# Computability, Complexity

## M269 Unit 7

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	Welcome & Introductions						
	Computability topics:						
	- Ideas of Computation and Algorithms						

- Problem Reduction
- Turing Machines
- Undecidable, Semi-decidable and decidable problems
- Effective Computability: Turing machines, Lambda Calculus,  $\mu$ -recursive functions
- Optional topic Lambda Calculus introduction
- Complexity topics
- Exercises similar to CMAs and exam
- Key aim: Identify where people have problems and how to overcome them.
- Adobe Connect if you or I get cut off, wait till we reconnect (or send you an email)
- Recording Meeting Record Meeting... 🗸

#### Introductions — Me

- Name Phil Molyneux
- Background Physics and Maths, Operational Research, Computer Science
- First programming languages Fortran, BASIC, Pascal
- Favourite Software
  - Haskell pure functional programming language
  - Text editors TextMate, Sublime Text previously Emacs
  - Word processing and presentation slides in LATEX
  - Mac OS X
- *Learning style* I read the manual before using the software (really)

#### Introductions — You

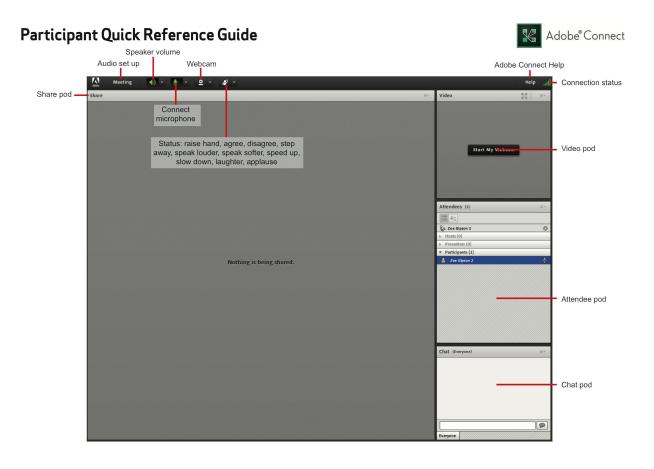
- Name?
- Position in M269? Which part of which Units and/or Reader have you read?
- Particular topics you want to look at?
- Learning Syle?

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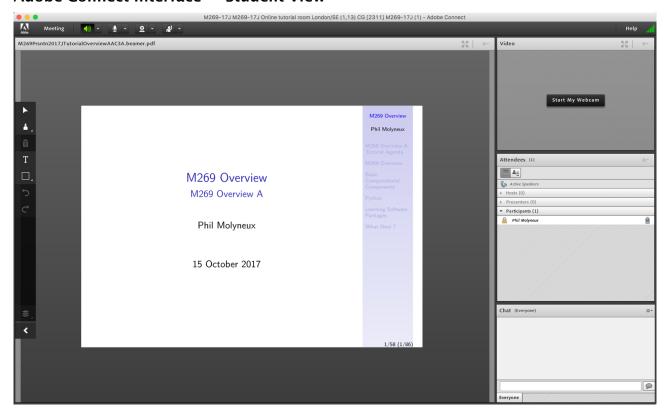
## 2 Adobe Connect Interface and Settings

## 2.1 Adobe Connect Interface — Student View

Adobe Connect Interface — Student Quick Reference



#### Adobe Connect Interface — Student View



## 2.2 Adobe Connect Settings

## **Adobe Connect Settings**

- Everybody: Audio Settings Meeting Audio Setup Wizard...
- Audio Menu bar Audio Microphone rights for Participants 🗸
- Do not Enable single speaker mode
- Drawing Tools Share pod menu bar Draw (1 slide/screen)
- Share pod menu bar Menu icon Enable Participants to draw ✓ gray
- Meeting Preferences Whiteboard Enable Participants to draw
- Cancel hand tool ... Do not enable green pointer...
- Meeting Preferences Attendees Pod X Raise Hand notification
- Meeting Preferences Display Name Display First & Last Name
- Cursor Meeting Preferences General tab Host Cursors Show to all attendees ✓ (default Off)
- Meeting Preferences Screen Share Cursor Show Application Cursor
- Webcam Menu bar Webcam Enable Webcam for Participants
- Recording Meeting Record Meeting...

## Adobe Connect — Access

Tutor Access

```
TutorHome M269 Website Tutorials

Cluster Tutorials M269 Online tutorial room

Tutor Groups M269 Online tutor group room

Module-wide Tutorials M269 Online module-wide room
```

• Attendance

```
TutorHome Students View your tutorial timetables
```

- Beamer Slide Scaling 440% (422 x 563 mm)
- Clear Everyone's Status

```
Attendee Pod Menu Clear Everyone's Status
```

• Grant Access and send link via email

```
Meeting Manage Access & Entry Invite Participants...
```

• Presenter Only Area

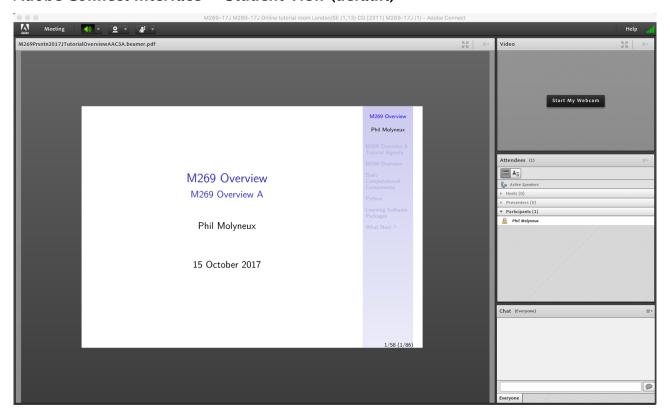
```
Meeting Enable/Disable Presenter Only Area
```

### **Adobe Connect** — **Keystroke Shortcuts**

- Keyboard shortcuts in Adobe Connect
- Toggle Mic #+ M (Mac), Ctrl + M (Win) (On/Disconnect)
- Toggle Raise-Hand status #+ E
- Close dialog box (Mac), Esc (Win)
- End meeting #+\\

## 2.3 Adobe Connect Interface — Student & Tutor Views

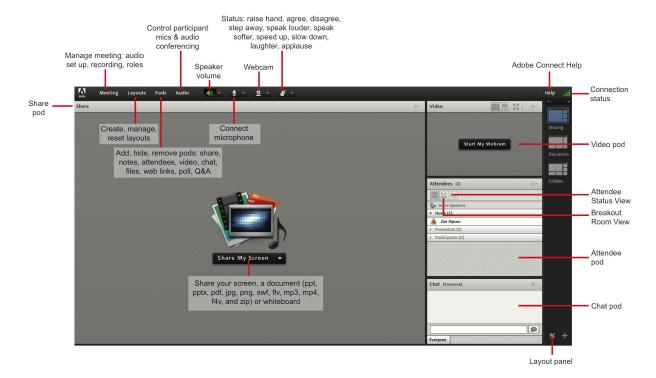
## ${\bf Adobe\ Connect\ Interface-Student\ View\ (default)}$



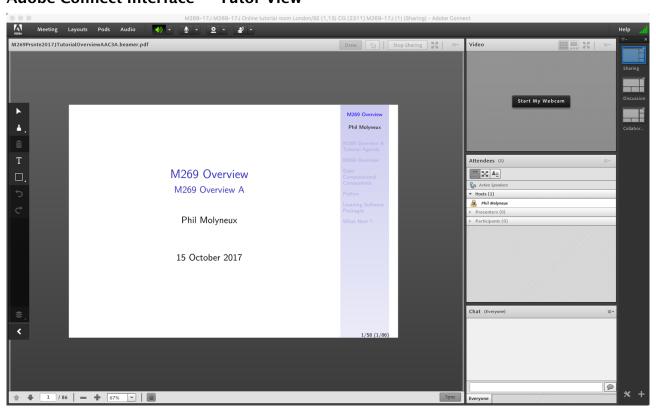
## Adobe Connect Interface — Tutor Quick Reference

### Host Quick Reference Guide





### Adobe Connect Interface — Tutor View



## 2.4 Adobe Connect — Sharing Screen & Applications

- Share My Screen Application tab Terminal for Terminal
- Share menu Change View Zoom in for mismatch of screen size/resolution (Participants)
- (Presenter) Change to 75% and back to 100% (solves participants with smaller screen image overlap)
- Leave the application on the original display
- Beware blued hatched rectangles from other (hidden) windows or contextual menus
- Presenter screen pointer affects viewer display beware of moving the pointer away from the application
- First time: System Preferences Security & Privacy Privacy Accessibility

