

Topics in Applied Math: Logic and Foundations of Mathematics

Part 1. Equational theory

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Logic and Foundations

- **Part 1. Equational theory**
- **Part 2. First order theory**
- **Part 3. Basic Model theory**
- **Part 4. First order arithmetic and incompleteness theorems**
- **Part 5. Models of first-order arithmetic**
- **Part 6. Second order arithmetic and reverse mathematics**

Part 1. Schedule

- Sep. 17, (1) Formal systems of equations
- Sep. 19, (2) Birkhoff's theorems and Boolean algebras
- Sep. 24, (3) Boolean algebras (continued) and propositional logic
- **Sep. 26, (4) Computable functions and general recursive functions**

Introduction to computable functions

- Roughly speaking, a **computable function** is a function that can be realized by a computer as a relationship between input and output.
- In the following, we only consider computable functions from the (tuples of) natural numbers to the natural numbers (i.e., number-theoretic computable functions).
- Research on such a family of functions began with Gödel's paper on the incompleteness theorem (1931). Then in his lectures (1934), Gödel formulated the **general recursive functions** by using an equation theory (due to Herbrand).
- After attending Gödel's lectures, Kleene (1936) devised the definition of today's **recursive functions** and proved its equivalence with general recursive functions.



Kurt Gödel



Jacques Herbrand



Stephen C. Kleene

Definition 5.1 (Recursive functions - 1/3)

The **recursive functions** are defined inductively as follows.

1. **Zero function** $Z() = 0$, **Successor function** $S(x) = x + 1$, **Projection** $P_i^n(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = x_i$ ($1 \leq i \leq n$) are recursive functions.

- 2a. **Composition.** If $g_i : \mathbb{N}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$, $h : \mathbb{N}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ ($1 \leq i \leq m$) are recursive functions, the composed function $f = h(g_1, \dots, g_m) : \mathbb{N}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ defined by

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

is recursive, where

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

means $g_i(x_1, \dots, x_n) = y_i$ and $h(y_1, \dots, y_m) = z$.

Kleene's definition of recursive functions

Definition 5.1 (Recursive functions - 2/3)

2b. Primitive recursion.

If $g : \mathbb{N}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$, $h : \mathbb{N}^{n+2} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ are recursive functions, the function $f : \mathbb{N}^{n+1} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ defined by

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

is recursive.

Note: the functions obtained from the above condition 1, 2a, 2b are called **primitive recursive functions**.

Kleene's definition of recursive functions

Definition 5.1 (Recursive functions - 3/3)

2c. Minimization.

Let $g : \mathbb{N}^{n+1} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ be a recursive function such that for all x_1, \dots, x_n , there exists y such that $g(x_1, \dots, x_n, y) = 0$. Then $f : \mathbb{N}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ satisfying

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

is recursive. Here, μy means “the minimum y such that”.

Example 15

Predecessor function: $M(x) = x - 1$ (if $x > 0$), $= 0$ (if $x = 0$) is (primitive) recursive, by the following definition.

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

Example 16

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

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

Example 17

Subtraction: $x \dot{-} y$ is (primitive) recursive.

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

Problem 9

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

Problem 10

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

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

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

The following function f is called the **Ackermann function**.

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} f(0, y) = y + 1, \\ f(x + 1, 0) = f(x, 1), \\ f(x + 1, y + 1) = f(x, f(x + 1, y)) \end{array} \right.$$



W. Ackermann
(1886 - 1962)

- Although we can easily observe that the Ackermann function is computable, it is not so easy to show that it is a recursive function.
- A function defined by an equation in this way is called a **general recursive function**. We will ultimately show that it is equivalent to a computable function and also a recursive function.
- Ackermann function is not primitively recursive.

Problem 11

Let $f(x, y)$ be a Ackermann function. Show that for any primitive recursive function $g(x, y)$ there exists a c such that $g(x, y) < f(c, \max\{x, y\})$. Then show that $f(x, y)$ is not primitive recursive.

To define the general recursive functions, we fix a language consisting of constant 0, the successor symbol $S(x)$ and countably many function symbols f_0, f_1, \dots . From now on, a “term” means a term in this language.

