#### Pre-lecture brain teaser

What do each of the reductions prove?

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

2. SAT  $\leq_P$  Longest-path <sup>1</sup>

3. Shortest-path  $\leq_P$  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 atleast k vertices

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

# ECE-374-B: Lecture 23 - Decidability I

Instructor: Nickvash Kani

University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign

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# Cantor's diagonalization argument

## Diagonalization Intro

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

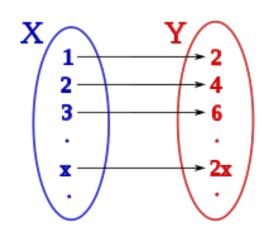
Are all infinite sets  $(\mathbb{N}, \mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C})$  the same size?

# Diagonalization Intro

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

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

Let's say a set is the same size if there is a 1-1 mapping between the two sets:



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  $\mathbb{N}$  is countable because you can list out all it's elements systematically:

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

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Set of integers is also countable

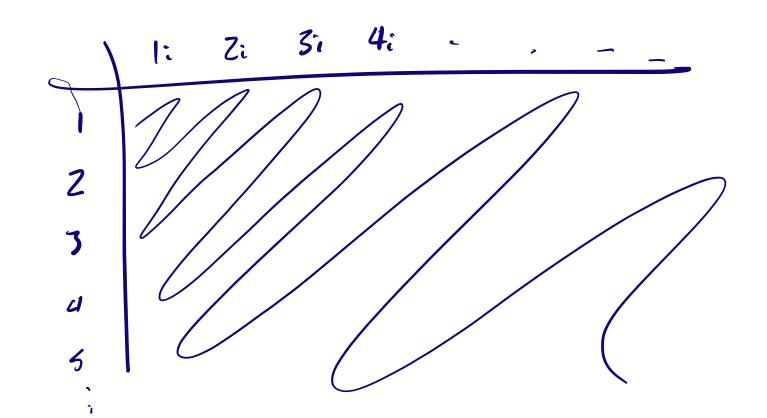
## Countable Sets II

Set of rational numbers is also countable:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	
1	1 1	<u>1</u> 2	<u>1</u> 3	<u>1</u> 4	<u>1</u> 5	<u>1</u>	
2	<u>2</u> 1	12 212 312 412 512 612	<u>2</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>2</u> 5	<u>2</u>	
3	<u>3</u> 1	<u>3</u>	3 3 4 3	<u>3</u>	<u>3</u> 5	<u>3</u>	
4	4/1	<del>4</del> <del>2</del>		<del>4</del> <del>4</del>	<u>4</u> 5	<del>4</del> 6	
5	<u>5</u> 1	<u>5</u> 2	<u>5</u>	<u>5</u> 4	<u>5</u> 5	<u>5</u>	
6	<u>6</u> 1	<u>6</u> 2	<u>6</u> 3	<u>6</u> 4	<u>6</u> 5	<u>6</u>	
•							

## Countable Sets III

Is the set of complex *integers* countable?



# Countable Sets IV

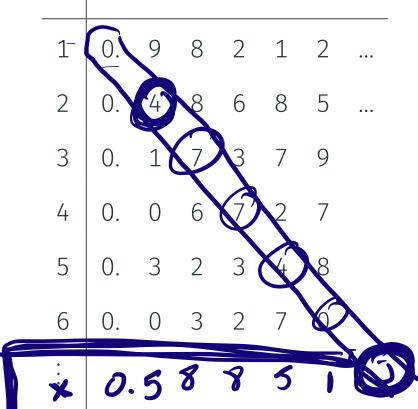


1	0.	9	8	2	1	2		
2	0.	4	8	6	8	5	•••	
3	0.	1	7	3	7	9		
4	0.	0	6	7	2	7		
5	0.	3	2	3	4	8		
6	0.	0	3	2	7	0		
•								

#### Countable Sets IV



Assume R is contrible



#### You can not count the real numbers II

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

#### Claim (Cantor)

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

#### Proof.

Write every number in (0,1) in its decimal expansion. E.g.,

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  $f(i) \in (0,1)$ .

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

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

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

But there is no 3 uch 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 computer that can accept any language, or compute any function?
- · Recall counting argument. Set of all languages:
  - $\{L \mid L \subseteq \{0,1\}^*\}$  is countably infinite / uncountably infinite
- Set of all programs:
  - {P | P is a finite length computer program}:
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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)
- · (M) s the string representation of the TM M

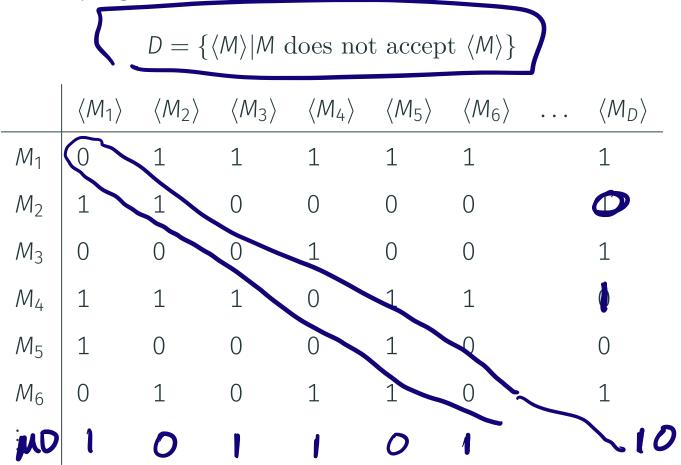
Define f(i,j) = 1 if  $M_i$  accepts  $\langle M_j \rangle$ , else 0