## 2.5 Adobe Connect — Ending a Meeting

- Notes for the tutor only
- Student: Meeting Exit Adobe Connect
- Tutor:
- Recording Meeting Stop Recording 🗸
- Remove Participants Meeting End Meeting...
  - Dialog box allows for message with default message:
  - The host has ended this meeting. Thank you for attending.
- Recording availability In course Web site for joining the room, click on the eye icon
  in the list of recordings under your recording edit description and name
- **Meeting Information** Meeting Manage Meeting Information can access a range of information in Web page.
- Attendance Report see course Web site for joining room

#### 2.6 Adobe Connect — Invite Attendees

- Provide Meeting URL Menu Meeting Manage Access & Entry Invite Participants...
- Allow Access without Dialog Menu Meeting Manage Meeting Information provides new browser window with Meeting Information Tab bar Edit Information
- Check Anyone who has the URL for the meeting can enter the room
- Default Only registered users and accepted guests may enter the room
- Reverts to default next session but URL is fixed
- Guests have blue icon top, registered participants have yellow icon top same icon if URL is open

• See Start, attend, and manage Adobe Connect meetings and sessions

## 2.7 Layouts

- Creating new layouts example Sharing layout
- Menu Layouts Create New Layout... Create a New Layout dialog Create a new blank layout and name it PMolyMain
- New layout has no Pods but does have Layouts Bar open (see Layouts menu)
- Pods
- Menu Pods Share Add New Share and resize/position initial name is Share n
- Rename Pod Menu Pods Manage Pods... Manage Pods Select Rename Or Double-click & rename
- Add Video pod and resize/reposition
- Add Attendance pod and resize/reposition
- Add Chat pod name it *PMolyChat* and resize/reposition
- Dimensions of **Sharing** layout (on 27-inch iMac)
  - Width of Video, Attendees, Chat column 14 cm
  - Height of Video pod 9 cm
  - Height of Attendees pod 12 cm
  - Height of Chat pod 8 cm
- **Duplicating Layouts** does *not* give new instances of the Pods and is probably not a good idea (apart from local use to avoid delay in reloading Pods)

#### 2.8 Chat Pods

- Format Chat text
- Chat Pod menu icon My Chat Color
- Choices: Red, Orange, Green, Brown, Purple, Pink, Blue, Black
- Note: Color reverts to Black if you switch layouts
- Chat Pod menu icon Show Timestamps

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## 3 Computability

#### **Ideas of Computation**

The idea of an algorithm and what is effectively computable

- **Church-Turing thesis** Every function that would naturally be regarded as computable can be computed by a deterministic Turing Machine. (Unit 7 Section 4)
- See Phil Wadler on computability theory performed as part of the Bright Club at The Strand in Edinburgh, Tuesday 28 April 2015

## Computability — Models of Computation

- In automata theory, a *problem* is the question of deciding whether a given string is a member of some particular language
- If  $\Sigma$  is an alphabet, and L is a language over  $\Sigma$ , that is L  $\subseteq \Sigma^*$ , where  $\Sigma^*$  is the set of all strings over the alphabet  $\Sigma$  then we have a more formal definition of *decision* problem
- Given a string  $w \in \Sigma^*$ , decide whether  $w \in L$
- Example: Testing for a prime number can be expressed as the language L<sub>p</sub> consisting of all binary strings whose value as a binary number is a prime number (only divisible by 1 or itself)
- See Hopcroft et al. (2007, section 1.5.4)

#### Automata Theory — Alphabets, Strings, Languages

- An **Alphabet**,  $\Sigma$ , is a finite, non-empty set of symbols.
- Binary alphabet  $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$
- Lower case letters  $\Sigma = \{a, b, ..., z\}$
- A **String** is a finite sequence of symbols from some alphabet
- 01101 is a string from the Binary alphabet  $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$
- The **Empty string**,  $\epsilon$ , contains no symbols
- **Powers**:  $\Sigma^k$  is the set of strings of length k with symbols from  $\Sigma$
- The set of all strings over an alphabet  $\Sigma$  is denoted  $\Sigma^*$
- $\Sigma^* = \Sigma^0 \cup \Sigma^1 \cup \Sigma^2 \cup \dots$
- Question Does  $\Sigma^0 = \emptyset$ ? ( $\emptyset$  is the empty set)
- An Language, L, is a subset of  $\Sigma^*$
- The set of binary numerals whose value is a prime

```
\{10, 11, 101, 111, 1011, \dots\}
```

• The set of binary numerals whose value is a square

$$\{100, 1001, 10000, 11001, \ldots\}$$

#### Computability — Church-Turing Thesis

• Church-Turing thesis Every function that would naturally be regarded as computable can be computed by a deterministic Turing Machine.

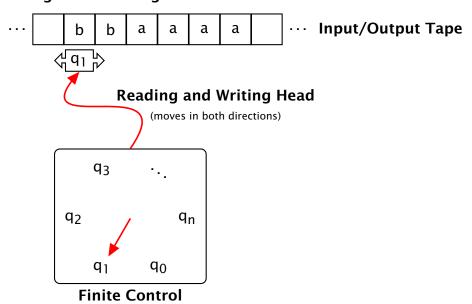
• physical Church-Turing thesis Any finite physical system can be simulated (to any degree of approximation) by a Universal Turing Machine.

- strong Church-Turing thesis Any finite physical system can be simulated (to any degree of approximation) with polynomial slowdown by a Universal Turing Machine.
- Shor's algorithm (1994) quantum algorithm for factoring integers an NP problem that is not known to be P — also not known to be NP-complete and we have no proof that it is not in P
- Reference: Section 4 of Unit 6 & 7 Reader

## 3.1 The Turing Machine

- Finite control which can be in any of a finite number of states
- Tape divided into cells, each of which can hold one of a finite number of symbols
- Initially, the **input**, which is a finite-length string of symbols in the *input alphabet*, is placed on the tape
- All other tape cells (extending unbounded left and right) hold a special symbol called blank
- A tape head which initially is over the leftmost input symbol
- A move of the Turing Machine depends on the state and the tape symbol scanned
- A move can change state, write a symbol in the current cell, move left, right or stay
- References: Hopcroft et al. (2007, page 326), Unit 6 & 7 Reader (section 5.3)

#### **Turing Machine Diagram**



**Source:** Sebastian Sardina http://www.texample.net/tikz/examples/turing-machine-2/

Date: 18 February 2012 (seen Sunday, 24 August 2014)

Further Source: Partly based on Ludger Humbert's pics of Universal Turing Machine at

https://haspe.homeip.net/projekte/ddi/browser/tex/pgf2/turingmaschine-schema.tex(not found) — http://www.texample.net/tikz/examples/turing-machine/

#### **Turing Machine notation**

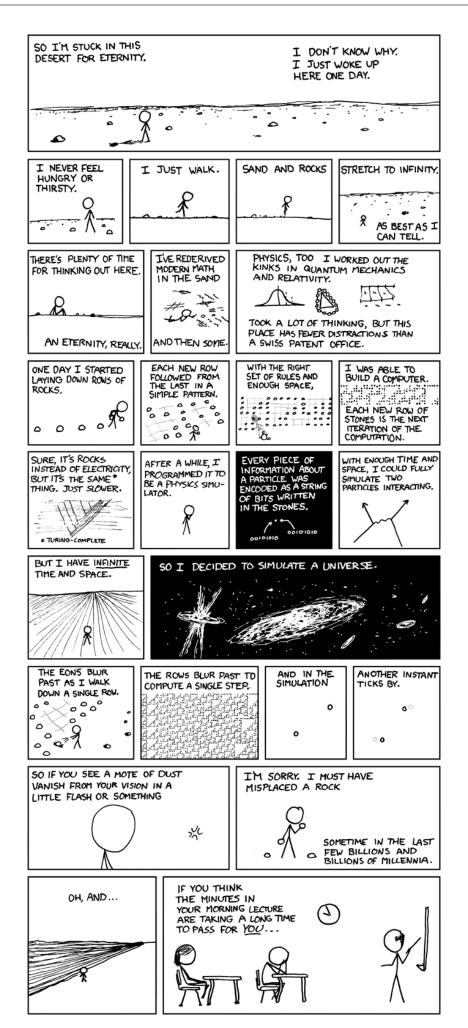
- Q finite set of states of the finite control
- $\Sigma$  finite set of *input symbols* (M269 S)
- $\Gamma$  complete set of *tape symbols*  $\Sigma \subset \Gamma$
- δ Transition function (M269 instructions, I)
   δ :: Q × Γ → Q × Γ × {L, R, S}
   δ(q, X) → (p, Y, D)
- $\delta(q, X)$  takes a state, q and a tape symbol, X and returns (p, Y, D) where p is a state, Y is a tape symbol to overwrite the current cell, D is a direction, Left, Right or Stay
- $q_0$  start state  $q_0 \in Q$
- B blank symbol  $B \in \Gamma$  and  $B \notin \Sigma$
- F set of final or accepting states  $F \subseteq Q$

