

Computability and the Halting Problem



CS251 Programming Languages Spring 2016, Lyn Turbak

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Key Concepts from CS235

This lecture summarizes key concepts from *CS235 Formal Languages and Automata* that are important to understand for PL design:

- Computable functions
- Uncomputable (= undecidable) functions
 - The halting problem
 - Reduction
 - Uncomputability and PL design
- The Church/Turing hypothesis
- Turing-completeness

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Computability

- A function f is computable if there is a program that takes some finite number of steps before halting and producing output $f(x)$.
- Computable: $f(x) = x + 1$, for natural numbers
 - addition algorithm
- Uncomputable (a.k.a. undecidable) functions exist!
 - We'll first prove this by a "counting argument": there are way more functions than there are programs to compute them!
 - Then we'll show a concrete example: the halting problem.

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Some Simple Sets

Bool = the booleans = {true, false}

Nat = the natural numbers = {0, 1, 2, 3 ...}

Pos = the positive integers = {1, 2, 3, 4, ...}

Int = all integers = { ..., -3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, ...}

Rat = all rational numbers (fractions, w/o duplicates)

= { ..., -3/2, -2/3, -1/3, -2/1, -1/1, 0/1,
1/1, 1/2, 2/1, 1/3, 2/3, 3/2, ...}

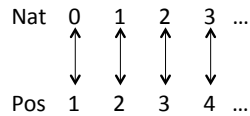
Real = all real numbers = {0, 17, -2.5, 1.736, -5.3333..., 3.141..., ...}

Irrat = all irrational numbers (cannot be expressed as fractions
= {sqrt(2) = 1.414..., pi = 3.14159..., e = 2.718..., ...}

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Nat and Pos Have the “Same Size”

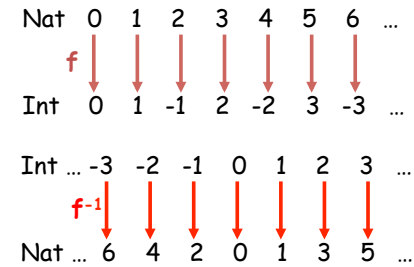
Nat \cong Pos by the pictured bijection



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Nat and Int Have the Same Size!

Nat \cong Int by the pictured bijection



This is an example of **proof by construction**.

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Countable and Uncountable Sets

A set S is

- **finite** iff $S \cong \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ for some n.
- **infinite** iff S is not finite.
- **countably infinite** iff $S \cong \text{Nat}$.
- **countable** iff S is finite or countably infinite.
I.e., there is a procedure for enumerating all the elements of S.
- **uncountable** iff S is not countable

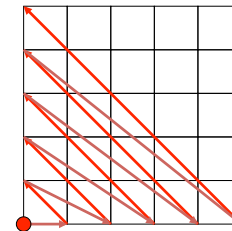
We've seen that Bool, Nat, and Int are countable.

Now we'll see that (1) Rat is countable and
(2) Real and Irrat are uncountable

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Rat is Countable

Key idea: can enumerate Nat x Nat as follows:



Mopping up:

- Need to eliminate duplicates, e.g., $1/2 = 2/4$
- Need to handle negative rational (as in showing Int countable).

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Real is Uncountable: Diagonalization

Key idea: use a special form of **proof by contradiction** known as **diagonalization**.

Assume that $[0,1) \subseteq \text{Real}$ is countable and derive a contradiction.

If $[0,1)$ is countable, there must be a bijection $f \in \text{Nat} \rightarrow [0,1)$ that enumerates all real numbers between 0 (inclusive) and 1 (exclusive). I.e., if $r \in [0,1)$, then there is an $n \in \text{Nat}$ s.t. $f(n) = r$.

If this is so, we can construct a table of f whose rows are $f(n)$ and whose columns show the digits after the decimal point for each number.

f(0)	1	4	1	5	
f(1)	7	3	8	2	
f(2)	5	4	9	6	...
f(3)	8	2	7	3	
					⋮

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Real Diagonalization Continued

f(0)	1	4	1	5	
f(1)	7	3	8	2	
f(2)	5	4	9	6	...
f(3)	8	2	7	3	
					⋮

Focus on the diagonal table entries, and construct a number whose decimal representation differs from every position in the diagonal*. E.g., **.2786 ...**

Any such number is **not** a row in the table and so is not in the image of f . Thus, the assumption that f is a bijection is wrong! **X proof by contradiction**

Indeed, it's **way** wrong. The number of counterexamples we can construct is a **way bigger infinity** (an **uncountable** infinity) than the rows in the table.

