

Periodicity and Immortality in Reversible Computing*

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Abstract. We investigate the decidability of the periodicity and the immortality problems in three models of reversible computation: reversible counter machines, reversible Turing machines and reversible one-dimensional cellular automata. Immortality and periodicity are properties that describe the behavior of the model starting from arbitrary initial configurations: immortality is the property of having at least one non-halting orbit, while periodicity is the property of always eventually returning back to the starting configuration. It turns out that periodicity and immortality problems are both undecidable in all three models. We also show that it is undecidable whether a (not-necessarily reversible) Turing machine with moving tape has a periodic orbit.

Introduction

Reversible computing is the classical counterpart of quantum computing. Reversibility refers to the fact that there is an inverse process to retrace the computation back in time, i.e., the system is time invertible and no information is ever lost. Much of the research on reversible computation is motivated by the Landauer's principle which states a strict lower bound on the amount of energy dissipation which must take place for each bit of information that is erased [1]. Reversible computation can, in principle, avoid this generation of heat.

Reversible Turing machine (RTM) was the earliest proposed reversible computation model [2,3]. Since then, reversibility has been investigated within other common computation models such as Minsky's counter machines [4,5] and cellular automata [6]. In particular, reversible cellular automata (RCA) have been extensively studied due to the other physics-like attributes of cellular automata such as locality, parallelism and uniformity in space and time of the update rule.

All three reversible computation models are Turing complete: they admit simulations of universal Turing machines, which naturally leads to various undecidability results for reachability problems. In this work we view the systems,

* Work supported by grants of the French ANR and Academy of Finland # 211967.

however, rather differently by investigating their behavior from arbitrary starting configurations. This is more a dynamical systems approach. Each device is understood as a transformation $F : X \rightarrow X$ acting on its configuration space X . In all cases studied here (counter machines, two Turing machine models – with moving head and with moving tape – and cellular automata) space X is endowed a topology under which F is continuous. In the cases of Turing machines with moving tape and cellular automata, it is the compact and metrizable topology obtained as the enumerable infinite product of the discrete topology on each finite component of a configuration. The action F may be partial, so that it is undefined for some elements of X . Configurations on which F is undefined are called *halting*. We call F *immortal* if there exists a configuration $x \in X$ that never evolves into a halting configuration, that is, $F^n(x)$ is defined for all positive integers n . In contrast, a *mortal* system eventually halts, regardless of the starting configuration. We call F *uniformly mortal* if a uniform time bound n exists such that $F^n(x)$ is not defined for any $x \in X$. If F is continuous, X compact, and the set of halting configurations open then mortality and uniform mortality are equivalent concepts. This means that mortal Turing machines and cellular automata are automatically uniformly mortal. In contrast, a counter machine may be mortal without being uniformly mortal. (A simple example is a one-counter machine where the counter value is repeatedly decremented until it becomes zero and the machine halts.)

Periodicity, on the other hand, is defined for *complete* systems: systems without halting configurations. We call total $F : X \rightarrow X$ *uniformly periodic* if there is a positive integer n such that F^n is the identity map. *Periodicity* refers to the property that every configuration is periodic, that is, for every $x \in X$ there exists time n such that $F^n(x) = x$. Periodicity and uniform periodicity are equivalent concepts in the cases of cellular automata (Section 3.3) and Turing machines under both modes (Section 2.1), while a counter machine can be periodic without being uniformly periodic (Example 1 in Section 1.1).

In this work we are mainly concerned with decidability of these concepts. Immortality of unrestricted (that is, not necessarily reversible) Turing machines was proved undecidable already in 1966 by Hooper [7]. Our main result (Theorem 7) is a reversible variant of Hooper’s approach where infinite searches during counter machine simulations by a Turing machine are replaced by recursive calls to the counter machine simulation itself with empty initial counters. Using reversible counter machines, the recursive calls can be unwound once the search is complete. In a sense this leads to a simpler construction than in Hooper’s original article.

Our result also answers an open problem of control theory from [8]. That paper pointed out that if the immortality problem for reversible Turing machines is undecidable, then so is observability for continuous rational piecewise-affine planar homeomorphisms.

