

Computability, Complexity, and Languages

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CHAPTER 1

PRELIMINARIES

1 Sets and n -tuples

We shall often be dealing with *sets* of objects of some definite kind. Thinking of a collection of entities as a *set* simply amounts to a decision to regard the whole collection as a single object. We shall use the word *class* as synonymous with *set*. In particular we write N for the set of *natural numbers* $0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$.

It is useful to speak of the *empty set*, written \emptyset , which has no members. The equation $R = S$, where R and S are sets, means that R and S are *identical as sets*, that is, that they have exactly the same members. We write $R \subseteq S$ and speak of R as a *subset* of S to mean that every element of R is also an element of S . We write $R \subset S$ to indicate that $R \subseteq S$ but $R \neq S$. In this case R is called a *proper subset* of S . If R and S are set, we write $R \cup S$ for the *union* of R and S , which is the collection of all objects which are members of either R or S or both. $R \cap S$, the *intersection* of R and S , is the set of all objects that belong to both R and S . $R - S$, the set of all objects that belong to R and do not belong to S , is the *difference* between R and S . Often we will be working in contexts where all sets being considered are subsets of some fixed set D (sometimes called a *domain* or a *universe*). In such a case we write \bar{S} for $D - S$, and call \bar{S} the *complement* of S . We write

$$\{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n\}$$

for the set consisting of the n objects a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n . Sets that can be written in this form as well as the empty set are called *finite*. Sets that are not finite are called *infinite*. Since two sets are equal if and only if they have the same members. That is, the order in which we may choose to write the members of a set is irrelevant. Where order is important, we speak instead of an n -tuple or a *list*. A 2-tuple is called an *ordered pair*, and a 3-tuple is called an *ordered triple*. Unlike the case for sets of one object, we *do not distinguish between the object a and the 1-tuple (a)* . The crucial property of n -tuples is

$$(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) = (b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n)$$

if and only if

$$a_1 = b_1, \quad a_2 = b_2, \quad \dots, \quad \text{and} \quad a_n = b_n.$$

If S_1, S_2, \dots, S_n are given sets, then we write $S_1 \times S_2 \times \dots \times S_n$ for the set of all n -tuples such that $a_1 \in S_1, a_2 \in S_2, \dots, a_n \in S_n$. $S_1 \times S_2 \times \dots \times S_n$ is sometimes called the *Cartesian product* of S_1, S_2, \dots, S_n .

2 Functions

For f a function, one writes $f(a) = b$ to mean that $(a, b) \in f$; the definition of function ensures that for each a there can be at most one such b . The set of all a such that $(a, b) \in f$ for some b is called the *domain* of f . The set of all $f(a)$ for a in the domain of f is called the *range* of f .

Functions f are often specified by *algorithms* that provide procedures for obtaining $f(a)$ from a . However, it is quite possible to possess an algorithm that specifies a function without being able to tell which elements belong to its domain. This makes the notion of a so-called *partial function* play a central role in computability theory. A *partial function on a set S* is simply a function whose domain is a subset of S . If f is a partial function on S and $a \in S$, then we write $f(a) \downarrow$ and say that $f(a)$ is *defined* to indicate that a is in the domain of f ; if a is not in the domain of f , we write $f(a) \uparrow$ and say that $f(a)$ is *undefined*. If a partial function on S has the domain S , then it is called *total*. Finally, we should mention that the empty set \emptyset is itself a function. Considered as a partial function on some set S , it is *nowhere defined*.

A partial function f on a set S^n is called an *n -ary partial function on S* , or a function of n variables on S . We use *unary* and *binary* for 1-ary and 2-ary, respectively.

A function f is *one-one* if, for all x, y in the domain of f , $f(x) = f(y)$ implies $x = y$. If the range of f is the set S , then we say that f is an *onto* function with respect to S , or simply that f is *onto S* .

We will sometimes refer to the idea of *closure*. If S is a set and f is a partial function on S , then S is *closed under f* if the range of f is a subset of S .

3 Alphabets and Strings

An *alphabet* is simply some finite nonempty set A of objects called *symbols*. An n -tuple of symbols of A is called a *word* or a *string* on A . The set of all words on the alphabet A is written A^* . Any subset of A^* is called a *language on A* or a *language with alphabet A* . We do *not* distinguish between a symbol $a \in A$ and the word of length 1 consisting of that symbol.

