

unless $\gamma_n = 0$ or $\gamma_n = 1$, in either of which cases $a_n = 0$. Then, as n runs through the satisfactory numbers, a_n runs through the computable numbers[†]. Now let $\phi(n)$ be a computable function which can be shown to be such that for any satisfactory argument its value is satisfactory[‡]. Then the function f , defined by $f(a_n) = a_{\phi(n)}$, is a computable function and all computable functions of a computable variable are expressible in this form.

Similar definitions may be given of computable functions of several variables, computable-valued functions of an integral variable, etc.

I shall enunciate a number of theorems about computability, but I shall prove only (ii) and a theorem similar to (iii).

(i) A computable function of a computable function of an integral or computable variable is computable.

(ii) Any function of an integral variable defined recursively in terms of computable functions is computable. *I.e.* if $\phi(m, n)$ is computable, and r is some integer, then $\eta(n)$ is computable, where

$$\eta(0) = r,$$

$$\eta(n) = \phi(n, \eta(n-1)).$$

(iii) If $\phi(m, n)$ is a computable function of two integral variables, then $\phi(n, n)$ is a computable function of n .

(iv) If $\phi(n)$ is a computable function whose value is always 0 or 1, then the sequence whose n -th figure is $\phi(n)$ is computable.

Dedekind's theorem does not hold in the ordinary form if we replace "real" throughout by "computable". But it holds in the following form:

(v) If $G(\alpha)$ is a propositional function of the computable numbers and

$$(a) \quad (\exists \alpha)(\exists \beta) \{ G(\alpha) \& (-G(\beta)) \},$$

$$(b) \quad G(\alpha) \& (-G(\beta)) \rightarrow (\alpha < \beta),$$

and there is a general process for determining the truth value of $G(\alpha)$, then

[†] A function a_n may be defined in many other ways so as to run through the computable numbers.

[‡] Although it is not possible to find a general process for determining whether a given number is satisfactory, it is often possible to show that certain classes of numbers are satisfactory.

ON COMPUTABLE NUMBERS, WITH AN APPLICATION TO
THE ENTSCHIEDUNGSPROBLEM*By* A. M. TURING.

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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 cumbrous technique. 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, I", *Monatshefte Math. Phys.*, 38 (1931), 173–198.

there is a computable number ξ such that

$$\begin{aligned} G(a) \rightarrow a \leq \xi, \\ -G(a) \rightarrow a \geq \xi. \end{aligned}$$

In other words, the theorem holds for any section of the computables such that there is a general process for determining to which class a given number belongs.

Owing to this restriction of Dedekind's theorem, we cannot say that a computable bounded increasing sequence of computable numbers has a computable limit. This may possibly be understood by considering a sequence such as

$$-1, -\frac{1}{2}, -\frac{1}{4}, -\frac{1}{8}, -\frac{1}{16}, \frac{1}{2}, \dots$$

On the other hand, (v) enables us to prove

(vi) If α and β are computable and $\alpha < \beta$ and $\phi(\alpha) < 0 < \phi(\beta)$, where $\phi(a)$ is a computable increasing continuous function, then there is a unique computable number γ , satisfying $\alpha < \gamma < \beta$ and $\phi(\gamma) = 0$.

Computable convergence.

We shall say that a sequence β_n of computable numbers *converges computably* if there is a computable integral valued function $N(\epsilon)$ of the computable variable ϵ , such that we can show that, if $\epsilon > 0$ and $n > N(\epsilon)$ and $m > N(\epsilon)$, then $|\beta_n - \beta_m| < \epsilon$.

We can then show that

(vii) A power series whose coefficients form a computable sequence of computable numbers is computably convergent at all computable points in the interior of its interval of convergence.

(viii) The limit of a computably convergent sequence is computable.

And with the obvious definition of "uniformly computably convergent":

(ix) The limit of a uniformly computably convergent computable sequence of computable functions is a computable function. Hence

(x) The sum of a power series whose coefficients form a computable sequence is a computable function in the interior of its interval of convergence.

From (viii) and $\pi = 4(1 - \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{5} - \dots)$ we deduce that π is computable.

From $e = 1 + 1 + \frac{1}{2!} + \frac{1}{3!} + \dots$ we deduce that e is computable.

have valuable applications. In particular, it is shown (§ 11) that the Hilbertian Entscheidungsproblem can have no solution.

In a recent paper Alonzo Church[†] has introduced an idea of "effective calculability", which is equivalent to my "computability", but is very differently defined. Church also reaches similar conclusions about the Entscheidungsproblem[‡]. The proof of equivalence between "computability" and "effective calculability" is outlined in an appendix to the present paper.

1. *Computing machines.*

We have said that the computable numbers are those whose decimals are calculable by finite means. This requires rather more explicit definition. No real attempt will be made to justify the definitions given until we reach § 9. For the present I shall only say that the justification lies in the fact that the human memory is necessarily limited.

We may compare a man in the process of computing a real number to a machine which is only capable of a finite number of conditions q_1, q_2, \dots, q_R which will be called " m -configurations". The machine is supplied with a "tape" (the analogue of paper) running through it, and divided into sections (called "squares") each capable of bearing a "symbol". At any moment there is just one square, say the r -th, bearing the symbol $\mathfrak{S}(r)$ which is "in the machine". We may call this square the "scanned square". The symbol on the scanned square may be called the "scanned symbol". The "scanned symbol" is the only one of which the machine is, so to speak, "directly aware". However, by altering its m -configuration the machine can effectively remember some of the symbols which it has "seen" (scanned) previously. The possible behaviour of the machine at any moment is determined by the m -configuration q_n and the scanned symbol $\mathfrak{S}(r)$. This pair $q_n, \mathfrak{S}(r)$ will be called the "configuration": thus the configuration determines the possible behaviour of the machine. In some of the configurations in which the scanned square is blank (*i.e.* bears no symbol) the machine writes down a new symbol on the scanned square: in other configurations it erases the scanned symbol. The machine may also change the square which is being scanned, but only by shifting it one place to right or left. In addition to any of these operations the m -configuration may be changed. Some of the symbols written down

[†] Alonzo Church, "An unsolvable problem of elementary number theory", *American J. of Math.*, 58 (1936), 345-363.

