

1 Enumerable sets

Let $\mathcal{F} : \mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{F}} \subseteq \omega^k \times \Sigma^{*l} \rightarrow \omega^n \times \Sigma^{*m}$. We define

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{F}_{(i)} : \mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{F}} \subseteq \omega^k \times \Sigma^{*l} &\mapsto \omega & 1 \leq i \leq n \\ \mathcal{F}_{(i)} : \mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{F}} \subseteq \omega^k \times \Sigma^{*l} &\mapsto \Sigma^* & n+1 \leq i \leq n+m \end{aligned}$$

We say a set $S \subseteq \omega^n \times \Sigma^{*m}$ is Σ -effectively enumerable if it is empty or there is a function $\mathcal{F} : \omega \rightarrow \omega^n \times \Sigma^{*m}$ s.t. $Im_{\mathcal{F}} = S$ and $\mathcal{F}_{(i)}$ is Σ -computable for all $1 \leq i \leq n+m$.

Theorem 1 *A non-empty set $S \subseteq \omega^n \times \Sigma^{*m}$ is Σ -effectively enumerable if and only if there is an effective procedure \mathcal{P} s.t.*

- The input space is ω
- \mathcal{P} halts for all $x \in \omega$
- The output set is S —i.e. whenever \mathcal{P} halts, it outputs an element of S , and for every $(\vec{x}, \vec{\alpha}) \in S$ there is some input $x \in \omega$ s.t. $\mathcal{P}(x) \mapsto_{\text{halting}} (\vec{x}, \vec{\alpha})$.

1.1 Prime numbers and enumerable sets

Let $\Sigma \neq \emptyset$ be an alphabet with a total order \leq . Let $S \subseteq \omega^n \times \Sigma^{*m}$ a Σ -mixed set of arbitrary dimensions. Notice that for any n -tuple (x_1, \dots, x_n) , with $x_i \in \omega$, we can find a corresponding $\varphi \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t.

$$\varphi = 2^{x_1} 3^{x_2} \dots pr(n)^{x_n}$$

In other words, (x_1, \dots, x_n) corresponds to the exponents of the n prime factors of a unique natural number. At the same time, the m -tuple $(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_m)$ corresponds to a unique $\psi \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t.

$$\psi = 2^{y_1} 3^{y_2} \dots pr(m)^{y_m}$$

where $\alpha_j = *^{\leq}(y_j)$. In other words, $(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_m)$ corresponds to a unique natural number whose m prime factors have exponents given by the position of each word in the language.

Both of these relations come from the uniqueness of prime factorizations. They provide a way to enumerate Σ -mixed sets. In particular, if S is Σ -total we enumerate it mapping each $x \in \omega$ to $((x)_1, \dots, (x)_n, *^{\leq}((x)_{n+1}), *^{\leq}((x)_m))$. If S is not Σ -total, then one can still enumerate it assuming that it is Σ -computable.

Indeed, one maps x to the corresponding $(n+m)$ -tuple described above if the tuple is in S , and leaves the procedure undefined (or without halt) otherwise. This can be expressed as follows:

Because Σ -total sets are enumerable (as pointed out above), any Σ -mixed set that is Σ -computable is enumerable (via restriction of the Σ -total enumeration).

2 Godel

Definition 1 A set $S_1 \times \dots \times S_n \times L_1 \times \dots \times L_m$ is rectangular if $S_i \subseteq \omega, L_i \subseteq \Sigma^*$ for all i .

Lemma 1 S is rectangular if and only if $(\vec{x}, \vec{\alpha}) \in S \wedge (\vec{y}, \vec{\beta}) \in S$ implies $(\vec{x}, \vec{\beta}) \in S$.

Example. The set $\{(0, \#\#), (1, \% \% \%)\}$ is not rectangular ((1, ##), (0, %%%) are not in S .) Observe how this set cannot be expressed as a product of subsets of ω and Σ . Thus, the concept of *rectangular set* is equivalent to a set formed via *Cartesian product*.

Notation. If $f : \omega_1 \times \dots \times \omega_n \times \alpha_1 \times \alpha_m \rightarrow \Lambda$ we write $f \sim (n, m, \Lambda)$, and read f is of type n, m to Λ .

Notation. If f_1, \dots, f_n Σ -mixed functions, then

$$[f_1, \dots, f_n] (\vec{x}, \vec{\alpha}) = (f_1(\vec{x}, \vec{\alpha}), \dots, f_n(\vec{x}, \vec{\alpha}))$$

The pattern of primitive recursion. Primitive recursion consists of defining any function $R \sim (n, m, *)$ with a base case given by f and a recursive case given by g . f will always *lack the recursion parameter*, so if we are making recursion over numbers, it will have one less numeric argument than R ; if we are making recursion over letters, it will have one less alphabetic argument than R . On the contrary, g will always a recursion over R in its arguments. Thus, if $R \mapsto \omega$, g will have one numeric argument more than R (the value of R in the recursive step); if $R \mapsto \Sigma$, then g will have one alphabetic argument more than R (same).

2.1 Numeric to numeric

Let $R \sim (n, m, \#)$. Then functions $f \sim (n-1, m, \#), g \sim (n+1, m, \#)$ recursively define R if and only if

$$\begin{cases} R(0, \vec{x}, \vec{\alpha}) &= f(\vec{x}, \vec{\alpha}) \\ R(t+1, \vec{x}, \vec{\alpha}) &= g\left(R(t, \vec{x}, \vec{\alpha}), t, \vec{x}, \vec{\alpha}\right) \end{cases}$$

We use the notation $R(f, g)$ to say R is defined by primitive recursion by f and g .

Problem 1 Find functions that recursively define $R = \lambda t [2^t]$

Since $R(1, 0, \#)$ we know $f \sim (0, 0, \#)$ is a constant function and $g \sim (2, 0, \#)$. Since $R(0) = 1$ we know $f = C_1^{0,0}$. Observe that $R(t+1) = R(t) \times 2$. Thus we may let $g = \lambda x [2 \cdot x] \circ p_1^{2,0}$.

Example. $R(2) = \lambda x [2x] \circ p_1^{2,0} (R(1), 2) = 2 \times R(1) = 2 \times (2 \times R(0)) = 2 \times 2 \times 1 = 4$.

Problem 2 Define $R(t) = \lambda t x_1 [x_1^t]$ recursively.

Since $R \sim (2, 0, \#)$ we know $f \sim (1, 0, \#)$ and $g \sim (3, 0, \#)$. Now, $R(0, x_1) = 1 \implies f = C_1^{1,0}$. Since $R(t+1, x_1) = R(t, x_1) \cdot x_1$ we observe that $g = \lambda xy [xy] \circ [p_1^{3,0}, p_3^{3,0}]$. Since each $p_k^{3,0} \sim (3, 0, \#)$ we have that g is of the desired type.

Problem 3 Is it true that $R(\lambda xy [0], p_2^{4,0}) = p_1^{3,0}$?

$R \sim (2, 0, \#); f \sim (2, 0, \#)$. So f cannot be a primitive constructor of R .

Problem 4 Determine true or false: If $f : \omega^2 \rightarrow \omega$ and $g : \omega^4 \rightarrow \omega$, then for each $(x, y) \in \omega^2$ we have

$$R(f, g)(2, x, y) = g \circ \left(g \circ \left[f \circ [p_2^{3,0}, p_2^{3,0}], p_1^{3,0}, p_2^{3,0}, p_3^{3,0} \right] \right) (0, x, y).$$

Passing the arguments into the functions this results in

$$\begin{aligned} R(f, g)(2, x, y) &= g \circ (g \circ [f(x, x), 0, x, y]) \\ &= g \circ (g(f(x, x), 0, x, y)) \end{aligned}$$

But the expression makes no sense, since $\zeta = g(f(x, x), 0, x, y) \in \omega$ is not a function and hence $g \circ \zeta$ is undefined.

2.2 Numeric to alphabet

Let $R \sim (n, m, \Sigma)$. Then functions $f \sim (n-1, m, \Sigma)$, $g \sim (n, m+1, \Sigma)$ recursively define R if and only if

$$\begin{aligned} R(0, \vec{x}, \vec{\alpha}) &= f(\vec{x}, \vec{\alpha}) \\ R(t+1, \vec{x}, \vec{\alpha}) &= g\left(t, \vec{x}, \vec{\alpha}, R(t, \vec{x}, \vec{\alpha})\right) \end{aligned}$$

Problem 5 Let $\Sigma = \{\%, @, ?\}$. Define $R = \lambda t x_1 [\% @ \% \% \% \% ?^t]$ via primitive recursion.

