

# **Languages and Machines**

L11: Decidability (Parts II and III)

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### **Outline**



Last Lecture: The Halting Problem

Universal TMs

Semidecidable and Decidable

Problem Reducibility

Rice's Theorem

Gödel's Incompleteness Theorem

# The halting problem for TMs (1/3)



Theorem

The halting problem for TMs is undecidable.

### Idea for a proof by contradiction.

1. Assume there is a TM  ${\cal H}$  that solves the halting problem.

A string is accepted by H if

- ▶ the input consists of two strings, R(M) and w. R(M) is the **representation** of a TM M, and w is the input to M
- ightharpoonup the computation of M with input w halts.

Otherwise, *H* rejects the input.

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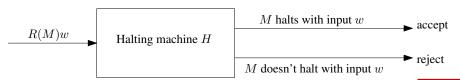
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### Graphically:



## The halting problem for TMs (2/3)

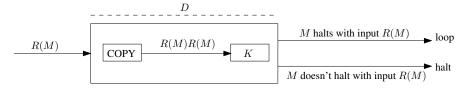


2. Modify H to build another TM, called K: the computations of K are the same as H, but K loops indefinitely whenever H terminates in an accepting state, i.e., whenever M halts on w.

# The halting problem for TMs (2/3)



- 2. Modify H to build another TM, called K: the computations of K are the same as H, but K loops indefinitely whenever H terminates in an accepting state, i.e., whenever M halts on w.
- 3. Combine K with a "copy machine" to build another TM, called D, with D(M) = K(M, M):

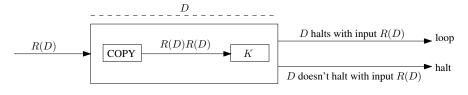


If the call D(M) terminates, then the call M(M) won't terminate

## The halting problem for TMs (3/3)



4. The input to D may be the representation of any TM, even D itself. Adapting the diagram in the previous slide:



Thus, D(D) terminates iff D(D) doesn't terminate.

A contradiction, derived from the assumption that there is a machine  ${\cal H}$  that solves the halting problem.

## **Some Terminology**



Recall: A TM is **always terminating** (or **total**) if it halts on (accepts or rejects) all inputs

A language (set of strings) L is

- recursive
  - if L = L(M) for some always terminating TM M
- recursively enumerable (r.e.) if L = L(M) for some TM M

Alternatively, let P be a **property** of strings.

- P is decidable
   if the set of all strings having P is recursive: there is a total TM
   that
   accepts strings that have P and rejects those that don't
- P is semi-decidable
   if the set of strings having P is r.e.: there is a TM that accepts x if x has P and rejects or loops if not

### **Outline**



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#### **Universal TMs**

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### The Universal TM



- A Universal TM can read representations for TMs and their inputs, and simulate running a TM on its input
- TM0: a very simple class of TMs with acceptance by termination and bits as input alphabet
- Given M, we write R(M) to denote its representation
- M terminates on input w iff the UTM terminates on input R(M)w
- We need to define/establish R and UTM

### From M to R(M)



- Define a **numbering function** n that maps each state q into a positive integer n(q)
- Define numbering functions also for symbols in the tape alphabet and directions L and R
- Mappings may clash, as in  $n(q_0) = 1$ , n(0) = 1, and n(L) = 1.

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- Mappings may clash, as in  $n(q_0) = 1$ , n(0) = 1, and n(L) = 1.
- Let  $1^k = \underbrace{1 \ 1 \cdots 1}_{k \text{ times}}$ . A transition  $\delta(q,X) = [r,Y,d]$ :

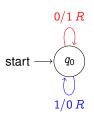
$$001^{n(q)}01^{n(X)}01^{n(r)}01^{n(Y)}01^{n(d)}$$

- Given M, its representation R(M) corresponds to a sequence of encoded transitions, followed by '000'.
- Given an input alphabet of bits, R(M)w corresponds to the regular expression

$$(0(01^+)^5)^* 000 (0|1)^*$$

## From M to R(M): Example





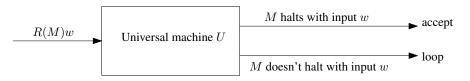
Encoding states, tape alphabet, directions:

$$n(q_0) = 1$$
  $n(0) = 1$ ,  $n(1) = 2$ ,  $n(B) = 3$   $n(L) = 1$ ,  $n(R) = 2$ 

• R(M):

### A Universal TM





### Turing's **Halting language**:

$$L_H = \{R(M)w \mid R(M) \text{ represents a TM } M \text{ and } M \text{ halts with input } w\}$$

### Theorem

 $L_H$  is recursively enumerable.

