

# Computation and Logic I

## Chapter 1 Introduction to theory of computation

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## Logic and Computation I

- **Part 1. Introduction to Theory of Computation**
- **Part 2. Propositional Logic and Computational Complexity**
- **Part 3. First Order Logic and Decision Problems**
- **Part 4. Modal logic**

## Part 1. Schedule

- Sep.10, (1) Automata and monoids
- Sep.12, (2) Turing machines
- **Sep.19, (3) Computable functions and primitive recursive functions**
- Sep.24, (4) Decidability and undecidability
- Sep.26, (5) Partial recursive functions and computable enumerable sets
- Oct. 8, (6) Rice's theorem and many-one reducibility

## Recap: TM and type-0 languages

- A **deterministic Turing machine** (TM) is almost like a DFA with a read-write head moving on two-way infinite tape.
- The language accepted by a Turing machine is called a **type-0 language**.
- A **multi-tape Turing machine** was introduced and its accepting language is shown to be type-0.
- A **nondeterministic Turing machine** was introduced and its accepting language is shown to be type-0.
- The class of type-0 languages is closed under  $\cap$ ,  $\cup$ ,  $\cdot$  and  $*$  (but not complementation as shown later).

- A Turing machine defines a (partial) function if for a given input, the remaining string on the tape in a final state should be regarded as the **output**.
- This is called a **Turing definable function**. Such a function is **partially** defined, since the TM does not always terminate.
- To make the output unique, we define the output of a (deterministic) TM as the string on the tape when the **TM enters a final state for the first time**, because it might enter a final state more than once.

## Remark

- For a multitape TM and a nondeterministic TM, the output should be considered to be the output of equivalent single tape deterministic ones.

## Theorem 1.16

Let  $\sharp$  be a new symbols not included in  $\Omega$ . The following are equivalent:

- (1) A function  $f : A \rightarrow \Omega^*$  ( $A \subset \Omega^*$ ) can be defined by a TM with output.
- (2)  $\{u\sharp f(u) : u \in A\}$  is a type-0 language.

### Proof.

(1)  $\Rightarrow$  (2).

Assume a partial function  $f : \Omega^* \rightarrow \Omega^*$  is defined by a deterministic TM  $\mathcal{M}$ . We define a 2-tape  $\mathcal{M}'$  which accepts  $\{u\sharp f(u) : u \in A\}$  as follows:

- It checks whether a string on the 1st tape is in the form of  $u\sharp v$ . If not, then it stops in a non-final state.
- If so,  $\mathcal{M}'$  copies  $u$  to the 2nd tape and simulates  $\mathcal{M}$  on the 2nd tape.
- If  $\mathcal{M}$  enters a final state,  $\mathcal{M}'$  checks whether the string on the 2nd tape is the same as  $v$  on the 1st tape. If and only if it is the same,  $\mathcal{M}'$  also enters a final state.

(2)  $\Rightarrow$  (1).

Assume a TM  $\mathcal{M}'$  that accepts  $\{u\#f(u) : u \in A\}$ . Next, we consider a nondeterministic  $\mathcal{M}$  (with output).

- $\mathcal{M}$  has 2 tapes, one for input and the other for a working space.
- $\mathcal{M}$  non-deterministically produces a string  $v \in \Omega^*$  on the 2nd tape.
- Write  $\#$  after the input string  $u$  on the 1st tape, and copy  $v$  after  $\#$ . Then, mimic  $\mathcal{M}'$  on the 1st tape.
- When it reaches a final state, it empties the 1st tape, copies the contents of the 2nd tape onto it, and then  $\mathcal{M}$  enters a final state.
- The nondeterminism lies in writing an arbitrary string on the 2nd tape, which is equivalent to enumerating all the possible  $f(u)$ .

□

- A Turing definable function is a mapping from strings to strings. But it can be translated into a (number-theoretic) function  $f : \mathbb{N}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ .

### Definition 1.17

A function  $f : \mathbb{N}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$  is **(Turing) computable** if there is a TM  $\mathcal{M}$  accepts

$$1^{m_1}01^{m_2}0\dots01^{m_k} := \underbrace{1\dots1}_m 0 \underbrace{1\dots1}_m 0 \dots 0 \underbrace{1\dots1}_m$$

and outputs

$$1^{f(m_1, \dots, m_k)}.$$

We also say  $\mathcal{M}$  **realizes** the function  $f$ .

