## Markov Algorithms

## Other Notions of Computability

- Many other notions of computability have been proposed, e.g.
- (Type 0 a.k.a. Unrestricted) Grammars
- Partial Recursive Functions
- Lambda calculus
- Markov Algorithms
- Post Algorithms
- Post Canonical Systems,
-     - All have been shown equivalent to Turing machines by simulation proofs


## Markov Algorithms

- A Markov Algorithm over an alphabet A is a finite ordered sequence of productions $x \rightarrow y$, where $x, y \in A^{*}$. Some productions may be "Halt" productions. e.g.
abc $\rightarrow$ b
ba $\rightarrow$ x (halt)

Execution proceeds as follows:

1. Let the input string be w
2. The productions are scanned in sequence, looking for a production $x \rightarrow y$ where $x$ is a substring of $w$
3. The left-most $x$ in $w$ is replaced by $y$
4. If the production is a halt production, we halt
5. If no matching production is found, the process halts
6. If a replacement was made, we repeat from step 2.

- Note that a production $\Lambda \rightarrow$ a inserts $a$ at the start of the string.
- What does this Markov algorithm do?
aba $\rightarrow$ b
ba $\rightarrow$ b
$b \rightarrow a$

aabaaa<br>abaa<br>ba<br>b<br>a

## Example - Binary to Unary

1. "|0" -> "0||"
2. "1" -> "이"
3. "0" -> ""

## Input "101"

- Example from wikipedia
http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Markov_algorithm


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## Grammars

- We can extend the notion of context-free grammars to a more general mechanism
- An (unrestricted) grammar $G=(V, \Sigma, R, S)$ is just like a CFG except that rules in R can take the more general form $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ where $\alpha, \beta$ are arbitrary strings of terminals and variables. $\alpha$ must contain at least one variable (or nontermial).
- If $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ then $u \alpha v \Rightarrow u \beta v$ ("yields") in one step
- Define $\Rightarrow^{*}$ ("derives") as reflexive transitive closure of $\Rightarrow$.


## Example - Counting

- Grammar generating $\left\{w \in\{a, b, c\}^{*} \mid w\right.$ has equal numbers of a's, b's, and c's \}
- $G=(\{S, A, B, C\},\{a, b, c\}, R, S)$ where $R$ is
$S \rightarrow \Lambda$
$S \rightarrow$ ABCS
$\mathrm{AB} \rightarrow \mathrm{BA} \mathrm{AC} \rightarrow \mathrm{CABC} \rightarrow \mathrm{CB}$
Try generating ccbaba
$\mathrm{BA} \rightarrow \mathrm{ABCA} \rightarrow \mathrm{ACCB} \rightarrow \mathrm{BC}$
$A \rightarrow a B \rightarrow b C \rightarrow c$


## Example: $\left\{a^{2 \wedge n}, n \geq 0\right\}$

- Here's a set of grammar rules

1. $S \rightarrow a$
2. $\mathrm{S} \rightarrow \mathrm{ACaB}$
3. $\mathrm{Ca} \rightarrow \mathrm{aaC}$
4. $\mathrm{CB} \rightarrow \mathrm{DB}$
5. $\mathrm{CB} \rightarrow \mathrm{E}$
6. $\mathrm{aD} \rightarrow \mathrm{Da}$
7. $\mathrm{AD} \rightarrow \mathrm{AC}$
8. $\mathrm{aE} \rightarrow \mathrm{Ea}$
9. $\mathrm{AE} \rightarrow \Lambda$

Try generating $2^{3}$ a's S
ACaB
AaaCB
AaaDB
AaDaB
ADaaB
ACaaB
AaaCaB
AaaaaCB
AaaaaDB

## (Unrestricted) Grammars and Turing machines have equivalent power

- For any grammar G we can find a TM M such that $L(M)=L(G)$.
- For any TM M, we can find a grammar $G$ such that $\mathrm{L}(\mathrm{G})=\mathrm{L}(\mathrm{M})$.


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## Computation using Numerical Functions

- We're used to thinking about computation as something we do with numbers (e.g. on the naturals)
- What kinds of functions from numbers to numbers can we actually compute?
- To study this, we make a very careful selection of building blocks


## Primitive Recursive Functions

- The primitive recursive functions from $\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} \times \ldots$ $\mathrm{x} \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ are those built from these primitives:
- zero(x) $=0$
$-\operatorname{succ}(x)=x+1$
$-\pi k, j(x 1, x 2, \ldots, x k)=x j$ for $0<j \leq k$
- using these mechanisms:
- Function composition, and
- Primitive recursion


## Function Composition

- Define a new function $f$ in terms of functions $h$ and $\mathrm{g} 1, \mathrm{~g} 2, \ldots, \mathrm{gm}$ as follows:

$$
f(x 1, \ldots . . x n)=h(g 1(x 1, \ldots, x n), \ldots g m(x 1, \ldots, x n))
$$

