Lecture Computability (DIT312, DAT415)

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Can every function be implemented?

- No (given some assumptions).
- ► This lecture: Two proofs (sketches).

General information

See the course web pages.

Comparing sets' sizes

- Definition: $f \in A \rightarrow B$ is *injective* if $\forall x, y \in A$. f x = f y implies x = y.
- ► If there is an injection from A to B, then B is at least as "large" as A.

- Definition: f ∈ A → B is surjective if
 ∀b ∈ B. ∃a ∈ A. f a = b.
- If there is a surjection from A to B, then there is an injection from B to A (assuming the axiom of choice).
- ► Thus, if there is a surjection from A to B, then A is at least as "large" as B.

For functions $f \in A \rightarrow B$, $g \in B \rightarrow A$:

- Definition: g is a *left inverse* of f if $\forall a \in A. \ g(f a) = a.$
- Definition: g is a right inverse of f if $\forall b \in B. \ f(g b) = b.$
- ▶ If *f* has a left inverse, then it is injective.
- ▶ If *f* has a right inverse, then it is surjective.

Bijections

- Definition: f ∈ A → B is bijective if it is both injective and surjective.
- ► If there is a bijection from A to B, then A and B have the same "size".
- A function is bijective iff it has a left and right inverse.
- If there is an injection from A to B, and an injection from B to A, then there is a bijection from A to B (assuming excluded middle).



Which of the following functions are injective? Surjective?

Respond at https://pingo.coactum.de/, using a code that I provide.

Countable, uncountable

- A is countable if there is an injection from A to N.
- ► If there is no such injection, then *A* is *uncountable*.
- A is countably infinite if there is a bijection from A to N.

- ► There is an injection from A to B iff A = Ø or there is a surjection from B to A (assuming the axiom of choice).
- ► Thus A is countable iff A = Ø or there is a surjection from N to A.



The set of finite strings of characters is infinite. Is it countable?

- 1. Yes.
- 2. No.

If A is countable, then List A is countable.

Proof sketch:

- We are given an injection $f \in A \to \mathbb{N}$.
- Define $g \in List A \to \mathbb{N}$ by

$$\begin{array}{c} g\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, ..., x_{n}\right) = \\ & 2^{1+fx_{1}} \; 3^{1+fx_{2}} \; \cdots \; p_{n}^{1+fx_{n}}, \end{array}$$

where p_n is the *n*-th prime number.

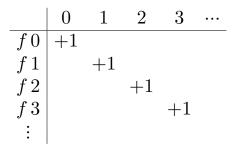
By the fundamental theorem of arithmetic and the injectivity of f we get that g is injective.

- Is every set countable?
- ► No.
- *Diagonalisation* can be used to show that certain sets are uncountable.

Proof (using the axiom of choice):

- Assume that $\mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$ is countable.
- The set is non-empty, so we get a surjection $f \in \mathbb{N} \to (\mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}).$
- Define $g \in \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$ by g n = f n n + 1.
- By surjectivity we get that g = f i for some i.
- Thus f i i = g i = f i i + 1, which is impossible.

The function g differs from every function enumerated by f on the "diagonal":



Not every function is computable

Proof sketch (classical):

- ► The set of programs P of a typical programming language is countable and nonempty, thus there is a surjection from N to P.
- There is no surjection from \mathbb{N} to $\mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$.
- Thus there is no surjection from P to N → N (the composition of two surjections is surjective).
- Thus, however you give semantics to programs, it is not the case that every function is the semantics of some program.



If we define g n = f n (2n) + 1, does the diagonalisation argument still work? [BN]

The halting problem

- Can we find an explicit example of a function that cannot be computed?
- ▶ What does "can be computed" mean?
- Let us restrict attention to a "typical" programming language.
- In that case the answer is yes.
- A standard example is the halting problem.

The halting problem

Given the source code of a program and its input, determine whether the program will halt when run with the given input.

Proof sketch (with hidden assumptions):

- Assume that the halting problem is implemented by *halts*.
- Define $p \ x = if \ halts \ x \ x \ then \ loop \ else \ skip$.
- ▶ Consider the application p 「p ¬, where 「p ¬ is the source code of p.
- ► The result of halts 「p] 「p] must be true or false.



Can the result of $halts \lceil p \rceil \lceil p \rceil$ be true?

- 1. Yes.
- 2. No.

Proof sketch (continued):

If halts 「p ¬ 「p ¬ = true, then:
p 「p ¬ terminates (specification of halts).
p 「p ¬ = loop, which does not terminate.
If halts 「p ¬ [p ¬ = false, then:
p 「p ¬ does not terminate.
p 「p ¬ = skip, which does terminate.
Either way, we get a contradiction.

