

INCOMPLETENESS FOR STABLY CONSISTENT TURING MACHINES DRAFT

YASHA SAVELYEV

ABSTRACT. We first partly develop a mathematical notion of stable consistency intended to reflect the actual consistency property of human beings. Then we give generalizations of Gödel incompleteness theorems for stably consistent Turing machines. The syntactic version of this says that given a certain kind of map M of naturals with range arithmetic sentences the following cannot hold simultaneously: M is stably consistent, M is computable and speculative, M decides any first order arithmetic sentence. The additional assumption here which is needed in comparison to Gödel's theorem is the “speculative” condition. Our argument in particular proves the original incompleteness theorem in a rather elementary way, based on Turing machine language, in particular we do not use the Diagonal Lemma, our “Gödel sentence” is directly constructed. In practice such an M could be meant to represent a weakly idealized human being so that the above gives an obstruction to computability of intelligence, and this gives a formal extension of a famous disjunction of Gödel.

1. INTRODUCTION

replaced term “machine” by “encoded map” The term *encoded map* will mean a partial map $M : A \rightarrow B$, with A, B sets with an additional structure of an encoding in \mathbb{N} , (later on \mathbb{N} is replaced by the set of strings). An encoding is just an injective map $e : A \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ with some extra properties. This is described in more detail in Section 2.2. We now introduce our notion of stable soundness for certain kinds of encoded maps.

Let \mathcal{A} denote the set of (first order) sentences of arithmetic. And suppose we are given an encoded map

$$M : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathcal{A} \times \{\pm\},$$

for $\{\pm\}$ a set with two elements $+, -$.

Definition 1.1. *replaced Sigma by alpha here*

- $\alpha \in \mathcal{A}$ is **M -stable** if there is an n_0 with $M(n_0) = (\alpha, +)$ s.t. there is no $m > n_0$ with $M(m) = (\alpha, -)$. Let M^s denote the set of M -stable α .
- M is **deductively closed** if M^s is deductively closed.
- M is **stably consistent** if M^s is consistent.
- M **decides arithmetic** if

$$\forall \alpha \in \mathcal{A} : (M^s \vdash \alpha) \vee (M^s \vdash \neg \alpha),$$

where \vdash means proves as usual.

- M **decides arithmetic truth** if

$$\forall \alpha \in \mathcal{A} : (\alpha \text{ is true}) \implies (M^s \vdash \alpha),$$

here by true we mean satisfied in the standard model of arithmetic.

So such an M could be given the following interpretation, this interpretation has no mathematical content a priori, it is simply how one may think of such an M informally. $M(n) = (\alpha, +)$ only if at the moment n M decides that α is true. Meanwhile

$$M(m) = (\alpha, -)$$

only if at the moment m , M no longer asserts that α is true. If α is M -stable we can also say M *stably decides* α to be true. So that M is stably consistent if the set of sentences it stably decides to be true are consistent.

The following is the semantic version of our main theorem.

Theorem 1.2. *For M as above the following cannot hold simultaneously: M is stably consistent, M is computable and M decides arithmetic truth. Here ‘computable’ has the standard meaning of computability by a Turing machine, once one fixes encodings of the corresponding sets, with specifics given in Section 2.2.*

The above can be easily deduced from Tarski undecidability of truth [?] as the set M^s is definable in first order arithmetic. However our proof is very elementary, starting with just the definition of Turing machine, in particular the Diagonal Lemma [?] is not used. In addition this proof readily extends to give the more interesting syntactic version of the theorem, which will follow, and which cannot be readily deduced from known results.

For the following theorem we need one final property for M . Let RA denote Robinson arithmetic that is Peano arithmetic without induction.

Definition 1.3. *We say that M is **speculative** if $M^s \vdash RA$ and if the following holds. Let ϕ be a formula in arithmetic, with a single free variable, of complexity Δ_0 , in other words for each m , $\phi(m)$ is decidable in RA . Let α be the sentence:*

$$\forall m : \phi(m),$$

then

$$\forall m : RA \vdash \phi(m) \implies M^s \vdash \alpha.$$

Note that of course the left hand side is not the same as $RA \vdash \alpha$.

We may interpret this condition as saying that M initially prints α as a hypothesis, and removes α from its list (that is α will not be in M^s) only if for some m , $RA \vdash \neg\phi(m)$. Since we are only interested in stable consistency of M , and since each $\phi(m)$ is by assumption RA -decidable, this is not in principle contradictory. Indeed in Example 3.3 we construct a stably sound Turing machine, with an analogue of this speculative property, deciding the halting problem.

Theorem 1.4. *For a speculative M as above the following cannot hold simultaneously: M is stably consistent, M is computable and M decides arithmetic. Moreover, assuming M is stably consistent and computable, the “Gödel sentence” α so that $\neg(M^s \vdash \alpha \vee M^s \vdash \neg\alpha)$, can be chosen to be true in the standard model of arithmetic.*

While this looks very similar to the original Gödel incompleteness theorem, one distinction is that the set M^s of axioms may not be computable, see Example 3.3, whereas Gödel works with a computable sets of axioms. On the other hand we appear to need an extra assumption by way of the “speculative” condition. Our argument also readily reproves the original result of Gödel and is very elementary, with our Gödel sentence constructed directly by means of Turing machine language. One immediate question:

Question 1. Assuming that $M^s \vdash RA$, can we remove condition that M is speculative?

Certainly the argument of the paper breaks down in this case. I believe that the answer is no, but constructing an example appears to be a very difficult problem.

1.1. Motivational background - intelligence, Gödel’s disjunction and Penrose. In what follows we understand *human intelligence* very much like Turing in [2], as a black box which receives inputs and produces outputs. More specifically, this black box M is meant to be some system which contains a human subject. We do not care about what is happening inside M . So we are not directly concerned here with such intangible things as understanding, intuition, consciousness - the inner workings of human intelligence that are supposed as special. The only thing that concerns us is what output M produces given an input, not how it is produced. Given this *very* limited interpretation, the question that we are interested in is this:

Question 2. Can human intelligence be completely modelled by a Turing machine?