Let $f = C_{\% @ \% \% \% \%}^{1,0}$ and $g = d_? \circ \left[p_3^{2,1} \right]$. For example, $R(3, x_1) = d_? \circ [R(2, x_1)] = d_? \circ [d_? \circ R[1, x_1]] = d_? \circ \left[d_? \circ \left[d_? \circ \left[C_{\% @ \% \% \% \%}^{1,0} \right] \right] \right] = \% @ \% \% \% \% ???$.

Problem 6 True or false: If f, g are Σ -mixed s.t. $R(f, g) \sim (1+n, m, *)$, then $f \sim (n, m, *)$ and $g \sim (n, m+1, *)$.

False. The g function must have the same number of numeric arguments than R .

2.3 Alphabet to numeric

If Σ an alphabet, then a Σ -indexed family of functions is a function \mathcal{G} s.t. $D_{\mathcal{G}} = \Sigma$ and for each $a \in D_{\mathcal{G}}$ there is a function $\mathcal{G}(a)$. We write \mathcal{G}_a instead of $\mathcal{G}(a)$.

If $R \sim (n, m, \omega)$ then R can be recursively defined by $f \sim (n, m - 1, \omega)$ an indexed family \mathcal{G} s.t. $\mathcal{G}_a \sim (n + 1, m, \omega)$ as follows:

$$\begin{cases} R(F, \mathcal{G})(\vec{x}, \vec{\alpha}, \epsilon) = f(\vec{x}, \vec{\alpha}) \\ R(f, \mathcal{G})(\vec{x}, \vec{\alpha}, \alpha a) = \mathcal{G}_a \left(R(\vec{x}, \vec{\alpha}, \alpha), \vec{x}, \vec{\alpha}, \alpha \right) \end{cases}$$

Problem 7 Let $\Sigma = \{\%, @, ?\}$. Find f, \mathcal{G} s.t. $R = \lambda \alpha_1 \alpha [|\alpha_1| + |\alpha|_@]$.

$R \sim (0, 2, \#)$. Since $R(\alpha_1, \epsilon) = |\alpha_1|$ we let $f := \lambda \alpha = |\alpha|$. Now, $g \sim (1, 2, \#)$ is given by $g := \mathcal{G}$ where

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{G} : \Sigma &\rightarrow \{Suc \circ p_1^{1,2}, p_1^{1,2}\} \\ \% &= p_2^{1,2} \\ ? &= p_2^{1,2} \\ @ &= Suc \circ p_2^{1,2} \end{aligned}$$

For example, $R(??, @ \% ? @) = \mathcal{G}_@ (R(@ \% ?), ??, @) = 1 + R(??, @ \% ?)$. This boils down to $1 + R(??, @) = 1 + 1 + R(??, \epsilon) = 2 + |??| = 2$, the desired output.

2.4 Alphabet to alphabet

If $R \sim (n, m, *)$ then $f \sim (n, m - 1, *)$ and \mathcal{G} a Σ -indexed family, with $\mathcal{G}_a \sim (n, m + 1, *)$ for all $a \in \Sigma$, define R via primitive recursion if

$$\begin{cases} R(\vec{x}_n, \vec{\alpha}_{m-1}, \epsilon) &= f(\vec{x}, \vec{\alpha}) \\ R(\vec{x}_n, \vec{\alpha}_{m-1}, \alpha a) &= \mathcal{G}_a(\vec{x}, \vec{\alpha}, \alpha, R(\vec{x}, \vec{\alpha}, \alpha)) \end{cases}$$

Problem 8 Let $\Sigma = \{ @, ? \}$. Define $R = \lambda \alpha_1 \alpha [\alpha_1 \alpha]$ recursively.

Observe that $R \sim (0, 2, *)$. $R(\alpha_1, \epsilon) = \alpha_1 \implies f := \lambda \alpha [\alpha]$. Now, we let $\mathcal{G}_a = d_a \circ p_3^{0,3}$ for all $a \in \Sigma$, and the recursion is complete.

Example. The evaluation for arbitrary inputs looks as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} R(?@?, @?) &= d_? (R(?@?, @)) \\ &= d_? (d_@ (R(?@?, \epsilon))) \\ &= d_? (d_@ (?@?)) \\ &= d_? (?@?@) \\ &=?@?@? \end{aligned}$$

2.5 The point of primitive recursion

Theorem 2 If f, g are Σ -computable then $R(f, g)$ is too.

2.6 The primitive recursive set

Let Σ a language. We define $PR_0^\Sigma = \{ Suc, Pred, C_0^{0,0}, C_\epsilon^{0,0} \} \cup \{ d_a \} \cup \{ p_j^{n,m} \}$. Observe that every $\mathcal{F} \in PR_0^\Sigma$ is Σ -computable. Then we define

$$PR_{k+1}^\Sigma = PR_k^\Sigma \cup \{ f \circ [f_1 \dots f_r] : f \text{ and } f_i \in PR_k^\Sigma \} \cup \{ R(f, g) : f, g \in PR_k^\Sigma \}$$

In other words, PR_k^Σ is the set of all functions that are either compositions of functions in PR_{k-1}^Σ or functions built via primitive recursion by functions in PR_{k-1}^Σ . The total primitive recursive set PR^Σ is defined as $PR^\Sigma = \bigcup_{k \geq 0} PR_k^\Sigma$.

Note. Observe that when we include $R(f, g) : f, g \in PR_k^\Sigma$, we also include the case where $g = \mathcal{G}$ an indexed family of functions.

Observation Due to the previous theorem, we know $\mathcal{F} \in PR \implies \mathcal{F}$ is Σ -computable.

I provide a list of functions that are in PR^Σ for any Σ .

- Addition, multiplication and factorial
- String concatenation and string length
- All constant functions $C_k^{n,m}$ for any $k, n, m \in \omega$.
- Two-variable exponentiation: $\lambda xy [x^y]$.
- Two-variable string exponentiation: $\lambda x\alpha [\alpha^x]$.

With $x - y := \max(x - y, 0)$ the list may continue:

- The maximum of two numeric variables
- The predicates $x = y, x \leq y, \alpha = \beta$.
- The predicate x is even.
- The predicate $x = |\alpha|$.
- The predicate $\alpha^x = \beta$.

2.7 Predicates

The \vee, \wedge operators are defined only for predicates of the same type. In other words, $P \circ Q$, where $\circ \in \{\wedge, \vee\}$, is defined only if $P \sim (n, m, \#) \wedge Q \sim (n, m, \#)$. If P, Q are Σ -p.r. then $P \circ Q$ and $\neg P$ also are. Furthermore, P, Q must have the same domains.

2.8 Primitive recursive sets

A Σ -mixed $S \sim (n, m)$ set is primitive recursive if and only if its characteristic function $\chi_S^{\omega^n \times \Sigma^{m*}}$ is p.r. Recall that $\chi_S^{n,m} = \lambda \vec{x} \vec{\alpha} [(\vec{x}, \vec{\alpha}) \in S]$.

If S_1, S_2 are Σ -p.r. then their union, intersection and difference are. The proof follows from the fact that

$$\begin{aligned}\chi_{S_1 \cup S_2} &= (\chi_{S_1} \vee \chi_{S_2}) \\ \chi_{S_1 \cap S_2} &= (\chi_{S_1} \wedge \chi_{S_2}) \\ \chi_{S_1 - S_2} &= \lambda xy [x - y] \circ [\chi_{S_1}, \chi_{S_2}]\end{aligned}$$

The only property here that may not be immediately intuitive is the last one. But observe that $S_1 - S_2 = \{s \in S_1 : s \notin S_2\}$. Now, let $\chi_{S_1}(\vec{x}, \vec{\alpha}) = a, \chi_{S_2}(\vec{x}, \vec{\alpha}) = b$. Evidently, if the $n + m$ -tuple is in S_1 but not in S_2 , $a - b = 1$. If the tuple is in both sets, $a - b = 0$. Etc.

Theorem 3 A rectangular set $S_1 \times \dots \times S_n \times L_1 \times \dots \times L_m$ is Σ -p.r. if and only if each $S_1, \dots, S_n, L_1, \dots, L_m$ is Σ -p.r.

This theorem is important, insofar as it allows us to evaluate whether a Cartesian product is Σ -p.r. only by looking at its set factors. This theorem should follow from the properties of primitive recursive sets mentioned before.

