

## Lessons touched by this meeting according to schedule

- 6. 28/10/2024
  - Generation of computable functions
    - Primitive recursion and examples [§2.4]
    - Definition by cases. Algebra of Decidability. Bounded sums and products.
    - Bounded quantification [§2.4.6, §2.4.7, §2.4.10]
    - Bounded minimalisation [§2.4.12, §2.4.13, §2.4.14, §2.4.15]
- 7. 29/10/2024
  - Generation of computable functions
    - Unbounded minimalisation [§2.5]
    - Computability of the inverse function. Finite functions and their computability.
  - Partial recursive functions [§3.1, §3.2, §3.7]
    - Definition
    - The class of partial recursive functions coincide with the class of URM-computable functions [statement and some ideas]

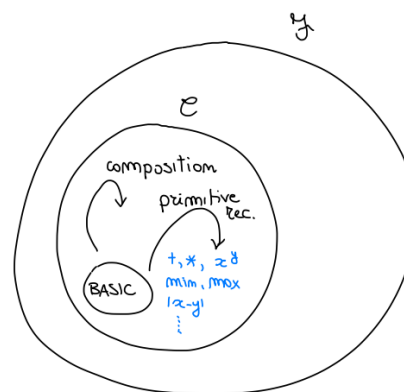
Class  $\mathcal{C}$  of URM-computable functions

\* contains the BASIC FUNCTIONS

- (a) zero
- (b) successor
- (c) projections

\* closed under

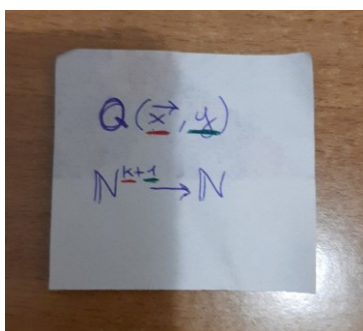
- (1) (generalised) composition
- (2) primitive recursion
- (3) (unbounded) minimisation



What we learn as important concepts here:

- If a function is defined by cases, then every part can be also seen as decidable predicate, so everything is computable
  - Meaning of vectors defined functions
  - Meaning of characteristic functions
- Algebra of decidable predicates (important when you will see Rice-Shapiro)
  - $\neg Q \rightarrow$  *negated sign of  $X_Q$*
  - $Q_1 \wedge Q_2 \rightarrow$  *product*
  - $Q_1 \vee Q_2 \rightarrow$  *sum*

Based on the notation shown in the image, this appears to be representing:



1.  $Q(\bar{x}, y)$  - A predicate or relation  $Q$  taking a vector  $\bar{x}$  (representing multiple inputs  $x_1, \dots, x_k$ ) and  $y$  as arguments
2.  $N^{k+1} \rightarrow N$  - A function mapping from  $k+1$ -dimensional natural numbers to natural numbers

Exercises on the predicates become important ahead:

- a. Provide the definition of a decidable predicate.
  - b. Provide the definition of a semi-decidable predicate.
  - c. Is it true that if the predicates  $P(\vec{x}), Q(\vec{x}) \subseteq \mathbb{N}^k$  are decidable then also their logical implication  $R(\vec{x}) \equiv P(\vec{x}) \Rightarrow Q(\vec{x})$  is decidable? Does the same result hold for semi-decidability, i.e., if  $P(\vec{x}), Q(\vec{x})$  are semi-decidable then  $R(\vec{x}) \equiv P(\vec{x}) \Rightarrow Q(\vec{x})$  is semi-decidable?
3. Assume that  $P(\vec{x}), Q(\vec{x}) \subseteq \mathbb{N}^k$  are decidable. Then also their logical implication  $R(\vec{x}) \equiv P(\vec{x}) \Rightarrow Q(\vec{x})$  is decidable. In fact,  $P(\vec{x}) \Rightarrow Q(\vec{x})$  is logically equivalent to  $\neg P(\vec{x}) \vee Q(\vec{x})$  and we know that decidable predicates are closed by negation and disjunction.

