# The Grand Unified Theory of Computation (Part 2)

### Vahan Mkrtchyan<sup>1</sup>

#### <sup>1</sup>Lane Department of Computer Science and Electrical Engineering West Virginia University

April 22, 2015











2 Turing's Applied Philosophy









Alonzo Church and the  $\lambda$ -Calculus

### Alonzo Church and the $\lambda$ -Calculus

The  $\lambda$ -Calculus

# Alonzo Church and the $\lambda$ -Calculus

### The $\lambda$ -Calculus

The logician Alonzo Church has come up with another definition of a computation and a computable function.

# Alonzo Church and the $\lambda$ -Calculus

#### The $\lambda$ -Calculus

The logician Alonzo Church has come up with another definition of a computation and a computable function. The system he has invented is called  $\lambda$ -Calculus.

### Alonzo Church and the $\lambda$ -Calculus

#### The $\lambda$ -Calculus

The logician Alonzo Church has come up with another definition of a computation and a computable function. The system he has invented is called  $\lambda$ -Calculus.

Getting used to the new format

# Alonzo Church and the $\lambda$ -Calculus

### The $\lambda$ -Calculus

The logician Alonzo Church has come up with another definition of a computation and a computable function. The system he has invented is called  $\lambda$ -Calculus.

#### Getting used to the new format

Instead of writing  $f(x) = x^2$ ,

# Alonzo Church and the $\lambda$ -Calculus

### The $\lambda$ -Calculus

The logician Alonzo Church has come up with another definition of a computation and a computable function. The system he has invented is called  $\lambda$ -Calculus.

#### Getting used to the new format

Instead of writing  $f(x) = x^2$ , we will write  $f = \lambda x \cdot x^2$ .

# Alonzo Church and the $\lambda$ -Calculus

### The $\lambda$ -Calculus

The logician Alonzo Church has come up with another definition of a computation and a computable function. The system he has invented is called  $\lambda$ -Calculus.

#### Getting used to the new format

Instead of writing  $f(x) = x^2$ , we will write  $f = \lambda x \cdot x^2$ .

In other words,  $\lambda x. x^2$  is a function that takes a variable x and returns  $x^2$ .

### Alonzo Church and the $\lambda$ -Calculus

### The $\lambda$ -Calculus

The logician Alonzo Church has come up with another definition of a computation and a computable function. The system he has invented is called  $\lambda$ -Calculus.

#### Getting used to the new format

Instead of writing  $f(x) = x^2$ , we will write  $f = \lambda x \cdot x^2$ .

In other words,  $\lambda x.x^2$  is a function that takes a variable x and returns  $x^2$ .

If we replace a number to the right of this function,

### Alonzo Church and the $\lambda$ -Calculus

### The $\lambda$ -Calculus

The logician Alonzo Church has come up with another definition of a computation and a computable function. The system he has invented is called  $\lambda$ -Calculus.

#### Getting used to the new format

Instead of writing  $f(x) = x^2$ , we will write  $f = \lambda x \cdot x^2$ .

In other words,  $\lambda x.x^2$  is a function that takes a variable x and returns  $x^2$ .

If we replace a number to the right of this function, it substitutes that number for the variable *x*:

### Alonzo Church and the $\lambda$ -Calculus

### The $\lambda$ -Calculus

The logician Alonzo Church has come up with another definition of a computation and a computable function. The system he has invented is called  $\lambda$ -Calculus.

#### Getting used to the new format

Instead of writing  $f(x) = x^2$ , we will write  $f = \lambda x \cdot x^2$ .

In other words,  $\lambda x.x^2$  is a function that takes a variable x and returns  $x^2$ .

If we replace a number to the right of this function, it substitutes that number for the variable *x*:

$$(\lambda x.x^2)7 = 49$$

### Alonzo Church and the $\lambda$ -Calculus

### The $\lambda$ -Calculus

The logician Alonzo Church has come up with another definition of a computation and a computable function. The system he has invented is called  $\lambda$ -Calculus.

#### Getting used to the new format

Instead of writing  $f(x) = x^2$ , we will write  $f = \lambda x \cdot x^2$ .

In other words,  $\lambda x.x^2$  is a function that takes a variable x and returns  $x^2$ .

If we replace a number to the right of this function, it substitutes that number for the variable *x*:

$$(\lambda x.x^2)7 = 49$$

So far, this is just a strange shift in notation.

Alonzo Church and the  $\lambda$ -Calculus

### Alonzo Church and the $\lambda$ -Calculus

### The $\lambda$ -Calculus

The Grand Unified Theory of Computation Computational Complexity

# Alonzo Church and the $\lambda$ -Calculus

The  $\lambda$ -Calculus

The way, the  $\lambda\text{-Calculus treats the process of computation is different.$ 

# Alonzo Church and the $\lambda$ -Calculus

The  $\lambda$ -Calculus

The way, the  $\lambda$ -Calculus treats the process of computation is different.

Consider the addition function,

# Alonzo Church and the $\lambda$ -Calculus

### The $\lambda$ -Calculus

The way, the  $\lambda$ -Calculus treats the process of computation is different.

Consider the addition function, which we write

 $\lambda xy.x + y.$ 

### Alonzo Church and the $\lambda$ -Calculus

### The $\lambda$ -Calculus

The way, the  $\lambda$ -Calculus treats the process of computation is different.

Consider the addition function, which we write

 $\lambda xy.x + y.$ 

We will apply this to 3 and 5.

# Alonzo Church and the $\lambda$ -Calculus

### The $\lambda$ -Calculus

The way, the  $\lambda$ -Calculus treats the process of computation is different.

Consider the addition function, which we write

 $\lambda xy.x + y.$ 

We will apply this to 3 and 5. Rather than writing

 $(\lambda xy.x + y)(3, 5)$ 

# Alonzo Church and the $\lambda$ -Calculus

### The $\lambda$ -Calculus

The way, the  $\lambda$ -Calculus treats the process of computation is different.

Consider the addition function, which we write

 $\lambda xy.x + y.$ 

We will apply this to 3 and 5. Rather than writing

 $(\lambda xy.x + y)(3, 5)$ 

we write

 $((\lambda xy.x + y)3)5$ 

# Alonzo Church and the $\lambda$ -Calculus

### The $\lambda$ -Calculus

The way, the  $\lambda$ -Calculus treats the process of computation is different.

Consider the addition function, which we write

 $\lambda xy.x + y.$ 

We will apply this to 3 and 5. Rather than writing

 $(\lambda xy.x + y)(3,5)$ 

we write

$$((\lambda xy.x+y)3)5 = (\lambda y.3+y)5$$

# Alonzo Church and the $\lambda$ -Calculus

### The $\lambda$ -Calculus

The way, the  $\lambda$ -Calculus treats the process of computation is different.

Consider the addition function, which we write

 $\lambda xy.x + y.$ 

We will apply this to 3 and 5. Rather than writing

 $(\lambda xy.x + y)(3,5)$ 

we write

$$((\lambda xy.x + y)3)5 = (\lambda y.3 + y)5 = 8.$$

### The $\lambda$ -Calculus

The way, the  $\lambda$ -Calculus treats the process of computation is different.

Consider the addition function, which we write

 $\lambda xy.x + y.$ 

We will apply this to 3 and 5. Rather than writing

 $(\lambda xy.x + y)(3,5)$ 

we write

$$((\lambda xy.x + y)3)5 = (\lambda y.3 + y)5 = 8.$$

This is already a computation.

### The $\lambda$ -Calculus

The way, the  $\lambda$ -Calculus treats the process of computation is different.

Consider the addition function, which we write

 $\lambda xy.x + y.$ 

We will apply this to 3 and 5. Rather than writing

 $(\lambda xy.x + y)(3,5)$ 

we write

$$((\lambda xy.x + y)3)5 = (\lambda y.3 + y)5 = 8.$$

This is already a computation. We have the object  $\lambda y.3 + y$ .

### The $\lambda$ -Calculus

The way, the  $\lambda$ -Calculus treats the process of computation is different.

Consider the addition function, which we write

 $\lambda xy.x + y.$ 

We will apply this to 3 and 5. Rather than writing

 $(\lambda xy.x + y)(3,5)$ 

we write

$$((\lambda xy.x + y)3)5 = (\lambda y.3 + y)5 = 8.$$

This is already a computation. We have the object  $\lambda y.3 + y$ . In other words, having fixed x = 3, we have a function on the other variable y,

### The $\lambda$ -Calculus

The way, the  $\lambda$ -Calculus treats the process of computation is different.

Consider the addition function, which we write

 $\lambda xy.x + y.$ 

We will apply this to 3 and 5. Rather than writing

 $(\lambda xy.x + y)(3,5)$ 

we write

$$((\lambda xy.x + y)3)5 = (\lambda y.3 + y)5 = 8.$$

This is already a computation. We have the object  $\lambda y.3 + y$ . In other words, having fixed x = 3, we have a function on the other variable *y*, which adds 3 to it.

Alonzo Church and the  $\lambda$ -Calculus

# Alonzo Church and the $\lambda$ -Calculus

### The $\lambda$ -Calculus

The Grand Unified Theory of Computation Computational Complexity

# Alonzo Church and the $\lambda$ -Calculus

### The $\lambda$ -Calculus

This is a powerful shift in how we think about performing a computation.

# Alonzo Church and the $\lambda$ -Calculus

### The $\lambda$ -Calculus

This is a powerful shift in how we think about performing a computation.

Rather than modifying variables and passing their values up to functions,

# Alonzo Church and the $\lambda$ -Calculus

#### The $\lambda$ -Calculus

This is a powerful shift in how we think about performing a computation.

Rather than modifying variables and passing their values up to functions, we evaluate functions from the top down,

# Alonzo Church and the $\lambda$ -Calculus

#### The $\lambda$ -Calculus

This is a powerful shift in how we think about performing a computation.

Rather than modifying variables and passing their values up to functions, we evaluate functions from the top down, modifying what they will do with the rest of their data when they get it.
### Alonzo Church and the $\lambda$ -Calculus

#### The $\lambda$ -Calculus

This is a powerful shift in how we think about performing a computation.

Rather than modifying variables and passing their values up to functions, we evaluate functions from the top down, modifying what they will do with the rest of their data when they get it.

The notation  $\lambda xy$  is really a shorthand, which works like this:

## Alonzo Church and the $\lambda$ -Calculus

#### The $\lambda$ -Calculus

This is a powerful shift in how we think about performing a computation.

Rather than modifying variables and passing their values up to functions, we evaluate functions from the top down, modifying what they will do with the rest of their data when they get it.

The notation  $\lambda xy$  is really a shorthand, which works like this:

 $\lambda xy.x + y = \lambda x.(\lambda y.x + y).$ 

## Alonzo Church and the $\lambda$ -Calculus

#### The $\lambda$ -Calculus

This is a powerful shift in how we think about performing a computation.

Rather than modifying variables and passing their values up to functions, we evaluate functions from the top down, modifying what they will do with the rest of their data when they get it.

The notation  $\lambda xy$  is really a shorthand, which works like this:

$$\lambda xy.x + y = \lambda x.(\lambda y.x + y).$$

Thus addition is a function on one variable *x*,

## Alonzo Church and the $\lambda$ -Calculus

#### The $\lambda$ -Calculus

This is a powerful shift in how we think about performing a computation.

Rather than modifying variables and passing their values up to functions, we evaluate functions from the top down, modifying what they will do with the rest of their data when they get it.

The notation  $\lambda xy$  is really a shorthand, which works like this:

 $\lambda xy.x + y = \lambda x.(\lambda y.x + y).$ 

Thus addition is a function on one variable x, which, when given x, returns the function that adds that x to its input y.

# Combinators

# Combinators

Strings or Combinators

# Combinators

Strings or Combinators

The purest form of the  $\lambda$ -calculus does not have arithmetic operations,

# Combinators

### Strings or Combinators

The purest form of the  $\lambda$ -calculus does not have arithmetic operations, or even the concept of integers.

# Combinators

#### Strings or Combinators

The purest form of the  $\lambda$ -calculus does not have arithmetic operations, or even the concept of integers.

The basic objects in the  $\lambda$ -calculus are strings, or combinators,

#### Strings or Combinators

The purest form of the  $\lambda$ -calculus does not have arithmetic operations, or even the concept of integers.

The basic objects in the  $\lambda$ -calculus are strings, or combinators, which take the next string to their right and substitute it for each appearance of the first variable marked with  $\lambda$ .

#### Strings or Combinators

The purest form of the  $\lambda$ -calculus does not have arithmetic operations, or even the concept of integers.

The basic objects in the  $\lambda$ -calculus are strings, or combinators, which take the next string to their right and substitute it for each appearance of the first variable marked with  $\lambda$ .