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## 3.2 Turing Machine Examples

- Morphett's Turing machine simulator the examples below are adapted from here
- Ugarte's Turing machine simulator
- XKCD A Bunch of Rocks XKCD Explanation

Image below (will need expanding to be readable)



#### 3.2.1 The Successor Function

- Input binary representation of numeral n
- Output binary representation of n + 1
- Example 1010 → 1011 and 1011 → 1100
- Initial cell: leftmost symbol of n
- Strategy
- Stage A make the rightmost cell the current cell
- Stage B Add 1 to the current cell.
- If the current cell is 0 then replace it with 1 and go to stage C
- If the current cell is 1 replace it with 0 and go to stage B and move Left
- If the current cell is blank, replace it by 1 and go to stage C
- Stage C Finish up by making the leftmost cell current
- Represent the Turing Machine program as a list of quintuples (q, X, p, Y, D)
- Stage A

```
(q_0, 0, q_0, 0, R)
```

 $(q_0, 1, q_0, 1, R)$ 

$$(q_0, B, q_1, B, L)$$

• Stage B

$$(q_1, 0, q_2, 1, S)$$

$$(q_1, 1, q_1, 0, L)$$

$$(q_1, B, q_2, 1, S)$$

Stage C

$$(q_2, 0, q_2, 0, L)$$

$$(q_2, 1, q_2, 1, L)$$

$$(q_2, B, q_h, B, R)$$

(Smith, 2013, page 315)

- Exercise Translate the quintuples (q, X, p, Y, D) into English and check they are the same as the specification
- Stage A make the rightmost cell the current cell

$$(q_0, 0, q_0, 0, R)$$

If state  $q_0$  and read symbol 0 then stay in state  $q_0$  write 0, move R

$$(q_0, 1, q_0, 1, R)$$

If state  $q_0$  and read symbol 1 then stay in state  $q_0$  write 1, move R

$$(q_0, B, q_1, B, L)$$

If state  $q_0$  and read symbol B then state  $q_1$  write B, move L

- Exercise Translate the quintuples (q, X, p, Y, D) into English
- Stage B Add 1 to the current cell.

```
(q_1,0,q_2,1,S)
If state q_1 and read symbol 0 then state q_2 write 1, stay (q_1,1,q_1,0,L)
If state q_1 and read symbol 1 then state q_1 write 0, move L (q_1,B,q_2,1,S)
```

If state q<sub>1</sub> and read symbol B then state q<sub>2</sub> write 1, stay

- Exercise Translate the quintuples (q, X, p, Y, D) into English
- Stage C Finish up by making the leftmost cell current

```
(q_2,0,q_2,0,L)
If state q_2 and read symbol 0 then state q_2 write 0, move L
(q_2,1,q_2,1,L)
If state q_2 and read symbol 1 then state q_2 write 0, move L
(q_2,B,q_h,B,R)
```

If state q2 and read symbol B then state qh write B, move R HALT

- Notice that the Turing Machine feels like a series of if ... then or case statements inside a while loop
- Sample Evaluation 11 → 100
- $\bullet \ \ \textbf{Representation} \ \cdots \ BX_1X_2 \cdots X_{i-1}qX_iX_{i+1} \cdots X_nB \cdots$

```
q<sub>0</sub>11
```

1q<sub>0</sub>1

 $11q_0B$ 

1q<sub>1</sub>1

q<sub>1</sub>10

q<sub>1</sub>B00

q<sub>2</sub>100

q2B100

 $q_h 100$ 

- Exercise evaluate 1011 → 1100
- Representation  $\cdots$  BX<sub>1</sub>X<sub>2</sub>  $\cdots$  X<sub>i-1</sub> qX<sub>i</sub>X<sub>i+1</sub>  $\cdots$  X<sub>n</sub>B  $\cdots$
- q is the state of the TM
- The head is scanning the symbol Xi

- Leading or trailing blanks B are (usually) not shown unless the head is scanning them
- $\vdash_{\mathsf{M}}$  denotes one move of the TM M
- ⊢<sup>\*</sup><sub>M</sub> denotes zero or more moves
- ⊢ will be used if the TM M is understood
- If (q, X<sub>i</sub>, p, Y, L) denotes a TM move then

$$X_1 \cdot \cdot \cdot X_{i-1} q X_i \cdot \cdot \cdot X_n \vdash_M X_1 \cdot \cdot \cdot X_{i-2} p X_{i-1} Y \cdot \cdot \cdot X_n$$

(Hopcroft et al., 2007, sec 8.2.3)

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## 3.2.2 The Binary Palindrome Function

- Input binary string s
- Output YES if palindrome, NO otherwise
- Example 1010 → NO and 1001 → YES
- Initial cell: leftmost symbol of s
- Strategy
- Stage A read the leftmost symbol
- If blank then accept it and go to stage D otherwise erase it
- Stage B find the rightmost symbol
- If the current cell matches leftmost recently read then erase it and go to stage C
- Otherwise reject it and go to stage E
- Stage C return to the leftmost symbol and stage A
- Stage D print YES and halt
- Stage E erase the remaining string and print NO
- Represent the Turing Machine program as a list of quintuples (q, X, p, Y, D)
- Stage A read the leftmost symbol

$$(q_0, 0, q_{1_0}, B, R)$$

$$(q_0, 1, q_{1i}, B, R)$$

$$(q_0, B, q_5, B, S)$$

• Stage B find rightmost symbol

$$(q_{1_0}, B, q_{2_0}, B, L)$$

$$(q_{1_0}, *, q_{1_0}, *, R)$$
 \* is a wild card, matches anything

$$(q_{1_i}, B, q_{2_i}, B, L)$$

$$(q_{1_i}, *, q_{1_i}, *, R)$$

• Stage B check

$$(q_{2_0}, 0, q_3, B, L)$$

$$(q_{2_0}, B, q_5, B, S)$$

$$(q_{2_0}, *, q_6, *, S)$$

$$(q_{2_i}, 1, q_3, B, L)$$

$$(q_{2_i}, B, q_5, B, S)$$

$$(q_{2_i}, *, q_6, *, S)$$

• Stage C return to the leftmost symbol and stage A

$$(q_3, B, q_5, B, S)$$

$$(q_3, *, q_4, *, L)$$

$$(q_4, B, q_0, B, R)$$

$$(q_4, *, q_4, *, L)$$

• Stage D accept and print YES

$$(q_5, *, q_{5_a}, Y, R)$$

$$(q_{5_a}, *, q_{5_h}, E, R)$$

$$(q_{5h}, *, q_7, S, S)$$

• Stage E erase the remaining string and print NO

$$(\mathsf{q}_6,\mathsf{B},\mathsf{q}_{6_a},\mathsf{N},\mathsf{R})$$

$$(q_6, *, q_6, B, L)$$

$$(q_{6a}, *, q_7, O, S)$$

• Finish

$$(q_7, B, q_h, B, R)$$

$$(q_7, *, q_7, *, L)$$

• Sample Evaluation 101 → YES

$$q_0101 \vdash Bq_{1_i}01 \vdash B0q_{1_i}1 \vdash B01q_{1_i}B$$

$$\vdash B0q_{2_i}1$$

$$\vdash Bq_30B \vdash q_4B0B$$

$$\vdash Bq_00B \vdash BBq_{10}B$$

$$\vdash Bq_{20}BB$$

$$\vdash \mathsf{Bq}_{\mathsf{5}}\mathsf{BB} \vdash \mathsf{Yq}_{\mathsf{5}_{\mathsf{a}}}\mathsf{B} \vdash \mathsf{YEq}_{\mathsf{5}_{\mathsf{b}}}\mathsf{B} \vdash \mathsf{YEq}_{\mathsf{7}}\mathsf{S}$$

$$\vdash \mathsf{Yq_7ES} \vdash \mathsf{Bq_7YES} \vdash \mathsf{q_7BYES} \vdash \mathsf{q_hYES}$$

• Exercise Evaluate 110 → NO

## 3.2.3 Binary Addition Example

- Input two binary numerals separated by a single space n1 n2
- Output binary numeral which is the sum of the inputs
- Example 110110 + 101011 → 1100001
- Initial cell: leftmost symbol of n1 n2
- Insight look at the arithmetic algorithm

• **Discussion** how can we overwrite the first number with the result and remember how far we have gone?