For the second part of the question, since in particular, if we take  $Q(\vec{x}) \equiv \text{false}$  and  $P(\vec{x})$ , semi-decidable then  $R(\vec{x}) \equiv P(\vec{x}) \Rightarrow \text{false} \equiv \neg P(\vec{x})$ . Hence, since semi-decidable predicates are not closed by negation, the property does not generalise to semi-decidability (for an example, take  $P(x) = "x \in K"$  which is decidable, but  $Q(x) \equiv \text{false}$  and  $P(x) \equiv "x \notin K"$  is not semi-decidable).

Sum and product need to be bounded, which means it has to hold for all subpredicates. Clarification on notation being used:

(1) For  $g(\vec{x}, y) = \sum_{z < y} f(\vec{x}, z)$ : The function can be defined by primitive recursion as:

$$g(\vec{x}, 0) = 0$$

$$g(\vec{x}, y+1) = g(\vec{x}, y) + f(\vec{x}, y)$$

Both the base case and step case use computable functions:

- The constant 0 function is computable (basic function)
- $f$  is computable by hypothesis
- Addition is computable
- The composition of computable functions is computable

Therefore  $g$  is computable by primitive recursion.

(2) For  $h(\vec{x}, y) = \prod_{z < y} f(\vec{x}, z)$ : Similarly, this function can be defined by primitive recursion as:

$$h(\vec{x}, 1) = 1$$

$$h(\vec{x}, y+1) = h(\vec{x}, y) \cdot f(\vec{x}, y)$$

The components are computable:

- The constant 1 function is computable (basic function)
- $f$  is computable by hypothesis
- Multiplication is computable
- The composition of computable functions is computable

### Exercise (2024-02-16)

Define the class of primitive recursive functions. Using only the definition show that the function  $a : \mathbb{N}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$  defined below is primitive recursive

$$a(x, y) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x > 0 \text{ and } y > 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

**Solution:** The class of primitive recursive functions is the least class of functions  $\mathcal{PR} \subseteq \bigcup_k (\mathbb{N}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{N})$  containing the base functions (zero, successor, projections) and closed under composition and primitive recursion.

In order to show that  $f$  is primitive recursive observe that it can be defined as

$$\begin{cases} a(x, 0) &= 0 \\ a(x, y + 1) &= sg(x) \end{cases}$$

where  $sg : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ , is the sign function, which can be defined by primitive recursion as

$$\begin{cases} sg(0) &= 0 \\ sg(y + 1) &= 1 \end{cases}$$

#### Exercise 2

Define the class of primitive recursive functions. Using only the definition show that the function  $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$  defined by  $f(y) = 2y + 1$  is primitive recursive.

The class of primitive recursive functions (PR) is the least class of functions containing:

- (a) The zero function:  $z : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ ,  $z(x) = 0$
- (b) The successor function:  $s : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ ,  $s(x) = x + 1$
- (c) The projection functions:  $U_i^k : \mathbb{N}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ ,  $U_i^k(x_1, \dots, x_k) = x_i$

and closed under:

1. Composition
2. Primitive recursion

Let's define it using composition of primitive recursive functions:

1. First define  $\text{double}(y) = 2y$  by primitive recursion:

$$\text{double}(0) = 0$$

$$\text{double}(y+1) = \text{double}(y) + 2 = (\text{double}(y) + 1) + 1$$

1. This function is primitive recursive as it uses only composition and primitive recursion from basic functions.
2. Then we can express  $f(y) = 2y + 1$  as:  $f(y) = s(\text{double}(y))$  Where  $s$  is the successor function (basic function) and  $\text{double}(y)$  is primitive recursive as shown above.

Since  $f$  is obtained by composition of primitive recursive functions ( $s$  and  $\text{double}$ ), and composition preserves primitive recursion, we conclude that  $f(y) = 2y + 1$  is primitive recursive.

