Logic, Computability and Incompleteness

Formal Arithmetic and the Diagonal Lemma

Hilbert's Program

- Beginning at the turn of the 20th century, Hilbert proposed a strategy for the foundation of classical mathematics that eventually developed into the so-called 'Formalist Program'.
- This program was in response to the <u>foundational crisis</u> prompted by the newly discovered inconsistency of 'naïve' set theory, in the form of <u>Russell's paradox</u>, which also infected Frege's 'Logicist' foundational system.
- Russell's paradox is famously formulated in terms of the set of all sets that are not members of themselves.
- It leads directly to a contradiction in naïve set theory, because this theory assumes the <u>unrestricted</u> Comprehension Axiom:

Hilbert's Program

- Comprehension Axiom: for any formula $\varphi(x)$ containing x as a free variable, there exists the set $\{x: \varphi(x)\}$ whose members are exactly those objects that satisfy $\varphi(x)$.
- Thus, if the formula $\varphi(x)$ stands for "x is prime", then $\{x: \varphi(x)\}$ will be the set of prime numbers.
- If $\varphi(x)$ stands for " $\neg(x = x)$ ", then $\{x: \varphi(x)\}$ will be the null set.
- But if we let $\varphi(x)$ stand for $x \in x$ and let $S = \{x: \neg \varphi(x)\}$, then S is the set whose members are exactly those objects that are not members of themselves.
- Is S a member of itself?
- Can easily deduce $(S \in S) \leftrightarrow \neg (S \in S)$

Hilbert's Program

Russell's paradox corresponds to the fact that the FOL formula ∃x∀y(Rxy ↔ ¬Ryy) is unsatisfiable – there can be no such x.
If we let Rxy mean 'y is an element of x', then in standard set theoretical notation this is the same as ∃x∀y(y ∈ x ↔ y ∉ y)
If we assume the (intuitively plausible) Comprehension Axiom then we can prove that there is such an x, and hence our theory will be able to prove a contradiction...

Hilbert sought to avoid such disasters by advocating an idealized foundational program in which all of mathematics is deducible in an <u>axiomatizable formal theory</u> where the axioms themselves are (independent and) <u>provably consistent</u>.

Representability in a Theory

• As we saw when revisiting FOL, a Formal Theory T is a set of sentences (in some formal language L) which is closed under the relation of logical consequence. So for all sentences Φ of L, if $T \vdash \Phi$ then $\Phi \in T$ in which case Φ is a theorem of T, written $\vdash_{\mathbf{T}} \Phi$ Representability in a Theory: an *n*-place function of natural numbers f^n is representable in a theory **T** iff there is a formula $A(x_1, ..., x_n, x_{n+1})$ in the language of **T** such that for any natural numbers $p_1, \dots p_n, j$ if $f^n(p_1,...p_n) = j$ then $\vdash_{\mathbf{T}} \forall x (\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{p}_1,...\mathbf{p}_n,x) \leftrightarrow x = \mathbf{j}$ where **p** is the **numeral** for p, i.e. **o** followed by p applications of the successor function '

Robinson Arithmetic

- In this case $A(x_1, ..., x_n, x_{n+1})$ represents f^n in \mathbf{T} . Thus if $A(x_1, ..., x_n, x_{n+1})$ represents f^n in \mathbf{T} and $f^n(p_1, ..., p_n) = j$ then both $\vdash_{\mathbf{T}} A(\mathbf{p}_1, ..., \mathbf{p}_n, \mathbf{j}) \text{ and } \vdash_{\mathbf{T}} \forall x (A(\mathbf{p}_1, ..., \mathbf{p}_n, x) \to x = \mathbf{j})$
- The formal theory of particular interest to us will be Q, the theory of Robinson Arithmetic
- The language L of Q is FOL with \mathbf{o} , $\mathbf{'}$, +, · as distinguished vocabulary items.
- Q is the set of all sentences in L which are logically entailed by the following 7 axioms:

Robinson Arithmetic

Q1:
$$\forall x \forall y (x' = y' \rightarrow x = y)$$

Q2: $\forall x \mathbf{o} \neq x'$
Q3: $\forall x (x \neq \mathbf{o} \rightarrow \exists y \ x = y')$
Q4: $\forall x (x + \mathbf{o} = x)$
Q5: $\forall x \forall y (x + y') = (x + y)'$
Q6: $\forall x (x \cdot \mathbf{o} = \mathbf{o})$
Q7: $\forall x \forall y (x \cdot y') = (x \cdot y) + x$