An informal definition of a Turing machine (see [1]) is as follows: it is an abstract machine which permits certain inputs, and produces outputs. The outputs are determined from the inputs by a fixed finite algorithm, defined in a certain precise sense. In particular anything that can be computed by computers as we know them can be computed by a Turing machine. For our purposes the reader may simply understand a Turing machine as a digital computer with unbounded memory running some particular program. Unbounded memory is just a mathematical convenience. In specific arguments, also of the kind we make, we can work with non-explicitly bounded memory. Turing himself has started on a form of Question 1 in his “Computing machines and Intelligence” [2], where he also informally outlined a possible obstruction to a yes answer coming from Gödel’s incompleteness theorem.

For the incompleteness theorem to have any relevance we need some assumption on the soundness or consistency of human reasoning. Informally, a human is sound if whenever they asserts something in absolute faith this something is indeed true. This requires context as truth in general is undefinable. For our arguments later on the context will be in certain mathematical models. However, we cannot honestly hope for soundness, as even mathematicians are not on the surface sound at all times, they may assert mathematical untruths at various times, (but usually not in absolute faith). But we can certainly hope for some kind of fundamental soundness.

In this work we will formally interpret fundamental consistency as stable consistency, which we already partly described above. This notion is meant to reflect the basic understanding of the way science progresses. Of course even stable consistency needs idealizations to make sense for individual humans. The human brain deteriorates and eventually fails, so that either we idealize the human brain to never deteriorate in particular never die, or M now refers not to an individual human but to humanity. We call such a human *weakly idealized*.

Around the same time as Turing, Gödel argued for a no answer to Question 1, see [11, 310], relating the question to existence of absolutely unsolvable Diophantine problems, see also Feferman [6], and Koellner [13], [14] for a discussion. Essentially, Gödel argues for a disjunction:

$$\neg((S \text{ is computable}) \wedge (S \text{ is sound}) \wedge A),$$

where S refers to a certain idealized subject, and where A says that S can decide any Diophantine problem. Gödel’s argument can be formalized, see [14]. At the same time Gödel doubted that $\neg A$ is possible, again for an idealized S , as this puts absolute limits on what is humanly knowable even in arithmetic. Note that his own incompleteness theorem only puts relative limits on what is humanly knowable, within a fixed formal system.

However, what is the meaning of ‘idealized’ above? If idealized just means stabilized in the sense of this paper (Section 3 specifically) then there is a Turing machine T whose stabilization T^s soundly decides the halting problem, cf. Example 3.3, and so T^s is no longer computable. In that case, the above disjunction becomes meaningless because passing to the idealization may introduce non-computability where there was none before. So in this context one must be extremely detailed with what “idealized” means physically and mathematically. The process of the idealization must be such that non-computability is not introduced in the ideal limit.

In the case of weak idealization mentioned above, it should certainly be in principle possible. For example, suppose we know that there is a mathematical model M for the biological human brain, in which the deterioration mentioned above is described by some explicit computable stochastic process, on top of the base cognitive processes. Then mathematically a weak idealization M^i of M would just correspond to the removal of this stochastic process. We may then meaningfully apply the above theorem to M^i , since M^i would be non-computable only if some cognitive processes of the brain (in the given mathematical model) were non-computable, since mathematically M^i would be composed from such processes.

But this is not what is needed by Gödel. He needs an idealization that is plausibly consistent otherwise the disjunction would again be meaningless, while a weak idealization of a human is only plausibly stably consistent. Since we do not have a good understanding of physical processes of the human brain involved in cognition, it is not at all clear that what Gödel asks is even possible.

So the natural solution to attempt is to enrich the argument of Gödel so that it explicitly allows for just stable consistency. But then we may worry: if stable consistency/soundness is such a loose concept that a stably sound Turing machine can decide the halting problem, maybe Turing machines can stably consistently decide anything? So we need new incompleteness theorems.

After Gödel, Lucas [10] and later again and more robustly Penrose [16] argued for a no answer based only on soundness and the Gödel incompleteness theorem, that is attempting to remove the necessity to decide A or $\neg A$. A number of authors, particularly Koellner [13], [14], argue that there are likely unresolvable meta-logical issues with the Penrose argument, even allowing for soundness. See also Penrose [16], and Chalmers [4] for discussions of some issues. The issue, as I see it, is loosely speaking the following. The kind of argument that Penrose proposes is a meta-algorithm P that takes as input specification of a Turing machine or a formal system, and has as output a natural number (or a string, sentence). Moreover, each step of this meta-algorithm is computably constructive. But the goal of the meta-algorithm P is to prove P is not computable as a function! So on this rough surface level this appears to be impossible.

Notwithstanding, what we argue here is that there is much more compelling version of the original Gödel disjunction that only needs stable soundness. The following is a slightly informal, applied version of our Theorems 1.2, 1.4, interpreting “weakly idealized human” as just humanity H .¹

Theorem 1.5. *Either there are cognitively meaningful, absolutely non Turing computable processes in the human brain, or human knowledge is not stably consistent, or there exists a certain true² arithmetic statement, let’s call it \mathcal{H} , which will never be stably decided by H . If moreover we force H to be speculative in the sense of Definition 1.3 then H will never stably decide \mathcal{H} or $\neg\mathcal{H}$. The above is indeed a mathematical fact³, given our formalizations.*

By *absolutely* we mean in any sufficiently accurate physical model. Note that even existence of absolutely non Turing computable processes in nature is not known. For example, we expect beyond reasonable doubt that solutions of fluid flow or N -body problems are generally non Turing computable (over \mathbb{Z} , if not over \mathbb{R} cf. [3])⁴ as modeled in essentially classical mechanics. But in a more physically accurate and fundamental model they may both become computable, possibly if the nature of the universe is ultimately discreet. It would be good to compare this theorem with Deutch [5], where computability of any suitably finite and discreet physical system is conjectured. Although this is not immediately at odds with us, as the hypothesis of that conjecture may certainly not be satisfiable.

Also with regards to the second part of the theorem, while ordinarily mathematicians do not have the speculative property, the point is that in principle they can, for example there is much work mathematical work being done assuming the Riemann hypothesis. So it is still a pertinent question to characterize the possible range of such “speculative” mathematics.