In other words, if x is a variable, and U and V are strings,

#### Strings or Combinators

The purest form of the  $\lambda$ -calculus does not have arithmetic operations, or even the concept of integers.

The basic objects in the  $\lambda$ -calculus are strings, or combinators, which take the next string to their right and substitute it for each appearance of the first variable marked with  $\lambda$ .

In other words, if x is a variable, and U and V are strings, then

 $(\lambda x.U)V = U[x \to V],$ 

#### Strings or Combinators

The purest form of the  $\lambda$ -calculus does not have arithmetic operations, or even the concept of integers.

The basic objects in the  $\lambda$ -calculus are strings, or combinators, which take the next string to their right and substitute it for each appearance of the first variable marked with  $\lambda$ .

In other words, if x is a variable, and U and V are strings, then

$$(\lambda x.U)V = U[x \to V],$$

where  $U[x \rightarrow V]$  denotes the string we get from U by replacing each appearance of x with V.

#### Strings or Combinators

The purest form of the  $\lambda$ -calculus does not have arithmetic operations, or even the concept of integers.

The basic objects in the  $\lambda$ -calculus are strings, or combinators, which take the next string to their right and substitute it for each appearance of the first variable marked with  $\lambda$ .

In other words, if x is a variable, and U and V are strings, then

$$(\lambda x.U)V = U[x \to V],$$

where  $U[x \rightarrow V]$  denotes the string we get from U by replacing each appearance of x with V.

Each such step is called a reduction.

# Combinators

# Combinators

Strings or Combinators

## Combinators

Strings or Combinators

A computation then consists of a chain of reductions, such as

## Combinators

Strings or Combinators

A computation then consists of a chain of reductions, such as

 $(\lambda xy.yxy)ab$ 

## Combinators

### Strings or Combinators

A computation then consists of a chain of reductions, such as

 $(\lambda xy.yxy)ab = (\lambda y.yay)b$ 

## Combinators

### Strings or Combinators

A computation then consists of a chain of reductions, such as

 $(\lambda xy.yxy)ab = (\lambda y.yay)b = bab.$ 

### Strings or Combinators

A computation then consists of a chain of reductions, such as

 $(\lambda xy.yxy)ab = (\lambda y.yay)b = bab.$ 

We evaluate strings from left to right, and that in the absence of parentheses, we interpret the string *zab* as (za)b.

### Strings or Combinators

A computation then consists of a chain of reductions, such as

 $(\lambda xy.yxy)ab = (\lambda y.yay)b = bab.$ 

We evaluate strings from left to right, and that in the absence of parentheses, we interpret the string *zab* as (za)b.

The operation of reduction is non-associative,

### Strings or Combinators

A computation then consists of a chain of reductions, such as

 $(\lambda xy.yxy)ab = (\lambda y.yay)b = bab.$ 

We evaluate strings from left to right, and that in the absence of parentheses, we interpret the string *zab* as (za)b.

The operation of reduction is non-associative, meaning that  $z(ab) \neq (za)b$  in general.

#### Strings or Combinators

A computation then consists of a chain of reductions, such as

 $(\lambda xy.yxy)ab = (\lambda y.yay)b = bab.$ 

We evaluate strings from left to right, and that in the absence of parentheses, we interpret the string *zab* as (za)b.

The operation of reduction is non-associative, meaning that  $z(ab) \neq (za)b$  in general.

For example, grouping a and b together in this example gives

 $(\lambda xy.yxy)(ab)$ 

#### Strings or Combinators

A computation then consists of a chain of reductions, such as

 $(\lambda xy.yxy)ab = (\lambda y.yay)b = bab.$ 

We evaluate strings from left to right, and that in the absence of parentheses, we interpret the string *zab* as (za)b.

The operation of reduction is non-associative, meaning that  $z(ab) \neq (za)b$  in general.

For example, grouping a and b together in this example gives

 $(\lambda xy.yxy)(ab) = \lambda y.y(ab)y.$ 

# Combinators

### Combinators

Feeding one combinator to another

The Grand Unified Theory of Computation Computational Complexity

# Combinators

### Feeding one combinator to another

Assume that  $T = \lambda xy.x$ ,  $F = \lambda xy.y$ , and  $I = \lambda x.x$ .

### Feeding one combinator to another

Assume that  $T = \lambda xy.x$ ,  $F = \lambda xy.y$ , and  $I = \lambda x.x$ .

The combinators T and F take two inputs and return the first or second one.

### Feeding one combinator to another

Assume that  $T = \lambda xy.x$ ,  $F = \lambda xy.y$ , and  $I = \lambda x.x$ .

The combinators T and F take two inputs and return the first or second one.

Since *I* is the identity, IT = T and IF = F.

#### Feeding one combinator to another

Assume that  $T = \lambda xy.x$ ,  $F = \lambda xy.y$ , and  $I = \lambda x.x$ .

The combinators *T* and *F* take two inputs and return the first or second one.

Since *I* is the identity, IT = T and IF = F.

Now, we have

 $TI = (\lambda xy.x)(\lambda x.x)$ 

### Feeding one combinator to another

Assume that  $T = \lambda xy.x$ ,  $F = \lambda xy.y$ , and  $I = \lambda x.x$ .

The combinators *T* and *F* take two inputs and return the first or second one.

Since *I* is the identity, IT = T and IF = F.

Now, we have

 $TI = (\lambda xy.x)(\lambda x.x)$  $= (\lambda xy.x)(\lambda z.z)$ 

### Feeding one combinator to another

Assume that  $T = \lambda xy.x$ ,  $F = \lambda xy.y$ , and  $I = \lambda x.x$ .

The combinators T and F take two inputs and return the first or second one.

Since *I* is the identity, IT = T and IF = F.

Now, we have

$$TI = (\lambda xy.x)(\lambda x.x)$$
  
=  $(\lambda xy.x)(\lambda z.z)$   
=  $\lambda y.(\lambda z.z)$ 

### Feeding one combinator to another

Assume that  $T = \lambda xy.x$ ,  $F = \lambda xy.y$ , and  $I = \lambda x.x$ .

The combinators *T* and *F* take two inputs and return the first or second one.

Since *I* is the identity, IT = T and IF = F.

Now, we have

$$TI = (\lambda xy.x)(\lambda x.x)$$
$$= (\lambda xy.x)(\lambda z.z)$$
$$= \lambda y.(\lambda z.z)$$
$$= \lambda yz.z$$

### Feeding one combinator to another

Assume that  $T = \lambda xy.x$ ,  $F = \lambda xy.y$ , and  $I = \lambda x.x$ .

The combinators *T* and *F* take two inputs and return the first or second one.

Since *I* is the identity, IT = T and IF = F.

Now, we have

$$TI = (\lambda xy.x)(\lambda x.x)$$
  
=  $(\lambda xy.x)(\lambda z.z)$   
=  $\lambda y.(\lambda z.z)$   
=  $\lambda yz.z$   
=  $F$ .

# Combinators
## Combinators

Feeding one combinator to another

## Combinators

#### Feeding one combinator to another

Some products, such as *TI*, reach a final state, or normal form, in which no more reductions are possible.

#### Feeding one combinator to another

Some products, such as *TI*, reach a final state, or normal form, in which no more reductions are possible.

Either there are no  $\lambda$ s left, or there are no strings to the right of the first combinator to plug into it.

#### Feeding one combinator to another

Some products, such as *TI*, reach a final state, or normal form, in which no more reductions are possible.

Either there are no  $\lambda$ s left, or there are no strings to the right of the first combinator to plug into it.

However, this is not true for all expressions.

#### Feeding one combinator to another

Some products, such as *TI*, reach a final state, or normal form, in which no more reductions are possible.

Either there are no  $\lambda$ s left, or there are no strings to the right of the first combinator to plug into it.

However, this is not true for all expressions.

Consider  $Q = \lambda x.xx$ , which takes x as input and returns xx.

#### Feeding one combinator to another

Some products, such as *TI*, reach a final state, or normal form, in which no more reductions are possible.

Either there are no  $\lambda$ s left, or there are no strings to the right of the first combinator to plug into it.

However, this is not true for all expressions.

Consider  $Q = \lambda x.xx$ , which takes x as input and returns xx.

If we feed Q to itself, we get

#### Feeding one combinator to another

Some products, such as *TI*, reach a final state, or normal form, in which no more reductions are possible.

Either there are no  $\lambda s$  left, or there are no strings to the right of the first combinator to plug into it.

However, this is not true for all expressions.

Consider  $Q = \lambda x.xx$ , which takes x as input and returns xx.

If we feed Q to itself, we get

 $QQ = (\lambda x.xx)(\lambda x.xx)$ 

#### Feeding one combinator to another

Some products, such as *TI*, reach a final state, or normal form, in which no more reductions are possible.

Either there are no  $\lambda s$  left, or there are no strings to the right of the first combinator to plug into it.

However, this is not true for all expressions.

Consider  $Q = \lambda x.xx$ , which takes x as input and returns xx.

If we feed Q to itself, we get

 $QQ = (\lambda x.xx)(\lambda x.xx) = (\lambda x.xx)(\lambda x.xx)$ 

#### Feeding one combinator to another

Some products, such as *TI*, reach a final state, or normal form, in which no more reductions are possible.

Either there are no  $\lambda s$  left, or there are no strings to the right of the first combinator to plug into it.

However, this is not true for all expressions.

Consider  $Q = \lambda x.xx$ , which takes x as input and returns xx.

If we feed Q to itself, we get

$$QQ = (\lambda x.xx)(\lambda x.xx) = (\lambda x.xx)(\lambda x.xx)$$
$$= (\lambda x.xx)(\lambda x.xx)$$

#### Feeding one combinator to another

Some products, such as *TI*, reach a final state, or normal form, in which no more reductions are possible.

Either there are no  $\lambda s$  left, or there are no strings to the right of the first combinator to plug into it.

However, this is not true for all expressions.

Consider  $Q = \lambda x.xx$ , which takes x as input and returns xx.

If we feed Q to itself, we get

$$QQ = (\lambda x.xx)(\lambda x.xx) = (\lambda x.xx)(\lambda x.xx)$$
$$= (\lambda x.xx)(\lambda x.xx)$$
$$= \dots$$

#### Feeding one combinator to another

Some products, such as *TI*, reach a final state, or normal form, in which no more reductions are possible.

Either there are no  $\lambda s$  left, or there are no strings to the right of the first combinator to plug into it.

However, this is not true for all expressions.

Consider  $Q = \lambda x.xx$ , which takes x as input and returns xx.

If we feed Q to itself, we get

$$QQ = (\lambda x.xx)(\lambda x.xx) = (\lambda x.xx)(\lambda x.xx)$$
$$= (\lambda x.xx)(\lambda x.xx)$$
$$= \dots$$

The chain of the reductions never halts.

# Combinators

## Combinators

Feeding one combinator to another

## Combinators

### Feeding one combinator to another

Even worse is the following expression, which grows without bounds as we try to reduce it:

## Combinators

#### Feeding one combinator to another

Even worse is the following expression, which grows without bounds as we try to reduce it:

 $(\lambda x.xx)(\lambda y.yyy) = (\lambda y.yyy)(\lambda y.yyy)$ 

## Combinators

#### Feeding one combinator to another

Even worse is the following expression, which grows without bounds as we try to reduce it:

 $\begin{aligned} (\lambda x.xx)(\lambda y.yyy) &= (\lambda y.yyy)(\lambda y.yyy) \\ &= (\lambda y.yyy)(\lambda y.yyy)(\lambda y.yyy) \end{aligned}$ 

## Combinators

#### Feeding one combinator to another

Even worse is the following expression, which grows without bounds as we try to reduce it:

$$\begin{aligned} (\lambda x.xx)(\lambda y.yyy) &= (\lambda y.yyy)(\lambda y.yyy) \\ &= (\lambda y.yyy)(\lambda y.yyy)(\lambda y.yyy) \\ &= (\lambda y.yyy)(\lambda y.yyy)(\lambda y.yyy)(\lambda y.yyy) \end{aligned}$$

## Combinators

#### Feeding one combinator to another

Even worse is the following expression, which grows without bounds as we try to reduce it:

$$\begin{aligned} (\lambda x.xx)(\lambda y.yyy) &= (\lambda y.yyy)(\lambda y.yyy) \\ &= (\lambda y.yyy)(\lambda y.yyy)(\lambda y.yyy) \\ &= (\lambda y.yyy)(\lambda y.yyy)(\lambda y.yyy)(\lambda y.yyy) \\ &= \dots \end{aligned}$$

#### Feeding one combinator to another

Even worse is the following expression, which grows without bounds as we try to reduce it:

$$\begin{aligned} (\lambda x.xx)(\lambda y.yyy) &= (\lambda y.yyy)(\lambda y.yyy) \\ &= (\lambda y.yyy)(\lambda y.yyy)(\lambda y.yyy) \\ &= (\lambda y.yyy)(\lambda y.yyy)(\lambda y.yyy)(\lambda y.yyy) \\ &= \dots \end{aligned}$$

These are examples of infinite loops in the  $\lambda$ -calculus.