Each axiom is a single sentence, so Q is finitely axiomatizable

Representability in Robinson Arithmetic

• Robinson Arithmetic *Q* differs from the stronger theory of Peano Arithmetic *PA*, in that it *lacks* the **schema** of Mathematical Induction:

$$[\Phi (\mathbf{0}) \land (\forall x (\Phi (x) \rightarrow \Phi (x'))] \rightarrow \forall x \Phi (x)$$

where $\Phi(\mathbf{v})$ is any formula in the language L with the variable \mathbf{v} free.

- The **schema** of Mathematical Induction introduces infinitely many axioms as <u>instances</u> of the schema.
- Very important property of Q:
 All recursive functions are representable in Q

Representability in Robinson Arithmetic

- Thus for every function f^n of natural numbers obtainable from the set of Base functions:
 - 1) zero function
 - 2) successor function
 - 3) projection functions

through finite applications of Composition, Primitive recursion and Minimization,

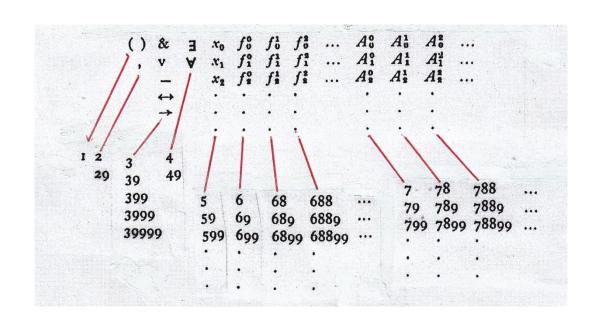
there is a formula $A(x_1, ..., x_n, x_{n+1})$ in the language L such that if $f^n(p_1, ..., p_n) = j$ then both

$$\vdash_{\mathbf{0}} A(\mathbf{p}_1, \dots \mathbf{p}_n, \mathbf{j}) \text{ and } \vdash_{\mathbf{0}} \forall x (A(\mathbf{p}_1, \dots \mathbf{p}_n, x) \rightarrow x = \mathbf{j})$$

- We'll now look at Gödel numbering, which is the first ingredient needed to achieve formal 'self-reference' in arithmetic.
- Gödel numbering is a scheme for assigning <u>natural numbers</u> to <u>expressions</u> in a **formal object language**.
- Necessary characteristics of a Gödel numbering scheme:
 - 1) <u>different</u> expressions get <u>different</u> numbers
 - 2) given <u>any</u> expression can effectively calculate its Gödel number
 - 3) given any number can effectively determine
 - (i) whether it's the Gödel number of an expression, and

- (ii) if so, can effectively recover the expression from the number.
- Particular Gödel numbering scheme used in B&J:
- Numbers 1-7 are used to distinguish basic categories of symbols:
 - 1, 2 for punctuation symbols, 3 for truth-functional connectives, 4 for quantifiers, 5 for variables, 6 for function symbols and 7 for predicate symbols.
- Numbers 8, 9 used to make internal distinctions
 (e.g. for non-zero superscripts and subscripts).

 Scheme is given in charts on p. 171:



- Each basic vocabulary **symbol** is thereby given a **unique number**. To do this, the actual coding must deal directly with official **object language symbols** systematically arranged.
- However, in practice it's *inconvenient* to work purely with object language symbols, so we will adopt some conventions:

official symbol	'informal' name
x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots	x, y, z, \ldots
$f_0{}^0$	0
$f_0{}^1$	•
$f_0{}^2$	+
$f_1{}^2$	•
A_0^2	=

• Concatenation of basic vocabulary symbols to form complex expressions is reflected by concatenation of the numbers of the symbols involved and then read in **decimal notation**.

The Gödel number of symbol 'A' is written gn[A].

