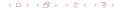
### Teoria degli Algoritmi

Corso di Laurea Magistrale in Matematica Applicata a.a. 2020-21

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# Lecture 2: Turing Machines





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- 4 Universal Turing Machine
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### Our Model of Computation: Turing Machines

In his famous 1936 paper<sup>1</sup>, Alan Turing proposed his own **model of computation**, a.k.a. **Turing Machines** (TMs)



 $^{1}$  "On Computable Numbers, with an Application to the Entscheidungsproblem"  $\square$   $\triangleright$ 

#### Our Model of Computation: Turing Machines

- In his famous 1936 paper<sup>1</sup>, Alan Turing proposed his own **model of** computation, a.k.a. Turing Machines (TMs)
- This was an attempt to formally capture all the functions that can be computed by human "computers" following a well-defined set of rules



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Turing Machines

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  - Hilbert wondered if it exists an "effective procedure" (i.e., our informal definition of algorithm) that decides whether any mathematical statement is true or false, in a finite number of steps



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  - Hilbert wondered if it exists an "effective procedure" (i.e., our informal definition of algorithm) that decides whether any mathematical statement is true or false, in a finite number of steps
  - As a special case of this decision problem, Hilbert considered the validity problem for first-order logic (a.k.a. entscheidungsproblem)



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Turing Machines

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### Turing Machines: An Informal Perspective

 To describe his machine, Turing thought of a person as having access to as much "paper" as they need (i.e., simulating infinite memory)

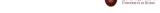




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Universal Turing Machine

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#### Note

The linear nature of memory tape, as opposed to random access memory, is a limitation on computation speed but not power: a TM can find any memory location, i.e., tape cell, by sequentially scanning its tape

#### Definition (Turing machine)

A Turing machine M is a 6-tuple  $(Q, \Sigma, \delta_M, q_0, q_{\text{accept}}, q_{\text{reject}})$ , where:

Q is the finite set of states





#### Definition (Turing machine)

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- $q_0 \in Q$  is the **start state**
- q<sub>accept</sub> ∈ Q is the accept state
- $q_{\mathsf{reject}} \in Q$  is the **reject state**, s.t.  $q_{\mathsf{accept}} 
  eq q_{\mathsf{reject}}$



#### Turing Machine: How Does It Work?

• The generic Turing machine M receives its input on the tape, i.e.,  $\sigma_{\rm in} \in \Sigma^*$ 





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Turing Machines

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Turing Machines

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- The computation continues until it either enters  $q_{\rm accept}$  or  $q_{\rm reject}$  state, otherwise M may run forever
- If M ever halts, it will leave the output string on the tape, i.e.,  $\sigma_{\text{out}} \in \Sigma^*$





# Turing Machine: The Transition Function $\delta_{M_i}$

• From any given state  $q \in Q \setminus \{q_{\text{accept}}, q_{\text{reject}}\}$  and the symbol in the current head position h,  $\delta_M$  specifies:





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One should not confuse the transition function  $\delta_M$  of a Turing machine M with the function  $f_M$  that the machine computes:

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- The machine can compute an **infinite** function  $f_M$  that takes as input a string  $\sigma_{\text{in}} \in \Sigma^*$  and produces another string  $\sigma_{\text{out}} \in \Sigma^*$  as output, both of arbitrary lengths

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#### Definition (Computable Function)

Let  $f: \Sigma^* \mapsto \Sigma^*$  be a (total) function and let M be a Turing machine. We say that M computes f if for every  $x \in \Sigma^*$ , M(x) = f(x).

We say that a function f is computable if there exists a Turing machine M that computes it.





## From Turing Machines to Computable Functions

#### Definition (Computable Function)

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#### Note

Defining a function "computable" if it can be computed by a Turing machine might seem incautious, but this is equivalent to being computable in virtually any reasonable model of computation.





# The Church-Turing Thesis

A hypothesis about the nature of computable functions





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- A function can be calculated by an effective method if and only if it is computable by a Turing machine
  - Or by any equivalent computational models proposed by Gödel (recursive functions) and Church (λ-calculus)





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- The three formally-defined classes of computable functions coincide with the informal notion of an effectively calculable function





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  - Or by any equivalent computational models proposed by Gödel (recursive functions) and Church (λ-calculus)
- The three formally-defined classes of computable functions coincide with the informal notion of an effectively calculable function
- Since the concept of effective calculability does not have a formal definition, the thesis, although it has near-universal acceptance, cannot be formally proven





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# (Boolean) Computable Functions

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#### **Definition**

We define by  $\mathcal{R}$  the set of **all** computable functions  $f: \Sigma^* \mapsto \Sigma$ 





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- This is equivalent to computing the boolean (total) function  $f \cdot \Sigma^* \mapsto \Sigma$  defined as:

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#### Definition (Turing-decidable Language)