### Esercizio 1

Dare la definizione dell'insieme  $\mathcal{PR}$  delle funzioni primitive ricorsive e dimostrare che è primitiva ricorsiva la funzione  $cpr : \mathbb{N}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$  definita come

$$cpr(x, y) = |\{p \mid x \leq p < y \wedge p \text{ primo}\}|,$$

ovvero  $cpr(x, y)$  è il numero di primi nell'intervallo  $[x, y)$  (si può assumere che somma  $+$  e differenza  $\div$  tra numeri naturali, nonché la funzione caratteristica dell'insieme dei numeri primi  $\chi_{Pr}$  siano primitive ricorsive, senza provarlo). [Suggerimento: Può essere conveniente considerare inizialmente la funzione  $cpr'(x, k) = |\{p \mid x \leq p < x + k \wedge p \text{ primo}\}|]$

### Official solution:

**Soluzione:** Si definisce  $cpr' : \mathbb{N}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ , tale che  $cpr'(x, k) = |\{p \mid x \leq p < x + k \wedge p \text{ primo}\}|$ , per ricorsione primitiva, utilizzando solo funzioni primitive e loro composizioni:

$$\begin{cases} cpr(x, 0) = 0 \\ cpr(x, k + 1) = cpr(x, k) + \chi_{Pr}(x + k) \end{cases}$$

quindi si osserva che  $cpr(x, y) = cpr'(x, y \div x)$ , composizione di funzioni primitive ricorsive è ancora primitiva ricorsiva.  $\square$

### Alternatively:

We can define  $cpr(x, y)$  by adapting the counting approach:

1. First define an auxiliary function  $\text{count} : \mathbb{N}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$  that counts primes in a range while building it:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{count}(x, y, 0) &= 0 \\ \text{count}(x, y, z+1) &= \text{count}(x, y, z) + \chi_{Pr}(z) \cdot \chi_{LE}(x, z) \cdot \chi_{LT}(z, y) \end{aligned}$$

where:

- $\chi_{Pr}$  is characteristic function of primes (given)
- $\chi_{LE}(a, b) = 1$  if  $a \leq b$ , 0 otherwise (primitive recursive)
- $\chi_{LT}(a, b) = 1$  if  $a < b$ , 0 otherwise (primitive recursive)

$\text{count}$  is primitive recursive because:

- Base case uses zero function
- Recursive step uses only primitive recursive functions and operations

2. Then  $cpr(x, y) = \text{count}(x, y, y)$

This is primitive recursive as:

- $\text{count}$  is primitive recursive (shown above)
- It uses only composition with the projection function  $U_2^2$  for  $y$

Therefore  $cpr(x, y)$  is primitive recursive.

We define a URM-Back machine as a URM-like machine with the usual  $Z(n)$ ,  $S(n)$ ,  $T(n, m)$  and  $J(n, m, t)$  instructions, but the  $J(n, m, t)$  instruction is restricted to only backward jumps.

We want to show that the set  $C^B$  of URM-Back computable functions is equal to the set  $C$  of computable functions.

Solution:

1. First, let's prove  $C^B \subseteq C$ : This is straightforward since URM-Back is a restricted version of URM. Any URM-Back program is already a valid URM program with the same semantics, therefore every URM-Back computable function is URM computable.
2. Now, let's prove  $C \subseteq C^B$ : We need to show that any URM program can be transformed into an equivalent URM-Back program. The key is to simulate forward jumps using backward jumps.

Given a URM program  $P$  of length  $n$ , we can construct a URM-Back program  $P'$  as follows:

a) Transform each forward jump instruction  $J(m, n, t)$  into:

- Initialize a counter register  $R_c$  to  $n - t$  (where  $n$  is program length)
- Use a loop with backward jumps that:
  - Decrements  $R_c$
  - Jumps back to decrement again if  $R_c > 0$
  - When  $R_c = 0$ , we've effectively moved forward  $t$  steps

b) Specifically, for a forward jump  $J(m, n, t)$ , replace it with:

```

T(m, k)           // Save comparison values
T(n, k+1)
Z(k+2)           // Initialize counter
T(1, k+3)        // Save original contents
...
J(k, k+1, p)     // Compare original values
J(1, 1, q)       // Backward jump to decrement counter
  
```

where  $p$  points to the start of the counter decrement sequence and  $q$  points to the corresponding target instruction.

This transformation preserves the semantics of the original program, uses only backward jumps and is clearly effective (can be done algorithmically). Therefore  $C = C^B$ .

Now, for an important concept: bounded minimalization.