So if gn[A] = i and gn[B] = j

then gn[AB] = the number denoted by 'ij' in decimal notation. example:

Given the foregoing naming conventions:

$$gn[\forall] = 49, \ gn[x] = 5, \ gn[y] = 59$$

 $gn[\mathbf{o}] = 6, \ gn['] = 68, \ gn[+] = 688, \ gn[\cdot] = 6889$
 $gn[=] = 788$

And given the method for determining the Gödel number of a contatenation of symbols

 $gn[\forall x(x = x)]$ = the concatenation of the **numbers** of the seven constituent **symbols**

- In this manner, the language L of the theory Q that is *intended* to be about the natural numbers can instead be interpreted as being about its own syntax (!)
 - So there will be (unintended) interpretations \mathcal{J} in which L can be seen as 'making assertions about itself'
- Furthermore the sentences of L which are theorems of Q must be true in every model of Q.
- In particular, all recursive operations on expressions and sequences of expressions can be represented in Q, which means that the corresponding sentences are <u>provable</u> in the system.

- So via its theorems, the theory Q can be interpreted as proving things about itself, by associating expression in L with Gödel numbers and then proving assertions about these numbers.
 - And these sentences must be **true** in *every model* of Q.
- This possibility is realized by Gödel's ingenious version of diagonalization, which is the technical heart of the

limitative metatheoretical results to follow....

- Convention: if gn[A] = n, let $\lceil A \rceil = \mathbf{n}$ i.e. $\mathbf{o''}$... ' with *n* applications of the successor function.
- So **n** is the **numeral** for the Gödel <u>number</u> of A. Hence $\lceil A \rceil$ is the Gödel <u>numeral</u> of A, in which case **n** can be construed as a name in the object language L denoting the object language expression 'A'.
- This is the second step in achieving formal 'self-reference'.
- Now let the diagonalization of A be defined as the sentence $\exists x (x = \lceil A \rceil \land A)$

• If A has just the variable x free, written A(x), then the diagonalization of A is logically equivalent to $A(\lceil A \rceil)$

$$\exists x (x = \lceil A \rceil \land A) \equiv A(\lceil A \rceil)$$

- Lemma: there is a recursive function **diag** such that $\mathbf{diag}(n) = \mathbf{the} \ \mathbf{G\ddot{o}del} \ \mathbf{number} \ \mathbf{of} \ \mathbf{the} \ \mathbf{diagonalization} \ \mathbf{of} \ \mathbf{the} \ \mathbf{expression} \ \mathbf{with} \ \mathbf{G\ddot{o}del} \ \mathbf{number} \ n.$
- **Proof**: by construction.
- 1) Let $\mathbf{lh}(n) = \mu m(0 < m \land n < 10^m)$ [read 'the least m such that (...)] So $\mathbf{lh}(n) =$ the number of digits in the decimal notation for the number n.

- 2) Let $m * n = m \cdot 10^{\ln(n)} + n$
- m * n is the number denoted by the arabic numeral formed by concatenating the arabic numeral for m with the numeral for n
- 3) Define the function $\mathbf{num}(x)$ such that

$$num(0) = 6$$
 $num(n+1) = num(n) * 68$

So $num(n) = the G\"{o}del number of the numeral n (!)$

4) The diagonalization of formula A was defined as

$$\exists x \ (x = \lceil A \rceil \land A).$$

And if gn[A] = n, then $\lceil A \rceil = \mathbf{n}$.

Hence the diagonalization of *A* is the formula $\exists x(x = \mathbf{n} \land A)$.

So let
$$diag(n) = 4515788 * (num(n) * (3 * (n * 2)))$$

$$\mathbf{diag}(n) = 4515788 * (\underline{\mathbf{num}}(n) * (3 * (n * 2)))$$

$$\exists x (x = \mathbf{n} \land A)$$

- Hence diag(n) is the Gödel number of the diagonalization of the expression with Gödel number n,
 and diag is recursive by construction □
- Since all recursive functions are representable in Q,
 diag is representable in Q.
- **Diagonal Lemma**: Let **T** be a theory in which **diag** is representable. Then for any formula B(y) in the language of **T** with just the variable y free, there is a sentence G such that

$$\vdash_{\mathbf{T}} G \leftrightarrow B(\ulcorner G \urcorner)$$

• Proof: exhibit a procedure for constructing such a G for any given B(y).

Let the formula $A_{\mathbf{d}}(x, y)$ represent **diag** in **T**.