By the last theorem, we have

$$f \text{ is computable} \Leftrightarrow \{1^{m_1}0\dots01^{m_k}01^{f(m_1, \dots, m_k)} : m_1, \dots, m_k \in \mathbb{N}\}$$

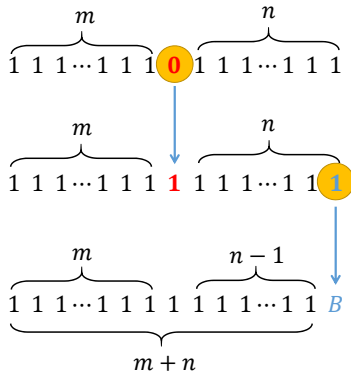
is a type-0 language on  $\{0, 1\}$ .

## Example 4: Addition

Addition  $+$  :  $\mathbb{N}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$  is computable.

It can be easily realized by a single  
tape Turing machine:

- the input is  $1^m 0 1^n$ ,
- replace 0 with 1 and remove the rightmost 1 on the tape.





## Example 5: Multiplication

Multiplication  $\cdot : \mathbb{N}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$  is computable.

It can be realized by a 3-tape Turing machine:

- On the 1st tape, input is given as  $1^m 0 1^n$ , while the other tapes are empty.
- Then copy  $1^m$  to the 2nd tape, copy  $1^n$  to the 3rd tape, and make the 1st tape empty.
- Repeat the following steps until the 3rd tape is empty:
  - remove the rightmost 1 on the 3rd tape and copy the content  $1^m$  on the 2nd tape to the 1st tape right after the string already on the tape (if the 1st tape is empty, copy to any position)
- The output is  $1^{mn}$ .

The 3rd tape works as a counter for computing how many times the TM copies the content on the 2nd tape to the 1st tape.

- Multiplication can be seen as a **repetition of addition**. In fact, multiplication can be defined **recursively** as follows:

$$\begin{cases} x \cdot 0 = 0, \\ x \cdot (y + 1) = x \cdot y + x. \end{cases}$$

- More generally, the computable functions are closed under (primitive) recursive definition:

### Lemma 1.18

If  $g : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ ,  $h : \mathbb{N}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$  are computable, a function  $f : \mathbb{N}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$  defined recursively as

$$\begin{cases} f(x, 0) = g(x), \\ f(x, y + 1) = h(x, f(x, y)) \end{cases}$$

is also computable.

**Proof.** To realize  $f(x, y)$ , we construct a 3-tape Turing machine  $\mathcal{M}$  as follows.

- The input on the 1st tape is  $1^x 0 1^y$ .
- Copy  $1^x$  to the 2nd tape,  $1^y$  to the 3rd and remain  $1^x$  on the 1st.
- Carry out the computation of  $g(x)$  on the 1st tape.
- Repeat as below:
  - (1) If the 3rd tape is empty,  $\mathcal{M}$  enters a final state;
  - (2) Otherwise,  $\mathcal{M}$  will remove the rightmost 1 on the 3rd tape, copy the content  $1^x$  on the 2nd tape together with the separator 0 to the left of the current content  $1^y$  on the 1st tape, carry out the computation of  $h$  on the first tape. Go to (1).
- On the 1st tape,  $\mathcal{M}$  computes  $f(x, 0) = g(x)$ ,  $f(x, 1) = h(x, f(x, 0))$ ,  $\dots$ ,  $f(x, y) = h(x, f(x, y - 1))$  in this order.
- Finally,  $\mathcal{M}$  outputs  $1^{f(x, y)}$ .

# Primitive recursive functions

- The computable functions defined from simple basic functions by primitive recursion (as in the above lemma) are called **primitive recursive functions**.
- Most of number-theoretic functions used in ordinary mathematics are primitive recursive. But there exists a computable function which is not primitive recursive (ex. the Ackermann function).
- The primitive recursion functions are congenial to Hilbert's finitism (supporting his formalist philosophy). But the exact definition of those functions were conceived in Gödel's proof of the incompleteness theorems.

## Definition 1.19

The **primitive recursive function** is defined as below.