#### Feeding one combinator to another

Even worse is the following expression, which grows without bounds as we try to reduce it:

(λx.xx)(λy.yyy)	=	$(\lambda y. yyy)(\lambda y. yyy)$
	=	$(\lambda y.yyy)(\lambda y.yyy)(\lambda y.yyy)$
	=	$(\lambda y.yyy)(\lambda y.yyy)(\lambda y.yyy)(\lambda y.yyy)$
	=	

These are examples of infinite loops in the  $\lambda$ -calculus.

Like partial recursive functions,  $\lambda$ -expressions may never return an answer, and the functions they compute may be undefined for some values of their input.

# Combinators

## Combinators

Feeding one combinator to another: Boolean expressions

## Combinators

Feeding one combinator to another: Boolean expressions

Consider the combinators T and F defined above.

## Combinators

Feeding one combinator to another: Boolean expressions

Consider the combinators T and F defined above.

We will interpret them as true and false, respectively.

Feeding one combinator to another: Boolean expressions

Consider the combinators T and F defined above.

We will interpret them as true and false, respectively.

Show that we can represent the well-known Boolean functions as follows:

Feeding one combinator to another: Boolean expressions

Consider the combinators T and F defined above.

We will interpret them as true and false, respectively.

Show that we can represent the well-known Boolean functions as follows:

 $not = \lambda pxy.pyx,$ 

Feeding one combinator to another: Boolean expressions

Consider the combinators T and F defined above.

We will interpret them as true and false, respectively.

Show that we can represent the well-known Boolean functions as follows:

 $not = \lambda pxy.pyx,$ and  $= \lambda pq.pqp,$ 

Feeding one combinator to another: Boolean expressions

Consider the combinators T and F defined above.

We will interpret them as true and false, respectively.

Show that we can represent the well-known Boolean functions as follows:

 $not = \lambda pxy.pyx,$  $and = \lambda pq.pqp,$  $or = \lambda pq.ppq.$ 

Feeding one combinator to another: Boolean expressions

Consider the combinators T and F defined above.

We will interpret them as true and false, respectively.

Show that we can represent the well-known Boolean functions as follows:

 $not = \lambda pxy.pyx,$   $and = \lambda pq.pqp,$  $or = \lambda pq.ppq.$ 

One can also show that

and TF = (and T)F = IF = F.

# Combinators

# Combinators

How about arithmetic?

## Combinators

How about arithmetic?

One can represent the natural numbers 0, 1, 2, 3, ... in  $\lambda$ -calculus.

### How about arithmetic?

One can represent the natural numbers 0, 1, 2, 3, ... in  $\lambda$ -calculus.

$$\bar{0} = \lambda f x. x,$$

### How about arithmetic?

One can represent the natural numbers 0, 1, 2, 3, ... in  $\lambda$ -calculus.

$$\bar{\mathbf{0}} = \lambda f \mathbf{x} . \mathbf{x},$$

$$\bar{\mathbf{1}} = \lambda f \mathbf{x} . f \mathbf{x}.$$

### How about arithmetic?

One can represent the natural numbers 0, 1, 2, 3, ... in  $\lambda$ -calculus.

$$\bar{0} = \lambda f x. x, \bar{1} = \lambda f x. f x, \bar{2} = \lambda f x. f (f x),$$

### How about arithmetic?

One can represent the natural numbers 0, 1, 2, 3, ... in  $\lambda$ -calculus.

$$\bar{0} = \lambda f x. x, \bar{1} = \lambda f x. f x, \bar{2} = \lambda f x. f (f x), \bar{3} = \lambda f x. f (f (f x)),$$
#### How about arithmetic?

One can represent the natural numbers 0, 1, 2, 3, ... in  $\lambda$ -calculus.

We will use the Church numerals, defined as follows:

 $\begin{aligned} \bar{\mathbf{0}} &= \lambda f x. x, \\ \bar{\mathbf{1}} &= \lambda f x. f x, \\ \bar{\mathbf{2}} &= \lambda f x. f (f x), \\ \bar{\mathbf{3}} &= \lambda f x. f (f (f x)). \end{aligned}$ 

Given a function f, the Church numeral  $\bar{n}$  returns the function  $f^n$ , that is, f iterated n times:

#### How about arithmetic?

One can represent the natural numbers 0, 1, 2, 3, ... in  $\lambda$ -calculus.

We will use the Church numerals, defined as follows:

 $\begin{aligned} \bar{\mathbf{0}} &= \lambda f x. x, \\ \bar{\mathbf{1}} &= \lambda f x. f x, \\ \bar{\mathbf{2}} &= \lambda f x. f (f x), \\ \bar{\mathbf{3}} &= \lambda f x. f (f (f x)). \end{aligned}$ 

Given a function f, the Church numeral  $\bar{n}$  returns the function  $f^n$ , that is, f iterated n times:

$$\overline{n}f = \lambda x.f^n x.$$

# Combinators

## Combinators

How about arithmetic?

# Combinators

How about arithmetic?

One can define combinators that carry out arithmetic operations on these numerals.

# Combinators

How about arithmetic?

One can define combinators that carry out arithmetic operations on these numerals.

 $succ = \lambda mfx.f(mfx)$ 

How about arithmetic?

One can define combinators that carry out arithmetic operations on these numerals.

 $succ = \lambda mfx.f(mfx)$ 

If  $\bar{m}$  is a numeral,  $succ\bar{m}$  applies f one more time than  $\bar{m}$  would.

How about arithmetic?

One can define combinators that carry out arithmetic operations on these numerals.

 $succ = \lambda mfx.f(mfx)$ 

If  $\bar{m}$  is a numeral, *succ* $\bar{m}$  applies *f* one more time than  $\bar{m}$  would. Thus *succ* acts as the successor function.

How about arithmetic?

One can define combinators that carry out arithmetic operations on these numerals.

 $succ = \lambda mfx.f(mfx)$ 

If  $\bar{m}$  is a numeral, *succ* $\bar{m}$  applies *f* one more time than  $\bar{m}$  would. Thus *succ* acts as the successor function.

Let's check this, reducing one step at a time:

 $succ\bar{n} = (\lambda mfx.f(mfx))(\lambda gy.g^ny)$ 

How about arithmetic?

One can define combinators that carry out arithmetic operations on these numerals.

 $succ = \lambda mfx.f(mfx)$ 

If  $\bar{m}$  is a numeral, *succ* $\bar{m}$  applies *f* one more time than  $\bar{m}$  would. Thus *succ* acts as the successor function.

Let's check this, reducing one step at a time:

 $succ\bar{n} = (\lambda mfx.f(mfx))(\lambda gy.g^n y)$  $= \lambda fx.f((\lambda gy.g^n y)fx)$ 

#### How about arithmetic?

One can define combinators that carry out arithmetic operations on these numerals.

 $succ = \lambda mfx.f(mfx)$ 

If  $\bar{m}$  is a numeral, *succ* $\bar{m}$  applies *f* one more time than  $\bar{m}$  would. Thus *succ* acts as the successor function.

Let's check this, reducing one step at a time:

 $succ\bar{n} = (\lambda mfx.f(mfx))(\lambda gy.g^n y)$ =  $\lambda fx.f((\lambda gy.g^n y)fx)$ =  $\lambda fx.f((\lambda y.f^n y)x)$ 

#### How about arithmetic?

One can define combinators that carry out arithmetic operations on these numerals.

 $succ = \lambda mfx.f(mfx)$ 

If  $\bar{m}$  is a numeral, *succ* $\bar{m}$  applies *f* one more time than  $\bar{m}$  would. Thus *succ* acts as the successor function.

Let's check this, reducing one step at a time:

 $succ\bar{n} = (\lambda mfx.f(mfx))(\lambda gy.g^n y)$ =  $\lambda fx.f((\lambda gy.g^n y)fx)$ =  $\lambda fx.f((\lambda y.f^n y)x)$ =  $\lambda fx.f(f^n x)$ 

#### How about arithmetic?

One can define combinators that carry out arithmetic operations on these numerals.

 $succ = \lambda mfx.f(mfx)$ 

If  $\bar{m}$  is a numeral, *succ* $\bar{m}$  applies *f* one more time than  $\bar{m}$  would. Thus *succ* acts as the successor function.

Let's check this, reducing one step at a time:

$$succ\bar{n} = (\lambda mfx.f(mfx))(\lambda gy.g^n y)$$
  
=  $\lambda fx.f((\lambda gy.g^n y)fx)$   
=  $\lambda fx.f((\lambda y.f^n y)x)$   
=  $\lambda fx.f(f^n x)$   
=  $\lambda fx.f(f^n x)$ 

#### How about arithmetic?

One can define combinators that carry out arithmetic operations on these numerals.

 $succ = \lambda mfx.f(mfx)$ 

If  $\bar{m}$  is a numeral, *succ* $\bar{m}$  applies *f* one more time than  $\bar{m}$  would. Thus *succ* acts as the successor function.

Let's check this, reducing one step at a time:

$$succ\bar{n} = (\lambda mfx.f(mfx))(\lambda gy.g^n y)$$
  
=  $\lambda fx.f((\lambda gy.g^n y)fx)$   
=  $\lambda fx.f((\lambda y.f^n y)x)$   
=  $\lambda fx.f(f^n x)$   
=  $\lambda fx.f^{n+1}x$   
=  $\overline{n+1}$ .

# Combinators

## Combinators

How about arithmetic? The addition

## Combinators

How about arithmetic? The addition

Combinators allow us to write inductive definitions of functions very compactly.

#### How about arithmetic? The addition

Combinators allow us to write inductive definitions of functions very compactly.

For instance, suppose we want a combinator *add* that adds two numerals together.

#### How about arithmetic? The addition

Combinators allow us to write inductive definitions of functions very compactly.

For instance, suppose we want a combinator *add* that adds two numerals together. One way to do this is:

 $add = \lambda nmfx.nf(mfx).$ 

#### How about arithmetic? The addition

Combinators allow us to write inductive definitions of functions very compactly.

For instance, suppose we want a combinator *add* that adds two numerals together. One way to do this is:

 $add = \lambda nmfx.nf(mfx).$ 

Since  $f^m(f^n(x)) = f^{m+n}(x)$ , we have

#### How about arithmetic? The addition

Combinators allow us to write inductive definitions of functions very compactly.

For instance, suppose we want a combinator *add* that adds two numerals together. One way to do this is:

 $add = \lambda nmfx.nf(mfx).$ 

Since  $f^m(f^n(x)) = f^{m+n}(x)$ , we have

 $add\bar{m}\bar{n} = \overline{m+n}.$ 

#### How about arithmetic? The addition

Combinators allow us to write inductive definitions of functions very compactly.

For instance, suppose we want a combinator *add* that adds two numerals together. One way to do this is:

 $add = \lambda nmfx.nf(mfx).$ 

Since  $f^m(f^n(x)) = f^{m+n}(x)$ , we have

 $add\bar{m}\bar{n} = \overline{m+n}.$ 

Alternatively, we can describe adding *n* as iterating the successor function *n* times.

#### How about arithmetic? The addition

Combinators allow us to write inductive definitions of functions very compactly.

For instance, suppose we want a combinator *add* that adds two numerals together. One way to do this is:

 $add = \lambda nmfx.nf(mfx).$ 

Since  $f^m(f^n(x)) = f^{m+n}(x)$ , we have

 $add\bar{m}\bar{n} = \overline{m+n}.$ 

Alternatively, we can describe adding n as iterating the successor function n times. We could have written:

$$add' = \lambda n.nsucc.$$

#### How about arithmetic? The addition

Combinators allow us to write inductive definitions of functions very compactly.

For instance, suppose we want a combinator *add* that adds two numerals together. One way to do this is:

 $add = \lambda nmfx.nf(mfx).$ 

Since  $f^m(f^n(x)) = f^{m+n}(x)$ , we have

 $add\bar{m}\bar{n} = \overline{m+n}$ .

Alternatively, we can describe adding n as iterating the successor function n times. We could have written:

$$add' = \lambda n.nsucc.$$

One can show that add and add' are equivalent, when applied to Church numerals.

ć

# Combinators

## Combinators

How about arithmetic? More arithmetic combinators

### How about arithmetic? More arithmetic combinators

For multiplication, we use the fact that if we iterate  $f^n$  *m* times, we get  $(f^n)^m = f^{n \cdot m}$ .