Theorem 4 If $f \sim (n, m, \Omega)$ is Σ -p.r. (not necessarily Σ -total) and S is a Σ -p.r. set, then $f|_S$ is Σ -p.r.

The previous theorem is useful in proving a function is Σ -p.r. For example, let $P = \lambda x \alpha \beta \gamma [x = |\gamma| \wedge \alpha = \gamma^{Pred(|\beta|)}]$. We cannot use the fact that both predicate functions are Σ -p.r. to conclude that P is Σ -p.r., because $P_1 = \lambda x \alpha [x = |\alpha|]$ and $P_2 = \lambda x \alpha \beta \gamma [\alpha = \gamma^{Pred(|\beta|)}]$ do not have the same domains. Simply observe that β cannot take the value ϵ in P_2 , but it can take in P_1 .

However, observe that $\mathcal{D}_P = \omega \times \Sigma^* \times (\Sigma^* - \epsilon) \times \Sigma^*$. This set is Σ -p.r. because $\chi_{\mathcal{D}_P}^{1,3} = \neg \lambda [\alpha = \beta] \circ [p_3^{1,3}, C_\epsilon^{1,3}]$ is Σ -p.r. Now, we can safely say that $P = P_1|_{\mathcal{D}_P} \wedge P_2$, ensuring with the restriction that both predicates have the same domain. Since \mathcal{D}_P is Σ -p.r. so is $P_1|_{\mathcal{D}_P}$, from which readily follows that so is P . ■

Theorem 5 A set S is Σ -p.r. if and only if it is the domain of a Σ -p.r. function.

2.9 Case division

If f_1, \dots, f_n are s.t. $D_{f_j} \cap D_{f_k} = \emptyset$ for $j \neq k$ and $f_j \mapsto \Omega$, then $\mathcal{F} = f_1 \cup \dots \cup f_n$ is s.t.

$$\mathcal{F} : D_{f_1} \cup \dots \cup D_{f_n} \rightarrow \Omega$$

$$e \rightarrow \begin{cases} f_1(e) & e \in D_{f_1} \\ \vdots \\ f_n(e) & e \in D_{f_n} \end{cases}$$

Under the same constraints, if f_i is Σ -p.r. for all i , then \mathcal{F} is Σ -p.r. This reveals a proving method. Given a function \mathcal{H} , we can prove it is Σ -p.r. by proving it is the union of Σ -p.r. functions, under the constraint that the domains of these functions are disjoint.

For example, this can be used to prove that $\lambda \alpha [[\alpha]_i]$ is Σ -p.r. Assume a language Σ . Then

$$[\alpha a]_i = \begin{cases} a & i = |\alpha| + 1 \\ [\alpha]_i & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

for any $a \in \Sigma$. The base case is the trivial $[\epsilon]_i = \epsilon$. From this follows that $R = [\alpha]_i \sim (1, 1)$ is defined via primitive recursion by $f = C_\epsilon^{1,0}$ and \mathcal{G} an indexed family where \mathcal{G}_a is of the form above for every a . Evidently f is Σ -p.r.; now we want to prove \mathcal{G}_a is Σ -p.r. for any $a \in \Sigma$.

Observe that the sets $S = \{(i, \alpha, \zeta) : i = |\alpha| + 1\}$ and its complement \bar{S} are disjoint and Σ -p.r. (We skip the proof of this statement.) It follows from the division by cases that

$$\mathcal{G}_a = p_3^{1,2}|_S \cup C_a^{1,2}|_{\bar{S}}$$

is Σ -p.r. Thus, $R = [\alpha]_i$ is Σ -p.r.

Problem 9 Let $\Sigma = \{ @, \$ \}$. Let $h : \mathbb{N} \times \Sigma^+ \mapsto \omega$ be x^2 if $x + |\alpha|$ is even, 0 otherwise. Prove that f is Σ -p.r.

Complete.

Problem 10 Let h have $\mathcal{D}_h = \{(x, y, \alpha) : x \leq y\}$ and be s.t. $R \mapsto x^2$ if $|\alpha| \leq y$, zero otherwise. Show h is Σ -p.r.

Let $S := \{(x, y, \alpha) \in \mathcal{D}_h : y \leq |\alpha|\}$. Evidently, $h = f_1 = C_0^{2,3}$ when $|\alpha| > y$ (this is, when the argument is in \bar{S}). When the argument is in S , it is $f_2 = \lambda x[x^2] \circ [p_1^{2,1}]$. It is trivial to observe both functions are Σ -p.r. Then $h = f_1|_{\bar{S}} \cup f_2|_S$, where of course $S \cup \bar{S} = \mathcal{D}_h$.

2.10 Summation, product and concatenation

Let $f \sim (n + 1, m, \#)$ with domain $\mathcal{D}_f = \omega \times S_1 \times \dots \times S_n \times L_1 \times \dots \times L_m$, with $S_i \subseteq \omega, L_i \subseteq \Sigma^*$. Then we define $\sum_{t=x}^{t=y} f(t, \vec{x}, \vec{\alpha})$ in the usual way, with the constraint that the sum is 0 if $y > x$. In the same way we define $\prod_{t=x}^{t=y} f(t, \vec{x}, \vec{\alpha})$ and the concatenation $\subset_{t=x}^{t=y} f(t, \vec{x}, \vec{\alpha})$ for the case $I_f \subseteq \Sigma^*$.

The domain of each of these is $\mathcal{D} = \omega \times \omega \times S_1 \times \dots \times S_n \times L_1 \times \dots \times L_m$, where the first two ω elements are the x, y domains of the sum.

Theorem 6 If f is Σ -p.r. then the functions are Σ -p.r.

To understand why, let $G = \lambda t x \vec{x} \vec{\alpha} \left[\sum_{i=x}^{t=x} f(i, \vec{x}, \vec{\alpha}) \right]$. Evidently, $G = \circ \left[p_2^{n+2,m}, p_1^{n+2,m}, p_3^{n+2,m}, \dots, p_{n+2+m}^{n+2,m} \right]$ and so we only need to prove G is Σ -p.r. Observe that

$$G(0, x, \vec{x}, \vec{\alpha}) = \begin{cases} 0 & x > 0 \\ f(0, \vec{x}, \vec{\alpha}) & x = 0 \end{cases}$$

$$G(t+1, x, \vec{x}, \vec{\alpha}) = \begin{cases} 0 & x > t+1 \\ G(t, x, \vec{x}, \vec{\alpha}) + f(t+1, \vec{x}, \vec{\alpha}) & \end{cases}$$

Thus, if we let each of these functions be called h, g we have that $G = R(h, g)$. Suffices to show h, g are Σ -p.r. These can be proven using division by cases and domain restriction.

Problem 11 Prove that $G = \lambda x x_1 \left[\sum_{t=1}^{t=x} \text{Pred}(x_1)^t \right]$ is Σ -p.r.

We know $f = \lambda x t \left[\text{Pred}(x)^t \right]$ is Σ -p.r. (trivial to show). Let $\mathcal{G} = \lambda x y x_1 \left[\sum_{t=x}^{t=y} f(x_1, t) \right]$. We know from the last theorem that \mathcal{G} is Σ -p.r. It is evident that $G = \mathcal{G} \circ \left[C_1^{2,0}, p_1^{2,0}, p_2^{2,0} \right]$. Then G is Σ -p.r. ■

Show it to me. Well, $G(x, x_1) = \left(\mathcal{G} \circ \left[C_1^{2,0}, p_1^{2,0}, p_2^{2,0} \right] \right) (x, x_1) = \mathcal{G}(0, x, x_1) = \sum_{t=0}^{t=x} f(x_1, t)$.

Problem 12 Show that $G = \lambda x y \alpha \left[\prod_{t=y+1}^{t=|\alpha|} (t + |\alpha|) \right]$ is Σ -p.r.

It is trivial to show $f = \lambda t \alpha \left[t + |\alpha| \right]$ is Σ -p.r. Let

$$\mathcal{G} = \lambda x y \alpha \left[\prod_{t=x}^{t=y} (t + |\alpha|) \right]$$

which is Σ -p.r. Observe that $G(x, y, \alpha) = \mathcal{G}(y+1, |\alpha|, \alpha)$. Then

$$G = \mathcal{G} \circ \left[\text{Suc} \circ p_2^{2,1}, \lambda \alpha [|\alpha|] \circ p_3^{2,1}, p_3^{2,1} \right]$$

Then G is Σ -p.r. ■

Prove that

$$\lambda x y z \alpha \beta \left[\sum_{t=3}^{t=z+5} \alpha^{\text{Pred}(z) \cdot t} \beta^{\text{Pred}(\text{Pred}(|\alpha|))} \right]$$

is Σ -p.r.