## Binary Addition Example — Arithmetic Reinvented

ш	1	1	0	1	1	0
	1	0	1	0	1	1
ш	1	1	0	1	1	у
	1	0	1	0	1	ш
ш	1	1	1	0	X	У
ت	1	0	1	0	ш	ш
	1	1	1	Х	х	У
ب	1	0	1		ш	ш
1	0	0	X	Х	Х	У
ت	1	0	ш	ب	ш	ш
1	0	X	х	х	Х	у
ت	1	ш	ш		ш	ш
1	у	Х	Х	Х	Х	у
ш						ш
1	1	0	0	0	0	1

- Input two binary numerals separated by a single space n1 n2
- Output binary numeral which is the sum of the inputs
- Example 110110 + 101011 → 1100001
- Initial cell: leftmost symbol of n1 n2
- Strategy
- Stage A find the rightmost symbol

If the symbol is 0 erase and go to stage Bx

If the symbol is 1 erase go to stage By

If the symbol is blank go to stage F

dealing with each digit in n1

if no further digits in n1 go to final stage

- Stage Bx Move left to a blank go to stage Cx
- Stage By Move left to a blank go to stage Cy moving to n1
- Stage Cx Move left to find first 0, 1 or B
   Turn 0 or B to X, turn 1 to Y and go to stage A
   adding 0 to a digit finalises the result (no carry one)
- Stage Cy Move left to find first 0, 1 or B
   Turn 0 or B to 1 and go to stage D
   Turn 1 to 0, move left and go to stage Cy
   dealing with the carry one in school arithmetic
- Stage D move right to X, Y or B and go to stage E
- **Stage E** replace 0 by X, 1 by Y, move right and go to Stage A finalising the value of a digit resulting from a *carry*
- Stage F move left and replace X by 0, Y by 1 and at B halt
- Represent the Turing Machine program as a list of quintuples (q, X, p, Y, D)
- Stage A find the rightmost symbol

$$(q_0, B, q_1, B, R)$$
  
 $(q_0, *, q_0, *, R)$  \* is a wild card, matches anything  
 $(q_1, B, q_2, B, L)$   
 $(q_1, *, q_1, *, R)$   
 $(q_2, 0, q_{3_x}, B, L)$   
 $(q_2, 1, q_{3_y}, B, L)$   
 $(q_2, B, q_7, B, L)$ 

• Stage Bx move left to blank

$$(q_{3x}, B, q_{4x}, B, L)$$
  
 $(q_{3y}, *, q_{3y}, *, L)$ 

• Stage By move left to blank

$$(q_{3y}, B, q_{4y}, B, L)$$
  
 $(q_{3y}, *, q_{3y}, *, L)$ 

• Stage Cx move left to 0, 1, or blank

$$(q_{4x}, 0, q_{0}, x, R)$$

$$(q_{4_x}, 1, q_0, y, R)$$

$$(q_{4x}, B, q_0, x, R)$$

$$(q_{4_x}, *, q_{4_x}, *, L)$$

• Stage Cy move left to 0, 1, or blank

$$(q_{4v}, 0, q_5, 1, S)$$

$$(q_{4_{v}}, 1, q_{4_{v}}, 0, L)$$

$$(q_{4_{v}}, B, q_{5}, 1, S)$$

$$(q_{4_{V}}, *, q_{4_{V}}, *, L)$$

• Stage D move right to x, y or B

$$(q_5, x, q_6, x, L)$$

$$(q_5, y, q_6, y, L)$$

$$(q_5, B, q_6, B, L)$$

$$(q_5, *, q_5, *, R)$$

• Stage E replace 0 by x, 1 by y

$$(q_6, 0, q_0, x, R)$$

$$(q_6, 1, q_0, y, R)$$

• Stage F replace x by 0, y by 1

$$(q_7, x, q_7, 0, L)$$

$$(q_7, y, q_7, 1, L)$$

$$(q_7, B, q_h, B, R)$$

$$(q_7, *, q_7, *, L)$$

- Exercise Evaluate 11 + 10 → 101
- Exercise Evaluate 11 + 10 → 101
- Stage A find the rightmost symbol

BBq<sub>0</sub>11B10B Note space symbols B at start and end

$$\vdash$$
 BB1q<sub>0</sub>1B10B

$$\vdash$$
 BB11q<sub>0</sub>B10B

$$\vdash$$
 BB11Bq<sub>1</sub>10B

$$\vdash$$
 BB11B1q<sub>1</sub>OB

$$\vdash$$
 BB11B10q<sub>1</sub>B

$$\vdash$$
 BB11B1q<sub>2</sub>OB

$$\vdash$$
 BB11Bq<sub>3</sub>,1BB

• Stage Bx move left to blank

$$\vdash$$
 B11q<sub>3x</sub>B1BB

- Stage Cx move left to 0, 1, or blank
- $\vdash \ \mathtt{BB1q_{4_x}1B1BB}$
- $\vdash$  BB1Yq<sub>0</sub>B1BB
- Stage A find the rightmost symbol
- ⊢ BB1BYBq<sub>1</sub>1BB
- ⊢ BB1YB1q<sub>1</sub>BB
- ⊢ BB1YBq<sub>2</sub>1BB
- $\vdash$  BB1Yq<sub>3y</sub>BBBB
- Stage Cy move left to 0, 1, or blank
- $\vdash$  BB1q<sub>4 $_{V}$ </sub>YBBBB
- $\vdash$  BBq<sub>4 $_{V}$ </sub>1YBBBB
- $\vdash \mathsf{Bq_{4_v}BOYBBBB}$
- ⊢ Bq<sub>5</sub>10YBBBB
- Stage D move right to x, y or B
- ⊢ Bq<sub>5</sub>0YBBBB
- ⊢ BOq<sub>5</sub>YBBBB
- ⊢ Bq<sub>6</sub>0YBBBB
- Stage E replace 0 by x, 1 by y
- ⊢ B1Xq<sub>0</sub>YBBBB
- Stage A find the rightmost symbol
- ⊢ B1XYq<sub>0</sub>BBBB
- ⊢ B1XYBq<sub>1</sub>BBB
- ⊢ B1XYq2BBBB
- ⊢ B1Xq<sub>7</sub>YBBBB
- Stage F replace x by 0, y by 1
- ⊢ B1q<sub>7</sub>X1BBBB
- ⊢ Bq<sub>7</sub>101BBBB
- ⊢ Bq<sub>7</sub>B101BBBB
- ⊢ Bq<sub>h</sub>101BBBB
- This is mimicking what you learnt to do on paper as a child! Real *step-by-step* instructions
- See Morphett's Turing machine simulator for more examples (takes too long by hand!)

## 3.3 Computability, Decidability and Algorithms

#### **Universal Turing Machine**

- Universal Turing Machine, U, is a Turing Machine that can simulate any arbitrary Turing machine, M
- Achieves this by encoding the transition function of M in some standard way
- The input to U is the encoding for M followed by the data for M
- See Turing machine examples
- **Decidable** there is a TM that will halt with yes/no for a decision problem that is, given a string w over the alphabet of P the TM with halt and return yes.no the string is in the language P (same as *recursive* in Recursion theory old use of the word)
- **Semi-decidable** there is a TM will halt with yes if some string is in P but may loop forever on some inputs (same as *recursively enumerable*) *Halting Problem*
- **Highly-undecidable** no outcome for any input *Totality, Equivalence Problems*

#### **Undecidable Problems**

- Halting problem the problem of deciding, given a program and an input, whether the program will eventually halt with that input, or will run forever — term first used by Martin Davis 1952
- Entscheidungsproblem the problem of deciding whether a given statement is provable from the axioms using the rules of logic shown to be undecidable by Turing (1936) by reduction from the *Halting problem* to it
- Type inference and type checking in the second-order lambda calculus (important for functional programmers, Haskell, GHC implementation)
- Undecidable problem see link to list

(Turing, 1936, 1937)

## 3.3.1 Non-Computability — Halting Problem

#### Halting Problem — Sketch Proof

- Halting problem is there a program that can determine if any arbitrary program will halt or continue forever?
- Assume we have such a program (Turing Machine) h(f,x) that takes a program f
  and input x and determines if it halts or not

```
h(f,x)
= if f(x) runs forever
return True
else
return False
```

• We shall prove this cannot exist by contradiction

- Now invent two further programs:
- q(f) that takes a program f and runs h with the input to f being a copy of f
- r(f) that runs q(f) and halts if q(f) returns True, otherwise it loops

```
q(f)
= h(f,f)

r(f)
= if q(f)
return
else
while True: continue
```

- What happens if we run r(r)?
- If it loops, q(r) returns True and it does not loop contradiction.

## Why undecidable problems must exist

- A problem is really membership of a string in some language
- The number of different languages over any alphabet of more than one symbol is uncountable
- Programs are finite strings over a finite alphabet (ASCII or Unicode) and hence countable.
- There must be an infinity (big) of problems more than programs.
- Computational problem defined by a function
- **Computational problem is computable** if there is a Turing machine that will calculate the function.

