

0.1 URM Computations and their Arithmetization

We now return to the systematic development of the basic theory of partial recursive functions, with a view of gaining an insight in the inherent limitations of the computing processes.

Instrumental to this study is a mathematical characterization of what is going on during a URM computation as well as a mathematical “coding”, as a primitive recursive predicate, of the statement “*the URM M , when presented with input x has a terminating computation, coded by the number y* ” —the so-called Kleene-predicate. We achieve this “mathematization” via a process that [Göd31] invented in his paper on incompleteness of arithmetic, namely, *arithmetization*. The arithmetization of URM computations is our first task in this section. This must begin with a mathematically precise definition of “URM computation”.

As an “agent” executes some URM’s, M , instructions, it generates at each step *instantaneous descriptions (IDs)*—intuitively, “snapshots”—of a computation.

The information each such description includes is simply the values of each variable of M , and the label (instruction number) of *the instruction that is about to be executed next*—the so-called *current* instruction.

In this section we will *arithmetize* URMs and their computations—just as Gödel did in the case of formal arithmetic and its proofs (loc. cit.)—and prove a cornerstone result of computability, the “normal form theorem” of Kleene that, essentially, says that the URM programming language is rich enough to allow us write a *universal program for computable functions*. Such a program, U , receives two inputs: One is a URM description, M , and the other is “data”, x . U then simulates M on the data, behaving exactly as M would on input x .

Programmers may call such a universal program an *interpreter* or a *compiler*.

0.1.1 Definition. (Codes for Instructions) The instructions are coded—using prime-power coding $\langle x_0, \dots, x_n \rangle$ —as follows, where $X1^i$ is short for

$$X \overbrace{1 \cdots 1}^{i \text{ ones}}, \quad i \geq 0$$

In the metalanguage we use, of course, convenient names as x_0, X', x, y, Z , etc., for variables.

- (1) $L : X1^i \leftarrow a$ has code $\langle 1, L, i, a \rangle$.
- (2) $L : X1^i \leftarrow X1^i + 1$ has code $\langle 2, L, i \rangle$.
- (3) $L : X1^i \leftarrow X1^i \div 1$ has code $\langle 3, L, i \rangle$.
- (4) $L : \text{if } X1^i = 0 \text{ goto } P \text{ else goto } R$ has code $\langle 4, L, i, P, R \rangle$.
- (5) $L : \text{stop}$ has code $\langle 5, L \rangle$. □



0.1.2 Remark. So we have 5 types of instructions coded as numbers, and it will be convenient to have 5 predicates that test a number for being *which* instruction code. In what follows we employ shorthand such as $(\exists z, w)_{<u}$ for $(\exists z)_{<u}(\exists w)_{<u}$, and similarly for longer quantifier groupings, as well as for \forall .

$$\begin{aligned} \text{typ1}(z) &\stackrel{Def}{\equiv} \text{Seq}(z) \wedge \text{lh}(z) = 4 \wedge (z)_0 = 1 \wedge (\exists L, i, a)_{\leq z} z = \langle 1, L + 1, i, a \rangle \\ \text{typ2}(z) &\stackrel{Def}{\equiv} \text{Seq}(z) \wedge \text{lh}(z) = 3 \wedge (z)_0 = 2 \wedge (\exists L, i)_{\leq z} z = \langle 2, L + 1, i \rangle \\ \text{typ3}(z) &\stackrel{Def}{\equiv} \text{Seq}(z) \wedge \text{lh}(z) = 3 \wedge (z)_0 = 3 \wedge (\exists L, i)_{\leq z} z = \langle 3, L + 1, i \rangle \\ \text{typ4}(z) &\stackrel{Def}{\equiv} \text{Seq}(z) \wedge \text{lh}(z) = 5 \wedge (z)_0 = 4 \wedge (\exists L, i, P, R)_{\leq z} z = \langle 4, L + 1, i, P + 1, R + 1 \rangle \\ \text{typ5}(z) &\stackrel{Def}{\equiv} \text{Seq}(z) \wedge \text{lh}(z) = 2 \wedge (z)_0 = 5 \wedge (\exists L)_{\leq z} z = \langle 5, L + 1 \rangle \end{aligned}$$

Clearly, $\text{typ1}(z)$ to $\text{typ5}(z)$ are primitive recursive, and so is

$$\text{instr}(z) \stackrel{Def}{\equiv} \text{typ1}(z) \vee \text{typ2}(z) \vee \text{typ3}(z) \vee \text{typ4}(z) \vee \text{typ5}(z)$$

$\text{instr}(z)$ is true iff z codes a URM instruction. □ 

In turn, we code a URM M as an ordered sequence of numbers, each being a code for an instruction. Thus given a code z [i.e., z codes *something*: $Seq(z)$ is true] we can determine algorithmically whether z codes some URM. This remark is made precise in Theorem 0.1.3 below.

