

**GPAC, Analyse récursive et fonctions
 \mathbb{R} -récursives
Trois modèles équivalents de calcul sur les
réels.**

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Discrete Case

- ▶ There are several models for computation over integers
 - ▶ Recursive functions
 - ▶ Turing machines
 - ▶ Circuits
 - ▶ λ -calculus
 - ▶ ...
- ▶ But those models are “equivalent”.

Church-Turing thesis

All reasonable powerful enough discrete models of computation compute exactly the same functions.

Approaches to analog computation

Several different devices

- ▶ Differential analyzer [Bush 31]
- ▶ Neural networks [Hopfield 84]
- ▶ Operational Amplifiers
- ▶ ...

Several different models:

- ▶ General Purpose Analog Computer (GPAC) [Shannon 41]
- ▶ Computable Analysis [Turing 36]
- ▶ BSS model [Blum Shub Smale 89]
- ▶ ...

However, contrarily to the digital case, few connections between these models are known.

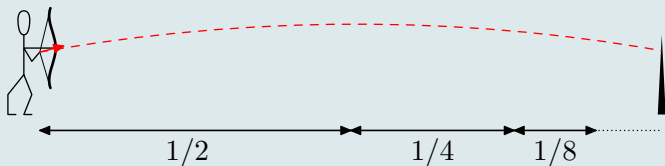
Linking models of “real” computation

- ▶ The models of computable analysis and \mathbb{R} -recursive functions deal with similar functions but lack relations between their classes.
- ▶ Investigating such links can help giving an analog characterization of what may be considered reasonable in computation over the reals.
- ▶ A step towards a Church Thesis for computation over the reals?
- ▶ A way to characterize the algorithmic complexity of some problems on dynamical systems?

“Real-time” computing yields unreasonable results

Zeno paradox (Ζήνων ο Ελεάτης)

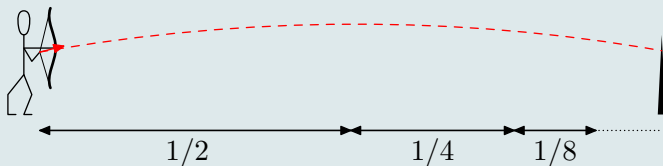
At any time between its launch and arrival, an arrow has first to cover one half of the distance towards its goal.



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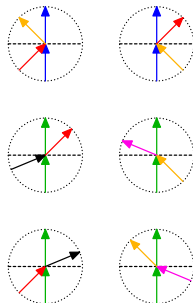
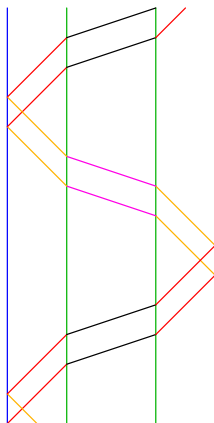
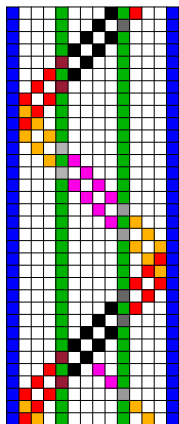
Accelerating Turing machine

An ATM achieves its first computing step in time $\frac{1}{2}$, its second step in time $\frac{1}{4}$, its n -th step in time $\frac{1}{2^n}$.

At time 1, this machine has done an infinity of computation steps.

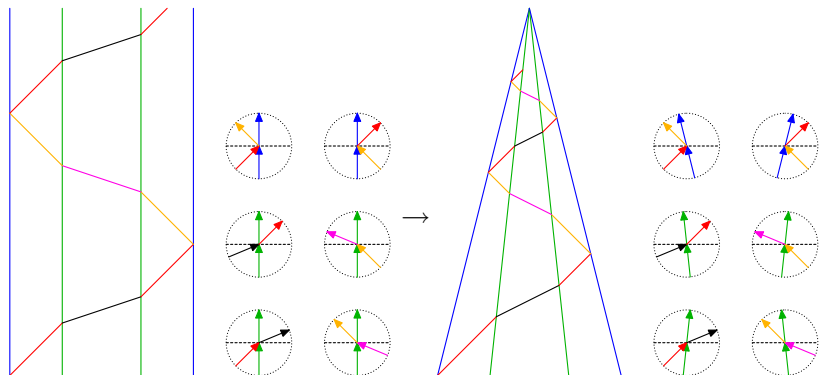
Zeno phenomenon in signal machines

Signal machines [Durand-Lose 03] are a continuous counterpart to cellular automata:



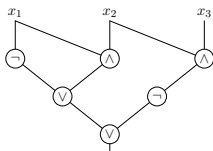
Zeno phenomenon in signal machines (2)

It is possible to reduce the time taken to do a computation by changing the slopes of the signals:

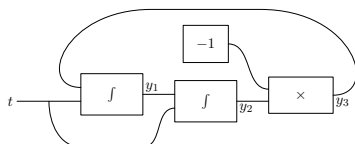


Setting

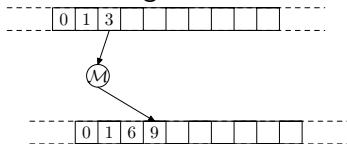
Circuit



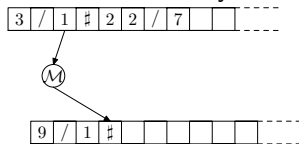
GPAC



Turing Machine:



Recursive analysis:



Recursive functions:
[0, S, U; COMP, REC, μ]

\mathbb{R} -recursive functions:
[0, 1, U; COMP, INT, $\mu_{\mathbb{R}}$]

Recursive and Sub-recursive functions

$$\mathcal{R}ec(\mathbb{N}) = [0, S, U; COMP, REC, \mu]$$

$$\mathcal{PR}(\mathbb{N}) = [0, S, U; COMP, REC]$$

$$\mathcal{E}_n(\mathbb{N}) = [0, S, U, \ominus, E_{n-1}; COMP, B\Sigma, B\Pi]$$

$$\mathcal{E}_3(\mathbb{N}) = \mathcal{E}(\mathbb{N}) = [0, S, U, \ominus; COMP, B\Sigma, B\Pi]$$

Recursive and Sub-recursive functions

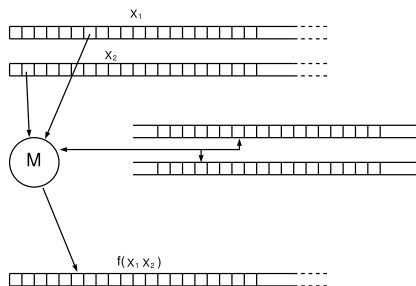
$\mathcal{R}ec(\mathbb{N})$ \sim Turing machines
 \cup

$\mathcal{P}\mathcal{R}(\mathbb{N})$ \sim For programs (no while)
 \cup

$\mathcal{E}_n(\mathbb{N})$ Grzegorzczuk's hierarchy
 \cup

$\mathcal{E}_3(\mathbb{N}) = \mathcal{E}(\mathbb{N})$ \sim Time bounded by a $2^{2^{\dots^n}}$

Recursive analysis: type 2 machines



A tape represents a real number

Let $\nu_{\mathbb{Q}}$ be a representation of the rational numbers.

$(x_n) \rightsquigarrow x$ iff $\forall i, |x - \nu_{\mathbb{Q}}(x_i)| < \frac{1}{2^i}$

M behaves like a Turing machine

Write-only one-way output tape.

Computable functions

Definition [Computable functions]

A function $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ with $a, b \in \mathbb{Q}$ is computable (resp: elementarily computable) iff there exists $\phi : \mathbb{N}^{\mathbb{N}} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}^{\mathbb{N}}$ recursive (resp: elementary) such that

$$\forall X \rightsquigarrow x, (\phi(X)) \rightsquigarrow f(x).$$

Examples of recursively computable functions

Most usual functions are recursively computable:

- ▶ Polynomials, exp, sin, cos are in $\mathcal{Rec}(\mathbb{R})$
- ▶ Euler's Γ

$$\Gamma(x) = \int_0^{\infty} t^{x-1} e^{-t} dt$$

is in $\mathcal{Rec}(\mathbb{R})$

All functions defined through recursive analysis are continuous.

