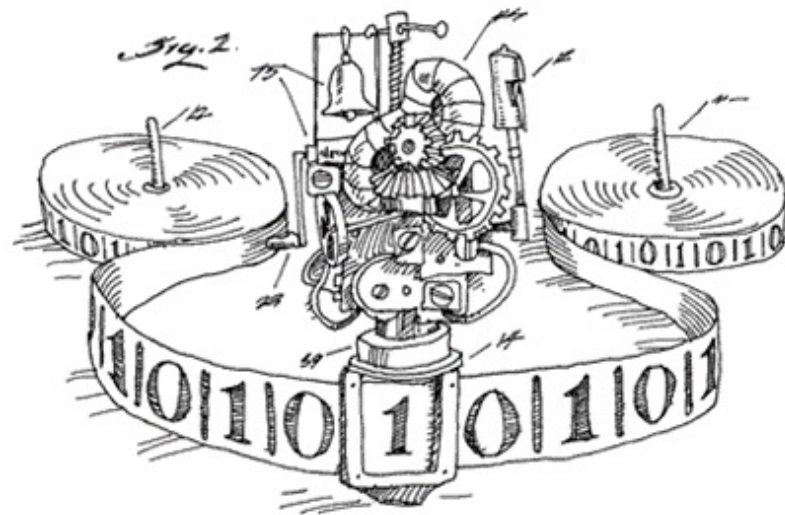


# CSE 311: Foundations of Computing

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## Lecture 29: Reductions and Turing Machines



# Final exam Monday, Review session Sunday

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- **Monday** at either **2:30-4:20 (B)** or **4:30-6:20 (A)**
  - **CSE2 G20**
  - 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.
- **Review session: *Sunday* 1-3 pm in CSE2 G20**
  - **Bring your questions !!**

# Final exam

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- ? problems

# Final exam

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- **9 problems**
- **Large problems on:**
  - DFA/RE/CFG design
  - DFA/NFA algorithms (except NFA to RE)
  - Irregularity
  - Strong & Structural Induction
  - English and Formal proofs about numbers/sets/relations/etc.
- **Small problems on anything else**
- **12 minutes per problem**
  - write quickly
  - focus on the overall structure of the solution

# Review: Countability vs Uncountability

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- 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  $x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots$  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  $x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots$ .  
*Important: the proof produces a  $d$  no matter what the listing is.*

# Last time: Undecidability of the Halting Problem

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**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

Does  $D(\text{CODE}(D))$  halt?

```
public static void D(x) {  
    if (H(x,x) == true) {  
        while (true); // don't halt  
    } else {  
        return; // halt  
    }  
}
```

$H$  solves the halting problem implies that

$H(\text{CODE}(D),x)$  is true iff  $D(x)$  halts,  $H(\text{CODE}(D),\text{CODE}(D))$  is not

Suppose that  $D(\text{CODE}(D))$  halts.

Then, by definition of  $H$  it must be that

$H(\text{CODE}(D), \text{CODE}(D))$  is true

Which by the definition of  $H$

$D(\text{CODE}(D))$  doesn't halt

Suppose the other way around,  $D(\text{CODE}(D))$  doesn't halt.

Then, by definition of  $H$  it must be that

$H(\text{CODE}(D), \text{CODE}(D))$  is false

Which by the definition of  $D$  means  $D(\text{CODE}(D))$  halts

**The ONLY assumption was the program  $H$  exists so that assumption must have been false.**



# Where did the idea for creating **D** come from?

---

```
public static void D(s) {  
    if (H(s,s) == true) {  
        while (true); // don't halt  
    } else {  
        return; // halt  
    }  
}
```

**D** halts on input code(P) iff **H**(code(P),code(P)) outputs false  
iff P doesn't halt on input code(P)



# Connection to diagonalization

Write  $\langle P \rangle$  for  $\text{CODE}(P)$

$\langle P_1 \rangle \langle P_2 \rangle \langle P_3 \rangle \langle P_4 \rangle \langle P_5 \rangle \langle P_6 \rangle \dots$

Some possible inputs  $x$

All programs  $P$

$P_1$

$P_2$

$P_3$

$P_4$

$P_5$

$P_6$

$P_7$

$P_8$

$P_9$

.

.

