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by

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FUNCTIONS HAVING THE GRAPH IN \mathcal{E}^n

by Serban BUZETIANU and Cristian CALUDE

We characterize the number-theoretic functions having the graph in the n th Grzegorczyk class \mathcal{E}^n . Tradeoffs between the complexity of a function and the complexity of its graph are analysed. As an application we prove that some well-known recursive but non-primitive recursive functions of Ackermann's type have elementary graphs.

1. PRELIMINARIES

Let $\mathbb{N} = \{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$ be the set of natural numbers. All functions will be concerned with are number-theoretic, i.e. they are defined on \mathbb{N}^k ($k \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$), and they take only natural values.

Given a function $f : \mathbb{N}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$, we put: $\text{Graph}(f) = \{(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k, y) \in \mathbb{N}^{k+1} \mid f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k) = y\}$, $\text{range}(f) = \{f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k) \mid (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k) \in \mathbb{N}^k\}$. For every subset $X \subset \mathbb{N}^k$ we denote by $\chi_X : \mathbb{N}^k \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ its characteristic function.

Denote by \mathcal{E}^n the n th class in Grzegorczyk's hierarchy [8]. Each class \mathcal{E}^n contains the functions $\text{sg} : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$, $\text{sg}(0)=0$, $\text{sg}(x)=1$, for $x > 0$, $\vdash : \mathbb{N}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$, $x \vdash y = \max(x-y, 0)$, $\text{eq} : \mathbb{N}^2 \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$, $\text{eq}(x, x)=1$, $\text{eq}(x, y)=0$, for all $x, y \in \mathbb{N}$, $x \neq y$, and it is closed under limited minimization. The family of predicates in \mathcal{E}^n , denoted by \mathcal{E}_X^n , is closed under Boolean operations and limited quantifiers.

The third class \mathcal{E}^3 coincides with the class of Kalmár elementary functions; it contains the functions $\text{pn} : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$, $\text{pn}(x) =$ the x th prime ($\text{pn}(0)=2$, $\text{pn}(1)=3, \dots$), $\text{exp} : \mathbb{N}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$, $\text{exp}(n, x) =$ the exponent of the n th prime in the prime factor decomposition of x , $\text{long} : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$, $\text{long}(x) =$ the greatest index of a prime which divides x , and a pa-

ring functions ($J: \mathbb{N}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$, $K, L: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$), and it is closed under limited summation and multiplication.

Finally, for each function $f: \mathbb{N}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ we denote by $\mathcal{E}^n(f)$ the smallest class of number-theoretic functions which contains $\mathcal{E}^n \cup \{f\}$ and which is closed under limited primitive recursion and functional composition. We say that the function F is elementary in f in case $F \in \mathcal{E}^3(f)$.

For these well-known facts see [8], [13], [18].

2. MAIN RESULTS

We begin with a necessary and sufficient condition ensuring that a number-theoretic function has the graph in \mathcal{E}^n .

Theorem 1. Let $F: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ be an arbitrary function and n a natural number. The following assertions are equivalent:

a) There exist three functions $p, b: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ and $R: \mathbb{N}^2 \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ in \mathcal{E}^n such that for every natural x one has:

$$(1) \quad \mu_y [R(x, y) = 1] \leq b(F(x)),$$

$$(2) \quad F(x) = p(\frac{\mu_y}{b(F(x))} [R(x, y) = 1]).$$

b) The predicate $\chi_{\text{Graph}(F)}$ is in \mathcal{E}_x^n .