[‡] Alonzo Church, "A note on the Entscheidungsproblem", *J. of Symbolic Logic*, 1 (1936), 40-41.

From (vi) we deduce that all real algebraic numbers are computable.

From (vi) and (x) we deduce that the real zeros of the Bessel functions are computable.

Proof of (ii).

Let $H(x, y)$ mean " $\eta(x) = y$ ", and let $K(x, y, z)$ mean " $\phi(x, y) = z$ ". \mathfrak{A}_ϕ is the axiom for $\phi(x, y)$. We take \mathfrak{A}_η to be

$$\begin{aligned} \mathfrak{A}_\phi \ \& \ P \ \& \ (F(x, y) \rightarrow G(x, y)) \ \& \ (G(x, y) \ \& \ G(y, z) \rightarrow G(x, z)) \\ & \ \& \ (F^{(r)} \rightarrow H(u, u^{(r)})) \ \& \ (F(v, w) \ \& \ H(v, x) \ \& \ K(w, x, z) \rightarrow H(w, z)) \\ & \ \& \ [H(w, z) \ \& \ G(z, t) \vee G(t, z) \rightarrow (-H(w, t))]. \end{aligned}$$

I shall not give the proof of consistency of \mathfrak{A}_η . Such a proof may be constructed by the methods used in Hilbert and Bernays, *Grundlagen der Mathematik* (Berlin, 1934), p. 209 *et seq.* The consistency is also clear from the meaning.

Suppose that, for some n, N , we have shown

$$\mathfrak{A}_\eta \ \& \ F^{(N)} \rightarrow H(u^{(n-1)}, u^{(\eta(n-1))}),$$

then, for some M ,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathfrak{A}_\phi \ \& \ F^{(M)} \rightarrow K(u^{(n)}, u^{(\eta(n-1))}, u^{(\eta(n))}), \\ \mathfrak{A}_\eta \ \& \ F^{(M)} \rightarrow F(u^{(n-1)}, u^{(n)}) \ \& \ H(u^{(n-1)}, u^{(\eta(n-1))}) \\ & \ \& \ K(u^{(n)}, u^{(\eta(n-1))}, u^{(\eta(n))}), \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \mathfrak{A}_\eta \ \& \ F^{(M)} \rightarrow [F(u^{(n-1)}, u^{(n)}) \ \& \ H(u^{(n-1)}, u^{(\eta(n-1))}) \\ & \ \& \ K(u^{(n)}, u^{(\eta(n-1))}, u^{(\eta(n))}) \rightarrow H(u^{(n)}, u^{(\eta(n))})]. \end{aligned}$$

Hence

$$\mathfrak{A}_\eta \ \& \ F^{(M)} \rightarrow H(u^{(n)}, u^{(\eta(n))}).$$

Also

$$\mathfrak{A}_\eta \ \& \ F^{(r)} \rightarrow H(u, u^{(\eta(0))}).$$

Hence for each n some formula of the form

$$\mathfrak{A}_\eta \ \& \ F^{(M)} \rightarrow H(u^{(n)}, u^{(\eta(n))})$$

is provable. Also, if $M' \geq M$ and $M' \geq m$ and $m \neq \eta(u)$, then

$$\mathfrak{A}_\eta \ \& \ F^{(M')} \rightarrow G(u^{(\eta(n))}, u^{(m)}) \vee G(u^{(m)}, u^{(\eta(n))})$$

will form the sequence of figures which is the decimal of the real number which is being computed. The others are just rough notes to "assist the memory". It will only be these rough notes which will be liable to erasure.

It is my contention that these operations include all those which are used in the computation of a number. The defence of this contention will be easier when the theory of the machines is familiar to the reader. In the next section I therefore proceed with the development of the theory and assume that it is understood what is meant by "machine", "tape", "scanned", etc.

2. Definitions.

Automatic machines.

If at each stage the motion of a machine (in the sense of §1) is *completely* determined by the configuration, we shall call the machine an "automatic machine" (or *a-machine*).

For some purposes we might use machines (choice machines or *c-machines*) whose motion is only partially determined by the configuration (hence the use of the word "possible" in §1). When such a machine reaches one of these ambiguous configurations, it cannot go on until some arbitrary choice has been made by an external operator. This would be the case if we were using machines to deal with axiomatic systems. In this paper I deal only with automatic machines, and will therefore often omit the prefix *a-*.

Computing machines.

If an *a-machine* prints two kinds of symbols, of which the first kind (called figures) consists entirely of 0 and 1 (the others being called symbols of the second kind), then the machine will be called a computing machine. If the machine is supplied with a blank tape and set in motion, starting from the correct initial *m*-configuration, the subsequence of the symbols printed by it which are of the first kind will be called the *sequence computed by the machine*. The real number whose expression as a binary decimal is obtained by prefacing this sequence by a decimal point is called the *number computed by the machine*.