4 Predicates

By a *predicate* or a *Boolean-valued function* on a set S we mean a *total* function P on S such that for each $a \in S$, either

$$P(a) = \text{TRUE} \quad \text{or} \quad P(a) = \text{FALSE},$$

where TRUE and FALSE are a pair of distinct objects called *truth values*. We often say $P(a)$ is *true* for $P(a) = \text{TRUE}$, and $P(a)$ is *false* for $P(a) = \text{FALSE}$. Given a predicate P on a set S , there is a corresponding subset R of S , namely, the set of all elements $a \in S$ for which $P(a) = 1$. The predicate P is called the *characteristic function* of the set R .

5 Quantifiers

In this section we will be concerned exclusively with predicates on N^m (or what is the same thing, m -ary predicates on N) for different values of m . Thus, let $P(t, x_1, \dots, x_n)$ be an $(n+1)$ -ary predicate. Consider the predicate $Q(y, x_1, \dots, x_n)$ defined by

$$Q(y, x_1, \dots, x_n) \Leftrightarrow P(0, x_1, \dots, x_n) \vee P(1, x_1, \dots, x_n) \\ \vee \dots \vee P(y, x_1, \dots, x_n).$$

Thus the predicate $Q(y, x_1, \dots, x_n)$ is true just in case there is value of $t \leq y$ such that $P(t, x_1, \dots, x_n)$ is true. We write this predicate Q as

$$(\exists t)_{\leq y} P(t, x_1, \dots, x_n).$$

The expression " $(\exists t)_{\leq y}$ " is called a *bounded existential quantifier*. Similarly, we write $(\forall t)_{\leq y} P(t, x_1, \dots, x_n)$ for the predicate

$$P(0, x_1, \dots, x_n) \& P(1, x_1, \dots, x_n) \& \dots \& P(y, x_1, \dots, x_n).$$

The predicate is true just in case $P(t, x_1, \dots, x_n)$ is true for *all* $t \leq y$. The expression " $(\forall t)_{\leq y}$ " is called a *bounded universal quantifier*.

6 Proof by Contradiction

Recall that a number is called a *prime* if it has *exactly two distinct divisors*, itself and 1. Consider the following assertion:

$$n^2 - n + 41 \text{ is prime for all } n \in N.$$

This assertion is in fact *false*.

In a *proof by contradiction*, one begins by supposing that the assertion we wish to prove is false. In a proof by contradiction we look for a pair of statements developed in the course of the proof which *contradict* one another.

Theorem 6.1

Let $x \in \{a, b\}^*$ such that $xa = ax$. Then $x = a^{[n]}$ for some $n \in N$.

7 Mathematical Induction

Mathematical induction furnishes an important technique for proving statements of the form $(\forall n)P(n)$, where P is a predicate on N . One proceeds by proving a pair of auxiliary statements, namely, $P(0)$ and

$$(\forall n)(\text{if } P(n) \text{ then } P(n+1)). \quad (1.1)$$

Why is this helpful? Because sometimes it is much easier to prove (1.1) than to prove $(\forall n)P(n)$ in some other way. In proving this second auxiliary proposition one typically

considers some fixed but arbitrary value k of n and shows that if we assume $P(k)$ we can prove $P(k+1)$. $P(k)$ is then called the *induction hypothesis*.

There are some paradoxical things about proofs by mathematical induction. One is assuming $P(k)$ for some *particular* k in order to show that $P(k+1)$ follows.

It is also paradoxical that in using induction (we shall often omit the word *mathematical*), it is sometimes easier to prove statements by first making them "stronger." We wish to prove $(\forall n)P(n)$. Instead we decide to prove the *stronger* assertion $(\forall n)(P(n) \& Q(n))$ (which of course implies the original statement). The technique of deliberately strengthening what is to be proved for the purpose of making proofs by induction easier is called *induction loading*.

Theorem 7.1

For all $n \in N$ we have $\sum_{i=0}^n (2i+1) = (n+1)^2$.

Another form of mathematical induction that is often very useful is called *course-of-values induction* or sometimes *complete induction*.

Theorem 7.2

There is no string $x \in \{a, b\}^*$ such that $ax = xb$.