Proof. "a) \Rightarrow b)". Assume the existence of the functions p , b and R in \mathcal{E}^n satisfying (1) and (2). We shall prove that for all naturals x and z one has:

$$(3) \quad \chi_{\text{Graph}(F)}(x, z) = \text{eq}(z, p(\frac{\mu_y}{b(z)} [R(x, y) = 1])) \cdot (\bigvee_{y=0}^{b(z)} R(x, y)).$$

Suppose first that $\chi_{\text{Graph}(F)}(x, z) = 1$. In view of the hypothesis and (2) one has: $z = F(x) = p(\frac{\mu_y}{b(F(x))} [R(x, y) = 1]) = p(\frac{\mu_y}{b(z)} [R(x, y) = 1])$

i.e. $\text{eq}(z, p(\frac{\mu_y}{b(z)} [R(x, y) = 1])) = 1$. Furthermore, again by hypothesis and

(1), $\mu_y [R(x, y) = 1] \leq b(F(x)) = b(z)$, i.e. $R(x, y) = 1$, for some natural

$0 \leq y \leq b(z)$. So, $\bigvee_{y=0}^{b(z)} R(x, y) = 1$.

Conversely, assume that the predicate in the right-hand side of (3) is valid, i.e.

$$(4) \quad z = p(\mu y [R(x, y) = 1]),$$

and

$$(5) \quad R(x, y) = 1, \text{ for some } 0 \leq y \leq b(z).$$

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{In view of (5) and (1) we have: } \mu y [R(x, y) = 1] = \mu y [R(x, y) = 1] = \\ & = \mu y [R(x, y) = 1]. \text{ Hence, by (2) and (4) we obtain: } F(x) = \\ & = p(\mu y [R(x, y) = 1]) = p(\mu y [R(x, y) = 1]) = z. \end{aligned}$$

To finish we notice that formula (3) guarantees that

$\chi_{\text{Graph}(F)}$ is in \mathcal{E}_x^n .

"b) \Rightarrow a)". Take $p(z) = b(z)$, and $R(x, y) = \chi_{\text{Graph}(F)}(x, y)$, for all naturals z, x and y . \square

Remarks. i) Condition a) in Theorem 1 merely says that in case we write F in Kleene's Normal Form (see [18], [5]), the minimization operator is bounded by a function in $\mathcal{E}^n(F)$. In other words, in a suitable Blum space ([5]), the complexity of F is bounded by a function in $\mathcal{E}^n(F)$; see also [4].

ii) Clearly, if one of the equivalent conditions a) or b) holds, then F is recursive.

iii) Theorem 1 can be easily extended to functions $F: \mathbb{N}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$, or to appropriate complexity classes.

Theorem 2. Let $F: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ be an arbitrary bounded function, and n a natural number. Then, $F \in \mathcal{E}^n$ iff $\chi_{\text{Graph}(F)} \in \mathcal{E}_x^n$.

Proof. If range $(F) = \{a_0, a_1, \dots, a_m\}$, then we consider the partition $(A_i)_{0 \leq i \leq m}$, $A_i = \{(x, a_i) \mid (x, a_i) \in \text{Graph}(F)\}$ of $\text{Graph}(F)$.

If $F \in \mathcal{E}^n$, then $\chi_{\text{Graph}(F)}(x, z) = \text{eq}(F(x), z)$ is in \mathcal{E}_x^n . Conversely, if $\chi_{\text{Graph}(F)} \in \mathcal{E}_x^n$, then $F(x) = \mu_y [\bigvee_{i=0}^m \chi_{A_i}(x, y) = 1]$, where $a = \max(a_0, a_1, \dots, a_m)$. Clearly, each predicate $\chi_{A_i}(x, y) = \text{eq}(y, a_i) \cdot \chi_{\text{Graph}(F)}(x, y)$ is in \mathcal{E}_x^n , and $F \in \mathcal{E}^n$. \square

Corollary 3. Every bounded function $F: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ having a primitive recursive graph is itself primitive recursive.

Proof. Directly from Theorem 2. \square

Corollary 4. Let $P: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ be an arbitrary predicate. Then:

- For each $n \geq 1$, $P \in \mathcal{E}_x^n \setminus \mathcal{E}_x^{n-1}$ iff $\chi_{\text{Graph}(P)} \in \mathcal{E}_x^n \setminus \mathcal{E}_x^{n-1}$.
- The predicate P is recursive and non-primitive recursive iff $\chi_{\text{Graph}(P)}$ is recursive and non-primitive recursive.

