## Pre-lecture brain teaser

What do each of the reductions prove?

- 1. u v shortest path  $\leq_P$  All pairs shortest path  $\leq_G$ ,  $u, v > \longrightarrow \qquad \leq_G$ ?
- 2.  $\underline{SAT} \leq_P \underline{Longest path}^1$  $(NP-C) \longrightarrow (NP-Hard)$
- Shortest path ≤<sub>P</sub> SAT <sup>2</sup>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Given a graph G = (V, E) and integer k, is there a simple path that uses at least k vertices.

<sup>2</sup>http://www.aloul.net/Papers/faloul\_iceee06.pdf.

# ECE-374-B: Lecture 22 - Decidability I

Instructor: Abhishek Kumar Umrawal

April 16, 2024

University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign

### Pre-lecture brain teaser

What do each of the reductions prove?

1. u - v shortest path  $\leq_P$  All pairs shortest path

2. SAT  $\leq_P$  Longest path <sup>3</sup>

3. Shortest path  $\leq_P$  SAT <sup>4</sup>

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# Cantor's diagonalization argument

## **Diagonalization Intro**

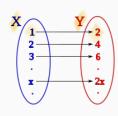
Published in 1891 by George Cantor, is a proof that sought to answer the following question.

Are all infinite sets  $(\mathbb{N}, \mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C})$  the same size?

# **Diagonalization Intro**

Published in 1891 by George Cantor, is a proof that sought to answer the following question.

Are all infinite sets  $(\mathbb{N}, \mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C})$  the same size?



First we need an anchor point  $(\mathbb{N})$ . Let's say the set of natural numbers has a particular size  $\aleph_0$ .

#### Countable Sets I

We say the set N is countable because you can <u>list out</u> all it's <u>elements systematically</u>, i.e., <u>enumerate them</u>.

$$1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, \dots$$
 (1)

If: 
$$f: S \rightarrow IN$$

1:1 wap

3 is countable.

#### Countable Sets I

We say the set  $\mathbb N$  is countable because you can list out all it's elements systematically, i.e., enumerate them.

$$1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, \dots$$
 (1)

Set of integers is also countable.

 $\mathbb{Z}$ 

 $f: \mathbb{Z} \longrightarrow \mathbb{N}$ 

1:1 made

Can you obtain such an f? YES!

Z: All positive and vegative integers and zero

## Countable Sets II

Set of <u>rational numbers</u> is also <u>countable</u>.

$$IN = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, ...$$
  $Q =$ 

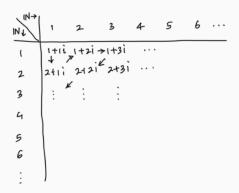
	ı							
111	1	2	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>		
1	$\frac{1}{1}$	$\frac{1}{2}$ -	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	1/5	$\frac{1}{6}$		
2	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{2}{2}$	$\frac{2}{3}$	<u>2</u> 4	<u>2</u> 5	$\frac{2}{6}$		
3	31	$\frac{3}{2}$	3/3	<u>3</u>	<u>3</u>	$\frac{3}{6}$		
<u>4</u>	$\frac{4}{1}$	$\frac{4}{2}$	<del>4</del> <del>3</del>	44	$\frac{4}{5}$	$\frac{4}{6}$		
5	<u>5</u>	<u>5</u> 2	<u>5</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>5</u>		
6	<u>6</u>	<u>6</u> 2	<u>6</u> 3	<u>6</u> 4	<u>6</u> 5	6	•••	
:	<i>:</i>	:	;	: :	;	:		

Focus on ordering numbers based on the diagonals.

## Countable Sets III

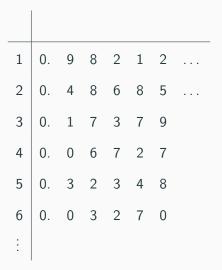
Is the set of complex integers countable?





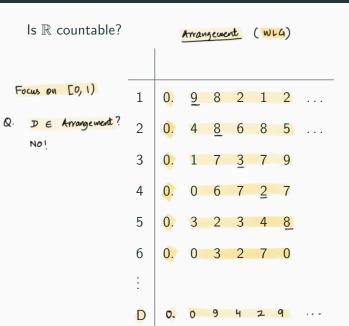
## Countable Sets IV

#### Is $\mathbb{R}$ countable?



7

## Countable Sets IV



## You can not count the real numbers II

$$I = (0,1), \mathbb{N} = \{1,2,3,\ldots\}.$$
 (RIY)

## Claim (Cantor)

 $|\mathbb{N}| \neq |\hat{I}|$ , where I = (0, 1).

#### Proof.

Assume that  $|\mathbb{N}| = |I|$ . Then there exists a one-to-one mapping  $f : \mathbb{N} \to I$ . Let  $\beta_i$  be the  $i^{th}$  digit of  $f(i) \in (0,1)$ .

