

REKURSIONSTHEORIE

RECUSION THEORY

WINTERSEMESTER 2021/22

Lecture I



Universität Hamburg
DER FORSCHUNG | DER LEHRE | DER BILDUNG

- Lectures will not be scheduled regularly, but picked mouth by mouth from a list of possible dates. [Moodle.]
- We continue until we have covered the planned material (approximately 13 to 15 lectures)
- Oral exams will take place once all lectures have been given.

Hand-written lecture notes will be uploaded to Moodle after each lecture.

RECUSION THEORY VS COMPUTABILITY THEORY

They are the same.

Berechenbarkeits-theorie

What is it about?

Mathematical theory of computation
in particular, its limits.

Repetition from Logic about definitions,
precision & negative results:

NOTION OF PROOF



For giving a proof, I only need sufficient conditions for being a proof.

If you want to show negative results, i.e., that something is not provable, you need necessary conditions for being a proof.

Negative results require an ability
to check that we covered all possible
proofs.

A non-logical example

GALOIS Theory.

Example

"There is no solution formula
for quintics."

"There is no geometric
construction of $\sqrt[3]{2}$
by ruler & compass."

DELIC
problem

Computation

We have many positive results
in mathematics:

"There is an algorithm that computes
...."

This does not need necessary conditions
for being an algorithm.

But: if we want to show that something
is UNCOMPUTABLE, we need to have
such a definition.

§11. Das Entscheidungsproblem im Funktionenkalkül und seine Bedeutung.

Die mathematische Logik leistet aber noch mehr als eine Verschärfung der Sprache durch die symbolische Darstellung der Schlussweisen. Nachdem einmal der logische Formalismus feststeht, kann man erwarten, daß eine systematische, sozusagen rechnerische Behandlung der logischen Formeln möglich ist, die etwa der Theorie der Gleichungen in der Algebra entsprechen würde.

Eine ausgebildete „Algebra der Logik“ begegnete uns im Aussagenkalkül (man vgl. insbesondere § 4–9 des I. Kapitels). Die wichtigsten der dort erwähnten und gelösten Probleme waren das der *Allgemeingültigkeit* und der *Erfüllbarkeit* eines logischen Ausdrucks. Beide Probleme zusammen pflegt man auch kurz als das *Entscheidungsproblem* zu bezeichnen.

Bei dem Problem der *Allgemeingültigkeit* handelt es sich um die folgende Frage: Wie kann man bei einem beliebigen vorgelegten logischen Ausdruck, der keine individuellen Zeichen enthält, feststellen, ob der Ausdruck bei beliebigen Einsetzungen für die vorkommenden Variablen eine richtige Behauptung darstellt oder nicht?

Bei dem Problem der *Erfüllbarkeit* handelt es sich um die Frage, ob es überhaupt eine Einsetzung für die Variablen gibt, so daß durch den betreffenden Ausdruck eine richtige Behauptung dargestellt wird.

Beide Probleme sind zueinander dual. Ist ein Ausdruck nicht allgemeingültig, so ist das Gegenteil erfüllbar und umgekehrt.

from:

Hilbert-Ackermann,

Grundzüge der theoretischen Logik (1928)

excerpt from: Ewald & Sieg (eds.),

David Hilbert's Lectures on the Foundations of Arithmetic & Logic 1917–1933

The most important problems mentioned and solved there are those of *Validity* and *Satisfiability* of a logical expression. Both problems together are usually called in short the *Entscheidungsproblem*.

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The problem of *Validity* is the following question: How can we determine for an arbitrary given logical expression [...] whether it represents under arbitrary assignments for the variables a correct claim or not?

