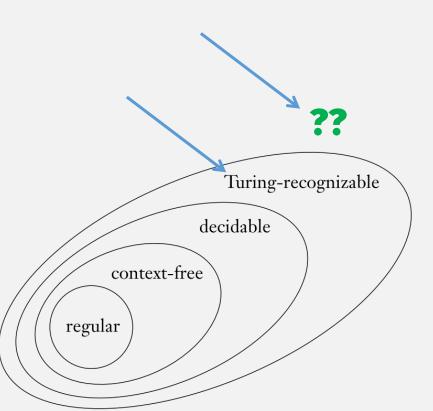
UMB CS 420 Undecidability

Monday, April 22, 2024



Announcements

- HW 9 out
 - due Wednesday 4/22 12pm noon
 - Problems 3 and 4 moved to HW 10

Lecture Participation Question

• Is the Universal Turing Machine (A_{TM}) a decider?

Language: of DFA description + string pairs, i.e., compute whether a DFA accepts a string

- $A_{\mathsf{DFA}} = \{\langle B, w \rangle | B \text{ is a DFA that accepts input string } w\}$ Decidable
- $A_{\mathsf{NFA}} = \{ \langle B, w \rangle | B \text{ is an NFA that accepts input string } w \}$ Decidable
- $A_{\mathsf{REX}} = \{\langle R, w \rangle | R \text{ is a regular expression that generates string } w \}$ Decidable
- $E_{\mathsf{DFA}} = \{\langle A \rangle | A \text{ is a DFA and } L(A) = \emptyset \}$ Compute something about DFA language, from its description Decidable
- $EQ_{\mathsf{DFA}} = \{ \langle A, B \rangle | A \text{ and } B \text{ are DFAs and } \tilde{L}(A) = L(B) \}$ Decidable
- $A_{CFG} = \{ \langle G, w \rangle | G \text{ is a CFG that generates string } w \}$
- $E_{\mathsf{CFG}} = \{ \langle G \rangle | G \text{ is a CFG and } L(G) = \emptyset \}$
- $EQ_{CFG} = \{\langle G, H \rangle | G \text{ and } H \text{ are CFGs and } L(G) = L(H) \}$

• $A_{\mathsf{TM}} = \{ \langle M, w \rangle | M \text{ is a TM and } M \text{ accepts } w \}$

- <u>compute</u> whether a TM accepts a string
- Undecidable? Undecidable?

Decidable

Decidable

<u>Thm</u>: A_{TM} is Turing-recognizable $A_{\mathsf{TM}} = \{\langle M, w \rangle | M \text{ is a TM and } M \text{ accepts } w\}$

- U ="On input $\langle M, w \rangle$, where M is a TM and w is a string:
 - **1.** Simulate M on input w. Can go into infinite loop, causing U to loop
 - 2. If M ever enters its accept state, accept; if M ever enters its reject state, reject."
 - U = Implements TM computation steps $\alpha q_1 \mathbf{a}\beta \vdash \alpha \mathbf{x}q_2\beta$
 - i.e., "The Universal Turing Machine"
 - "Program" simulating other programs (interpreter)
- Termination argument? Problem (Step 1): U loops when M loops

So it's <u>not</u> a decider. Is it **recognizer**?



Turing-recognizab

decidabl

context-free

<u>Thm</u>: A_{TM} is Turing-recognizable $A_{\mathsf{TM}} = \{\langle M, w \rangle | M \text{ is a TM and } M \text{ accepts } w\}$

Turing-recognizable

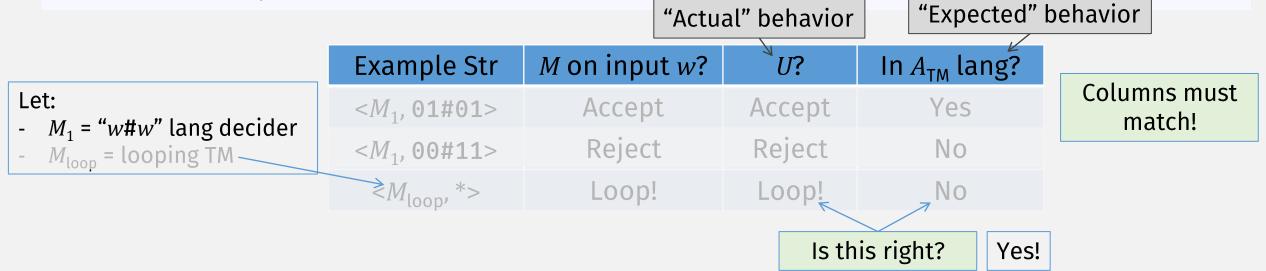
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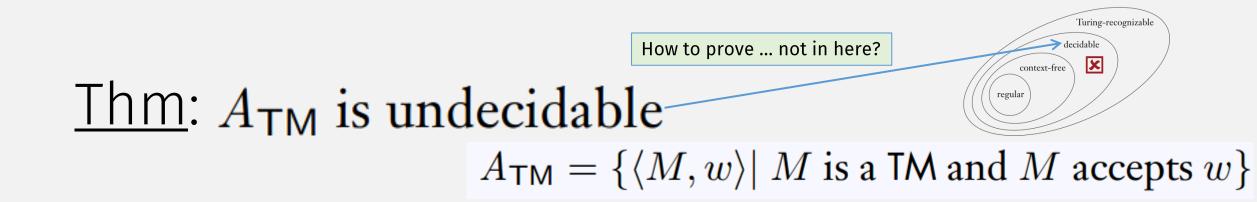
decidable

context-free

U = "On input $\langle M, w \rangle$, where M is a TM and w is a string:

- **1.** Simulate M on input w.
- 2. If *M* ever enters its accept state, *accept*; if *M* ever enters its reject state, *reject*."