Models of computation

- The proof is based on some assumptions.
- For instance, the programming language allows us to define if—then—else and *loop*, with the intended semantics.
- Later in the course we will be more precise.
- To make it easier to study questions of computability we will use idealised models of computation.

One model:

- The primitive recursive functions.
- Functional in character.
- All programs terminate.

Another model:

- A lambda calculus with pattern matching called χ.
- Functional in character.
- Some programs do not terminate.

Yet another model:

- Turing machines.
- Imperative in character.
- Some programs do not terminate.

The Church-Turing thesis

Models of computation

- How are these models related?
- Can one say anything about programming in general?
- It has been noted that many models of computation are, in some sense, equivalent:
 - Turing machines.
 - The (untyped) λ -calculus.
 - The recursive functions.

The Church-Turing thesis

Every effectively calculable function on the positive integers can be computed using a Turing machine.

The Church-Turing thesis

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- This is one variant of the thesis.
- We will define "can be computed using a Turing machine" more precisely later.

"Effectively calculable" means *roughly* that the function can be computed by a human being

- following exact instructions, with a finite description,
- ▶ in finite (but perhaps very long) time,
- using an unlimited amount of pencil and paper,
- and no ingenuity.

(See Copeland.)

The Church-Turing thesis

- The thesis is a conjecture.
- "Effectively calculable" is an intuitive notion, not a formal definition.
- However, the thesis is widely believed to be true.

Turing-complete

A programming language is *Turing-complete* if every Turing machine can be simulated using a program written in this language.

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- This is one variant of the definition.
- We have not specified what it means to simulate a Turing machine.

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- Every primitive recursive function terminates.
- Easy to solve the halting problem!
- Can we have a model of computation that includes exactly those functions on the natural numbers that can be implemented using Turing machines that always halt?

Only terminating programs?

- Every primitive recursive function terminates.
- Easy to solve the halting problem!
- Can we have a model of computation that includes exactly those functions on the natural numbers that can be implemented using Turing machines that always halt?
- No (given some assumptions).

The following assumptions are contradictory:

- The set of valid programs $Prog \subseteq \mathbb{N}$.
- For every computable function $f \in \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$ there is a program $\lceil f \rceil \in Prog.$
- There is a computable function
 eval ∈ N → N → N satisfying eval 「f n = f n.

(See Brown and Palsberg.)

Only terminating programs?

Proof sketch:

- Define the computable function $f \in \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$ by $f n = eval \ n \ n+1$.
- We get

$$f^{\neg}f^{\neg} = eval^{\neg}f^{\neg}f^{\neg} + 1$$
$$= f^{\neg}f^{\neg} + 1,$$

which is impossible.

A variant of the previous argument

Assumptions:

- ▶ Programs: *Prog.*
- Computable semantics:

 $[\![_]\!] \in \mathit{Prog} \times \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$

• A coding function:

 $code \in Prog \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$

• A computable left inverse of *code*:

 $decode \in \mathbb{N} \rightarrow Prog$

Goal: Prove that the following statement is false:

$$\forall \ g \in \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}. \ g \text{ is computable} \Rightarrow \exists \ \underline{g} \in Prog. \ \forall \ n \in \mathbb{N}. \ \llbracket (\underline{g}, n) \rrbracket = g \ n$$

Goal: Prove that the following statement is true:

$$\begin{array}{l} \exists \ g \in \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}. \ g \ \text{is computable} \land \\ (\forall \underline{g} \in \mathit{Prog.} \ (\forall n \in \mathbb{N}. \ \llbracket (\underline{g}, n) \rrbracket = g \ n) \to \bot) \end{array}$$

A variant of the previous argument

• Define
$$g \in \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$$
 by

$$g n = \llbracket (decode n, n) \rrbracket + 1.$$

Note that g is computable.

• Assume that we have $g \in Prog$, with

$$\forall \ n \in \mathbb{N}. \llbracket (\underline{g}, n) \rrbracket = g \ n.$$

• We get a contradiction:

$$g (code \underline{g}) = \\ [[(decode (code \underline{g}), code \underline{g})]] + 1 = \\ [[(\underline{g}, code \underline{g})]] + 1 = \\ g (code \underline{g}) + 1 = \\]$$



- ► Injections, surjections, bijections.
- Countable and uncountable sets.
- Diagonalisation.
- The halting problem.
- Models of computation.
- The Church-Turing thesis.



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Please try to solve the recommended exercises before coming to the tutorial, and read the recommended texts before coming to the lecture.