### How about arithmetic? More arithmetic combinators

For multiplication, we use the fact that if we iterate  $f^n m$  times, we get  $(f^n)^m = f^{n \cdot m}$ . Thus if

 $mult = \lambda nmf.n(mf),$ 

### How about arithmetic? More arithmetic combinators

For multiplication, we use the fact that if we iterate  $f^n m$  times, we get  $(f^n)^m = f^{n \cdot m}$ . Thus if

$$mult = \lambda nmf.n(mf),$$

we have

 $mult\bar{m}\bar{n} = \overline{m\cdot n}.$ 

#### How about arithmetic? More arithmetic combinators

For multiplication, we use the fact that if we iterate  $f^n m$  times, we get  $(f^n)^m = f^{n \cdot m}$ . Thus if

 $mult = \lambda nmf.n(mf),$ 

we have

 $mult\bar{m}\bar{n} = \overline{m \cdot n}.$ 

One can show that if

 $exp = \lambda nm.mn$ ,

#### How about arithmetic? More arithmetic combinators

For multiplication, we use the fact that if we iterate  $f^n m$  times, we get  $(f^n)^m = f^{n \cdot m}$ . Thus if

 $mult = \lambda nmf.n(mf),$ 

we have

 $mult\bar{m}\bar{n} = \overline{m \cdot n}.$ 

One can show that if

 $exp = \lambda nm.mn$ ,

then

 $exp\bar{n}\bar{m}=\overline{m^n}.$ 

## The power of $\lambda$

## The power of $\lambda$

### $\lambda$ -definable functions

The Grand Unified Theory of Computation Computational Complexity

## The power of $\lambda$

 $\lambda\text{-definable functions}$ 

A function  $f: N \rightarrow N$  is  $\lambda$ -definable,

## The power of $\lambda$

### $\lambda$ -definable functions

A function  $f: N \to N$  is  $\lambda$ -definable, if there is a combinator  $\Phi$ , such that

 $\Phi \bar{n} = \overline{f(n)},$ 

## The power of $\lambda$

#### $\lambda\text{-definable functions}$

A function  $f: N \to N$  is  $\lambda$ -definable, if there is a combinator  $\Phi$ , such that

 $\Phi \bar{n} = \overline{f(n)},$ 

for any Church numeral  $\bar{n}$ , as long as f(n) is defined.
### $\lambda\text{-definable functions}$

A function  $f : N \to N$  is  $\lambda$ -definable, if there is a combinator  $\Phi$ , such that

 $\Phi \bar{n} = \overline{f(n)},$ 

for any Church numeral  $\bar{n}$ , as long as f(n) is defined.

Can we characterize the class of  $\lambda$ -definable functions?

### $\lambda\text{-definable functions}$

A function  $f : N \to N$  is  $\lambda$ -definable, if there is a combinator  $\Phi$ , such that

 $\Phi \bar{n} = \overline{f(n)},$ 

for any Church numeral  $\bar{n}$ , as long as f(n) is defined.

Can we characterize the class of  $\lambda$ -definable functions?

How expressive is the  $\lambda$ -calculus compared to the recursive functions?

### $\lambda\text{-definable functions}$

A function  $f : N \to N$  is  $\lambda$ -definable, if there is a combinator  $\Phi$ , such that

 $\Phi \bar{n} = \overline{f(n)},$ 

for any Church numeral  $\bar{n}$ , as long as f(n) is defined.

Can we characterize the class of  $\lambda$ -definable functions?

How expressive is the  $\lambda$ -calculus compared to the recursive functions?

Are all partial recursive functions  $\lambda$ -definable, or vice versa?

### $\lambda\text{-definable functions}$

A function  $f : N \to N$  is  $\lambda$ -definable, if there is a combinator  $\Phi$ , such that

 $\Phi \bar{n} = \overline{f(n)},$ 

for any Church numeral  $\bar{n}$ , as long as f(n) is defined.

Can we characterize the class of  $\lambda$ -definable functions?

How expressive is the  $\lambda$ -calculus compared to the recursive functions?

Are all partial recursive functions  $\lambda$ -definable, or vice versa?

How one can prove that the two classes coincide?

# The power of $\lambda$

# The power of $\lambda$

 $\lambda$ -definable functions

The Grand Unified Theory of Computation Computational Complexity

## The power of $\lambda$

### $\lambda\text{-definable functions}$

Recall that the partial recursive functions are defined inductively from zero and the successor function using composition, primitive recursion and  $\mu$ -recursion.

## The power of $\lambda$

### $\lambda$ -definable functions

Recall that the partial recursive functions are defined inductively from zero and the successor function using composition, primitive recursion and  $\mu$ -recursion.

We already have zero and the successor.

## The power of $\lambda$

### $\lambda$ -definable functions

Recall that the partial recursive functions are defined inductively from zero and the successor function using composition, primitive recursion and  $\mu$ -recursion.

We already have zero and the successor.

We can compose two functions with the following combinator,

 $comp = \lambda fgx.f(gx),$ 

## The power of $\lambda$

### $\lambda$ -definable functions

Recall that the partial recursive functions are defined inductively from zero and the successor function using composition, primitive recursion and  $\mu$ -recursion.

We already have zero and the successor.

We can compose two functions with the following combinator,

 $comp = \lambda fgx.f(gx),$ 

which takes two functions f, g as input and returns  $f \circ g$ .

### The power of $\lambda$

### $\lambda$ -definable functions

Recall that the partial recursive functions are defined inductively from zero and the successor function using composition, primitive recursion and  $\mu$ -recursion.

We already have zero and the successor.

We can compose two functions with the following combinator,

 $comp = \lambda fgx.f(gx),$ 

which takes two functions f, g as input and returns  $f \circ g$ .

Similarly, one can handle primitive recursion by treating it as a for loop.

# The power of $\lambda$

# The power of $\lambda$

### Checking conditions

The Grand Unified Theory of Computation Computational Complexity

# The power of $\lambda$

Checking conditions

One can show that if

 $iszero = \lambda n.n(\lambda x.F)T$ ,

## The power of $\lambda$

Checking conditions

One can show that if

iszero =  $\lambda n.n(\lambda x.F)T$ ,

where F and T are defined above,

## The power of $\lambda$

### Checking conditions

One can show that if

$$iszero = \lambda n.n(\lambda x.F)T,$$

where F and T are defined above, then

$$is zero \overline{n} x y = egin{cases} x, & ext{if } n = 0 \ y, & ext{if } n > 0. \end{cases}$$

# The power of $\lambda$

## The power of $\lambda$

Modeling the  $\mu$ -recursion

# The power of $\lambda$

Modeling the  $\mu$ -recursion

Recall that if f(x, y) is a partial recursive function,

### Modeling the $\mu\text{-}\mathrm{recursion}$

Recall that if f(x, y) is a partial recursive function, we can define a function h(x) as the smallest y such that f(x, y) = 0:

### Modeling the $\mu\text{-}\mathrm{recursion}$

Recall that if f(x, y) is a partial recursive function, we can define a function h(x) as the smallest y such that f(x, y) = 0:

$$h(x) = \mu_y f(x, y)$$

### Modeling the $\mu\text{-}\mathrm{recursion}$

Recall that if f(x, y) is a partial recursive function, we can define a function h(x) as the smallest y such that f(x, y) = 0:

$$h(x) = \mu_y f(x, y) = \min\{y : f(x, y) = 0\},\$$

### Modeling the $\mu\text{-}\mathrm{recursion}$

Recall that if f(x, y) is a partial recursive function, we can define a function h(x) as the smallest y such that f(x, y) = 0:

$$h(x) = \mu_y f(x, y) = \min\{y : f(x, y) = 0\},\$$

assuming that f(x, y) is defined for all  $y \le h(x)$ .

#### Modeling the $\mu$ -recursion

Recall that if f(x, y) is a partial recursive function, we can define a function h(x) as the smallest y such that f(x, y) = 0:

$$h(x) = \mu_y f(x, y) = \min\{y : f(x, y) = 0\},\$$

assuming that f(x, y) is defined for all  $y \le h(x)$ .

First let  $\Phi$  be a function which takes a pair (*x*, *y*) as input.

### Modeling the $\mu$ -recursion

Recall that if f(x, y) is a partial recursive function, we can define a function h(x) as the smallest y such that f(x, y) = 0:

$$h(x) = \mu_y f(x, y) = \min\{y : f(x, y) = 0\},\$$

assuming that f(x, y) is defined for all  $y \le h(x)$ .

First let  $\Phi$  be a function which takes a pair (*x*, *y*) as input. It explores larger and larger values of *y* until it finds one such that f(x, y) = 0, which is its return:

### Modeling the $\mu$ -recursion

Recall that if f(x, y) is a partial recursive function, we can define a function h(x) as the smallest y such that f(x, y) = 0:

$$h(x) = \mu_y f(x, y) = \min\{y : f(x, y) = 0\},\$$

assuming that f(x, y) is defined for all  $y \le h(x)$ .

First let  $\Phi$  be a function which takes a pair (*x*, *y*) as input. It explores larger and larger values of *y* until it finds one such that f(x, y) = 0, which is its return:

$$\Phi(x,y) = egin{cases} y, & ext{if } f(x,y) = 0 \ \Phi(x,y+1), & ext{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

### Modeling the $\mu$ -recursion

Recall that if f(x, y) is a partial recursive function, we can define a function h(x) as the smallest y such that f(x, y) = 0:

$$h(x) = \mu_y f(x, y) = \min\{y : f(x, y) = 0\},\$$

assuming that f(x, y) is defined for all  $y \le h(x)$ .

First let  $\Phi$  be a function which takes a pair (*x*, *y*) as input. It explores larger and larger values of *y* until it finds one such that f(x, y) = 0, which is its return:

$$\Phi(x,y) = \begin{cases} y, & \text{if } f(x,y) = 0\\ \Phi(x,y+1), & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Then we can write  $h(x) = \Phi(x, 0)$ .

# The power of $\lambda$

# The power of $\lambda$

Modeling the  $\mu$ -recursion

The Grand Unified Theory of Computation Computational Complexity

## The power of $\lambda$

#### Modeling the $\mu$ -recursion

It can be checked that

 $h = \lambda x.\Phi x\overline{0}$ , where  $\Phi = YH$ ,

### Modeling the $\mu$ -recursion

It can be checked that

$$h = \lambda x.\Phi x \overline{0}$$
, where  $\Phi = YH$ 

and

$$Y = \lambda R.(\lambda x.R(xx))(\lambda x.R(xx)),$$

### Modeling the $\mu$ -recursion

It can be checked that

$$h = \lambda x. \Phi x \overline{0}$$
, where  $\Phi = YH$ ,

and

$$Y = \lambda R.(\lambda x.R(xx))(\lambda x.R(xx)), H = \lambda \Phi xy.iszero(fxy)y(\Phi x(succy)).$$

### Modeling the $\mu$ -recursion

It can be checked that

$$h = \lambda x. \Phi x \overline{0}$$
, where  $\Phi = YH$ ,

and

$$Y = \lambda R.(\lambda x.R(xx))(\lambda x.R(xx)), H = \lambda \Phi xy.iszero(fxy)y(\Phi x(succy)).$$

This shows that all partial recursive functions are  $\lambda$ -definable.

### Modeling the $\mu$ -recursion

It can be checked that

$$h = \lambda x.\Phi x \overline{0}$$
, where  $\Phi = YH$ ,

and

$$Y = \lambda R.(\lambda x.R(xx))(\lambda x.R(xx)), H = \lambda \Phi xy.iszero(fxy)y(\Phi x(succy)).$$

This shows that all partial recursive functions are  $\lambda$ -definable.

One can also show that the converse is also true.

### Modeling the $\mu$ -recursion

It can be checked that

$$h = \lambda x.\Phi x \overline{0}, \text{ where } \Phi = YH,$$

and

$$Y = \lambda R.(\lambda x.R(xx))(\lambda x.R(xx)), H = \lambda \Phi xy.iszero(fxy)y(\Phi x(succy)).$$

This shows that all partial recursive functions are  $\lambda$ -definable.

One can also show that the converse is also true.

Thus the class of partial recursive functions coincides with that of  $\lambda$ -definable functions.

# Turing machines
# Turing machines

Definition of a Turing machine

The Grand Unified Theory of Computation Computational Complexity

## **Turing machines**

### Definition of a Turing machine

A Turing machine has a "head", which can be in finite number of internal states,

### **Turing machines**

### Definition of a Turing machine

A Turing machine has a "head", which can be in finite number of internal states, and a "tape", where each square contains a symbol drawn from a finite alphabet.

### Definition of a Turing machine

A Turing machine has a "head", which can be in finite number of internal states, and a "tape", where each square contains a symbol drawn from a finite alphabet.

In each step of computation, it observes the symbol at its current location on the tape.