Definition 5.2 (Herbrand-Gödel general recursive functions)

$f : \mathbb{N}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ is said to be **general recursive** if there is a finite set E of equations and a function symbol $f(x_1, \dots, x_n)$, and for any $a_1, \dots, a_n, b \in \mathbb{N}$, the following holds

$$f(a_1, \dots, a_n) = b \Leftrightarrow E \vdash f(\bar{a}_1, \dots, \bar{a}_n) = \bar{b}.$$

Here, $\bar{a} = \overbrace{S(S(S(\dots S(0) \dots)))}^{a \text{ times}}$.

Example 18

$f(x, y) = x + y$ is general recursive.

- Let $E = \{f(x, 0) = x, f(x, S(y)) = S(f(x, y))\}$. Then

$$a + b = c \Leftrightarrow E \vdash f(\bar{a}, \bar{b}) = \bar{c}$$

- If we consider that $+$ on the left side is defined as in Example 16 in Page 7, this definition is nothing but the interpretation of E on \mathbb{N} .
- Thus, for each number a, b, c , the equation $f(\bar{a}, \bar{b}) = \bar{c}$ holds in \mathbb{N} iff it is provable from E .

- A structure $\mathfrak{M} = (\mathbb{N}; 0, S, f_i)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ is called a **standard structure** if $0 \in \mathbb{N}$ and $S: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ are interpreted in the standard way, while f_i 's are arbitrary.
- In the standard structure \mathfrak{M} , the interpretation of the numeral \bar{a} is

$$(\bar{a})^{\mathfrak{M}} = a.$$

- However, it is not generally true that an equation is provable in E iff it holds in the standard structure satisfying E .
- For instance, even if E is consistent, it may not have a standard model.

Theorem 5.3

Any recursive function is general recursive.

Proof. It suffices to show that the class of general recursive functions includes Z, S, P_i^n and is closed under composition, primitive recursion, and minimization.

Zero function

Let $E = \{f() = 0\}$. We show that for any $b \in \mathbb{N}$, $Z() = b \iff E \vdash f() = \bar{b}$.

(\Rightarrow) If $Z() = b$, then $b = 0$. Since $E \vdash f() = 0$ and $0 = \bar{0}$, we have $E \vdash f() = \bar{b}$.

(\Leftarrow) By contraposition, let $Z() \neq b$.

Then, in the standard structure \mathfrak{M} that satisfies E , $f^{\mathfrak{M}}() = 0 = Z^{\mathfrak{M}}() \neq \bar{b}^{\mathfrak{M}} = b$.
So by the completeness theorem of the equation theory, $E \not\vdash f() = \bar{b}$.

Successor function

Let $E = \{f(x) = S(x)\}$. For any $a, b \in \mathbb{N}$, prove $S(a) = b \iff E \vdash f(\bar{a}) = \bar{b}$ as above.

Projection

Let $E = \{f(x_1, \dots, x_i, \dots, x_n) = x_i\}$. For any $\vec{a} \in \mathbb{N}^n$, $b \in \mathbb{N}$, prove $P_i^n(\vec{a}) = b \iff E \vdash f(\vec{a}) = \bar{b}$ also as above.

Composition(1)

Let $f: \mathbb{N}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$, $g_i: \mathbb{N}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ ($1 \leq i \leq m$), $h: \mathbb{N}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ satisfy

$$f(\vec{a}) = h(g_1(\vec{a}), \dots, g_m(\vec{a})) \quad (\forall \vec{a} \in \mathbb{N}^n).$$

By the induction hypothesis, we may assume that for g_i ($1 \leq i \leq m$) and h , there exist equational theories E_{g_i} ($1 \leq i \leq m$) and E_h such that the following hold:

$$g_i(\vec{a}) = b \Leftrightarrow E_{g_i} \vdash \mathbf{g}_i(\vec{a}) = \bar{b} \quad (\text{for } \vec{a} \in \mathbb{N}^n, b \in \mathbb{N}, 1 \leq i \leq m);$$

$$h(\vec{a}) = b \Leftrightarrow E_h \vdash \mathbf{h}(\vec{a}) = \bar{b} \quad (\text{for } \vec{a} \in \mathbb{N}^m, b \in \mathbb{N}).$$

We may also assume that no function symbols appear in common in two or more of E_{g_i} ($1 \leq i < m$) and E_h . Then, using a new function symbol \mathbf{f} , we set

$$E = E_{g_1} \cup \dots \cup E_{g_m} \cup E_h \cup \{\mathbf{f}(\vec{x}) = \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{g}_1(\vec{x}), \dots, \mathbf{g}_m(\vec{x}))\}$$

Here, \vec{x} represents the variable sequence x_1, \dots, x_n . Then we will show $f(\vec{a}) = b \Leftrightarrow E \vdash \mathbf{f}(\vec{a}) = \bar{b}$ in the following slides.