Proof. a) By Theorem 2; b) is a consequence of a). \square

Remarks. i) Following [6], [10], for every natural $n \geq 3$, $\mathcal{E}_x^n \setminus \mathcal{E}_x^{n-1} \neq \emptyset$. It is an open problem whether the strict inclusion lies between the three smallest Grzegorczyk classes (see [10], [7]).

ii) Examples of recursive and non-primitive recursive predicates can be obtained using Rabin's Theorem ([14], [5]). See also Remark iv) following Corollary 9.

iii) The predicates occurring in Corollary 4 do not satisfy the hypothesis of Theorem 1.

3. APPLICATIONS

We use Theorem 1 to prove that the graphs of some well-known rapidly growing functions of Ackermann's type are elementary.

The Ackermann-Péter function $A: \mathbb{N}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ is defined by the equations ([1], [13], [5]):

$$(6) \quad A(0, x) = x+1,$$

$$(7) \quad A(n+1, 0) = A(n, 1),$$

$$(8) \quad A(n+1, x+1) = A(n, A(n+1, x)).$$

We recall the following well-known fact, which can be easily proved by induction on x and n .

Lemma 5. For all naturals n and x , the expression $A(n, x)$ can be evaluated to a unique natural number by means of a finite number of rightmost applications of equations (6)-(8). \square

Theorem 6. There exists an elementary predicate $R: \mathbb{N}^3 \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ such that for all naturals n and x , we have:

$$(9) \quad A(n, x) = \exp(0, \mu_y[R(n, x, y) = 1]).$$

Proof. Following [8], we shall encode and decode the computation of $A(n, x)$ by means of the number

$$pn(0) \cdot \prod_{i,j}^{A(n, x)} pn(j(i, j)),$$

where the product runs over all pairs $(i, j) \neq (0, 0)$, such that $A(i, j) \leq A(n, x)$. To this aim we shall consider the elementary functions $f: \mathbb{N}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$, $f(n, x, y) = \exp(j(n, x), y)$, and $P: \mathbb{N}^3 \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$,

$$(10) \quad P(n, x, y) = \overline{sg}(n) \cdot eq(f(n, x, y), x+1) + sg(n) \cdot \overline{sg}(x) \cdot sg(f(n \cdot 1, x+1, y)) \cdot eq(f(n, x, y), f(n \cdot 1, x+1, y)) + sg(n) \cdot sg(f(n, x \cdot 1, y)) \cdot sg(f(n \cdot 1, f(n, x \cdot 1, y), y)) \cdot eq(f(n, x, y), f(n \cdot 1, f(n, x \cdot 1, y), y)).$$

Finally, put

$$\begin{aligned} R(n, x, y) &= sg(f(n, x, y)) \cdot eq(f(0, 0, y), f(n, x, y)) \\ &\quad \text{long}(y) \cdot \prod_{t=1}^{long(y)} sg(\overline{sg}(f(K(t), L(t), y)) + \\ &\quad + P(K(t), L(t), y)). \end{aligned}$$

Intermediate step. Assume that $R(n, x, y) = 1$, for some naturals n, x , and y . Then, for every natural $1 \leq t \leq \text{long}(y)$, if $f(K(t), L(t), y) \neq 0$, then $A(K(t), L(t)) = f(K(t), L(t), y)$.

Suppose that $R(n, x, y) = 1$, and $f(K(t), L(t), y) \neq 0$, for some

$1 \leq t \leq \text{long}(y)$. In view of the construction of R , $\text{sg}(\overline{\text{sg}}(f(K(t), L(t), y)) + P(K(t), L(t), y)) = 1$. It follows that $P(K(t), L(t), y) = 1$, because $f(K(t), L(t), y) \neq 0$. We shall prove, in a double inductive way the relation $A(K(t), L(t)) = f(K(t), L(t), y)$. To this aim we shall analyse three cases (corresponding to equations (6)-(8)):

