## COMS11700

# Turing machines (continued) 

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## Introduction

- We have seen an introduction to Turing machines and how they are defined.
- Today: More about what they can do, and some other models which are equivalent to the Turing machine.


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- Unless otherwise specified, if you are asked to describe a Turing machine, the implementation description is the right level to pick.


## Encodings

We will often want to encode the objects on which a Turing machine operates.

- Given an object $O$, we write its representation as a string of symbols in some alphabet as $\langle O\rangle$.
- Each object has many different representations; we just pick a "reasonable" one.


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Some examples:

- $n \in \mathbb{N}$ : we can write $n$ as a binary string, e.g. $\langle 5\rangle=101$.
- If $G$ is a graph: we could write its adjacency matrix in binary, with commas between the rows, e.g. for


$$
\langle G\rangle=010,101,000
$$

## Computing using a Turing machine

Turing machines can be used to solve more than decision problems.

- We can generalise the notion of Turing machines slightly by allowing the machine to output data.
- We can introduce a state $q_{\text {halt }}$ such that, if the machine reaches state $q_{\text {halt }}$, it stops and outputs the contents of its tape.



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This allows us to implement general algorithms on a Turing machine.

- A Turing machine can be seen as computing a mathematical function $f(x)$ of its input $x$.
- If a function can be computed by a Turing machine, we call it computable.


## The Church-Turing thesis

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## Church-Turing thesis

Everything which can be computed can be computed by a Turing machine.

- This claim can be interpreted as saying that the Turing machine formalises our intuitive notion of what an algorithm is.
- NB: the Church-Turing thesis is unproven!
- It is a claim about physical reality: that anything we can compute in our physical universe can be computed by a Turing machine.


## So why study Turing machines?



Pic: abstrusegoose.com
Because they give us a formal basis for understanding computation.

## Evidence for the Church-Turing thesis

- One way in which we can strengthen our intuition that the C-T thesis is true: Consider computational models which are apparently stronger than TMs, and show that they can be simulated by TMs.


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- One way in which we can strengthen our intuition that the C-T thesis is true: Consider computational models which are apparently stronger than TMs, and show that they can be simulated by TMs.
- The first of these models: the multitape Turing machine.



## Multitape Turing machines

A $k$-tape Turing machine $M$ is defined as follows.

- $M$ has access to $k$ tapes, each with its own head for reading and writing.
- The input is initially placed at the left end of tape 1 ; the other tapes are blank.
- The transition function is now of the form

$$
\delta: Q \times \Gamma^{k} \rightarrow Q \times \Gamma^{k} \times\{L, R\}^{k},
$$

so all $k$ tapes can be written, and all $k$ heads can be moved, simultaneously.

- Note that the state of $M$ is shared across all of the tapes.


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## Simulating $k$ tapes with 1 tape

Assume the input is a string $w_{1} w_{2} \ldots w_{n}$.

1. To start with, $S$ puts its tape into the format corresponding to a concatenation of all $k$ tapes of $M$, i.e.:

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3. $S$ then passes back through the tape to update it according to $M$ 's transition function operating on these symbols.
4. At some point $S$ may move one of the $k$ virtual heads rightwards onto a \#. This implies that $M$ has moved that physical head onto a blank square of the tape. In this situation, $S$ shifts everything to the right of that cell one position to the right, and then writes $\mathrm{a}_{\stackrel{\wedge}{ }}$ symbol onto that tape cell.

## Other equivalent models

There are also machines which may seem weaker (or very different), but which turn out to be equivalent to Turing machines.

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- First, a pushdown automaton with two stacks:

- The basic idea is that one stack represents the tape extending to the left, the other the tape extending to the right (including the cell under the head).
- The PDA begins by reading in the input into the second stack. Then it simulates the operation of a Turing machine using the stacks.


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- The PDA repeatedly pops the top symbol from the first stack and pushes it onto the second stack. The resulting state is

- This corresponds to the starting configuration of a Turing machine.


## PDAs with two stacks

- The PDA can look at the top element of the second stack to determine which operations to perform.
- So if (for example) the current state of the Turing machine wants to replace the current symbol with c and move to the right, the new configuration of the PDA would be



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- The PDA then continues to simulate the Turing machine in this way until it accepts or rejects.


## Counter machines

Consider the following, very simple model of a "real" computer:

- We have a small, fixed number of registers, each containing an integer (which can be arbitrarily large).
- We have an instruction set containing only the instructions
- INC $r$ : increment register $r$
- DEC $r$ : decrement register $r$ (never going below 0)
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An example program fragment on a counter machine:

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The above code zeroes register B before continuing (call this "ZERO B").