At any stage of the motion of the machine, the number of the scanned square, the complete sequence of all symbols on the tape, and the *m*-configuration will be said to describe the *complete configuration* at that stage. The changes of the machine and tape between successive complete configurations will be called the *moves* of the machine.

and

$$\mathfrak{U}_\eta \& F^{(M)} \rightarrow \left[\{ G(u^{(\eta(n))}, u^{(m)}) \vee G(u^{(m)}, u^{(\eta(n))}) \right. \\ \left. \& H(u^{(n)}, u^{(\eta(n))}) \} \rightarrow (-H(u^{(n)}, u^{(m)})) \right].$$

Hence
$$\mathfrak{U}_\eta \& F^{(M')} \rightarrow (-H(u^{(n)}, u^{(m)})).$$

The conditions of our second definition of a computable function are therefore satisfied. Consequently η is a computable function.

Proof of a modified form of (iii).

Suppose that we are given a machine \mathfrak{U} , which, starting with a tape bearing on it $\alpha\alpha$ followed by a sequence of any number of letters " F " on F -squares and in the m -configuration b , will compute a sequence γ_n depending on the number n of letters " F ". If $\phi_n(m)$ is the m -th figure of γ_n , then the sequence β whose n -th figure is $\phi_n(n)$ is computable.

We suppose that the table for \mathfrak{U} has been written out in such a way that in each line only one operation appears in the operations column. We also suppose that Ξ , Θ , $\bar{0}$, and $\bar{1}$ do not occur in the table, and we replace α throughout by Θ , 0 by $\bar{0}$, and 1 by $\bar{1}$. Further substitutions are then made. Any line of form

$$\mathfrak{U} \quad a \quad P\bar{0} \quad \mathfrak{B}$$

we replace by

$$\mathfrak{U} \quad a \quad P\bar{0} \quad \text{re}(\mathfrak{B}, u, h, k)$$

and any line of the form

$$\mathfrak{U} \quad a \quad P\bar{1} \quad \mathfrak{B}$$

by
$$\mathfrak{U} \quad a \quad P\bar{1} \quad \text{re}(\mathfrak{B}, v, h, k)$$

and we add to the table the following lines:

$$\begin{array}{lll} u & & \text{pc}(u_1, 0) \\ u_1 & R, Pk, R, P\Theta, R, P\Theta & u_2 \\ u_2 & & \text{re}(u_3, u_3, k, h) \\ u_3 & & \text{pc}(u_2, F) \end{array}$$

and similar lines with v for u and 1 for 0 together with the following line

$$c \quad R, P\Xi, R, Ph \quad b.$$

We then have the table for the machine \mathfrak{U}' which computes β . The initial m -configuration is c , and the initial scanned symbol is the second α .

Circular and circle-free machines.

If a computing machine never writes down more than a finite number of symbols of the first kind, it will be called *circular*. Otherwise it is said to be *circle-free*.

A machine will be circular if it reaches a configuration from which there is no possible move, or if it goes on moving, and possibly printing symbols of the second kind, but cannot print any more symbols of the first kind. The significance of the term "circular" will be explained in § 8.

Computable sequences and numbers.

A sequence is said to be computable if it can be computed by a circle-free machine. A number is computable if it differs by an integer from the number computed by a circle-free machine.

We shall avoid confusion by speaking more often of computable sequences than of computable numbers.

3. *Examples of computing machines.*

I. A machine can be constructed to compute the sequence 010101.... The machine is to have the four *m*-configurations "b", "c", "f", "e" and is capable of printing "0" and "1". The behaviour of the machine is described in the following table in which "*R*" means "the machine moves so that it scans the square immediately on the right of the one it was scanning previously". Similarly for "*L*". "*E*" means "the scanned symbol is erased" and "*P*" stands for "prints". This table (and all succeeding tables of the same kind) is to be understood to mean that for a configuration described in the first two columns the operations in the third column are carried out successively, and the machine then goes over into the *m*-configuration described in the last column. When the second column is left blank, it is understood that the behaviour of the third and fourth columns applies for any symbol and for no symbol. The machine starts in the *m*-configuration b with a blank tape.

Configuration		Behaviour	
<i>m</i> -config.	symbol	operations	final <i>m</i> -config.
b	None	<i>P</i> 0, <i>R</i>	c
c	None	<i>R</i>	e
e	None	<i>P</i> 1, <i>R</i>	f
f	None	<i>R</i>	b

11. *Application to the Entscheidungsproblem.*

The results of §8 have some important applications. In particular, they can be used to show that the Hilbert Entscheidungsproblem can have no solution. For the present I shall confine myself to proving this particular theorem. For the formulation of this problem I must refer the reader to Hilbert and Ackermann's *Grundzüge der Theoretischen Logik* (Berlin, 1931), chapter 3.

I propose, therefore, to show that there can be no general process for determining whether a given formula \mathfrak{A} of the functional calculus \mathbf{K} is provable, *i.e.* that there can be no machine which, supplied with any one \mathfrak{A} of these formulae, will eventually say whether \mathfrak{A} is provable.

It should perhaps be remarked that what I shall prove is quite different from the well-known results of Gödel†. Gödel has shown that (in the formalism of Principia Mathematica) there are propositions \mathfrak{A} such that neither \mathfrak{A} nor $\neg \mathfrak{A}$ is provable. As a consequence of this, it is shown that no proof of consistency of Principia Mathematica (or of \mathbf{K}) can be given within that formalism. On the other hand, I shall show that there is no general method which tells whether a given formula \mathfrak{A} is provable in \mathbf{K} , or, what comes to the same, whether the system consisting of \mathbf{K} with $\neg \mathfrak{A}$ adjoined as an extra axiom is consistent.