Composition(2)

(\Rightarrow) Take any $\vec{a} \in \mathbb{N}^n$, $b \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $f(\vec{a}) = b$. For each $1 \leq i \leq m$, by the definition of E_{g_i} and $g_i(\vec{a}) = g_i(\vec{a})$, we have

$$E_{g_i} \vdash \mathbf{g}_i(\vec{a}) = \overline{g_i(\vec{a})} \quad (\vec{a} \in \mathbb{N}^n).$$

Also, by the definition of E_h and $f(\vec{a}) = h(g_1(\vec{a}), \dots, g_m(\vec{a})) = b$, we have

$$E_h \vdash \mathbf{h}(\overline{g_1(\vec{a})}, \dots, \overline{g_m(\vec{a})}) = \bar{b}.$$

Then, by substitution rule (sub),

$$E \vdash \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{g}_1(\vec{a}), \dots, \mathbf{g}_m(\vec{a})) = \bar{b}.$$

Finally, by the last equation in E ,

$$E \vdash \mathbf{f}(\vec{a}) = \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{g}_1(\vec{a}), \dots, \mathbf{g}_m(\vec{a})).$$

So $E \vdash \mathbf{f}(\vec{a}) = \bar{b}$. The converse can be shown by contrapositive in the same way.

Primitive recursion (1)

Let $f: \mathbb{N}^{n+1} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$, $g: \mathbb{N}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$, $h: \mathbb{N}^{n+1} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ satisfy

$$\begin{cases} f(\vec{a}, 0) = g(\vec{a}) \\ f(\vec{a}, b+1) = h(\vec{a}, f(\vec{a}, b)) \end{cases} \quad (\vec{a} \in \mathbb{N}^n, b \in \mathbb{N})$$

By induction hypothesis, there exist E_g and E_h such that:

$$\begin{aligned} g(\vec{a}) = c &\Leftrightarrow E_g \vdash \mathbf{g}(\vec{a}) = \bar{c} \quad (\text{for } \vec{a} \in \mathbb{N}^n, c \in \mathbb{N}); \\ h(\vec{a}, b) = c &\Leftrightarrow E_h \vdash \mathbf{h}(\vec{a}, \bar{b}) = \bar{c} \quad (\text{for } \vec{a} \in \mathbb{N}^n, b, c \in \mathbb{N}). \end{aligned}$$

By replacing the appropriate symbols, we may assume that no function symbols appear in common in E_g and E_h . Then, taking distinct variables $\vec{x} = x_1, \dots, x_n, y$ and a new function symbol \mathbf{f} , we put

$$E = E_g \cup E_h \cup \{\mathbf{f}(\vec{x}, 0) = \mathbf{g}(\vec{x})\} \cup \{\mathbf{f}(\vec{x}, \mathbf{S}(y)) = \mathbf{h}(\vec{x}, \mathbf{f}(\vec{x}, y))\}$$

Then, for any $\vec{a} \in \mathbb{N}^n$, $b, c \in \mathbb{N}$, we will show

$$f(\vec{a}, b) = c \Leftrightarrow E \vdash \mathbf{f}(\vec{a}, \bar{b}) = \bar{c}$$

Primitive recursion (2)

- First, we show \Rightarrow by induction on $b \in \mathbb{N}$.

The base case: $b = 0$

If $f(\vec{a}, 0) = c$, then $g(\vec{a}) = c$. So by definitions of E_g and E

$$E_g \vdash g(\vec{a}) = \bar{c}, \quad E \vdash \mathbf{f}(\vec{a}, 0) = g(\vec{a}).$$

Therefore,

$$E \vdash \mathbf{f}(\vec{a}, 0) = \bar{c},$$

that is, $E \vdash \mathbf{f}(\vec{a}, \bar{b}) = \bar{c}$.