Remark 1.6. *Turing suggested in [2] that abandoning hope of consistency is the obvious way to circumvent the implications of Gödel incompleteness theorem. In my opinion this position is untenable, humans (reasonably idealized) may not be consistent but it is inconceivable that humanity is not stably consistent, and in stably consistent case there is still an incompleteness theorem. So the only way that the incompleteness theorems can be circumvented is to accept that there is an absolute limit on human reasoning as in the theorem above.*

Remark 1.7. *It should also be noted that for Penrose, in particular, non-computability of intelligence would be evidence for new physics, and he has specific and very intriguing proposals with Hameroff [9] on how this can take place in the human brain. As we have already indicated, new physics is not a logical necessity for non-computability of brain processes, at least given the state of the art. However, it is very plausible that new physical-mathematical ideas may be necessary to resolve the deep mystery*

¹The output of H is determined by say majority consensus.

²In the standard model.

³Specifically a theorem of set theory, although we keep set theory implicit as usual.

⁴We are now involving real numbers but there is a standard way of talking of computability in this case, in terms of computable real numbers. This is what means over \mathbb{Z} .

of human consciousness. Here is also a partial list of some partially related work on mathematical models of brain activity, consciousness and or quantum collapse models: [12], [15], [7], [8].

As a final remark, technically the paper is mostly elementary and should be widely readable in entirety.

2. SOME PRELIMINARIES

This section can be just skimmed on a first reading. For more details we recommend the book of Soare [?]. Our approach here is however is slightly novel in that we do not explicitly Gödel encode anything, instead abstractly axiomatizing the expected properties of encodings. This allows us later on to give very concise, self-contained arguments for main results.

Really what we are interested in is not Turing machines per se, but computations that can be simulated by Turing machine computations. These can for example be computations that a mathematician performs with paper and pencil, and indeed is the original motivation for Turing's specific model. However to introduce Turing computations we need Turing machines. Here is our version, which is a computationally equivalent, minor variation of Turing's original machine.

Definition 2.1. *A Turing machine M consists of:*

- *Three infinite (1-dimensional) tapes T_i, T_o, T_c , (input, output and computation) divided into discreet cells, next to each other. Each cell contains a symbol from some finite alphabet Γ with at least two elements. A special symbol $b \in \Gamma$ for blank, (the only symbol which may appear infinitely many often).*
- *Three heads H_i, H_o, H_c (pointing devices), H_i can read each cell in T_i to which it points, H_o, H_c can read/write each cell in T_o, T_c to which they point. The heads can then move left or right on the tape.*
- *A set of internal states Q , among these is "start" state q_0 . And a non-empty set $F \subset Q$ of final states.*
- *Input string Σ : the collection of symbols on the tape T_i , so that to the left and right of Σ there are only symbols b . We assume that in state q_0 H_i points to the beginning of the input string, and that the T_c, T_o have only b symbols.*
- *A finite set of instructions: I , that given the state q the machine is in currently, and given the symbols the heads are pointing to, tells M to do the following. The actions taken, 1-3 below, will be (jointly) called an **executed instruction set** or just **step**:*
 - (1) *Replace symbols with another symbol in the cells to which the heads H_c, H_o point (or leave them).*
 - (2) *Move each head H_i, H_c, H_o left, right, or leave it in place, (independently).*
 - (3) *Change state q to another state or keep it.*
- *Output string Σ_{out} , the collection of symbols on the tape T_o , so that to the left and right of Σ_{out} there are only symbols b , when the machine state is final. When the internal state is one of the final states we ask that the instructions are to do nothing, so that these are frozen states.*

Definition 2.2. *A complete configuration of a Turing machine M or total state is the collection of all current symbols on the tapes, position of the heads, and current internal state. Given a total state s , $\delta^M(s)$ will denote the successor state of s , obtained by executing the instructions set of M on s , or in other words $\delta^M(s)$ is one step forward from s .*

So a Turing machine determines a special kind of function:

$$\delta^M : \mathcal{C}(M) \rightarrow \mathcal{C}(M),$$

where $\mathcal{C}(M)$ is the set of possible total states of M .

Definition 2.3. *A Turing computation, or computation sequence for M is a possibly not eventually constant sequence*

$$*M(\Sigma) := \{s_i\}_{i=0}^{i=\infty}$$

of total states of M , determined by the input Σ and M , with s_0 the initial configuration whose internal state is q_0 , and where $s_{i+1} = \delta(s_i)$. If elements of $\{s_i\}_{i=0}^{\infty}$ are eventually in some final machine state, so that the sequence is eventually constant, then we say that the computation **halts**. For a given Turing computation $*M(\Sigma)$, we will write

$$*M(\Sigma) \rightarrow x,$$

if $*M(\Sigma)$ halts and x is the corresponding output string.

We write $M(\Sigma)$ for the output string of M , given the input string Σ , if the associated Turing computation $*M(\Sigma)$ halts. Denote by *Strings* the set of all finite strings of symbols in Γ , including the empty string ϵ . Then a Turing machine M determines a partial function that is defined on all $\Sigma \in \text{Strings}$ s.t. $*M(\Sigma)$ halts, by $\Sigma \mapsto M(\Sigma)$.

In practice we will allow our Turing machine T to reject some elements of *Strings* as valid input. We may formalize this by asking that there is a special final machine state q_{reject} so that $T(\Sigma)$ halts with q_{reject} for

$$\Sigma \notin \mathcal{I} \subset \text{Strings}.$$

The set \mathcal{I} is also called the set of *T-permissible* input strings. We do not ask that for $\Sigma \in \mathcal{I}$ $*T(\Sigma)$ halts. If $*T(\Sigma)$ does halt then we will say that Σ is *T-acceptable*.

Definition 2.4. We denote by \mathcal{T} the set of all Turing machines with a distinguished final machine state q_{reject} .

It will be convenient to forget q_{reject} and instead write

$$T : \mathcal{I} \rightarrow \mathcal{O},$$

where $\mathcal{I} \subset \text{Strings}$ is understood as the subset of all *T-permissible* strings, or just *input set* and \mathcal{O} is the set output strings or *output set*.