0.1.3 Theorem. *The relation $URM(z)$ that holds precisely if z codes a URM is in \mathcal{PR}_* .*

Proof. So, $URM(z)$ says that

- z satisfies $Seq(z)$ and $lh(z) \geq 2$ (at least two instructions since **stop** refers to no variables)
- **stop** appears only once, as the $lh(z)$ -th instruction
- The i -th instruction in the URM code $z = p_0^{(z)_{0+1}} \dots p_i^{(z)_{i+1}} \dots p_n^{(z)_{n+1}}$ has label i , but we must account in this correspondence that labels go “1, 2, 3, ...”, but members of the code z are enumerated as $(z)_j$, for $j = 0, 1, 2, \dots$. Labels values are shifted 1-to-the-right.

Thus, $((z)_i)_1 = i + 1$.

- Instruction type 4 does not branch to illegal line numbers (i.e., less than 1 or more than the label of **stop**).

$$URM(z) \equiv Seq(z) \wedge lh(z) \geq 2 \wedge (z)_{lh(z) \dot{-} 1} = \langle 5, lh(z) \rangle \wedge$$

$$(\forall i)_{<lh(z) \dot{-} 1} \left(\left(instr((z)_i) \wedge \neg typ5((z)_i) \right) \wedge ((z)_i)_1 = i + 1 \wedge$$

$$\left(typ4((z)_i) \rightarrow 1 \leq ((z)_i)_3 \wedge 1 \leq ((z)_i)_4 \wedge ((z)_i)_3 \leq lh(z) \wedge ((z)_i)_4 \leq lh(z) \right) \right) \quad \square$$



0.1.4 Remark. (Normalizing Input/Output:) There is clearly no loss of generality (why?) in assuming that any URM that computes a function of $n \geq 1$ inputs does so using $X1$ through $X1^n$ as *input* variables and X , i.e., $X1^0$ as the *output* variable. Such a URM will have at least three instructions, since the **stop** instruction does not reference any variables and no instruction refers to two distinct variables. □ 

0.1.5 Definition. An ID of a computation of a URM M is an ordered sequence $L; a_0, a_1, \dots, a_r$, where all of M 's variables—that is, all those referenced in instructions in M —appear **among** the $X, X1, X11, \dots, X1^r$, and the a_i is the value of $X1^i$.

Thus, the formal variables $X, X1, X11, \dots, X1^r$ is a *superset* of the variables that are actually used.

In any discussion we pick and fix such a superset.

In *metanotation* we will denote these formal variables as $\mathbf{x}_0, \dots, \mathbf{x}_r$, while a_i denotes the current value of \mathbf{x}_i *immediately before* instruction L is executed. L points precisely to the *current instruction*, meaning the immediately next to be executed.

All IDs have the same length, and we say that ID $I_1 = L; a_0, \dots, a_r$ yields ID $I_2 = P; b_0, \dots, b_r$, in symbols $I_1 \vdash I_2$, *exactly when one* of (i)–(v) below is the case:

- (i) L labels “ $\mathbf{x}_i \leftarrow c$ ”, and I_1 and I_2 are identical, except that $b_i = c$ and $P = L + 1$.
- (ii) L labels “ $\mathbf{x}_i \leftarrow \mathbf{x}_i + 1$ ”, and I_1 and I_2 are identical, except that $b_i = a_i + 1$ and $P = L + 1$.
- (iii) L labels “ $\mathbf{x}_i \leftarrow \mathbf{x}_i \dot{-} 1$ ”, and I_1 and I_2 are identical, except that $b_i = a_i \dot{-} 1$ and $P = L + 1$.
- (iv) L labels “if $\mathbf{x}_i = 0$ goto R else goto Q ”, and I_1 and I_2 are identical, except that $P = R$ if $a_i = 0$, while $P = Q$ otherwise.
- (v) L labels “**stop**”, and I_1 and I_2 are identical.



Thus when **stop** is reached the computation continues forever trivially, *changing nothing*. 