### Proof (Sketch).

It is possible to give a deterministic, three-tape machine U that accepts  $L_H$ , simulating the transitions of M—see next.

### **Running the UTM**



A deterministic, 3-tape TM simulating TMs with a binary alphabet:

- 1. Check the format of the input; enter into an infinite loop if invalid.
- 2. Move input to tape 2
- 3. Write 1 on tape 3 state 1 should always be the start state
- 4. Simulate the machine by repeating the following:
  - i. Find a transition based on
    - the state (tape 3) and
    - the current symbol (tape 2)
  - ii. If no transition is found, terminate
  - iii. Otherwise, if a transition is found: change the state (tape 3), change the symbol (tape 2), and move the head (tape 2).

The reader explains how to handle a non-binary alphabet; this requires a fourth tape.

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### **Decidable** $\neq$ **Semi-decidable**



#### Recall:

- Theorem. If L is recursive (decidable) then
   L is recursively enumerable (semi-decidable).
- **Theorem**. If L is recursive, then  $\overline{L}$  is also recursive.

As already seen, the UTM terminates for input u iff  $u \in L_H$ , where  $L_H$  is Turing's halting language (which the UTM accepts precisely).

- **Theorem**. Language  $L_H$  is recursively enumerable.
- **Theorem**. Language  $\overline{L_H}$  is not recursively enumerable. Similar to the proof of undecidability of the halting problem.
- Theorem. Language  $L_H$  is not recursive. If  $L_H$  were recursive,  $\overline{L_H}$  would be recursive too (closure properties), and therefore recursively enumerable: contradiction.

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Obtaining new undecidability results from known results



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- The halting problem (call it "HALT") is not decidable
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- With the reduction, we could decide HALT if NEW was decidable
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- Reducing HALT to NEW means giving a computable (decidable) function so we can use a solution to NEW to solve HALT
- With the reduction, we could decide HALT if NEW was decidable
- But HALT is not decidable, so NEW must also be undecidable

More formally: given problems A and B, we can define a relation  $A \leq_{red} B$  ("A effectively reducible to B"):

- If  $A \leq_{red} B$  and B is decidable then A is also decidable
- If  $A \leq_{red} B$  and A is undecidable then B is also undecidable

The previous strategy: establish undecidability of NEW by formalizing HALT  $\leq_{red}$  NEW ("HALT is effectively reducible to NEW")

## Acceptance of the empty string (1/2)



The **blank tape problem**: deciding whether a TM halts when a computation is initated with a blank tape (an empty string  $\epsilon$ )

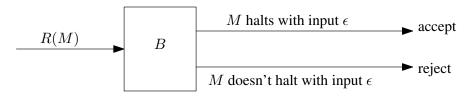
#### Theorem

The blank tape problem is undecidable.

### Idea for a proof by contradiction:

We show that HALT is reducible to the blank tape problem.

1. Assume there's a TM *B* that solves the blank tape problem:



# Acceptance of the empty string (2/2)



- 2. To reduce HALT to the blank tape problem, we add a preprocessor N to B. The preprocessor N inputs a TM M followed by input w and produces R(M'), where M' is a machine that:
  - i) Writes w on a blank tape
  - ii) Transfers control to the initial state of M
  - iii) Runs M

M' halts when run with a blank tape iff M halts with input w.

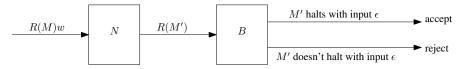
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M' halts when run with a blank tape iff M halts with input w.

### 3. Construct the composite machine



This machine solves HALT, which is undecidable. It then follows that the blank tape problem is undecidable.

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### Rice's Theorem, Intuitively



- Let's say we are interested in deciding some non trivial property of programs:
  - true of some programs but not of others
  - insensitive to the program's syntax and to its underlying algorithm
- A non trivial property talks about what a program does, rather than how it does it
- Rice's theorem says that no such properties can be decided.
   Hence, undecidability is the rule, rather than the exception

### Rice's Theorem



#### Theorem

Every non trivial property of the recursively enumerable sets is undecidable.