William Ewald
Wilfried Sieg
Editors

DAVID
HILBERT'S
*Lectures
on the Foundations
of Arithmetic and Logic*
1917–1933

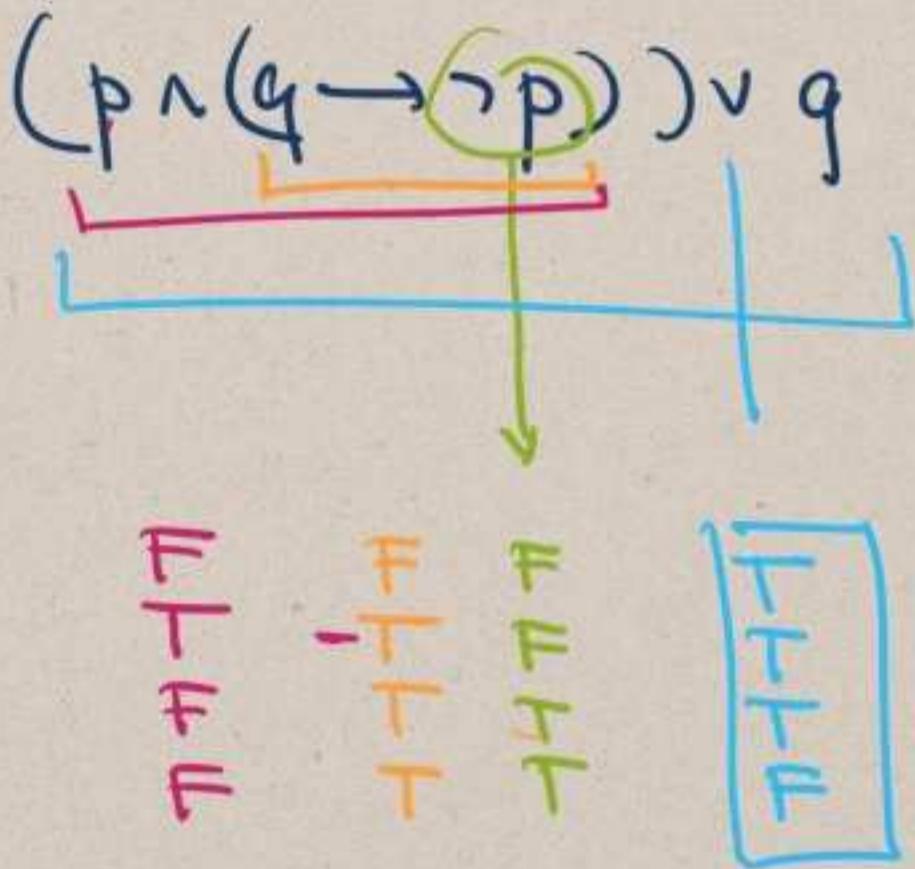
David Hilbert.



Springer

David Hilbert's Foundational Lectures

P	q
T	T
T	F
F	T
F	F



Hilbert's 1928 question was supposed to have a positive answer ("Wir müssen wissen, wir werden wissen"). Then sufficient conditions for what an algorithm is would have sufficed.

But: the answer was NO.
So we first needed to come up with a precise definition of

DECISION PROCEDURE
[COMPUTATION
ALGORITHM].

Alonzo Church



Alonzo Church (1903–1995)

Born	June 14, 1903 Washington, D.C., US
Died	August 11, 1995 (aged 92) Hudson, Ohio, US
Citizenship	United States
Alma mater	Princeton University
Known for	Lambda calculus Simply typed lambda calculus Church encoding Church's theorem Church–Kleene ordinal Church–Turing thesis Frege–Church ontology Church–Rosser theorem Intensional logic

Theory of recursive functions

Based on function definitions using recursion.

Alan Turing

OBE FRS



Turing c. 1928 at age 16

Born	Alan Mathison Turing 23 June 1912 Maida Vale, London, England
Died	7 June 1954 (aged 41) Wilmslow, Cheshire, England

ON COMPUTABLE NUMBERS, WITH AN APPLICATION TO THE ENTSCHEIDUNGSPROBLEM

By A. M. TURING.

[Revised 28 May, 1936.—Read 12 November, 1936.]

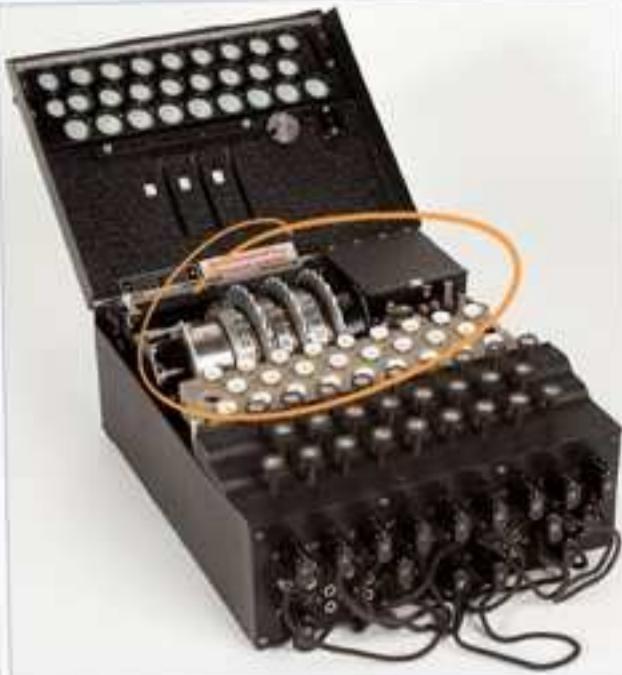
The "computable" numbers may be described briefly as the real numbers whose expressions as a decimal are calculable by finite means. Although the subject of this paper is ostensibly the computable numbers, it is almost equally easy to define and investigate computable functions of an integral variable or a real or computable variable, computable predicates, and so forth. The fundamental problems involved are, however, the same in each case, and I have chosen the computable numbers for explicit treatment as involving the least cumbersome techniques. I hope shortly to give an account of the relations of the computable numbers, functions, and so forth to one another. This will include a development of the theory of functions of a real variable expressed in terms of computable numbers. According to my definition, a number is computable if its decimal can be written down by a machine.