If the negation of what Gödel has shown had been proved, *i.e.* if, for each \mathfrak{A} , either \mathfrak{A} or $\neg \mathfrak{A}$ is provable, then we should have an immediate solution of the Entscheidungsproblem. For we can invent a machine \mathcal{K} which will prove consecutively all provable formulae. Sooner or later \mathcal{K} will reach either \mathfrak{A} or $\neg \mathfrak{A}$. If it reaches \mathfrak{A} , then we know that \mathfrak{A} is provable. If it reaches $\neg \mathfrak{A}$, then, since \mathbf{K} is consistent (Hilbert and Ackermann, p. 65), we know that \mathfrak{A} is not provable.

Owing to the absence of integers in \mathbf{K} the proofs appear somewhat lengthy. The underlying ideas are quite straightforward.

Corresponding to each computing machine \mathcal{M} we construct a formula $\text{Un}(\mathcal{M})$ and we show that, if there is a general method for determining whether $\text{Un}(\mathcal{M})$ is provable, then there is a general method for determining whether \mathcal{M} ever prints 0.

The interpretations of the propositional functions involved are as follows :

$R_S(x, y)$ is to be interpreted as "in the complete configuration x (of \mathcal{M}) the symbol on the square y is S ".

† *Loc. cit.*

If (contrary to the description in § 1) we allow the letters L , R to appear more than once in the operations column we can simplify the table considerably.

<i>m-config.</i>	<i>symbol</i>	<i>operations</i>	<i>final m-config.</i>
b	None	$P0$	b
	0	$R, R, P1$	b
	1	$R, R, P0$	b

II. As a slightly more difficult example we can construct a machine to compute the sequence 00101101110111101111.... The machine is to be capable of five m -configurations, viz. " \circ ", " q ", " p ", " f ", " b " and of printing " \circ ", " x ", " 0 ", " 1 ". The first three symbols on the tape will be " $\circ\circ 0$ "; the other figures follow on alternate squares. On the intermediate squares we never print anything but " x ". These letters serve to "keep the place" for us and are erased when we have finished with them. We also arrange that in the sequence of figures on alternate squares there shall be no blanks.

<i>Configuration</i>		<i>Behaviour</i>	
<i>m-config.</i>	<i>symbol</i>	<i>operations</i>	<i>final m-config.</i>
b		$P\circ, R, P\circ, R, P0, R, R, P0, L, L$	\circ
\circ	1	R, Px, L, L, L	\circ
	0		q
q	Any (0 or 1)	R, R	q
	None	$P1, L$	p
p	x	E, R	q
	\circ	R	f
	None	L, L	p
f	Any	R, R	f
	None	$P0, L, L$	\circ

To illustrate the working of this machine a table is given below of the first few complete configurations. These complete configurations are described by writing down the sequence of symbols which are on the tape,

$I(x, y)$ is to be interpreted as "in the complete configuration x the square y is scanned".

$K_{q_m}(x)$ is to be interpreted as "in the complete configuration x the m -configuration is q_m ".

$F(x, y)$ is to be interpreted as " y is the immediate successor of x ".

$\text{Inst } \{q_i S_j S_k L q_l\}$ is to be an abbreviation for

$$(x, y, x', y') \left\{ \left(R_{S_j}(x, y) \& I(x, y) \& K_{q_i}(x) \& F(x, x') \& F(y', y) \right) \right. \\ \left. \rightarrow \left(I(x', y') \& R_{S_k}(x', y) \& K_{q_l}(x') \right) \right. \\ \left. \& (z) \left[F(y', z) \vee \left(R_{S_j}(x, z) \rightarrow R_{S_k}(x', z) \right) \right] \right\}.$$

$$\text{Inst } \{q_i S_j S_k R q_l\} \quad \text{and} \quad \text{Inst } \{q_i S_j S_k N q_l\}$$

are to be abbreviations for other similarly constructed expressions.

Let us put the description of \mathcal{M} into the first standard form of § 6. This description consists of a number of expressions such as " $q_i S_j S_k L q_l$ " (or with R or N substituted for L). Let us form all the corresponding expressions such as $\text{Inst } \{q_i S_j S_k L q_l\}$ and take their logical sum. This we call $\text{Des } (\mathcal{M})$.

The formula $\text{Un } (\mathcal{M})$ is to be

$$(\exists u) \left[N(u) \& (x) \left(N(x) \rightarrow (\exists x') F(x, x') \right) \right. \\ \& (y, z) \left(F(y, z) \rightarrow N(y) \& N(z) \right) \& (y) R_{S_0}(u, y) \\ \& I(u, u) \& K_{q_1}(u) \& \text{Des } (\mathcal{M}) \left. \right] \\ \rightarrow (\exists s) (\exists t) [N(s) \& N(t) \& R_{S_1}(s, t)].$$

$[N(u) \& \dots \& \text{Des } (\mathcal{M})]$ may be abbreviated to $A(\mathcal{M})$.

When we substitute the meanings suggested on p. 259-60 we find that $\text{Un } (\mathcal{M})$ has the interpretation "in some complete configuration of \mathcal{M} , S_1 (i.e. 0) appears on the tape". Corresponding to this I prove that

(a) If S_1 appears on the tape in some complete configuration of \mathcal{M} , then $\text{Un } (\mathcal{M})$ is provable.

(b) If $\text{Un } (\mathcal{M})$ is provable, then S_1 appears on the tape in some complete configuration of \mathcal{M} .