Example: $f(x)=x+3$ can be expressed using two compositions as $f(x)=\operatorname{succ}(\operatorname{succ}(\operatorname{succ}(x)))$

## Primitive Recursion

- Primitive recursion defines a new function $f$ in terms of functions h and g as follows:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& f(x 1, \ldots, x k, 0)=h(x 1, \ldots, x k) \\
& f(x 1, \ldots, x k, \operatorname{succ}(n))=g(x 1, \ldots, x k, n, f(x 1, \ldots, x k, n))
\end{aligned}
$$

Many ordinary functions can be defined using primitive recursion, e.g.
$\operatorname{add}(x, 0)=\pi 1,1(x)$
$\operatorname{add}(x, \operatorname{succ}(y))=\operatorname{succ}(\pi 3,3(x, y, \operatorname{add}(x, y)))$

## More P.R. Functions

- For simplicity, we omit projection functions and write 0 for zero(_) and 1 for $\operatorname{succ}(0)$
$\cdot \operatorname{add}(x, 0)=x$ $\operatorname{add}(x, \operatorname{succ}(y))=\operatorname{succ}(\operatorname{add}(x, y))$
- mult( $x, 0$ ) = 0 $\operatorname{mult}(x, \operatorname{succ}(y))=\operatorname{add}(x, \operatorname{mult}(x, y))$
- factorial(0) = 1
factorial(succ(n)) $=\operatorname{mult}(\operatorname{succ}(\mathrm{n})$,factorial( n$)$ )
- $\exp (n, 0)=1$
$\exp (\mathrm{n}, \operatorname{succ}(\mathrm{n}))=\operatorname{mult}(\mathrm{n}, \exp (\mathrm{n}, \mathrm{m}))$
- $\operatorname{pred}(0)=0$ $\operatorname{pred}(\operatorname{succ}(\mathrm{n}))=\mathrm{n}$
- Essentially all practically useful arithmetic functions are primitive recursive, but...


## Ackermann's Function is not Primitive Recursive

- A famous example of a function that is clearly well-defined but not primitive recursive
$A(m, n)=$
if m0 then $n+1$ else if $n=0$ then $A(m-1,1)$ else $A(m-1, A(m, n-1))$


## This function grows extremely fast!

Values of $\boldsymbol{A}(\boldsymbol{m}, \boldsymbol{n})$

| $m \backslash n$ | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | n |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | $n+1$ |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | $n+2=2+(n+3)-3$ |
| 2 | 3 | 5 | 7 | 9 | 11 | $2 n+3=2 \cdot(n+3)-3$ |
| 3 | 5 | 13 | 29 | 61 | 125 | $2^{(n+3)}-3$ |
| 4 | 13 | 65533 | $2^{65536}-3$ | $2^{2^{65536}}-3$ | $A(3, A(4,3))$ | $\underbrace{2^{2 \theta^{2}}}_{n+3 \text { twos }}-3$ |
| 5 | 65533 | $\underbrace{2^{2 \theta^{2}}}_{65536}-3$ | $A(4, A(5,1))$ | $A(4, A(5,2))$ | $A(4, A(5,3))$ | $A(4, A(5, \mathrm{n}-1))$ |
| 6 | $A(5,1)$ | $A(5, A(6,0))$ | $A(5, \mathrm{~A}(6,1))$ | $A(5, A(6,2))$ | $A(5, A(6,3))$ | $A(5, A(6, \mathrm{n}-1))$ |

## $A$ is not primitive recursive

- Ackermann's function grows faster than any primitive recursive function, that is:
- for any primitive recursive function $f$, there is an $n$ such that
- $A(n, x)>f x$
- So A can't be primitive recursive


## Partial Recursive Functions

- A belongs to class of partial recursive functions, a superset of the primitive recursive functions.
- Can be built from primitive recursive operators \& new minimization operator
- Let $g$ be a $(k+1)$-argument function.
- Define $f(x 1, \ldots, x k)$ as the smallest $m$ such that $\boldsymbol{g}(x 1, \ldots, x k, m)=0 \quad$ (if such an $m$ exists)
- Otherwise, $f(x 1, \ldots, x n)$ is undefined
- We write $f(x 1, \ldots, x k)=\mu m \cdot[g(x 1, \ldots, x k, m)=0]$
- Example: $\mu m$.[mult (n,m) = 0] = zero(_)


## Hierarchy of Numeric Functions



## Turing-computable functions

- To formalize the connection between partial recursive functions and Turing machines, we need to describe how to use TM's to compute functions on $\mathbb{N}$.
- We say a function $f: \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} \times \ldots \times \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ is Turingcomputable if there exists a TM that, when started in configuration $q_{0} 1^{n 1} \sqcup 1^{n 2} \sqcup \ldots \sqcup 1^{\text {nk }}$, halts with just $1^{f(n 1, n 2, \ldots n k)}$ on the tape.
- Fact: $f$ is Turing-computable iff it is partial recursive.

