An Application of Ramsey’s Theorem to Proving Programs Terminate: An Exposition

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Who is Who

1. Work by
   1.1 Floyd,
   1.2 Byron Cook, Andreas Podelski, Andrey Rybalchenko,
   1.3 Lee, Jones, Ben-Amram
   1.4 Others

2. Pre-Apology: Not my area-some things may be wrong.
3. Pre-Brag: Not my area-some things may be understandable.
Problem: Given a program we want to prove it terminates no matter what user does (called TERM problem).

1. Impossible in general- Harder than Halting.
2. But can do this on some simple progs. (We will.)
In this talk I will:

1. Do example of traditional method to prove progs terminate.
2. Do harder example of traditional method.
3. **DIGRESSION**: A very short lecture on Ramsey Theory.
4. Do that same harder example using Ramsey Theory.
5. Compelling example with Ramsey Theory.
6. Do same example with Ramsey Theory and Matrices.
1. Will use psuedo-code progs.
2. **KEY**: If $A$ is a set then the command
   
   \[ x = \text{input}(A) \]

   means that $x$ gets some value from $A$ that the user decides.

3. **Note**: we will want to show that no matter what the user does, the program will halt.

4. The code
   
   \[ (x, y) = (f(x, y), g(x, y)) \]

   means that simultaneously $x$ gets $f(x, y)$ and $y$ gets $g(x, y)$. 
Easy Example of Traditional Method

\[(x,y,z) = (\text{input(INT)}, \text{input(INT)}, \text{input(INT)})\]
While \(x>0\) and \(y>0\) and \(z>0\)
\[\text{control} = \text{input}(1,2,3)\]
if control == 1 then
\[(x,y,z)=(x+1,y-1,z-1)\]
else
if control == 2 then
\[(x,y,z)=(x-1,y+1,z-1)\]
else
\[(x,y,z)=(x-1,y-1,z+1)\]

Sketch of Proof of termination:
(x,y,z) = (input(INT), input(INT), input(INT))
While x>0 and y>0 and z>0
    control = input(1,2,3)
    if control == 1 then
        (x,y,z)=(x+1,y-1,z-1)
    else
    if control == 2 then
        (x,y,z)=(x-1,y+1,z-1)
    else
        (x,y,z)=(x-1,y-1,z+1)

Sketch of Proof of termination:
Whatever the user does x+y+z is decreasing.
Easy Example of Traditional Method

\[(x, y, z) = (\text{input(INT)}, \text{input(INT)}, \text{input(INT)})\]

While \(x>0\) and \(y>0\) and \(z>0\)

control = input(1,2,3)

if control == 1 then

\[(x, y, z) = (x+1, y-1, z-1)\]

else

if control == 2 then

\[(x, y, z) = (x-1, y+1, z-1)\]

else

\[(x, y, z) = (x-1, y-1, z+1)\]

Sketch of Proof of termination:
Whatever the user does \(x+y+z\) is decreasing.
Eventually \(x+y+z=0\) so prog terminates there or earlier.
What is Traditional Method?

General method due to Floyd: Find a function \( f(x,y,z) \) from the values of the variables to \( N \) such that

1. in every iteration \( f(x,y,z) \) decreases
2. if \( f(x,y,z) \) is ever 0 then the program must have halted.

Note: Method is more general- can map to a well founded order such that in every iteration \( f(x,y,z) \) decreases in that order, and if \( f(x,y,z) \) is ever a min element then program must have halted.
(x,y,z) = (input(INT),input(INT),input(INT))
While x>0 and y>0 and z>0
    control = input(1,2)
    if control == 1 then
        (x,y,z) =(x-1,input(y+1,y+2,...),z)
    else
        (x,y,z)=(x,y-1,input(z+1,z+2,...))

Sketch of Proof of termination:

Use Lex Order: (0,0,0) < (0,0,1) < ... < (0,1,0) ... .
Note: (4,10,100) < (5,0,0).
In every iteration (x,y,z) decreases in this ordering.
If hits bottom then all vars are 0 so must halt then or earlier.
Hard Example of Traditional Method

(x, y, z) = (input(INT), input(INT), input(INT))
While x > 0 and y > 0 and z > 0
    control = input(1, 2)
    if control == 1 then
        (x, y, z) = (x - 1, input(y + 1, y + 2, ...), z)
    else
        (x, y, z) = (x, y - 1, input(z + 1, z + 2, ...))