### Definition of a Turing machine

A Turing machine has a "head", which can be in finite number of internal states, and a "tape", where each square contains a symbol drawn from a finite alphabet.

In each step of computation, it observes the symbol at its current location on the tape.

Based on this symbol and its internal state, it then

### Definition of a Turing machine

A Turing machine has a "head", which can be in finite number of internal states, and a "tape", where each square contains a symbol drawn from a finite alphabet.

In each step of computation, it observes the symbol at its current location on the tape.

Based on this symbol and its internal state, it then

• updates the symbol at its current location on the tape,

### Definition of a Turing machine

A Turing machine has a "head", which can be in finite number of internal states, and a "tape", where each square contains a symbol drawn from a finite alphabet.

In each step of computation, it observes the symbol at its current location on the tape.

Based on this symbol and its internal state, it then

- updates the symbol at its current location on the tape,
- updates its internal state, and

### Definition of a Turing machine

A Turing machine has a "head", which can be in finite number of internal states, and a "tape", where each square contains a symbol drawn from a finite alphabet.

In each step of computation, it observes the symbol at its current location on the tape.

Based on this symbol and its internal state, it then

- updates the symbol at its current location on the tape,
- updates its internal state, and
- moves one step left or right on the tape.

# Turing machines

# Turing machines

Definition of a Turing machine

## **Turing machines**

Definition of a Turing machine

If A is the set of symbols that can appear on the tape,

### Definition of a Turing machine

If *A* is the set of symbols that can appear on the tape, and *S* is the set of internal states,

### Definition of a Turing machine

If *A* is the set of symbols that can appear on the tape, and *S* is the set of internal states, we can write the machine's behavior as a transition function:

 $F: A \times S \rightarrow A \times S \times \{\pm 1\}.$ 

### Definition of a Turing machine

If *A* is the set of symbols that can appear on the tape, and *S* is the set of internal states, we can write the machine's behavior as a transition function:

$$F: A \times S \to A \times S \times \{\pm 1\}.$$

For instance, F(a, s) = (a', s', +1) would mean that if the machine sees the symbol *a* on the tape when it is in state *s*,

### Definition of a Turing machine

If *A* is the set of symbols that can appear on the tape, and *S* is the set of internal states, we can write the machine's behavior as a transition function:

$$F: A \times S \to A \times S \times \{\pm 1\}.$$

For instance, F(a, s) = (a', s', +1) would mean that if the machine sees the symbol *a* on the tape when it is in state *s*, then it changes the tape symbol to a',

### Definition of a Turing machine

If *A* is the set of symbols that can appear on the tape, and *S* is the set of internal states, we can write the machine's behavior as a transition function:

$$F: A \times S \to A \times S \times \{\pm 1\}.$$

For instance, F(a, s) = (a', s', +1) would mean that if the machine sees the symbol *a* on the tape when it is in state *s*, then it changes the tape symbol to *a'*, changes its state to *s'*,

### Definition of a Turing machine

If *A* is the set of symbols that can appear on the tape, and *S* is the set of internal states, we can write the machine's behavior as a transition function:

$$F: A \times S \to A \times S \times \{\pm 1\}.$$

For instance, F(a, s) = (a', s', +1) would mean that if the machine sees the symbol *a* on the tape when it is in state *s*, then it changes the tape symbol to *a'*, changes its state to *s'*, and moves to the right.

### Definition of a Turing machine

If A is the set of symbols that can appear on the tape, and S is the set of internal states, we can write the machine's behavior as a transition function:

$$F: A \times S \to A \times S \times \{\pm 1\}.$$

For instance, F(a, s) = (a', s', +1) would mean that if the machine sees the symbol *a* on the tape when it is in state *s*, then it changes the tape symbol to *a'*, changes its state to *s'*, and moves to the right.

We start the machine by writing the input string x on the tape, with a special blank symbol  $\Lambda$  written on the rest of the tape stretching left and right to infinity.

### Definition of a Turing machine

If *A* is the set of symbols that can appear on the tape, and *S* is the set of internal states, we can write the machine's behavior as a transition function:

$$F: A \times S \to A \times S \times \{\pm 1\}.$$

For instance, F(a, s) = (a', s', +1) would mean that if the machine sees the symbol *a* on the tape when it is in state *s*, then it changes the tape symbol to *a'*, changes its state to *s'*, and moves to the right.

We start the machine by writing the input string x on the tape, with a special blank symbol  $\Lambda$  written on the rest of the tape stretching left and right to infinity.

We place the head at one end of the input, and start it in some specific initial state.

### Definition of a Turing machine

If *A* is the set of symbols that can appear on the tape, and *S* is the set of internal states, we can write the machine's behavior as a transition function:

$$F: A \times S \rightarrow A \times S \times \{\pm 1\}.$$

For instance, F(a, s) = (a', s', +1) would mean that if the machine sees the symbol *a* on the tape when it is in state *s*, then it changes the tape symbol to *a'*, changes its state to *s'*, and moves to the right.

We start the machine by writing the input string x on the tape, with a special blank symbol  $\Lambda$  written on the rest of the tape stretching left and right to infinity.

We place the head at one end of the input, and start it in some specific initial state.

The machine uses the tape as its workspace, reading and writing symbols representing its intermediate results until the output is all that remains.

### Definition of a Turing machine

If *A* is the set of symbols that can appear on the tape, and *S* is the set of internal states, we can write the machine's behavior as a transition function:

$$F: A \times S \rightarrow A \times S \times \{\pm 1\}.$$

For instance, F(a, s) = (a', s', +1) would mean that if the machine sees the symbol *a* on the tape when it is in state *s*, then it changes the tape symbol to *a'*, changes its state to *s'*, and moves to the right.

We start the machine by writing the input string x on the tape, with a special blank symbol  $\Lambda$  written on the rest of the tape stretching left and right to infinity.

We place the head at one end of the input, and start it in some specific initial state.

The machine uses the tape as its workspace, reading and writing symbols representing its intermediate results until the output is all that remains.

At that point, it enters a special *HALT* state to announce that it's done.

# Turing machines

# **Turing machines**

Definition of a Turing machine

Definition of a Turing machine

We can think of a Turing machine's transition function as its "source code".

### Definition of a Turing machine

We can think of a Turing machine's transition function as its "source code".

We can write out a table of its values as a finite string of symbols.

### Definition of a Turing machine

We can think of a Turing machine's transition function as its "source code".

We can write out a table of its values as a finite string of symbols.

Example: The Successor Function

### Definition of a Turing machine

We can think of a Turing machine's transition function as its "source code".

We can write out a table of its values as a finite string of symbols.

### Example: The Successor Function

Let  $A = \{\Lambda, 1\}$ , and let *n* be represented with (n + 1) 1s.

### Definition of a Turing machine

We can think of a Turing machine's transition function as its "source code".

We can write out a table of its values as a finite string of symbols.

### Example: The Successor Function

Let  $A = \{\Lambda, 1\}$ , and let *n* be represented with (n + 1) 1s. Design a Turing machine that computes the successor function, that is, S(x) = x + 1.

### Definition of a Turing machine

We can think of a Turing machine's transition function as its "source code".

We can write out a table of its values as a finite string of symbols.

### Example: The Successor Function

Let  $A = \{\Lambda, 1\}$ , and let *n* be represented with (n + 1) 1s. Design a Turing machine that computes the successor function, that is, S(x) = x + 1. Repeat the same with diagrams.

### Definition of a Turing machine

We can think of a Turing machine's transition function as its "source code".

We can write out a table of its values as a finite string of symbols.

### Example: The Successor Function

Let  $A = \{\Lambda, 1\}$ , and let *n* be represented with (n + 1) 1s. Design a Turing machine that computes the successor function, that is, S(x) = x + 1. Repeat the same with diagrams.

#### Example: The parity function

### Definition of a Turing machine

We can think of a Turing machine's transition function as its "source code".

We can write out a table of its values as a finite string of symbols.

### Example: The Successor Function

Let  $A = \{\Lambda, 1\}$ , and let *n* be represented with (n + 1) 1s. Design a Turing machine that computes the successor function, that is, S(x) = x + 1. Repeat the same with diagrams.

### Example: The parity function

Let  $A = \{\Lambda, 0, 1\}$ .

### Definition of a Turing machine

We can think of a Turing machine's transition function as its "source code".

We can write out a table of its values as a finite string of symbols.

### Example: The Successor Function

Let  $A = \{\Lambda, 1\}$ , and let *n* be represented with (n + 1) 1s. Design a Turing machine that computes the successor function, that is, S(x) = x + 1. Repeat the same with diagrams.

### Example: The parity function

Let  $A = \{\Lambda, 0, 1\}$ . Design a Turing machine that halts in the state  $S_{YES}$ , if in the input string the number of 1s is even, and halts in the state  $S_{NO}$ -otherwise.

### Definition of a Turing machine

We can think of a Turing machine's transition function as its "source code".

We can write out a table of its values as a finite string of symbols.

### Example: The Successor Function

Let  $A = \{\Lambda, 1\}$ , and let *n* be represented with (n + 1) 1s. Design a Turing machine that computes the successor function, that is, S(x) = x + 1. Repeat the same with diagrams.

### Example: The parity function

Let  $A = \{\Lambda, 0, 1\}$ . Design a Turing machine that halts in the state  $S_{YES}$ , if in the input string the number of 1s is even, and halts in the state  $S_{NO}$ -otherwise. Repeat the same with diagrams.

# Turing machines

# Turing machines

Turing-computable functions

## **Turing machines**

Turing-computable functions

We say that a partial function  $f : N \rightarrow N$  is Turing-computable,
## Turing machines

#### Turing-computable functions

We say that a partial function  $f : N \to N$  is Turing-computable, if there is a Turing-machine that, given input *x*, halts with f(x) on its input tape if f(x) is defined,

## Turing machines

#### Turing-computable functions

We say that a partial function  $f : N \to N$  is Turing-computable, if there is a Turing-machine that, given input x, halts with f(x) on its input tape if f(x) is defined, and runs forever if f(x) is undefined.

## Turing machines

#### Turing-computable functions

We say that a partial function  $f : N \to N$  is Turing-computable, if there is a Turing-machine that, given input x, halts with f(x) on its input tape if f(x) is defined, and runs forever if f(x) is undefined.

The Grand Unification

## Turing machines

#### Turing-computable functions

We say that a partial function  $f : N \to N$  is Turing-computable, if there is a Turing-machine that, given input x, halts with f(x) on its input tape if f(x) is defined, and runs forever if f(x) is undefined.

#### The Grand Unification

It can be shown that the class of Turing-computable functions coincides with that of partial recursive functions.

# **Church-Turing thesis**

# **Church-Turing thesis**

### The thesis

The Grand Unified Theory of Computation Computational Complexity

# **Church-Turing thesis**

### The thesis

Any two definitions of computability will result to the same class of computable functions.

# A counter machine

## A counter machine

Restricting the memory and the window

### Restricting the memory and the window

If a machine has only a finite number of states, with no access to anything but its own thoughts, then it is doomed to halt or fall into a periodic loop after a finite number of states.

### Restricting the memory and the window

If a machine has only a finite number of states, with no access to anything but its own thoughts, then it is doomed to halt or fall into a periodic loop after a finite number of states.

However, if we give it access to a memory with an infinite number of possible states, then it is capable of universal computation.

#### Restricting the memory and the window

If a machine has only a finite number of states, with no access to anything but its own thoughts, then it is doomed to halt or fall into a periodic loop after a finite number of states.

However, if we give it access to a memory with an infinite number of possible states, then it is capable of universal computation.

Turing showed that this is the case even if this memory has a simple structure,

#### Restricting the memory and the window

If a machine has only a finite number of states, with no access to anything but its own thoughts, then it is doomed to halt or fall into a periodic loop after a finite number of states.

However, if we give it access to a memory with an infinite number of possible states, then it is capable of universal computation.

Turing showed that this is the case even if this memory has a simple structure, and the machine can only observe and modify it through a very narrow window

#### Restricting the memory and the window

If a machine has only a finite number of states, with no access to anything but its own thoughts, then it is doomed to halt or fall into a periodic loop after a finite number of states.

However, if we give it access to a memory with an infinite number of possible states, then it is capable of universal computation.

Turing showed that this is the case even if this memory has a simple structure, and the machine can only observe and modify it through a very narrow window - namely the symbol and its current location on the tape.

#### Restricting the memory and the window

If a machine has only a finite number of states, with no access to anything but its own thoughts, then it is doomed to halt or fall into a periodic loop after a finite number of states.

However, if we give it access to a memory with an infinite number of possible states, then it is capable of universal computation.

Turing showed that this is the case even if this memory has a simple structure, and the machine can only observe and modify it through a very narrow window - namely the symbol and its current location on the tape.