As another corollary we obtain the undecidability of the periodicity of Turing machines (Theorem 8). The related problem of determining if a given Turing machine has at least one periodic orbit (under the moving tape mode) is proved

undecidable for reversible, non-complete Turing machines, and for non-reversible, complete Turing machines. The problem remains open under reversible and complete machines. The existence of periodic orbits in Turing machines and counter machines have been investigated before in [9,10]. Article [9] formulated a conjecture that every complete Turing machine (under the moving tape mode) has at least one periodic orbit, while [10] refuted the conjecture by providing an explicit counter example. The counter example followed the general idea of [7] in that recursive calls were used to prevent unbounded searches. In [10] it was also shown that it is undecidable if a given complete counter machine has a periodic orbit. We show that this is the case even under the additional constraint of reversibility (Theorem 6).

In Theorem 12 we reduce the periodicity problem of reversible Turing machine into the periodicity problem of one-dimensional cellular automata. The immortality problem of reversible cellular automata has been proved undecidable in [11]. Our proofs for the undecidability of immortality (Theorem 1) and periodicity (Theorem 3) among reversible counter machines follow the techniques of [5]. Interestingly, the uniform variants of both immortality and periodicity problems are decidable for counter machines (Theorems 2 and 4).

The paper is organized into three parts dealing with RCM (section 1), with RTM (section 2) and with RCA (section 3). Each part consists of four subsections on (1) definitions, (2) the immortality problem, (3) the periodicity problem, and (4) the existence of periodic orbits. Due to page constraints most proofs are short sketches of the main idea.

1 Reversible Counter Machines

1.1 Definitions

Following [5], we define special counter machine instructions for a simpler syntactic characterization of local reversibility and forget about initial and accepting states as we are only interested in dynamical properties.

Let $\mathcal{Y} = \{0, +\}$ be the set of test values and $\Phi = \{-, 0, +\}$ be the set of counter operations whose reverse are defined by $-^{-1} = +$, $0^{-1} = 0$ and $+^{-1} = -$. For all $j \in \mathbb{Z}_k$ and $\phi \in \Phi$, testing τ and modifying $\theta_{j,\phi}$ actions are defined for all $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, $i \in \mathbb{Z}_k$ and $v \in \mathbb{N}^k$ as:

$$\tau(k) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } k = 0 \\ + & \text{if } k > 0 \end{cases} \quad \theta_{j,\phi}(v)(i) = \begin{cases} v(i) - 1 & \text{if } v(i) > 0, i = j \text{ and } \phi = - \\ v(i) & \text{if } i \neq j \text{ or } \phi = 0 \\ v(i) + 1 & \text{if } i = j \text{ and } \phi = + \end{cases}$$

A k -counter machine M is a triple (S, k, T) where S is a finite set of states, $k \in \mathbb{N}$ is the number of counters, and $T \subseteq S \times \mathcal{Y}^k \times \mathbb{Z}_k \times \Phi \times S$ is the transition table of the machine. Instruction $(s, u, i, -, t)$ is not allowed in T if $u(i) = 0$. A configuration \mathbf{c} of the machine is a pair (s, v) where $s \in S$ is a state and $v \in \mathbb{N}^k$ is the value of the counters. The machine can transform a configuration \mathbf{c} in a configuration \mathbf{c}' in one step, noted as $\mathbf{c} \vdash \mathbf{c}'$, by applying an instruction $\iota \in T$.

An instruction $(s, u, i, \phi, t) \in T$ can be applied to any configuration (s, v) where $\tau(v) = u$ leading to the configuration $(t, \theta_{i,\phi}(v))$. The transitive closure of \vdash is noted as \vdash^* .