CHAPTER 2

PROGRAMS AND COMPUTABLE FUNCTIONS

1 A Programming Language

In particular, the letters

$$X_1 X_2 X_3 \dots$$

will be called the *input variables* of \mathcal{L} , the letter Y will be called the *output variable* of \mathcal{L} , and the letters

$$Z_1 Z_2 Z_3 \dots$$

will be called the *local variables* of \mathcal{L} .

In \mathcal{L} we will be able to write "instructions" of various sorts; a "program" of \mathcal{L} will then consist of a *list* (i.e., a finite sequence) of instructions.

Table 2.1

Insturction	Interpretation
$V \leftarrow V + 1$	Increase by 1 the value of the variable V .
$V \leftarrow V - 1$	If the value of V is 0, leave it unchanged; otherwise decrease by 1 the value of V .
IF $V \neq 0$ GOTO L	If the value of V is nonzero, perform the instruction with label L next; otherwise proceed to the next instruction in the list

We give in Table 2.1 a complete list of our instructions. In this list V stands for any variable and L stands for any label.

These instructions will be called the *increment*, *decrement*, and *conditional branch* instructions, respectively.

We will use the special convention that *the output variable Y and the local variables Z_i initially have the value 0.*

2 Some Examples of Programs

Our first example is the program

$$\begin{aligned} [A] \quad & X \leftarrow X - 1 \\ & Y \leftarrow Y + 1 \\ & \text{IF } X \neq 0 \text{ GOTO } A \end{aligned}$$

If the initial value x of X is not 0, the effect of this program is to copy x into Y and to decrement the value of X down to 0. We will say that this program *computes* the function

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

Although the preceding program is a perfectly well-defined program of our language \mathcal{L} , we may think of it as having arisen in an attempt to write a program that copies the value of X into Y , and therefore containing a "bug" because it does not handle 0 correctly. The following slightly more complicated example remedies this situation.

$$\begin{aligned} [A] \quad & \text{IF } X \neq 0 \text{ GOTO } B \\ & Z \leftarrow Z + 1 \\ & \text{IF } Z \neq 0 \text{ GOTO } E \\ [B] \quad & X \leftarrow X - 1 \\ & Y \leftarrow Y + 1 \\ & Z \leftarrow Z + 1 \\ & \text{IF } Z \neq 0 \text{ GOTO } A \end{aligned}$$

At first glance Z 's role in the computation may not be obvious. It is used simply to allow us to code an *unconditional branch*. That is, the program segment

$$\begin{aligned} & Z \leftarrow Z + 1 \\ & \text{IF } Z \neq 0 \text{ GOTO } L \end{aligned} \tag{2.1}$$

has the effect (ignoring the effect on the value of Z) of an instruction

$$\text{GOTO } L$$

such as is available in most programming languages. Now $\text{GOTO } L$ is not an instruction in our language \mathcal{L} , but since we will frequently have use for such an instruction, we can use it as an abbreviation for the program segment (3.1). Such an abbreviating pseudoinstruction will be called a *macro* and the program or program segment which it abbreviates will be called its *macro expansion*.

For our final example, we take the program

$$\begin{aligned} & Y \leftarrow X_1 \\ & Z \leftarrow X_2 \\ [C] \quad & \text{IF } Z \neq 0 \text{ GOTO } A \\ & \text{GOTO } E \\ [A] \quad & \text{IF } Y \neq 0 \text{ GOTO } B \\ & \text{GOTO } A \\ [B] \quad & Y \leftarrow Y - 1 \\ & Z \leftarrow Z - 1 \\ & \text{GOTO } C \end{aligned}$$

What happens if we begin with a value of X_1 less than the value of X_2 ? At this point the computation enters the "loop":

$$\begin{array}{l} [A] \quad \text{IF } Y \neq 0 \text{ GOTO } B \\ \quad \text{GOTO } A \end{array}$$

Since $y = 0$, there is no way out of this loop and the computation will continue "forever." Thus, if we begin with $X_1 = m$, $X_2 = n$, where $m < n$, the computation will never terminate. In this case (and in similar cases) we will say that the program computes the *partial function*

$$g(x_1, x_2) = \begin{cases} x_1 - x_2 & \text{if } x_1 \geq x_2 \\ \uparrow & \text{if } x_1 < x_2. \end{cases}$$