• ???



<u>Prove</u>: Spider-Man does not exist ???



In general, proving something <u>not true</u> is different (and harder) than proving it <u>true</u>

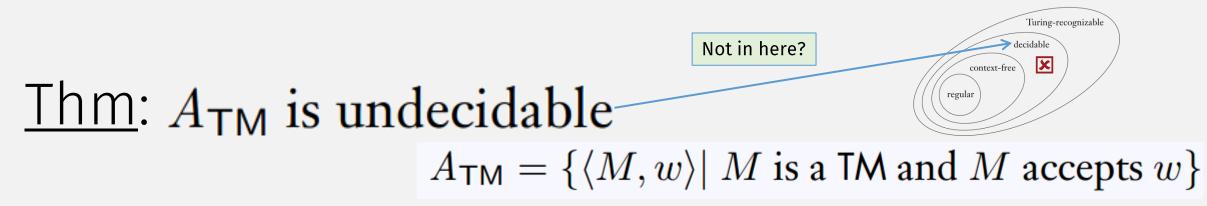
In some cases, it's possible, but typically requires <u>new</u> <u>proof techniques</u>!

<u>Example</u> (**Regular** Languages)
Prove a language is regular:

Create a DFA

Prove a language is not regular:

Proof by contradiction using Pumping Lemma



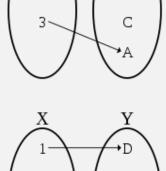


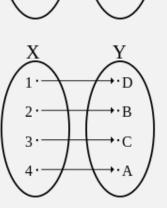
Example (decidable languages) Prove a language is decidable: - Create a decider TM (with termination argument) Prove a language is not decidable: - ????

today

Kinds of Functions (a fn maps Domain \rightarrow RANGE)

- Injective, a.k.a., "one-to-one"
 - Every element in DOMAIN has a unique mapping
 - How to remember:
 - Entire DOMAIN is mapped "in" to the RANGE
- Surjective, a.k.a., "onto"
 - Every element in RANGE is mapped to
 - How to remember:
 - "Sur" = "over" (eg, <u>sur</u>vey); Domain is mapped "over" the Range
- Bijective, a.k.a., "correspondence" or "one-to-one correspondence"
 - Is both injective and surjective
 - Unique pairing of every element in DOMAIN and RANGE





Countability

- A set is "countable" if it is:
 - Finite
 - Or, there exists a **bijection** between the set and the natural numbers
 - In this case, the set has the same size as the set of natural numbers
 - This is called "countably infinite"

- The set of:
 - Natural numbers, or
 - Even numbers?

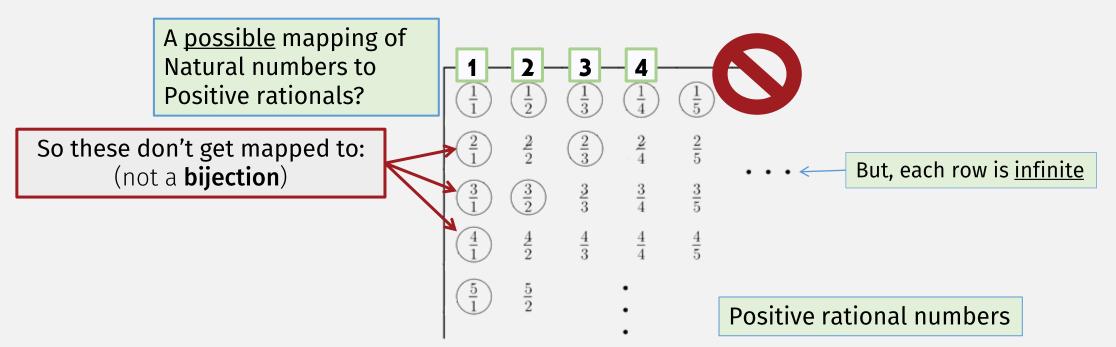
• They are the <u>same size</u>! Both are **countably infinite**

• Proof: **Bijection**:

	n	f(n) = 2n			
	1	2			
	2	4			
	3	6			
	÷	:			
Na	tural numbers	Even numbers			

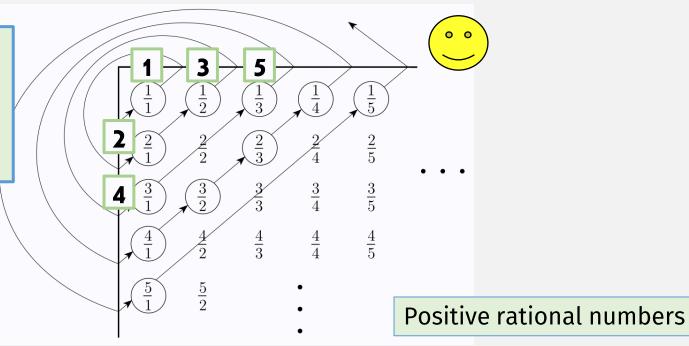
Every natural number maps to a unique even number, and vice versa

- The set of:
 - Natural numbers \mathcal{N} , or
 - Positive rational numbers? $\mathcal{Q} = \{ \frac{m}{n} | m, n \in \mathcal{N} \}$
- They are the <u>same size</u>! Both are **countably infinite**



- The set of:
 - Natural numbers \mathcal{N} , or
 - Positive rational numbers? $\mathcal{Q} = \{ \frac{m}{n} | m, n \in \mathcal{N} \}$
- They are the <u>same size</u>! Both are **countably infinite**

Another mapping: This is a bijection bc every natural number maps to a unique fraction, and vice versa



- The set of:
 - Natural numbers \mathcal{N} , or
 - Real numbers? $\,\,\mathcal{R}\,$
- There are more real numbers. It is **uncountably infinite**.