A *terminating computation* of M with input a_1, \dots, a_k is a sequence of IDs I_0, \dots, I_n such that for all $i < n$ we have $I_i \vdash I_{i+1}$ and for some $j \leq n$, I_j has as 0th component the label of **stop**. Moreover, I_0 is *initial*; that is,

$$I_0 = 1; 0, a_1, \dots, a_k, \underbrace{0, \dots, 0}_{r-k \text{ 0s}}$$

The above reflects the normalizing convention of 0.1.4, and the standard convention of *implicitly* —i.e., not as part of the computation— setting all the non-input variables to 0, i.e., the $\mathbf{x}_{k+1}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_r$ and \mathbf{x}_0 , *before* the computation “starts”.

The *length* or *run time* of the computation is its number of *steps* $I_i \vdash I_{i+1}$: That is, n . \square

We code an ID $I = L; a_0, \dots, a_r$ as $\text{code}(I) = \langle L, a_0, \dots, a_r \rangle$ and a terminating computation I_0, \dots, I_n by $\langle \text{code}(I_0), \dots, \text{code}(I_n) \rangle$.

So, how long need an ID of a URM M coded as z be?

Just long enough so that we do not omit any variables actually used in M !

Given the ID’s format (0.1.5), it suffices that it is as long as the *largest* index j of any variable y_j —this y_j is *among* the \mathbf{x}_i — that is used by the URM; *plus two* (why two?).

Since the maximum j is $\max\{((z)_i)_2 : i < lh(z)\}$, **and we have $((z)_i)_2 < z$** , we adopt for ID length the *generous*, but simple, bound $\leq z + 1$ (**that is, $(z - 1) + 2$**).



Thus, all IDs of a URM coded as z will have length $z + 1$.



0.1.6 Definition. The relation “ $yield(z, u, v)$ ” says “the URM with code z causes $u \vdash v$, where each of u and v are codes of IDs”. \square

0.1.7 Lemma. $yield(z, u, v) \in \mathcal{PR}_*$.

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned}
yield(z, u, v) \equiv & (\exists k)_{<z} (\exists L)_{<lh(z)} \left(L + 1 = (u)_0 \wedge \left\{ \right. \right. \\
& (\exists a)_{<z} \left((z)_L = \langle 1, L + 1, k, a \rangle \wedge v = 2p_{k+1}^{a+1} \left[u/p_{k+1}^{\exp(k+1, u)} \right] * \right) \vee \\
& ((z)_L = \langle 2, L + 1, k \rangle \wedge v = 2p_{k+1}u) \vee \\
& ((z)_L = \langle 3, L + 1, k \rangle \wedge v = 2(\text{if } (u)_{k+1} = 0 \text{ then } u \text{ else } \lfloor u/p_{k+1} \rfloor)) \vee \\
& (\exists P, R)_{<lh(z)} \left((z)_L = \langle 4, L + 1, k, P + 1, R + 1 \rangle \wedge \right. \\
& \qquad \qquad \qquad \left. v = \text{if } (u)_{k+1} = 0 \text{ then } \lfloor u/2^{L+2} \rfloor 2^{P+2} \right. \\
& \qquad \qquad \qquad \left. \text{else } \lfloor u/2^{L+2} \rfloor 2^{R+2} \right) \vee \\
& \left. \left. ((z)_L = \langle 5, L + 1 \rangle \wedge v = u) \right\} \right) \quad \square
\end{aligned}$$

0.1.8 Theorem. For any $n \geq 1$, the relation $Comp^{(n)}(z, y)$, which is true iff y codes a terminating computation of the n -input normalised URM coded by z is primitive recursive.

Proof. By the remark on p. 4, which normalises the input/output convention, it must be that $lh(y) \geq 3$. By the previous discussion ID length bound, and the fact that the variables of the ID are **among** the \mathbf{x}_i , we also have $lh((y)_i) = z + 1$ for all $i < lh(y)$.

In the course of the proof we will want to keep our quantifiers bounded by some primitive recursive function so that the placement of $Comp^{(n)}(z, y)$ in \mathcal{PR}_* can be achieved.