Induction step

Assume that $(*)$ holds with some $b \in \mathbb{N}$ for any $\vec{a} \in \mathbb{N}^n$, $c \in \mathbb{N}$. Also, suppose that $f(\vec{a}, b+1) = c$ holds. By the induction hypothesis and $f(\vec{a}, b) = f(\vec{a}, b)$, we have

$$E \vdash \mathbf{f}(\vec{a}, \bar{b}) = \overline{f(\vec{a}, b)}.$$

Also, by the definition of E

$$E \vdash \mathbf{f}(\vec{a}, \mathbf{S}(\bar{b})) = \mathbf{h}(\vec{a}, \mathbf{f}(\vec{a}, \bar{b})).$$

Primitive recursion (3)

In addition, by the substitution rules,

$$E \vdash \mathbf{f}(\vec{a}, \overline{b+1}) = \mathbf{h}(\vec{a}, \overline{f(\vec{a}, b)}).$$

Furthermore, by the definition of E_h and $h(\vec{a}, f(\vec{a}, b)) = f(\vec{a}, b+1) = c$

$$E_h \vdash \mathbf{h}(\vec{a}, \overline{f(\vec{a}, b)}) = \bar{c}.$$

Therefore,

$$E \vdash \mathbf{f}(\vec{a}, \overline{b+1}) = \bar{c}.$$

Thus we have proved (\Rightarrow).

- Next, (\Leftarrow) will be proved by contrapositive.

Let $f(\vec{a}, b) = d \neq c$. From what was shown above, $E \vdash \mathbf{f}(\vec{a}, \bar{b}) = \bar{d}$, so a certain standard model \mathfrak{M} such that $\mathfrak{M} \models \mathbf{f}(\vec{a}, \bar{b}) = \bar{d}$. Hence, $\mathfrak{M} \not\models \mathbf{f}(\vec{a}, \bar{b}) = \bar{c}$. Therefore, by the the completeness (soundness) of the equation theory $E \not\vdash \mathbf{f}(\vec{a}, \bar{b}) = \bar{c}$

Minimization (1)

We first check the following operations are general recursive. $+$: $\mathbb{N}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ (sum), \cdot : $\mathbb{N}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ (product), and T : $\mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ (true), F : $\mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ (false) as defined below:

$$T(a) = \begin{cases} 0 & (a = 0) \\ 1 & (a > 0) \end{cases} \quad F(a) = \begin{cases} 1 & (a = 0) \\ 0 & (a > 0) \end{cases}$$

In fact, we can easily construct the equational theories E_+ , E_\cdot , E_T , E_F such that:

$$a + b = c \Leftrightarrow E_+ \vdash +(\bar{a}, \bar{b}) = \bar{c},$$

$$a \cdot b = c \Leftrightarrow E_\cdot \vdash \cdot(\bar{a}, \bar{b}) = \bar{c},$$

$$T(a) = b \Leftrightarrow E_T \vdash \mathbf{T}(\bar{a}) = \bar{b},$$

$$F(a) = b \Leftrightarrow E_F \vdash \mathbf{F}(\bar{a}) = \bar{b}.$$

The functions $+$, \cdot , T , F are all simple primitive recursive functions. So by the same arguments as before, they are general recursive.

Minimization (2)

Now, given a general recursive function $g: \mathbb{N}^{n+1} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$, we assume for all $\vec{a} \in \mathbb{N}^n$, there exists $b \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $g(\vec{a}, b) = 0$.

By induction, we may suppose that there exists an equational theory E_g such that:

$$g(\vec{a}, b) = c \Leftrightarrow E_g \vdash \mathbf{g}(\vec{a}, \bar{b}) = \bar{c} \quad (\text{for } \vec{a} \in \mathbb{N}^n, b, c \in \mathbb{N}).$$

Then, we want to show that $f: \mathbb{N}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ defined by $f(\vec{a}) = \mu x(g(\vec{a}, x) = 0)$, is also general recursive.

Taking \mathbf{f}, \mathbf{h} as new function symbols, let

$$E = E_+ \cup E_\bullet \cup E_T \cup E_F \cup E_g \cup \{\varphi(\vec{x}, y), \mathbf{f}(\vec{x}) = \mathbf{h}(\vec{x}, 0)\},$$

where $\varphi(\vec{x}, y)$ is the equation $\mathbf{h}(\vec{x}, y) = + \left(\bullet (T(\mathbf{g}(\vec{x}, y)), \mathbf{h}(\vec{x}, S(y))), \bullet (F(\mathbf{g}(\vec{x}, y)), y) \right)$.

Since the right side is rewritten as $T(g(\vec{x}, y)) \bullet h(\vec{x}, S(y)) + F(g(\vec{x}, y)) \bullet y$,

it is $h(\vec{x}, S(y))$ if $g(\vec{x}, y) > 0$, and is y if $g(\vec{x}, y) = 0$.