Reference: Hopcroft et al. (2007, page 318)

## Computability and Terminology (1)

- The idea of an *algorithm* dates back 3000 years to Euclid, Babylonians...
- In the 1930s the idea was made more formal: which functions are computable?
- A function is a set of pairs  $f = \{(x, f(x)) : x \in X \land f(x) \in Y\}$  with the function property
- Function property:  $(a, b) \in f \land (a, c) \in f \Rightarrow b == c$
- Function property: Same input implies same output
- Note that maths notation is deeply inconsistent here see Function and History of the function concept
- What do we mean by computing a function an algorithm?

#### **Function: Relation and Rules**

 The idea of function as a set of pairs (Binary relation) with the function property (each element of the domain has at most one element in the co-domain) is fairly recent — see History of the function concept

- School maths presents us with function as rule to get from the input to the output
- Example: the square function: square  $x = x \times x$
- But lots of rules (or algorithms) can implement the same function
- square1  $x = x^2$

## Computability and Terminology (2)

- In the 1930s three definitions:
- λ-Calculus, simple semantics for computation Alonzo Church
- General recursive functions Kurt Gödel
- Universal (Turing) machine Alan Turing
- Terminology:
  - Recursive, recursively enumerable Church, Kleene
  - Computable, computably enumerable Gödel, Turing
  - Decidable, semi-decidable, highly undecidable
  - In the 1930s, computers were human
  - Unfortunate choice of terminology
- Turing and Church showed that the above three were equivalent
- Church-Turing thesis function is intuitively computable if and only if Turing machine computable

#### Sources on Computability Terminology

- Soare (1996) on the history of the terms *computable* and *recursive* meaning *calculable*
- See also Soare (2013, sections 9.9-9.15) in Copeland et al. (2013)

#### 3.3.2 Reductions & Non-Computability

#### Reducing one problem to another

- To reduce problem  $P_1$  to  $P_2$ , invent a construction that converts instances of  $P_1$  to  $P_2$  that have the same answer. That is:
  - any string in the language P<sub>1</sub> is converted to some string in the language P<sub>2</sub>
  - any string over the alphabet of  $P_1$  that is not in the language of  $P_1$  is converted to a string that is not in the language  $P_2$
- With this construction we can solve P<sub>1</sub>

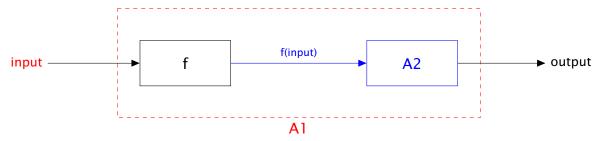
- Given an instance of  $P_1$ , that is, given a string w that may be in the language  $P_1$ , apply the construction algorithm to produce a string x
- Test whether x is in P<sub>2</sub> and give the same answer for w in P<sub>1</sub>

(Hopcroft et al., 2007, page 322)

- Problem Reduction Ordinary Example
- Want to phone Alice but don't have her number
- You know that Bill has her number
- So reduce the problem of finding Alice's number to the problem of getting hold of Bill

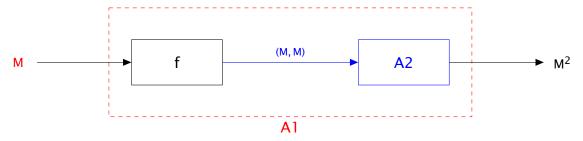
(Rich, 2007, page 449)

- The direction of reduction is important
- If we can reduce  $P_1$  to  $P_2$  then (in some sense)  $P_2$  is at least as hard as  $P_1$  (since a solution to  $P_2$  will give us a solution to  $P_1$ )
- So, if P2 is decidable then P1 is decidable
- To show a problem is undecidable we have to reduce from an known undecidable problem to it
- $\forall x(dp_{P_1}(x) = dp_{P_2}(reduce(x)))$
- Since, if P<sub>1</sub> is undecidable then P<sub>2</sub> is undecidable
- Some further examples
- Totality and Equivalence Problems http://www.cs.ucc.ie/~dgb/courses/toc/handout36.pdf
- Totality and Equivalence Problems https://www.cs.rochester.edu/~nelson/courses/csc\_173/computability/undecidable.html



- A reduction of problem P<sub>1</sub> to problem P<sub>2</sub>
  - transforms inputs to P<sub>1</sub> into inputs to P<sub>2</sub>
  - runs algorithm A2 (which solves P<sub>2</sub>) and
  - interprets the outputs from A2 as answers to P1
- More formally: A problem P<sub>1</sub> is reducible to a problem P<sub>2</sub> if there is a function f that takes any input x to P<sub>1</sub> and transforms it to an input f(x) of P<sub>2</sub>
   such that the solution of P<sub>2</sub> on f(x) is the solution of P<sub>1</sub> on x

Source: Bridge Theory of Computation, 2007

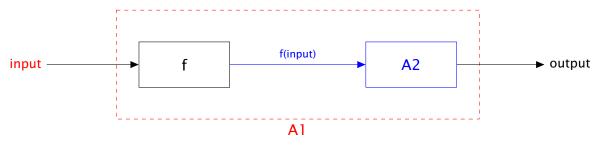


- Given an algorithm (A2) for matrix multiplication (P2)
  - Input: pair of matrices, (M<sub>1</sub>, M<sub>2</sub>)
  - Output: matrix result of multiplying M<sub>1</sub> and M<sub>2</sub>
- P1 is the problem of squaring a matrix
  - Input: matrix M
  - Output: matrix M<sup>2</sup>
- Algorithm A1 has

$$f(M) = (M, M)$$

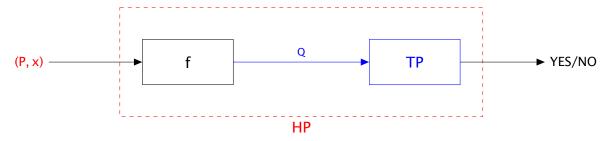
uses A2 to calculate  $M \times M = M^2$ 

## **Non-Computable Problems**



- If P2 is computable (A2 exists) then P1 is computable (f being simple or polynomial)
- ullet Equivalently If  $P_1$  is non-computable then  $P_2$  is non-computable
- Exercise: show  $B \rightarrow A \equiv \neg A \rightarrow \neg B$
- Proof by Contrapositive
- $B \rightarrow A \equiv \neg B \lor A$  by truth table or equivalences
  - $\equiv \neg(\neg A) \lor \neg B$  commutativity and negation laws
  - $\equiv \neg A \rightarrow \neg B$  equivalences
- Common error: switching the order round

## **Totality Problem**

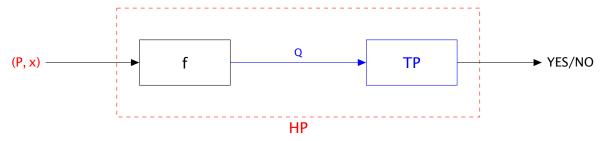


### • Totality Problem

- Input: program Q

- Output: YES if Q terminates for all inputs else NO

- Assume we have algorithm TP to solve the Totality Problem
- Now reduce the Halting Problem to the Totality Problem

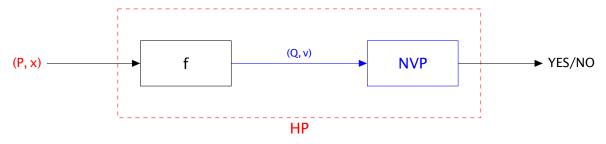


• Define f to transform inputs to HP to TP pseudo-Python

```
def f(P,x) :
    def Q(y):
        # ignore y
        P(x)
    return Q
```

- Run TP on Q
  - If TP returns YES then P halts on x
  - If TP returns NO then P does not halt on x
- We have *solved* the Halting Problem contradiction

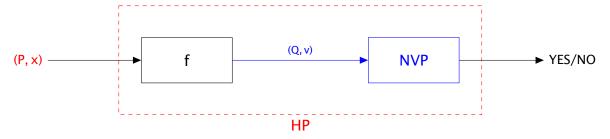
### **Negative Value Problem**



#### Negative Value Problem

- Input: program Q which has no input and variable v used in Q
- Output: YES if v ever gets assigned a negative value else NO

- Assume we have algorithm NVP to solve the Negative Value Problem
- Now reduce the Halting Problem to the Negative Value Problem