A counter machine (S, k, T) is a *deterministic k -counter machine (k -DCM)* if at most one instruction can be applied from any configuration. Formally, the transition table must satisfy the following condition:

$$(s, u, i, \phi, t) \in T \wedge (s, u, i', \phi', t') \in T \Rightarrow (i, \phi, t) = (i', \phi', t').$$

The *transition function* of a deterministic counter machine is the function $G : S \times \mathbb{N}^k \rightarrow S \times \mathbb{N}^k$ which maps a configuration to the unique transformed configuration, that is for all $(s, v) \in S \times \mathbb{Z}^k$,

$$G(s, v) = \begin{cases} (t, \theta_{i,\phi}(v)) & \text{if } (s, u, i, \phi, t) \in T \text{ and } \tau(v) = u \\ \perp & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

The set of reverse instructions of an instruction is defined as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} (s, u, i, 0, t)^{-1} &= \{(t, u, i, 0, s)\}, \\ (s, u, i, +, t)^{-1} &= \{(t, u', i, -, s)\}, \text{ where } u'(i) = +, u'(j) = u(j) \text{ for } j \neq i, \\ (s, u, i, -, t)^{-1} &= \{(t, u, i, +, s), (t, u', i, +, s)\}, \text{ where } u'(i) = 0, u'(j) = u(j) \text{ for } j \neq i. \end{aligned}$$

The reverse T^{-1} of a transition table T is defined as $T^{-1} = \bigcup_{t \in T} t^{-1}$. The *reverse* of counter machine $M = (S, T)$ is the machine $M^{-1} = (S, T^{-1})$. A *reversible k -counter machine (k -RCM)* is a deterministic k -counter machine whose reverse is deterministic.

Example 1. The complete DCM $(\{l, l', r, r'\}, 2, T)$ with the following T is periodic but not uniformly periodic (*: any value): $\{(l, (0, *), 0, 0, r), (r, (*, 0), 1, 0, l), (l, (+, *), 0, -, l'), (r, (*, +), 1, -, r'), (l', (*, *), 1, +, l), (r', (*, *), 0, +, r)\}$. In l, l' tokens are moved from the first counter to the second, and in states r, r' back to the first counter. Its reverse is obtained by swapping $l \leftrightarrow r$ and $l' \leftrightarrow r'$. \square

1.2 Undecidability of the Immortality Problem

Theorem 1. *It is undecidable whether a given 2-RCM is immortal.*

Proof sketch. By [7] the immortality problem is undecidable among 2-CM, while [5] provides an effective immortality/mortality preserving conversion of an arbitrary k -CM into a 2-RCM. \blacksquare

Remark. The 2-RCM constructed in the proof through Morita’s construction [5] can be forced to have mortal reverse. This is obtained by adding in the original CM an extra counter that is being continuously incremented.

Theorem 2. *It is decidable whether a given k -CM is uniformly mortal.*

Proof sketch. Induction on k : The claim is trivial for $k = 0$. For the inductive step, let M be a k -CM, $k \geq 1$. For $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$ set counter i to be always

positive and test whether the so obtained $(k - 1)$ -RCM M_i is uniformly mortal. If all k recursive calls return a positive answer, set n to be a common uniform mortality time bound for all k machines M_i . Since counters can be decremented by one at most, we know that configurations of M with some counter value $\geq n$ are mortal. Immortality hence occurs only if there is a period within the finite number of configurations with all counters $< n$. ■

1.3 Undecidability of the Periodicity Problem

Theorem 3. *It is undecidable whether a given 2-RCM is periodic.*

Proof sketch. Let $M = (S, 2, T)$ be a given 2-RCM whose reverse is mortal. In particular, there are no periodic configurations in M . According to the remark after Theorem 1 it is enough to effectively construct a complete 2-RCM M' that is periodic if and only if M is mortal. Machine M' has state set $S \times \{+, -\}$ where states $(s, +)$ and $(s, -)$ represent M in state s running forwards or backwards in time, respectively. In a halting configuration the direction is switched. ■

Analogously to Theorem 2 one can prove the following result.