Let G denote the function in question. First of all, observe that $\mathcal{D}_G = \omega^2 \times \mathbb{N} \times \Sigma^{*2}$ —which means G is not Σ -total. Let us divide our proof by parts.

(1) Let $\mathcal{F} = \lambda xy\alpha\beta \left[\alpha^{Pred(x) \cdot y} \beta^{Pred(Pred(|\alpha|))} \right]$, where evidently $\mathcal{F} \sim (2, 2, *)$ with $x \in \mathbb{N}$. Observe that

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{F}_1 &:= \lambda xy\alpha \left[\alpha^{Pred(x)y} \right] \\ &= \lambda x\alpha [\alpha^x] \circ \left[\lambda xy [xy] \circ \left[Pred \circ p_1^{2,1}, p_2^{2,1} \right], p_3^{2,1} \right] \\ \mathcal{F}_2 &:= \lambda \alpha\beta \left[\alpha^{Pred(Pred(|\alpha|))} \right] \\ &= \lambda x\alpha [\alpha^x] \circ \left[p_1^{0,2}, Pred \circ \left[Pred \circ \left[\lambda \alpha[|\alpha|] \circ p_2^{0,2} \right] \right] \right] \end{aligned}$$

and evidently

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{F} &= \lambda xy\alpha\beta [\mathcal{F}_1(x, y, \alpha) \mathcal{F}_2(\beta, \alpha)] \\ &= \lambda \alpha\beta [\alpha\beta] \circ \left[\mathcal{F}_1 \circ \left[p_1^{2,2}, p_2^{2,2}, p_3^{2,2} \right], \mathcal{F}_2 \circ \left[p_4^{2,2}, p_5^{2,2} \right] \right] \end{aligned}$$

This proves \mathcal{F} is Σ -p.r.

(2) It is evident that $G = \lambda xyz\alpha\beta \left[\subset_{t=3}^{t=z+5} \mathcal{F}(z, t, \alpha, \beta) \right]$. If we let

$$\mathcal{G} := \lambda xyz\alpha\beta \left[\bigcup_{t=x}^{t=y} \mathcal{F}(z, t, \alpha, \beta) \right]$$

it is evident that $G = \mathcal{G} \circ \left[C_3^{3,2}, \lambda z[z+5] \circ p_3^{3,2}, p_3^{3,2}, p_4^{3,2}, p_5^{3,2} \right]$. Then G is Σ -p.r. ■

2.11 Predicate quantification

If $P : S_0 \times S_1 \times \dots \times S_n \times L_1 \times \dots \times L_m$ is a predicate and $S \subseteq S_0$, then

$(\forall t \in S)_{t \leq x} P(t, \vec{x}, \vec{\alpha})$ is 1 when $P(t, \vec{x}, \vec{\alpha}) = 1$ for all $t \in \{u \in S : u \leq x\}$.

The domain of the quantified proposition is $\omega \times S_1 \times \dots \times S_n \times L_1 \times \dots \times L_m$, where the first argument (accounted by ω) is the upper bound x . We generalize, where $L \subseteq L_{m+1}, S \subseteq S_0$:

$$\begin{aligned} (\forall t \in S)_{t \leq x} P(t, \vec{x}, \vec{\alpha}) &: \omega \times S_1 \times \dots \times S_n \times L_1 \times \dots \times L_m \rightarrow \{0, 1\} \\ (\exists t \in S)_{t \leq x} P(t, \vec{x}, \vec{\alpha}) &: \omega \times S_1 \times \dots \times S_n \times L_1 \times \dots \times L_m \rightarrow \{0, 1\} \\ (\forall \alpha \in L)_{|\alpha| \leq x} P(\vec{x}, \vec{\alpha}, \alpha) &: \omega \times S_1 \times \dots \times S_n \times L_1 \times \dots \times L_m \rightarrow \{0, 1\} \\ (\exists \alpha \in L)_{|\alpha| \leq x} P(\vec{x}, \vec{\alpha}, \alpha) &: \omega \times S_1 \times \dots \times S_n \times L_1 \times \dots \times L_m \rightarrow \{0, 1\} \end{aligned}$$

It is important to observe that the set over which the quantification is done is a subset of the set from which comes the driving variable t (in the numeric case) or α (in the alphabetic case).

Theorem 7 (1) If $P : S_0 \times S_1 \times \dots \times S_n \times L_1 \times \dots \times L_m \rightarrow \omega$ a predicate Σ -p.r., and $S \subseteq S_0$ is Σ -p.r., then both quantifications over P are Σ -p.r.

(2) If $P : S_1 \times \dots \times S_n \times L_1 \times \dots \times L_m L_{m+1} \rightarrow \omega$ a predicate Σ -p.r., and $L \subseteq L_{m+1}$ is Σ -p.r., then both quantifications over P are Σ -p.r.

The theorem above states that the quantification over a Σ -p.r. set of a Σ -p.r. predicate is itself Σ -p.r. Though unbounded quantification does not preserve these properties, in general a bound exists "naturally" for quantifications, which serves to prove that a bounded quantification is Σ -p.r.. Consider the following example.

Example. The predicate $\lambda xy[x \mid y]$ is Σ -p.r, because $P = x_1 x_2 [x_2 = tx_1]$ is Σ -p.r. Since P is Σ -p.r., any **bounded** quantification of it over a Σ -p.r. set is itself Σ -p.r. For example,

$$\lambda x x_1 x_2 [(\exists t \in \omega)_{t \leq x} x_2 = tx_1]$$

is Σ -p.r. Now, observe that if $x_2 = tx_1$ then it is necessary that $t \leq x_2$. But

$$\begin{aligned} & \lambda x_1 x_2 [(\exists t \in \omega)_{t \leq x_2} x_2 = tx_1] \\ &= \lambda x x_1 x_2 [(\exists t \in \omega)_{t \leq x} x_2 = tx_1] \circ [p_2^{2,0}, p_1^{2,0}, p_2^{2,0}] \end{aligned}$$

Then the **bounded** quantification, with x_2 as bound, is Σ -p.r.

Problem 13 Let $\Sigma = \{ @, ! \}$. Show that $S = \{ (2^x, @^x, !) : x \in \omega \wedge x \text{ impar} \}$ is Σ -p.r.

For clarity, observe that a few elements of S are

$$(2, @, !), (8, @@@, !), (32, @@@@, !), \dots$$

Let $P_1 = \lambda xy\alpha [x = 2^{y+1}]$, $P_2 = \lambda xy\alpha [\alpha = @^{y+1}]$. It is clear that $\mathcal{D}_{P_1} = \mathcal{D}_{P_2}$. It is trivial to prove that both are Σ -p.r. Then $P_1 \wedge P_2$ is Σ -p.r. Then

$$\chi_S^{1,2} = \lambda xy\alpha\beta [(\exists k \in \omega)_{k \leq x} (P_1(y, k, \alpha) \wedge P_2(y, y, \alpha)) \wedge \beta = !]$$

is Σ -p.r.

2.12 Minimization of numeric variable

Let P an arbitrary predicate over a numeric variable. If there is some $t \in \omega$ s.t. $P(t, \vec{x}, \vec{\alpha})$ holds, we use $\min_t P(t, \vec{x}, \vec{\alpha})$ to denote the minimum t that holds. This is **not defined** if there is no tuple $(\vec{x}, \vec{\alpha})$ over which the predicate holds. Furthermore, $\min_t P(t, \vec{x}, \vec{\alpha}) = \min_i P(i, \vec{x}, \vec{\alpha})$; this is, \min_t does not depend on the variable t .

We define

$$M(P) = \lambda \vec{x} \vec{\alpha} \left[\min_t P(t, \vec{x}, \vec{\alpha}) \right]$$

We say $M(P)$ is obtained via minimization of the numeric variable from P .

Example. Let $Q : \omega \times \mathbb{N}$ be s.t. $Q(x, y)$ denotes the quotient of $\frac{x}{y}$. This quotient is by definition the maximum element of $\{t \in \omega : ty \leq x\}$. Let $P = \lambda txy [ty \leq x]$. Observe that

$$\mathcal{D}_{M(P)} = \{(x, y) \in \omega^2 : (\exists t \in \omega) P(t, x, y) = 1\}$$

If $(x, y) \in \omega \times \mathbb{N}$, one can show that $\min_t x < ty = Q(x, y) + 1$. Then $M(P) = \text{Suc} \circ Q$.