Sketch of Proof of termination:
Use Lex Order: (0, 0, 0) < (0, 0, 1) < ... < (0, 1, 0) ... 
Note: (4, 10^{100}, 10^{101}) < (5, 0, 0).
(x,y,z) = (input(INT),input(INT),input(INT))
While x>0 and y>0 and z>0
    control = input(1,2)
    if control == 1 then
        (x,y,z) = (x-1,input(y+1,y+2,...),z)
    else
        (x,y,z) = (x,y-1,input(z+1,z+2,...))
Sketch of Proof of termination:
Use Lex Order: (0,0,0) < (0,0,1) < ... < (0,1,0) < ...
Note: (4,10^{100},10^{10!}) < (5,0,0).
In every iteration (x,y,z) decreases in this ordering.
(x,y,z) = (input(INT),input(INT),input(INT))
While x>0 and y>0 and z>0
    control = input(1,2)
    if control == 1 then
        (x,y,z) = (x-1,input(y+1,y+2,...),z)
    else
        (x,y,z) = (x,y-1,input(z+1,z+2,...))
Sketch of Proof of termination:
Use Lex Order: (0,0,0) < (0,0,1) < ... < (0,1,0) ...
Note: (4,10^{100},10^{101}) < (5,0,0).
In every iteration (x,y,z) decreases in this ordering.
If hits bottom then all vars are 0 so must halt then or earlier.
Notes about Proof

1. **Bad News:** We had to use a *funky* ordering. This might be hard for a proof checker to find. (*Funky* is not a formal term.)

2. **Good News:** We only had to reason about what happens in one iteration.

Keep these in mind—our later proof will use a *nice* ordering but will need to reason about a *block* of instructions.
The following are known:

1. If you have 6 people at a party then either 3 of them mutually know each other or 3 of them mutually don’t know each other.
Digression Into Ramsey Theory (Parties!)

The following are known:

1. If you have 6 people at a party then either 3 of them mutually know each other or 3 of them mutually don’t know each other.

2. If you have 18 people at a party then either 4 of them mutually know each other or 4 of them mutually do not know each other.
The following are known:

1. If you have 6 people at a party then either 3 of them mutually know each other or 3 of them mutually don’t know each other.

2. If you have 18 people at a party then either 4 of them mutually know each other or 4 of them mutually do not know each other.

3. If you have $2^{2k-1}$ people at a party then either $k$ of them mutually know each other or $k$ of them mutually do not know each other.
The following are known:

1. If you have 6 people at a party then either 3 of them mutually know each other or 3 of them mutually don’t know each other.

2. If you have 18 people at a party then either 4 of them mutually know each other or 4 of them mutually do not know each other.

3. If you have $2^{2k-1}$ people at a party then either $k$ of them mutually know each other or $k$ of them mutually do not know each other.

4. If you have an infinite number of people at a party then either there exists an infinite subset that all know each other or an infinite subset that all do not know each other.
Definition
Let \( c, k, n \in \mathbb{N} \). \( K_n \) is the complete graph on \( n \) vertices (all pairs are edges). \( K_\omega \) is the infinite complete graph. A \( c \)-coloring of \( K_n \) is a \( c \)-coloring of the edges of \( K_n \). A homogeneous set is a subset \( H \) of the vertices such that every pair has the same color (e.g., 10 people all of whom know each other).

The following are known.

1. For all 2-colorings of \( K_6 \) there is a homog 3-set.
2. For all \( c \)-colorings of \( K_c \) there is a homog \( k \)-set.
3. For all \( c \)-colorings of the \( K_\omega \) there exists a homog \( \omega \)-set.
Definition
Let $c, k, n \in \mathbb{N}$. $K_n$ is the complete graph on $n$ vertices (all pairs are edges). $K_\omega$ is the infinite complete graph. A $c$-coloring of $K_n$ is a $c$-coloring of the edges of $K_n$. A homogeneous set is a subset $H$ of the vertices such that every pair has the same color (e.g., 10 people all of whom know each other).

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The following are known.