Theorem 4. *It is decidable whether a given k -CM is uniformly periodic.*

1.4 Periodic Orbits

Theorem 5 ([10]). *It is undecidable whether a given complete 2-DCM admits a periodic configuration.*

Theorem 6. *It is undecidable whether a given complete 3-RCM admits a periodic configuration, and it is undecidable whether a given (not necessarily complete) 2-RCM admits a periodic configuration.*

Proof sketch. We first prove the result for complete 3-RCM. The construction in [5] shows that it is undecidable for a given 2-RCM $M = (S, 2, T)$ without periodic configurations and two given states s_1 and s_2 whether there are counter values n_1, n_2, m_1 and m_2 such that $(s_1, n_1, m_1) \vdash^* (s_2, n_2, m_2)$. By removing all transitions from state s_2 and all transitions into state s_1 we can assume without loss of generality that all configurations (s_1, n_1, m_1) and (s_2, n_2, m_2) are halting in M^{-1} and M , respectively. Using a similar idea as in the proof of Theorem 3 we effectively construct a 3-RCM $M' = (S \times \{+, -\}, 3, T')$ that simulates M forwards and backwards in time using states $(s, +)$ and $(s, -)$, respectively, and counters 1 and 2. The direction is switched at halting configurations. In addition, counter 3 is incremented at halting configurations, except when the state is s_1 or s_2 .

Machine M' is clearly reversible and complete. Moreover, since M has no periodic configurations, the only periodic configurations of M' are those where M is simulated back and forth between states s_1 and s_2 . This completes the proof for 3-RCM.

Using the construction of [5] a three counter RCM can be converted into a 2-RCM and that conversion preserves periodic orbits. ■

The 2-RCM provided by the construction in [5] is not complete. It seems likely that it can be modified to give a complete 2-RCM, but details remain to be worked out:

Conjecture 1. It is undecidable whether a given complete 2-RCM admits a periodic configuration.

2 Reversible Turing Machines

2.1 Definitions

The classical model of Turing machines consider machines with a moving head (a configuration is a triple $(s, z, c) \in S \times \mathbb{Z} \times \Sigma^{\mathbb{Z}}$). Following Kůrka [9], we consider machines with a moving tape as our base model to endow the space of configurations with a compact topology. Following [5], we define two kinds of instructions for a simpler syntactic characterization of local reversibility.

Let $\Delta = \{\leftarrow, \rightarrow\}$ be the set of directions with inverses $(\leftarrow)^{-1} = \rightarrow$ and $(\rightarrow)^{-1} = \leftarrow$. For all $\delta \in \Delta$ and $a \in \Sigma$, moving σ_δ and writing μ_a actions are defined for all $c \in \Sigma^{\mathbb{Z}}$ and $z \in \mathbb{Z}$ as:

$$\sigma_\delta(c)(z) = \begin{cases} c(z + 1) & \text{if } \delta = \rightarrow \\ c(z - 1) & \text{if } \delta = \leftarrow \end{cases} \quad \mu_a(c)(z) = \begin{cases} a & \text{if } z = 0 \\ c(z) & \text{if } z \neq 0 \end{cases}$$

A Turing machine M is a triple (S, Σ, T) where S is a finite set of states, Σ is a finite set of symbols, and $T \subseteq (S \times \Delta \times S) \cup (S \times \Sigma \times S \times \Sigma)$ is the transition table of the machine. A configuration \mathbf{c} of the machine is a pair (s, c) where $s \in S$ is a state and $c \in \Sigma^{\mathbb{Z}}$ is the content of the tape. The machine can transform a configuration \mathbf{c} in a configuration \mathbf{c}' in one step, noted as $\mathbf{c} \vdash \mathbf{c}'$, by applying an instruction $\iota \in T$. An instruction $(s, \delta, t) \in T \cap (S \times \Delta \times S)$ is a *move instruction* of the machine, it can be applied to any configuration (s, c) , leading to the configuration $(t, \sigma_\delta(c))$. An instruction $(s, a, t, b) \in T \cap (S \times \Sigma \times S \times \Sigma)$ is a *matching instruction* of the machine, it can be applied to any configuration (s, c) where $c(0) = a$, leading to the configuration $(t, \mu_b(c))$.