Thus, we note that if $g(\vec{a}, b) > 0$ for all $b < c$, then $h(\vec{a}, b) = h(\vec{a}, c)$ for all $b < c$, that is, $E \vdash \mathbf{h}(\vec{a}, \bar{b}) = \mathbf{h}(\vec{a}, \bar{c})$ is also obtained by the definition of $E_+, E_\bullet, E_T, E_F, E_g$, and rules for equations.

Minimization (3)

It remains to show that for any $\vec{a} \in \mathbb{N}^n$, $c \in \mathbb{N}$

$$f(\vec{a}) = c \Leftrightarrow E \vdash \mathbf{f}(\vec{a}) = \bar{c} \quad (**)$$

- First, let $f(\vec{a}) = c$. Then we have $\mu x (g(\vec{a}, x) = 0) = c$. That is, for all $b < c$, $g(\vec{a}, b) > 0$ and $g(\vec{a}, c) = 0$. Hence, $E \vdash \mathbf{h}(\vec{a}, 0) = \mathbf{h}(\vec{a}, \bar{c})$ and $E \vdash \mathbf{h}(\vec{a}, \bar{c}) = \bar{c}$. Finally, by the last equation $\mathbf{f}(\vec{x}) = \mathbf{h}(\vec{x}, 0)$ in E , $E \vdash \mathbf{f}(\vec{a}) = \mathbf{h}(\vec{a}, 0) = \bar{c}$.
- Conversely, let $f(\vec{a}) = d \neq c$. Since $E \vdash \mathbf{f}(\vec{a}) = \bar{d}$, there exists a standard model \mathfrak{M} such that $\mathfrak{M} \models \mathbf{f}(\vec{a}) = \bar{d}$. Therefore, $\mathfrak{M} \not\models \mathbf{f}(\vec{a}) = \bar{c}$. Finally, $E \not\vdash \mathbf{f}(\vec{a}) = \bar{c}$. Thus, we have shown (**).

Homework problem # 5

Define a function $f(x) = k$ by $x \equiv k \pmod{3}$ and $k < 3$. By constructing an equational system, show that f is general recursive.

Introduction to Turing machines

- Next, we would like to show that any general recursive function is a recursive function.
- This was conjectured by Gödel and Church, and finally proved by Kleene. Since computation models such as Turing machines had not invented yet, Kleene used very complicated arguments based on a coding similar to the Gödel numbers.
- Today, we will first introduce Turing machines, which easily realize the general recursive functions. Then, by showing that a function computable by a Turing machine is a recursive function, we finally establish the equivalence between the general recursive functions and the recursive functions.
- A Turing machine has an infinitely extendable tape, and it defines a function by associating the symbol strings written on the tape at the start with the symbol strings that remain on the tape when it halts.



Alan Turing



Stephen C.
Kleene

Turing considered a “**computer**” as a man who calculates with pencil and paper. To make the formulation simpler, he assumed the following conditions (Turing 1936).

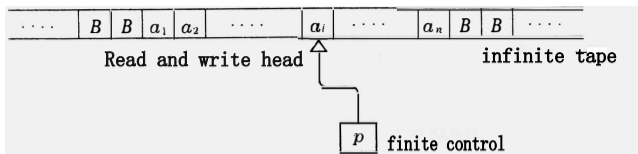
- I assume then that the computation is carried out on one-dimensional paper, *i.e.* on a tape divided into squares. I shall also suppose that the number of symbols which may be printed is finite.
- The behaviour of the computer at any moment is determined by the symbols which he is observing and his “state of mind” at that moment.
- We will also suppose that the number of states of mind which need be taken into account is finite.
- We may suppose that in a simple operation not more than one symbol is altered.

We may now construct a machine to do the work of this computer.

Definition 5.4

(Deterministic) Turing machine (TM) is a 5-tuple $\mathcal{M} = (Q, \Omega, \delta, q_0, F)$,

- (1) Q is a non-empty finite set of **states**.
- (2) Ω is a non-empty finite set of **symbols**. The blank symbol $B \in \Omega$.
- (3) $\delta : Q \times \Omega \rightarrow \Omega \times \{R, L, N\} \times Q$ is called a **transition function**.
- (4) $q_0 \in Q$ is a **initial state**. (5) $F \subset Q$ is a set of **final states**.