Definition 2.5. Given a partial function

$$f : \mathcal{I} \rightarrow \mathcal{O},$$

we say that a Turing machine $T \in \mathcal{T}$

$$T : \mathcal{I} \rightarrow \mathcal{O}$$

computes f if $T = f$ as partial functions on \mathcal{I} .

2.1. Multi-input Turing machine. There is a basic well known variant of a Turing machine which takes as input an element of Strings^n , for some fixed $n \in \mathbb{N}$. This is done by replacing the input 1-tape by an n -tape. We will not give details of this. Notationally such a Turing machine will be distinguished by a superscript so

$$T^n : \text{Strings}^n \rightarrow \text{Strings},$$

denotes such a Turing machine with n inputs.

2.2. Abstractly encoded sets. The material of this section will be used in the main arguments, it will allow us to remove the need to work with explicit Gödel encodings, greatly simplifying subsequent details. However this will require a bit of abstraction. This is analogous in linear algebra to working with abstract \mathbb{R} -vector spaces as opposed to \mathbb{R}^n . While formally one of course gains nothing, any student of linear algebra appreciates the power gained by introducing the abstraction of vector spaces.

An *encoding* of a set A is an injective set map $e : A \rightarrow \text{Strings}$. For example we may encode Strings^2 as a subset of *Strings* as follows. The encoding string of $\Sigma = (\Sigma_1, \Sigma_2) \in \text{Strings}^2$ will be of the type: “this string encodes an element Strings^2 : its components are Σ_1 and Σ_2 .” In particular the sets of integers \mathbb{N}, \mathbb{Z} , which we may use, will under some encoding correspond to subsets of *Strings*. Indeed this abstracting of sets from their encoding in *Strings* is partly what computer languages do.

More formally, let \mathcal{S} be an arrow category whose objects are maps $e_A : A \rightarrow \text{Strings}$, for e_A an embedding called **encoding map of** A , determined by a set A . We may denote $e_A(A)$ by A_e . The morphisms in the category \mathcal{S} are pairs of partial maps (m, m_e) so that the following diagram commutes:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} A & \xrightarrow{m} & B \\ \downarrow e_A & & \downarrow e_B \\ A_e \subset \text{Strings} & \xrightarrow{m_e} & B_e \subset \text{Strings}, \end{array}$$

and so that m_e is computable and A_e coincides with the set of permissible strings for the Turing machine computing m_e .

Notation 1. We may just write $A \in \mathcal{S}$ for an object, with e_A implicit.

We call such an A an **abstractly encoded set** so that \mathcal{S} is a category of abstractly encoded sets. In addition we ask that \mathcal{S} satisfies the following properties.

- (1) For $A \in \mathcal{S}$ A_e is computable (recursive). Here, as is standard, a set $S \subset \text{Strings}$ is called *computable* if both S and its complement are computably enumerable, with S called *computably enumerable* if there is a Turing machine T so that $*T(\Sigma)$ halts iff $\Sigma \in S$.
- (2) There is an abstractly encoded set $\mathcal{U} = \text{Strings} \in \mathcal{S}$, with $e_{\mathcal{U}} = id_{\text{Strings}}$. We can think of \mathcal{U} as the set of typeless strings.
- (3) For $A, B \in \mathcal{S}$,

$$(A_e \cap B_e \text{ is non-empty}) \implies (A = \mathcal{U}) \vee (B = \mathcal{U}).$$

In particular each $A \in \mathcal{S}$ is determined by A_e .

- (4) If $A, B \in \mathcal{S}$ then $A \times B \in \mathcal{S}$ and the projection maps $pr^A : A \times B \rightarrow A$, $pr^B : A \times B \rightarrow B$ complete to morphisms of \mathcal{S} , similar to the above, so that we have a commutative diagram:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} A \times B & \xrightarrow{pr^A} & A \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow \\ (A \times B)_e & \xrightarrow{pr_e^A} & A_e, \end{array}$$

with pr_e^A computable, similarly for pr^B . In addition we ask for the following naturality property. Let f be the composition

$$A_e \times B_e \xrightarrow{(e_A^{-1}, e_B^{-1})} A \times B \xrightarrow{e_{A \times B}} (A \times B)_e,$$

then f is computable meaning that there is a 2-input Turing machine T^2 , with $Dom = A_e \times B_e$ the set of T^2 -permissible inputs, such that

$$T^2(\Sigma_1, \Sigma_2) = f(\Sigma_1, \Sigma_2)$$

for all (Σ_1, Σ_2) in Dom .

The above axioms suffice for our purposes but there are a number of possible extensions. The specific such category \mathcal{S} that we need will be clear from context later on. We only need to encode finitely many types of specific sets. For example \mathcal{S} should contain an abstract encoding of $\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{N}, \{\pm\}, \mathcal{T}$, with $\{\pm\}$ a set with two elements $+, -$. The encodings of \mathbb{N}, \mathbb{Z} should be suitably natural so that for example the map

$$\mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}, \quad n \mapsto n + 1$$

completes to a morphism in \mathcal{S} . For \mathbb{Z} we also want the map

$$\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \quad n \mapsto -n$$

to complete to a morphism in \mathcal{S} .

For $A, B \in \mathcal{S}$, given a partial set map $f : A \rightarrow B$ we define

$$f_e := e_B \circ f \circ e_A^{-1},$$

called **the encoding of** f .

Definition 2.6. An abstract Turing machine is kind of generalized morphism in the category \mathcal{S} . Specifically, for $A, B \in \mathcal{S}$ an **abstract Turing machine**

$$T : \text{Dom} \subset A \rightarrow B$$

is a subset $\text{Dom} \subset A$ for $A \in \mathcal{S}$, a partial map

$$f : \text{Dom} \rightarrow B$$

and $T_e \in \mathcal{T}$,

$$T_e : e_A(\text{Dom}) \rightarrow e_B(B)$$

such that T_e computes f_e , with $e_A(\text{Dom})$ coinciding with the set of T_e -permissible strings. The set Dom is called the set of **T -permissible strings**. We often omit Dom from notation, especially when $\text{Dom} = A$. In practice the partial map f may just be denoted by T itself. We may just say Turing machine in place of abstract Turing machine, since it is usually clear that what we mean.