## Counter machines

## What does the following code do?

```
1. ZERO B
2. ZERO C
3. JZ A, 8
4. DEC A
5. INC B
6. INC C
7. GOTO 3
8. JZ C, 12
9. INC A
10. DEC C
11. GOTO 8
12. ...
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It copies register $A$ to register $B$, using register $C$ as temporary storage.

## Counter machines can simulate Turing machines

Our simulation will be based around having three registers:

- H stores the tape symbol under the head;
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e.g.:


$$
H=1, L=1, R=4 .
$$

## Counter machines can simulate Turing machines

- We start the simulation by having the register H contain the first symbol on the tape, and R contain the rest of the input.
- Then the simulation proceeds similarly to the two-stack PDA, where we think of $L$ as containing the first stack and $R$ the second stack.


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A sketch of how this works:

1. We have different code for each possible state of the Turing machine.
2. We can check whether the symbol under the head is 0 or 1 using JZ .
3. Imagine it is 0 and in the current state we should write a 1 and move right (the other cases are similar). Then:

- We multiply L by 2 and then add 1 to L ;
- We update $H$ to contain the lowest bit of $R$;
- We divide R by 2 (delete the lowest bit).

The multiplication and division operations can be performed using a sequence of increments and decrements (exercise!).

## Extremely small counter machines

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- This can be reduced to 2 registers if a trick called Gödel encoding is used, where several integers $z_{1}, \ldots, z_{k}$ are encoded as a product of prime numbers raised to corresponding powers:

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- Thus, assuming that the Church-Turing thesis is true, a computer with 2 registers and 3 instructions can compute everything which can be computed!


## Nondeterministic Turing machines

Just as we can have nondeterministic finite and pushdown automata, we can have nondeterministic Turing machines (NDTMs).

- An NDTM can explore multiple computational paths simultaneously.
- It accepts if and only if at least one of the computational paths accepts.



## Nondeterministic Turing machines

- NDTMs are formally described in the same way as TMs, except that their transition function is of the form

$$
\delta: Q \times \Gamma \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(Q \times \Gamma \times\{L, R\})
$$

- The right-hand side of this expression specifies the set of new configurations reachable from any given configuration. We think of this as exploring a tree of possible computation paths simultaneously.
- An NDTM accepts if any of the computation paths leads to the accepting state $q_{\text {accept }}$.


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Are NDTMs more powerful than TMs?

## Nondeterministic Turing machines

## Theorem

Every NDTM has an equivalent TM.

## Proof idea

- Given an NDTM $N$, we form a deterministic multitape TM $D$ by trying all possible branches of its computation tree.
- $D$ accepts if any of these branches accept. Otherwise, $D$ runs forever.
- We explore this tree using breadth-first search.



## The simulation (sketch)



Our simulating TM will have three tapes:

- The input tape contains the original input to the NDTM N.
- The simulation tape contains the current contents of N's tape.
- The address tape describes a sequence of states which can be reached by $N$.


## The simulation (sketch)



The simulation proceeds as follows:

1. Initialise the simulation and address tapes to be empty.
2. Copy the input tape to the simulation tape.
3. Simulate some steps of $N$ on the simulation tape, according to the address tape. Accept if $N$ accepts.
4. Replace the address tape with the next valid identifier of a branch of N's computation, and go to step (2).

## The universal Turing machine

The Turing machine model is powerful enough to simulate itself.

- In other words, there exists a Turing machine $U$ which can simulate the operation of any other Turing machine $M$, given a description of $M$ as input.
- Intuitively, this is like having an interpreter for a programming language written in the language itself.
- We show this by sketching a 2-tape TM $U$ which simulates the operation of any 1 -tape TM $M$ (as we have seen, $U$ can then be converted to only use 1 tape).


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2. At each step of the computation, $U$ reads $M$ 's transition function to decide what step to perform next and updates the configuration on the second tape appropriately.
3. If the simulation of $M$ enters the accept or reject state, $U$ accepts or rejects (respectively).

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- Some evidence for this: Turing machines are equivalent to other models of computation such as multitape Turing machines, pushdown automata with two stacks and counter machines.
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- Some evidence for this: Turing machines are equivalent to other models of computation such as multitape Turing machines, pushdown automata with two stacks and counter machines.
- The nondeterministic Turing machine model is apparently more powerful but can also be simulated by a deterministic Turing machine.
- There are universal Turing machines which can simulate any other Turing machine given as input.
- Further reading: Sipser §3.1-3.3, and Computation: Finite and Infinite Machines (Marvin L. Minsky, Prentice-Hall, 1967).