Proof, by contradiction:

• Assume: a bijection between natural and real numbers exists.

 $\rightarrow x = 0.$

This proof

technique is

called

diagonalization

f(n)

3.14159...

55.5555...

0.12345..

0.50000...

A hypothetical mapping

n

2

3

4

e.g.:

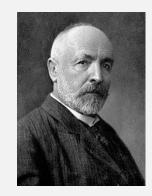
different

- So: every natural num maps to a unique real, and vice versa
- But we show that in any given mapping,
 - Some real number is <u>not mapped to</u>...
 - E.g., a number that has different digits at each position:

• This number <u>cannot</u> be in the mapping ...

... So we have a **contradiction**!

Georg Cantor



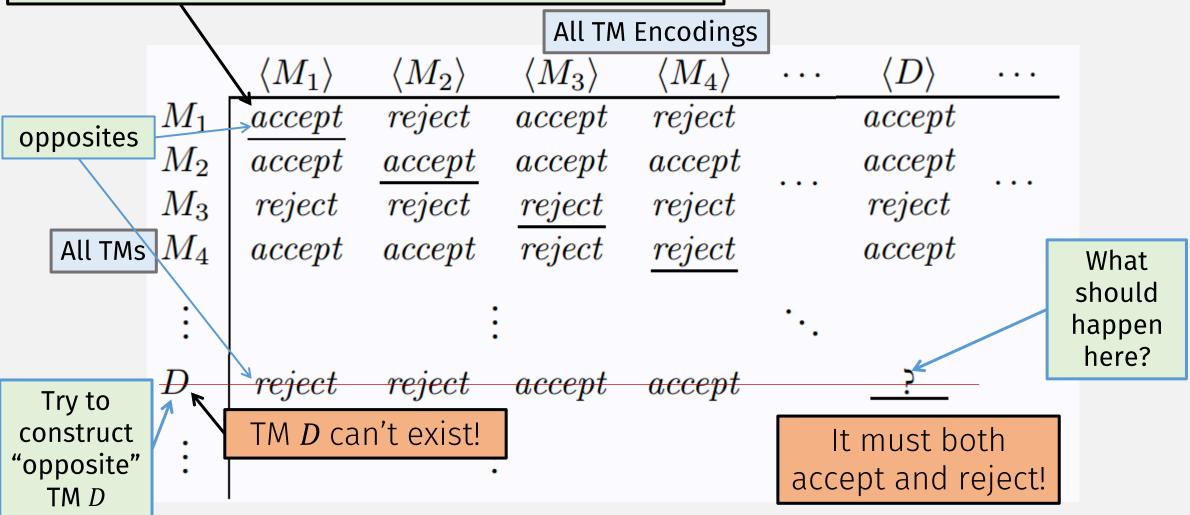
- Invented set theory
- Came up with countable infinity (1873)
- And uncountability:
 - Also: how to show uncountability with "diagonalization" technique



A formative day for Georg Cantor.

Diagonalization with Turing Machines

Diagonal: Result of Giving a TM its own Encoding as Input



<u>Thm</u>: A_{TM} is undecidable

 $A_{\mathsf{TM}} = \{ \langle M, w \rangle | M \text{ is a TM and } M_{\mathsf{Accepts}} w \}$

<u>Proof</u> by contradiction:

<u>Assume</u> A_{TM} is decidable. So there exists a decider *H* for it: 1.

$$H(\langle M, w \rangle) = \begin{cases} accept & \text{if } M \text{ accepts } w \\ reject & \text{if } M \text{ does not accept } w \end{cases}$$

2. Use *H* in another TM ... the impossible "opposite" machine:

- D ="On input $\langle M \rangle$, where M is a TM:
 - **1.** Run *H* on input $\langle M, \langle M \rangle \rangle$. *H* computes: *M*'s result with itself as input

From previous slide (does opposite of what input TM would do if given itself)

- Output the opposite of what H outputs. That is, if H accepts, 2.
 - *reject*; and if H rejects, *accept*." \leftarrow Do the opposite

<u>Thm</u>: A_{TM} is undecidable $A_{\mathsf{TM}} = \{\langle M, w \rangle | M \text{ is a TM and } M \text{ accepts } w\}$

<u>Proof</u> by contradiction: This cannot be true

<u>Assume</u> A_{TM} is decidable. So there exists a decider H for it:

$$H(\langle M, w \rangle) = \begin{cases} accept & \text{if } M \text{ accepts } w \\ reject & \text{if } M \text{ does not accept } w \end{cases}$$

- 2. Use *H* in another TM ... the impossible "opposite" machine: $D = \text{"On input } \langle M \rangle$, where *M* is a TM:
 - **1.** Run *H* on input $\langle M, \langle M \rangle \rangle$.
 - 2. Output the opposite of what *H* outputs. That is, if *H* accepts, *reject*; and if *H* rejects, *accept*."
- 3. But *D* does not exist! <u>Contradiction</u>! So the assumption is false.