We define $\mathcal{T}_{\mathcal{S}}$ to be the set of abstract Turing machines relative to \mathcal{S} as above. We will not need to encode $\mathcal{T}_{\mathcal{S}}$, as there is a natural embedding $i : \mathcal{T}_{\mathcal{S}} \rightarrow \mathcal{T}$, $i(T) = T_e$ and \mathcal{T} is encoded, and this will be sufficient for us.

For writing purposes we condense the above as follows.

Definition 2.7. An **encoded map** will be a synonym for a partial map $M : \text{Dom} \subset A \rightarrow B$, with A, B abstractly encoded sets. Dom may be omitted from notation. Note M is partial on Dom , not partial on A with Dom the set where M is defined, so $\text{Dom} \subset A$ is an extra specified structure. That said we may omit to write Dom , in particular when $\text{Dom} = A$.

$\mathcal{M} = \mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{S}}$ will denote the set of encoded maps. Given an abstract Turing machine $T : A \rightarrow B$, we have an associated machine $\text{fog}(T) : A \rightarrow B$ defined by forgetting the additional structure T_e . However we may also just write T for this machine by abuse of notation. So we have a forgetful map

$$\text{fog} : \mathcal{T} \rightarrow \mathcal{M},$$

which forgets the extra structure of a Turing machine.

Definition 2.8. We say that an abstract Turing machine T **computes** $M \in \mathcal{M}$ if $\text{fog}(T) = M$. We say that M is **computable** if some T computes M .

This has a number of expected properties, here is one that we will use:

Lemma 2.9. Given encoded maps $M : C \rightarrow A$, $G : C \rightarrow B$ if they are computable then

$$D : C \rightarrow A \times B, \quad D(c) = (M(c), G(c))$$

is computable.

Proof. The abstract Turing machines computing M, G will be denoted by M, G still, and let M_e, G_e be the Turing machines as in the definition of abstract Turing machines. We construct a Turing machine D_e via the following meta-algorithm.

- (1) Input $\Sigma \in \text{Strings}$.
- (2) Compute and store the value $M_e(\Sigma)$, Σ may be rejected by M_e in which case D_e rejects Σ .
- (3) Compute and store the value $G_e(\Sigma)$, likewise Σ may be rejected by G_e .
- (4) Compute and output the value

$$D_e(\Sigma) := T^2(M_e(\Sigma), G_e(\Sigma)),$$

where T^2 is as in the Axiom 4.

At any step the corresponding computation may of course not halt, which just means that our Turing machine D_e does not halt, but notwithstanding D_e is a Turing machine that computes $e_{A \times B} \circ D \circ e_C^{-1}$ by construction. \square

Composition. Given Turing machines

$$M_1 : A \rightarrow B, M_2 : C \rightarrow D,$$

we may naturally compose them to get a Turing machine $M_2 \circ M_1 : R \rightarrow D$, for $R = M_1^{-1}(B \cap C)$, with the intersection taken in *Strings*. R can be empty in which case $M_2 \circ M_1$ is a Turing machine which rejects all input. In the case of abstract Turing machines we ask that $B = C$ and then the composition operation is likewise readily defined. Let us not elaborate further.

2.3. Notation. \mathbb{Z} always denotes the set of all integers and \mathbb{N} non-negative integers. We will sometimes specify an (abstract) Turing machine simply by specifying a map

$$T : \mathcal{I} \rightarrow \mathcal{O},$$

with the full data of the underlying Turing machine being implicitly specified, in a way that should be clear from context.

3. ON STABLE SOUNDNESS

Definition 3.1. *Given an encoded map:*

$$M : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow B \times \{\pm\},$$

We say that $b \in B$ is **M -stable** if there is an n_0 with $M(n_0) = (b, +)$ s.t. there is no $m > n_0$ with $M(m) = (b, -)$. In the case above, we may also say that M **prints b stably**.

Definition 3.2. *Given a encoded map*

$$M : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow B \times \{\pm\},$$

we define

$$M^s : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow B$$

to be the machine enumerating, in order, all the M -stable b . We call this the **stabilization** of M . The range of M^s is called the **stable output** of M .

In general M^s may not be computable even if M is computable. Explicit examples of this sort can be constructed by hand.

Example 3.3. We can construct an abstract Turing machine

$$A : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathcal{P} \times \{\pm\},$$

whose stabilization A^s enumerates every Diophantine (integer coefficients) polynomial with no integer roots, where \mathcal{P} denotes the set of all Diophantine polynomials, (also abstractly encoded). Similarly, we can construct a Turing machine D whose stabilization enumerates pairs (T, n) for $T : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ a Turing machine and $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $*T(n)$ does not halt. In other words D stably soundly decides the halting problem. To do this we may proceed via a zig-zag algorithm.

In the case of Diophantine polynomials, here is a (inefficient) example. Let Z computably enumerate every Diophantine polynomial, and let N computably enumerate the integers. In other words, in our language, $Z : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathcal{P}$, $N : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ are total bijective functions extending to morphisms of \mathcal{S} (in particular abstract Turing machines). The encoding of \mathcal{P} should be suitably natural so that in particular the map

$$E : \mathbb{Z} \times \mathcal{P} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}, \quad (n, p) \mapsto p(n)$$

extends to a morphism in \mathcal{S} . In what follows, for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$, L_n has the type of an ordered finite list of elements of $\mathcal{P} \times \{\pm\}$, with order starting from 0.

- Initialize $L_0 := \emptyset$, $n := 0$.

- Start. For each $p \in \{Z(0), \dots, Z(n)\}$ check if one of $\{N(0), \dots, N(n)\}$ is a solution of p , if no add $(p, +)$ to L_n , if yes add $(p, -)$. Call the resulting list L_{n+1} . Explicitly,

$$L_{n+1} := L_n \cup \bigcup_{m=0}^n (Z(m), d^n(Z(m))),$$

where $d^n(p) = +$ if none of $\{N(0), \dots, N(n)\}$ are roots of p , $d^n(p) = -$ otherwise,

where \cup is set union operation of subsets of $\mathcal{P} \times \{\pm\}$.