A Turing machine (S, Σ, T) is a *deterministic Turing machine (DTM)* if at most one instruction can be applied from any configuration. Formally, the transition table must satisfy the following conditions:

$$\begin{aligned} (s, \delta, t) \in T \wedge (s', a', t', b') \in T &\Rightarrow s \neq s' \\ (s, \delta, t) \in T \wedge (s, \delta', t') \in T &\Rightarrow \delta = \delta' \wedge t = t' \\ (s, a, t, b) \in T \wedge (s, a, t', b') \in T &\Rightarrow t = t' \wedge b = b' \end{aligned}$$

The *local transition function* of a DTM is the function $f : S \times \Sigma \rightarrow S \times \Delta \cup S \times \Sigma \cup \{\perp\}$ defined for all $(s, a) \in S \times \Sigma$ as follows. The associated partial *global transition function* $G : S \times \Sigma^{\mathbb{Z}} \rightarrow S \times \Sigma^{\mathbb{Z}}$ maps a configuration to the unique transformed configuration, that is for all $(s, c) \in S \times \Sigma^{\mathbb{Z}}$,

$$f(s, a) = \begin{cases} (t, \delta) & \text{if } (s, \delta, t) \in T \\ (t, b) & \text{if } (s, a, t, b) \in T \\ \perp & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad G(s, c) = \begin{cases} (t, \sigma_\delta(c)) & \text{if } f(s, c(0)) = (t, \delta) \\ (t, \mu_b(c)) & \text{if } f(s, c(0)) = (t, b) \end{cases}$$

Lemma 1. *If all configurations of a DTM are periodic or mortal then there is a uniform bound n such that for all configurations (s, c) either $G^n(s, c)$ is undefined or $G^t(s, c) = (s, c)$ for some $0 < t < n$. In particular, a periodic DTM is uniformly periodic and a mortal DTM is uniformly mortal.*

Proof. For every $n > 0$ let $U_n = \{(s, c) \mid G^n(s, c) = (s, c) \text{ or } G^n(s, c) \text{ undef}\}$ be the set of configurations that are mortal or periodic at time n . Sets U_n are open so U_1, U_2, \dots is an open cover of the compact set of all configurations. It has a finite subcover. ■

One might think that periodicity characterizes a different set of machines if one considers Turing machines with a moving head instead of a moving tape but it is not the case. The global transition function with moving head $H : S \times \mathbb{Z} \times \Sigma^{\mathbb{Z}} \rightarrow S \times \mathbb{Z} \times \Sigma^{\mathbb{Z}}$ is defined so that for each $(s, z, c) \in S \times \mathbb{Z} \times \Sigma^{\mathbb{Z}}$, $H(s, z, c) = (s', z', c')$ where $G(s, \sigma_{\rightarrow}^z(c)) = (s', \sigma_{\rightarrow}^{z'}(c'))$. A DTM is periodic with moving head if for each configuration \mathbf{c} , there exists $t \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $H^t(\mathbf{c}) = \mathbf{c}$ or equivalently if there exists some $t \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $H^t = \text{Id}$.

Lemma 2. *A DTM is periodic if and only if it is periodic with moving head.*

Proof. Assume that Σ has at least two elements. For each $t \in \mathbb{N}$ and $(s, z, c) \in S \times \mathbb{Z} \times \Sigma^{\mathbb{Z}}$, $H^t(s, z, c) = (s', z', c')$ where $G^t(s, \sigma_{\rightarrow}^z(c)) = (s', \sigma_{\rightarrow}^{z'}(c'))$. Thus, if $H^t = \text{Id}$ then $G^t = \text{Id}$. Conversely, let $G^t = \text{Id}$. By definition, $H^t(s, z, c) = (s, z', c')$ for some z' such that $\sigma_{\rightarrow}^z(c) = \sigma_{\rightarrow}^{z'}(c')$. Moreover, as the machine acts locally, for all d and k such that $c_{[z-t, z+t]} = d_{[k-t, k+t]}$, $H^t(s, k, d) = (s, k + z' - z, d')$ where $d' = \sigma_{\rightarrow}^{z'-z}(d)$. If $z' - z \neq 0$, one might choose d such that $d(k + t(z' - z)) \neq d(k + (t + 1)(z' - z))$, contradicting the hypothesis. Thus, $H^t = \text{Id}$. ■

The reverse of an instruction is defined as follows: $(s, \delta, t)^{-1} = (t, \delta^{-1}, s)$ and $(s, a, t, b)^{-1} = (t, b, s, a)$. The reverse T^{-1} of a transition table T is defined as $T^{-1} = \{\iota^{-1} \mid \iota \in T\}$. The reverse of Turing machine $M = (S, \Sigma, T)$ is the machine $M^{-1} = (S, \Sigma, T^{-1})$. A reversible Turing machine (RTM) is a deterministic Turing machine whose reverse is deterministic.