Easier Undecidability Proofs

- We proved $A_{TM} = \{\langle M, w \rangle | M \text{ is a TM and } M \text{ accepts } w\}$ undecidable ...
- ... by contradiction:
 - <u>Use hypothetical A_{TM} decider to create an impossible decider "D"!</u>

reduce "*D* problem" to A_{TM}

- Step # 1: coming up with "D" --- hard!
 - Need to invent diagonalization

	$\langle M_1 \rangle$	$\langle M_2 \rangle$	$\langle M_3 \rangle$	$\langle M_4 \rangle$	•••	$\langle D \rangle$
M_1	accept	reject	accept	reject		accept
M_2	accept	accept	accept	accept		accept
M_3	reject	reject	reject	reject		reject
M_4	accept	accept	reject	reject		accept
÷			:		•••	
D	reject	reject	accept	accept		_?

- Step # 2: reduce "D" problem to A_{TM} --- <u>easier</u>!
- From now on: undecidability proofs only need step # 2!
 - And we now have two "impossible" problems to choose from

The Halting Problem

 $HALT_{\mathsf{TM}} = \{ \langle M, w \rangle | M \text{ is a TM and } M \text{ halts on input } w \}$

<u>Thm</u>: *HALT*_{TM} is undecidable

<u>Proof</u>, by **contradiction**:

reduce (from known undecidable) A_{TM} to $HALT_{TM}$

• <u>Assume:</u> $HALT_{TM}$ has decider R; use it to create decider for A_{TM} :

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

contradiction

THE HALTING PROBLEM IS EASY TO SOLVE. IF THE PROGRAM RUNS TOO LONG, I TAKE THIS STICK AND BEAT THE COMPUTER UNTIL IT STOPS.

• But *A_{TM}* is undecidable and has no decider!

What if Alan Turing had been an engineer?

The Halting Problem

 $HALT_{\mathsf{TM}} = \{ \langle M, w \rangle | M \text{ is a TM and } M \text{ halts on input } w \}$

<u>Thm</u>: $HALT_{TM}$ is undecidable

<u>Proof</u>, by **contradiction**: Using our hypothetical $HALT_{TM}$ decider R

- <u>Assume:</u> $HALT_{TM}$ has decider R; use it to create decider for A_{TM} : $A_{TM} = \{\langle M, w \rangle | M \text{ is a TM and } M \text{ accepts } w\}$
 - S = "On input $\langle M, w \rangle$, an encoding of a TM M and a string w:
 - **1.** Run TM R on input $\langle M, w \rangle$.
 - **2.** If *R* rejects, *reject*. ← This means *M* loops on input *w*
 - **3.** If *R* accepts, simulate *M* on *w* until it halts. This step always halts

4. If M has accepted, *accept*; if M has rejected, *reject*."

<u>Termination argument</u>: **Step 1**: *R* is a decider so always halts **Step 3**: *M* always halts because *R* said so

Undecidability Proof Technique #1: **Reduce** (directly) from A_{TM} (by creating A_{TM} decider)

The Halting Problem

 $HALT_{\mathsf{TM}} = \{ \langle M, w \rangle | M \text{ is a TM and } M \text{ halts on input } w \}$

<u>Thm</u>: $HALT_{TM}$ is undecidable

<u>Proof</u>, by **contradiction**:

• <u>Assume:</u> $HALT_{TM}$ has decider R; use it to create decider for A_{TM} : $A_{TM} = \{\langle M, w \rangle | M \text{ is a TM and } M \text{ accepts } w\}$

S = "On input $\langle M, w \rangle$, an encoding of a TM M and a string w:

- **1.** Run IM R on input $\langle M, w \rangle$.
- 2. If R rejects, reject.
- 3. If R accepts, simulate M on w until it halts.

4. If M has accepted, accept; if M has rejected, reject."

- But A_{TM} is undecidable! I.e., this decider does not exist!
 - So $HALT_{TM}$ is also undecidable!

Now we have <u>three</u> "impossible" deciders to choose from

Interlude: Reducing from $HALT_{TM}$

A practical thought experiment about compiler optimizations

Your compiler changes your program!

If TRUE then A else B
$$\implies$$
 A
1 + 2 + 3 \implies 6

Compiler Optimizations

Optmization - **docs**

° -00

- No optmization, faster compilation time, better for debugging builds.
- **-02**

• -03

- Higher level of optmization. Slower compiletime, better for production builds.
- -OFast
 - Enables higher level of optmization than (-03). It enables lots of flags as can be seen <u>src</u> (-ffloat-store, -ffsast-math, -ffinitemath-only, -03 ...)
- -finline-functions
- -m64
- -funroll-loops
- -fvectorize
- -fprofile-generate

Types of optimization [edit]

Techniques used in optimization can be broken up among various *scopes* which can affect anything from a single statement to the entire program. Generally speaking, locally scoped techniques are easier to implement than global ones but result in smaller gains. Some examples of scopes include:

Peephole optimizations

These are usually performed late in the compilation process after machine code has been generated. This form of optimization examines a few adjacent instructions (like "looking through a peephole" at the code) to see whether they can be replaced by a single instruction or a shorter sequence of instructions.^[2] For instance, a multiplication of a value by 2 might be more efficiently executed by left-shifting the value or by adding the value to itself (this example is also an instance of strength reduction).

Local optimizations

These only consider information local to a basic block.^[3] Since basic blocks have no control flow, these optimizations need very little analysis, saving time and reducing storage requirements, but this also means that no information is preserved across jumps. **Global optimizations**

These are also called "intraprocedural methods" and act on whole functions.^[3] This gives them more information to work with, but often makes expensive computations necessary. Worst case assumptions have to be made when function calls occur or global variables are accessed because little information about them is available.