In §§9, 10 I give some arguments with the intention of showing that the computable numbers include all numbers which could naturally be regarded as computable. In particular, I show that certain large classes of numbers are computable. They include, for instance, the real parts of all algebraic numbers, the real parts of the zeros of the Bessel functions, the numbers π , e , etc. The computable numbers do not, however, include all definable numbers, and an example is given of a definable number which is not computable.

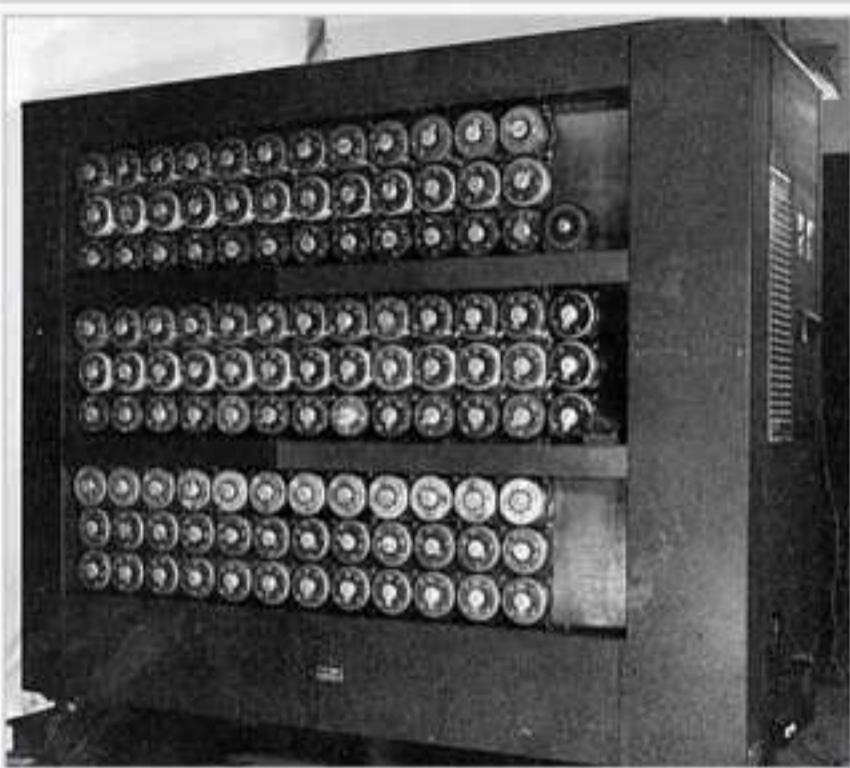
Although the class of computable numbers is so great, and in many ways similar to the class of real numbers, it is nevertheless enumerable. In §8 I examine certain arguments which would seem to prove the contrary. By the correct application of one of these arguments, conclusions are reached which are superficially similar to those of Gödel†. These results



† Gödel, "Über formal unentscheidbare Sätze der Principia Mathematica und verwandter Systeme," 2nd Monatshefte Math. Phys., 38 (1931), 173–188.