1. **Constant 0, successor function**  $S(x) = x + 1$ , and **projection**  $P_i^n(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = x_i$  ( $1 \leq i \leq n$ ) are primitive recursive functions.

2. **Composition.**

If  $g_i : \mathbb{N}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ ,  $h : \mathbb{N}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$  ( $1 \leq i \leq m$ ) are primitive recursive functions, so is  $f = h(g_1, \dots, g_m) : \mathbb{N}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$  defined as below:

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

3. **Primitive recursion.**

If  $g : \mathbb{N}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ ,  $h : \mathbb{N}^{n+2} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$  are primitive recursive functions, so is  $f : \mathbb{N}^{n+1} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$  defined as below:

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

The following is obvious from Lemma 1.18 and Definition 1.19.

### Lemma 1.20

A primitive recursive function is a computable total function.

The following is also easy from Definition 1.19.

### Lemma 1.21

Let  $f(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  be a primitive recursive  $n$ -ary function. Select  $n$  variable  $y_{i_1}, \dots, y_{i_n}$  (repetition is allowed) in a proper order from a list of  $m$  variables  $y_1, \dots, y_m$  and define a  $m$ -ary function

$$f'(y_1, \dots, y_m) = f(y_{i_1}, \dots, y_{i_n}).$$

$f'$  is a primitive recursive function.

**Proof.**

• First, we treat the case when  $f$  is a constant function, using induction on  $m$  to show that  $m$ -ary  $f'$  is primitive recursive.

• The basic case  $m = 0$ ,  $f'$  is primitive recursive since  $f'() = f()$ .

• Assume  $m$ -ary function  $f_m(y_1, \dots, y_m) = f()$  is primitive recursive.

An  $(m + 1)$ -ary function  $f_{m+1}(y_1, \dots, y_m, y_{m+1}) = f()$  is defined as below:

$$\begin{aligned} f_{m+1}(y_1, \dots, y_m, 0) &= f_m(y_1, \dots, y_m) \\ f_{m+1}(y_1, \dots, y_m, z + 1) &= P_{m+2}^{m+2}(y_1, \dots, y_m, z, f_{m+1}(y_1, \dots, y_m, z)). \end{aligned}$$

Therefore  $f_{m+1}(y_1, \dots, y_m, y_{m+1})$  is also primitive recursive.

• Let  $n$  denote the arity of  $f$  and  $n > 0$ .  $f'$  is defined as:

$$f'(y_1, \dots, y_m) = f(P_{i_1}^m(y_1, \dots, y_m), \dots, P_{i_n}^m(y_1, \dots, y_m)).$$

Thus  $f'$  is primitive recursive. □

## Example 6

A constant function  $f(x) = n$  is a primitive recursive function, e.g., if  $n = 3$ ,

$$f(x) = S(S(S(Z()))).$$

## Example 7

The predecessor function  $M(x) = x - 1$  ( $x > 0$ ), with  $M(x) = 0$  ( $x = 0$ ), is a primitive recursive function, since

$$\begin{cases} M(0) = 0, \\ M(x + 1) = x = P_1^2(x, M(x)). \end{cases}$$



## Example 8

Addition  $\text{plus}(x, y) = x + y$  is primitive recursive, since

$$\begin{cases} \text{plus}(x, 0) = x, \\ \text{plus}(x, y + 1) = S(\text{plus}(x, y)), \end{cases}$$

or rewritten as

$$\begin{cases} x + 0 = x, \\ x + (y + 1) = S(x + y). \end{cases}$$

## Example 9

Subtraction  $x \dot{-} y$  is primitive recursive, since

$$\begin{cases} x \dot{-} 0 = x, \\ x \dot{-} (y + 1) = M(x \dot{-} y). \end{cases}$$

## Exercise 1.3.1

Show  $x \cdot y$ ,  $x^y$ ,  $x!$ ,  $\max\{x, y\}$ ,  $\min\{x, y\}$  are primitive recursive functions.