1. For all 2-colorings of $K_6$ there is a homog 3-set.
2. For all $c$-colorings of $K_{c^{ck-c}}$ there is a homog $k$-set.
Definition
Let $c, k, n \in \mathbb{N}$. $K_n$ is the complete graph on $n$ vertices (all pairs are edges). $K_\omega$ is the infinite complete graph. A $c$-coloring of $K_n$ is a $c$-coloring of the edges of $K_n$. A homogeneous set is a subset $H$ of the vertices such that every pair has the same color (e.g., 10 people all of whom know each other).

The following are known.

1. For all 2-colorings of $K_6$ there is a homog 3-set.
2. For all $c$-colorings of $K_{ck-c}$ there is a homog $k$-set.
3. For all $c$-colorings of the $K_\omega$ there exists a homog $\omega$-set.
Alt Proof Using Ramsey

\[(x, y, z) = (\text{input}(\text{INT}), \text{input}(\text{INT}), \text{input}(\text{INT}))\]
While \(x > 0\) and \(y > 0\) and \(z > 0\)
   control = \text{input}(1, 2)
   if control == 1 then
       (x, y, z) = (x-1, \text{input}(y+1, y+2, \ldots), z)
   else
       (x, y, z) = (y-1, \text{input}(z+1, z+2, \ldots))

Begin Proof of termination:
\[(x,y,z) = (\text{input(INT)}, \text{input(INT)}, \text{input(INT)})\]
While \(x > 0\) and \(y > 0\) and \(z > 0\)
  control = input(1,2)
  if control == 1 then
    \[(x,y,z) = (x-1, \text{input(y+1,y+2,...)},z)\]
  else
    \[(x,y,z) = (y-1, \text{input(z+1,z+2,...)})\]
Begin Proof of termination:
If program does not halt then there is infinite sequence
\[(x_1, y_1, z_1), (x_2, y_2, z_2), \ldots,\] representing state of vars.
Reasoning about Blocks

control = input(1,2)
if control == 1 then
    (x,y,z) = (x-1,input(y+1,y+2,...),z)
else
    (x,y,z) = (x,y-1,input(z+1,z+2,...))
Reasoning about Blocks

```python
control = input(1,2)
if control == 1 then
    (x,y,z) = (x-1,input(y+1,y+2,...),z)
else
    (x,y,z) = (x,y-1,input(z+1,z+2,...))
```

Look at \((x_i, y_i, z_i), \ldots, (x_j, y_j, z_j)\).

1. If control is ever 1 then \(x_i > x_j\).
2. If control is never 1 then \(y_i > y_j\).
Reasoning about Blocks

control = input(1,2)
if control == 1 then
    (x,y,z) =(x-1,input(y+1,y+2,...),z)
else
    (x,y,z)=(x,y-1,input(z+1,z+2,...))

Look at \((x_i,y_i,z_i),\ldots,(x_j,y_j,z_j)\).

1. If control is ever 1 then \(x_i > x_j\).
2. If control is never 1 then \(y_i > y_j\).

Upshot: For all \(i < j\) either \(x_i > x_j\) or \(y_i > y_j\).
Use Ramsey

If program does not halt then there is infinite sequence
\((x_1, y_1, z_1), (x_2, y_2, z_2), \ldots\), representing state of vars.
For all \(i < j\) either \(x_i > x_j\) or \(y_i > y_j\).
Define a 2-coloring of the edges of \(K_\omega\):

\[
\text{COL}(i, j) = \begin{cases} 
X & \text{if } x_i > x_j \\
Y & \text{if } y_i > y_j 
\end{cases}
\]  

(1)

By Ramsey there exists homog set \(i_1 < i_2 < i_3 < \cdots\).
If color is \(X\) then \(x_{i_1} > x_{i_2} > x_{i_3} > \cdots\)
If color is \(Y\) then \(y_{i_1} > y_{i_2} > y_{i_3} > \cdots\)
In either case will have eventually have a var \(\leq 0\) and hence program must terminate. Contradiction.
Compare and Contrast

1. Trad. proof used lex order on $N^3$—complicated!
2. Ramsey Proof used only used the ordering $N$.
3. Traditional proof only had to reason about single steps.
4. Ramsey Proof had to reason about blocks of steps.
What do YOU think?