	$\langle M_1 \rangle$	$\langle M_2 \rangle$	$\langle M_3 \rangle$	$\langle M_4 \rangle$	$\langle M_5 \rangle$	$\langle M_6 \rangle$	• • •
$M_1$		<del></del>		1	1	1	
$M_2$	1	1	0	0	0	0	,
$M_3$	0	0	0	1	0	0	
$M_4$	1	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:

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

Let's define a new program:



# Recap of decidability

### Recursive vs. Recursively Enumerable

• Recursively enumerable (aka RE) languages

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

• <u>Recursive</u> / <u>decidable</u> languages

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

## Recursive vs. Recursively Enumerable

· Recursively enumerable (aka RE) languages (bad)

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

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

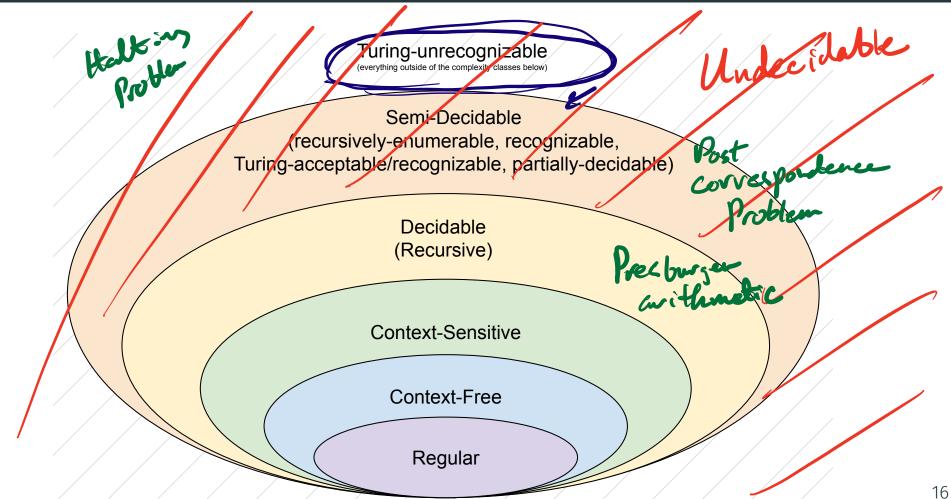
### Decidable vs recursively-enumerable

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 problem 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?

## The halting problem

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

**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 <u>weird number</u> 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. 1 + 2 + 5 + 7 + 10 + 14 + 35 = 74. No subset of them adds up to 70.

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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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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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  - (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...



### 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

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#### Definition

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  $w \in L$ .

A language that has a decider is <u>decidable</u>.

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Turing proved the following:

#### Theorem

 $A_{TM}$  is undecidable.

# The halting problem

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

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

Theorem (The halting theorem.) A<sub>TM</sub> 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...

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

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

We build the following new function:

```
Flipper(\langle M \rangle)

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

if res is accept then

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### Flipper always stops:

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

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

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

# Unrecognizable

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#### Definition

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

### Theorem (Halting)

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

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

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

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

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

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

**Theorem**The language

$$\overline{A_{TM}} = \{ \langle M, w \rangle \mid M \text{ is a TM and M does not accept } w \}.$$

is not TM recognizable.

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#### Proof.

 $A_{TM}$  is TM-recognizable.

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

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### **Theorem** The language

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is not TM recognizable.

#### Proof.

 $A_{TM}$  is TM-recognizable.

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

 $\implies$  (by Lemma)

 $A_{TM}$  is decidable. A contradiction.

# Reductions

### Reduction

**Meta definition:** Problem X <u>reduces</u> 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  $X \implies Y$ .

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#### Definition

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#### Lemma

A language X <u>reduces</u> 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  $X \implies Y$ .

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- Create a decider for known undecidable problem **X** using *M*.
- Result in decider for X (i.e.,  $A_{TM}$ ).
- · 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  $X \implies Y$ . 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  $X \implies Y$ . 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:

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

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  $A_{TM}$ .

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

#### 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 ORAC_{Halt}(\langle M, w \rangle)

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

if res = reject then

halt and reject.

// M halts on w since res = accept.

// Simulating M on w terminates in finite time.

res_2 \leftarrow 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

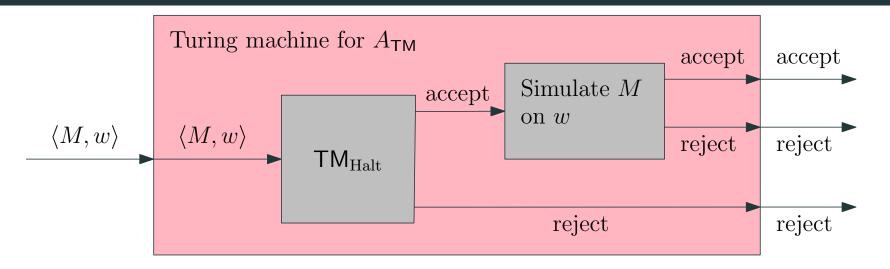
#### Theorem

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  $A_{TM}$  is decidable, which is impossible.

# More reductions next time