Loop optimizations

These act on the statements which make up a loop, such as a *for* loop, for example loop-invariant code motion. Loop optimizations can have a significant impact because many programs spend a large percentage of their time inside loops.^[4]

Prescient store optimizations

These allow store operations to occur earlier than would otherwise be permitted in the context of threads and locks. The process needs some way of knowing ahead of time what value will be stored by the assignment that it should have followed. The purpose of this relaxation is to allow compiler optimization to perform certain kinds of code rearrangement that preserve the semantics of properly synchronized programs.^[5]

Interprocedural, whole-program or link-time optimization

These analyze all of a program's source code. The greater quantity of information extracted means that optimizations can be more effective compared to when they only have access to local information, i.e. within a single function. This kind of optimization can also allow new techniques to be performed. For instance, function inlining, where a call to a function is replaced by a copy of the function body.

Machine code optimization and object code optimizer

These analyze the executable task image of the program after all of an executable machine code has been linked. Some of the techniques that can be applied in a more limited scope, such as macro compression which saves space by collapsing common sequences of instructions, are more effective when the entire executable task image is available for analysis.^[6]

The Optimal Optimizing Compiler

"Full Employment" Theorem

<u>Thm</u>: The Optimal (C++) Optimizing Compiler does not exist <u>Proof</u>, by contradiction:

<u>Assume</u>: *OPT* is the Perfect Optimizing Compiler

Use it to create HALT_{TM} decider (accepts <M,w> if M halts with w, else rejects):

S = On input <M, w>, where M is C++ program and w is string:

- If OPT(M) == for(;;)
 - a) Then **Reject**
 - b) Else Accept

In computer science and mathematics, a **full employment theorem** is a term used, often humorously, to refer to a theorem which states that no algorithm can optimally perform a particular task done by some class of professionals. The name arises because such a theorem ensures that there is endless scope to keep discovering new techniques to improve the way at least some specific task is done.

For example, the *full employment theorem for compiler writers* states that there is no such thing as a provably perfect size-optimizing compiler, as such a proof for the compiler would have to detect non-terminating computations and reduce them to a one-instruction infinite loop. Thus, the existence of a provably perfect size-optimizing compiler would imply a solution to the halting problem, which cannot exist. This also implies that there may always be a better compiler since the proof that one has the best compiler cannot exist. Therefore, compiler writers will always be able to speculate that they have something to improve.

Summary: The Limits of Algorithms

- $A_{\mathsf{DFA}} = \{ \langle B, w \rangle | B \text{ is a DFA that accepts input string } w \}$
- $A_{CFG} = \{ \langle G, w \rangle | G \text{ is a CFG that generates string } w \}$
- $A_{\mathsf{TM}} = \{ \langle M, w \rangle | M \text{ is a TM and } M \text{ accepts } w \}$

Decidable Decidable

Similar

languages

Undecidable

• $HALT_{\mathsf{TM}} = \{ \langle M, w \rangle | M \text{ is a TM and } M \text{ halts on input } w \} \checkmark$

It's straightforward to use hypothetical $HALT_{TM}$ decider to create A_{TM} decider Undecidable

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Summary: The Limits of Algorithms

- $A_{\mathsf{DFA}} = \{ \langle B, w \rangle | B \text{ is a DFA that accepts input string } w \}$
- $A_{CFG} = \{ \langle G, w \rangle | G \text{ is a CFG that generates string } w \}$
- $A_{\mathsf{TM}} = \{ \langle M, w \rangle | M \text{ is a TM and } M \text{ accepts } w \}$
- $HALT_{\mathsf{TM}} = \{ \langle M, w \rangle | M \text{ is a TM and } M \text{ halts on input } w \}$
- $E_{\mathsf{DFA}} = \{ \langle A \rangle | A \text{ is a DFA and } L(A) = \emptyset \}$
- $E_{\mathsf{CFG}} = \{ \langle G \rangle | G \text{ is a CFG and } L(G) = \emptyset \}$

next • $E_{\mathsf{TM}} = \{ \langle M \rangle | M \text{ is a TM and } L(M) = \emptyset \}$

How can we use a hypothetical E_{TM} decider to create A_{TM} or $HALT_{TM}$ decider?

Not as similar

languages

Decidable Decidable Undecidable Undecidable Decidable Decidable Undecidable

Undecidability Proof Technique #2

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Reducibility: Modifying the TM

$$E_{\mathsf{TM}} = \{ \langle M \rangle | M \text{ is a TM and } L(M) = \emptyset \}$$

<u>Thm:</u> E_{TM} is undecidable <u>Proof</u>, by contradiction:

- Assume E_{TM} has decider R; use it to create decider for A_{TM} :
 - $S = "On input \langle M, w \rangle, an encoding of a TM M and a string w:$ First, construct M1
 - Run R on input $\langle M_1^{\setminus} \leftarrow$ Note: M_1 is <u>only</u> used as arg to R; <u>we never run it</u>!
 - If R accepts, reject (because it means $\langle M \rangle$ doesn't accept w
 - if *R* rejects, then *accept* ($\langle M \rangle$ accepts w
- <u>Idea</u>: Wrap $\langle M \rangle$ in a new TM that <u>can only accept w</u>: $M_1 = \text{``On input } x:$ **1.** If $x \neq w$, reject. Input not w, always reject Input is w, maybe accept **2.** If x = w, run M on input w and accept if M does." M_1 accepts w if M does

Reducibility: Modifying the TM

$$E_{\mathsf{TM}} = \{ \langle M \rangle | M \text{ is a TM and } L(M) = \emptyset \}$$

<u>Proof</u>, by **contradiction**:

<u>Thm:</u> E_{TM} is undecidable

This decider for A_{TM} cannot exist!