When this has been done, the remainder of the theorem is trivial.

with the m -configuration written below the scanned symbol. The successive complete configurations are separated by colons.

: a a 0 0 : a a 0 0 : a a 0 0 : a a 0 0 : a a 0 0 1 :									
b	e		q		q		q		p
a a 0 0	1 : a a 0 0	1 : a a 0 0	1 : a a 0 0	1 : a a 0 0	1 :				
	p		p		f		f		
a a 0 0	1 : a a 0 0	0 1		: a a 0 0	1 0 :				
		f		f		e			
a a 0 0	1 x 0 :							

This table could also be written in the form

$$b : a a e 0 0 : a a q 0 0 : \dots, \quad (C)$$

in which a space has been made on the left of the scanned symbol and the m -configuration written in this space. This form is less easy to follow, but we shall make use of it later for theoretical purposes.

The convention of writing the figures only on alternate squares is very useful: I shall always make use of it. I shall call the one sequence of alternate squares F -squares and the other sequence E -squares. The symbols on E -squares will be liable to erasure. The symbols on F -squares form a continuous sequence. There are no blanks until the end is reached. There is no need to have more than one E -square between each pair of F -squares: an apparent need of more E -squares can be satisfied by having a sufficiently rich variety of symbols capable of being printed on E -squares. If a symbol β is on an F -square S and a symbol a is on the E -square next on the right of S , then S and β will be said to be *marked* with a . The process of printing this a will be called marking β (or S) with a .

4. Abbreviated tables.

There are certain types of process used by nearly all machines, and these, in some machines, are used in many connections. These processes include copying down sequences of symbols, comparing sequences, erasing all symbols of a given form, etc. Where such processes are concerned we can abbreviate the tables for the m -configurations considerably by the use of "skeleton tables". In skeleton tables there appear capital German letters and small Greek letters. These are of the nature of "variables". By replacing each capital German letter throughout by an m -configuration

LEMMA 1. If S_1 appears on the tape in some complete configuration of \mathcal{M} , then $\text{Un}(\mathcal{M})$ is provable.

We have to show how to prove $\text{Un}(\mathcal{M})$. Let us suppose that in the n -th complete configuration the sequence of symbols on the tape is $S_{r(n,0)}, S_{r(n,1)}, \dots, S_{r(n,n)}$, followed by nothing but blanks, and that the scanned symbol is the $i(n)$ -th, and that the m -configuration is $q_{k(n)}$. Then we may form the proposition

$$\begin{aligned} & R_{S_{r(n,0)}}(u^{(n)}, u) \& R_{S_{r(n,1)}}(u^{(n)}, u') \& \dots \& R_{S_{r(n,n)}}(u^{(n)}, u^{(n)}) \\ & \& I(u^{(n)}, u^{(i(n))}) \& K_{q_{k(n)}}(u^{(n)}) \\ & \& (y) F((y, u') \vee F(u, y) \vee F(u', y) \vee \dots \vee F(u^{(n-1)}, y) \vee R_{S_0}(u^{(n)}, y)), \end{aligned}$$

which we may abbreviate to CC_n .

As before, $F(u, u') \& F(u', u'') \& \dots \& F(u^{(r-1)}, u^{(r)})$ is abbreviated to $F^{(r)}$.

I shall show that all formulae of the form $A(\mathcal{M}) \& F^{(n)} \rightarrow CC_n$ (abbreviated to CF_n) are provable. The meaning of CF_n is "The n -th complete configuration of \mathcal{M} is so and so", where "so and so" stands for the actual n -th complete configuration of \mathcal{M} . That CF_n should be provable is therefore to be expected.

CF_0 is certainly provable, for in the complete configuration the symbols are all blanks, the m -configuration is q_1 , and the scanned square is u , i.e. CC_0 is

$$(y) R_{S_0}(u, y) \& I(u, u) \& K_{q_1}(u).$$

$A(\mathcal{M}) \rightarrow CC_0$ is then trivial.

We next show that $CF_n \rightarrow CF_{n+1}$ is provable for each n . There are three cases to consider, according as in the move from the n -th to the $(n+1)$ -th configuration the machine moves to left or to right or remains stationary. We suppose that the first case applies, i.e. the machine moves to the left. A similar argument applies in the other cases. If $r(n, i(n)) = a$, $r(n+1, i(n+1)) = c$, $k(i(n)) = b$, and $k(i(n+1)) = d$, then $\text{Des}(\mathcal{M})$ must include $\text{Inst}\{q_a S_b S_d L q_c\}$ as one of its terms, i.e.

$$\text{Des}(\mathcal{M}) \rightarrow \text{Inst}\{q_a S_b S_d L q_c\}.$$

Hence $A(\mathcal{M}) \& F^{(n+1)} \rightarrow \text{Inst}\{q_a S_b S_d L q_c\} \& F^{(n+1)}$.

But $\text{Inst}\{q_a S_b S_d L q_c\} \& F^{(n+1)} \rightarrow (CC_n \rightarrow CC_{n+1})$

is provable, and so therefore is

$$A(\mathcal{M}) \& F^{(n+1)} \rightarrow (CC_n \rightarrow CC_{n+1})$$

and each small Greek letter by a symbol, we obtain the table for an m -configuration.

The skeleton tables are to be regarded as nothing but abbreviations: they are not essential. So long as the reader understands how to obtain the complete tables from the skeleton tables, there is no need to give any exact definitions in this connection.