Observe next that

$$\begin{aligned}
Comp^{(n)}(z, y) \equiv & URM(z) \wedge Seq(y) \wedge (\forall i)_{<lh(y)} \left(Seq((y)_i) \wedge lh((y)_i) = z + 1 \wedge \right. \\
& \left. ((y)_i)_0 > 0 \right) \wedge lh(y) \geq 3 \wedge (\forall j)_{<lh(y)-1} yield(z, (y)_j, (y)_{j+1}) \wedge \\
\{\text{Comment. The last ID has the label of } z\text{'s stop.}\} & ((y)_{lh(y)-1})_0 = lh(z) \wedge \\
\{\text{Comment. The initial ID.}\} & ((y)_0)_0 = 1 \wedge ((y)_0)_1 = 0 \wedge \\
& (\forall i)_{\leq z} (n + 1 < i \rightarrow ((y)_0)_i = 0)
\end{aligned}$$

*The effect of “ $L + 1 : X1^k \leftarrow a$ ” on ID $u = \langle L + 1, \dots \rangle$ is to change $L + 1$ to $L + 2$ (effected by the factor 2) and change the current value of \mathbf{x}_k , which is $(u)_{k+1}$ since $L + 1$ is at position 0 of u , stored in the ID as a factor $p_{k+1}^{\exp(k+1, u)}$. This factor we *remove* by dividing u by it and then reset \mathbf{x}_k to a , this being accomplished by *inserting* the factor p_{k+1}^{a+1} instead.

0.1.9 Corollary. (The Kleene T -predicate) For each $n \geq 1$, the Kleene predicate $T^{(n)}(z, \vec{x}_n, y)$ that is true precisely when the n -input URM z with input \vec{x}_n has a terminating computation y , is primitive recursive.

Proof. By earlier remarks, $T^{(n)}(z, \vec{x}_n, y) \equiv \text{Comp}^{(n)}(z, y) \wedge ((y)_0)_2 = x_1 \wedge ((y)_0)_3 = x_2 \wedge \dots \wedge ((y)_0)_{n+1} = x_n$. \square

Recalling that for any predicate $R(y, \vec{x})$, $(\mu y)R(y, \vec{x})$ is alternative notation for $(\mu y)\chi_R(y, \vec{x})$ we have:

0.1.10 Corollary. (The Kleene Normal Form Theorem)

- (1) For any input/output normalized URM M of code z (0.1.1) and n inputs, we have that $M_X^{X^1, \dots, X^{1^n}}$ is defined on the input \vec{x}_n iff $(\exists y)T^{(n)}(z, \vec{x}_n, y)$.
- (2) There is a primitive recursive function d such that for any $\lambda \vec{x}_n.f(\vec{x}_n) \in \mathcal{P}$ there is a number z and we have for all \vec{x}_n :

$$f(\vec{x}_n) = d((\mu y)T^{(n)}(z, \vec{x}_n, y))$$

Proof. Statement (1) is immediate as “ $(\exists y)T^{(n)}(z, \vec{x}_n, y)$ ” says that there is a terminating computation of M (coded as z) on input \vec{x}_n .

For (2), let $f = M_X^{X^1, \dots, X^{1^n}}$, where M is a normalized URM of code z . The role of d is to extract, from a terminating computation’s last ID, its 1st component. Thus, for all y , we let $d(y) = ((y)_{lh(y)-1})_1$. \square



In what follows, the term *computation* will stand for *terminating computation*. Note that the “complete” equality[†] in the corollary, (2), becomes standard equality, =, iff we do have a (terminating) computation.



[†]That is, equality on \mathbb{N} extended by stipulating that $\uparrow = \uparrow$.

0.1.11 Definition. (ϕ -Notation of [Rog67]) We denote by $\phi_z^{(n)}$ the partial recursive n -ary function computed by a URM of code z , as $M_X^{X^1, \dots, X^{1^n}}$. That is, $\phi_z^{(n)} = \lambda \vec{x}_n. d((\mu y)T^{(n)}(z, \vec{x}_n, y))$. We usually write ϕ_z for $\phi_z^{(1)}$ and $T(z, x, y)$ for $T^{(1)}(z, x, y)$. \square

0.1.12 Remark. If $f = \phi_i^{(n)}$, for some URM code i , then we call i a ϕ -index of f . \square

We now readily obtain the very important number-theoretic characterization of \mathcal{P} , a class that was originally defined in ?? via the URM formalism. This result is a direct consequence of 0.1.10 and is the direct analog of Theorem ??, about \mathcal{PR} .

0.1.13 Corollary. (Number-Theoretic Characterization of \mathcal{P}) \mathcal{P} is the closure of the same \mathcal{I} that we used for \mathcal{PR} , under composition, primitive recursion, and unbounded search.

Proof. If we temporarily call $\tilde{\mathcal{P}}$ the closure that we mentioned in the corollary, then since \mathcal{P} contains \mathcal{I} and is closed under the three stated operations, we immediately have $\tilde{\mathcal{P}} \subseteq \mathcal{P}$.

