

The Recursion Theorem

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1 Preliminaries

Definition 1.1. $\mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, \dots\}$ and n^+ is the image of $n \in \mathbb{N}$ under the successor function.

2 Statement and Theorem

Theorem 2.1. *For any set X , if $a \in X$ and $f : X \rightarrow X$, then there exists a function $u : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow X$ such that $u(1) = a$ and $u(n^+) = f(u(n))$ for all other natural numbers n .*

Proof. Let $\mathcal{C} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N} \times X)$ be defined such that $(1, a) \in c$ and $(n^+, f(x)) \in c$ whenever $(n, x) \in c$ for all $c \in \mathcal{C}$. It's clear to see that \mathcal{C} is nonempty since $\mathbb{N} \times X \in \mathcal{C}$ and so we can form the intersection of all sets in \mathcal{C} which we'll call u . Let S be the set of all natural numbers such that if $n \in S$ then there exists $(n, x) \in u$ and if $(n, w), (n, y) \in u$ then $w = y$. We will prove inductively that $S = \mathbb{N}$ which establishes u as a function. Furthermore, given how u is constructed, such a proof gives us exactly the kind of function we are looking for.

Suppose that $(1, b) \in u$, $a \neq b$, and consider the set $M = u \setminus \{(1, b)\}$. We claim that $(n^+, f(x)) \in M$ whenever $(n, x) \in M$. If that weren't the case then some $(n^+, f(x))$ would not be present in M for some $(n, x) \in M$. Well by the definition of M , for all α we have that $(\alpha \in u \wedge \alpha \neq (1, b)) \rightarrow \alpha \in M$ which implies that if $\alpha \notin M$, then $\alpha \notin u \vee \alpha = (1, b)$. Well it can't be the case that $(1, b) = (n^+, f(x))$ since $n^+ \neq 1$ for any natural number n . So then we must conclude that $(n^+, f(x)) \notin u$ which contradicts u 's initial construction since $(n, x) \in u$ by the assumption that $(n, x) \in M$. Therefore, since $(1, a) \in M$ and for any other $(1, b) \in M$ we know that $a = b$, we conclude that $1 \in S$.

Now suppose that $n \in S$ which implies that there is an $(n, x) \in u$ for at most one x . It follows from the definition of u that $(n^+, f(x)) \in u$. Now if n^+ isn't in S , then there exists $(n^+, y) \in u$ such that $f(x) \neq y$. Consider the set $J = u \setminus \{(n^+, y)\}$ and some $(m, t) \in J$. If $m = n$, then $t = x$ since $n \in S$ and so $(n^+, f(x)) = (m^+, f(t)) \in J$. By construction of J , we note that $\alpha \notin J \rightarrow (\alpha \notin u \vee \alpha = (n^+, y))$. So if $m \neq n$, then we know that $m^+ \neq n^+$ by the fourth Peano axiom and so if $(m^+, f(t)) \notin J$ then we must conclude that $(m^+, f(t)) \notin u$ which is a contradiction to the construction of u . So $n^+ \in S$ and by the principle of mathematical induction we conclude that $\mathbb{N} = S$. \square

Corollary 2.1. *The function defined in [Theorem 2.1](#) is unique.*

Proof. Let $a \in X$ and $f : X \rightarrow X$ for some set X . Suppose that there are two functions $F : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow X$ and $G : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow X$ where $F(1) = G(1) = a$, $F(n^+) = f(F(n))$, and $G(n^+) = f(G(n))$ for all natural numbers n . Let $F(1) = G(1)$ be the base case for an inductive proof and suppose $F(n) = G(n)$ for some natural number n . Well then $F(n^+) = f(F(n)) = f(G(n)) = G(n^+)$. So by the principle of mathematical induction, F and G are the same function. \square