Let us consider an example:

m -config.	Symbol	Behaviour	Final m -config.	
$f(\mathfrak{C}, \mathfrak{B}, a)$	\mathfrak{a}	L	$f_1(\mathfrak{C}, \mathfrak{B}, a)$	From the m -configuration $f(\mathfrak{C}, \mathfrak{B}, a)$ the machine finds the symbol of form a which is farthest to the left (the "first a ") and the m -configuration then becomes \mathfrak{C} . If there is no a then the m -configuration becomes \mathfrak{B} .
	not \mathfrak{a}	L	$f(\mathfrak{C}, \mathfrak{B}, a)$	
$f_1(\mathfrak{C}, \mathfrak{B}, a)$	a		\mathfrak{C}	
	not a	R	$f_1(\mathfrak{C}, \mathfrak{B}, a)$	
	None	R	$f_2(\mathfrak{C}, \mathfrak{B}, a)$	
$f_2(\mathfrak{C}, \mathfrak{B}, a)$	a		\mathfrak{C}	
	not a	R	$f_1(\mathfrak{C}, \mathfrak{B}, a)$	
	None	R	\mathfrak{B}	

If we were to replace \mathfrak{C} throughout by q (say), \mathfrak{B} by r , and a by x , we should have a complete table for the m -configuration $f(q, r, x)$. f is called an " m -configuration function" or " m -function".

The only expressions which are admissible for substitution in an m -function are the m -configurations and symbols of the machine. These have to be enumerated more or less explicitly: they may include expressions such as $p(\mathfrak{c}, x)$; indeed they must if there are any m -functions used at all. If we did not insist on this explicit enumeration, but simply stated that the machine had certain m -configurations (enumerated) and all m -configurations obtainable by substitution of m -configurations in certain m -functions, we should usually get an infinity of m -configurations; e.g., we might say that the machine was to have the m -configuration q and all m -configurations obtainable by substituting an m -configuration for \mathfrak{C} in $p(\mathfrak{C})$. Then it would have q , $p(q)$, $p(p(q))$, $p(p(p(q)))$, ... as m -configurations.

Our interpretation rule then is this. We are given the names of the m -configurations of the machine, mostly expressed in terms of m -functions. We are also given skeleton tables. All we want is the complete table for the m -configurations of the machine. This is obtained by repeated substitution in the skeleton tables.

and
$$\left(A(\mathcal{M}) \& F^{(n)} \rightarrow CC_n \right) \rightarrow \left(A(\mathcal{M}) \& F^{(n+1)} \rightarrow CC_{n+1} \right),$$

i.e.
$$CF_n \rightarrow CF_{n+1}.$$

CF_n is provable for each n . Now it is the assumption of this lemma that S_1 appears somewhere, in some complete configuration, in the sequence of symbols printed by \mathcal{M} ; that is, for some integers N, K , CC_N has $R_{S_1}(u^{(N)}, u^{(K)})$ as one of its terms, and therefore $CC_N \rightarrow R_{S_1}(u^{(N)}, u^{(K)})$ is provable. We have then

$$CC_N \rightarrow R_{S_1}(u^{(N)}, u^{(K)})$$

and
$$A(\mathcal{M}) \& F^{(N)} \rightarrow CC_N.$$

We also have

$$(\exists u) A(\mathcal{M}) \rightarrow (\exists u) (\exists u') \dots (\exists u^{(N')}) \left(A(\mathcal{M}) \& F^{(N')} \right),$$

where $N' = \max(N, K)$. And so

$$(\exists u) A(\mathcal{M}) \rightarrow (\exists u) (\exists u') \dots (\exists u^{(N')}) R_{S_1}(u^{(N)}, u^{(K)}),$$

$$(\exists u) A(\mathcal{M}) \rightarrow (\exists u^{(N)}) (\exists u^{(K)}) R_{S_1}(u^{(N)}, u^{(K)}),$$

$$(\exists u) A(\mathcal{M}) \rightarrow (\exists s) (\exists t) R_{S_1}(s, t),$$

i.e. $\text{Un}(\mathcal{M})$ is provable.

This completes the proof of Lemma 1.

LEMMA 2. *If $\text{Un}(\mathcal{M})$ is provable, then S_1 appears on the tape in some complete configuration of \mathcal{M} .*

If we substitute any propositional functions for function variables in a provable formula, we obtain a true proposition. In particular, if we substitute the meanings tabulated on pp. 259–260 in $\text{Un}(\mathcal{M})$, we obtain a true proposition with the meaning “ S_1 appears somewhere on the tape in some complete configuration of \mathcal{M} ”.

We are now in a position to show that the Entscheidungsproblem cannot be solved. Let us suppose the contrary. Then there is a general (mechanical) process for determining whether $\text{Un}(\mathcal{M})$ is provable. By Lemmas 1 and 2, this implies that there is a process for determining whether \mathcal{M} ever prints 0, and this is impossible, by § 8. Hence the Entscheidungsproblem cannot be solved.

In view of the large number of particular cases of solutions of the Entscheidungsproblem for formulae with restricted systems of quantors, it

Further examples.

(In the explanations the symbol " \rightarrow " is used to signify "the machine goes into the m -configuration. . . .")

$c(\mathfrak{C}, \mathfrak{B}, a)$ $f(c_1(\mathfrak{C}, \mathfrak{B}, a), \mathfrak{B}, a)$ From $c(\mathfrak{C}, \mathfrak{B}, a)$ the first a is
 $c_1(\mathfrak{C}, \mathfrak{B}, a)$ E \mathfrak{C} erased and $\rightarrow \mathfrak{C}$. If there is no
 $a \rightarrow \mathfrak{B}$.