- Set $n := n + 1$ go to Start and continue.

Set $L := \cup_n L_n$, which is an ordered infinite list. Define $A : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathcal{P} \times \{\pm\}$ by $A(m) = L(m)$ that is the m 'th element of $L(m)$. Since E is computable, it clearly follows that A is computable and its stabilization A^s enumerates Diophantine polynomials which have no integer roots.

3.1. Decision maps. By a **decision map** we mean an encoded map of the form:

$$D : \text{Dom} \subset B \times \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \{\pm\}.$$

Definition 3.4. For a D as above we say that $b \in B$ is **D -decided** if there is an n_0 with $D(b, n_0) = +$ s.t. there is no $m > n_0$ with $D(b, m) = -$.

Given an encoded map $M : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow B \times \{\pm\}$, there is an associated decision map:

$$D_M : \text{Dom} \subset B \times \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \{\pm\},$$

with Dom defined to be the set of $(b, n) \in B \times \mathbb{N}$ such that either $\text{pr}_B \circ M(n) = b$ or $M(n)$ is undefined, for $\text{pr}_B : B \times \{\pm\} \rightarrow B$ the projection. D_M is defined on Dom by

$$D_M(b, n) = \begin{cases} + & \text{if } M(n) = (b, +) \\ - & \text{if } M(n) = (b, -) \\ \text{undefined} & \text{if } M(n) \text{ is undefined.} \end{cases}$$

Lemma 3.5. If M as above is computable then D_M is computable. Moreover, b is M -stable iff b is D_M -decided.

Proof. To keep notation simple let M denote the Turing machine computing M . Let

$$\widetilde{M} : B \times \mathbb{N} \rightarrow (B \times \{\pm\}) \times B$$

be the Turing machine defined (as a partial map) by

$$\widetilde{M}(b, n) = (M(n), \text{pr}^B(b, n) = b).$$

Using Lemma 2.9 and that the projection

$$\text{pr}^B : B \times \mathbb{N} \rightarrow B$$

is computable by Axiom 4, we see that \widetilde{M} is indeed computable.

Define T to be the composition of (abstract) Turing machines:

$$T := R \circ \widetilde{M},$$

for

$$R : (B \times \{\pm\}) \times B \rightarrow \{\pm\},$$

the Turing machine so that (b, \pm, a) is R -rejected, is not R -permitted, whenever $b \neq a$ (we implicitly use Axiom 4 again to computably decide if $b \neq a$). And otherwise

$$R(b, \pm, a) = \text{pr}^\pm(b, \pm, a)$$

for

$$\text{pr}^\pm : (B \times \{\pm\}) \times B \rightarrow \{\pm\}$$

the projection. Then clearly T computes D_M . The second part of the lemma is immediate. \square

In particular by the example above there is a Turing machine

$$D_A : \mathcal{P} \times \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \{\pm\}$$

that stably soundly decides if a Diophantine polynomial has integer roots, meaning:

$$p \text{ is } D_A\text{-decided} \iff p \text{ has no integer roots.}$$

We can of course also construct such a D_A more directly. Likewise there is a Turing decision machine that stably soundly decides the halting problem, in this sense.

Definition 3.6. *Given an encoded map*

$$M : \text{Dom} \subset B \times \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \{\pm\}$$

and a Turing machine

$$T : \text{Dom} \subset B \times \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \{\pm\},$$

*we say that T **stably computes** M , or that $\Theta_{M,T}^s$ holds, if*

$$b \text{ is } M\text{-decided} \iff b \text{ is } T\text{-decided.}$$

Definition 3.7. *Given Turing machines*

$$T_1, T_2 : \text{Dom} \subset B \times \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \{\pm\},$$

*we say that they are **stably equivalent** and write $T_1 \simeq_s T_2$ if T_1, T_2 stably compute the same machine.*

4. INCOMPLETENESS FOR STABLY SOUND TURING MACHINES

Let \mathcal{D} denote the set of encoded maps of the form:

$$D : \text{Dom} \subset \mathcal{T} \times \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \{\pm\},$$

with subset Dom not fixed. And set

$$\mathcal{D}^t := \{T \in \mathcal{T}_S \mid \text{fog}(T) \in \mathcal{D}\}.$$

In what follows, for $T \in \mathcal{T}$ when we write $T \in \mathcal{D}^t$ we mean that $T \in \text{image } i|_{\mathcal{D}^t}$, for $i : \mathcal{T}_S \rightarrow \mathcal{T}$ the embedding discussed in Section 2.2. Likewise, if $T \in \text{image } i|_{\mathcal{D}^t}$ then by $T(T, m)$ we mean $i^{-1}(T)(T, m)$, so that in what follows the sentence “ T is not T -decided” makes sense for such a T . Explicitly, for $T \in \text{image } i|_{\mathcal{D}^t}$, T is not T -decided, will mean that T is not $i^{-1}(T)$ -decided.

Definition 4.1. *For a $D \in \mathcal{D}$, we say that D is **stably sound on** $T \in \mathcal{T}$ if*

$$(T \text{ is } D\text{-decided}) \implies (T \in \mathcal{D}^t) \wedge (T \text{ is not } T\text{-decided}).$$

*We say that D is **stably sound** if it is stably sound on all T . We say that D **stably decides** $\mathcal{P}(T)$ if:*

$$(T \in \mathcal{D}^t) \wedge (T \text{ is not } T\text{-decided}) \implies T \text{ is } D\text{-decided.}$$

*We say that D **stably soundly decides** $\mathcal{P}(T)$ if D is stably sound on T and stably decides $\mathcal{P}(T)$.*

*We say that D **stably soundly decides** \mathcal{P} if D stably soundly decides $\mathcal{P}(T)$ for all $T \in \mathcal{T}$.*

The informal interpretation of the above is that each $D \in \mathcal{D}$ is understood as a machine with the properties:

- For each T, n $D(T, n) = +$ only if D decides at the moment n that $T \in \mathcal{D}^t$ and T is not T -decided.
- For each T, n $D(T, n) = -$ only if D does not decide/assert at the moment n that $T \in \mathcal{D}^t$, or D cannot decide at the moment n that T is not T -decided.