Can we make the memory even simpler, and this window even narrower?

# A counter machine

## A counter machine

Restricting the memory and the window

### Restricting the memory and the window

A counter machine has a finite number of internal states, and access to a finite number of integer counters.

#### Restricting the memory and the window

A counter machine has a finite number of internal states, and access to a finite number of integer counters.

The only thing it can do to these counters is increment, or decrement them, and the only question it can ask about them is whether they are zero.

#### Restricting the memory and the window

A counter machine has a finite number of internal states, and access to a finite number of integer counters.

The only thing it can do to these counters is increment, or decrement them, and the only question it can ask about them is whether they are zero.

The machine receives its input through the initial state of one of these counters, and like the Turing machine, it enters a *HALT* state when it is done.

# A counter machine

## A counter machine

Restricting the memory and the window

### Restricting the memory and the window

We can think of a counter machine as a flowchart or a program in a miniature programming language.

### Restricting the memory and the window

We can think of a counter machine as a flowchart or a program in a miniature programming language.

Each internal state corresponds to a node in the flowchart or a line of the program,

#### Restricting the memory and the window

We can think of a counter machine as a flowchart or a program in a miniature programming language.

Each internal state corresponds to a node in the flowchart or a line of the program, and the only allowed instructions are *inc* (increment),

#### Restricting the memory and the window

We can think of a counter machine as a flowchart or a program in a miniature programming language.

Each internal state corresponds to a node in the flowchart or a line of the program, and the only allowed instructions are *inc* (increment), *dec* (decrement),

#### Restricting the memory and the window

We can think of a counter machine as a flowchart or a program in a miniature programming language.

Each internal state corresponds to a node in the flowchart or a line of the program, and the only allowed instructions are *inc* (increment), *dec* (decrement), and conditionals like *if* x = 0.

#### Restricting the memory and the window

We can think of a counter machine as a flowchart or a program in a miniature programming language.

Each internal state corresponds to a node in the flowchart or a line of the program, and the only allowed instructions are *inc* (increment), *dec* (decrement), and conditionals like *if* x = 0.

One can show that there is a way of simulating a Turing machine arithmetically.

#### Restricting the memory and the window

We can think of a counter machine as a flowchart or a program in a miniature programming language.

Each internal state corresponds to a node in the flowchart or a line of the program, and the only allowed instructions are *inc* (increment), *dec* (decrement), and conditionals like *if* x = 0.

One can show that there is a way of simulating a Turing machine arithmetically.

Specifically, we can transform any Turing machine into a counter machine with just three counters.

#### Restricting the memory and the window

We can think of a counter machine as a flowchart or a program in a miniature programming language.

Each internal state corresponds to a node in the flowchart or a line of the program, and the only allowed instructions are *inc* (increment), *dec* (decrement), and conditionals like *if* x = 0.

One can show that there is a way of simulating a Turing machine arithmetically.

Specifically, we can transform any Turing machine into a counter machine with just three counters.

Thus the Halting Problem for three-counter machines is undecidable.

#### Restricting the memory and the window

We can think of a counter machine as a flowchart or a program in a miniature programming language.

Each internal state corresponds to a node in the flowchart or a line of the program, and the only allowed instructions are *inc* (increment), *dec* (decrement), and conditionals like *if* x = 0.

One can show that there is a way of simulating a Turing machine arithmetically.

Specifically, we can transform any Turing machine into a counter machine with just three counters.

Thus the Halting Problem for three-counter machines is undecidable.

Moreover, three-counter machines can compute any partial recursive function f, by starting with x in one counter and ending with f(x) in that counter when they halt.

# Multiplicative counter machines

# Multiplicative counter machines

Reducing the number of counters

# Multiplicative counter machines

Reducing the number of counters

We can reduce the number of counters even further.

## Multiplicative counter machines

### Reducing the number of counters

We can reduce the number of counters even further.

Consider multiplicative counter machines, where each step can multiply or divide a counter by a constant,

## Multiplicative counter machines

### Reducing the number of counters

We can reduce the number of counters even further.

Consider multiplicative counter machines, where each step can multiply or divide a counter by a constant, or check to see whether a counter is a multiple of some constant.
### Reducing the number of counters

We can reduce the number of counters even further.

Consider multiplicative counter machines, where each step can multiply or divide a counter by a constant, or check to see whether a counter is a multiple of some constant.

Now even a single counter suffices.

### Reducing the number of counters

We can reduce the number of counters even further.

Consider multiplicative counter machines, where each step can multiply or divide a counter by a constant, or check to see whether a counter is a multiple of some constant.

Now even a single counter suffices. This is because we can encode three additive counters as a single multiplicative one:

#### Reducing the number of counters

We can reduce the number of counters even further.

Consider multiplicative counter machines, where each step can multiply or divide a counter by a constant, or check to see whether a counter is a multiple of some constant.

Now even a single counter suffices. This is because we can encode three additive counters as a single multiplicative one:

 $w=2^x\cdot 3^y\cdot 5^z.$ 

#### Reducing the number of counters

We can reduce the number of counters even further.

Consider multiplicative counter machines, where each step can multiply or divide a counter by a constant, or check to see whether a counter is a multiple of some constant.

Now even a single counter suffices. This is because we can encode three additive counters as a single multiplicative one:

 $w=2^x\cdot 3^y\cdot 5^z.$ 

We can increment or decrement y, say by multiplying or dividing w by 3.

#### Reducing the number of counters

We can reduce the number of counters even further.

Consider multiplicative counter machines, where each step can multiply or divide a counter by a constant, or check to see whether a counter is a multiple of some constant.

Now even a single counter suffices. This is because we can encode three additive counters as a single multiplicative one:

 $w=2^x\cdot 3^y\cdot 5^z.$ 

We can increment or decrement y, say by multiplying or dividing w by 3. Similarly, we can test whether  $y \neq 0$  by asking whether w is a multiple of 3.

Form is a Function: the λ-Calculus Turing's Applied Philosophy Computation Everywhere

# Multiplicative counter machines

Form is a Function: the λ-Calculus Turing's Applied Philosophy Computation Everywhere

# Multiplicative counter machines

Reducing the number of counters

Form is a Function: the λ-Calculus Turing's Applied Philosophy Computation Everywhere

# Multiplicative counter machines

## Reducing the number of counters

But a one-counter multiplicative machine, in turn, can be simulated by a two-counter additive one.

### Reducing the number of counters

But a one-counter multiplicative machine, in turn, can be simulated by a two-counter additive one.

If we have an additional counter u, we can multiply or divide w by 2, 3 or 5, or check to see whether w is a multiple of any of these using loops.

### Reducing the number of counters

But a one-counter multiplicative machine, in turn, can be simulated by a two-counter additive one.

If we have an additional counter u, we can multiply or divide w by 2, 3 or 5, or check to see whether w is a multiple of any of these using loops.

For instance, in order to divide w by 3, we decrement w three times for each time we increment u.

### Reducing the number of counters

But a one-counter multiplicative machine, in turn, can be simulated by a two-counter additive one.

If we have an additional counter u, we can multiply or divide w by 2, 3 or 5, or check to see whether w is a multiple of any of these using loops.

For instance, in order to divide w by 3, we decrement w three times for each time we increment u. If w becomes zero partway though a group of three decrements, we know that w is not a multiple of 3.

### Reducing the number of counters

But a one-counter multiplicative machine, in turn, can be simulated by a two-counter additive one.

If we have an additional counter u, we can multiply or divide w by 2, 3 or 5, or check to see whether w is a multiple of any of these using loops.

For instance, in order to divide w by 3, we decrement w three times for each time we increment u. If w becomes zero partway though a group of three decrements, we know that w is not a multiple of 3.

Thus even two counters suffice for universal computation.

#### Reducing the number of counters

But a one-counter multiplicative machine, in turn, can be simulated by a two-counter additive one.

If we have an additional counter u, we can multiply or divide w by 2, 3 or 5, or check to see whether w is a multiple of any of these using loops.

For instance, in order to divide w by 3, we decrement w three times for each time we increment u. If w becomes zero partway though a group of three decrements, we know that w is not a multiple of 3.

Thus even two counters suffice for universal computation. Specifically, for any partial recursive function f,

#### Reducing the number of counters

But a one-counter multiplicative machine, in turn, can be simulated by a two-counter additive one.

If we have an additional counter u, we can multiply or divide w by 2, 3 or 5, or check to see whether w is a multiple of any of these using loops.

For instance, in order to divide w by 3, we decrement w three times for each time we increment u. If w becomes zero partway though a group of three decrements, we know that w is not a multiple of 3.

Thus even two counters suffice for universal computation. Specifically, for any partial recursive function *f*, there is a two-counter-machine which, given the initial value  $w = 2^x$ ,

#### Reducing the number of counters

But a one-counter multiplicative machine, in turn, can be simulated by a two-counter additive one.

If we have an additional counter u, we can multiply or divide w by 2, 3 or 5, or check to see whether w is a multiple of any of these using loops.

For instance, in order to divide w by 3, we decrement w three times for each time we increment u. If w becomes zero partway though a group of three decrements, we know that w is not a multiple of 3.

Thus even two counters suffice for universal computation. Specifically, for any partial recursive function *f*, there is a two-counter-machine which, given the initial value  $w = 2^x$ , ends with  $w = 3^{f(x)}$ ,

#### Reducing the number of counters

But a one-counter multiplicative machine, in turn, can be simulated by a two-counter additive one.

If we have an additional counter u, we can multiply or divide w by 2, 3 or 5, or check to see whether w is a multiple of any of these using loops.

For instance, in order to divide w by 3, we decrement w three times for each time we increment u. If w becomes zero partway though a group of three decrements, we know that w is not a multiple of 3.

Thus even two counters suffice for universal computation. Specifically, for any partial recursive function *f*, there is a two-counter-machine which, given the initial value  $w = 2^x$ , ends with  $w = 3^{f(x)}$ , or runs forever if f(x) is undefined.

Form is a Function: the  $\lambda$ -Calculus Turing's Applied Philosophy Computation Everywhere

# **Fantastic Fractions**

Form is a Function: the  $\lambda$ -Calculus Turing's Applied Philosophy Computation Everywhere

# **Fantastic Fractions**

Programs as fractions

### Programs as fractions

Here is a program written in a rather odd programming language called *FRACTARAN*, consisting of a list of fractions:

### Programs as fractions

Here is a program written in a rather odd programming language called *FRACTARAN*, consisting of a list of fractions:

 $\frac{17}{91}, \frac{78}{85}, \frac{19}{51}, \frac{23}{38}, \frac{29}{33}, \frac{77}{29}, \frac{95}{23}, \frac{77}{19}, \frac{1}{17}, \frac{11}{13}, \frac{13}{11}, \frac{15}{14}, \frac{15}{2}, \frac{55}{1}.$ 

### Programs as fractions

Here is a program written in a rather odd programming language called *FRACTARAN*, consisting of a list of fractions:

 $\frac{17}{91}, \frac{78}{85}, \frac{19}{51}, \frac{23}{38}, \frac{29}{33}, \frac{77}{29}, \frac{95}{23}, \frac{77}{19}, \frac{1}{17}, \frac{11}{13}, \frac{13}{11}, \frac{15}{14}, \frac{15}{2}, \frac{55}{1}.$ 

The state of the computer consists of an integer *n*.

#### Programs as fractions

Here is a program written in a rather odd programming language called *FRACTARAN*, consisting of a list of fractions:

 $\frac{17}{91}, \frac{78}{85}, \frac{19}{51}, \frac{23}{38}, \frac{29}{33}, \frac{77}{29}, \frac{95}{23}, \frac{77}{19}, \frac{1}{17}, \frac{11}{13}, \frac{13}{11}, \frac{15}{14}, \frac{15}{2}, \frac{55}{1}.$ 

The state of the computer consists of an integer *n*.

At each step, we run through the list until we find the first fraction  $\frac{p}{q}$ , such that  $\frac{p}{q} \cdot n$  is an integer

#### Programs as fractions

Here is a program written in a rather odd programming language called *FRACTARAN*, consisting of a list of fractions:

 $\frac{17}{91}, \frac{78}{85}, \frac{19}{51}, \frac{23}{38}, \frac{29}{33}, \frac{77}{29}, \frac{95}{23}, \frac{77}{19}, \frac{1}{17}, \frac{11}{13}, \frac{13}{11}, \frac{15}{14}, \frac{15}{2}, \frac{55}{1}.$ 

The state of the computer consists of an integer *n*.

At each step, we run through the list until we find the first fraction  $\frac{p}{q}$ , such that  $\frac{p}{q} \cdot n$  is an integer (that is, the first one whose denominator q divides n).