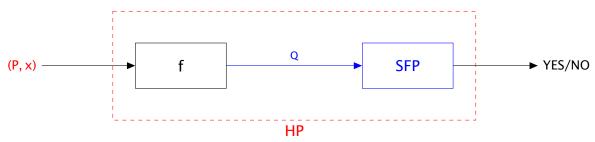


• Define f to transform inputs to HP to NVP pseudo-Python

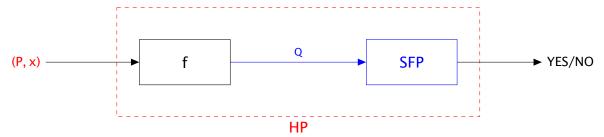
```
def f(P,x) :
    def Q(y):
    # ignore y
    P(x)
    v = -1
    return (Q,var(v))
```

- Run NVP on (Q, var(v)) var(v) gets the variable name
  - If NVP returns YES then P halts on x
  - If NVP returns NO then P does not halt on x
- We have *solved* the Halting Problem contradiction

## **Squaring Function Problem**



- Squaring Function Problem
  - Input: program Q which takes an integer, y
  - Output: YES if Q always returns the square of y else NO
- Assume we have algorithm SFP to solve the Squaring Function Problem
- Now reduce the Halting Problem to the Squaring Function Problem

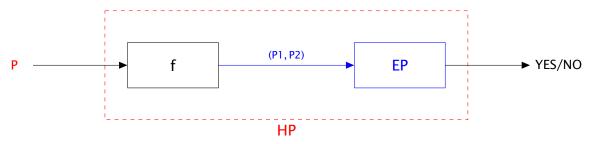


• Define f to transform inputs to HP to SFP pseudo-Python

```
def f(P,x) :
    def Q(y):
        P(x)
        return y * y
    return Q
```

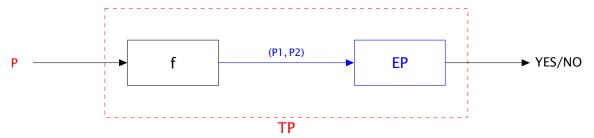
- Run SFP on Q
  - If SFP returns YES then P halts on x
  - If SFP returns NO then P does not halt on x
- We have *solved* the Halting Problem contradiction

### **Equivalence Problem**



#### • Equivalence Problem

- Input: two programs P1 and P2
- Output: YES if P1 and P2 solve the ame problem (same output for same input) else NO
- Assume we have algorithm EP to solve the Equivalence Problem
- Now reduce the Totality Problem to the Equivalence Problem

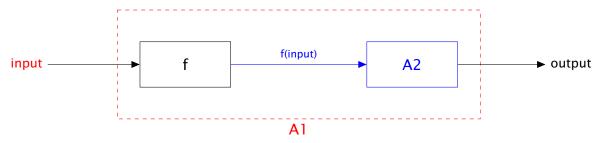


Define f to transform inputs to TP to EP pseudo-Python

```
def f(P) :
    def P1(x):
        P(x)
        return "Same_string"
    def P2(x)
        return "Same_string"
    return (P1,P2)
```

- Run EP on (P1, P2)
  - If EP returns YES then P halts on all inputs
  - If EP returns NO then P does not halt on all inputs
- We have solved the Totality Problem contradiction

#### Rice's Theorem



- Rice's Theorem all non-trivial, semantic properties of programs are undecidable. HG
  Rice 1951 PhD Thesis
- Equivalently: For any non-trivial property of partial functions, no general and effective method can decide whether an algorithm computes a partial function with that property.
- A property of partial functions is called trivial if it holds for all partial computable functions or for none.
- Rice's Theorem and computability theory
- Let S be a set of languages that is nontrivial, meaning
  - there exists a Turing machine that recognizes a language in S
  - there exists a Turing machine that recognizes a language not in S
- Then, it is undecidable to determine whether the language recognized by an arbitrary Turing machine lies in S.
- This has implications for compilers and virus checkers
- Note that Rice's theorem does not say anything about those properties of machines or programs that are not also properties of functions and languages.
- For example, whether a machine runs for more than 100 steps on some input is a decidable property, even though it is non-trivial.

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### 3.4 Lambda Calculus

#### 3.4.1 Motivation

- Lambda Calculus is a formal system in mathematical logic for expressing computation based on function abstraction and application using variable binding and substitution
- Lambda calculus is Turing complete it can simulate any Turing machine
- Introduced by Alonzo Church in 1930s
- Basis of functional programming languages Lisp, Scheme, ISWIM, ML, SASL, KRC, Miranda, Haskell, Scala, F#...
- Note this is not part of M269 but may help understand ideas of computability

## Functions — Binding and Substitution

• School maths introduces functions as

$$f(x) = 3x^2 + 4x + 5$$

- Substitution:  $f(2) = 3 \times 2^2 + 4 \times 2 + 5 = 25$
- Generalise:  $f(x) = ax^2 + bx + c$
- What is wrong with the following:
- $f(a) = a \times a^2 + b \times a + c$
- The ideas of free and bound variables and substitution
- Evaluating an expression how many ways can you evaluate  $(3 + 7)^2$
- Answer: 3 ways (Bird, 1998, Ex 1.2.2, page 6)
- Ways of evaluating  $((3+7)^2)^2$
- Answer: 547 ways (Bird and Wadler, 1988, Ex 1.2.1, page 6)
- M269 Unit 6/7 Reader *Logic and the Limits of Computation* alludes to other formalisations with equal power to a Turing Machine (pages 81 and 87)
- The *Reader* mentions Alonzo Church and his 1930s formalism (page 87, but does not give any detail)
- The notes in this section are optional and for comparison with the Turing Machine material
- Turing machine: explicit memory, state and implicit loop and case/if statement
- Lambda Calculus: function definition and application, explicit rules for evaluation (and transformation) of expressions, explicit rules for substitution (for function application)
- Lambda calculus reduction workbench

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#### 3.4.2 Lambda Terms

- A variable, x, is a lambda term
- If M is a lambda term and x is a variable, then  $(\lambda x.M)$  is a lambda term a **lambda** abstraction or function definition
- If M and N are lambda terms, the (M N) is lambda term an application
- Nothing else is a lambda term

(Lambda Calculus notes based on lecture slides at CMSC 330, Spring 2011)

- Outermost parentheses are omitted (M N) ≡ M N
- Application is left associative ((M N) P) ≡ M N P
- The body of an abstraction extends as far right as possible, subject to scope limited by parentheses

- $\lambda x.M N \equiv \lambda x.(M N)$  and not  $(\lambda x.M) N$
- $\lambda x. \lambda y. \lambda z. M = \lambda x y z. M$

#### **Lambda Calculus Semantics**

- What do we mean by evaluating an expression?
- To evaluate (λx.M)N
- Evaluate M with x replaced by N
- This rule is called  $\beta$ -reduction
- $(\lambda x.M)N \rightarrow M[x := N]$
- M[x := N] is M with occurrences of x replaced by N
- This operation is called *substitution* see rules below

## $\beta$ -Reduction Examples

- $(\lambda x.x)z \rightarrow z$
- $(\lambda x.y)z \rightarrow y$
- $(\lambda x.xy)z \rightarrow zy$

a function that applies its argument to y

- $(\lambda x.xy)(\lambda z.z) \rightarrow (\lambda z.z)y \rightarrow y$
- $(\lambda x. \lambda y. x y)z \rightarrow \lambda y. z y$

A curried function of two arguments — applies first argument to second

• currying replaces f(x,y) with (fx)y — nice notational convenience — gives partial application for free

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#### 3.4.3 Substitution

- To define *substitution* use recursion on the structure of terms
- $x[x := N] \equiv N$
- $y[x := N] \equiv y$
- $(PQ)[x := N] \equiv (P[x := N])(Q[x := N])$
- $(\lambda x.M)[x := N] = \lambda x.M$

In  $(\lambda x.M)$ , the x is a formal parameter and thus a local variable, different to any other

- $(\lambda y.M)[x := N] = what?$
- Look back at the school maths example above a subtle point
- Renaming bound variables consistently is allowed

- $\lambda x.x \equiv \lambda y.y \equiv \lambda z.z$
- $\lambda y.\lambda x.y \equiv \lambda z.\lambda x.z$
- This is called  $\alpha$ -conversion
- $(\lambda x.\lambda y.xy)y \rightarrow (\lambda x.\lambda z.xz)y \rightarrow \lambda z.yz$
- Bound and Free Variables
- $BV(x) = \emptyset$
- $BV(\lambda x.M) = BV(M) \cup \{x\}$
- $BV(MN) = BV(M) \cup BV(N)$
- $FV(x) = \{x\}$
- $FV(\lambda x.M) = FV(M) \{x\}$
- $FV(M N) = FV(M) \cup FV(N)$
- The above is a formalisation of school maths
- A Lambda term with no free variables is said to be closed such terms are also called combinators — see Combinator and Combinatory logic (Hankin, 2004, page 10)
- $\alpha$ -conversion
- $\lambda x.M \xrightarrow{\alpha} \lambda y.M[x := y]$  if  $y \notin FV(M)$
- $\beta$ -reduction final rule
- $(\lambda y.M)[x := N] = \lambda y.M \text{ if } x \notin FV(M)$
- $(\lambda y.M)[x := N] = \lambda y.M[x := N]$

if 
$$x \in FV(M)$$
 and  $y \notin FV(N)$ 

•  $(\lambda y.M)[x := N] = \lambda z.M[y := z][x := N]$ 

if 
$$x \in FV(M)$$
 and  $y \in FV(N)$ 

z is chosen to be first variable  $z \notin FV(NM)$ 

- This is why you cannot go f(a) when given
- $f(x) = ax^2 + bx + c$
- School maths but made formal