VOTE:

1. Traditional Proof!
2. Ramsey Proof!
3. Metz/Sekora in 2020! (The Two-TAs ticket!)
A More Compelling Example

\((x,y) = (\text{input(INT), input(INT)})\)

While \(x > 0\) and \(y > 0\)

control = input(1,2)

if control == 1 then

\((x,y) = (x-1,x)\)

else

if control == 2 then

\((x,y) = (y-2,x+1)\)
Reasoning about Blocks

If program does not halt then there is infinite sequence $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \ldots$, representing state of vars. Need to show that for all $i < j$ either $x_i > x_j$ or $y_i > y_j$. Can show that one of the following must occur:

1. $x_j < x_i$ and $y_j \leq x_i$ ($x$ decs),
2. $x_j < y_i - 1$ and $y_j \leq x_i + 1$ ($x+y$ decs so one of $x$ or $y$ decs),
3. $x_j < y_i - 1$ and $y_j < y_i$ ($y$ decs),
4. $x_j < x_i$ and $y_j < y_i$ ($x$ and $y$ both decs).

Now use Ramsey argument.
Comments

1. The condition in the last proof is called a **Termination Invariant**. They are used to strengthen the induction hypothesis.
2. The proof was found by the system of B. Cook et al.
3. Looking for a Termination Invariant is the hard part to automate but they have automated it.
4. Can we use these techniques to solve a fragment of Termination Problem?
if control == 1 then \( (x,y)=(x-1,x) \)

Model as a matrix \( A \) indexed by \( x,y,x+y \).

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
-1 & 0 & \infty \\
\infty & \infty & \infty \\
\infty & \infty & \infty
\end{pmatrix}
\]

For \( a,b \in \{x,y,x+y\} \)
Entry \( (a,b) \) is difference between NEW \( b \) and OLD \( a \).
Entry \( (a,a) \) is most interesting- if neg then \( a \) decreased.
Model control=2 via a Matrix

if control == 2 then (x,y)=(y-2,x+1)

Model as a matrix $B$ indexed by $x,y,x+y$.

$$
\begin{pmatrix}
\infty & 1 & \infty \\
-2 & \infty & \infty \\
\infty & \infty & -1
\end{pmatrix}
$$
Redefine Matrix Mult

A and B matrices, C=AB defined by

\[ c_{ij} = \min_k \{a_{ik} + b_{kj}\}. \]

Lemma

If matrix A models a statement \( s_1 \) and matrix B models a statement \( s_2 \) then matrix AB models what happens if you run \( s_1; s_2 \).
Matrix Proof that Program Terminates

- A is matrix for control=1. B is matrix for control=2.
- Show: any prod of A’s and B’s some diag is negative.
- Hence in any finite seg one of the vars decreases.
- Hence, by Ramsey proof, the program always terminates
X = (input(INT),...,input(INT))
While x[1]>0 and x[2]>0 and ... x[n]>0
    control = input(1,2,3,...,m)
    if control==1
        X = F1(X,input(INT),...,input(INT)))
    else
        if control==2
            X = F2(X,input(INT),...,input(INT))
        else...
        else
            if control==m
                X = Fm(X,input(INT),...,input(INT))
Definition
The TERMINATION PROBLEM: Given $F_1, \ldots, F_m$ can we determine if the following holds:

For all $\omega$-seq of inputs the program halts
History Lesson: In 1900 David Hilbert proposed 23 problems for mathematicians to work on over the next 100 years. Hilbert’s Tenth Problem (in modern terminology):

Give an algorithm that will, given a polynomial \( p(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \) over \( \mathbb{Z} \), determines if there exists \( a_1, \ldots, a_n \in \mathbb{Z} \) such that \( p(a_1, \ldots, a_n) = 0 \).

- Hilbert thought there was such an algorithm and that this was a problem in Number Theory.
- Over time (next slide) it was proven that there is NO such algorithm and that this is a problem in Logic.
Computable and C.E. Sets

**Def:** A set $A$ is **computable** if there is a Java program (Turing Machine, other models) $J$ (on one var) that halts on all inputs such that
If $x \in A$ then $J(x) = YES$
If $x \notin A$ then $J(x) = NO$

**Def:** A set $A$ is **computably enumerable (c.e.)** (also called $\Sigma_1$) if there is a Java program $J$ (on two vars) that halts on all inputs such that
If $x \in A$ then $(\exists y)[J(x, y) = YES]$. 
If $x \notin A$ then $(\forall y)[J(x, y) = NO]$.