The U rule. If f is a Σ -mixed function with type $(n, m, \#)$ and we want to find a predcat P s.t. $f = M(P)$, it is sometimes useful to design P so

$$f(\vec{x}, \vec{\alpha}) = \text{only } t \in \omega \text{ s.t. } P(t, \vec{x}, \vec{\alpha})$$

Problem 14 Use the **U rule** to find a predicate P s.t. $M(P) = \lambda x [\text{integer part of } \sqrt{x}]$.

Let $f(x)$ denote the integer part of \sqrt{x} . If $f(x) = y$ then $y^2 \leq x \wedge (y+1)^2 > x$. Then letting $P = \lambda xy [x^2 \leq y \wedge (x+1)^2 > y]$ ensures that $M(P(x, y)) = f(x)$.

Problem 15 Find P s.t. $M(P) = \lambda xy [x - y]$.

Since $x - y$ is unique for each pair x, y , $P = \lambda xyz [z = x - y]$. Then $\min_z P(x, y, z) = \lambda xy [x - y]$. For example, $3 - 5 = 0$ and $\min_z P(3, 5, z) = 0$.

Theorem 8 If P a predicate that is effectively computable and \mathcal{D}_P is effectively computable, then $M(P)$ is effectively computable.

3 Recursive function

Now we define $R_0^\Sigma = PR_0^\Sigma$ and

$$\begin{aligned} R_{k+1}^\Sigma = & R_k^\Sigma \\ & \cup \{f \circ [f_1, \dots, f_n] : f_i \in R_k^\Sigma\} \\ & \cup \{R(f, g) : f, g \in R_k^\Sigma\} \\ & \cup \{M(P) : P \text{ is } \Sigma\text{-total} \wedge P \in R_k^\Sigma\} \end{aligned}$$

In other words, recursive functions are all primitive recursive functions plus all predicate minimization functions over Σ -total and recursive predicates.

We define $R^\Sigma = \bigcup_{k \geq 0} R_k^\Sigma$.

Theorem 9 *If $f \in R^\Sigma$ then f is Σ -effectively computable.*

Theorem 10 *Not every Σ -recursive function is Σ -p.r. In other words,*

$$PR^\Sigma \subseteq R^\Sigma \text{ but } PR^\Sigma \neq R^\Sigma$$

It is obvious by definition that if f is Σ -p.r. then it is recursive. But if a function is recursive, it could very well be a minimization predicate over a Σ -total function that is not Σ -p.r. itself! In other words,

$$R^\Sigma - PR^\Sigma = \{M(P) : P \text{ is } \Sigma\text{-p.r.} \wedge P \in R^\Sigma \wedge M(P) \text{ is not } \Sigma\text{-p.r.}\}$$

In fact, the theorems in previous sections ensured that if P is Σ -p.r. and so is \mathcal{D}_P , then $M(P)$ is Σ -effectively computable. Which doesn't entail that it is Σ -p.r.

Theorem 11 *If $P \sim (n+1, m, \#)$ is a Σ -p.r. predicate then (1) $M(P)$ is Σ -recursive. If there is a Σ -p.r. function $f \sim (n, m, \#)$ s.t. $M(P)(\vec{x}, \vec{\alpha}) = \min_t P(t, \vec{x}, \vec{\alpha}) \leq f(\vec{x}, \vec{\alpha})$ for all $(\vec{x}, \vec{\alpha}) \in \mathcal{D}_{M(P)}$, then $M(P)$ is Σ -p.r.*

The theorem above gives the conditions to say whether $M(P)$ is recursive and whether it is Σ -p.r. It is recursive simply if P is Σ -p.r. And it is Σ -p.r. if $M(P)$ is bounded by some function f for all values in the domain of $M(P)$.

Theorem 12 *The quotient function, the remainder function, and the i th prime function are Σ -p.r.*

3.1 Minimization of alphabetic variable

We define $M^{\leq}(P) = \lambda \vec{x} \vec{\alpha} [\min_{\alpha}^{\leq} P(\vec{x}, \vec{\alpha}, \alpha)]$, where \leq is some order over the language Σ in question.

Theorem 13 *If P is Σ -p.r. predicate over a string, then the same conditions apply for $M(P)$ to be Σ -p.r. as in the theorem for predicates over numbers.*

Problem 16 *Prove that $\lambda \alpha [\sqrt{\alpha}]$ is Σ -p.r.*

Observe that $\lambda \alpha [\sqrt{\alpha}] = \min_{\alpha} \lambda \alpha \beta [\beta = \alpha \alpha]$. The predicate, which we call P , is trivially Σ -p.r. This means that $\lambda \alpha [\sqrt{\alpha}] \in R^{\Sigma}$.

Let $M(P)$ denote the minimization above. Then $M(P(\alpha, \beta)) \leq \beta$. In other words, $M(P)$ is bounded by $f = \lambda \alpha [\alpha]$. Then $\lambda \alpha [\sqrt{\alpha}] \in PR^{\Sigma}$.

3.2 Enumerable sets

We say $S \subseteq \omega^n \times \Sigma^{*2}$ is Σ -recursively enumerable if it is empty or there is a function $\mathcal{F} : \omega \rightarrow \omega^n \times \Sigma^{*2}$ s.t.

- $Im_{\mathcal{F}} = S$
- $\mathcal{F}_{(i)}$ is Σ -recursive for every $1 \leq i \leq n + m$.

Here, Σ -recursive functions model Σ -computable functions.

3.3 Recursive sets

The Godelian model of a Σ -effectively computable set is simple. A set S is Σ -recursive when χ_S is Σ -recursive.

3.4 Alphabet independence

Theorem 14 *Let Σ, Γ two alphabets. If f is Σ -mixed and Γ -mixed, then f is Σ -recursive iff it is Γ -recursive. The analogue applies to recursive sets and this extends to primitive recursion.*

The theorem above states that recursiveness or primitive-recursiveness is independent of any given alphabet.

4 Neumann

4.1 The S^Σ language

We provide von Neumann's model of Σ -effectively computable function. We use $Num = \{0, 1, \dots, 9\}$ a set of *symbols* (not numbers) and define $S : Num^* \mapsto Num^*$ as

$$\begin{aligned} S(\epsilon) &= 1 \\ S(\alpha 0) &= \alpha 1 \\ S(\alpha 2) &= \alpha 3 \\ &\vdots \\ S(\alpha 9) &= S(\alpha) 0 \end{aligned}$$

It is easy to observe that S is a "counting" or "enumerating" function of the alphabet Num . We define

$$\begin{aligned} \text{---} : \omega &\mapsto Num^* \\ \overline{0} &\mapsto \epsilon \\ \overline{n+1} &\mapsto S(\overline{n}) \end{aligned}$$

In other words, \overline{n} simply denotes the alphabetic symbol of Num that denotes the number n . The whole syntax of the S^Σ language is given by $\Sigma \cup \Sigma_p$, where

$$\Sigma_p = Num \cup \{\leftarrow, +, =, ., \neq, \curvearrowright, \epsilon, N, K, P, L, I, F, G, O, T, B, E, S\}$$

It is important to note that these are *symbols* or *strings*, not values. The ϵ in Σ_p is not the empty letter, but the symbol that denotes it. The $\overline{+}$, $\overline{-}$ signs are not the operations plus and minus, but the same symbols that denote these operations.

4.2 Variables, labels, and instructions

Any word of the form $N\overline{k}$ is a numeric variable; $P\overline{k}$ is an alphabetic variable; $L\overline{k}$ is a label.

The basic instructions in S^Σ make use of these; for a list of the instructions, consult the original source. In general, an instruction of S^Σ is any word of the form αI , where $\alpha \in \{L\overline{n} : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ and I is a basic instruction. We use Ins^Σ to denote the set of all instructions in S^Σ . When $I = L\overline{n}J$ and J a basic instruction, we say $L\overline{n}$ is the label of J .

4.3 Programs in \mathcal{S}^Σ

A program in \mathcal{S}^Σ is any word $I_1 \dots I_n$, with $n \geq 1$, s.t. $I_k \in \text{Ins}^\Sigma$ for all $1 \leq k \leq n$ and the following property holds:

GOTO Law: For every $1 \leq i \leq n$, if $\text{GOTOL}\bar{m}$ is the end of I_i , then there is some j , $1 \leq j \leq n$, s.t. I_j has label $L\bar{m}$.