A language L is **Turing-decidable** (or simply **decidable**) if there is a Turing machine M that decides it

# A Note on the Terminology

 For historical reasons, some texts also refer to computable boolean functions/decidable languages as recursive languages





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- For historical reasons, some texts also refer to computable boolean functions/decidable languages as **recursive languages**
- ullet This is also the reason why the letter  ${\mathcal R}$  is often used
- We stick to the term functions rather than lanuguages, although the following always holds:

$$f: \Sigma^* \mapsto \Sigma$$

$$L = \{x \in \Sigma^* \mid f(x) = 1\}$$





# Infinite Loops and Partial Functions

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- However, M can still compute a partial function

#### **Definition**

A partial function  $f:A\mapsto B$  is a function that is only defined on a subset A' of A (i.e.,  $A'\subset A$ ). We can also think of such a function as mapping from A to  $B\cup\{\bot\}$ , where  $\bot$  is a special "failure" symbol such that  $f(a)=\bot$  indicates f is not defined on input a

#### Example

Consider the function  $div : \mathbb{Z}^{0+} \times \mathbb{Z}^{0+} \mapsto \mathbb{Z}^{0+}$ , defined as follows:

$$div(a,b) = \begin{cases} \left\lceil \frac{a}{b} \right\rceil, & \text{if } b > 0 \\ \perp, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$





# Turing Machines Computing Partial Functions

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 We can design a Turing machine M that computes div on inputs a, b by outputting the first  $c \in \{0, 1, 2, ...\}$  such that  $cb \ge a$ 





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  - If a > 0 and b = 0, M never halts but this is ok, since div is undefined on such inputs
  - If a = b = 0, M will output 0, which is also ok, since we do not care about what the machine outputs on inputs on which div is undefined



February, 25 2021

# Computable Functions (Redefined)

#### Definition

Let f be a **total** or **partial** function, such that  $f: \Sigma^* \mapsto \Sigma^*$  and let M be a Turing machine.

We say that *M* computes *f* if for every  $x \in \Sigma^*$  on which *f* is defined, M(x) = f(x).

We say that a (partial or total) function f is **computable** if there is a Turing machine that computes it.





Universal Turing Machine

#### A Clarification on the Role of $\perp$

• We used  $\perp$  as our special "failure symbol"; if a Turing machine M fails to halt on some input  $x \in \Sigma^*$  then we denote this by  $M(x) = \bot$ 





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- This **does not** mean that M outputs some encoding of the symbol  $\bot$  but rather that M enters into an infinite loop when given x as input





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- However, for a Turing machine M to compute a partial function f it is **not** necessary to enter an infinite loop on inputs x outside the domain of f





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- As such, one might be tempted to think that M halts on x if and only
  if f is defined on x
- However, for a Turing machine M to compute a partial function f it
  is not necessary to enter an infinite loop on inputs x outside the
  domain of f
- All that is needed is for M to output f(x) on  $x \in domain(f)$ : on any other input it is OK for M to output an arbitrary value or not to halt at all



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- This is equivalent to computing the partial function  $f: \Sigma^* \mapsto \Sigma$ defined as:

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } x \in L \\ \perp, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$





- A Turing machine M recognizes a language L if for every input  $x \in \Sigma^*$ , M(x) outputs 1 if and only if  $x \in L$
- If  $x \notin L$ , M may either halt with non-sense output or loop forever
- This is equivalent to computing the partial function  $f: \Sigma^* \mapsto \Sigma$ defined as:

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } x \in L \\ \perp, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

### Definition (Turing-recognizable Language)

A language L is **Turing-recognizable** (or simply **recognizable** or **semi-decidable**) if there is a Turing machine M that recognizes it



February, 25 2021

# A Note on the Terminology

• For historical reasons, some texts also refer to recognizable languages as recursively enumerable languages





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- For historical reasons, some texts also refer to recognizable languages as recursively enumerable languages
- ullet This is also the reason why the letter  $\mathcal{RE}$  is often used
- We stick to the term *functions* rather than *lanuguages*, although the following always holds:

$$f: \Sigma^* \mapsto \Sigma$$

$$L = \{ x \in \Sigma^* \mid f(x) = 1 \}$$





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- 3 Variants of Turing Machines
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### Variants of Turing Machines

 Alternative definitions of Turing machines abound, e.g., multiple tapes or non-deterministic Turing machines





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- Alternative definitions of Turing machines abound, e.g., multiple tapes or non-deterministic Turing machines
- Interestingly enough, the original computational model and its variants have all the same power
- They all compute the same functions/recognize the same set of languages





### Multi-tape Turing Machines

Like an ordinary Turing machine, yet with several tapes





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- The transition function  $\delta_M$  is changed to allow for reading, writing, and moving the heads on some or all of the tapes, simultaneously
- Formally, the transition function of a *k*-tape Turing machine is defined as follows:

$$\delta_M: Q \times \Sigma^k \cup \{\varnothing\}^k \mapsto Q \times \Sigma^k \cup \{\varnothing\}^k \times \{-1, 0, +1\}^k$$