Diagonalization is the heart of the halting theorem proof we'll see soon.

* For technical reasons, should not use 0 or 9 in the constructed number.

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Irrat is Uncountable

Real = Rat U Irrat.

We know Rat is countable.

Assume Irrat is countable. Then Real would be countable.

But we know Real is uncountable. Thus, the assumption that Irrat is countable is wrong. **X proof by contradiction.**

Conclusion: Irrat is uncountable.

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Alphabets, Strings, and Languages

An **alphabet** is a set of symbols.

E.g.: $\Sigma_1 = \{0,1\}$; $\Sigma_2 = \{-,0,+\}$ $\Sigma_3 = \{a,b, \dots, y, z\}$; $\Sigma_4 = \{\odot, \Rightarrow, \boxed{a}, \boxed{aa}\}$

A **string over Σ** is a sequence of symbols from Σ .

The empty string is often written ϵ .

Σ^* denotes all strings over Σ . E.g.:

- Σ_1^* contains $\epsilon, 0, 1, 00, 01, 10, 11, 000, \dots$
- Σ_2^* contains $\epsilon, -, 0, +, --, -0, -+, 0-, 00, 0+, +-, +0, ++, ---, \dots$
- Σ_3^* contains $\epsilon, a, b, \dots, aa, ab, \dots, bar, baz, foo, wellesley, \dots$
- Σ_4^* contains $\epsilon, \odot, \Rightarrow, \boxed{a}, \boxed{aa}, \dots, \boxed{a}\Rightarrow\odot, \dots, \boxed{a}\boxed{aa}, \boxed{aa}\boxed{a}, \dots$

A **language over Σ** is any subset of Σ^* .

I.e., it's a set of strings over Σ . E.g.:

- L_1 over Σ_1 is all sequences of 1s and all sequences of 10s.
- L_2 over Σ_2 is all strings with equal numbers of -, 0, and +.
- L_3 over Σ_3 is all lowercase words in the OED.
- L_4 over Σ_4 is $\{\odot, \odot \Rightarrow \odot, \boxed{a}\boxed{aa}\}$.

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Programs in any PL are countable!

- For any finite alphabet Σ , the language Σ^* of all strings over Σ is countable.
 - Why? We can enumerate all the strings in order by length and eventually get to any given string.
- Any language over a finite alphabet Σ is countable, because subsets of countable sets are countable.
- For any programming language L (e.g., Python, Java, etc.), the valid programs in L are countable!

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Predicates on Nat

A predicate on Nat is any function that takes a natural number as an input and returns T (true) or F (false) as an output.

Mathematically, we can represent such functions as input/output pairs. For example:

- $\text{leqTwo} = \{ (0, T), (1, T), (2, T), (3, F), (4, F), (5, F), (6, F), (7, F), \dots \}$
- $\text{isEven} = \{ (0, T), (1, F), (2, T), (3, F), (4, T), (5, F), (6, T), (7, F), \dots \}$
- $\text{isPrime} = \{ (0, F), (1, F), (2, T), (3, T), (4, F), (5, T), (6, F), (7, T), \dots \}$
- $\text{isNat} = \{ (0, T), (1, T), (2, T), (3, T), (4, T), (5, T), (6, T), (7, T), \dots \}$

Define $\text{NatPred} =$ the set of all predicates on Nat

$= \{ \text{leqThree}, \text{isEven}, \text{isPrime}, \text{isNat}, \dots \}$

Important! Mathematical functions like elements of NatPred are not programs! You **must** understand this, or else all the following slides won't make sense.

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NatPred is Uncountable!

Assume there's a bijection $f : \text{Nat} \rightarrow \text{NatPred}$. E.g.

$f(0) = \text{leqTwo}$

$f(1) = \text{isEven}$

$f(2) = \text{isPrime}$

$f(3) = \text{isNat}$

...

Now make a diagonalization argument:

	0	1	2	3
f(0)	T	T	T	F
f(1)	T	F	T	F
f(2)	F	F	T	T
f(3)	T	T	T	T

...

The Nat predicate $\{ (0,F), (1,T), (2,F), (3,F), \dots \}$ that negates every element on the diagonal is not $f(i)$ for any i in Nat.