$c(\mathfrak{B}, a)$ $c(c(\mathfrak{B}, a), \mathfrak{B}, a)$ From $c(\mathfrak{B}, a)$ all letters a are
erased and $\rightarrow \mathfrak{B}$.

The last example seems somewhat more difficult to interpret than most. Let us suppose that in the list of m -configurations of some machine there appears $c(b, x)$ ($= q$, say). The table is

	$c(b, x)$	$c(c(b, x), b, x)$
or	q	$c(q, b, x)$.

Or, in greater detail:

q	$c(q, b, x)$
$c(q, b, x)$	$f(c_1(q, b, x), b, x)$
$c_1(q, b, x)$ E	q .

In this we could replace $c_1(q, b, x)$ by q' and then give the table for f (with the right substitutions) and eventually reach a table in which no m -functions appeared.

$pc(\mathfrak{C}, \beta)$	$f(pc_1(\mathfrak{C}, \beta), \mathfrak{C}, \alpha)$	From $pc(\mathfrak{C}, \beta)$ the machine prints β at the end of the sequence of symbols and $\rightarrow \mathfrak{C}$.
$pc_1(\mathfrak{C}, \beta)$	$\begin{cases} \text{Any } R, R & pc_1(\mathfrak{C}, \beta) \\ \text{None } P\beta & \mathfrak{C} \end{cases}$	

$l(\mathfrak{C})$	L	\mathfrak{C}	From $f'(\mathfrak{C}, \mathfrak{B}, a)$ it does the same as for $f(\mathfrak{C}, \mathfrak{B}, a)$ but moves to the left before $\rightarrow \mathfrak{C}$.
$r(\mathfrak{C})$	R	\mathfrak{C}	

$f'(\mathfrak{C}, \mathfrak{B}, a)$ $f(l(\mathfrak{C}), \mathfrak{B}, a)$

$f''(\mathfrak{C}, \mathfrak{B}, a)$ $f(r(\mathfrak{C}), \mathfrak{B}, a)$

$c(\mathfrak{C}, \mathfrak{B}, a)$	$f'(c_1(\mathfrak{C}), \mathfrak{B}, a)$	$c(\mathfrak{C}, \mathfrak{B}, a)$. The machine writes at the end the first sym- bol marked a and $\rightarrow \mathfrak{C}$.
$c_1(\mathfrak{C})$ β	$pc(\mathfrak{C}, \beta)$	

is interesting to express $\text{Un}(\mathcal{A})$ in a form in which all quantors are at the beginning. $\text{Un}(\mathcal{A})$ is, in fact, expressible in the form

$$(u)(\exists x)(w)(\exists u_1) \dots (\exists u_n) \mathfrak{B}, \quad (\text{I})$$

where \mathfrak{B} contains no quantors, and $n = 6$. By unimportant modifications we can obtain a formula, with all essential properties of $\text{Un}(\mathcal{A})$, which is of form (I) with $n = 5$.

Added 28 August, 1936.

APPENDIX.

Computability and effective calculability

The theorem that all effectively calculable (λ -definable) sequences are computable and its converse are proved below in outline. It is assumed that the terms "well-formed formula" (W.F.F.) and "conversion" as used by Church and Kleene are understood. In the second of these proofs the existence of several formulae is assumed without proof; these formulae may be constructed straightforwardly with the help of, *e.g.*, the results of Kleene in "A theory of positive integers in formal logic", *American Journal of Math.*, 57 (1935), 153-173, 219-244.

The W.F.F. representing an integer n will be denoted by N_n . We shall say that a sequence γ whose n -th figure is $\phi_\gamma(n)$ is λ -definable or effectively calculable if $1 + \phi_\gamma(u)$ is a λ -definable function of n , *i.e.* if there is a W.F.F. M_γ such that, for all integers n ,

$$\{M_\gamma\}(N_n) \text{ conv } N_{\phi_\gamma(n)+1},$$

i.e. $\{M_\gamma\}(N_n)$ is convertible into $\lambda xy.x(x(y))$ or into $\lambda xy.x(y)$ according as the n -th figure of λ is 1 or 0.

To show that every λ -definable sequence γ is computable, we have to show how to construct a machine to compute γ . For use with machines it is convenient to make a trivial modification in the calculus of conversion. This alteration consists in using x, x', x'', \dots as variables instead of a, b, c, \dots . We now construct a machine \mathcal{L} which, when supplied with the formula M_γ , writes down the sequence γ . The construction of \mathcal{L} is somewhat similar to that of the machine \mathcal{K} which proves all provable formulae of the functional calculus. We first construct a choice machine \mathcal{L}_1 , which, if supplied with a W.F.F., M say, and suitably manipulated, obtains any formula into which M is convertible. \mathcal{L}_1 can then be modified so as to yield an automatic machine \mathcal{L}_2 which obtains successively all the formulae

The last line stands for the totality of lines obtainable from it by replacing β by any symbol which may occur on the tape of the machine concerned.