 $d_i = \text{ any number in } \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9\} \setminus \{d_{i-1}, \beta_i\}$ 

 $D = 0.d_1d_2d_3... \in (0,1).$ 

D is a well defined unique number in (0,1),

But there is no j such that f(j) = D. A contradiction.

## "Most General" computer?

- DFAs are simple model of computation.
- Accept only the regular languages.
- Is there a kind of <u>computer</u> that can <u>accept</u> any <u>language</u>, <u>or compute any function</u>?
- Recall counting argument. Set of all languages:  $\{ \underline{L} \mid \underline{L} \subseteq \{0,1\}^* \} \text{ is countably infinite } / \text{ uncountably infinite}$
- Set of all programs:
   {P | P is a finite length computer program}:
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## "Most General" computer?

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- Set of all programs:
   {P | P is a finite length computer program}:
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- Conclusion: There are languages for which there are no programs.

How do we know that there are languages that cannot be represented by programs? Use Cantor!

How do we know that there are languages that cannot be represented by programs? Use Cantor! Recall a program can be represented by a string where:

- M is the Turing machine (program), and
- $\langle M \rangle$  is the string representation of the TM M.

Define f(i,j) = 1 if  $M_i$  accepts  $\langle M_j \rangle$ , else 0.

	$\langle M_1 \rangle$	$\langle M_2 \rangle$	$\langle M_3 \rangle$	$\langle M_4 \rangle$	$\langle M_5 \rangle$	$\langle M_6 \rangle$
$M_1$			1	1	1	1
$M_2$	1	1	0	0	0	0
$M_3$	0	0	0	1	0	0
$M_4$		1	1	0	1	1
$M_5$	1	0	0	0	1	0
$M_6$	0	1	0	1	1	0
:						

Let's define a new program as follows.

$$D = \{ \langle M \rangle | M \text{ does not accept } \langle M \rangle \}$$

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$M_1$	0	1	1	1	1	1	1
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÷							1/0
Ma	1	0	1	1	0	1	

# Recap of decidability

## Recursive vs. Recursively Enumerable

• Recursively enumerable (aka RE) languages:

$$L = \{L(M) \mid M \text{ some Turing machine}\}.$$

• Recursive / decidable languages:

$$L = \{L(M) \mid M \text{ some Turing machine that halts on all inputs}\}.$$

## Recursive vs. Recursively Enumerable

Recursively enumerable (aka RE) languages: (bad)

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- Fundamental questions:
  - What languages are RE?
  - Which are recursive?
  - What is the difference?
  - What makes a language decidable?

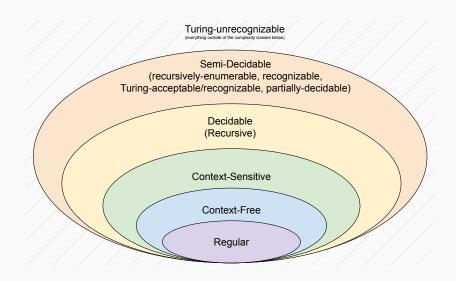
## Decidable vs recursively-enumerable

A semi-decidable problem (equivalent of recursively enumerable) could be:

- Decidable equivalent of recursive (TM always accepts or rejects).
- Undecidable Problem is not recursive (doesn't always halt on negative)

There are undecidable problems that are not semi-decidable (recursively enumerable).

# Problem (Language) Space



## **Un-/Decidable anchor**

Like in the case of NP-complete-ness, we need an anchor point to compare languages to to determine whether they are decidable (or not)!

# Introduction to the halting theorem

## The halting problem

**Halting problem:** Given a program Q, if we run it would it stop?

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 $\mathbf{Q}$ : Can one build a program P, that always stops, and solves the halting problem.

## Theorem ("Halting theorem")

There is no program that always stops and solves the halting problem.

#### **Definition**

An integer number n is a weird number if

- the sum of the proper divisors (including 1 but not itself) of n the number is > n,
- no subset of those divisors sums to the number itself.

70 is weird. Its divisors are 1, 2, 5, 7, 10, 14, 35.

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Write a program P that tries all odd numbers in order, and check if they are weird. The programs stops if it found such number.

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Write a program P that tries all odd numbers in order, and check if they are weird. The programs stops if it found such number.

If can solve halting problem  $\implies$  can resolve this open problem.

# If you can halt, you can prove or disprove anything...

- Consider any math claim *C*.
- **Prover** algorithm *P<sub>C</sub>*:
  - (A) Generate sequence of all possible proofs (sequence of strings) into a pipe/queue.