- i) If $K(t)=0$, then $l=P(K(t), L(t), y)=\text{eq}(f(K(t), L(t), y), L(t)+1)$, i.e. $f(K(t), L(t), y)=L(t)+1=A(K(t), L(t))$, in view of (6).
- ii) If $K(t) \neq 0$ and $L(t)=0$, then (according to (10)) one has: $f(K(t)-1, L(t)+1, y) > 0$, and $f(K(t), L(t), y)=f(K(t)-1, L(t)+1, y)$. Using the induction hypothesis and (7) we have: $A(K(t), L(t)) = A(K(t)-1, L(t)+1)=f(K(t)-1, L(t)+1, y)=f(K(t), L(t), y)$.

- iii) If $K(t)L(t) \neq 0$, then (by (10)) we have: $f(K(t), L(t)-1, y) > 0$, $f(K(t)-1, f(K(t), L(t)-1, y), y) > 0$, and $f(K(t), L(t), y)=f(K(t)-1, f(K(t), L(t)-1, y), y)$. Using the induction hypothesis and (8) we get: $A(K(t), L(t))=A(K(t)-1, A(K(t), L(t)-1))=A(K(t)-1, f(K(t), L(t)-1, y))=f(K(t)-1, f(K(t), L(t)-1, y), y)=f(K(t), L(t), y)$, thus finishing the proof of the Intermediate step.

Finally, we notice that formula (9) follows from the Intermediate step and the fact that for all naturals n and x , the number

$$(11) \quad \bar{y}_{n,x} = p_n(0)^{A(n,x)} \cdot \prod_{i,j}^{A(i,j)} p_n(j(i,j)),$$

where the product runs over all pairs $(i,j) \neq (0,0)$ for which $A(i,j)$ is used in the rightmost computation of $A(n,x)$, is the least natural satisfying $R(n,x, \bar{y}_{n,x})=1$. (Notice that the above product is finite in view of Lemma 5, and that for every pair $(n,x) \neq (0,0)$, $A(0,0)$ is not used in the rightmost computation of $A(n,x)$.) \square

Remark. Formula (9) ensures the recursiveness of A . See also Remark ii) following Corollary 9 below.

Theorem 7. There exists an elementary function $b:\mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ such that the function A can be represented as

$$(12) \quad A(n, x) = \exp(0, \lambda y [R(n, x, y) = 1], b(A(n, x))).$$

Proof. We shall establish an elementary bound $b:\mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ such that for all naturals n and x one has:

$$(13) \quad \lambda y [R(n, x, y) = 1] \leq b(A(n, x)).$$

To this aim we construct for each pair (n, x) the natural number

$$y_{n,x} = pn(0) \prod_{(i,j) \in I_{n,x}} pn(J(i, j))^{A(i, j)},$$

where $I_{n,x} = \{(i, j) \in \mathbb{N}^2 \setminus \{(0, 0)\} \mid A(i, j) \leq A(n, x)\}$. In view of the monotonicity properties of the Ackermann-Péter function ($A(n, x) > \max(n, x)$, and A is increasing in both arguments), one has $y_{n,x} \geq \bar{y}_{n,x}$ ($\bar{y}_{n,x}$ comes from (11)). Furthermore, the inequality

$$\prod_{(i,j) \in I_{n,x}} pn(J(i, j)) \leq pn(J(A(n, x), A(n, x)))^{(A(n, x)+1)^2},$$

guarantees that the elementary function

$$b(z) = (2 \cdot pn(J(z, z)))^{(z+1)^2},$$

satisfies (13). Accordingly, formula (12) is a consequence of (3) and (13). \square

Corollary 8. Ackermann-Péter's recursive (and non-primitive recursive) function has an elementary graph.

Proof. It is seen that A satisfies conditions (1) and (2) in Theorem 1 (see (13) and (12)). \square

Corollary 9. Ackermann-Péter's function has an elementary range.