Differential analyzers/GPAC

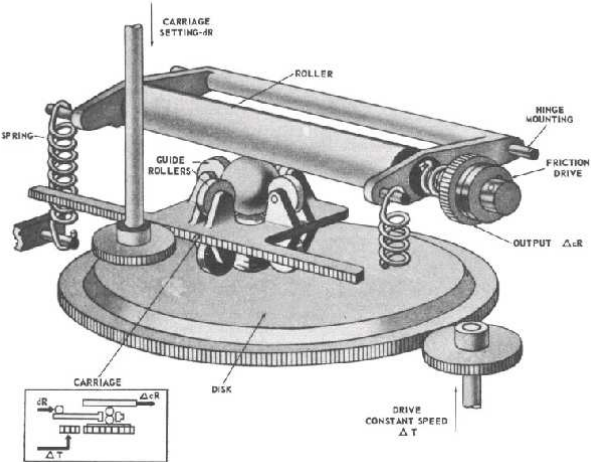
- 1876** William Thomson (Lord Kelvin) first thought of interconnecting mechanical integrators to compute.
- 1931** A differential was built by Vannevar Bush at MIT.
- 1941** Claude Shannon modeled the differential analyzer as a GPAC.

Differential analyzer

http://www.meccano.us/differential_analyzers/robinson_da/



Mechanical integrator



The GPAC

GPAC [Shannon 41] consists in circuits interconnecting the following components:

$$\begin{array}{c} f \\ g \end{array} \begin{array}{|c|} \hline \int \begin{array}{c} a \\ t_0 \end{array} \\ \hline \end{array} \begin{array}{c} a + \int_{t_0}^t f(u) dg(u) \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{|c|} \hline \lambda \\ \hline \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \lambda \end{array}$$

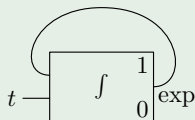
$$\begin{array}{c} g \\ f \end{array} \begin{array}{|c|} \hline + \\ \hline \end{array} \begin{array}{c} f + g \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c} g \\ f \end{array} \begin{array}{|c|} \hline \times \\ \hline \end{array} \begin{array}{c} f \times g \end{array}$$

There can be loops in the circuit.

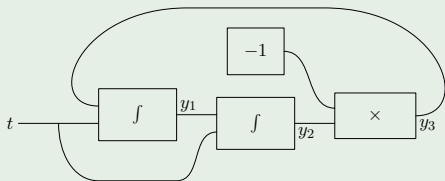
Examples

Example (Computing exp with a GPAC)



$$\begin{cases} y' = y \\ y(0) = 1 \end{cases}$$

Example (Computing cos and sin with a GPAC)



$$\begin{cases} y_1(0) = 1 \\ y_2(0) = 0 \\ y_2' = y_1 \\ y_1' = -y_2 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} y_1 = \sin \\ y_2 = \cos \end{cases}$$

Features of the GPAC

Claim [Shannon 41]

Functions generated by GPAC are the differentially algebraic functions.

Differentially algebraic functions are the solutions of $P(t, y, y', \dots, y^{(n)}) = 0$.

The proof was corrected in [Pour-El 74] then [Lipshitz Rubel 87] and [Graça Costa 03].

Theorem [Graça Costa 03]

A scalar function $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is generated by a GPAC iff it is a component of the solution of a system

$$y' = p(t, y), \tag{1}$$

where p is a vector of polynomials.

Previous results on the GPAC

It can be shown that:

- ▶ The GPAC computes most usual functions (polynomials, trigonometric functions...)
- ▶ The Gamma function $\Gamma(x) = \int_0^{\infty} t^{x-1} e^{-t} dt$ and Riemann's zeta function $\zeta(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^x}$ cannot be computed by a GPAC

The latter result seems to indicate that the GPAC is less powerful than recursive analysis since Γ and ζ are computable according to Computable Analysis.

\mathbb{R} -recursive functions [Moore 96]

Definition \mathcal{G}

$$\mathcal{G} = [0, 1, U; \text{COMP}, \text{INT}, \mu_{\mathbb{R}}]$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{REC} : f, g &\mapsto h \\ h(x, 0) &= f(x) \\ h(x, S(n)) &= g(x, n, h(x, n)) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{INT} : f, g &\mapsto h \\ h(x, 0) &= f(x) \\ \frac{\partial h}{\partial y}(x, y) &= g(x, y, h(x, y)) \end{aligned}$$

Problems with \mathcal{G}

- ▶ Not always well defined ($0 \times +\infty = 0$, non integrable functions).
 - ▶ [Mycka Costa 04] presents well-defined operator (differential recursion and infinite limits) that have the same power as \mathcal{G} .
- ▶ Presents time compression phenomenon (Zeno's paradox).
- ▶ Contains unwanted functions (in particular $\chi_{\mathbb{Q}}$ or functions that decide the halting problem of Turing machines).