Military Enigma machine, model "Enigma I", used during the late 1930s and during the war; displayed at Museo Nazionale Scienza e Tecnologia Leonardo da Vinci, Milan, Italy



A wartime picture of a Bletchley Park Bombe

Bletchley Park



The mansion in 2017



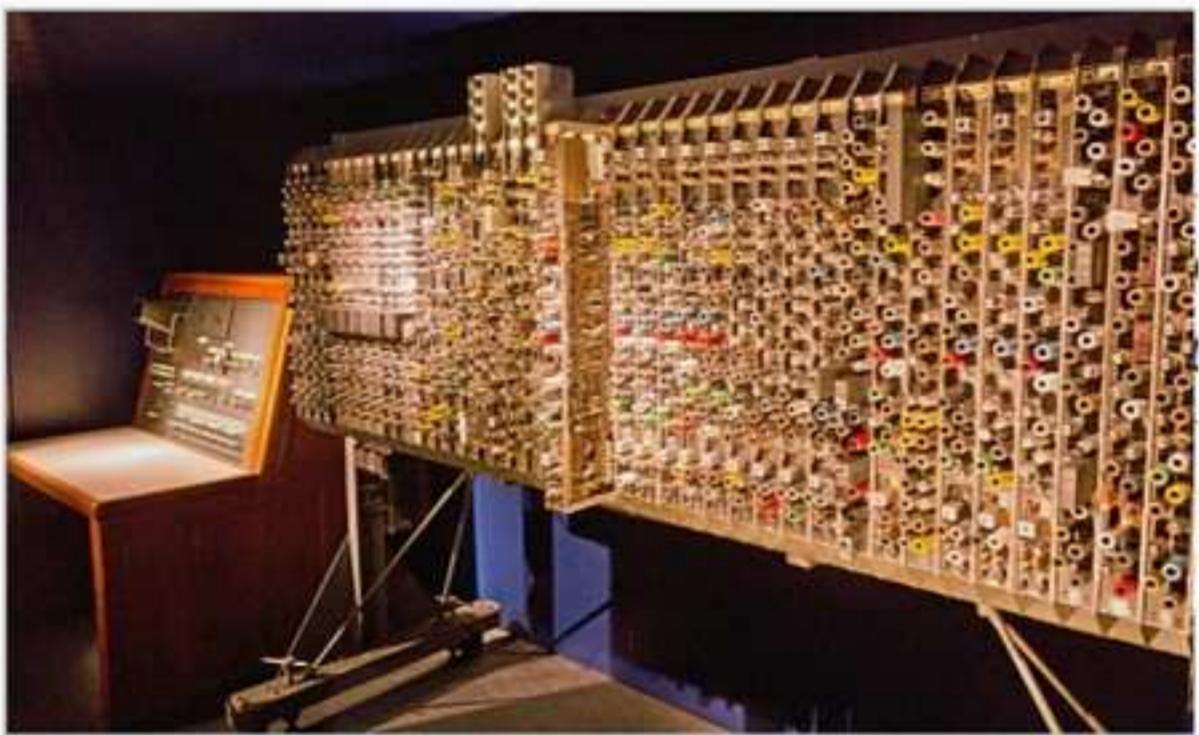
Established 1938 (as a code-breaking centre); 1993 (as a museum)

Location Bletchley, Milton Keynes, Buckinghamshire, England, United Kingdom

Coordinates 51.998°N 0.741°W

The Bombe was still custom-built for one purpose and did not follow the SOFTWARE PRINCIPLE (one machine for several purposes, depending on the program).

Automatic Computing Engine



ACE

Pilot ACE



S 1 BASICS

Def. A set is called an alphabet if it is nonempty and finite.

- Examples : 1. $\{0, 1\}$
2. $\{a, b, c, d, \dots, z\}$
3. $\{a, b, c, d, \dots, z, 0, 1, \dots, 9\}$
4. $\{a, A, b, B, c, C, \dots, z, Z, \sqcup, 0, 1, \dots, 9, ., !, ", \$, %, \dots\}$

CONTENT OF A STANDARD
KEYBOARD

Def. A word (more precisely, a Σ -word) is a finite sequence of elements of Σ .
The set of words is $\sum^{<\omega}$ (set-theoretic notation) or \sum^* .

Observation \sum^* is always countably infinite.

The empty word, set-theoretically \emptyset , is denoted by ϵ .

Set-theoretically, $w \in \sum^*$ is a function with $\text{dom}(w) \in \mathbb{N}$. We call it the length of w , m symbols, $l(w)$.

Def. A function $w : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \Sigma$ is called an infinite word.

The set of infinite words is denoted by \sum^ω and is uncountable if Σ has at least two symbols.