3 Syntax

The symbols

$$X_1 \ X_2 \ X_3 \ \cdots$$

are called *input variables*,

$$Z_1 \ Z_2 \ Z_3 \ \cdots$$

are called *local variables*, and Y is called the *output variable* of \mathcal{L} . The symbols

$$A_1, \ B_1 \ C_1 \ D_1 \ E_1 \ A_2 \ B_2 \ \cdots$$

are called *labels* of \mathcal{L} . A *statement* is one of the following:

$$\begin{array}{l} V \leftarrow V + 1 \\ V \leftarrow V - 1 \\ V \leftarrow V \\ \text{IF } V \neq 0 \text{ GOTO } L \end{array}$$

where V may be any variable and L may be any label.

Next, an *instruction* is either a statement (in which case it is also called an *unlabeled instruction*) or $[L]$ followed by a statement (in which case the instruction is said to have L as its label or to be labeled L). A *program* is a list (i.e., a finite sequence) of instructions. The length of this list is called the *Length* of the progra. It is useful to include the *empty program* of length 0, which of course contains no instructions.

A *state of a program* \mathcal{P} is a list of equations of the form $V = m$, where V is a variable and m is a number, including an equation for each variable that occurs in \mathcal{P} and including no two equations with the same variable. As an example, let \mathcal{P} be the program which contains the variables $X \ Y \ Z$. (The definition of *state* does not require that the state can actually be "attained" from some initial state.) The list

$$X = 3, \quad Z = 3$$

is *not* a state of \mathcal{P} since no equation in Y occurs. Likewise, the list

$$X = 3, \quad X = 4, \quad Y = 2, \quad Z = 2$$

is *not* a state of \mathcal{P} : there are two equations in X .

Let σ be a state of \mathcal{P} and let V be a variable that occurs in σ . The *value of V at σ* is then the (unique) number q such that the equation $V = q$ is one of the equations making up σ .

Suppose we have a program \mathcal{P} and a state σ of \mathcal{P} . In order to say what happens "next," we also need to know which instruction of \mathcal{P} is about to be executed. We therefore define a *snapshot* or *instantaneous description* of a program \mathcal{P} of length n to be a pair (i, σ) where $1 \leq i \leq n + 1$, and σ is a state of \mathcal{P} .

If $s = (i, \sigma)$ is a snapshot of \mathcal{P} and V is a variable of \mathcal{P} , then the *value of V at s* just means the value of V at σ .

A snapshot (i, σ) of a program \mathcal{P} of length n is called *terminal* if $i = n + 1$. If (i, σ) is a nonterminal snapshot of \mathcal{P} , we define the *successor* of (i, σ) to be the snapshot (j, τ) defined as follows:

- Case 1.* The i th instruction of \mathcal{P} is $V \leftarrow V + 1$ and σ contains the equation $V = m$. Then $j = i + 1$ and τ is obtained from σ by replacing the equation $V = m$ by $V = m + 1$ (i.e., the value of V at τ is $m + 1$).
- Case 2.* The i th instruction of \mathcal{P} is $V \leftarrow V - 1$ and σ contains the equation $V = m$. Then $j = i + 1$ and τ is obtained from σ by replacing the equation $V = m$ by $V = m - 1$ if $m \neq 0$; if $m = 0$, $\tau = \sigma$.
- Case 3.* The i th instruction of \mathcal{P} is $V \leftarrow V$. Then $\tau = \sigma$ and $j = i + 1$.
- Case 4.* The i th instruction of \mathcal{P} is IF $V \neq 0$ GOTO L . Then $\tau = \sigma$, and there are two subcases:
 - Case 4a.* σ contains the equation $V = 0$. Then $j = i + 1$.
 - Case 4b.* σ contains the equation $V = m$ where $m \neq 0$. Then, if there is an instruction of \mathcal{P} labeled L , j is the *least number* such that the j th instruction of \mathcal{P} is labeled L . Otherwise, $j = n + 1$.

A *computation* of a program \mathcal{P} is defined to be a sequence (i.e., a list) s_1, s_2, \dots, s_k of snapshots of \mathcal{P} such that s_{i+1} is the successor of s_i for $i = 1, 2, \dots, k - 1$ and s_k is terminal.