• A property P is a map from r.e. sets to  $\top$  (true) or  $\bot$  (false) Example: the property of emptiness is the map

$$P(A) = egin{cases} op & ext{if } A = \emptyset \ op & ext{if } A 
eq \emptyset \end{cases}$$

- We represent r.e. sets by TMs that accept them Still, we are interested in properties of r.e. sets, not of TMs
- Non trivial properties: there's at least one r.e. set that satisfies the property, and at least one that doesn't. Examples:
  - L(M) is finite / regular / CFL
  - M accepts 1010101 (i.e., 1010101  $\in L(M)$ )
- Non example: M has at least 42 states

### Rice's Theorem: Proof Sketch



- Let P be a non trivial property with P(∅) = ⊥.
   There must exist an r.e. set A such that P(A) = ⊤.
   Let K be a TM accepting A.
- We reduce the halting problem to the set  $\{M \mid P(L(M)) = \top\}$ . Given R(M)w, construct a machine M' that on input y:
  - 1. Keeps y on a separate track somewhere
  - 2. Writes w on its tape (w is "hardwired" in the control of M')
  - 3. Runs M with input w (M is also "hardwired" in the control of M')
  - 4. If M halts on w, M' runs K on y, and accepts if K accepts
- The simulation in (3) may halt or not. We then have:

$$M$$
 doesn't halt on  $w \Rightarrow L(M') = \emptyset \Rightarrow P(L(M')) = P(\emptyset) = \bot$ 
 $M$  halts on  $w \Rightarrow L(M') = A \Rightarrow P(L(M')) = P(A) = \top$ 

• This reduces the halting problem to set  $\{M \mid P(L(M)) = \top\}$ . Hence, it is undecidable whether L(M) satisfies P.

# Rice's Theorem - In the Reader (1/3)



#### Theorem

Let P be a class of languages over  $\mathbb{B}$ .

Let  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  be semi-decidable languages over  $\mathbb B$  with

 $L_1 \in P$  and  $L_2 \not\in P$  and  $L_1 \subseteq L_2$ .

Then the language  $L_P$  is not semi-decidable.

## Rice's Theorem - In the Reader (2/3)



- From 'not decidable' to 'not semi-decidable' properties  $L_1 \in P$  and  $L_2 \not\in P$  mean 'non trivial property'; together with  $L_1 \subseteq L_2$ , they mean 'non monotone property'
- Properties not as mappings but as classes of languages, i.e., sets of TMs M such that  $P(L(M)) = \top$
- Proof contradicts the following theorem: The complement of  $L_H$  (semi-decidable) is not semi-decidable (Theorem 6.4)
- Assumption: there's a TM  $M_P$  that accepts  $L_P$ . Use  $M_P$  to construct a TM K such that  $L(K) = \overline{L_H}$ .
  - Given input u = R(M)w, K executes  $M_P$  with input R(M') K accepts u iff  $M_P$  accepts R(M')
  - What is M'? M' runs machines  $M_1$  and  $M_2$  (accepters for  $L_1$  and  $L_2$ ):  $v \in L(M')$  iff  $v \in L(M_1)$  OR ( $v \in L(M_2)$  followed by  $w \in L(M)$ )
  - We have: (i)  $w \in L(M) \Rightarrow L_2 \not\in P$  and (ii)  $w \not\in L(M) \Rightarrow L_1 \in P$  and therefore that  $w \not\in L(M)$  iff  $L(M') \in P$ Assumption  $L_1 \subset L_2$  is used here.

# Rice's Theorem - In the Reader (3/3)



#### Theorem

Let P be a class of languages over  $\mathbb{B}$ . Let  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  be semi-decidable languages over  $\mathbb{B}$  with  $L_1 \in P$  and  $L_2 \notin P$  and  $L_1 \subseteq L_2$ . Then the language  $L_P$  is not semi-decidable.

### Proof (Sketch).

Recall  $L_P = \{R(M_i) \mid M_i \in TM0 : L(M_i) \in P\}$ . Based on the previous constructions (K and M/M'), we have the following:

$$egin{aligned} R(M)w \in L(K) &\equiv R(M') \in L(M_P) & [K ext{ executes } M_P ext{ on } R(M')] \ &\equiv R(M') \in L_P & [ ext{assumption on } M_P] \ &\equiv L(M') \in P & [ ext{definition of } L_P] \ &\equiv w 
otin L(M') & [w 
otin L(M) ext{ iff } 
otin L(M') \in P] \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,  $L(K) = \overline{L_H}$ , and so  $\overline{L_H}$  is semi-decidable. This contradicts Thm 6.4: hence,  $L_P$  is not semi-decidable.

## Try it yourselves



#### Theorem

Let L be the language:  $\{R(M) | L(M) \text{ is not regular}\}.$ Then L is not semi-decidable (i.e., recursively enumerable).

You may reuse the previous theorem:

### Theorem

Let P be a class of languages over  $\mathbb{B}$ . Let  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  be semi-decidable languages over  $\mathbb{B}$  with  $L_1 \in P$  and  $L_2 \notin P$  and  $L_1 \subseteq L_2$ . Then the language  $L_P$  is not semi-decidable.

### Try it yourselves



#### Theorem

Let L be the language:  $\{R(M) | L(M) \text{ is not regular}\}.$ Then L is not semi-decidable (i.e., recursively enumerable).