By diagonalization, NatPred is uncountable!

⋮

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Uncomputable Functions: Summary So Far

NatPred is uncountable.

Programs in any PL are countable. So they can't possibly express all the predicates in NatPred .

As with Reals, the uncountable infinity of NatPred is **way bigger** than the countable infinity of ProgramsInPython . From the probability perspective, 0% of predicates in NatPred can be written in Python! (We can clearly write lots of them, but that number is infinitesimally small compared to what we *want* to write!)

Depressing conclusion: we can't even express the vast majority of predicates in NatPred in Python, Java, etc., so clearly we can't express the vast majority of other mathematical functions!

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Do we care in practice?

Could it be that we don't care about the mathematical functions that we can't express with programs? Maybe they don't matter ...

Amazingly (and sadly) we can describe particular mathematical functions related to PLs that we care **a lot** about that are uncomputable.

The most famous example is the **halting problem**. It has to do with analyzing programs that might not halt (e.g., they loop forever on some inputs).

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Programs that loop vs. take a long time

How do we distinguish programs that run a long time from ones that loop?

E.g. $3x+1$ problem:

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 3x + 1, & \text{if } x \text{ is odd} \\ x/2, & \text{if } x \text{ is even} \end{cases}$$

Problem: for all n , is there some i such that $f^i(n) = 1$? I.e., is it the case that iterating f at a starting point never loops?

No one knows! This is an open problem!

You might *think* you can tell when a Python program will loop, but this example shows that you're wrong!

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Halting Problem

$HALT(P,x)$: Does program P halt when run on input x ? (For simplicity, assume P and x are strings, and P is a program in your favorite PL.)

I.e., on input x , does P terminate after a finite number of steps and return a result

$HALT$ is a mathematical function that is provably uncomputable.

Why do we care?

- Canonical undecidable problem.
- **BIG** implications for what we can and cannot decide about programs.

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Hand-wavy intuition

- Run P on x for 100 steps. Did it halt?
- Run P on x for 1000 steps. Did it halt?
- ...
- P on x could always run at least one step longer than we check ...

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Proof: Halting Problem is Uncomputable

Proof by contradiction using diagonalization.

- Suppose $\text{HaltImpl}(P,x)$ is an implementation of *HALT* in your favorite PL.
 - halts on all inputs and returns true if running program P on input x will halt and false if it will not.
- Define $\text{Sly}(P)$ in your favorite PL as the following program:
 - Run $\text{HaltImpl}(P,P)$. This will always halt and return a result.
 - If the result is true, loop forever, otherwise halt.
- So...
 - $\text{Sly}(P)$ will run forever if $P(P)$ would halt and
 - $\text{Sly}(P)$ will halt if $P(P)$ would run forever.
 - (Not actually running $P(P)$, just asking what it *would do if run.*)
- Run $\text{Sly}(\text{Sly})$.
 - It first runs $\text{HaltImpl}(\text{Sly},\text{Sly})$, which halts and returns a result.
 - If the result is true, it now loops forever, otherwise it halts.
- So...
 - If $\text{Sly}(\text{Sly})$ halts, $\text{HaltImpl}(\text{Sly},\text{Sly})$ told us that $\text{Sly}(\text{Sly})$ would run forever.
 - If $\text{Sly}(\text{Sly})$ runs forever, $\text{HaltImpl}(\text{Sly},\text{Sly})$ told us that $\text{Sly}(\text{Sly})$ would halt.
- **Contradiction! No implementation HaltImpl of the *HALT* function can exist!**

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In PL, Uncomputable = Interesting

As a consequence of what is known as **Rice's theorem** (see CS235), most interesting questions about programs are uncomputable = undecidable. For example:

Will this program ever:

- encounter an array index out of bounds error?
- throw a `NullPointerException`?
- access a given object again?
- send sensitive information over the network?
- divide by 0?
- run out of memory, starting with a given amount available?
- try to treat an integer as an array?

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Proving Undecidability

There are two approaches for showing that a problem is uncomputable = undecidable.

1. Use **diagonalization** argument like that for *HALT*. This is cumbersome.
2. Transform an existing undecidable language to L via a technique called **reduction**. Much easier in practice:
 - To prove a problem P is undecidable, *reduce* a known undecidable problem Q to it:
 - Assume $\text{Decide}P$ decides the problem P .
 - Show how to translate an instance of Q to an instance of P , so $\text{Decide}P$ decides Q .
(translation must halt)
 - Contradiction.
 - Q is typically the halting problem.