Note that we have not forbidden a program to contain more than one instruction having the same label. However, our definition of successor of a snapshot, in effect, interprets a branch instruction as always referring to the *first* statement in the program having the label in question.

4 Computable Functions

One would expect a program that computes a function of m variables to contain the input variables X_1, X_2, \dots, X_m , and the output variable Y , and to have all other variables (if any) in the program to be local.

Thus, let \mathcal{P} be any program in the language \mathcal{L} and let r_1, \dots, r_m be m given numbers. We form the state σ of \mathcal{P} which consists of the equations

$$X_1 = r_1, \quad X_2 = r_2, \quad \dots, \quad X_m = r_m, \quad Y = 0$$

together with the equations $V = 0$ for each variable V in \mathcal{P} other than X_1, \dots, X_m, Y . We will call this the *initial state*, and the snapshot $(1, \sigma)$, the *initial snapshot*.

- Case 1. *There is a computation s_1, s_2, \dots, s_k of \mathcal{P} beginning with the initial snapshot.* Then we write $\psi_{\mathcal{P}}^{(m)}(r_1, \dots, r_m)$ for the value of the variable Y at the (terminal) snapshot s_k .
- Case 2. *There is no such computation; i.e., there is an infinite sequence s_1, s_2, s_3, \dots beginning with the initial snapshot where each s_{i+1} is the successor of s_i .* In this case $\psi_{\mathcal{P}}^{(m)}(r_1, \dots, r_m)$ is undefined.

For any program \mathcal{P} and any positive integer m , the function $\psi_{\mathcal{P}}^{(m)}(r_1, \dots, r_m)$ is said to be *computed* by \mathcal{P} . A given partial function g (of one or more variables) is said to be *partially computable* if it is computed by some program.

A given function g of m variables is called *total* if $g(r_1, \dots, r_m)$ is defined for *all* r_1, \dots, r_m . A function is said to be *computable* if it is both partially computable and total.

Partially computable functions are also called *partial recursive*, and computable functions, i.e., functions that are both total and partial recursive, are called *recursive*.

5 More about Macros

We now see how to augment our language to include macros of the form

$$\text{IF } P(V_1, \dots, V_n) \text{ GOTO } L$$

where $P(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ is a computable predicate. Here we are making use of the convention that

$$\text{TRUE} = 1, \quad \text{FALSE} = 0.$$

Hence predicates are just total functions whose values are always either 0 or 1. And therefore, it makes perfect sense to say that some given *predicate* is or is not computable.

CHAPTER 3

PRIMITIVE RECURSIVE FUNCTIONS

1 Composition

We want to combine computable functions in such a way that the output of one becomes an input to another. In the simplest case we combine functions f and g to obtain the function

$$h(x) = f(g(x)).$$

More generally, for functions of several variables:

Definition 1.1

Let f be a function of k variables and let g_1, \dots, g_k be functions of n variables. Let

$$h(x_1, \dots, x_n) = f(g_1(x_1, \dots, x_n), \dots, g_k(x_1, \dots, x_n)).$$

Then h is said to be obtained from f and g_1, \dots, g_k by *composition*.

Theorem 1.2

If h is obtained from the (partially) computable functions f, g_1, \dots, g_k by composition, then h is (partially) computable.

The word *partially* is placed in parentheses in order to assert the correctness of the statement with the word included or omitted in both places.

2 Recursion

Suppose k is some fixed number and

$$\begin{aligned} h(0) &= k, \\ h(t+1) &= g(t, h(t)), \end{aligned} \tag{3.1}$$

where g is some given *total* function of two variables. Then h is said to be obtained from g by *primitive recursion*, or simply *recursion*.

Theorem 2.1

Let h be obtained from g as in (3.1), and let g be computable. Then h is also computable.

A slightly more complicated kind of recursion is involved when we have

$$\begin{aligned} h(x_1, \dots, x_n, 0) &= f(x_1, \dots, x_n), \\ h(x_1, \dots, x_n, t+1) &= g(t, h(x_1, \dots, x_n, t), x_1, \dots, x_n). \end{aligned} \quad (3.2)$$

Here the function h of $n+1$ variables is said to be obtained by *primitive recursion*, or simply *recursion*, from the total functions f (of n variables) and g (of $n+2$ variables). Again we have

Theorem 2.2

Let h be obtained from f and g as in (3.2) and let f, g be computable. Then h is also computable.