### Multi-tape Turing Machines: Example

Consider a k-tape Turing Machine, then the expression

$$\delta_{M}(q_{i},\sigma_{1},\sigma_{2},\ldots,\sigma_{k})=(q_{j},\sigma'_{1},\sigma'_{2},\ldots,\sigma'_{k},+1,0,\ldots,-1)$$

means that, if the machine is in state  $q_i$  and heads 1 through k are reading symbols  $\sigma_1$  through  $\sigma_k$ , then it goes to state  $q_j$ , writes symbols  $\sigma_1'$  through  $\sigma_k'$  and moves each head to the left (-1) or to the right (+1) of the current position, or leaves it where it is (0)





### Equivalence Between Single- and Multi-Tape TMs

Intuitively, multi-tape Turing machines seem more powerful than ordinary, single-tape Turing machines





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- In fact, it can be proven that those two models of computations are indeed equivalent (i.e., they both recognize the same languages)
- To sketch the idea of the proof, consider two Turing machines: S, M
  - The former is a single-tape machine, whilst the latter is multi-tape
  - The key idea is to simulate M using S
  - We can lay down the content of the k tapes of M on the single tape of S, using a special symbol as delimiter (e.g., #)
  - Add another extra symbol (e.g., ●) on top of the current symbol to mimic the head position on each tape



# $\overline{\text{Non-deterministic Turing Machines (NTMs)}}$

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- The transition function for a NTM  $\delta_M$  is defined as follows:

$$\delta_{M}: Q \times \Sigma \cup \{\varnothing\} \mapsto \mathcal{P}(Q \times \Sigma \cup \{\varnothing\} \times \{-1,0,+1\})$$

where  $\mathcal{P}(A)$  stands for the **power set** of A, i.e., the set of all subsets of A





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- The computation of an NTM is a tree, whose branches correspond to different computational paths for the machine
- If some branch leads to the accept state  $(q_{\sf accept})$ , the machine accepts its input



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### Equivalence Between Deterministic and Non-Deterministic TMs

- Again, intuitively NTMs seem more powerful than ordinary, deterministic TMs
- In fact, it can be proven that those two models of computations are indeed equivalent (i.e., they both recognize the same languages)
- To sketch the idea of the proof, consider two Turing machines: D, N
  - The former is a deterministic machine, whilst the latter is non-deterministic
  - The key idea is to simulate N using D by letting D try all the possible branches of N's non-deterministic computation
  - If D ever reaches the accept state on one of these branches, D accepts; otherwise D's simulation may run forever



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- **breadth first search** explores all branches at the same depth of the tree before moving to the next level
- This guarantees that *D* will visit every node in the tree until it encounters an accepting configuration





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- We have already seen that we can use the same binary string encoding to represent virtually any object
- As a special case, we can therefore encode any Turing machine M together with any of its input x





#### Definition (Universal Turing Machine)

There exists a Turing machine U, such that on every string M which encodes a Turing machine, and  $x \in \Sigma^*$ :

$$U(M,x) = M(x)$$

If the machine M halts on x and outputs some  $y \in \Sigma^*$  (i.e., M(x) = y), then:

$$U(M,x) = M(x) = y$$

If M does **not** halt on x (i.e.,  $M(x) = \bot$ ) then:

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#### Universal Turing Machine: Intuition

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- The desired program U is an **interpreter** for Turing machines
- U gets a representation of the machine M (e.g., source code), and some input x, and simulates the execution of M on x





#### The Existence of a Universal Turing Machine

ullet How would you code U in your favorite programming language?





Universal Turing Machine

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February, 25 2021

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Universal Turing Machine

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- The **interpreter** will continue the simulation until the machine eventually halts





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- Then you would use some data structure, such as a list, to store the contents of M's tape
- Now you can simulate M step by step, updating the data structure as you move along
- The interpreter will continue the simulation until the machine eventually halts
- Translating the interpreter above into the corresponding Turing machine is "easy"





Universal Turing Machine

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# Universal Turing Machine: Implications

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## Universal Turing Machine: Implications

- There is more than one Turing machine U that works as indicated above
- The existence of even a single such machine is already fundamental to computer science
- The idea of a "universal program" is of course not limited to theory
- The most famous practical example is represented by compilers (for programming languages), which are often used to compile themselves!





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## Summary

- We have discussed Turing machines (TMs) as the standard model of computation
- TMs and every other computational model independently proposed have all the same power (Church-Turing thesis)
- Computable functions (total/partial) are those which can be computed by a TM
- There exists few variants of standard TM like multi-tape or non-deterministic TMs yet they all have the same power
- The existence of a special Universal Turing Machine (UTM) allows us to design an algorithm that can run any other algorithm