Then for any numbers n, k,

if
$$\operatorname{diag}(n) = k$$
 then $\vdash_{\mathbf{T}} \forall y (A_{\mathbf{d}}(n, y) \leftrightarrow y = \mathbf{k})$

Let **F** be defined as the formula $\exists y (A_d(x, y) \land B(y))$.

F contains just the variable x free.

Now let G be defined as the diagonalization of F (!)

i.e. G is the sentence
$$\exists x(x = \lceil F \rceil \land \exists y(A_{\mathbf{d}}(x, y) \land B(y))).$$

Suppose gn[F] = n, so $\lceil F \rceil = n$

As noted above, G is logically equivalent to the result of instantiating the variable x with $\lceil F \rceil$ which is \mathbf{n} :

To repeat,
$$G$$
 is the sentence $\exists x(x = \lceil F \rceil \land \exists y(A_{\mathbf{d}}(x, y) \land B(y)))$ and $G \equiv \exists y(A_{\mathbf{d}}(\mathbf{n}, y) \land B(y))$ so (i) $\vdash_{\mathbf{T}} G \leftrightarrow \exists y(A_{\mathbf{d}}(\mathbf{n}, y) \land B(y))$ Next, suppose $\mathbf{diag}(n) = k$.

Then, since $\mathbf{gn}[F] = n$ and G is the diagonalization of F , $\mathbf{gn}[G] = k$ and $\lceil G \rceil = k$

Now, since $A_{\mathbf{d}}(x, y)$ represents \mathbf{diag} in \mathbf{T} and $\mathbf{diag}(n) = k$ we get (ii) $\vdash_{\mathbf{T}} \forall y(A_{\mathbf{d}}(\mathbf{n}, y) \leftrightarrow y = k)$

Taking (i) and substituting provable equivalents from (ii) we get (iii) $\vdash_{\mathbf{T}} G \leftrightarrow \exists y(y = k \land B(y))$

Taking (iii)
$$\vdash_{\mathbf{T}} G \leftrightarrow \exists y (y = \mathbf{k} \land B(y))$$
 and applying the same strategy used to get (i) yields $\vdash_{\mathbf{T}} G \leftrightarrow \mathbf{B}(\mathbf{k})$ And since $\ulcorner G \urcorner = \mathbf{k}$ it's now immediate that $\vdash_{\mathbf{T}} G \leftrightarrow \mathbf{B}(\ulcorner G \urcorner) \blacksquare$

- It's fitting at this point to step back for a moment and reflect on the evolution of our theoretical perspective.
- Leibniz (1646-1716) speculated about the development of a precise artificial language, a 'calculus ratiocinator', in which all of human thought could be reduced to calculation.
- Frege's *Begriffsschrift* (1879) is the first actual instance of an **artificial language** constructed according to exact rules of syntax,
 - and the *Begriffsschrift*'s system of first-order logic was powerful enough to <u>formalize</u> all the reasoning ordinarily used in mathematics.
- So (in principle at least) all of mathematics could be carried out *inside* this formal system.

- Whitehead and Russell then succeeded in developing all of classical mathematics *within* the artificial logical system of *Principia Mathematica* (PM, 1910).
- Beginning around the turn of the century, Hilbert proposed a perspective in which we <u>abstract away</u> from proofs *inside* such formal systems

and instead look at them from the **outside** from a **metamathematical** perspective in which we prove higher-level <u>metalogical</u> results *about* these object level systems. Thus in 1930 Gödel proved the **completeness** of first-order logic, and in 1936 Church established its **undecidability**.

- In his 1931work on the incompleteness of PM,
 Gödel took the level of abstraction a step further
 by embedding these metamathematical concepts
 inside the object level system itself to attain yet new results.
- By using a scheme for numerically coding the syntax of a formal theory of arithmetic,
 it was possible to interpret sentences in the formal object language as making assertions about various properties of

sentences in the formal object language.

• In particular, as we'll soon see, a property of special interest is 'sentence Φ is **provable** in formal arithmetic'.

- Thus, given a numerical coding scheme, Gödel was able to construct a sentence Ψ in formal arithmetic, which can be interpreted as asserting that 'sentence Φ is provable in formal arithmetic'.
- And using the diagonal lemma, Gödel was able to construct a case where

Ψ is identical to Φ !

• Thus, *via* this employment of Cantor's diagonal method, matters can be arranged such that the object language sentence asserted to be provable and the object language sentence making the assertion are one and the same...