If $v, w \in \Sigma^*$ with $lu(v) = u$ and $lu(w) = m$, we write vw for the concatenation of v and w defined by

$$vw : n+m \longrightarrow \Sigma$$

$$\begin{array}{ccc} k & \xrightarrow{\hspace{2cm}} & v(k) & \text{if } k < n \\ n+l & \xrightarrow{\hspace{2cm}} & w(l) & \text{if } l < m \end{array}$$

Def. If $v \in \Sigma^*$ with $lu(v) = u$, we say that w is a subword of v , if there are $i_0 < i_1 < \dots < i_m < u$

$$w(k) = v(i_k) \quad k < m$$

Remark Our definition of "word" is general enough to cover, e.g., digital images:

screen resolution 1000×800

so 800,000 pixels

colour resolution $\circlearrowleft 64,000$ ← alphabet

Then if Σ is the set of colours, the set of words of length 800,000 corresponds to all possible image files.

Partial functions

$f: X \rightarrow Y$ FUNCTION

$$\Leftrightarrow \boxed{\forall x \forall y \forall y' f(x) = y \wedge f(x) = y' \rightarrow y = y'}$$

$$\wedge \forall x \exists y f(x) = y$$

TOTALITY

Partial functions only satisfy *, so they are precisely the functions

where $\underline{g: Z \rightarrow Y}$
 $Z = \text{dom}(g) \subseteq X$.

Let's introduce notation for this:

$f: X \dashrightarrow Y$

for " f is a partial function from X to Y "

$\Leftrightarrow \exists Z \subseteq X \text{ s.t. } f: Z \rightarrow Y$.

If you don't like partial functions, think of them as functions

where $\hat{f}: X \rightarrow Y \cup \{ \}^*$

$x \mapsto f(x)$ if $x \in \text{dom}(f)$
 if $x \notin \text{dom}(f)$

↗ new symbol
 ↗ representing
 ↗ undefined

We are going to use the following notation:

If $f: X \rightarrow Y$

and $x \in X$, we write

$f(x) \uparrow$ for $x \notin \text{dom}(f)$

"DIVERGES"

"IS UNDEFINED"

$f(x) \downarrow$ for $x \in \text{dom}(f)$

"CONVERGES"

Sometimes $f(x) \downarrow = y$ for

" $f(x)$ converges and is equal to y ".

CONVENTION If $f, g: X \rightarrow Y$

and $x \in X$ we write

$$\boxed{f(x) = g(x)}$$

to mean if $f(x) \downarrow$, then $g(x) \downarrow$
and vice versa and $f(x) = g(x)$
and if $f(x) \uparrow$, then $g(x) \uparrow$
and vice versa.

Equivalently, $\hat{f}(x) = \hat{g}(x)$.

Concatenation

If $f: X \rightarrow Y$ and $g: Y \rightarrow Z$, we write
 $g \circ f : X \rightarrow Z$ and we
say
if $f(x) \downarrow$, then $gof(x) := \hat{g}(f(x))$
if $f(x) \uparrow$, then $gof(x) \uparrow$.

§2 Models of Computation

Def. A MODEL OF COMPUTATION is a triple

$$M = (\Sigma, \Phi, h)$$

where

Σ is an alphabet

Φ is a transition function

h is an output function.

$$\Phi : \Sigma^* \times \Sigma^* \longrightarrow \Sigma^*$$

where

$$lh(\Phi(v, w)) \leq lh(w) + 1$$

PROGRAM

INPUT
STORAGE

This already incorporates the software principle.

h is a partial function

$$h: \Sigma^* \dashrightarrow \Sigma^*$$

$H := \text{dom}(h)$; its elements are called the writing markers

and $h(w)$ is a subword of w .

In words: The transition function

Φ gets a program $P \in \Sigma^*$ and an input $w \in \Sigma^*$. It does one step of the computation.

If the new content of the storage $\Phi(P, w) \in H$, it writes and outputs $h(\Phi(P, w))$.

If $\Phi(P, w) \notin H$, it continues.

Recursive definition:

$$w_0 \sim C_M(P, w, 0) := w$$

$$w_{n+1} \sim C_M(P, w, n+1) := \Phi(P, C(P, w, n))$$

Called the M-computation with program P and input w .

Def. The M-computation with program P and input w halts if there is some $i \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t.

$$C_M(P, w, i) \in H.$$

In this case, we say that the M-computation with P/w outputs ✓ if for the least i s.t.

$$C_M(P, w, i) \in H$$

we have

$$v = h(C_M(P, w, i)).$$

Let's write $O_M(P, w)$ for this.

The computation gives us a partial function for each program P:

$$f_P : \Sigma^* \dashrightarrow \Sigma^*$$

$$f_P(w) := \begin{cases} q_M(P, w) & \text{if the comp. halts} \\ \uparrow & \text{O/w.} \end{cases}$$

NEXT LECTURE : Friday 22 October
4 pm