$\chi_{halt} \in \mathcal{G}$

- ▶ There exists $f : \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ simulating a Turing machine:
 $\forall m, n, q \in \mathbb{N}^3, (m', n', q') = f(m, n, q)$ is the next configuration (m, n represent the tape, q the state).
- ▶ Iteration can be simulated in \mathcal{G} . $F(t, m_0, n_0, q_0)$ represents the configuration after t steps.
- ▶ \mathcal{M} halts iff $\exists t \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $(-, -, q_f) = F(t, m_0, n_0, q_0)$
- ▶ in other terms, \mathcal{M} if and only if the smallest root of

$$(u_3(F(\tan(z), \dots)) - q_f)(z - \pi/2)$$

is not $\pi/2$.

Setting

	GPAC
Turing machines	Recursive analysis
Recursive functions	\mathbb{R} -recursive functions

We have seen that Γ belongs to $\mathcal{R}ec(\mathbb{R})$ but is not generable by GPAC.

GPAC with limit

The notions of computability in the GPAC and in Computable Analysis are very distinct: “real time” computation *versus* limit procedure

Definition

1. Use initial settings on integrators to represent the initial input $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ (the other initial settings must be computable reals).
2. Use the usual input as a time variable t
3. Then $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is GPAC-computable if there is a GPAC with two outputs $g(x, t)$ and $\varepsilon(x, t)$ satisfying:
 - ▶ $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \|\varepsilon(x, t)\| = 0$;
 - ▶ $\|g(x, t) - f(x)\| \leq \varepsilon(x, t)$

How to compute Γ with a GPAC

- ▶ This notion can be expected to match more closely Computable Analysis.
- ▶ In [Graça 04] it is shown that Γ and ζ are GPAC-computable.
- ▶ But no exact characterization of the class of functions obtained by the previous notion was previously given.

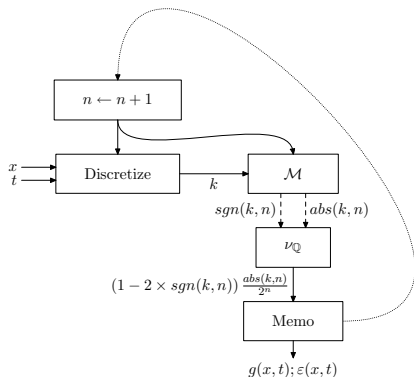
Result

Theorem [with Bournez Campagnolo Graça]

Let $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a real function. Then f is recursively computable iff it is GPAC-computable.

recursively computable \Rightarrow GPAC-computable

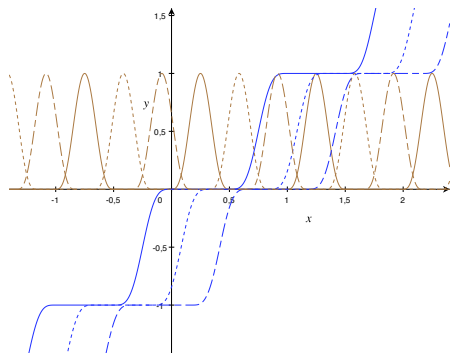
We use results from [Branicky 95] and [Graça Campagnolo Buescu 05] to build a GPAC that simulates robustly a Turing machine.



1. Compute an integer k from x and n such that $|k/2^{m(n)} - x| < 1/2^{m(n)}$;
2. Compute $sgn(k, n)$ and $abs(k, n)$;
3. Compute $\frac{(1-2sgn(k,n))abs(k,n)}{2^n}$ and memorize the result till another cycle is completed;
4. Take $n = n + 1$ and restart the cycle.

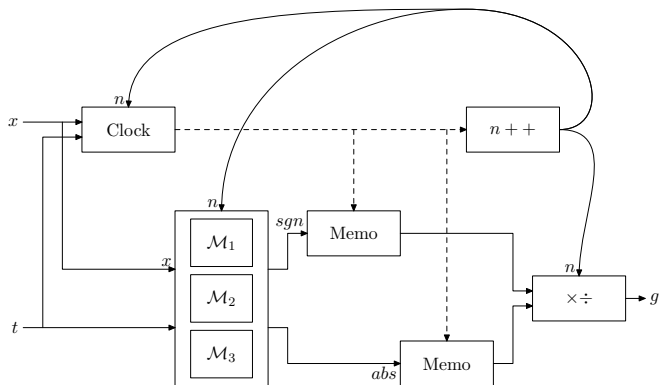
Simulating the discrete part

- ▶ We would like to take $k = \lfloor x2^{m(n)} \rfloor$, but the discrete function “integer part” $\lfloor \cdot \rfloor$ cannot be obtained by a GPAC
- ▶ Our solution is to use three functions $r_i(t)$ and three “detecting functions” ω_i such that $\omega_i(t) \neq 0$ iff $r_i(t) \in \mathbb{N}$