## Exercise 1.3.2

Let  $f(x_1, \dots, x_n, y)$  be a primitive recursive function. Prove the following functions are also primitive recursive.

$$F(x_1, \dots, x_n, z) = \Sigma_{y < z} f(x_1, \dots, x_n, y),$$

$$G(x_1, \dots, x_n, z) = \Pi_{y < z} f(x_1, \dots, x_n, y).$$

## Definition 1.22

An  $n$ -ary relation  $R \subset \mathbb{N}^n$  is called primitive recursive, if its characteristic function  $\chi_R : \mathbb{N}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$  is primitive recursive, where

$$\chi_R(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } R(x_1, \dots, x_n) \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

### Example 10

$x < y$  is primitive recursive. In fact,

$$\chi_{<}(x, y) = (y \dot{-} x) \dot{-} M(y \dot{-} x).$$

## Lemma 1.23

Given primitive recursive  $n$ -ary relation  $A, B$ , then

$$\neg A, A \wedge B, A \vee B$$

are also primitive recursive.

**Proof.**

$$\chi_{\neg A} = 1 \dot{-} \chi_A,$$

$$\chi_{A \wedge B} = \chi_A \cdot \chi_B,$$

$$\chi_{A \vee B} = 1 \dot{-} \{(1 \dot{-} \chi_A) \cdot (1 \dot{-} \chi_B)\}.$$

□

## Definition by cases

## Lemma 1.24

Given two primitive recursive  $n$ -ary functions  $g$  and  $h$ , and a primitive recursive  $n$ -ary relation  $R$ , then  $f$  defined as follows is also primitive recursive,

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

**Proof.**

$$f = g \cdot \chi_R + h \cdot \chi_{\neg R}.$$

□

## Example 11

$x = y$  is primitive recursive. Because  $x = y \Leftrightarrow \neg(x < y) \wedge \neg(y < x)$ .

Then, the following is obvious.

## Lemma 1.25

The graph of a primitive recursive function is primitive recursive.

## Exercise 1.3.3

Prove that if  $A(x_1, \dots, x_n, y)$  is primitive recursive,  $\forall y < z A(x_1, \dots, x_n, y)$  and  $\exists y < z A(x_1, \dots, x_n, y)$  are also primitive recursive.

## Example 12

$\text{prime}(x) =$  “ $x$  is a prime number” is a primitive recursive relation. Actually,

$$\text{prime}(x) \Leftrightarrow x > 1 \wedge \neg \exists y < x \exists z < x (y \cdot z = x).$$

## Lemma 1.26

If  $A(x_1, \dots, x_n, y)$  is primitive recursive, the function  $\mu y < z A$  defined by the following condition is primitive recursive,

$$\mu y < z A(x_1, \dots, x_n, y) = \min(\{y < z : A(x_1, \dots, x_n, y)\} \cup \{z\}).$$

**Proof.**

$$\mu y < z A = \Sigma_{w < z} \Pi_{y \leq w} \chi_{\neg A}.$$

□

We can also prove that for a primitive recursive function  $h(\vec{x})$ ,  $\mu y < h(\vec{x}) A(\vec{x}, y)$  is primitive recursive.



## Example 13

Division  $x/y = \mu z < x(x < y \cdot (z + 1))$  is primitive recursive.

## Example 14

Let  $p(x)$  = “ $(x + 1)$ th prime number”, that is ,

$$p(0) = 2, p(1) = 3, p(2) = 5, \dots$$

Then,  $p(x)$  is a primitive recursive function since it is defined as follows.

$$p(0) = 2, \quad p(x + 1) = \mu y < p(x)! + 2 (p(x) < y \wedge \text{prime}(y)).$$

A finite sequence of natural numbers  $(x_0, \dots, x_{n-1})$  can be represented by a unique natural number  $x$ , called a **sequence number**, defined as follows,

$$x = p(0)^{x_0+1} \cdot p(1)^{x_1+1} \cdot \dots \cdot p(n-1)^{x_{n-1}+1}$$

## Example 15

- Fixing  $n$ , a mapping from  $(x_0, \dots, x_{n-1}) \in \mathbb{N}^n$  to its sequence number  $x \in \mathbb{N}$  is a primitive recursive function.
- Conversely, let  $c(x, i)$  be a function taking the  $i$ -th element  $x_i$  from  $x$ . It is primitive recursive, since

$$x_i = c(x, i) = \mu y < x (\neg \exists z < x (p(i)^{y+2} \cdot z = x)).$$

- The length of a sequence  $x$ , denote  $\text{leng}(x)$ , is primitive recursive, since

$$\text{leng}(x) = \mu i < x (\neg \exists z < x (p(i) \cdot z = x)).$$

- Finally, we define a relation  $\text{Seq}(x)$  to mean that  $x$  is a sequence number. Then it is primitive recursive, since

$$\text{Seq}(x) \Leftrightarrow \forall i < x \forall z < x (p(i) \cdot z = x \rightarrow i \leq \text{leng}(x)).$$