Lemma 4.2. *If D is stably sound on $T \in \mathcal{T}$ then*

$$\neg \Theta_{D,T}^s \vee \neg(T \text{ is } D\text{-decided}).$$

Proof. If

$$T \text{ is } D\text{-decided}$$

then since D is stably sound on T , T is not T -decided, so of course $\neg \Theta_{D,T}^s$. □

Theorem 4.3. *There is no (stably) computable $D \in \mathcal{D}$ that stably soundly decides \mathcal{P} .*

Proof. Suppose that $D \in \mathcal{D}$ stably soundly decides \mathcal{P} then by the above lemma we obtain:

$$(4.4) \quad \forall T \in \mathcal{D}^t : \Theta_{D,T}^s \implies \neg(T \text{ is } D\text{-decided}).$$

But it is immediate:

$$(4.5) \quad \forall T \in \mathcal{D}^t : \Theta_{D,T}^s \implies (\neg(T \text{ is } D\text{-decided}) \implies \neg(T \text{ is } T\text{-decided})).$$

So combining (4.4), (4.5) above we obtain

$$\forall T \in \mathcal{D}^t : \Theta_{D,T}^s \implies \neg(T \text{ is } T\text{-decided}).$$

But D stably soundly decides \mathcal{P} so we conclude:

$$\forall T \in \mathcal{D}^t : \Theta_{D,T}^s \implies (T \text{ is } D\text{-decided}).$$

But this is a contradiction to (4.4) unless

$$\forall T \in \mathcal{D}^t : \neg\Theta_{D,T}^s,$$

which is what we wanted to prove. \square

We can strengthen the result as follows.

Definition 4.6. *For $D \in \mathcal{D}^t$, we say that $\mathcal{R}(D)$ holds if for any $T \in \mathcal{D}^t$ such T is not T -decided:*

$$\exists T' \in \mathcal{D}^t : (D \text{ stably decides } \mathcal{P}(T')) \wedge (T \simeq_s T').$$

Theorem 4.7. *For $D \in \mathcal{D}$ the following cannot hold simultaneously: D is stably sound, D is (stably) computable and $\mathcal{R}(D)$ holds.*

Proof. Suppose that D is stably computed by some $T \in \mathcal{D}^t$. If D is stably sound then by Lemma 4.2

$$\neg(T \text{ is } D\text{-decided}),$$

and so

$$\neg(T \text{ is } T\text{-decided}),$$

since T stably computes D . Consequently,

$$\mathcal{R}(D) \implies (\exists T' \in \mathcal{D}^t : (T' \simeq^s T) \wedge (T' \text{ is } D\text{-decided})).$$

Combining with Lemma 4.2 we get:

$$\mathcal{R}(D) \implies \exists T' \in \mathcal{D}^t : (T' \simeq^s T) \wedge \neg\Theta_{D,T'}^s,$$

so that if $\mathcal{R}(D)$ then we obtain a contradiction since:

$$(T' \simeq^s T) \wedge \neg\Theta_{D,T'}^s \implies \neg\Theta_{D,T}^s.$$

\square

Proof of Theorem 1.2. Suppose otherwise that we have such an M , so M is computable, is stably consistent, and the deductive closure C of $M^s(\mathbb{N})$ contains T , for T the set of true sentences for the standard model of arithmetic. Consequently $C = T$ since C is consistent, for given $\alpha \in C$ either $\alpha \in T$ or $\neg\alpha \in T$, and the latter gives that α and $\neg\alpha$ are in C which would contradict consistency, this simple argument was suggested to me by P. Koellner.

Lemma 4.8. *Given an encoded map $M : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathcal{A} \times \{\pm\}$, there is an encoded map $CM : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathcal{A} \times \{\pm\}$ so that $CM(\mathbb{N})$ is the deductive closure of the set $M^s(\mathbb{N})$, and so that if M is computable then so is CM .*

This might be rather evident but a formal argument requires some care.

Proof. Given a Turing machine $T : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$, there is a Turing machine $CT : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathcal{A} \times \mathcal{P}$, where \mathcal{P} is the set of strings in the language of arithmetic understood as proofs, with the property that $pr_{\mathcal{A}} \circ CT$ enumerates the deductive closure of $T(\mathbb{N})$, and so that for each n $pr_{\mathcal{P}} \circ CT(n)$, is the first order logic deduction of $pr_{\mathcal{A}} \circ CT(n)$, based on some collection of axioms in $T(\{1, \dots, n\})$. Here, $pr_{\mathcal{A}} : \mathcal{A} \times \mathcal{P} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ and $pr_{\mathcal{P}} : \mathcal{A} \times \mathcal{P} \rightarrow \mathcal{P}$ are the natural projections. Existence of CT is elementary.

Initialize $L_0 = \emptyset$ and $n := 0$. For each $n \in \mathbb{N}$, L_n will have the type of an ordered finite list of elements in $\mathcal{A} \times \{\pm\}$. Denote by $pr_{\mathcal{A}} : \mathcal{A} \times \{\pm\} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$, and $pr_{\pm} : \mathcal{A} \times \{\pm\} \rightarrow \{\pm\}$ the pair of projections, set $M' := pr_{\mathcal{A}} \circ M$. Let $\alpha \in \mathcal{A}$, then α is called *n-stable* (with respect to M) if there exists $m \leq n$ s.t. $CM'(m) = (\alpha, p)$ and p is a deduction based on some sentences $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k \in \text{image } M'$ all of which are M_n -stable for $M_n := M|_{\{0, \dots, n\}}$.