Given a total function  $f : \mathbb{N}^{k+1} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ , we define a function  $h : \mathbb{N}^{k+1} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$  as follows:

$$h(\vec{x}, y) = \mu z < y. f(\vec{x}, z) = \begin{cases} \text{minimum } z < y \text{ such that } f(\vec{x}, z) = 0 & \text{if it exists} \\ y & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

In plain English, this means we are only using bounded operations (sums, products):

1. We're looking for the smallest value of  $z$  that is less than  $y$  where  $f(\vec{x}, z) = 0$
2. If no such  $z$  exists (i.e.,  $f(\vec{x}, z) \neq 0$  for all  $z < y$ ), then  $h$  returns  $y$

The key differences from unbounded minimalization are:

- The search is bounded by  $y$
- The function  $h$  is always total because:
  - Either we find a  $z < y$  where  $f(\vec{x}, z) = 0$
  - Or we hit the bound  $y$  and return it
- We don't have the issue of divergence that exists with unbounded minimalization

a)  $D(x) = \text{number of divisors of } x$

b)  $Pr(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & x \text{ is prime} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (x \text{ prime is decidable})$

PROOF. a)  $D(x) = \sum_{y \leq x} div(y, x)$

b)  $Pr(x)$  is 1 if  $x > 1$  and is divided only by 1 and itself

$$Pr(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & D(x) = 2 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} = sg(|D(x) - 2|)$$

Fibonacci function introduces the concept of  $\pi \rightarrow$  pair encoding, basically at an inductive step defining recursion on a couple of previously defined values

Unbounded minimalization ( $\mu y.f(\vec{x}, y)$ ) searches for the smallest  $y$  where  $f(\vec{x}, y) = 0$ , but unlike bounded minimalization, this search has no upper limit. This is equivalent to a while loop:

```
y = 0
while (f(x̄, y) ≠ 0) {
  y++
}
return y
```

The key difference from bounded minimalization is that this search might:

- Never find a solution (no  $y$  makes  $f(\vec{x}, y) = 0$ )
- Never terminate (hit a value where  $f(\vec{x}, y)$  is undefined)

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \sqrt{x} & \text{se } x \text{ è un quadrato} \\ \uparrow & \text{altrimenti} \end{cases}$$

```
f(x, y) = |x - y²|
μy. f(x, y) = {
  √x   if x is a perfect square
  ↑    otherwise
}
```

This works because:

- If  $x$  is a perfect square (like 16), it will find  $y$  (4) where  $y^2 = x$
- If  $x$  is not a perfect square (like 5), it will never find such a  $y$
- The function continues searching indefinitely until it either finds a solution or determines none exists - it captures the idea of "searching until a condition is met" without a known upper bound

Comment on:

DEFINITION 7.1 (Partially recursive functions). The class  $\mathcal{R}$  of **partially recursive functions** is the least class of partial functions on the natural numbers which contains

- (a) zero function;
- (b) successor;
- (c) projections

and **closed** under

- (1) composition;
- (2) primitive recursion;
- (3) minimalisation.

We argue that the above is a well given definition.

DEFINITION 7.2 (Rich class). A class of functions  $\mathcal{A}$  is said to be **rich** if it includes (a),(b) and (c) and it is closed under (1), (2) and (3).

DEFINITION 8.1 (Primitive recursive functions). The class of *primitive recursive functions* is the smallest class of functions  $\mathcal{PR}$  containing

- (a) zero function
- (b) successor
- (c) projections

and closed under

- (1) composition
- (2) primitive recursion

## Exercise 2

Give the definition of the class  $\mathcal{PR}$  of primitive recursive functions. Show that the following functions are in  $\mathcal{PR}$

1.  $isqrt : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$  such that  $isqrt(x) = \lfloor \sqrt{x} \rfloor$ ;
2.  $lp : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$  such that  $lp(x)$  is the largest prime divisor of  $x$  (Conventionally,  $lp(0) = lp(1) = 1$ .)

You can assume primitive recursiveness of the basic arithmetic functions seen in the course.