This listing of all programs really does exist since the set of all Java programs is countable

The goal of this “diagonal” argument is not to show that the listing is incomplete but rather to show that a “flipped” diagonal element is not in the listing

# Connection to diagonalization

Write  $\langle P \rangle$  for  $\text{CODE}(P)$

All programs  $P$

	$\langle P_1 \rangle$	$\langle P_2 \rangle$	$\langle P_3 \rangle$	$\langle P_4 \rangle$	$\langle P_5 \rangle$	$\langle P_6 \rangle$	....	Some possible inputs $x$				
$P_1$	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	...
$P_2$	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	...
$P_3$	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	...
$P_4$	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	...
$P_5$	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	...
$P_6$	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	...
$P_7$	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	...
$P_8$	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	...
$P_9$	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	...
.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	...
.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	...

$(P, x)$  entry is **1** if program  $P$  halts on input  $x$  and **0** if it runs forever

# Connection to diagonalization

Write  $\langle P \rangle$  for  $\text{CODE}(P)$

Some possible inputs  $x$

All programs  $P$

	$\langle P_1 \rangle$	$\langle P_2 \rangle$	$\langle P_3 \rangle$	$\langle P_4 \rangle$	$\langle P_5 \rangle$	$\langle P_6 \rangle$	...					
$P_1$	0 <sup>1</sup>	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	...	
$P_2$	1	1 <sup>0</sup>	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	...
$P_3$	1	0	1 <sup>0</sup>	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	...
$P_4$	0	1	1	0 <sup>1</sup>	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	...
$P_5$	0	1	1	1	1 <sup>0</sup>	1	1	0	0	0	1	...
$P_6$	1	1	0	0	0	1 <sup>0</sup>	1	0	1	1	1	...
$P_7$	1	0	1	1	0	0	0 <sup>1</sup>	0	0	0	1	...
$P_8$	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	1 <sup>0</sup>	0	1	0	...
$P_9$	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	...
.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	...
.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	...

Want behavior of program  $D$  to be like the flipped diagonal, so it can't be in the list of all programs.

$(P, x)$  entry is **1** if program  $P$  halts on input  $x$  and **0** if it runs forever

# Where did the idea for creating **D** come from?

---

```
public static void D(s) {  
    if (H(s,s) == true) {  
        while (true); // don't halt  
    } else {  
        return; // halt  
    }  
}
```

**D** halts on input code(P) iff **H**(code(P),code(P)) outputs false  
iff P doesn't halt on input code(P)

Therefore, for any program P, **D** differs from P on input code(P)

# The Halting Problem isn't the only hard problem

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

General method (a “reduction”):

Prove that, if there were a program deciding **B**, then there would be a program deciding the Halting Problem.

“**B** decidable  $\rightarrow$  Halting Problem decidable”

Contrapositive:

“Halting Problem undecidable  $\rightarrow$  **B** undecidable”

Therefore, **B** is undecidable

## A CSE 142 assignment

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**Students should write a Java program that:**

- Prints “Hello” to the console
- Eventually exits

**Gradel, Practicel, etc. need to grade these**

**How do we write that grading program?**

**WE CAN'T: THIS IS IMPOSSIBLE!**

# Another undecidable problem

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- **CSE 142 Grading problem:**
  - Input: **CODE(Q)**
  - Output:
    - True** if **Q** outputs “HELLO” and exits
    - False** if **Q** does not do that
- **Theorem:** The CSE 142 Grading is undecidable.
- **Proof idea:** Show that, if there is a program **T** to decide CSE 142 grading, then there is a program **H** to decide the Halting Problem for code(**P**) and input **x**.

# Another undecidable problem

---

**Theorem:** The CSE 142 Grading is undecidable.

**Proof:** Suppose there is a program **T** that decide CSE 142 grading problem. Then, there is a program **H** to decide the Halting Problem for code(**P**) and input **x** by

- transform **P** (with input **x**) into the following program **Q**



# Another undecidable problem

---

```
public class Q {
    private static String x = "...";

    public static void main(String[] args) {
        PrintStream out = System.out;
        System.setOut(new PrintStream(
            new WriterOutputStream(new StringWriter())));
        System.setIn(new ReaderInputStream(new StringReader(x)));

        P.main(args);

        out.println("HELLO");
    }
}

class P {
    public static void main(String[] args) { ... }
    ...
}
```

# Another undecidable problem

---

**Theorem:** The CSE 142 Grading is undecidable.

**Proof:** Suppose there is a program **T** that decide CSE 142 grading problem. Then, there is a program **H** to decide the Halting Problem for code(**P**) and input **x** by

- transform **P** (with input **x**) into the following program **Q**
- run **T** on code(**Q**)
  - if it returns true, then **P** halted  
must halt in order to print “HELLO”
  - if it returns false, then **P** did not halt  
program **Q** can’t output anything other than “HELLO”



# Rice's theorem

---

Not every problem on programs is undecidable!