#### Programs as fractions

Here is a program written in a rather odd programming language called *FRACTARAN*, consisting of a list of fractions:

 $\frac{17}{91}, \frac{78}{85}, \frac{19}{51}, \frac{23}{38}, \frac{29}{33}, \frac{77}{29}, \frac{95}{23}, \frac{77}{19}, \frac{1}{17}, \frac{11}{13}, \frac{13}{11}, \frac{15}{14}, \frac{15}{2}, \frac{55}{1}.$ 

The state of the computer consists of an integer *n*.

At each step, we run through the list until we find the first fraction  $\frac{p}{q}$ , such that  $\frac{p}{q} \cdot n$  is an integer (that is, the first one whose denominator q divides n).

Then we multiply *n* by  $\frac{p}{a}$ , and start again at the beginning of the list.

#### Programs as fractions

Here is a program written in a rather odd programming language called *FRACTARAN*, consisting of a list of fractions:

 $\frac{17}{91}, \frac{78}{85}, \frac{19}{51}, \frac{23}{38}, \frac{29}{33}, \frac{77}{29}, \frac{95}{23}, \frac{77}{19}, \frac{1}{17}, \frac{11}{13}, \frac{13}{11}, \frac{15}{14}, \frac{15}{2}, \frac{55}{1}.$ 

The state of the computer consists of an integer *n*.

At each step, we run through the list until we find the first fraction  $\frac{p}{q}$ , such that  $\frac{p}{q} \cdot n$  is an integer (that is, the first one whose denominator q divides n).

Then we multiply *n* by  $\frac{p}{q}$ , and start again at the beginning of the list. If there is no such  $\frac{p}{q}$  in the list, the program halts.

#### Programs as fractions

Here is a program written in a rather odd programming language called *FRACTARAN*, consisting of a list of fractions:

 $\frac{17}{91}, \frac{78}{85}, \frac{19}{51}, \frac{23}{38}, \frac{29}{33}, \frac{77}{29}, \frac{95}{23}, \frac{77}{19}, \frac{1}{17}, \frac{11}{13}, \frac{13}{11}, \frac{15}{14}, \frac{15}{2}, \frac{55}{1}.$ 

The state of the computer consists of an integer *n*.

At each step, we run through the list until we find the first fraction  $\frac{p}{q}$ , such that  $\frac{p}{q} \cdot n$  is an integer (that is, the first one whose denominator q divides n).

Then we multiply *n* by  $\frac{p}{q}$ , and start again at the beginning of the list. If there is no such  $\frac{p}{q}$  in the list, the program halts.

The program mentioned above never halts,

#### Programs as fractions

Here is a program written in a rather odd programming language called *FRACTARAN*, consisting of a list of fractions:

 $\frac{17}{91}, \frac{78}{85}, \frac{19}{51}, \frac{23}{38}, \frac{29}{33}, \frac{77}{29}, \frac{95}{23}, \frac{77}{19}, \frac{1}{17}, \frac{11}{13}, \frac{13}{11}, \frac{15}{14}, \frac{15}{2}, \frac{55}{1}.$ 

The state of the computer consists of an integer *n*.

At each step, we run through the list until we find the first fraction  $\frac{p}{q}$ , such that  $\frac{p}{q} \cdot n$  is an integer (that is, the first one whose denominator q divides n).

Then we multiply *n* by  $\frac{p}{q}$ , and start again at the beginning of the list. If there is no such  $\frac{p}{q}$  in the list, the program halts.

The program mentioned above never halts, If we start it with n = 2, this program produces the prime numbers *x*, in increasing order, in the form  $2^x$ .

Form is a Function: the  $\lambda$ -Calculus Turing's Applied Philosophy Computation Everywhere

# **Fantastic Fractions**

Form is a Function: the  $\lambda$ -Calculus Turing's Applied Philosophy Computation Everywhere

# **Fantastic Fractions**

Programs as fractions

Programs as fractions

The program mentioned above is kind of a multiplicative counter machine.

### Programs as fractions

The program mentioned above is kind of a multiplicative counter machine. In this case, we can write the state in the form

$$n = 2^a \cdot 3^b \cdot 5^c \cdot 7^d \cdot 11^e \cdot 13^f \cdot 17^g \cdot 19^h \cdot 23^i \cdot 29^j$$

### Programs as fractions

The program mentioned above is kind of a multiplicative counter machine. In this case, we can write the state in the form

$$n = 2^a \cdot 3^b \cdot 5^c \cdot 7^d \cdot 11^e \cdot 13^f \cdot 17^g \cdot 19^h \cdot 23^i \cdot 29^j$$

since these are the primes appearing in the fractions' denominators.

### Programs as fractions

The program mentioned above is kind of a multiplicative counter machine. In this case, we can write the state in the form

$$n = 2^a \cdot 3^b \cdot 5^c \cdot 7^d \cdot 11^e \cdot 13^f \cdot 17^g \cdot 19^h \cdot 23^i \cdot 29^j$$

since these are the primes appearing in the fractions' denominators.

Thus we have 10 counters, which we can increment and decrement by multiplying n by fractions.

### Programs as fractions

The program mentioned above is kind of a multiplicative counter machine. In this case, we can write the state in the form

$$n = 2^a \cdot 3^b \cdot 5^c \cdot 7^d \cdot 11^e \cdot 13^f \cdot 17^g \cdot 19^h \cdot 23^i \cdot 29^j$$

since these are the primes appearing in the fractions' denominators.

Thus we have 10 counters, which we can increment and decrement by multiplying n by fractions.

For instance, the first fraction in the program is  $\frac{17}{91}$ .

### Programs as fractions

The program mentioned above is kind of a multiplicative counter machine. In this case, we can write the state in the form

$$n = 2^a \cdot 3^b \cdot 5^c \cdot 7^d \cdot 11^e \cdot 13^f \cdot 17^g \cdot 19^h \cdot 23^i \cdot 29^j$$

since these are the primes appearing in the fractions' denominators.

Thus we have 10 counters, which we can increment and decrement by multiplying n by fractions.

For instance, the first fraction in the program is  $\frac{17}{91}$ . So if both *d* and *f* are nonzero, we decrement them and increment *g*.

Form is a Function: the  $\lambda$ -Calculus Turing's Applied Philosophy Computation Everywhere

# **Fantastic Fractions**
## **Fantastic Fractions**

Programs as fractions

The Grand Unified Theory of Computation Computational Complexity

## **Fantastic Fractions**

Programs as fractions

We already know that additive counters can simulate Turing machines.

### **Fantastic Fractions**

Programs as fractions

We already know that additive counters can simulate Turing machines.

With a bit more work, one can covert such a machine into a FRACTARAN program.

## **Fantastic Fractions**

#### Programs as fractions

We already know that additive counters can simulate Turing machines.

With a bit more work, one can covert such a machine into a *FRACTARAN* program. Thus *FRACTARAN* is computationally universal.

## **Fantastic Fractions**

#### Programs as fractions

We already know that additive counters can simulate Turing machines.

With a bit more work, one can covert such a machine into a *FRACTARAN* program. Thus *FRACTARAN* is computationally universal.

For any computable function f(x) there is a program that, if given  $2^x$  as input, returns  $3^{f(x)}$  as output whenever f(x) is well-defined.

# Fantastic Fractions and Collatz Conjecture

# Fantastic Fractions and Collatz Conjecture

The Collatz Conjecture

# Fantastic Fractions and Collatz Conjecture

The Collatz Conjecture

FRACTARAN is related to a deep problem in number theory.

# Fantastic Fractions and Collatz Conjecture

#### The Collatz Conjecture

FRACTARAN is related to a deep problem in number theory.

Consider the function

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{x}{2}, & \text{if } x \text{ is even} \\ 3 \cdot x + 1, & \text{if } x \text{ is odd.} \end{cases}$$

# Fantastic Fractions and Collatz Conjecture

### The Collatz Conjecture

FRACTARAN is related to a deep problem in number theory.

Consider the function

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{x}{2}, & \text{if } x \text{ is even} \\ 3 \cdot x + 1, & \text{if } x \text{ is odd.} \end{cases}$$

The Collatz Conjecture states that for each n,

# Fantastic Fractions and Collatz Conjecture

### The Collatz Conjecture

FRACTARAN is related to a deep problem in number theory.

Consider the function

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{x}{2}, & \text{if } x \text{ is even} \\ 3 \cdot x + 1, & \text{if } x \text{ is odd.} \end{cases}$$

The Collatz Conjecture states that for each *n*, there is a *k*, such that  $g^k(n) = 1$ .

### The Collatz Conjecture

FRACTARAN is related to a deep problem in number theory.

Consider the function

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{x}{2}, & \text{if } x \text{ is even} \\ 3 \cdot x + 1, & \text{if } x \text{ is odd.} \end{cases}$$

The Collatz Conjecture states that for each *n*, there is a *k*, such that  $g^k(n) = 1$ .

This conjecture has been verified for all n up to  $10^{18}$ , and there are convincing heuristic arguments for it.

### The Collatz Conjecture

FRACTARAN is related to a deep problem in number theory.

Consider the function

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{x}{2}, & \text{if } x \text{ is even} \\ 3 \cdot x + 1, & \text{if } x \text{ is odd.} \end{cases}$$

The Collatz Conjecture states that for each *n*, there is a *k*, such that  $g^k(n) = 1$ .

This conjecture has been verified for all n up to 10<sup>18</sup>, and there are convincing heuristic arguments for it. However, there is still no proof, and resolving it seems quite difficult.

# Fantastic Fractions and Collatz Conjecture

# Fantastic Fractions and Collatz Conjecture

The Collatz Conjecture

# Fantastic Fractions and Collatz Conjecture

The Collatz Conjecture

The  $3 \cdot x + 1$  function belongs to a family of functions whose behavior depends on  $x \mod q$  for some q:

#### The Collatz Conjecture

The  $3 \cdot x + 1$  function belongs to a family of functions whose behavior depends on x mod q for some q:

$$g(x) = \frac{a_i}{q} \cdot (x - i) + b_i$$
, where  $x = i \mod q$ .

#### The Collatz Conjecture

The  $3 \cdot x + 1$  function belongs to a family of functions whose behavior depends on x mod q for some q:

$$g(x) = \frac{a_i}{q} \cdot (x - i) + b_i$$
, where  $x = i \mod q$ .

Here  $a_i$  and  $b_i$  are integer coefficients for  $0 \le i < q$ .

#### The Collatz Conjecture

The  $3 \cdot x + 1$  function belongs to a family of functions whose behavior depends on x mod q for some q:

$$g(x) = \frac{a_i}{q} \cdot (x - i) + b_i$$
, where  $x = i \mod q$ .

Here  $a_i$  and  $b_i$  are integer coefficients for  $0 \le i < q$ .

For any function of this form, we can ask whether a given initial x will reach some y after certain number of iterations:

#### The Collatz Conjecture

The  $3 \cdot x + 1$  function belongs to a family of functions whose behavior depends on x mod q for some q:

$$g(x) = \frac{a_i}{q} \cdot (x - i) + b_i$$
, where  $x = i \mod q$ .

Here  $a_i$  and  $b_i$  are integer coefficients for  $0 \le i < q$ .

For any function of this form, we can ask whether a given initial x will reach some y after certain number of iterations:

#### Problem

Collatz: Given x, y and q, and integer coefficients  $a_i$ ,  $b_i$  for  $0 \le i < q$ . Check whether there is an integer t such that  $g^t(x) = y$ ?

#### The Collatz Conjecture

The  $3 \cdot x + 1$  function belongs to a family of functions whose behavior depends on x mod q for some q:

$$g(x) = \frac{a_i}{q} \cdot (x - i) + b_i$$
, where  $x = i \mod q$ .

Here  $a_i$  and  $b_i$  are integer coefficients for  $0 \le i < q$ .

For any function of this form, we can ask whether a given initial x will reach some y after certain number of iterations:

#### Problem

Collatz: Given x, y and q, and integer coefficients  $a_i$ ,  $b_i$  for  $0 \le i < q$ . Check whether there is an integer t such that  $g^t(x) = y$ ?

#### Remark

It can be shown that  $HALTING \leq Collatz$ .

#### The Collatz Conjecture

The  $3 \cdot x + 1$  function belongs to a family of functions whose behavior depends on x mod q for some q:

$$g(x) = \frac{a_i}{q} \cdot (x - i) + b_i$$
, where  $x = i \mod q$ .

Here  $a_i$  and  $b_i$  are integer coefficients for  $0 \le i < q$ .

For any function of this form, we can ask whether a given initial x will reach some y after certain number of iterations:

#### Problem

Collatz: Given x, y and q, and integer coefficients  $a_i$ ,  $b_i$  for  $0 \le i < q$ . Check whether there is an integer t such that  $g^t(x) = y$ ?