- Assume E_{TM} has decider R; use it to create decider for A_{TM} :
 - $S \equiv \text{"On input} \langle M, w \rangle$, an encoding of a TM M and a string w:
 - Run R on input $\langle M_1$
 - If R accepts, reject (because it means $\langle M \rangle$ doesn't accept w
 - if *R* rejects, then *accept* ($\langle M \rangle$ accepts *w*
- Idea: Wrap $\langle M \rangle$ in a new TM that can only accept w:

 $M_1 = \text{"On input } x:$ 1. If $x \neq w$, reject.
2. If x = w, run M on input w and accept if M does."

Summary: The Limits of Algorithms

- $A_{\mathsf{DFA}} = \{ \langle B, w \rangle | B \text{ is a DFA that accepts input string } w \}$
- $A_{CFG} = \{ \langle G, w \rangle | G \text{ is a CFG that generates string } w \}$
- $A_{\mathsf{TM}} = \{ \langle M, w \rangle | M \text{ is a TM and } M \text{ accepts } w \}$
- $E_{\mathsf{DFA}} = \{ \langle A \rangle | A \text{ is a DFA and } L(A) = \emptyset \}$
- $E_{\mathsf{CFG}} = \{ \langle G \rangle | G \text{ is a CFG and } L(G) = \emptyset \}$
- $E_{\mathsf{TM}} = \{ \langle M \rangle | M \text{ is a TM and } L(M) = \emptyset \}$
- $EQ_{\mathsf{DFA}} = \{ \langle A, B \rangle | A \text{ and } B \text{ are DFAs and } L(A) = L(B) \}$
- $EQ_{CFG} = \{\langle G, H \rangle | G \text{ and } H \text{ are CFGs and } L(G) = L(H) \}$

next • $EQ_{\mathsf{TM}} = \{ \langle M_1, M_2 \rangle | M_1 \text{ and } M_2 \text{ are TMs and } L(M_1) = L(M_2) \}$

Decidable Decidable Undecidable Decidable Decidable Undecidable Decidable Undecidable **Undecidable** 135

needs

Undecidability Proof Technique #3

 $E_{\mathsf{TM}} = \{ \langle M \rangle | M \text{ is a TM} \text{ and } L(M) = \emptyset \}$

<u>Reduce to something else</u>: EQ_{TM} is undecidable $EQ_{TM} = \{\langle M_1, M_2 \rangle | M_1 \text{ and } M_2 \text{ are TMs and } L(M_1) = L(M_2) \}$ <u>Proof</u>, by contradiction:

- <u>Assume:</u> EQ_{TM} has decider R; use it to create decider for A_{TM} :
- S = "On input $\langle M \rangle$, where M is a TM:"
 - **1.** Run *R* on input $\langle M, M_1 \rangle$, where M_1 is a TM that rejects all inputs.
 - 2. If R accepts, accept; if R rejects, reject."

<u>Reduce to something else</u>: EQ_{TM} is undecidable $EQ_{TM} = \{\langle M_1, M_2 \rangle | M_1 \text{ and } M_2 \text{ are TMs and } L(M_1) = L(M_2) \}$ <u>Proof</u>, by contradiction:

• <u>Assume:</u> EQ_{TM} has decider R; use it to create decider for E_{TM} :

 $S = \text{"On input } \langle M \rangle$, where M is a TM:

- **1.** Run *R* on input $\langle M, M_1 \rangle$, where M_1 is a TM that rejects all inputs.
- 2. If R accepts, accept; if R rejects, reject."
- But *E*_{TM} is undecidable!

 $= \{ \langle M \rangle | M \text{ is a TM and } L(M) = \emptyset \}$

Summary: Undecidability Proof Techniques

• Proof Technique #1: • Use hypothetical decider to implement impossible A_{TM} decider

Reduce

• Example **Proof:** $HALT_{\mathsf{TM}} = \{\langle M, w \rangle | M \text{ is a TM and } M \text{ halts on input } w\}$

• Use hypothetical decider to implement impossible A_{TM} decider

• But first modify the input M

Can also

combine these

- techniques Example Proof: $E_{\mathsf{TM}} = \{ \langle M \rangle | M \text{ is a TM and } L(M) = \emptyset \}$
 - Proof Technique #3:
 - Use hypothetical decider to implement <u>non-A_{TM}</u> impossible decider
 - Example **Proof:** $EQ_{\mathsf{TM}} = \{ \langle M_1, M_2 \rangle | M_1 \text{ and } M_2 \text{ are TMs and } L(M_1) = L(M_2) \}$

Reduce

Summary: Decidability and Undecidability

- $A_{\mathsf{DFA}} = \{ \langle B, w \rangle | B \text{ is a DFA that accepts input string } w \}$
- $A_{CFG} = \{ \langle G, w \rangle | G \text{ is a CFG that generates string } w \}$
- $A_{\mathsf{TM}} = \{ \langle M, w \rangle | M \text{ is a TM and } M \text{ accepts } w \}$
- $E_{\mathsf{DFA}} = \{ \langle A \rangle | A \text{ is a DFA and } L(A) = \emptyset \}$
- $E_{\mathsf{CFG}} = \{ \langle G \rangle | G \text{ is a CFG and } L(G) = \emptyset \}$
- $E_{\mathsf{TM}} = \{ \langle M \rangle | M \text{ is a TM and } L(M) = \emptyset \}$
- $EQ_{\mathsf{DFA}} = \{ \langle A, B \rangle | A \text{ and } B \text{ are DFAs and } L(A) = L(B) \}$
- $EQ_{CFG} = \{\langle G, H \rangle | G \text{ and } H \text{ are CFGs and } L(G) = L(H) \}$
- $EQ_{\mathsf{TM}} = \{ \langle M_1, M_2 \rangle | M_1 \text{ and } M_2 \text{ are TMs and } L(M_1) = L(M_2) \}$