- $\delta(p, a) = (b, x, q)$ means that at state p , if \mathcal{M} reads symbol a at the head, then
 - the head writes b to alter a ,
 - according to $x = R, L, N$, the head moves to the right or the left or keep still, the state changes to q
- A **configuration** of TM, denoted $a_1 \cdots a_{i-1} p a_i \cdots a_n$, describes:
 - A string $a_1 \cdots a_n \in \Omega^*$ is written on the tape. All the symbols outside of $a_1 \cdots a_n$ on the tape are blank while the blank B may be included in the sequence,
 - the head is pointed at a_i on the tape,
 - the current state is p .

We say configuration α yields configuration α' , denoted as $\alpha \triangleright \alpha'$, if there is a legal transition from configuration α to configuration α' as follows:

- 1) if $\delta(p, a_i) = (a'_i, L, q)$,

$$a_1 \cdots a_{i-1} p a_i \cdots a_n \triangleright a_1 \cdots a_{i-2} q a_{i-1} a'_i a_{i+1} \cdots a_n \quad (i > 1),$$

$$p a_1 a_2 \cdots a_n \triangleright q B a'_1 a_2 \cdots a_n.$$
- 2) if $\delta(p, a_i) = (a'_i, N, q)$,

$$a_1 \cdots a_{i-1} p a_i \cdots a_n \triangleright a_1 \cdots a_{i-1} q a'_i a_{i+1} \cdots a_n.$$
- 3) if $\delta(p, a_i) = (a'_i, R, q)$,

$$a_1 \cdots a_{i-1} p a_i \cdots a_n \triangleright a_1 \cdots a_{i-1} a'_i q a_{i+1} \cdots a_n \quad (i \leq n),$$

$$a_1 \cdots a_{n-1} a_n p \triangleright a_1 \cdots a_{n-1} a'_n B q.$$

We write the sequence of computation $\alpha_0 \triangleright \alpha_1 \triangleright \cdots \triangleright \alpha_n$ as $\alpha_0 \triangleright^* \alpha_n$ ($n \geq 0$).

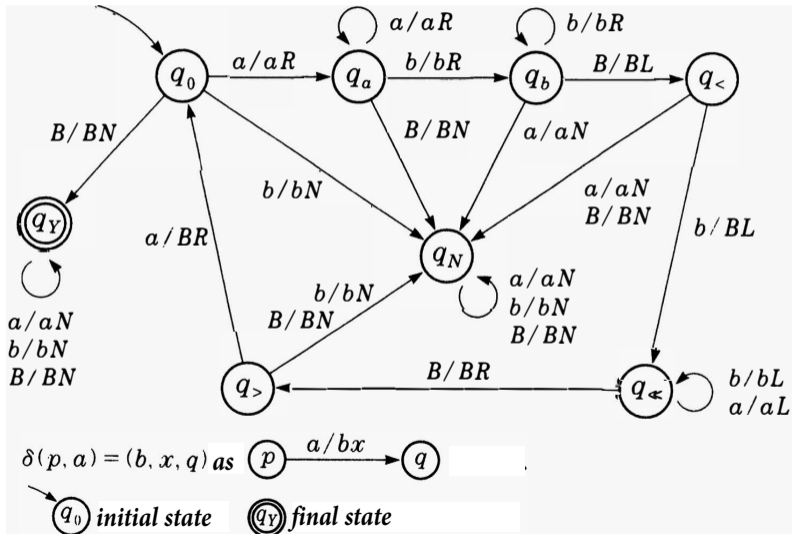
- We say \mathcal{M} **accepts** $a_1 \cdots a_n \in (\Omega - \{B\})^*$ if there exists $b_1 \cdots b_m$ and $q \in F$ such that $q_0 a_1 \cdots a_n \triangleright^* b_1 \cdots b_i q b_{i+1} \cdots b_m$. That is, some final state $q \in F$ is visited in the computation.
- The languages (of the strings) accepted by \mathcal{M} is denoted as $L(\mathcal{M})$.

Example

$$L = \{a^n b^n : n \geq 0\}.$$

Example

$L = \{a^n b^n : n \geq 0\}$ is accepted by a TM.



- Up to now, the TM's we considered are devices that can decide whether an input is accepted or not.
- Observe that when a machine enters a final state, it leaves a string on the tape. If we regard such a string as an **output** of this TM for a given input, we can naturally define a function from strings to strings.
- This is called a **(Turing) computable function**.