$$y = \frac{\sum_{i=0}^2 \omega_{k,i}(nx) s_i}{\sum_{i=0}^2 \omega_{k,i}(nx)}$$

Recursively computable implies GPAC-computable



Setting

Turing machines	Recursive analysis
Recursive functions	Type-2 machines
	\mathbb{R} -recursive functions
	$\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{L}, \mathcal{H}$

We know that $DP(\mathcal{L}) = \mathcal{E}(\mathbb{N})$.

To characterize in an algebraic way the real recursive functions, we will define a zero-finding operator and a limit operator.

Definition [\mathcal{L}]

$$\mathcal{L} = [0, 1, -1, \pi, U, \theta_3; \text{COMP}, \text{LI}]$$

With

- ▶ U : projections
- ▶ $\theta_3 : \begin{cases} \mathbb{R} & \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \\ x & \mapsto \max(0, x^3) \end{cases}$
- ▶ COMP: composition
- ▶ LI: given g, h . $f = \text{LI}(g, h)$ is the maximal solution of
$$\begin{aligned} f(\vec{x}, 0) &= g(\vec{x}) \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(\vec{x}, y) &= h(\vec{x}, y)f(\vec{x}, y) \end{aligned}$$

Properties of \mathcal{L}

For a class \mathcal{F} of functions $\mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $DP(\mathcal{F})$ is the set of functions $\mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ that have an extension in \mathcal{F} .

Theorem [Campagnolo Moore Costa 00]

$$DP(\mathcal{L}) = \mathcal{E}(\mathbb{N})$$

Theorem [Campagnolo Moore Costa 00]

$$DP(\mathcal{L}_n) = \mathcal{E}_n(\mathbb{N})$$

Extension to recursive functions

- ▶ This result gives a characterization of $\mathcal{E}(\mathbb{N})$ (and has been extended to all levels of the Grzegorzczuk hierarchy).
- ▶ We introduce an operator UMU to obtain

$$DP(\mathcal{L} + \text{UMU}) = \mathcal{R}ec(\mathbb{N}).$$

A real μ operator

Remark: A naive “return the smallest root” operator yields unwanted functions (see [Moore 96]).

Definition

Given $f : \mathcal{D} \times \mathcal{I} \subset \mathbb{R}^{k+1} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ differentiable such that:

- ▶ $\forall \vec{x} \in \mathcal{D}$, the function $g_{\vec{x}} : y \mapsto f(\vec{x}, y)$ is non decreasing,
- ▶ $g_{\vec{x}}$ has a unique root $y_{\vec{x}} \in \overset{\circ}{\mathcal{I}}$,
- ▶ $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(\vec{x}, y_{\vec{x}}) > 0$.

$$\text{UMU}(f) = \begin{cases} \mathbb{R}^k & \longrightarrow \mathbb{R} \\ \vec{x} & \mapsto y \text{ such that } f(\vec{x}, y) = 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{L} + \text{UMU}$$

Definition [\mathcal{H}]

$$\mathcal{H} = [0, 1, U, \theta_3; \text{COMP}, \text{CLI}, \text{UMU}]$$

Proposition

$$\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{L} + \text{UMU}$$

Proof:

- ▶ $-1 = \text{UMU}(x \mapsto x + 1)$
- ▶ $x \mapsto \frac{1}{1+x^2} = \text{UMU}(x, y \mapsto (1+x^2)y - 1);$
 $\arctan(0) = 0$ and $\arctan'(x) = \frac{1}{1+x^2};$
 $\pi = 4 \arctan(1)$

Result: $DP(\mathcal{H}) = \mathcal{R}ec(\mathbb{N})$

Theorem

$$DP(\mathcal{H}) = \mathcal{R}ec(\mathbb{N})$$

Where $\mathcal{R}ec(\mathbb{N})$ denotes the set of discrete partial recursive functions.