## Solution:

1. The basic observation is that  $isqrt(x)$  is largest  $y$  such that  $y^2 \leq x$  and in turn this is the smallest  $y$  such that  $y^2 > x$ . In addition, it is immediate to realise that such a  $y$  is bounded by  $x$ , hence we get

$$isqrt(x) = \mu y < x + 1. ((y + 1)^2 > x) = \mu y < x + 1. \overline{sg}(((y + 1)^2 \dot{-} x))$$

2. Observe that, for  $x > 1$ ,  $lp(x)$  is surely smaller or equal to  $p_x$ . Hence one can count the prime divisors of  $x$ , restricting the search to  $p_1, \dots, p_x$ :

$$count(x) = \sum_{i=1}^x div(p_i, x)$$

and then  $lp(x) = p_{count(x)}$ . The function needs to be adjusted for  $x = 0$  and  $x = 1$ , where  $count(x) = 0$  and thus  $p_{count(x)} = 0$  while  $lp(x) = 1$ . This is easily done as follows:

$$lp(x) = p_{count(x)} + \overline{sg}(x \dot{-} 1).$$

Since we use only known primitive recursive functions, bounded sum and composition we conclude that  $lp$  is primitive recursive.

Alternatively, the idea can be to check explicitly the prime divisors of  $x$ , starting from  $p_x$ , then  $p_{x-1}$  and so on, stopping at the first. In detail, look for the smaller  $y$ , call it  $i(x)$ , such that  $p_{x-y}$  is a divisor of  $x$ .

$$i(x) = \mu y \leq x. \overline{sg}(div(p_{x-y}, x))$$

Then, whenever  $x > 1$ ,  $lp(x) = p_{x-i(x)}$  and the cases  $x \leq 1$  must be treated separately as before:

$$lp(x) = p_{x-i(x)} \cdot sg(x \dot{-} 1) + \overline{sg}(x \dot{-} 1).$$

Taken from an Italian exam (2018-11-20-parziale):

Si consideri una variante della macchina URM, che comprende le istruzioni di salto, trasferimento e due nuove istruzioni

- $A(m, n)$  che scrive nel registro  $m$  la somma dei registri  $m$  e  $n$ , ovvero  $r_m \leftarrow r_m + r_n$ ;
- $C(n)$  che scrive nel registro  $n$  il valore del suo segno negato, ovvero  $r_n \leftarrow \overline{sg}(r_n)$ .

Dire quale relazione sussiste tra l'insieme  $\mathcal{C}'$  delle funzioni calcolabili con la nuova macchina e l'insieme  $\mathcal{C}$  delle funzioni calcolabili con la macchina URM. Sono uno contenuto nell'altro? L'inclusione è stretta? Motivare le risposte.



**Soluzione:** Indichiamo con  $URM^*$  la macchina modificata. Osserviamo che le istruzioni della macchina  $URM^*$  sono codificabili nella macchina  $URM$ .

L'istruzione  $I_j : A(m, n)$  si può sostituire con un salto alla seguente routine: detto  $q$  l'indice del primo registro non usato dal programma (quindi inizialmente a 0)

$$\begin{array}{lcl} SUB & : & J(n, q, j + 1) \\ & & S(m) \\ & & S(q) \\ & & J(1, 1, SUB) \end{array}$$

Allo stesso modo, indicando ancora con  $q$  l'indice di un registro non utilizzato, un'istruzione  $I_j : C(m)$  si può sostituire con un salto alla subroutine

$$\begin{array}{lcl} SUB & : & J(n, q, ZERO) \\ & & Z(n) \\ & & J(1, 1, j + 1) \\ ZERO & : & S(n) \\ & & J(1, 1, j + 1) \end{array}$$

Più formalmente, si prova che  $\mathcal{C}^* \subseteq \mathcal{C}$  dimostrando che, per ogni numero di argomenti  $k$  per ogni un programma  $P$  che utilizzi entrambi i set di istruzioni si può ottenere un programma  $URM$   $P'$  che calcola la stessa funzione ovvero tale che  $f_{P'}^{(k)} = f_P^{(k)}$ .