#### Lambda Calculus — Rules Summary — Conversion

- $\alpha$ -conversion renaming bound variables
- $\lambda x.M \xrightarrow{\alpha} \lambda y.M[x := y]$  if  $y \notin FV(M)$
- $\beta$ -conversion function application
- $(\lambda x.M)N \rightarrow M[x := N]$
- η-conversion extensionality

• 
$$\lambda x.Fx \xrightarrow{\eta} F \text{ if } x \notin FV(F)$$

## Lambda Calculus — Rules Summary — Substitution

- 1.  $x[x := N] \equiv N$
- 2.  $y[x := N] \equiv y$
- 3.  $(PQ)[x := N] \equiv (P[x := N])(Q[x := N])$
- 4.  $(\lambda x.M)[x := N] = \lambda x.M$
- 5.  $(\lambda y.M)[x := N] = \lambda y.M \text{ if } x \notin FV(M)$
- 6.  $(\lambda y.M)[x := N] = \lambda y.M[x := N]$

if 
$$x \in FV(M)$$
 and  $y \notin FV(N)$ 

7.  $(\lambda y.M)[x := N] = \lambda z.M[y := z][x := N]$ 

if 
$$x \in FV(M)$$
 and  $y \in FV(N)$ 

z is chosen to be first variable  $z \notin FV(NM)$ 

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### 3.4.4 Lambda Calculus Encodings

- So what does this formalism get us?
- The Lambda Calculus is Turing complete
- We can encode any computation (if we are clever enough)
- Booleans and propositional logic
- Pairs
- Natural numbers and arithmetic
- Looping and recursion

#### **Booleans and Propositional Logic**

- True =  $\lambda x.\lambda y.x$
- False =  $\lambda x. \lambda y. y$
- IF a THEN b ELSE  $c \equiv abc$
- IF True THEN b ELSE  $c \rightarrow (\lambda x. \lambda y. x) b c$
- $\rightarrow (\lambda y.b) c \rightarrow b$
- IF False THEN b ELSE  $c \rightarrow (\lambda x. \lambda y. y) b c$
- $\rightarrow (\lambda y.y) c \rightarrow c$
- Not =  $\lambda x.((x \text{ False})\text{True})$
- Not x = IF x THEN False ELSE True

- Exercise: evaluate Not True
- And =  $\lambda x. \lambda y. ((x y) \text{ False})$
- And x y = IF x THEN y ELSE False
- Exercise: evaluate And True False
- Or =  $\lambda x.\lambda y.((x \text{ True })y)$
- Or x y = IF x THEN True ELSE y
- Exercise: evaluate Or False True
- Exercise: evaluate Not True
- $\rightarrow$  ( $\lambda x$ .((x False) True)) True
- → (True False) True
- Could go straight to False from here, but we shall fill in the detail
- $\rightarrow$   $((\lambda x.\lambda y.x)(\lambda x.\lambda y.y))(\lambda x.\lambda y.x)$
- $\rightarrow (\lambda y.(\lambda x.\lambda y.y))(\lambda x.\lambda y.x)$
- $\rightarrow$  ( $\lambda x. \lambda y. y$ ) = False
- Exercise: evaluate And True False
- → (IF x THEN y ELSE False) True False
- →(IF True THEN False ELSE False) →False
- Exercise: evaluate Or False True
- → (IF x THEN True ELSE y) False True
- →(IF False THEN True ELSE True) →True

#### Natural Numbers — Church Numerals

- Encoding of natural numbers
- $0 = \lambda f. \lambda y. y$
- $1 = \lambda f. \lambda y. fy$
- $2 = \lambda f. \lambda y. f(fy)$
- $3 = \lambda f. \lambda y. f(f(fy))$
- Successor Succ =  $\lambda z.\lambda f.\lambda y.f(z f y)$
- Succ  $0 = (\lambda z.\lambda f.\lambda y.f(z f y))(\lambda f.\lambda y.y)$
- $\rightarrow \lambda f. \lambda y. f((\lambda f. \lambda y. y) f y)$
- $\rightarrow \lambda f. \lambda y. f((\lambda y. y) y)$
- $\rightarrow \lambda f. \lambda y. fy = 1$

## Natural Numbers — Operations

- isZero =  $\lambda z.z(\lambda y. \text{ False})$  True
- Exercise: evaluate isZero 0
- If M and N are numerals (as  $\lambda$  expressions)
- Add M N =  $\lambda x. \lambda y. (M x) ((N x) y)$
- Mult M N =  $\lambda x$ .(M (N x))
- Exercise: show 1 + 1 = 2

#### **Pairs**

- Encoding of a pair a, b
- $(a, b) = \lambda x$ . IF x THEN a ELSE b
- FST =  $\lambda f.f$  True
- SND =  $\lambda f.f$  False
- Exercise: evaluate FST (a, b)
- Exercise: evaluate SND (a, b)

#### The Fixpoint Combinator

- $Y = \lambda f.(\lambda x.f(x x))(\lambda x.f(x x))$
- YF =  $\lambda f.(\lambda x.f(x x))(\lambda x.f(x x))F$
- $\rightarrow (\lambda x.F(x x))(\lambda x.F(x x))$
- $F((\lambda x.F(x x))(\lambda x.F(x x))) = F(Y F)$
- (YF) is a fixed point of F
- We can use Y to achieve recursion for F
- Recursion implementation Factorial
- Fact =  $\lambda f. \lambda n$ . IF n = 0 THEN 1 ELSE n \* (f(n 1))
- (Y Fact)1 = (Fact (Y fact))1
- $\rightarrow$  IF 1 = 0 THEN 1 ELSE 1 \* ((Y Fact) 0)
- $\rightarrow$  1 \* ((Y Fact) 0)
- → 1 \* (Fact (Y Fact) 0)
- $\rightarrow 1 * IF 0 = 0 THEN 1 ELSE 0 * ((Y Fact) (0 1))$
- $\bullet \rightarrow 1 * 1 \rightarrow 1$
- Factorial n = (Y Fact) n
- · Recursion implemented with a non-recursive function Y

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#### Turing Machines, Lambda Calculus and Programming Languages

- Anything computable can be represented as TM or Lambda Calculus
- But programs would be slow, large and hard to read
- In practice use the ideas to create more expressive languages which include built-in primitives
- Also leads to ideas on data types
- Polymorphic data types
- Algebraic data types
- Also leads on to ideas on higher order functions functions that take functions as arguments or returns functions as results.

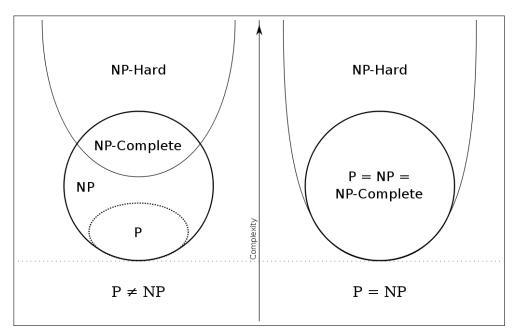
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## 4 Complexity

#### P and NP

- P, the set of all decision problems that can be solved in polynomial time on a deterministic Turing machine
- NP, the set of all decision problems whose solutions can be verified (certificate) in polynomial time
- Equivalently, NP, the set of all decision problems that can be solved in polynomial time on a non-deterministic Turing machine
- A decision problem, dp is NP-complete if
  - 1. dp is in NP and
  - 2. Every problem in NP is reducible to dp in polynomial time
- NP-hard a problem satisfying the second condition, whether or not it satisfies the
  first condition. Class of problems which are at least as hard as the hardest problems
  in NP. NP-hard problems do not have to be in NP and may not be decision problems