3 PRC Classes

Now we need some functions on which to get started. These will be

$$\begin{aligned} s(x) &= x + 1, \\ n(x) &= 0, \end{aligned}$$

and the *projection functions*

$$u_i^n(x_1, \dots, x_n) = x_i, \quad 1 \leq i \leq n.$$

The functions s, n , and u_i^n are called the *initial functions*.

Definition 3.1

A class of total functions \mathcal{C} is called a *PRC class* if

1. the initial functions belong to \mathcal{C} .
2. a function obtained from functions belonging to \mathcal{C} by either composition or recursion also belongs to \mathcal{C} .

Then we have

Theorem 3.2

The class of computable functions is a PRC class.

Definition 3.3

A function is called *primitive recursive* if it can be obtained from the initial functions by a finite number of applications of composition and recursion.

It is obvious from this definition that

Corollary 3.4

The class of primitive recursive functions is a PRC class.

Actually we can say more:

Theorem 3.5

A function is primitive recursive if and only if it belongs to every PRC class.

Corollary 3.6

Every primitive recursive function is computable.

4 Some Primitive Recursive Functions

The *predecessor function* $p(x)$ is defined as follows:

$$p(x) = \begin{cases} x - 1 & \text{if } x \neq 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0. \end{cases}$$

5 Primitive Recursive Predicates

Theorem 5.1

Let \mathcal{C} be a PRC class. If P, Q are predicates that belong to \mathcal{C} , then so are $\sim P$, $P \vee Q$, and $P \& Q$.

A result which refers to PRC classes can be applied to the two classes we have shown to be PRC. That is, taking \mathcal{C} to be the class of all primitive recursive functions, we have

Corollary 5.2

If P, Q are primitive recursive predicates, then so are $\sim P$, $P \vee Q$, and $P \& Q$.

Similarly taking \mathcal{C} to be the class of all computable functions, we have

Corollary 5.3

If P, Q are computable predicates, then so are $\sim P$, $P \vee Q$, and $P \& Q$.

Theorem 5.4: Definition by Cases

Let \mathcal{C} be a PRC class. Let the function g, h and the predicate P belong to \mathcal{C} . Let

$$f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \begin{cases} g(x_1, \dots, x_n) & \text{if } P(x_1, \dots, x_n) \\ h(x_1, \dots, x_n) & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Then f belongs to \mathcal{C} .

This will be recognized as a version of the familiar "if...then..., else..." statement.

Corollary 5.5

Let \mathcal{C} be a PRC class, let n -ary functions g_1, \dots, g_m, h and predicates P_1, \dots, P_m belong to \mathcal{C} , and let

$$P_i(x_1, \dots, x_n) \& P_j(x_1, \dots, x_n) = 0$$

for all $1 \leq i < j \leq m$ and all x_1, \dots, x_n . If

$$f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \begin{cases} g_1(x_1, \dots, x_n) & \text{if } P_1(x_1, \dots, x_n) \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ g_m(x_1, \dots, x_n) & \text{if } P_m(x_1, \dots, x_n) \\ h(x_1, \dots, x_n) & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

then f also belongs to \mathcal{C} .

6 Iterated Operations and Bounded Quantifiers**Theorem 6.1**

Let \mathcal{C} be a PRC class. If $f(t, x_1, \dots, x_n)$ belongs to \mathcal{C} , then so do the functions

$$g(y, x_1, \dots, x_n) = \sum_{t=0}^y f(t, x_1, \dots, x_n)$$

and

$$h(y, x_1, \dots, x_n) = \prod_{t=0}^y f(t, x_1, \dots, x_n).$$

A common error is to attempt to prove this by using mathematical induction on y . A little reflection reveals that such an argument by induction shows that

$$g(0, x_1, \dots, x_n), g(1, x_1, \dots, x_n), \dots$$

all belong to \mathcal{C} , but not that the function $g(y, x_1, \dots, x_n)$, one of whose arguments is y , belongs to \mathcal{C} .