Informally, a program is any chain of instructions satisfying that GOTO instructions map to actual labels in the program.

We use Pro^Σ to denote the set of all programs in \mathcal{S}^Σ .

Theorem 15 *Let Σ a finite alphabet. Then*

- *If $I_1 \dots I_n = J_1 \dots J_m$, with $I_k, J_k \in \text{Ins}^\Sigma$, then $n = m$ and $I_k = J_k$ for all k .*
- *If $\mathcal{P} \in \text{Pro}^\Sigma$ then there is a unique set of instructions $I_1 \dots I_n$ s.t. $\mathcal{P} = I_1 \dots I_n$.*

The theorem above establishes that any program in Pro^Σ is a *unique* concatenation of instructions. We use $n(\mathcal{P})$ to denote the number of instructions that make up $\mathcal{P} \in \text{Pro}^\Sigma$. By convention, if $\mathcal{P} = I_1^\mathcal{P} \dots I_{n(\mathcal{P})}^\mathcal{P}$, then $I_j^\mathcal{P} = \epsilon$ if $j \notin [1, n(\mathcal{P})]$. In other words, we understand that a program contains infinitely many empty symbols to the right and left (like in Turing machines).

Observation. $n(\alpha)$ and I_j^α are defined only when $\alpha \in \text{Pro}^\Sigma$, $i \in \omega$. This means the domain of $\lambda\alpha[n(\alpha)]$ is $\text{Pro}^\Sigma \subseteq \Sigma \cup \Sigma_p$ and that of $\lambda i\alpha[I_i^\alpha]$ is $\omega \times \text{Pro}^\Sigma$.

Problem 17 *Is it true that $\text{Ins}^\Sigma \cap \text{Pro}^\Sigma = \emptyset$? And is it true that $\lambda i\mathcal{P}[I_i^\mathcal{P}]$ has domain $\{(i, \mathcal{P}) \in \mathbb{N} \times \text{Pro}^\Sigma : i \leq n(\mathcal{P})\}$?*

Both statements are false. A single instruction in Ins^Σ can be a program (as long as it is not a GOTO statement to a non-existent label). Furthermore, $\lambda i\mathcal{P}[I_i^\mathcal{P}]$ is defined for $i = 0$ (it maps to ϵ) and for $i \geq n(\mathcal{P})$ (it also maps to ϵ).

Problem 18 *Prove: If $\mathcal{P}_1, \mathcal{P}_2 \in \text{Pro}^\Sigma$ then $\mathcal{P}_1\mathcal{P}_2 = \mathcal{P}_2\mathcal{P}_1 \Rightarrow \mathcal{P}_1 = \mathcal{P}_2$.*

This follows from the theorem that guarantees that any program $\mathcal{P} \in \text{Pro}^\Sigma$ is a *unique* concatenation of instructions. Let $\mathcal{P}_1 = I_1^{\mathcal{P}_1} \dots I_{n(\mathcal{P}_1)}^{\mathcal{P}_1}$ and $\mathcal{P}_2 = I_1^{\mathcal{P}_2} \dots I_{n(\mathcal{P}_2)}^{\mathcal{P}_2}$. Assume $\mathcal{P}_1\mathcal{P}_2 = \mathcal{P}_2\mathcal{P}_1$. Then

$$I_1^{\mathcal{P}_1} \dots I_{n(\mathcal{P}_1)}^{\mathcal{P}_1} I_1^{\mathcal{P}_2} \dots I_{n(\mathcal{P}_2)}^{\mathcal{P}_2} = I_1^{\mathcal{P}_2} \dots I_{n(\mathcal{P}_2)}^{\mathcal{P}_2} I_1^{\mathcal{P}_1} \dots I_{n(\mathcal{P}_1)}^{\mathcal{P}_1}$$

Then, from the last theorem follows that $I_k^{\mathcal{P}_1} = I_k^{\mathcal{P}_2}$. From this follows directly that $\mathcal{P}_1 = \mathcal{P}_2$. ■

4.4 States in programs of \mathcal{S}^Σ

We define $Bas : Ins^\Sigma \mapsto (\Sigma \cup \Sigma_p)^*$, the program that returns the substring of an instruction corresponding to its basic instruction, as

$$Bas(I) = \begin{cases} J & I = L\bar{k}J \\ I & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Recall that

$$\sim_\alpha = \begin{cases} [\alpha]_2 \dots \alpha|\alpha| & |\alpha| \geq 2 \\ \epsilon & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

We define $\omega^\mathbb{N} = \{(s_1, s_2, \dots) : \exists n \in \mathbb{N} : i > n \Rightarrow s_i = 0\}$. This is, $\omega^\mathbb{N}$ denotes the set of infinite tuples that from some index onwards contain only zeroes. Similarly, $\Sigma^{*\mathbb{N}}$ denotes the set of infinite alphabetic tuples that contain only ϵ from some index onwards.

A **state** is a tuple $(\vec{s}, \vec{\sigma}) \in \omega^\mathbb{N} \times \Sigma^{*\mathbb{N}}$. If $i \geq 1$ we say s_i has the value of the Ni variable in the state, and σ_i the value of the Pi variable in the state. Thus, a state is a pair of infinite tuples containing the values of the variables in a program.

We use

$$[[x_1, \dots, x_n, \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_m]]$$

to denote the state $((x_1, \dots, x_n, 0, 0, \dots), (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_m, \epsilon, \epsilon, \dots))$.

4.5 Instantaneous description of a program in \mathcal{S}^Σ

Since a program $\mathcal{P} \in Pro^\Sigma$ may contain GOTO instructions, it is not always the case that $I_{k+1}^\mathcal{P}$ is executed after $I_k^\mathcal{P}$. Thus, when running a program, we not only need to consider its state but the specific instruction to be executed. An instantaneous description is a mathematical object which describes all this information.

Formally, an instantaneous description is triple $(i, \vec{s}, \vec{\sigma}) \in \omega \times \omega^\mathbb{N} \times \Sigma^{*\mathbb{N}}$. These Cartesian product is the set of all possible instantaneous descriptions. The triple reads: The following instruction is $I_i^\mathcal{P}$ and the current state is $(\vec{s}, \vec{\sigma})$. Observe that if $i \notin [1, n(\mathcal{P})]$, then the description reads: We are in state $(\vec{s}, \vec{\sigma})$ and we must execute ϵ (nothing).

We define the successor function

$$S_{\mathcal{P}} : \omega \times \omega^{\mathbb{N}} \times \Sigma^{*\mathbb{N}} \mapsto \omega \times \omega^{\mathbb{N}} \times \Sigma^{*\mathbb{N}}$$

which maps an instantaneous description to the successor instantaneous description (the one after executing the instruction in the first). In other words,

4.6 Computation from a given state

Let $\mathcal{P} \in Pro^{\Sigma}$ and a state $(\vec{s}, \vec{\sigma})$. The *computation* of \mathcal{P} from $(\vec{s}, \vec{\sigma})$ is defined as

$$\left((1, \vec{\sigma}, \vec{\sigma}), S_{\mathcal{P}}(1, \vec{s}, \vec{\sigma}), S_{\mathcal{P}}(S_{\mathcal{P}}(1, \vec{s}, \vec{\sigma})), \dots \right)$$

In other words, the *computation* of \mathcal{P} is the infinite tuple whose i th element is the instantaneous description of \mathcal{P} after $i - 1$ instructions have been executed.

We say $S_{\mathcal{P}}(\dots S_{\mathcal{P}}(S_{\mathcal{P}}(1, \vec{s}, \vec{\sigma})))$ is the instantaneous description obtained after t steps if the number of times $S_{\mathcal{P}}$ was executed is t .

Problem 19 Give true or false for the following statements.

Statement 1: If $S_{\mathcal{P}}(i, \vec{s}, \vec{\alpha}) = (i, \vec{s}, \vec{\alpha})$ then $i \notin [1, n(\mathcal{P})]$. The statement is false. It could be the case that $i \notin [1, n(\mathcal{P})]$, in which case we would say the program halted. However, consider the program

L1 GOTO L1

Evidently, $S_{\mathcal{P}}(1, \vec{s}, \vec{\alpha}) = (1, \vec{s}, \vec{\alpha})$, and $1 \leq 1 \leq n(\mathcal{P})$.