Lemma 3. *It is decidable whether a given Turing machine is reversible.*

Proof. It is sufficient to syntactically check the transition table. ■

Lemma 4. *The reverse of a mortal RTM is mortal.*

Proof. The uniform bound is valid for both the mortal RTM and its reverse. ■

Lemma 5. *The reverse of a complete RTM is a complete RTM. In particular, a complete RTM is surjective.*

Proof. A DTM is complete if and only if $n|\Sigma| + m = |S||\Sigma|$ where n and m are the numbers of move and matching instructions, respectively. The claim follows from the fact that M and M^{-1} always have the same numbers of move and matching instructions. ■

2.2 Undecidability of the Immortality Problem

Theorem 7. *It is undecidable whether a given RTM is immortal.*

Proof sketch. For a given 2-RCM without periodic configurations, and given initial state s_0 , we effectively construct a reversible Turing machine that is mortal if and only if the 2-RCM halts from the initial configuration $(s_0, 0, 0)$. The Theorem then follows from [5], where it was shown that the halting problem is undecidable for 2-RCM. Note that our additional constraint that the 2-RCM has no periodic configurations can be easily established by having an extra counter that is incremented on each step of the counter machine. This counter can then be incorporated in the existing two counters with the methods of [5].

As a first step we do a fairly standard simulation of a 2-CM by a TM. Configuration (s, a, b) where s is a state and $a, b \in \mathbb{N}$ is represented as a block " $@1^a x 2^b y$ " of length $a + b + 3$, and the Turing machine is positioned on the symbol " $@$ " in state s . A simulation of one move of the CM consists of (1) finding delimiters " x " and " y " on the right to check if either of the two counters is zero, and (2) incrementing or decrementing the counters as determined by the CM. The TM is then returned to the beginning of the block in the new state of the CM. If the CM halts then also the TM halts. All this can be done reversibly if the simulated CM is reversible.

The TM constructed as outline above has the problem that it has immortal configurations even if the CM halts. These are due to the unbounded searches for delimiter symbols " $@$ ", " x " or " y ". Searches are needed when testing whether the second counter is zero, as well as whenever either counter is incremented or decremented.

Unbounded searches lead to infinite searches if the symbol is not present in the configuration. (For example, searching to the right for symbol " x " when the tape contains " $@111\dots$ ".) To prevent such infinite searches we follow the idea of [7], also employed in [10]. Instead of a straightforward search using a loop, the search is done by performing a recursive call to the counter machine from its initial configuration $(s_0, 0, 0)$. More precisely, we first make a bounded search of length three to see if the delimiter is found within next three symbols. If the delimiter is not found, we start a recursive simulation of the CM by writing " $@xy$ " over the next three symbols, step on the new delimiter symbol " $@$ ", and enter the initial state s_0 . This begins a nested simulation of the CM.

In order to be able to continue the higher level execution after returning from the recursive search, the present state of the TM needs to be written on the tape when starting the recursive call. For this purpose we increase the tape alphabet by introducing several variants " $@_\alpha$ " of the start delimiter " $@$ ". Here α is the Turing machine state at the time the search was begun. When returning from a successful recursive search, the higher level computation can pick up from where it left off by reading the state α from the delimiter " $@_\alpha$ ".

If the recursive search procedure finds the delimiter this is signalled by reversing the search. Once returned to the beginning, the three symbol initial segment " $@xy$ " is moved three positions to the right and the process is repeated. The repeated applications of recursive searches, always starting the next search three

positions further right, will eventually bring the machine on the delimiter it was looking for, and the search is completed.

On the other hand, if the CM halts during a recursive search then the TM halts. This always happens when a sufficiently long search is performed using a CM that halts from its initial configuration.