**Known:** There are sets that are c.e. but not computable. Here is one: Let $J_x$ be the $x$th Java program in some reasonable ordering.

\[
\{(x, y) : J_x(y) \text{ halts} \} = \{(x, y) : (\exists t)[J_x(y) \text{ halts in } \leq t \text{ steps}] \}
\]
1. In 1959 Davis-Putnam-Robinson showed that for every c.e. set $A$ there exists an exp-poly (so can include vars as exponents) $p(x, x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ such that

$$A = \{a : (\exists a_1, \ldots, a_n)[p(a, a_1, \ldots, a_n)]\}$$

Needed just ONE step to get down to polynomials.

2. In 1970 Yuri Matiyasevich supplies that one missing step. So ALL c.e. sets (including undecidable ones) can be written in terms of solutions to polynomials.

3. From all of this you can conclude Hilbert’s Tenth Problem is Unsolvable.

4. From this you can conclude that TERM is undecidable.
The **TERMINATION PROBLEM**: Given $F_1, \ldots, F_m$ can we determine if the following holds:

- For all $\omega$-seq of inputs the program halts

1. This is **HARDER** than **HALT**. This is $\Sigma^1_1$-complete. Infinitely harder than HALT!

2. **EASY** to show is **HARD**: use polynomials and Hilbert’s Tenth Problem. This shows a much easier version of the problem undecidable.

3. **OPEN**: Determine which subsets of $F_i$ make this decidable? $\Sigma^1_1$-complete? Other?
The colorings we applied Ramsey to were of a certain type:

**Definition**
A coloring of the edges of $K_n$ or $K_N$ is transitive if, for every $i < j < k$, if $\text{COL}(i, j) = \text{COL}(j, k)$ then both equal $\text{COL}(i, k)$.

1. Our colorings were transitive.
2. Transitive Ramsey Thm is weaker than Ramsey’s Thm.
Transitive Ramsey Weaker than Ramsey

TR is Transitive Ramsey, R is Ramsey.

1. Combinatorially: \( R(k, c) = c^{\Theta(ck)} \), \( TR(k, c) = (k - 1)^c + 1 \).
   This may look familiar
Transitive Ramsey Weaker than Ramsey

TR is Transitive Ramsey, R is Ramsey.

1. Combinatorially: \( R(k, c) = c^{\Theta(c^k)} \), \( TR(k, c) = (k - 1)^c + 1 \). This may look familiar \( TR(k, 2) = (k - 1)^2 + 1 \) is Erdős-Szekeres Theorem. More usual statement: For any sequence of \((k - 1)^2 + 1\) distinct reals there is either an increasing or decreasing subsequence of length \( k \).
Transitive Ramsey Weaker than Ramsey

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2. Computability: There exists a computable 2-coloring of \( K_\omega \) with no computable homogeneous set (can even have no \( \Sigma_2 \) homogeneous set). For every transitive computable \( c \)-coloring of \( K_\omega \) there exists a computable homogeneous set (folklore).
Transitive Ramsey Weaker than Ramsey

TR is Transitive Ramsey, R is Ramsey.

1. Combinatorially: $R(k, c) = c^\Theta(ck)$, $TR(k, c) = (k - 1)^c + 1$. This may look familiar $TR(k, 2) = (k - 1)^2 + 1$ is Erdős-Szekeres Theorem. More usual statement: For any sequence of $(k - 1)^2 + 1$ distinct reals there is either an increasing or decreasing subsequence of length $k$.

2. Computability: There exists a computable 2-coloring of $K_\omega$ with no computable homogeneous set (can even have no $\Sigma_2$ homogeneous set). For every transitive computable $c$-coloring of $K_\omega$ there exists a computable homogeneous set (folklore).

3. Proof Theory: Over the axiom system $RCA_0$, R implies TR, but TR does not imply R.
Summary

1. Ramsey Theory can be used to prove some simple programs terminate that seem harder to do by traditional methods. Interest to PL.
2. Some subcases of TERMINATION PROBLEM are decidable. Of interest to PL and Logic.
3. Full strength of Ramsey not needed. Interest to Logicians and Combinatorists.