La prova procede per induzione sul numero  $h$  di istruzioni  $A$  e  $C$  nel programma. Il caso base  $h = 0$  è banale, dato che  $P$  con 0 istruzioni  $A$  e  $C$  è già un programma  $URM$ . Supposto vero il risultato per  $h$  dimostriamolo per  $h+1$ . Il programma  $P$  contiene certamente almeno una istruzione  $A$  o una istruzione  $C$ . Supponiamo che sia l'istruzione di indice  $j$  e sia una istruzione  $A$ .

$$\begin{array}{lcl} 1 & : & I_1 \\ & \dots & \\ j & : & A(m, n) \\ & \dots & \\ \ell(P) & : & I_{\ell(P)} \end{array}$$

Costruiamo un programma  $P''$ , utilizzando un registro non riferito da  $P$ ,  $q = \max\{\rho(P), k\} + 1$

$$\begin{array}{lcl} 1 & : & I_1 \\ & \dots & \\ j & : & J(1, 1, SUB) \\ & \dots & \\ \ell(P) & : & I_{\ell(P)} \\ & & J(1, 1, END) \\ SUB & : & J(n, q, ZERO) \\ & & Z(n) \\ & & J(1, 1, j + 1) \\ ZERO & : & S(n) \\ & & J(1, 1, j + 1) \\ END & : & \end{array}$$

Il programma  $P''$  è tale che  $f_{P''}^{(k)} = f_P^{(k)}$  e contiene  $h$  istruzioni di tipo  $A$  o  $C$ . Per ipotesi induttiva, esiste un programma URM  $P'$  tale che  $f_{P'}^{(k)} = f_{P''}^{(k)}$  che quindi è il programma desiderato.

Se l'istruzione  $I_j$  è di tipo  $C$  si procede in modo completamente analogo, rimpiazzando l'istruzione con la sua codifica e usando l'ipotesi induttiva.

Per l'inclusione opposta  $\mathcal{C} \subseteq \mathcal{C}^*$  si osserva, analogamente, che le istruzioni  $Z(n)$  e  $S(n)$  sono codificabili nella macchina modificata.

più precisamente, dato un programma  $P$  e detti  $q_1$  e  $q_2$  indici di registri non usati dal programma (quindi inizialmente a 0), si considera il programma

$C(q_1)$     // fa in modo che  $q_1$  contenga 1  
 $P'$

dove  $P'$  è ottenuto da  $P$  sostituendo ogni istruzione  $Z(m)$  con  $T(q_2, m)$  e ogni istruzione  $S(m)$  con  $A(m, q_1)$ . □

### Esercizio 1

Si consideri una variante  $URM^P$  della macchina URM nella quale l'istruzione di azzeramento  $Z(n)$  è sostituita dell'istruzione di predecessore  $P(n)$  che decrementa il contenuto del registro  $n$ , ovvero  $r_n \leftarrow r_n \div 1$ . Indicato con  $\mathcal{C}^P$  l'insieme delle funzioni calcolabili dalla macchina  $URM^P$ , stabilire la relazione tra  $\mathcal{C}^P$  e l'insieme delle funzioni URM-calcolabili  $\mathcal{C}$ . Sono uno contenuto nell'altro? L'inclusione è stretta? Motivare le risposte.

**Soluzione:** Dato che l'istruzione  $P(n)$  è codificabile nella macchina URM, chiaramente  $\mathcal{C}^P \subseteq \mathcal{C}$ . Più precisamente l'istruzione  $I_j : P(n)$  si può sostituire con un salto alla seguente routine. Si indichi con  $q$  l'indice del primo registro non usato dal programma (quindi inizialmente a 0)

$SUB$     :  $J(n, q, RIS)$   
           $S(q + 1)$   
 $LOOP$  :  $J(n, q + 1, RIS)$   
           $S(q)$   
           $S(q + 1)$   
           $J(1, 1, LOOP)$   
 $RIS$     :  $T(q, n)$   
           $J(1, 1, j + 1)$

La routine controlla se il registro  $n$  contiene 0. In caso affermativo non c'è niente da fare. Altrimenti, con  $R_q$  che parte da 0 e  $R_{q+1}$  da 1, continua ad incrementare i due registri. Quando  $R_{q+1}$  eguaglia  $R_n$ , avremo che  $R_q$  contiene il predecessore.

Più formalmente, si prova che  $\mathcal{C}^P \subseteq \mathcal{C}$  dimostrando che, per ogni numero di argomenti  $k$  per ogni programma  $URM^P$   $P$  si può ottenere un programma URM  $P'$  che calcola la stessa funzione ovvero tale che  $f_{P'}^{(k)} = f_P^{(k)}$ .