$ce(\mathcal{C}, \mathfrak{B}, a)$	$c(e(\mathcal{C}, \mathfrak{B}, a), \mathfrak{B}, a)$	$ce(\mathfrak{B}, a)$. The machine copies down in order at the end all symbols marked a and erases the letters a ; $\rightarrow \mathfrak{B}$.
$ce(\mathfrak{B}, a)$	$ce(ce(\mathfrak{B}, a), \mathfrak{B}, a)$	
$re(\mathcal{C}, \mathfrak{B}, a, \beta)$	$f(re_1(\mathcal{C}, \mathfrak{B}, a, \beta), \mathfrak{B}, a)$	$re(\mathcal{C}, \mathfrak{B}, a, \beta)$. The machine replaces the first a by β and $\rightarrow \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathfrak{B}$ if there is no a .
$re_1(\mathcal{C}, \mathfrak{B}, a, \beta) \quad E, P\beta$	\mathcal{C}	
$re(\mathfrak{B}, a, \beta)$	$re(re(\mathfrak{B}, a, \beta), \mathfrak{B}, a, \beta)$	$re(\mathfrak{B}, a, \beta)$. The machine replaces all letters a by β ; $\rightarrow \mathfrak{B}$.
$cr(\mathcal{C}, \mathfrak{B}, a)$	$c(re(\mathcal{C}, \mathfrak{B}, a, a), \mathfrak{B}, a)$	$cr(\mathfrak{B}, a)$ differs from $ce(\mathfrak{B}, a)$ only in that the letters a are not erased. The m -configuration $cr(\mathfrak{B}, a)$ is taken up when no letters "a" are on the tape.
$cr(\mathfrak{B}, a)$	$cr(cr(\mathfrak{B}, a), re(\mathfrak{B}, a, a), a)$	

$cp(\mathcal{C}, \mathfrak{A}, \mathcal{E}, a, \beta)$	$f'(cp_1(\mathcal{C}_1 \mathfrak{A}, \beta), f(\mathfrak{A}, \mathcal{E}, \beta), a)$
$cp_1(\mathcal{C}, \mathfrak{A}, \beta)$	$\gamma \quad f'(cp_2(\mathcal{C}, \mathfrak{A}, \gamma), \mathfrak{A}, \beta)$
$cp_2(\mathcal{C}, \mathfrak{A}, \gamma)$	$\begin{cases} \gamma & \mathcal{C} \\ \text{not } \gamma & \mathfrak{A}. \end{cases}$

The first symbol marked a and the first marked β are compared. If there is neither a nor β , $\rightarrow \mathcal{C}$. If there are both and the symbols are alike, $\rightarrow \mathcal{C}$. Otherwise $\rightarrow \mathfrak{A}$.

$$cpe(\mathcal{C}, \mathfrak{A}, \mathcal{E}, a, \beta) \quad cp(c(e(\mathcal{C}, \mathcal{E}, \beta), \mathcal{E}, a), \mathfrak{A}, \mathcal{E}, a, \beta)$$

$cpe(\mathcal{C}, \mathfrak{A}, \mathcal{E}, a, \beta)$ differs from $cp(\mathcal{C}, \mathfrak{A}, \mathcal{E}, a, \beta)$ in that in the case when there is similarity the first a and β are erased.

$$cpe(\mathfrak{A}, \mathcal{E}, a, \beta) \quad cpe(cpe(\mathfrak{A}, \mathcal{E}, a, \beta), \mathfrak{A}, \mathcal{E}, a, \beta).$$

$cpe(\mathfrak{A}, \mathcal{E}, a, \beta)$. The sequence of symbols marked a is compared with the sequence marked β . $\rightarrow \mathcal{E}$ if they are similar. Otherwise $\rightarrow \mathfrak{A}$. Some of the symbols a and β are erased.

into which M is convertible (cf. foot-note p. 252). The machine \mathcal{L} includes \mathcal{L}_2 as a part. The motion of the machine \mathcal{L} when supplied with the formula M_γ is divided into sections of which the n -th is devoted to finding the n -th figure of γ . The first stage in this n -th section is the formation of $\{M_\gamma\}(N_n)$. This formula is then supplied to the machine \mathcal{L}_2 , which converts it successively into various other formulae. Each formula into which it is convertible eventually appears, and each, as it is found, is compared with

$$\lambda x \left[\lambda x' \left[\{x\}(\{x\}(x')) \right] \right], \text{ i.e. } N_2,$$

and with
$$\lambda x \left[\lambda x' [\{x\}(x')] \right], \text{ i.e. } N_1.$$

If it is identical with the first of these, then the machine prints the figure 1 and the n -th section is finished. If it is identical with the second, then 0 is printed and the section is finished. If it is different from both, then the work of \mathcal{L}_2 is resumed. By hypothesis, $\{M_\gamma\}(N_n)$ is convertible into one of the formulae N_2 or N_1 ; consequently the n -th section will eventually be finished, i.e. the n -th figure of γ will eventually be written down.

To prove that every computable sequence γ is λ -definable, we must show how to find a formula M_γ such that, for all integers n ,

$$\{M_\gamma\}(N_n) \text{ conv } N_{1+\phi_\gamma(n)}.$$

Let \mathcal{M} be a machine which computes γ and let us take some description of the complete configurations of \mathcal{M} by means of numbers, e.g. we may take the D.N. of the complete configuration as described in §6. Let $\xi(n)$ be the D.N. of the n -th complete configuration of \mathcal{M} . The table for the machine \mathcal{M} gives us a relation between $\xi(n+1)$ and $\xi(n)$ of the form

$$\xi(n+1) = \rho_\gamma(\xi(n)),$$

where ρ_γ is a function of very restricted, although not usually very simple, form: it is determined by the table for \mathcal{M} . ρ_γ is λ -definable (I omit the proof of this), i.e. there is a W.F.F. A_γ such that, for all integers n ,

$$\{A_\gamma\}(N_{\xi(n)}) \text{ conv } N_{\xi(n+1)}.$$

Let U_γ stand for

$$\lambda u \left[\left\{ \{u\}(A_\gamma) \right\} (N_r) \right],$$

where $r = \xi(0)$; then, for all integers n ,

$$\{U_\gamma\}(N_n) \text{ conv } N_{\xi(n)}.$$