(1) Start. Set

$$U_n := \{pr_{\mathcal{A}}\sigma : \sigma \in L_n, pr_{\pm}\sigma = +, pr_{\mathcal{A}}\sigma \text{ is not } n\text{-stable}\}.$$

Set $L'_{n+1} := L_n \cup \bigcup_{\alpha \in U_n} \{(\alpha, -)\}$ and set $L_{n+1} := L'_{n+1} \cup \{(CM'(n), +)\}$, if $CM'(n)$ is n -stable, otherwise set $L_{n+1} := L'_{n+1}$.

(2) $n := n + 1$, go to Start.

The above recursion gives an ordered infinite list $L := \bigcup_n L_n$, for each n set $CM(n)$ to be the n -th element of the list. \square

Let CM be as in the lemma above. It is well known that sentences in the language of Turing machines are logically equivalent to sentences in arithmetic. This means that given a sentence α^t in the language of Turing machines, e.g. “ T halts on input n ” there is a sentence $\alpha \in \mathcal{A}$ so that α^t is true iff α is true. Indeed this kind of translation already appears in the original work of Turing [1].

Let $s(T) \in \mathcal{A}$ be the sentence logically equivalent to

$$(T \in \mathcal{D}^t) \wedge (T \text{ is not } T\text{-decided}).$$

Define a machine $\tilde{D}_M \in \mathcal{D}$ by

$$\tilde{D}_M(T, n) := D_M(s(T), n)$$

for D_M defined as in Section 3. By observation above that $M^s = T$ and by the second part of Lemma 3.5 \tilde{D}_M is stably sound. By first part of Lemma 3.5 \tilde{D}_M is computable, and \tilde{D}_M stably decides \mathcal{P} again by assumptions on M and second part of Lemma 3.5. But this contradicts Theorem 4.3. \square

5. INCOMPLETENESS FOR STABLY CONSISTENT TURING MACHINES

For each $T \in \mathcal{T}$ let $s(T) \in \mathcal{A}$ be the sentence logically equivalent to:

$$(T \in \mathcal{D}^t) \wedge (T \text{ is not } T\text{-decided}),$$

where this is interpreted as in the previous section.

Proposition 5.1. *Suppose that M is speculative and stably consistent, let CM be as in the Lemma 4.8. Denote by $\tilde{D}_{CM} : \mathcal{T} \times \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \pm$ the decision map defined by:*

$$\tilde{D}_{CM}(T, n) := D_{CM}(s(T), n),$$

then

$$\forall T \in \mathcal{T} : \neg \Theta_{\tilde{D}_{CM}, T}^s \vee \neg(M^s \vdash s(T)) \wedge \neg(M^s \vdash \neg s(T)).$$

Proof. Suppose $\Theta_{\tilde{D}_{CM}, T}^s$. Suppose also $M^s \vdash s(T)$. Then by construction T is \tilde{D}_{CM} decided and so since $\Theta_{\tilde{D}_{CM}, T}^s$, T is T -decided, or more explicitly: there is an m s.t. $T(T, m) = +$ and s.t. there is no $n > m$ s.t. $T(T, n) = -$, which is logically equivalent to the sentence $\neg s(T)$. The latter sentence is logically equivalent to a sentence in arithmetic of the form:

$$(\exists m : \alpha(m)) \wedge (\forall n : \phi(n)),$$

where α, ϕ are decidable. So if $\exists m : \alpha(m)$ then $RA \vdash \exists m : \alpha(m)$, (by exhibiting a witness). On the other hand if $\forall n : \phi(n)$ then $\forall n : RA \vdash \phi(n)$ and so by the assumption that M is speculative $M^s \vdash \forall n : \phi(n)$. Thus $M^s \vdash \neg s(T)$ and so inconsistent and we have a contradiction.

Now suppose

$$M^s \vdash \neg s(T)$$

then

$$RA \vdash \exists m : \alpha(m),$$

by the assumption that M^s is consistent, and $M^s \vdash \forall n : \phi(n)$, so that again by the assumption that M^s is consistent:

$$\forall n : RA \vdash \phi(n).$$

Consequently T is T -decided. Since $\Theta_{\tilde{D}_{CM}, T}^s$, T is \tilde{D}_{CM} -decided, hence by construction of \tilde{D}_{CM} , $M^s \vdash s(T)$, so we again obtain that M^s is inconsistent, which is again a contradiction and so we are done. \square

Proof of Theorem 1.4. Suppose otherwise that we have such an M . Then CM is computable and \tilde{D}_{CM} is computable but this contradicts the proposition above. \square

5.1. Relationship with the Gödel and Penrose argument. The most lucid analysis, known to me, of the Gödel and Penrose arguments for obstructions to computability of intelligence appears in Koellner [13], [14]. Theorem 1.5 extends Gödel's idea [11, 310], although I am also inspired by the ideas of Penrose.

Theorem 1.5 still requires some interpretation. One must interpret our definition of stable soundness/consistency as it applies to actual human beings. We of course have already partly addressed this. Scientists operate on the unshakeable faith that scientific progress converges on truth. And our interpretation above of this convergence as stable soundness is very simple and natural, at least under the previously explained assumption of weak idealization.

It is of course always the case that we must interpret mathematical theorems when applied to the real world. What one looks for is whether there is any meaningful physical obstruction to carrying out the necessary idealization in principle. In our specific case I see no such obstruction. Of course if the universe and humanity must eventually go extinct then our weakly idealized humans cannot even in principle exist. But to me this is not a meaningful obstruction. The potential mortality of the universe is very unlikely to have any causal relation with a priori computability⁵ of intelligence. So we can imagine an eternal universe, run the argument, then translate to our universe.

So the only thing to reasonably wonder is whether there must be such a stably undecidable arithmetic statement of the form \mathcal{H} above. This would put a curious limit on the power of the human mind.

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⁵Any finite function is computable once one knows its values. So in that sense, in a universe with a beginning and an end everything is computable a posteriori, at least under an additional assumption of suitable discreteness, so that the domains of our functions are indeed forced to be finite. A priori computable means here that the underlying processes are Turing computations, so we don't need to know any values of our function to in principle construct the corresponding Turing machine.

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UNIVERSITY OF COLIMA, DEPARTMENT OF SCIENCES, CUICBAS
Email address: yasha.savelyev@gmail.com