With some additional tricks one can make the TM outlined above reversible, provided the CM is reversible. Now we reason as follows: If the initial configuration $(s_0, 0, 0)$ is immortal in the CM then the TM has a non-halting simulation of the CM. So the TM is not mortal. Conversely, suppose that the CM halts in k steps but the TM has an immortal configuration. The only way for the TM not to halt is to properly simulate the CM from some configuration (s, a, b) , where the possibilities $a = \infty$ and $b = \infty$ have to be taken into account. Since the CM has no periodic configurations, one of the two counters necessarily obtains arbitrarily large values during the computation. But this leads to arbitrarily long recursive searches, which is not possible since each such search halts within k steps. ■

Remarks. (1) The RTM constructed in the proof has no periodic configurations. So the undecidability of the immortality problem holds among RTM without any periodic configurations. (2) Add to the 2-RCM a new looping state s_1 in which the first counter is incremented indefinitely. We can also assume without loss of generality that the 2-RCM halts only in state s_2 . Then the RTM constructed in the proof has computation $(s_1, c_1) \vdash^* (s_2, c_2)$ for some $c_1, c_2 \in \Sigma^{\mathbb{Z}}$ if and only if the 2-RCM halts from the initial configuration $(s_0, 0, 0)$.

These detailed observations about the proof will be used later in the proofs of Theorems 8 and 9.

2.3 Undecidability of the Periodicity Problem

Theorem 8. *It is undecidable whether a given complete RTM is periodic.*

Proof sketch. For a given RTM $A = (S, \Sigma, T)$ without periodic configurations we effectively construct a complete RTM $A' = (S \times \{+, -\}, \Sigma, T')$ that is periodic if and only if every configuration of A is mortal. States $(s, +)$ and $(s, -)$ of A' are used to represent A in state s running forwards or backwards in time, respectively. In a halting configuration the direction is switched. The result now follows from Theorem 7 and the first remark after its proof. ■

2.4 Periodic Orbits

Theorem 9. *It is undecidable whether a given (non-complete) RTM admits a periodic configuration.*

Proof. Remark (2) after the proof of Theorem 7 pointed out that it is undecidable for a given RTM $A = (S, \Sigma, T)$ without periodic configurations, and two given states $s_1, s_2 \in S$ whether there are configurations (s_1, c_1) and (s_2, c_2) such that $(s_1, c_1) \vdash^* (s_2, c_2)$. By removing all transitions from state s_2 and

all transitions into state s_1 we can assume without loss of generality that all configurations (s_1, c_1) and (s_2, c_2) are halting in A^{-1} and A , respectively. Using a similar idea as in the proof of Theorem 8 we effectively construct an RTM $A' = (S \times \{+, -\}, \Sigma, T')$ in which A is simulated forwards and backwards in time using states $(s, +)$ and $(s, -)$, respectively. But now the direction is swapped from "−" to "+" only in state s_1 , and from "+" to "−" in state s_2 . In other halting situations of A , also A' halts. Clearly $((s_1, +), c_1)$ is periodic in A' if and only if $(s_1, c_1) \vdash^* (s_2, c_2)$ for some $c_2 \in \Sigma^{\mathbb{Z}}$. No other periodic orbits exist in A' . ■

Theorem 10. *It is undecidable whether a given complete DTM admits a periodic configuration.*

Proof. In [10] a complete DTM over the binary tape alphabet was provided that does not have any periodic configurations. This easily gives an analogous DTM for any bigger tape alphabet. For a given RTM $A = (S, \Sigma, T)$ we effectively construct a complete DTM that has a periodic configuration if and only if A has a periodic configuration. The result then follows from Theorem 9. Let $B = (S', \Sigma, T')$ be the fixed complete DTM without periodic configurations from [10], $S \cap S' = \emptyset$. The complete DTM we construct has state set $S \cup S'$ and its transitions includes $T \cup T'$, and in addition a transition into a state $s' \in S'$ whenever A halts. It is clear that the only periodic configurations are those that are periodic already in A . ■

Conjecture 2. A complete RTM without a periodic point exists. Moreover, it is undecidable whether a given complete RTM admits a periodic configuration.