Sometimes we will want to begin the summation (or product) at 1 instead of 0. Then

the initial recursion equations can be taken to be

$$g(0, x_1, \dots, x_n) = 0,$$

$$h(0, x_1, \dots, x_n) = 1,$$

with the equations for $g(t+1, x_1, \dots, x_n)$ and $h(t+1, x_1, \dots, x_n)$. Note that we are implicitly defining a vacuous sum to be 0 and a vacuous product to be 1. With this understanding we have proved

Corollary 6.2

If $f(t, x_1, \dots, x_n)$ belongs to the PRC class \mathcal{C} , then so do the functions

$$g(y, x_1, \dots, x_n) = \sum_{t=1}^y f(t, x_1, \dots, x_n)$$

and

$$h(y, x_1, \dots, x_n) = \prod_{t=1}^y f(t, x_1, \dots, x_n).$$

We have

Theorem 6.3

If the predicate $P(t, x_1, \dots, x_n)$ belongs to some PRC class \mathcal{C} , then so do the predicates

$$(\forall t)_{\leq y} P(t, x_1, \dots, x_n) \quad \text{and} \quad (\exists t)_{\leq y} P(t, x_1, \dots, x_n).$$

The predicate " x is a prime" is primitive recursive since

$$\text{Prime}(x) \Leftrightarrow x > 1 \& (\forall t)_{\leq x} \{t = 1 \vee t = x \vee \sim (t|x)\}$$

(A number is a *prime* if it is greater than 1 and it has no divisors other than 1 and itself.)

7 Minimalization

Let $P(t, x_1, \dots, x_n)$ belong to some given PRC class \mathcal{C} . Then by Theorem 6.1, the function

$$g(y, x_1, \dots, x_n) = \sum_{u=0}^y \prod_{t=0}^u \alpha(P(t, x_1, \dots, x_n))$$

also belongs to \mathcal{C} . Suppose for definiteness that for some value of $t_0 \leq y$,

$$P(t, x_1, \dots, x_n) = 0 \quad \text{for } t < t_0$$

but

$$P(t_0, x_1, \dots, x_n) = 1,$$

i.e., that t_0 is the least value of $t \leq y$ for which $P(t, x_1, \dots, x_n)$ is true. Then

$$\prod_{t=0}^u \alpha(P(t, x_1, \dots, x_n)) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } u < t_0 \\ 0 & \text{if } u \geq t_0. \end{cases}$$

Hence,

$$g(y, x_1, \dots, x_n) = \sum_{u < t_0} 1 = t_0,$$

so that $g(y, x_1, \dots, x_n)$ is the least value of t for which $P(t, x_1, \dots, x_n)$ is true. Now, we define

$$\min_{t \leq y} P(t, x_1, \dots, x_n) = \begin{cases} g(y, x_1, \dots, x_n) & \text{if } (\exists t)_{\leq y} P(t, x_1, \dots, x_n) \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Thus, $\min_{t \leq y} P(t, x_1, \dots, x_n)$ is the least value of $t \leq y$ for which $P(t, x_1, \dots, x_n)$ is true, if such exists; otherwise it assumes the (default) value 0. Using Theorems 5.4 and 6.3, we have

Theorem 7.1

If $P(t, x_1, \dots, x_n)$ belongs to some PRC class \mathcal{C} and $f(y, x_1, \dots, x_n) = \min_{t \leq y} P(t, x_1, \dots, x_n)$, then f also belongs to \mathcal{C} .

The operation " $\min_{t \leq y}$ " is called *bounded minimalization*.

$R(x, y)$ is the *remainder* when x is divided by y .

Here, for $n > 0$, p_n is the n th prime number (in order of size). So that p_n be a total function, we set $p_0 = 0$.

Consider the recursion equations

$$\begin{aligned} p_0 &= 0, \\ p_{n+1} &= \min_{t \leq p_n! + 1} [\text{Prime}(t) \& t > p_n]. \end{aligned}$$

To see that these equations are correct we must verify the inequality

$$p_{n+1} \leq (p_n)! + 1. \quad (3.3)$$

We write

$$\min_y P(x_1, \dots, x_n, y)$$

for the least value of y for which the predicate P is true *if there is one*. *If there is no value of y for which $P(x_1, \dots, x_n, y)$ is true, then $\min_y P(x_1, \dots, x_n, y)$ is undefined.*