Statement 2. Let $\mathcal{P} \in Pro^{\Sigma}$ and d an instantaneous description whose first coordinate is i . If $I_i^{\mathcal{P}} = N_2 \leftarrow N_2 + 1$, then

$$S_{\mathcal{P}}(d) = (i + 1, (N_1, Suc(N_2), N_3, \dots), (P_1, P_2, P_3, \dots))$$

The statement is true via direct application of the $S_{\mathcal{P}}$ function.

Statement 3. Let $\mathcal{P} \in Pro^{\Sigma}$ and $(i, \vec{s}, \vec{\sigma})$ an instantaneous description. If $Bas(I_i^{\mathcal{P}}) = IF\ P_3\ BEGINS\ a\ GOTO\ L_6$ and $[P_3]_1 = a$, then $S_{\mathcal{P}}(i, \vec{s}, \vec{\sigma}) = (j, \vec{s}, \vec{\sigma})$, where j is the least number l s.t. $I_l^{\mathcal{P}}$ has label L_6 .

Because $[P_3]_1 = a$, the value of $S_{\mathcal{P}}(i, \vec{s}, \vec{\sigma})$ must indeed contain the instruction that has label L_6 . This instruction is the j th instruction for some j , etc. The statement is true.

4.7 Halting

When the first coordinate of $S_{\mathcal{P}} \left(\dots S_{\mathcal{P}} \left(S_{\mathcal{P}} \left(1, \vec{s}, \vec{\sigma} \right) \right) \right)$ with t steps is $n(\mathcal{P}) + 1$, we say \mathcal{P} halts after t steps when starting from $(\vec{s}, \vec{\sigma})$.

If none of the first coordinates in the computation of \mathcal{P} ,

$$\left((1, \vec{\sigma}, \vec{\sigma}), S_{\mathcal{P}} \left(1, \vec{s}, \vec{\sigma} \right), S_{\mathcal{P}} \left(S_{\mathcal{P}} \left(1, \vec{s}, \vec{\sigma} \right) \right), \dots \right)$$

is $n(\mathcal{P})$, we say \mathcal{P} does not halt starting from $(\vec{s}, \vec{\sigma})$.

4.8 Σ -computable functions

We give the model of a Σ -effectively computable function in the paradigm of von Neumann. Intuitively, f is Σ -computable if there is some $\mathcal{P} \in Pro^{\Sigma}$ that computes it.

Given $\mathcal{P} \in Pro^{\Sigma}$, for every pair $n, m \geq 0$, we define $\Psi_{\mathcal{P}}^{n,m,\#}$ as follows:

$$\mathcal{D}_{\Psi_{\mathcal{P}}^{n,m,\#}} = \{ (\vec{x}, \vec{\alpha}) \in \omega^n \times \Sigma^{*m} : \mathcal{P} \text{ halts from } [[x_1, \dots, x_n, \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_m]] \}$$

$$\Psi_{\mathcal{P}}^{n,m,\#}(\vec{x}, \vec{\alpha}) = \text{Value of } N_1 \text{ in halting state from } [[x_1, \dots, x_n, \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_m]]$$

We analogously define $\Psi_{\mathcal{P}}^{n,m,*}$ for the alphabetic case, where the domain is the same and the value is that of P_1 in the halting state.

A Σ -mixed function, not necessarily total, is Σ -computable if there is a program $\mathcal{P} \in Pro^{\Sigma}$ s.t. $f \sim (n, m, \varphi) = \Psi_{\mathcal{P}}^{n,m,\varphi}$, with $\varphi \in \{\#, *\}$. We say f is computed by \mathcal{P} .

Theorem 16 *If f is Σ -computable, then it is Σ -effectively computable.*

The previous theorem should be obvious. Any program in \mathcal{S}^{Σ} can be translated into an effective procedure with relative simplicity.

Problem 20 *Let $\Sigma = \{ @, ! \}$. Give a program that computes $f : \{0, 1, 2\} \mapsto \omega$ given by $f(0) = f(1) = 0, f(2) = 5$.*

Evidently $f \sim (1, 0, \#)$ and so we must find some $\mathcal{P} \in Pro^{\Sigma}$ s.t. $\Psi_{\mathcal{P}}^{1,0,\#}(x) = f(x)$. The program must let N_1 hold the value 0 if the starting state is either $[[0]]$ or $[[1]]$, and the value 5 if the starting state is $[[2]]$. In all other cases, it must not halt, to ensure that the domain of $\Psi_{\mathcal{P}}^{1,0,\#}$ is the same as that of f . The desired program is

```

 $N_2 \leftarrow N_1$ 
 $N_2 \leftarrow N_2 - 1$ 
 $IF\ N_2 \neq 0\ GOTO\ L_1$ 
 $GOTO\ L_4$ 
 $L_1\ N_2 \leftarrow N_2 - 1$ 
 $IF\ N_2 \neq 0\ GOTO\ L_2$ 
 $GOTO\ L_3$ 
 $L_2\ GOTO\ L_2$ 
 $L_3\ N_1 \leftarrow N_1 + 1$ 
 $N_1 \leftarrow N_1 + 1$ 
 $N_1 \leftarrow N_1 + 1$ 
 $GOTO\ L_5$ 
 $L_4\ N_1 \leftarrow 0$ 
 $L_5\ SKIP$ 

```

If \mathcal{P} denotes this program, it is evident that \mathcal{P} only halts for starting states $[[x_1]]$ with $x_1 \in \{0, 1, 2\}$. Thus, the domain of $\Psi_{\mathcal{P}}^{1,0,\#}$ is precisely \mathcal{D}_f . It is easy to verify that, more generally, $\Psi_{\mathcal{P}}^{1,0,\#} = f$.

Problem 21 Using the same alphabet as in the previous problem, find $\mathcal{P} \in Pro^{\Sigma}$ that computes $\lambda xy[x + y]$.

The desired program is

```

 $L_1\ IF\ N_2 = 0\ GOTO\ L_3$ 
 $N_1 \leftarrow N_1 + 1$ 
 $N_2 \leftarrow N_2 - 1$ 
 $GOTO\ L_1$ 
 $L_3\ SKIP$ 

```

Problem 22 Same for $C_0^{1,1}|_{\{0,1\} \times \Sigma^*}$

Since the domain of the constant function is restricted to $\{0, 1\} \times \Sigma^*$, we must ensure the program only halts for states $[[x_1, x_2, \alpha]]$ s.t. $x_1, x_2 \in \{0, 1\}$. Thus, the program is

$N_1 \leftarrow N_1 - 1$
 $N_2 \leftarrow N_2 - 1$
 $IF N_2 \neq 0 \text{ GOTO } L_1$
 $IF N_1 \neq 0 \text{ GOTO } L_1$
 $\text{GOTO } L_2$
 $L_1 \text{ GOTO } L_1$
 $L_2 \text{ SKIP}$

Problem 23 Same for $\lambda i \alpha[[\alpha]_i]$ (same alphabet).

$IF N_0 \neq 0 \text{ GOTO } L_1$
 $P_1 \leftarrow \epsilon$
 $\text{GOTO } L_{100}$
 $L_1 N_1 \leftarrow N_1 - 1$
 $L_2 N_1 \leftarrow N_1 - 1$
 $P_1 \leftarrow \sim P_1$
 $IF N_1 \neq 0 \text{ GOTO } L_2$
 $IF P_1 \text{ STARTSWITH } @ \text{ GOTO } L_2$
 $IF P_1 \text{ STARTSWITH } ! \text{ GOTOL}_3$
 GOTOL_{100}
 $L_3 P_1 \leftarrow !$
 $L_2 P_1 \leftarrow @$
 $L_{100} \text{ SKIP}$

Example. Let $\alpha = @!!@@$. Assume we give $[[4, \alpha]]$. Since $4 \neq 0$ we go to L_1 immediately. Here N_1 is set to three. Then N_1 is set to two and P_1 is set to $!!@@$. Since $N_1 \neq 0$, N_1 is now set to 1 and P_1 to $!@@$. Once more, N_1 is now set to 0 and P_1 to $@@$. Since now $N_1 = 0$, we know the starting character of P_1 is the one we looked for. We set P_1 to be its first character (if $P_1 = \epsilon$ it has no first character and nothings needs to be done, because this means the input $[[x_1, \alpha]]$ had $x_1 > |\alpha|$). The other cases also work.

Problem 24 Give a program that computes s^{\leq} where $@ < !$.