Proof: we have to demonstrate both directions.

- ▶ $DP(\mathcal{H}) \subset \mathcal{R}ec(\mathbb{N})$ comes from the fact that UMU preserves computability (in the sense of recursive analysis).
- ▶ $\mathcal{R}ec(\mathbb{N}) \subset DP(\mathcal{H})$ can be proven using a normal form theorem in $\mathcal{R}ec(\mathbb{N})$ and translating the discrete μ into our UMU.

Consequences

Corollary

$$\mathcal{L} \subsetneq \mathcal{H}$$

Theorem [Normal Form]

A function from \mathcal{H} can be written with at most 3 nested UMU.

We may need 2 UMU to obtain π and -1 . The other UMU comes from the simulation of the discrete μ .

Characterizing computable analysis classes

- ▶ Previous results give analog characterizations of $\mathcal{E}(\mathbb{N})$ and $\mathcal{R}ec(\mathbb{N})$.
- ▶ With a limit operator, we can extend those characterizations to obtain characterizations of $\mathcal{E}(\mathbb{R})$ and $\mathcal{R}ec(\mathbb{R})$.

$$\mathcal{H} + \text{LIM} = \mathcal{R}ec(\mathbb{R})$$

- ▶ From [Mycka Costa 04], we know that a natural limit operator is as powerful as Moore's $\mu_{\mathbb{R}}$.

Operator LIM

Definition

Given $f : \mathbb{R} \times \mathcal{D} \subset \mathbb{R}^{k+1} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^l$,

- ▶ if there are $K : \mathcal{D} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $\beta : \mathcal{D} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ *polynomials* such that

$$\forall \vec{x}, \forall t \geq \|\vec{x}\|, \left\| \frac{\partial f}{\partial t}(t, \vec{x}) \right\| \leq K(\vec{x}) \exp(-t\beta(\vec{x})),$$

- ▶ if $\vec{x} \mapsto \lim_{t \rightarrow +\infty} f(t, \vec{x})$ is \mathcal{C}^2 .

Then, $F = \text{LIM}(f, K, \beta)$ is defined by

$$F(\vec{x}) = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} f(t, \vec{x}).$$

Theorems

We will write \mathcal{C}^* where $\mathcal{C} = [\mathcal{F}; \mathcal{O}]$ to denote the class $[\mathcal{F}; \mathcal{O}, \text{LIM}]$.

Theorem

For functions of class \mathcal{C}^2 defined on a compact domain,

$$\mathcal{L}^* = \mathcal{E}(\mathbb{R}).$$

Theorems

Theorem

For functions of class \mathcal{C}^2 defined on a compact domain,

$$\mathcal{H}^* = \mathcal{R}ec(\mathbb{R}).$$

Consequences

Theorem [Normal Form]

A function from \mathcal{L}^* or \mathcal{H}^* can be written with at most 2 nested LIM

One limit to obtain $1/x$ and another from the limit mechanism.

Proposition

Let $\bar{D} = [0, 1, -1, U; \text{COMP}, \bar{I}]$.

$$(\bar{D} + \theta_3)^* \supseteq \mathcal{PR}(\mathbb{R}).$$

Results

GPAC-computable \Leftrightarrow Recursively computable

$$\mathcal{R}ec(\mathbb{R}) = \mathcal{H}^*$$

$$\mathcal{P}\mathcal{R}(\mathbb{R}) \subseteq (\bar{\mathcal{D}} + \theta_3)^*$$

$$\mathcal{E}_n(\mathbb{R}) = \mathcal{L}_n^*$$

$$\mathcal{E}(\mathbb{R}) = \mathcal{L}^*$$

Results

- ▶ Machine-independent characterizations of classes from Recursive analysis.
- ▶ Equivalence between what can be computed by a GPAC and by recursive analysis.
- ▶ Can we label $\mathcal{R}ec(\mathbb{R})$ as what is reasonable?

Perspectives

- ▶ Understand what complexity means in those models
 - ▶ [Ko 91] studies complexity for Recursive Analysis
 - ▶ Classes of complexity à la Bellantoni & Cook can be defined as \mathbb{R} -recursive functions
 - ▶ Complexity in GPAC?
- ▶ Extend classical results to \mathcal{H}^*
 - ▶ Universal function(s)
 - ▶ Fixpoint theorem
 - ▶ s_n^m theorem
- ▶ Study robustness to perturbations.