La prova procede per induzione sul numero  $h$  di istruzioni  $P$  nel programma  $P$ . Il caso base  $h = 0$  è banale, dato che  $P$  con 0 istruzioni, è già un programma URM. Supposto vero il risultato per  $h$  dimostriamolo per  $h + 1$ . Il programma  $P$  contiene certamente almeno una istruzione  $P$ . Supponiamo che sia l'istruzione di indice  $j$ .

1        :  $I_1$   
           $\dots$   
 $j$         :  $P(n)$   
           $\dots$   
 $\ell(P)$  :  $I_{\ell(P)}$

Costruiamo un programma  $P''$ , utilizzando un registro non riferito da  $P$ ,  $q = \max\{\rho(P), k\} + 1$

1	:	$I_1$
		$\dots$
$j$	:	$J(1, 1, SUB)$
		$\dots$
$\ell(P)$	:	$I_{\ell(P)}$
		$J(1, 1, END)$
$SUB$	:	$J(n, q, RIS)$
		$S(q+1)$
$LOOP$	:	$J(n, q+1, RIS)$
		$S(q)$
		$S(q+1)$
		$J(1, 1, LOOP)$
$RIS$	:	$T(q, n)$
		$J(1, 1, j+1)$
$END$	:	

Il programma  $P''$  è un programma  $URM^P$  tale che  $f_{P''}^{(k)} = f_P^{(k)}$  e contiene  $h$  istruzioni di tipo  $P$ . Per ipotesi induttiva, esiste un programma  $URM P'$  tale che  $f_{P'}^{(k)} = f_{P''}^{(k)}$  che quindi è il programma desiderato.

Vale anche l'inclusione opposta e quindi l'uguaglianza. Infatti l'istruzione  $Z(n)$  può essere sostituita semplicemente da un'istruzione  $T(q, n)$ , dove  $q$  è un qualunque registro non usato dal programma e quindi a 0. Più precisamente, dato un programma  $URM P$  e un numero di argomenti fissato  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ , detto  $q = \max\{\rho(P), k\} + 1$  l'indice del primo registro non usato e quindi inizialmente a 0, sostituendo in  $P$  ogni istruzione  $Z(n)$  con l'istruzione  $T(q, n)$ , è un programma  $URM^P$  che calcola esattamente la stessa funzione.

### Esercizio 1

Dare la definizione dell'insieme  $\mathcal{PR}$  delle funzioni primitive ricorsive e, utilizzando esclusivamente la definizione, dimostrare che per ogni  $k \geq 2$  è primitiva ricorsiva la funzione  $sum_k : \mathbb{N}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$  definita da  $sum_k(x_1, \dots, x_k) = \sum_{i=1}^k x_i$ .

First recall that PR is the class of primitive recursive functions containing:

- Zero function  $z(x) = 0$
- Successor function  $s(x) = x + 1$
- Projection functions  $U_i^k(x_1, \dots, x_k) = x_i$  and closed under composition and primitive recursion.

We'll proceed by induction on  $k$ :

Base case ( $k = 2$ ): Define  $sum_2(x_1, x_2)$  by primitive recursion on  $x_2$ :

$$sum_2(x_1, 0) = x_1 = U_1^2(x_1, 0)$$

$$sum_2(x_1, y+1) = s(sum_2(x_1, y))$$

This is primitive recursive as it uses only:

- Base case: projection function (basic)
- Recursive step: composition of successor (basic) with recursive call

Inductive step ( $k > 2$ ): Assume  $\text{sum}_{k-1}$  is primitive recursive. Define:

$$\text{sum}_k(x_1, \dots, x_k) = \text{sum}_2(\text{sum}_{k-1}(x_1, \dots, x_{k-1}), x_k)$$

This is primitive recursive because:

- $\text{sum}_{k-1}$  is primitive recursive (inductive hypothesis)
- $\text{sum}_2$  is primitive recursive (base case)
- Their composition is primitive recursive

Therefore, by induction,  $\text{sum}_k$  is primitive recursive for all  $k \geq 2$ .