Conversely, ignoring closure under (μy) for a moment, we get $\mathcal{PR} \subseteq \tilde{\mathcal{P}}$. Thus $\lambda \vec{x}_n. d((\mu y)T^{(n)}(z, \vec{x}_n, y)) \in \tilde{\mathcal{P}}$, for all z . This shows $\mathcal{P} \subseteq \tilde{\mathcal{P}}$. \square



The preceding corollary provides an alternative formalism—that is, a *syntactic, finite description* other than via URM programs—for the functions of \mathcal{P} : Via \mathcal{P} -derivations, which can be defined totally analogously with the case of ??, by adding the operation of unbounded search. Both types of derivation are special cases of the general case of ??.



0.1.14 Remark. (1) The *normal form theorem* says, in particular, that every *unary* function that is computable in the technical sense of ??—or, equivalently, 0.1.13—can be expressed as an unbounded search followed by a composition, *using a toolbox of just two primitive recursive functions(!):* d and $\lambda zxy.\chi_T(z, x, y)$. This representation, or “normal form”, is parametrized by z , which denotes a URM M that computes the function in a normalized manner: as $M_X^{X^1}$. *Thus what we had set out to do at the beginning of this section is now done:* The two-input URM \mathbf{U} that computes $\lambda zx.d((\mu y)T(z, x, y))$ —a computable function by 0.1.13—is universal, in precise the same way that *compilers*[‡] of practical computing are: The universal URM \mathbf{U} accepts two inputs—a program M , coded as a number z , and data for said program, x . It then “interprets” and acts exactly as program z would on x , i.e., as $M_X^{X^1}$.

(2) From Definition 0.1.1 it is clear that *not* every $z \in \mathbb{N}$ represents a URM. Nevertheless, “ $\lambda x.d((\mu y)T(z, x, y))$ ” in Definition 0.1.11 is meaningful for all natural numbers z regardless of whether they code a URM or not,



and is in \mathcal{P} , by the latter’s closure properties.



Thus, if z is *not* a URM code, then $T(z, x, y)$ will simply be false, for all x , and all y ; thus we will have $\phi_z(x) \uparrow$ for all x . *This is perfectly fine!* Indeed, it is consistent with the phenomenon where a real-life computer program that is *not* syntactically correct (like our z here) will not be translated by the compiler and thus will not run. Therefore, for any input it will decline to offer an output; the corresponding function will be totally undefined.



Due to these considerations we *extend* the concept of ϕ -index to all of \mathbb{N} , and correspondingly remove the hedging from Definition 0.1.11: “computed by a URM of code z , as $M_X^{X^1, \dots, X^{1^n}}$ ”.

We now say: For all $z \in \mathbb{N}$, $\phi_z^{(n)}$ denotes the function $\lambda \vec{x}_n.d((\mu y)T^{(n)}(z, \vec{x}_n, y))$.



(3) In view of the above redefinition, Definition ?? can now be rephrased as “ $\lambda \vec{x}_n.f(\vec{x}_n) \in \mathcal{P}$ iff, for some $z \in \mathbb{N}$, $f = \phi_z^{(n)}$ ”—not just “for some z that is a URM code”. □

[‡]A “compiler” translates “high level” programs written in C, Pascal, etc., into machine language so they can be “understood” by a computer, and therefore be executed on given input data.

0.1.15 Exercise. Prove that every function of \mathcal{P} has infinitely many ϕ -indices.

Hint. There are infinitely many ways to modify a program and yet have all programs so obtained compute the same function. \square

0.1.16 Example. The nowhere-defined function, \emptyset , is in \mathcal{P} , as it can be obtained from any invalid code. For example,

$$\emptyset = \lambda x.d((\mu y)T(0, x, y))$$

Pause. Why is 0 not a URM code? \blacktriangleleft

It can, however, also be obtained from a program that compiles all right. Setting $\tilde{S} = \lambda yx.x + 1$ we note:

(1) $\lambda x.(\mu y)\tilde{S}(y, x) \in \mathcal{P}$ by ?? and ??.

(2) By the techniques of ?? we can write a program for $\emptyset = \lambda x.(\mu y)\tilde{S}(y, x)$.

As a side-effect we have that $\mathcal{PR} \neq \mathcal{P}$ and $\mathcal{R} \neq \mathcal{P}$. \square

Bibliography

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