Euler diagram for P, NP, NP-complete and NP-hard set of problems

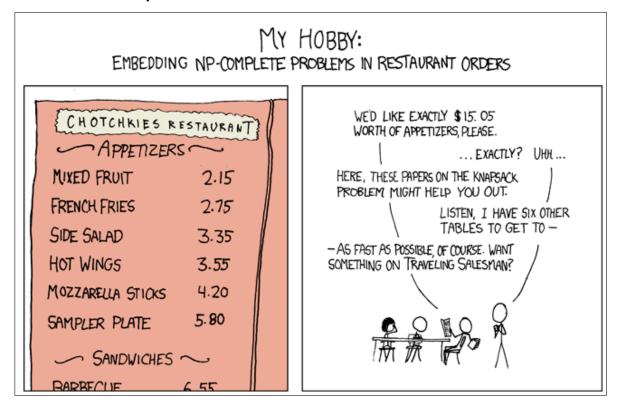


Source: Wikipedia NP-complete entry

#### **NP-complete problems**

- Boolean satisfiability (SAT) Cook-Levin theorem
- Conjunctive Normal Form 3SAT
- Hamiltonian path problem
- Travelling salesman problem
- NP-complete see list of problems

#### **XKCD on NP-Complete Problems**



Source & Explanation: XKCD 287

## 4.1 NP-Completeness and Boolean Satisfiability

- The *Boolean satisfiability problem (SAT)* was the first decision problem shown to be *NP-Complete*
- This section gives a sketch of an explanation
- **Health Warning** different texts have different notations and there will be some inconsistency in these notes
- Health warning these notes use some formal notation to make the ideas more precise — computation requires precise notation and is about manipulating strings according to precise rules.

## Alphabets, Strings and Languages

- Notation:
- $\Sigma$  is a set of symbols the alphabet
- $\Sigma^k$  is the set of all string of length k, which each symbol from  $\Sigma$
- Example: if  $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$ 
  - $-\Sigma^{1} = \{0, 1\}$
  - $\Sigma^2 = \{00, 01, 10, 11\}$
- $\Sigma^0 = \{\epsilon\}$  where  $\epsilon$  is the empty string
- $\Sigma^*$  is the set of all possible strings over  $\Sigma$
- $\bullet \ \Sigma^* = \Sigma^0 \cup \Sigma^1 \cup \Sigma^2 \cup \dots$
- A Language, L, over  $\Sigma$  is a subset of  $\Sigma^*$
- L  $\subseteq \Sigma^*$

#### Language Accepted by a Turing Machine

- Language accepted by Turing Machine, M denoted by L(M)
- L(M) is the set of strings  $w \in \Sigma^*$  accepted by M
- For *Final States*  $F = \{Y, N\}$ , a string  $w \in \Sigma^*$  is accepted by  $M \Leftrightarrow$  (if and only if) M starting in  $q_0$  with w on the tape halts in state Y
- Calculating a function (function problem) can be turned into a decision problem by asking whether f(x) = y

### The NP-Complete Class

- If we do not know if P ≠ NP, what can we say?
- A language L is NP-Complete if:

- $L \in NP$  and
- for all other  $L' \in NP$  there is a *polynomial time transformation* (Karp reducible, reduction) from L' to L
- Problem  $P_1$  polynomially reduces (Karp reduces, transforms) to  $P_2$ , written  $P_1 \propto P_2$  or  $P_1 \leq_p P_2$ , iff  $\exists f : dp_{P_1} \rightarrow dp_{P_2}$  such that
  - $\forall I \in dp_{P_1}[I \in Y_{P_1} \Leftrightarrow f(I) \in Y_{P_2}]$
  - f can be computed in polynomial time
- More formally,  $L_1 \subseteq \Sigma_1^*$  polynomially transforms to  $L_2 \subseteq \Sigma_2^*$ , written  $L_1 \propto L_2$  or  $L_1 \leq_p L_2$ , iff  $\exists f : \Sigma_1^* \to \Sigma_2^*$  such that
  - $\forall x \in \Sigma_1^* [x \in L_1 \Leftrightarrow f(x) \in L_2]$
  - There is a polynomial time TM that computes f
- Transitivity If  $L_1 \propto L_2$  and  $L_2 \propto L_3$  then  $L_1 \propto L_3$
- If L is NP-Hard and  $L \in P$  then P = NP
- If L is NP-Complete, then  $L \in P$  if and only if P = NP
- If  $L_0$  is NP-Complete and  $L \in NP$  and  $L_0 \propto L$  then L is NP-Complete
- Hence if we find one NP-Complete problem, it may become easier to find more
- In 1971/1973 Cook-Levin showed that the Boolean satisfiability problem (SAT) is NP-Complete

#### The Boolean Satisfiability Problem

- A propositional logic formula or Boolean expression is built from variables, operators: AND (conjunction, ∧), OR (disjunction, ∨), NOT (negation, ¬)
- A formula is said to be *satisfiable* if it can be made True by some assignment to its variables.
- The Boolean Satisfiability Problem is, given a formula, check if it is satisfiable.
  - Instance: a finite set U of Boolean variables and a finite set C of clauses over U
  - Question: Is there a satisfying truth assignment for C?
- A clause is is a disjunction of variables or negations of variables
- Conjunctive normal form (CNF) is a conjunction of clauses
- Any Boolean expression can be transformed to CNF
- Given a set of Boolean variable  $U = \{u_1, u_2, ..., u_n\}$
- A literal from U is either any  $u_i$  or the negation of some  $u_i$  (written  $\overline{u_i}$ )
- A clause is denoted as a subset of literals from  $U \{u_2, \overline{u_4}, u_5\}$
- A clause is satisfied by an assignment to the variables if at least one of the literals evaluates to True (just like disjunction of the literals)
- Let C be a set of clauses over U C is satisfiable iff there is some assignment of truth values to the variables so that every clause is satisfied (just like CNF)

- C =  $\{\{u_1, u_2, u_3\}, \{\overline{u_2}, \overline{u_3}\}, \{u_2, \overline{u_3}\}\}\}$  is satisfiable
- C =  $\{\{u_1, u_2\}, \{u_1, \overline{u_2}\}, \{\overline{u_1}\}\}$  is not satisfiable
- Proof that SAT is NP-Complete looks at the structure of NDTMs and shows you can transform any NDTM to SAT in polynomial time (in fact logarithmic space suffices)
- SAT is in NP since you can check a solution in polynomial time
- To show that  $\forall L \in NP : L \propto SAT$  invent a polynomial time algorithm for each polynomial time NDTM, M, which takes as input a string x and produces a Boolean formula  $E_X$  which is satisfiable iff M accepts x
- See Cook-Levin theorem

#### Sources

- Garey and Johnson (1979, page 34) has the notation  $L_1 \propto L_2$  for polynomial transformation
- Arora and Barak (2009, page 42) has the notation  $L_1 \leq_p L_2$  for polynomial-time Karp reducible
- The sketch of Cook's theorem is from Garey and Johnson (1979, page 38)
- For the satisfiable C we could have assignments  $(u_1, u_2, u_3) \in \{(T, T, F), (T, F, F), (F, T, F)\}$

## **Coping with NP-Completeness**

- What does it mean if a problem is NP-Complete?
  - There is a P time verification algorithm.
  - There is a P time algorithm to solve it iff P = NP (?)
  - No one has yet found a P time algorithm to solve any NP-Complete problem
  - So what do we do?
- Improved exhaustive search Dynamic Programming; Branch and Bound
- Heuristic methods acceptable solutions in acceptable time compromise on optimality
- Average time analysis look for an algorithm with good average time compromise on generality (see Big-O Algorithm Complexity Cheatsheet)
- Probabilistic or Randomized algorithms compromise on correctness

#### **Sources**

- Practical Solutions for Hard Problems Rich (2007, chp 30)
- Coping with NP-Complete Problems Garey and Johnson (1979, chp 6)

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## **5 Future Work**

- Sunday, 16 May 2021 online tutorial exam revision
- Saturday, 22 May 2021 tutorial online, exam revision
- Please email me with any requests for particular topics
- Tuesday, 8 June 2021 exam

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## 6 Web Sites & References

#### 6.1 Web Sites

- Logic
  - WFF, WFF'N Proof online
- Computability
  - Computability
  - Computable function
  - Decidability (logic)
  - Turing Machines
  - Universal Turing Machine
  - Turing machine simulator
  - Lambda Calculus
  - Von Neumann Architecture
  - Turing Machine XKCD 205 Candy Button Paper
  - Turing Machine XKCD 505 A Bunch of Rocks
  - RIP John Conway Why can Conway's Game of Life be classified as a universal machine?
  - Phil Wadler Bright Club on Computability
  - Bridges: Theory of Computation: Halting Problem
  - Bridges: Theory of Computation: Other Non-computable Problems

## Complexity

- Complexity class
- NP complexity
- NP complete
- Reduction (complexity)

- P versus NP problem
- Graph of NP-Complete Problems

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**Note on References** — the list of references is mainly to remind me where I obtained some of the material and is not required reading.

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