## Definition 1.27

Let  $\Omega$  be a finite (or countably infinite) set of symbols with an injection  $\phi : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ . For a string  $s = a_0 \cdots a_{n-1}$  from  $\Omega$ , the number sequence of  $(\phi(a_0) \cdots \phi(a_{n-1}))$ , i.e.,

$$p(0)^{\phi(a_0)+1} \cdot p(1)^{\phi(a_1)+1} \cdot \dots \cdot p(n-1)^{\phi(a_{n-1})+1}$$

is called the **Gödel number** of  $s$ , denoted by  $\ulcorner s \urcorner$ .

The mapping  $\ulcorner \cdot \urcorner$  is an injection from the set of all symbols  $\Omega^*$  to  $\mathbb{N}$ .

## Example 16

Let  $\Omega = \{0, 1, +, (, )\}$ ,  $\phi(0) = 0$ ,  $\phi(1) = 1$ ,  $\phi(+)$  = 3,  $\phi(($ ) = 5 and  $\phi())$  = 6.

Then,

$$\ulcorner (1 + 0) + 1 \urcorner = 2^6 \cdot 3^2 \cdot 5^4 \cdot 7^1 \cdot 11^7 \cdot 13^4 \cdot 17^2$$

## Exercise 1.3.3

The symbol set  $\Omega$  is the same as the example above. “Terms” are defined as below

(1) 0, 1 are terms.

(2) if  $s$  and  $t$  are terms, so is  $(s + t)$ .

e.g.,  $((1 + 0) + 1)$  is a term, but  $(1 + 0) + 1$  is not a term.

Show that the predicate  $\text{Term}(x)$  expressing “ $x$  is the Gödel number of a term” is primitive recursive.

## Recursive functions

## Definition 1.28

The **recursive functions** are defined as follows

1. **Constant 0, Successor**  $S(x) = x + 1$ , **Projections**  $P_i^n(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = x_i$  are recursive functions. (These basic functions are also primitive recursive.)
2. **Composition.** The same as a primitive recursive function.
3. **Primitive recursion.** The same as a primitive recursive function.
4. **minimalization (or minimization).**

Let  $g : \mathbb{N}^{n+1} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$  be a recursive function such that

$\forall x_1 \cdots \forall x_n \exists y g(x_1, \dots, x_n, y) = 0$ . Define a function  $f : \mathbb{N}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$  by

$$f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \mu y (g(x_1, \dots, x_n, y) = 0),$$

where  $\mu y (g(x_1, \dots, x_n, y) = 0)$  denotes the smallest  $y$  such that  $g(x_1, \dots, x_n, y) = 0$ . Then,  $f$  is recursive.

- Recursive functions are (total) computable functions, like primitive recursive functions.
- However, condition 4 in the above definition (not included in the definition of primitive recursive functions) is problematic sometimes, since it is often difficult to guarantee its **totality condition**  $\forall x_1 \cdots \forall x_n \exists y g(x_1, \cdots, x_n, y) = 0$  in an absolutely computable way, or in a rigid formal system.
- For instance, the class of recursive functions allowed in Peano arithmetic does not match the class of recursive functions allowed in ZF set theory.
- A function defined by removing this totality condition is called a **partial recursive function**, and we will discuss it later (in Lecture 5).

- $f$  is computable iff  $\{1^{m_1}0 \dots 01^{m_k}01^{f(m_1, \dots, m_k)} : m_1, \dots, m_k \in \mathbb{N}\}$  is a type-0 language on  $\{0, 1\}$ .
- Primitive recursive functions (0, successor function, projections, closed under composition and primitive recursion) are computable.
- Recursive functions (0, successor function, projections, closed under composition, primitive recursion and minimalization) are computable.

## Further readings

N. Cutland. *Computability: An Introduction to Recursive Function Theory*, Cambridge University Press, 1st edition, 1980.

# Thank you for your attention!