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  - (C) Feed  $\langle p \rangle$  and  $\langle C \rangle$ , into a proof verifier ("easy").
  - (D) If  $\langle p \rangle$  valid proof of  $\langle C \rangle$ , then stop and accept.
  - (E) Go to (B).
- $P_C$  halts  $\iff$  C is true and has a proof.
- If halting is decidable, then can decide if any claim in math is true.

# Turing machines...

TM = Turing machine = program.

### Reminder: Undecidability

#### **Definition**

Language  $L \subseteq \Sigma^*$  is undecidable if no program P, given  $w \in \Sigma^*$  as input, can **always stop** and output whether  $w \in L$  or  $w \notin L$ .

(Usually defined using TM not programs. But equivalent.)

# Reminder: The following language is undecidable.

Decide if given a program M, and an input w, does M accepts w. Formally, the corresponding language is

$$A_{TM} = \{ \langle M, w \rangle \mid M \text{ is a } TM \text{ and } M \text{ accepts } w \}.$$

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A <u>decider</u> for a language L, is a program (or a TM) that always stops, and outputs for any input string  $w \in \Sigma^*$  whether or not  $w \in L$ .

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Turing proved the following.

#### **Theorem**

 $A_{TM}$  is undecidable.

# The halting problem

### A<sub>TM</sub> is not TM decidable!

$$\mathbf{A}_{\textit{TM}} = \left\{ \langle M, w \rangle \; \middle| \; \textit{M} \; \text{is a } \; \textit{TM} \; \text{and} \; M \; \text{accepts} \; w \; \right\}.$$
 
$$\mathbf{Theorem} \; \textbf{(The halting theorem.)} \\ \mathbf{A}_{\textit{TM}} \; \textit{is not Turing decidable.}$$

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Theorem (The halting theorem.) A<sub>TM</sub> is not Turing decidable.

**Proof:** Assume A<sub>TM</sub> is TM decidable.

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Theorem (The halting theorem.) A<sub>TM</sub> is not Turing decidable.

**Proof:** Assume A<sub>TM</sub> is TM decidable.

**Halt**: TM deciding  $A_{TM}$ . **Halt** always halts, and works as follows.

$$\mathbf{Halt}\Big(\langle M,w\rangle\Big) = \begin{cases} \mathsf{accept} & \textit{M} \; \mathsf{accepts} \; \textit{w} \\ \mathsf{reject} & \textit{M} \; \mathsf{does} \; \mathsf{not} \; \mathsf{accept} \; \textit{w}. \end{cases}$$