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Reduction or The Blue Elephant Gun

Q: How do you shoot a blue elephant?

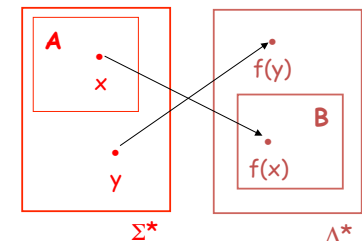
A: With a blue elephant gun, of course!

Q: How do you shoot a white elephant?

A: Hold its trunk until it turns blue, and then shoot it with a blue elephant gun!

A (many-to-one) **reduction of A to B** is a function $f: \Sigma^* \rightarrow \Delta^*$ such that x in A iff $f(x)$ in B .

f must be computable by a terminating program.



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How To Use Reduction

In proofs by construction:

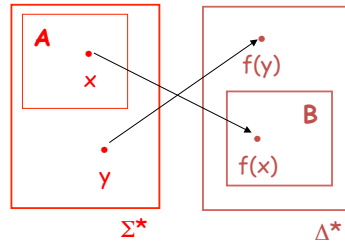
Given a B that is known to be solvable, use it to solve A.

E.g. A = sorting the lines of a file
B = sorting the elts of an array.

In proofs by contradiction:

Given an A that is known to be unsolvable, show that if B existed, it could be used to solve A. So B must be unsolvable too!

E.g. A = HALT
B = The problem you're trying to show is unsolvable.



Reduction

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Example: $\text{HALT_ANY}(Q)$ is Undecidable

- $\text{HALT_ANY}(Q)$:
 - does an input exist on which program Q halts?
- Suppose that $\text{HALT_ANY}(Q)$ is decidable
- Solve $\text{HALT}(P, x)$ with $\text{HALT_ANY}(Q)$:
 - Build a new program R that ignores its input and runs P(x).
 - $\text{HALT_ANY}(R)$ returns true if and only if P halts on x.
 - R(...) always does same thing, so if one halts, all do.
- Contradiction!

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In practice: must be conservative

Programs that take programs as inputs typically can't answer "yes" or "no", Instead, they must answer "yes", "no", or "I give up. Not sure."

For example:

- type systems
- garbage collection
- program analysis

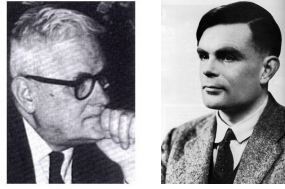
2-27

Early Theory of Computation

- In the 1920s – 1940s, before the advent of modern computing machines, mathematicians were wrestling with the notion of **effective computation**: formalisms for expressing algorithms.
- Many formalisms evolved:
 - Turing Machines (Turing); **CS235!**
 - Lambda-calculus (Church, Kleene); **CS251!**
 - combinatory logic (Schönfinkel, Curry);
 - Post systems (Post);
 - m-recursive functions (Gödel, Herbrand).
- All of these formalisms were proven to be equivalent to each other!

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The Church-Turing Thesis and Turing-Completeness



- **Church-Turing Thesis:** Computability is the common spirit embodied by this collection of formalisms.
- This thesis is a claim that is widely believed about the intuitive notions of **algorithm** and **effective computation**. It is not a theorem that can be proved.
- Because of their similarity to later computer hardware, Turing machines have become the gold standard for effectively computable.
- We'll see in CS251 that the lambda-calculus formalism is the foundation of modern programming languages.
- A consequence: programming languages all have the "same" computational "power" in term of what they can express. All such languages are said to be **Turing-complete**.

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Expressiveness and Power

- About:
 - ease
 - elegance
 - clarity
 - modularity
 - abstraction
 - ...
- Not about: computability
- Different problems, different languages
 - Facebook or web browser in assembly language?

A Humorous Take on Computability

"In the long run, we are all dead."
– John Maynard Keynes

```
DEFINE DOESITHALT(PROGRAM):  
{  
    RETURN TRUE;  
}
```

THE BIG PICTURE SOLUTION
TO THE HALTING PROBLEM

<http://xkcd.com/1266/>

Next time

- First case study: Lisp, Racket, and functional programming
- Clean slate approaching language.