Recall that $s^{\leq} : \Sigma^* \mapsto \Sigma^*$ is defined as

$$\begin{aligned} s^{\leq}((a_n)^m) &= (a_1)^{m+1} & m \geq 0 \\ s^{\leq}(\alpha a_i(a_n)^m) &= \alpha a_{i+1}(a_1)^m & 1 \leq i < n, m \geq 0 \end{aligned}$$

In our case, this functions enumerates the language in question as follows:

$\epsilon, @, !, @@, @!, !@, !!, @@@, @@!, @!@, @!@, !@@, !!@, !!!, \dots$

4.9 Macros

A macro is the template of a program that computes a Σ -mixed function. There are two types:

- Those that assign that simulate setting the value of a variable to a function of others;
- Those that use IF statements that direct a program to a label if a predicate function of other variables is true.

A macro is not a program because it does not necessarily hold to **GOTO law**. The formal definition of a macro is hand-wavy and long; check the source. The variables of a macro that are only used within the macro are the *auxiliary variables*. The variables the receive the input (from within some program) are the *official variables*.

Theorem 17 *Let Σ a finite alphabet. Then if f a Σ -computable function, there is a macro $\left[\overline{Zn+1} \leftarrow f(V_1, \dots, V_n, W_1, \dots, W_m) \right]$ with $Z \in \{V, W\}$ depending on the value of f .*

Example. The function $\mathcal{F} = \lambda xy[x + y]$ is Σ -computable. Then there is a macro that computes it. Such macro is:

```

V4 ← V2
V5 ← V3
V1 ← V4
A1 IF V5 ≠ 0 GOTO A2
    GOTO A3
A2 V5 ← V5 - 1
    V1 ← V1 + 1
    GOTO A1
A3 SKIP

```

We replace V_1 with that variable where the output is to be stored, V_2, V_3 with the variables the are to be summed, and this performs the sum of two variables. Now, to program $\lambda xy[x \cdot y]$ we can use the following:

```

L1 IF N2 ≠ 0 GOTO L2
    GOTO L3
L2 [N3 ←  $\mathcal{F}(N_3, N_1)$ ]
    N2 ← N2 - 1
    GOTO L1
L3 N1 ← N3

```

Problem 25 Let $\Sigma = \{ @, ! \}$ and $f \sim (0, 1, \#)$ a Σ -computable function. Let $L = \{ \alpha \in \mathcal{D}_f : f(\alpha) = 1 \}$. Using the macro $[V_1 \leftarrow f(W_1)]$, give a program $\mathcal{P} \in \text{Pro}^\Sigma$ s.t. $\mathcal{D}_{\Psi_{\mathcal{P}}^{0,1,\#}} = L$.

$\mathcal{D}_{\Psi_{\mathcal{P}}^{0,1,\#}} = L$ if and only if \mathcal{P} halts only when starting from a state $[[\alpha \in L]]$
Such \mathcal{P} may be

```

[N1 ← f(P1)]
IF N1 ≠ 0 GOTO L1
GOTO L2
L1 GOTO L1
L2 SKIP

```

Incidentally, it is easy to observe that $\Psi_{\mathcal{P}}^{0,1,\#} = f|_L$.

Problem 26 Let $\Sigma = \{ @, ! \}$ and $f \sim (1, 0, *)$ a Σ -computable function. Using $[W_1 \leftarrow f(V_1)]$, give a program $\mathcal{P} \in \text{Pro}^\Sigma$ s.t. $\mathcal{D}_{\Psi_{\mathcal{P}}^{1,0,*}} = \text{Im}_f$.

We require a program $\mathcal{P} \in \text{Pro}^\Sigma$ s.t. \mathcal{P} halts only from a starting state of the form $[[\alpha \in \text{Im}_f]]$. Such a program may be

$$\begin{aligned} L_1 \quad & [P_2 \leftarrow f(N_1)] \\ & [IF P_1 = P_2 GOTO L_2] \\ & N_1 \leftarrow N_1 + 1 \\ & GOTO L_1 \\ L_2 \quad & \text{Skip} \end{aligned}$$

where $[IF W_1 = W_2 GOTO A_1]$ is the macro

$$\begin{aligned} & W_3 \leftarrow W_1 \\ & W_4 \leftarrow W_2 \\ A_1 \quad & IF W_3 \text{BEGINS @ GOTO } A_2 \\ & IF W_3 \text{BEGINS ! GOTO } A_3 \\ & A_2 \quad \quad \quad IF W_4 \text{BEGINS @ GOTO } A_4 \\ & \quad \quad \quad GOTO A_{1000} \\ A_3 \quad & IF W_4 \text{BEGINS ! GOTO } A_4 \\ A_4 \quad & W_3 \leftarrow \neg W_3 \\ & W_4 \leftarrow \neg W_4 \\ & GOTO A_5 \\ A_{1000} \quad & SKIP \end{aligned}$$

that checks if two *not-empty* strings are equal and jumps to the official label A_5 if the case is true.

4.10 Enumerable sets

A non-empty Σ -mixed set S is Σ -enumerable if and only if there are programs $\mathcal{P}_1, \dots, \mathcal{P}_{n+m}$ s.t.

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{D}_{\Psi_{\mathcal{P}_1}^{n,m,\#}} &= \dots = \mathcal{D}_{\Psi_{\mathcal{P}_n}^{n,m,\#}} = \omega \\ \mathcal{D}_{\Psi_{\mathcal{P}_{n+1}}^{n,m,\#}} &= \dots = \mathcal{D}_{\Psi_{\mathcal{P}_{n+m}}^{n,m,\#}} = \omega \end{aligned}$$

and

$$S = Im \left[\Psi_{\mathcal{P}_1}^{n,m,\#}, \dots, \Psi_{\mathcal{P}_n}^{n,m,\#}, \Psi_{\mathcal{P}_{n+1}}^{n,m,\#}, \dots, \Psi_{\mathcal{P}_{n+m}}^{n,m,\#} \right]$$

In other words, for each input $x \in \omega$, the i th program \mathcal{P}_i computes the value of the i th element in a tuple of S . Another way to put this is

Theorem 18 *If S a non-empty Σ -mixed set, then it is equivalent to say:*

- (1) S is Σ -enumerable.
- (2) *There is a $\mathcal{P} \in Pro^\Sigma$ satisfying the following two properties. a. For all $x \in \omega$, \mathcal{P} halts from $\llbracket x \rrbracket$ into a state of the form $\llbracket x_1, \dots, x_n, \alpha_1, \dots, \rrbracket$ when $(x_1, \dots, x_n, \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n) \in S$. b. For any tuple $(x_1, \dots, x_n, \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_m) \in S$, there is a $x \in \omega$ s.t. \mathcal{P} halts starting from $\llbracket x \rrbracket$ in a state of the form $\llbracket x_1, \dots, x_n, \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_m \rrbracket$*

When a program satisfies these properties, we say it *enumerates* S .

5 Σ -computable sets

A Σ -mixed set S is said to be Σ -computable if $\chi_S^{\omega^n \times \Sigma^{*m}}$ is Σ -computable. This is, S is Σ -computable if and only if there is a $\mathcal{P} \in Pro^\Sigma$ s.t. \mathcal{P} computes $\chi_S^{\omega^n \times \Sigma^{*m}}$.

Observe that this means that \mathcal{P} halts with $N_1 = 1$ when starting from $\llbracket \vec{x}, \vec{\alpha} \rrbracket$ if $(\vec{x}, \vec{\alpha}) \in S$, and halts with $N_1 = 0$ otherwise. We say \mathcal{P} *decides* the belonging to S .

Observe that if $\chi_S^{\omega^n \times \Sigma^{*m}}$ is Σ -computable, then there is a macro

$$\left[IF \chi_S^{\omega^n \times \Sigma^{*m}} (V_1 \dots, V_{\bar{n}}, W_1, \dots, W_{\bar{m}}) GOTO A_1 \right]$$

We will write this macro as $[IF (V_1, \dots, V_{\bar{n}}, W_1, \dots, W_{\bar{m}}) \in S GOTO A_1]$. Of course, this macro is only valid when S is a Σ -computable set.

Theorem 19 *In Godel's paradigm, S is Σ -computable iff it is the domain of a Σ -computable function. This statement does not hold in von Neumann's paradigm. There are sets that are domains of Σ -computable functions that are not Σ -computable themselves.*

6 Paradigm battles

6.1 Neumann triumphs over Godel

Theorem 20 *If h is Σ -recursive then it is Σ -computable.*

A corollary is that every Σ -recursive function has a corresponding macro.