#### Remark

It can be shown that HALTING  $\leq$  Collatz. Thus Collatz is undecidable.

# The Game of Tag

# The Game of Tag

### Tag Systems

The Grand Unified Theory of Computation Computational Complexity

### Tag Systems

Emil Post showed that the axioms of the Principia can be reduced to a single initial string,

### Tag Systems

Emil Post showed that the axioms of the Principia can be reduced to a single initial string, and that its rules of inference can be replaced with the rules of the following normal form:

### Tag Systems

Emil Post showed that the axioms of the Principia can be reduced to a single initial string, and that its rules of inference can be replaced with the rules of the following normal form:

 $gs \Rightarrow sh$ ,

### Tag Systems

Emil Post showed that the axioms of the Principia can be reduced to a single initial string, and that its rules of inference can be replaced with the rules of the following normal form:

 $gs \Rightarrow sh$ ,

where g and h are fixed strings and s is arbitrary.

### Tag Systems

Emil Post showed that the axioms of the Principia can be reduced to a single initial string, and that its rules of inference can be replaced with the rules of the following normal form:

 $gs \Rightarrow sh$ ,

where g and h are fixed strings and s is arbitrary.

In other words, for any string that begins with g, we can remove g from its head and append h to its tail.

### Tag Systems

Emil Post showed that the axioms of the Principia can be reduced to a single initial string, and that its rules of inference can be replaced with the rules of the following normal form:

 $gs \Rightarrow sh$ ,

where g and h are fixed strings and s is arbitrary.

In other words, for any string that begins with g, we can remove g from its head and append h to its tail.

Post was hoping to solve the Entscheidungsproblem by finding an algorithm to determine whether a given string can be produced from an initial string, representing system's axioms,

### Tag Systems

Emil Post showed that the axioms of the Principia can be reduced to a single initial string, and that its rules of inference can be replaced with the rules of the following normal form:

 $gs \Rightarrow sh$ ,

where g and h are fixed strings and s is arbitrary.

In other words, for any string that begins with g, we can remove g from its head and append h to its tail.

Post was hoping to solve the Entscheidungsproblem by finding an algorithm to determine whether a given string can be produced from an initial string, representing system's axioms, using a given set of rules  $\{(g_i, h_i)\}$  in normal form.

### Tag Systems

Emil Post showed that the axioms of the Principia can be reduced to a single initial string, and that its rules of inference can be replaced with the rules of the following normal form:

 $gs \Rightarrow sh$ ,

where g and h are fixed strings and s is arbitrary.

In other words, for any string that begins with g, we can remove g from its head and append h to its tail.

Post was hoping to solve the Entscheidungsproblem by finding an algorithm to determine whether a given string can be produced from an initial string, representing system's axioms, using a given set of rules  $\{(g_i, h_i)\}$  in normal form.

In general, the result of such a computation might be non-deterministic, since we might have a choice of which rule to apply to a given string.

### Tag Systems

Emil Post showed that the axioms of the Principia can be reduced to a single initial string, and that its rules of inference can be replaced with the rules of the following normal form:

 $gs \Rightarrow sh$ ,

where g and h are fixed strings and s is arbitrary.

In other words, for any string that begins with g, we can remove g from its head and append h to its tail.

Post was hoping to solve the Entscheidungsproblem by finding an algorithm to determine whether a given string can be produced from an initial string, representing system's axioms, using a given set of rules  $\{(g_i, h_i)\}$  in normal form.

In general, the result of such a computation might be non-deterministic, since we might have a choice of which rule to apply to a given string.

For instance with the rules  $\{(a, b), (ab, c)\}$ , we could change *abc* to either *bcb* or *cc*.

# The Game of Tag

# The Game of Tag

### Tag Systems

The Grand Unified Theory of Computation Computational Complexity

## The Game of Tag

### Tag Systems

As a start, Post considered the case where all the  $g_i$  have the same length  $\nu$  for some constant  $\nu$ ,
### The Game of Tag

### Tag Systems

As a start, Post considered the case where all the  $g_i$  have the same length  $\nu$  for some constant  $\nu$ , and where each  $h_i$  is determined by  $g_i$ 's first symbol a.

#### Tag Systems

As a start, Post considered the case where all the  $g_i$  have the same length  $\nu$  for some constant  $\nu$ , and where each  $h_i$  is determined by  $g_i$ 's first symbol a.

Thus, at each step, if a string begins with the symbol *a*, we remove its first  $\nu$  symbols including *a*,

#### Tag Systems

As a start, Post considered the case where all the  $g_i$  have the same length  $\nu$  for some constant  $\nu$ , and where each  $h_i$  is determined by  $g_i$ 's first symbol a.

Thus, at each step, if a string begins with the symbol *a*, we remove its first  $\nu$  symbols including *a*, and append the string *h*(*a*).

#### Tag Systems

As a start, Post considered the case where all the  $g_i$  have the same length  $\nu$  for some constant  $\nu$ , and where each  $h_i$  is determined by  $g_i$ 's first symbol a.

Thus, at each step, if a string begins with the symbol *a*, we remove its first  $\nu$  symbols including *a*, and append the string *h*(*a*).

This process is deterministic, so each initial string leads to a fixed sequence.

#### Tag Systems

As a start, Post considered the case where all the  $g_i$  have the same length  $\nu$  for some constant  $\nu$ , and where each  $h_i$  is determined by  $g_i$ 's first symbol a.

Thus, at each step, if a string begins with the symbol *a*, we remove its first  $\nu$  symbols including *a*, and append the string *h*(*a*).

This process is deterministic, so each initial string leads to a fixed sequence. If this sequence reaches a string whose length is less than  $\nu$ , it halts.

# The Game of Tag

# The Game of Tag

### Tag Systems

The Grand Unified Theory of Computation Computational Complexity

# The Game of Tag

### Tag Systems

These are called tag systems.

### Tag Systems

These are called tag systems.

Post initially expected them to be an easy special case.

#### Tag Systems

These are called tag systems.

Post initially expected them to be an easy special case.

Later, he was able to prove that *Collatz* can be reduced to this problem, hence it is undecidable.

#### Tag Systems

These are called tag systems.

Post initially expected them to be an easy special case.

Later, he was able to prove that *Collatz* can be reduced to this problem, hence it is undecidable.

This negative result can be applied in order to derive the undecidability of the following two problems:

#### Tag Systems

These are called tag systems.

Post initially expected them to be an easy special case.

Later, he was able to prove that *Collatz* can be reduced to this problem, hence it is undecidable.

This negative result can be applied in order to derive the undecidability of the following two problems:

#### Problem

Tag System Halting:

#### Tag Systems

These are called tag systems.

Post initially expected them to be an easy special case.

Later, he was able to prove that *Collatz* can be reduced to this problem, hence it is undecidable.

This negative result can be applied in order to derive the undecidability of the following two problems:

#### Problem

Tag System Halting: Given an integer  $\nu$ ,

#### Tag Systems

These are called tag systems.

Post initially expected them to be an easy special case.

Later, he was able to prove that *Collatz* can be reduced to this problem, hence it is undecidable.

This negative result can be applied in order to derive the undecidability of the following two problems:

#### Problem

Tag System Halting: Given an integer  $\nu$ , a finite alphabet A,

#### Tag Systems

These are called tag systems.

Post initially expected them to be an easy special case.

Later, he was able to prove that *Collatz* can be reduced to this problem, hence it is undecidable.

This negative result can be applied in order to derive the undecidability of the following two problems:

#### Problem

Tag System Halting: Given an integer  $\nu$ , a finite alphabet A, a string h(a) for each  $a \in A$ ,

#### Tag Systems

These are called tag systems.

Post initially expected them to be an easy special case.

Later, he was able to prove that *Collatz* can be reduced to this problem, hence it is undecidable.

This negative result can be applied in order to derive the undecidability of the following two problems:

#### Problem

Tag System Halting: Given an integer  $\nu$ , a finite alphabet A, a string h(a) for each  $a \in A$ , and an initial string x,

#### Tag Systems

These are called tag systems.

Post initially expected them to be an easy special case.

Later, he was able to prove that *Collatz* can be reduced to this problem, hence it is undecidable.

This negative result can be applied in order to derive the undecidability of the following two problems:

#### Problem

Tag System Halting: Given an integer  $\nu$ , a finite alphabet A, a string h(a) for each  $a \in A$ , and an initial string x, the goal is to check whether x leads to a string of length less than  $\nu$ .

#### Tag Systems

These are called tag systems.

Post initially expected them to be an easy special case.

Later, he was able to prove that *Collatz* can be reduced to this problem, hence it is undecidable.

This negative result can be applied in order to derive the undecidability of the following two problems:

#### Problem

Tag System Halting: Given an integer  $\nu$ , a finite alphabet A, a string h(a) for each  $a \in A$ , and an initial string x, the goal is to check whether x leads to a string of length less than  $\nu$ .

#### Problem

Normal Form Halting:

#### Tag Systems

These are called tag systems.

Post initially expected them to be an easy special case.

Later, he was able to prove that *Collatz* can be reduced to this problem, hence it is undecidable.

This negative result can be applied in order to derive the undecidability of the following two problems:

#### Problem

Tag System Halting: Given an integer  $\nu$ , a finite alphabet A, a string h(a) for each  $a \in A$ , and an initial string x, the goal is to check whether x leads to a string of length less than  $\nu$ .

#### Problem

Normal Form Halting: Given a list of string pairs  $\{(g, h)\}$  and an initial string x,

#### Tag Systems

These are called tag systems.

Post initially expected them to be an easy special case.

Later, he was able to prove that *Collatz* can be reduced to this problem, hence it is undecidable.

This negative result can be applied in order to derive the undecidability of the following two problems:

#### Problem

Tag System Halting: Given an integer  $\nu$ , a finite alphabet A, a string h(a) for each  $a \in A$ , and an initial string x, the goal is to check whether x leads to a string of length less than  $\nu$ .

#### Problem

Normal Form Halting: Given a list of string pairs  $\{(g, h)\}$  and an initial string x, the goal is to check whether starting from x and applying the rules  $gs \Rightarrow sh$ ,

#### Tag Systems

These are called tag systems.

Post initially expected them to be an easy special case.

Later, he was able to prove that *Collatz* can be reduced to this problem, hence it is undecidable.

This negative result can be applied in order to derive the undecidability of the following two problems:

#### Problem

Tag System Halting: Given an integer  $\nu$ , a finite alphabet A, a string h(a) for each  $a \in A$ , and an initial string x, the goal is to check whether x leads to a string of length less than  $\nu$ .

#### Problem

Normal Form Halting: Given a list of string pairs  $\{(g, h)\}$  and an initial string x, the goal is to check whether starting from x and applying the rules  $gs \Rightarrow sh$ , it is possible to derive a string y to which no rule can be applied,

#### Tag Systems

These are called tag systems.

Post initially expected them to be an easy special case.

Later, he was able to prove that *Collatz* can be reduced to this problem, hence it is undecidable.

This negative result can be applied in order to derive the undecidability of the following two problems:

#### Problem

Tag System Halting: Given an integer  $\nu$ , a finite alphabet A, a string h(a) for each  $a \in A$ , and an initial string x, the goal is to check whether x leads to a string of length less than  $\nu$ .

#### Problem

Normal Form Halting: Given a list of string pairs  $\{(g, h)\}$  and an initial string x, the goal is to check whether starting from x and applying the rules  $gs \Rightarrow sh$ , it is possible to derive a string y to which no rule can be applied, that is, which does not begin with any g in the list.

# The Correspondence Problem

# The Correspondence Problem

Post's Correspondence Problem

## The Correspondence Problem

Post's Correspondence Problem

Finally, Post was able to prove that the following problem is also undecidable:

# The Correspondence Problem

### Post's Correspondence Problem

Finally, Post was able to prove that the following problem is also undecidable:

#### Problem

Correspondence:

## The Correspondence Problem

### Post's Correspondence Problem

Finally, Post was able to prove that the following problem is also undecidable:

#### Problem

Correspondence: Given a list of pairs of strings  $(s_1, t_1), ..., (s_k, t_k)$ ,

### The Correspondence Problem

#### Post's Correspondence Problem

Finally, Post was able to prove that the following problem is also undecidable:

#### Problem

Correspondence: Given a list of pairs of strings  $(s_1, t_1), ..., (s_k, t_k)$ , the goal is to check whether there is a finite sequence  $i_1, i_2, ..., i_l$  with  $l \ge 1$ , such that  $s_{i_1} s_{i_2} ... s_{i_l} = t_{i_1} t_{i_2} ... t_{i_l}$ .

## References

# References

### Books

The Grand Unified Theory of Computation Computational Complexity

## References

#### Books

Ch. Moore, S. Mertens, The Nature of Computation, Oxford University Press (2011).