Proof. We have: $\chi_{\text{range}(A)}(y) = \sum_{n=0}^y \sum_{x=0}^y \chi_{\text{Graph}(A)}(n, x, y)$. □

Remarks. i) Using Gödel's β function one can construct two functions $p^*: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$, $R^*: \mathbb{N}^3 \rightarrow \{0,1\}$, in \mathcal{E}^2 , such that $A(n, x) = p^*(\mu y [R^*(n, x, y) = 1])$. We are unable, however, to establish a bound b^* in \mathcal{E}^2 , which would guarantee that A has the graph in \mathcal{E}_x^2 .

Furthermore, a minor modification in the structure of the predicate R gives a singlefold exponentially diophantine representation of the graph of A (see [11]).

ii) Other well-known non-primitive recursive functions, e.g. Ackermann's original function [1], Sudan's function [16], [5], Grzegorczyk's function [8], Löb-Wainer's function [12] also satisfy condition a) in Theorem 1; they have elementary graphs and ranges as well.

iii) Corollaries 4 and 8 offer an example of tradeoff between the property of a function to be "honest" in the sense of Blum's theory of complexity [5], i.e. the rate of growth of the function "reflects" its complexity, and the property of a function to have "honest graph", i.e. the graph of the function has the same complexity as the function. A predicate in $\mathcal{E}_x^n \setminus \mathcal{E}_x^{n-1}$ is dishonest, but, in view of Corollary 4 has a honest graph. Conversely, Ackermann-Péter's function is honest, but has a dishonest graph (Corollary 8).

The difference between the complexity of a function and the complexity of its graph is discussed also in Warkentin's thesis [19], as credit in [10].

Further examples of functions having a dishonest graph are: $x+y$ is in $\mathcal{E}^1 \setminus \mathcal{E}^0$, but the predicate $z=x+y$ is in \mathcal{E}_x^0 , xy is in $\mathcal{E}^2 \setminus \mathcal{E}^1$, but the predicate $z=xy$ is in \mathcal{E}_x^0 [10].

iv) In view of Corollary 4,b), it is more difficult to obtain an example of recursive and non-primitive recursive predicate than a corresponding example of function (see Corollaries 8 and 9). Furthermore, if we denote by $g(n, x, y)$ the Grzegorczyk function [8], we claim that: α) the predicate $z \leq g(n, x, y)$ is in $\mathcal{E}_x^n \setminus \mathcal{E}_x^{n-1}$, for every fixed $n \geq 4$, β) the predicate $z \leq g(n, x, y)$ is not primitive recursive. Indeed, we use the fact that the graph of g is elementary and Grzegorczyk's Theorem of characterization of the predicates in \mathcal{E}^n (Theorem 4.10 in [8]). Accordingly, there is a devastating difference between the predicates $z = g(n, x, y)$ and $z \leq g(n, x, y)$; the last predicate does not grow too rapidly, but it requires too many values to search.

The above results can also be deduced from the fact (credit in [10] to [6]), that the predicate $z = g(n, x, y)$ is rudimentary for each fixed $n \geq 0$. In this respect it would be interesting to prove that the predicates $y \leq A(n, x)$ (or $y < A(n, x)$, $y > A(n, x)$) are not primitive recursive.

v) Particularly interesting is the result (credit in [10] to [3]) that the predicate $z = x^y$ is rudimentary, hence, in \mathcal{E}_x^0 [9] (x^y is in $\mathcal{E}^3 \setminus \mathcal{E}^2$). In view of a result in [2], it follows that the exponential function x^y has a graph polynomially computable in a variant of loop-programs. "Guessing" the correct value z , implies the possibility of polynomially computation of x^y , because the computation reduces to the verification of the relation $z = x^y$. A (weak) sort of the famous problem $P = NP$ arises and motivates the plausibility of the conjecture $P \neq NP$. In fact, analogous problems for each class \mathcal{E}^n ($n \geq 0$) can be similarly tackled.

vi) The context-sensitiveness (and, in particular, the primitive recursiveness) of the graph of Ackermann-Péter's function was proved in [15] and [17].

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