Which of these is decidable?

- Input  $\text{CODE}(P)$  and  $x$   
Output: **true** if  $P$  prints "ERROR" on input  $x$   
after less than 100 steps  
**false** otherwise
- Input  $\text{CODE}(P)$  and  $x$   
Output: **true** if  $P$  prints "ERROR" on input  $x$   
after more than 100 steps  
**false** otherwise

**Rice's Theorem:**

Any "non-trivial" property of the input-output behavior of Java programs is undecidable.

# Rice's theorem

---

Not every problem on programs is undecidable!

Which of these is decidable?

- Input  $\text{CODE}(P)$  and  $x$   
Output: **true** if  $P$  prints "ERROR" on input  $x$   
after less than 100 steps  
**false** otherwise
- Input  $\text{CODE}(P)$  and  $x$   
Output: **true** if  $P$  prints "ERROR" on input  $x$   
after more than 100 steps  
**false** otherwise

Rice's Theorem (a.k.a. Compilers **ARE DIFFICULT**):

Any "non-trivial" property of the input-output behavior of Java programs is undecidable.

# CFGs are complicated

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We know can answer almost any question about REs

- Do two REs / DFAs recognize the same language?

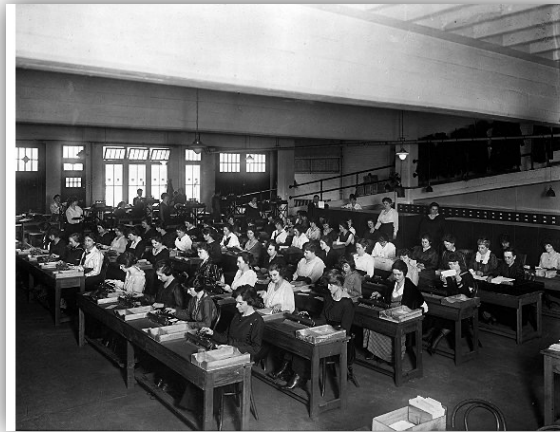
But many problems about CFGs are undecidable!

- **Do two CFGs generate the same language?**
- **Is there any string that two CFGs both generate?**
  - more general: “CFG intersection” problem
- **Does a CFG generate every string?**

# Computers and algorithms

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- 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 know them arose from trying to understand everything these people could do.

# Before Java

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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
- **$\mu$ -recursive functions** (Kleene)
  - alternative functional programming basis



# Turing machines

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## **Church-Turing Thesis:**

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

## **Evidence**

- Huge numbers of models based on radically different ideas turned out to be equivalent to TMs
- TM can simulate the physics of any machine that we could build (even quantum computers)

# Turing machines

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- **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

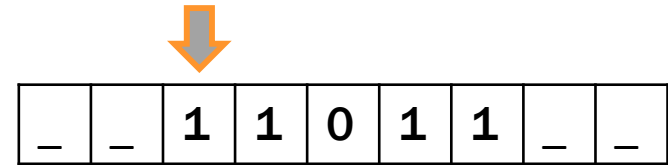
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- **Recording medium**
  - An infinite read/write “tape” marked off into cells
  - Each cell can store one symbol or be “blank”
  - Tape is initially all blank except a few cells of the tape containing the input string
  - Read/write head can scan 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

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	-	0	1
$s_1$	(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

# Turing machines

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## **Ideal Java/C programs:**

- Just like the Java/C you're used to programming with, except you never run out of memory
  - no `OutOfMemoryError`

## **Equivalent to Turing machines but 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

# Turing's big idea part 1: Machines as data

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## 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, but this was a new idea in Turing's time.

# Turing's big idea part 2: A Universal TM

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- A Turing machine interpreter **U**
  - On input  $\langle M \rangle$  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

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- **You can't rely on the idea of improved compilers and programming languages to eliminate all 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!

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

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- **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

# More Complexity Theory

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Not just what can be computed at all...

How about what can be computed *efficiently*?

A rich, interesting, and important topic.

See CSE 431 for much more on that!

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