3 Reversible Cellular Automata

3.1 Definitions

A *one-dimensional cellular automaton* A is a triple (S, r, f) where S is a finite state set, $r \in \mathbb{N}$ is the *neighborhood radius* and $f : S^{2r+1} \rightarrow S$ is the *local update rule* of A . Elements of \mathbb{Z} are called cells, and a configuration of A is an element of $S^{\mathbb{Z}}$ that assigns a state to each cell. Configuration c is turned into configuration c' in one time step by a simultaneous application of the local update rule f in the radius r neighborhood of each cell:

$$c'(i) = f(c(i - r), c(i - r + 1), \dots, c(i + r - 1), c(i + r)) \text{ for all } i \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

Transformation $G : c \mapsto c'$ is the *global transition function* of A . The Curtis-Hedlund-Lyndon -theorem states that a function $S^{\mathbb{Z}} \rightarrow S^{\mathbb{Z}}$ is a global transition function of some CA if and only if it is continuous and commutes with the shift σ , defined by $\sigma(c)_i = c_{i+1}$ for all $c \in S^{\mathbb{Z}}$ and $i \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Cellular automaton A is called *reversible* if the global function G is bijective and its inverse G^{-1} is a CA function. We call A *injective*, *surjective* and *bijective* if G is injective, surjective and bijective, respectively. Injectivity implies surjectivity, and bijectivity implies reversibility. See [6] for more details on these classical results.

3.2 Undecidability of the Immortality Problem

Let some states of a CA be identified as halting. Let us call a configuration c *halting* if $c(i)$ is a halting state for some i . We call c *locally halting* if $c(0)$ is a halting state. These two definitions reflect two different ways that one may use to define an accepting computation in CA: either acceptance happens when a halting state appears somewhere, in an unspecified cell, or one waits until a halting state shows up in a fixed, predetermined cell. A configuration c is immortal (locally immortal) for G if $G^n(c)$ is not halting (locally halting, respectively) for any $n \geq 0$. CA function G is immortal (locally immortal) if there exists an immortal (locally immortal) configuration.

Theorem 11 ([11]). *It is undecidable whether a given reversible one-dimensional CA is immortal (locally immortal).*

3.3 Undecidability of the Periodicity Problem

In cellular automata periodicity and uniform periodicity are equivalent. Indeed, suppose that a period n that is common to all configurations does not exist. Then for every $n \geq 1$ there is $c_n \in S^{\mathbb{Z}}$ such that $G^n(c_n) \neq c_n$. Each c_n has a finite segment p_n of length $2rn + 1$ that is mapped in n steps into a state that is different from the state in the center of p_n . Configuration c that contains a copy of p_n for all n , satisfies $G^n(c) \neq c$ for all n , and hence such c is not periodic.

Theorem 12. *It is undecidable whether a given one-dimensional CA is periodic.*

Proof sketch. For a given complete reversible Turing machine $M = (S, \Sigma, T)$ we effectively construct a one-dimensional reversible CA $A = (Q, 2, f)$ that is periodic if and only if M is periodic. The result then follows from Theorem 8. The state set

$$Q = \Sigma \times ((S \times \{+, -\}) \cup \{\leftarrow, \rightarrow\})$$

consists of two tracks: The first track stores elements of the tape alphabet Σ and it is used to simulate the content of the tape of the Turing machine, while the second track stores the current state of the simulated machine at its present location, and arrows \leftarrow and \rightarrow in other positions pointing towards the position of the Turing machine on the tape. The arrows are needed to prevent several Turing machine heads accessing the same tape location and interfering with each other's computation. The state is associated a symbol '+' or '-' indicating whether the reversible Turing machine is being simulated forwards or backwards in time. The direction is switched if the Turing machine sees a local error, i.e., an arrow pointing away from the machine.

It follows from the reversibility of M that A is a reversible CA. If M has a non-periodic configuration c then A has a non-periodic configuration which simulates the computation from c . Conversely, if M is periodic it is uniformly periodic under the moving head mode. It easily follows that all configurations of A are periodic. ■

A one-dimensional RCA is equicontinuous if and only if it is periodic, so we have

Corollary 1. *It is undecidable whether a given one-dimensional reversible CA is equicontinuous.*

3.4 Periodic Orbits

Every cellular automaton has periodic orbits so the existence of periodic orbits is trivial among cellular automata.

References

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