Remark

- Such a function is **partially** defined, since a TM does not always terminate.
- To make the output unique, we define the **output** of (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.

A Turing definable function gives a mapping from strings to strings. It can be translated into a number-theoretic function $f : \mathbb{N}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ as follows.

Definition 5.5

A number-theoretic function $f : \mathbb{N}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ is **computable** if there is a Turing machine \mathcal{M} accepts

$$1^{m_1}01^{m_2}0 \dots 01^{m_k} := \underbrace{1 \dots 1}_{m_1} \underbrace{01 \dots 1}_0 \underbrace{0 \dots 0}_{m_2} \dots \underbrace{01 \dots 1}_{m_k}$$

and outputs

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

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

However, we can show

$$f \text{ is computable} \Leftrightarrow \{1^{m_1}0 \dots 01^{m_k}01^{f(m_1, \dots, m_k)} : m_1, \dots, m_k \in \mathbb{N}\} \\ \text{is accepted by a TM with alphabet } \{0, 1\}.$$

Theorem 5.6 (Kleene's normal form theorem)

There exist a primitive recursive function $U(y)$ and a primitive recursive relation $T_n(e, x_1, \dots, x_n, y)$ such that any computable function $f(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ is expressed as follows: for some e ,

$$f(x_1, \dots, x_n) \sim U(\mu y T_n(e, x_1, \dots, x_n, y))$$

$\mu y T_n(e, x_1, \dots, x_n, y)$ is also expressed as $\mu y ((1 - \chi_{T_n}(e, x_1, \dots, x_n, y)) = 0)$, where $\chi_{T_n}(\vec{x})$ is a characteristic function of $T_n(\vec{x})$, that is, it is 1 if $T_n(\vec{x})$ is true, and 0 otherwise.

Note: By $f(x_1, \dots, x_n) \sim U(\mu y T_n(e, x_1, \dots, x_n, y))$, we mean that either both functions are undefined or defined with the same value.

Proof idea

- Our method here is different from Kleene's original proof.
- Since the internal mechanism of a Turing machine is finite, it is possible to encode it with natural number e , which can reproduce the machine.
- Giving an input sequence (x_1, \dots, x_n) to a Turing machine with code e , we watch its computation process and record the entire sequence of configurations until it halts.

- The computation may not stop in finite steps. But if it does, the computation recode is a finite sequence and can be coded as a natural number $y = (y_0, \dots, y_k)$.
- To check whether y is a correct computation process by a Turing machine with code e on an input (x_1, \dots, x_n) , it is sufficient to check whether each transition from y_i to y_{i+1} is correct or not. Thus, there exists a primitive recursive relation $T_n(e, x_1, \dots, x_n, y) \Leftrightarrow$ “ y is the code of a computation process of Turing machine with code e on input (x_1, \dots, x_n) .”
- Furthermore, since y also contains the information about the output, there is a primitive recursive function $U(y)$ that extracts the output from y . So, $U(\mu y T_n(e, x_1, \dots, x_n, y))$ is the output of a Turing machine with code e on input (x_1, \dots, x_n) . □

Fixing U and T_n constructed in the above proof, $U(\mu y T_n(e, x_1, \dots, x_n, y))$ is called the n -ary computable (partial) function of **index** e , which is denoted as $\{e\}^n(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ or simply $\{e\}(x_1, \dots, x_n)$.

For a computable (total) function f , $\mu y T_n(e, x_1, \dots, x_n, y)$ is always defined and so $\{e\}(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ is a recursive function.

Corollary 5.7

The family of general recursive functions and the family of recursive functions are the same.

Proof. By Theorem 5.3 on Page 13, all recursive functions are general recursive.

It is easy to see that a general recursive function is computable. For a general recursive function $f(\vec{x})$, there exists a finite equational theory E to define it. So, for each \vec{a} , there exists a unique c such that $E \vdash f(\vec{a}) = \bar{c}$. Assuming there exists a proof of $E \vdash f(\vec{a}) = \bar{c}$ for some c , we can find out c by breadth-first search on possible proofs of E . However, it should be noted that it is undecidable whether or not a given equational theory defines a (general recursive) function.

Finally, by Kleene's normal form theorem in Page 30, a computable function is a recursive function. Therefore, these function families coincide. \square

Thank you for your attention!