### Hints:

- The property P in this case concerns "non regularity"
- We can use the previous theorem by finding L<sub>1</sub> and L<sub>2</sub> such that:
  - $L_1 \in P$  (i.e., a language that is not regular);
  - $L_2 \not\in P$  (i.e., a language that is regular);
  - $L_1 \subseteq L_2$ .

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## Gödel's Incompleteness Theorem



- A proof system is sound if all theorems are true, i.e., it is not possible to prove a false sentence
- A proof system is complete if all true sentences are theorems of the system

**Gödel's Result:** No reasonable formal system for number theory is complete—can prove all true sentences

### In the following:

- The language of number theory
- Peano arithmetic (a proof system for number theory)
- Sketch of Gödel's proof

# The language of number theory



A language for expressing properties of the naturals  $\mathbb{N} = \{0, 1, \ldots\}$ .

- variables  $x, y, z, \ldots$  ranging over  $\mathbb{N}$
- operator symbols + and ·, and
- constant symbols 0 and 1 (identities for + and ⋅)
- relation symbol = (symbols such as <,  $\le$ , >,  $\ge$  are definable)
- quantifiers  $\forall$ ,  $\exists$ , and propositional operators  $\lor$ ,  $\land$ ,  $\neg$ ,  $\Rightarrow$ , etc.
- parentheses

The language can define concepts such as "y divides x", "x is odd", and bit-manipulation formulas (cf. TM encodings)

A formula without free (unquantified) variables is called a sentence. Sentences have a well-defined truth value.

Th( $\mathbb{N}$ ): the set of all true sentences. The decision problem for number theory is to decide whether a sentence is in Th( $\mathbb{N}$ ).

# Peano Arithmetic (PA)



A proof system for number theory.

Consists of axioms (basic assumptions) + rules of inference (applied mechanically to derive theorems from the axioms)

Write  $\varphi(x)$  to denote a formula with free variable x

- Axioms from first-order logic (propositional formulas, quantifiers, equality) but also from number theory (successor, identities, induction axiom)
- Inference rules:

$$rac{arphi \quad arphi \Rightarrow \psi}{\psi} \qquad rac{arphi}{orall x \, arphi}$$

A proof of  $\varphi_n$  is a sequence  $\varphi_0, \ldots, \varphi_n$  of formulas s.t. each  $\varphi_i$  either is an axiom or follows from earlier formulas by an inference rule. A sentence is a theorem if it has a proof.

PA is sound: the set of theorems of PA is a subset of  $Th(\mathbb{N})$ . Gödel's remarkable result is that PA is not complete.

### **Incompleteness Theorem**



Gödel proved incompleteness by constructing a sentence of number theory  $\varphi$  that asserts its own unprovability:

 $\varphi$  is true  $\iff \varphi$  is not provable

The construction of  $\varphi$  is interesting, as it captures self-reference as present in TMs and programming languages.

# **Incompleteness Theorem - Proof Sketch**



A proof approach due to Turing: In a proof system such as PA one can show that

- 1. The set of theorems (provable sentences) is r.e., but
- 2. The set of true sentences  $Th(\mathbb{N})$  is not r.e.

Therefore, the two sets cannot be equal, and the proof system cannot be complete.

It is relatively easy to show (1), but proving (2) is much harder.

### $\mathsf{Th}(\mathbb{N})$ is not r.e - Proof Sketch



### A reduction from $\overline{L_H}$ to Th( $\mathbb{N}$ ).

- Given R(M)w, we produce a sentence  $\gamma$  in the language of number theory such that  $R(M)w \in \overline{L_H} \iff \gamma \in \mathsf{Th}(\mathbb{N})$ . Thus, M doesn't halt on  $w \iff \gamma$  is true.
- Intuitively,  $\gamma$  uses number theory to say "M doesn't halt on w".
- Construct a formula VALCOMP $_{M,w}(y)$  that says that y represents a valid computation history of M on input w.
- Hence, VALCOMP $_{M,w}(y)$  says that y represents a sequence of configurations of M, written  $\alpha_0, \ldots, \alpha_N$ , such that  $\alpha_0$  is the start configuration (with w) and  $\alpha_N$  is a halt configuration.
- The desired formula is then  $\gamma = \neg \exists y \, \mathsf{VALCOMP}_{M,w}(y)$ .

## **Taking Stock**



#### This lecture:

- A Universal Turing machine
- Undecidability results
- Acceptance of the empty string (the blank tape problem)
- Rice's Theorem
- Incompleteness of arithmetic

#### **Next Lecture**

- Unrestricted and Context-Sensitive Grammars/Languages
- Course Evaluation