Decidable Decidable Undecidable Decidable Decidable Undecidable Decidable Undecidable **Undecidable**¹³⁹

Also Undecidable ...

next • $REGULAR_{TM} = \{ <M > | M \text{ is a TM and } L(M) \text{ is a regular language} \}$

Undecidability Proof Technique #2: Modify input TM M

<u>Thm</u>: $REGULAR_{TM}$ is undecidable

 $REGULAR_{\mathsf{TM}} = \{ \langle M \rangle | M \text{ is a TM and } L(M) \text{ is a regular language} \}$

<u>Proof</u>, by **contradiction**:

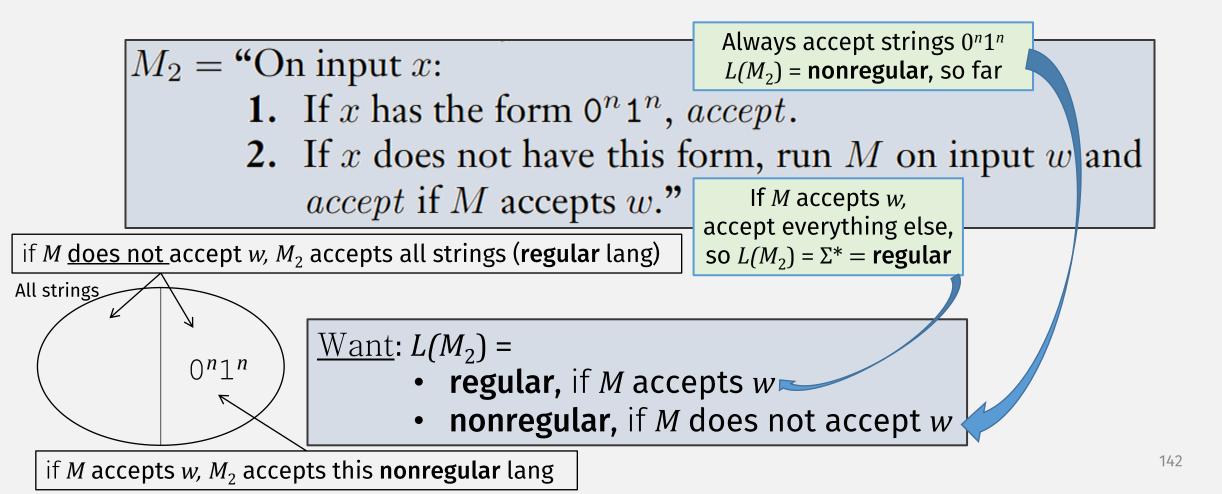
- <u>Assume:</u> $REGULAR_{TM}$ has decider R; use it to create decider for A_{TM} :
 - $S=\text{``On input } \langle M,w\rangle\text{, an encoding of a TM }M$ and a string w:
 - First, construct M_2 (??)
 - Run R on input $\langle M_{|\mathbf{2}|}^{\setminus}$
 - If R accepts, accept: if R rejects, reject

<u>Want</u>: $L(M_2) =$

- regular, if *M* accepts *w*
- **nonregular,** if *M* does not accept *w*

<u>Thm</u>: *REGULAR*_{TM} is undecidable (continued)

 $REGULAR_{\mathsf{TM}} = \{ \langle M \rangle | M \text{ is a TM and } L(M) \text{ is a regular language} \}$



Also Undecidable ...

Seems like no algorithm can compute anything about the language of a Turing Machine, i.e., about the runtime behavior of programs ...

- $REGULAR_{TM} = \{ <M > | M \text{ is a TM and } L(M) \text{ is a regular language} \}$
- $CONTEXTFREE_{TM} = \{ <M > | M \text{ is a TM and } L(M) \text{ is a CFL} \}$
- $DECIDABLE_{TM} = \{ \langle M \rangle \mid M \text{ is a TM and } L(M) \text{ is a decidable language} \}$
- $FINITE_{TM} = \{ \langle M \rangle \mid M \text{ is a TM and } L(M) \text{ is a finite language} \}$

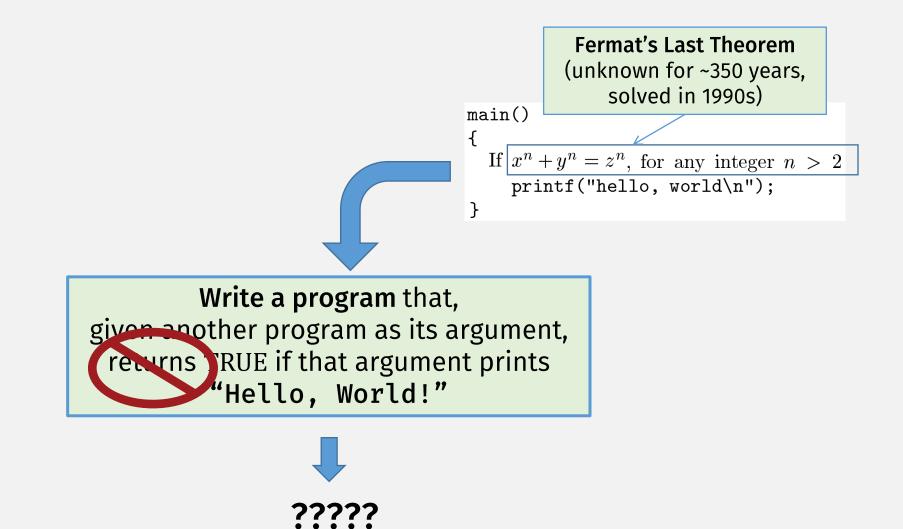
An Algorithm About Program Behavior?

main()

printf("hello, world\n");

Write a program that, given another program as its argument, returns TRUE if that argument prints "Hello, World!"

