

② output is word w' in $R1$ when STOP is reached.

Ex. Consider the following RM on the alphabet $A = \{1, +\}$
 $\swarrow \quad \nwarrow$
 $\sigma_1 \quad \sigma_2$

1. IF FIRST, $R1$, GOTO 5
2. DEL $R1$
3. IF FIRST, $R1$, GOTO 8
4. GOTO 11
5. DEL $R1$
6. ADD, $R2$
7. GOTO,
8. DEL $R1$
9. ADD, $R2$
10. GOTO 3
11. $R1 \leftarrow R2$
12. STOP

- on an input of the form

$$\underbrace{111 \dots 1}_{n \text{ 1's}} + \underbrace{11 \dots 1}_{m \text{ 1's}}$$

the program:

$\rightarrow$ consecutively deletes the leading 1's (before the +) in $R1$ and writes them in $R2$ (in instruction loop $1 \rightarrow 5 \rightarrow 6 \rightarrow 7$)

- deletes the + once it reaches it (instructions $2 \rightarrow 3$)
- consecutively deletes remaining 1's in R1 and writes them (at end of word) in R2
(instruction loop $3 \rightarrow 8 \rightarrow 9 \rightarrow 10$)

- once R1 is empty transfers word in R2 to R1 and halts
($4 \rightarrow 11 \rightarrow 12$)

→ output is $\underbrace{111}_{n} \cdot \underbrace{111}_{m} \dots 1$
 $\underbrace{\hspace{1.5cm}}_{n+m}$

→ i.e. the program performs "unary addition".

Equivalence of RMs and TMs

- though RMs and TMs are different kinds of machines, can show they are equivalent as models of computation
... in the sense that they compute the same (partial) functions

- were precisely: s.p.s. A, B are finite alphabets

a partial function $F: A^* \rightarrow B^*$ is a function whose domain is a subset of A^* and has outputs in B^* .

Def'n a partial function $F: A^* \rightarrow B^*$ is called TM-computable if there is a finite alphabet $C \supseteq A \cup B$ and a Turing machine M on C s.t. for each $w \in A^*$, M terminates on w (iff w is in domain(F) (i.e. $F(w)$ is defined) and in this case the output of M is $F(w)$.

→ TM-computable functions are just the functions you get from TMs (ie by viewing a TM as an ~~input~~ input/output device -- i.e. a function)

→ given a TM M associated ^{TM-computable} function F_M is the one defined by:

$$F_M(w) = \text{output of } M \text{ on input } w$$
 (if M halts on input w
 o/w undefined)

→ in this sense TM-computable functions are "1-1" with TMs M .

(but not literally 1-1: could be that same abstract function is computed by two different TMs)

→ can define what it means for a function to be "RM-computable" in an analogous way.

→ we then have the following:

Theorem (equivalence of TMs/RMs)
 a function f is TM-computable iff it is RM-computable

— theorem says: For every TM M there is an RM N w/ same outputs as M

i.e. output of M on input w
 = output of N on input w

for all words w

(... and the machines don't halt on the same inputs)

and vice versa

→ won't prove theorem, but the idea of the proof is simple.

— Given a TM M , can encode the instructions in the table of M as batches of instructions in some RM N , and then

Simulate M by N

- conversely, Given an RM N ,
Can find a TM M whose states
correspond to places in N 's program
- such M simulates N (i.e. computes
the same outputs)

Think: this is just like using a
"virtual machine" on a Mac to
run Windows or Linux software.

Church-Turing thesis

- Beyond RMs and TMs, many
other "models of computation" have
been studied over the years
including: recursive functions
finite automata
...actual computers!

- For all such models can show: if
 f is a function computed by
a model of computation M (e.g.
an actual computer) then there
is a TM M that computes f
(by simulating the M program
 N that computes f)

- and vice versa

- so, empirically: all (sufficiently powerful) models of computation are equivalent!

↳ this is known as the Church - Turing thesis

- it's a "thesis" since it's not a formal mathematical statement that can be proved

... no formal definition of "model of computation" is known!

Universal Turing Machines

- intuitively a TM is more akin to an individual program than a computer.

- however: it's possible to construct a universal TM U

↳ such a TM resembles a computer (i.e. a machine that can run any program)

↳ U takes as inputs strings of the form:

(code for another TM M) followed by (input w for M)

i.e. return the same output that M returns on input w .

- let's sketch how this coding is achieved

- first: given an alphabet $A = \{\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_k\}$ we can code this alphabet by strings in the alphabet $\{0, 1\}$

e.g. if $k \leq 2^n$ we can code all symbols $\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_k$ by binary sequences of length $\leq n$, (since 2^n of them)

$\sigma_1 \rightarrow 0$ $\sigma_2 \rightarrow 1$ $\sigma_3 \rightarrow 00$ $\sigma_4 \rightarrow 01$, etc.

~~coding this~~

- then for each word $w \in A^*$ have a binary code $b(w) \in \{0, 1\}^*$ for this word

- can check: for each M on the alphabet A can construct a TM M^* on $\{0, 1\}$ s.t. for all inputs $w \in A^*$
if M outputs v on input w
 M^* outputs $b(v)$ on $b(w)$

- i.e. (encoded) input/output behavior of M^* is same as M .

- thus any TM is simulated by one on the binary alphabet $\{0, 1\}$

- can restrict our attn to machines on $\{0, 1\}$

- going up a level: we can now encode TMs themselves
- that is: given a machine M , which is just a table of read/write instructions, can encode these instructions as a single string (putting them back to back, maybe w/ spaces)
- can then encode this string in a binary sequence.
- we call this sequence the binary code of M and denote it $b(M)$.
- now we can, with a lot of effort, write a program
(i.e. a Turing machine U on the alphabet $\{0,1\}$)
that simulates every TM M on $\{0,1\}$.
- More specifically:

Theorem There is a Turing machine U on the alphabet $\{0,1\}$ s.t.

For every TM M on $\{0,1\}$

and every input $w \in \{0,1\}^*$

if M returns w' on this input

210

then:

on input $b(M) * w$ (+ blank)
 U returns w' dec.

→ we call U a universal Turing machine.