We build the following new function.

```
Flipper(\langle M \rangle)

res \leftarrow Halt(\langle M, \langle M \rangle \rangle)

if res is accept then

reject

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res  $\leftarrow$  Halt( $\langle M, \langle M \rangle \rangle$ )

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Flipper always stops.

$$\mathbf{Flipper}\Big(\langle M\rangle\Big) = \begin{cases} \mathsf{reject} & \textit{M} \; \mathsf{accepts} \; \langle \textit{M}\rangle \\ \mathsf{accept} & \textit{M} \; \mathsf{does} \; \mathsf{not} \; \mathsf{accept} \; \langle \textit{M}\rangle \,. \end{cases}$$

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**Flipper** is a TM (duh!), and as such it has an encoding  $\langle$  Flipper $\rangle$ . Run Flipper on itself.

This is can't be correct.

Assumption that **Halt** exists is false.  $\implies A_{TM}$  is not TM decidable.

# Unrecognizable

### **Definition**

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Language L is  $\overline{M}$  recognizable if there exists M that stops on some inputs, such that L(M) = L.

### Theorem (Halting)

 $A_{TM} = \{ \langle M, w \rangle \mid M \text{ is a } TM \text{ and } M \text{ accepts } w \} \text{ is } TM \text{ recognizable, but not decidable.}$ 

#### Lemma

If L and  $\overline{L} = \Sigma^* \setminus L$  are both TM recognizable, then L and  $\overline{L}$  are decidable.

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### Proof.

M: TM recognizing L.

 $M_c$ : TM recognizing  $\overline{L}$ .

Given input x, using UTM simulating running M and  $M_c$  on x in parallel. One of them must stop and accept. Return result.

 $\implies$  L is decidable.

# Complement language for A<sub>TM</sub>

$$\overline{\mathrm{A}_{TM}} = \Sigma^* \setminus \left\{ \langle M, w \rangle \; \middle| \; M \; \mathrm{is a} \; TM \; \mathrm{and} \; M \; \mathrm{accepts} \; w \; \right\}.$$

# Complement language for A<sub>TM</sub>

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But don't really care about invalid inputs. So, really:

$$\overline{\mathbf{A}_{TM}} = \left\{ \langle M, w \rangle \mid M \text{ is a } TM \text{ and } M \text{ does not accept } w \right\}.$$

### Complement language for A<sub>TM</sub> is not TM-recognizable

#### Theorem

The language

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#### Proof.

A<sub>TM</sub> is TM-recognizable.

If  $\overline{A_{\textit{TM}}}$  is  $\mathsf{TM}$ -recognizable

## Complement language for A<sub>TM</sub> is not TM-recognizable

### **Theorem**

The language

$$\overline{\mathrm{A}_{\mathsf{TM}}} = \left\{ \langle M, w \rangle \; \middle| \; \textit{M is a TM and M does not accept w} \right\}.$$

is not TM recognizable.

### Proof.

 $A_{TM}$  is TM-recognizable.

If  $\overline{A_{\textit{TM}}}$  is TM-recognizable

 $\implies$  (by Lemma)

A<sub>TM</sub> is decidable. A contradiction.

# Reductions

#### Reduction

**Meta definition:** Problem X reduces to problem B, if given a solution to B, then it implies a solution for X. Namely, we can solve Y then we can solve X. We will done this by  $X \Longrightarrow Y$ .

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oracle ORAC for language L is a function that receives as a word w, returns TRUE  $\iff w \in L$ .

#### Lemma

A language X reduces to a language Y, if one can construct a TM decider for X using a given oracle  $ORAC_Y$  for Y.

We will denote this fact by  $X \implies Y$ .

• Y: Problem/language for which we want to prove undecidable.

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- L: language of Y.
- Assume *L* is decided by TM *M*.
- Create a decider for known undecidable problem  $\mathbf{X}$  using M.
- Result in decider for **X** (i.e., A<sub>TM</sub>).
- Contradiction X is not decidable.
- Thus, L must be not decidable.

## Reduction implies decidability

#### Lemma

Let X and Y be two languages, and assume that  $X \Longrightarrow Y$ . If Y is decidable then X is decidable.

#### Proof.

Let T be a decider for Y (i.e., a program or a TM). Since X reduces to Y, it follows that there is a procedure  $T_{X|Y}$  (i.e., decider) for X that uses an oracle for Y as a subroutine. We replace the calls to this oracle in  $T_{X|Y}$  by calls to T. The resulting program  $T_X$  is a decider and its language is X. Thus X is decidable (or more formally TM decidable).

## The countrapositive...

#### Lemma

Let X and Y be two languages, and assume that  $X \Longrightarrow Y$ . If X is undecidable then Y is undecidable.

# Halting

## The halting problem

Language of all pairs  $\langle M, w \rangle$  such that M halts on w:

$$A_{\mathrm{Halt}} = \left\{ \langle M, w \rangle \mid M \text{ is a } TM \text{ and } M \text{ stops on } w \right\}.$$

Similar to language already known to be undecidable:

$$A_{TM} = \{ \langle M, w \rangle \mid M \text{ is a } TM \text{ and } M \text{ accepts } w \}.$$

## On way to proving that Halting is undecidable...

#### Lemma

The language  $A_{TM}$  reduces to  $A_{Halt}$ . Namely, given an oracle for  $A_{Halt}$  one can build a decider (that uses this oracle) for  $A_{TM}$ .

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#### Proof.

Let  $ORAC_{Halt}$  be the given oracle for  $A_{Halt}$ . We build the following decider for  $A_{TM}$ .

```
AnotherDecider-A_{TM}(\langle M, w \rangle)

res \leftarrow \mathsf{ORAC}_{Halt}(\langle M, w \rangle)

// if M does not halt on w then reject.

if res = \text{reject then}

halt and reject.

// M halts on w since res = \text{accept.}

// Simulating M on w terminates in finite time.

res_2 \leftarrow \mathsf{Simulate} \ M on w.

return res_2.
```

This procedure always return and as such its a decider for  $A_{TM}$ .

## The Halting problem is not decidable

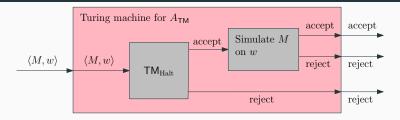
#### Theorem

The language  $A_{\rm Halt}$  is not decidable.

#### Proof.

Assume, for the sake of contradiction, that  $A_{\rm Halt}$  is decidable. As such, there is a TM, denoted by  $TM_{\rm Halt}$ , that is a decider for  $A_{\rm Halt}$ . We can use  $TM_{\rm Halt}$  as an implementation of an oracle for  $A_{\rm Halt}$ , which would imply that one can build a decider for  $A_{TM}$ . However,  $A_{TM}$  is undecidable. A contradiction. It must be that  $A_{\rm Halt}$  is undecidable.

## The same proof by figure...



... if  $A_{\rm Halt}$  is decidable, then  $A_{\slash\hspace{-0.4em}T\hspace{-0.4em}M}$  is decidable, which is impossible.

More reductions next time