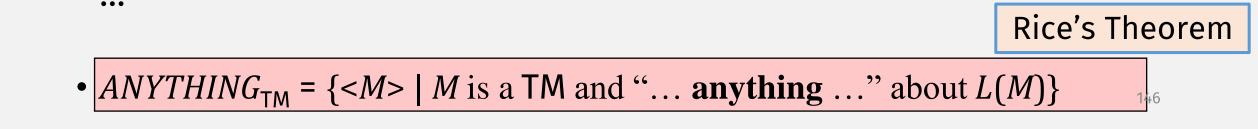
TRUE



Also Undecidable ...

Seems like no algorithm can compute **anything** about the language of a Turing Machine, i.e., **about the runtime behavior of programs** ...

- $REGULAR_{TM} = \{ <M > | M \text{ is a TM and } L(M) \text{ is a regular language} \}$
- $CONTEXTFREE_{TM} = \{ <M > | M \text{ is a TM and } L(M) \text{ is a CFL} \}$
- $DECIDABLE_{TM} = \{ \langle M \rangle \mid M \text{ is a TM and } L(M) \text{ is a decidable language} \}$
- $FINITE_{TM} = \{ \langle M \rangle \mid M \text{ is a TM and } L(M) \text{ is a finite language} \}$



Rice's Theorem: *ANYTHING*_{TM} is Undecidable

ANYTHING_{TM} = {<M> | *M* is a TM and ... anything ... about *L*(*M*)}

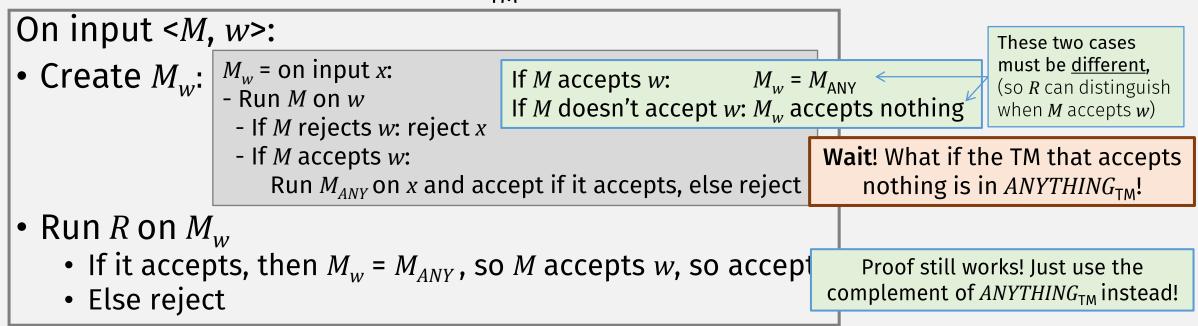
- "... Anything ...", more precisely: For any *M*₁, *M*₂,
 - if $L(M_1) = L(M_2)$
 - then $M_1 \in ANYTHING_{\mathsf{TM}} \Leftrightarrow M_2 \in ANYTHING_{\mathsf{TM}}$
- Also, "... Anything ... "must be "non-trivial":
 - *ANYTHING*_{TM} != {}
 - *ANYTHING*_{TM} != set of all TMs

Rice's Theorem: *ANYTHING*_{TM} is Undecidable

ANYTHING_{TM} = {<M> | *M* is a TM and ... anything ... about *L*(*M*)}

Proof by **contradiction**

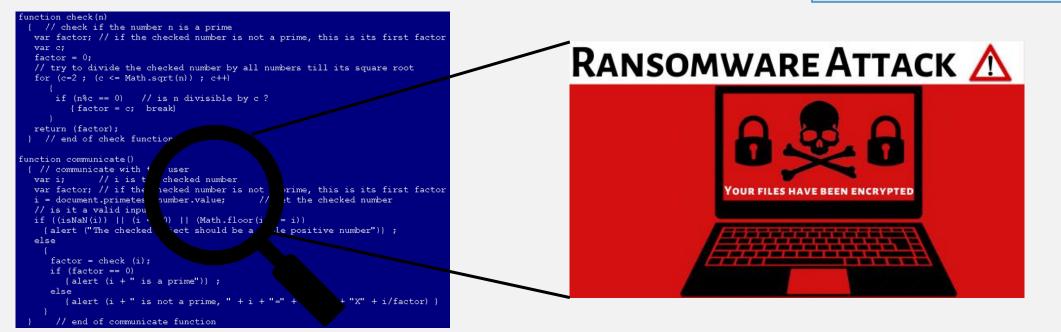
- <u>Assume</u> some language satisfying $ANYTHING_{TM}$ has a decider R.
 - Since $ANYTHING_{TM}$ is non-trivial, then there exists $M_{ANY} \in ANYTHING_{TM}$
 - Where *R* accepts *M*_{ANY}
- Use *R* to create decider for *A*_{TM}:



Rice's Theorem Implication

{<*M*> | *M* is a TM that installs malware}

Undecidable! (by Rice's Theorem)



Submit in-class participation question On gradescope