Gödel's Proof

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Kurt Gödel 24.4.06-14.1.78



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ON FORMALLY UNDECIDABLE PROPOSITIONS OF PRINCIPIA MATHEMATICA AND RELATED SYSTEMS 1<u>1</u>

by Kurt Gödel, Vienna

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The development of mathematics in the direction of greater exactness has—as is well known—led to large tracts of it becoming formalized, so that proofs can be carried out according to a few mechanical rules. The most comprehensive formal systems yet set up are, on the one hand, the system of Principia Mathematica (**PM**)<u>2</u> and, on the other, the axiom system for set theory of Zermelo-Fraenkel (later extended by J. v. Neumann).<u>3</u> These two systems are so extensive that all methods of proof used in

27. Su x(n|y) ^o ez {z £ [Pr(l(x)+l(y))]x+y & [(\$u,v)u,v £ x & x = u * R(b GI x) * v & z = u * y * v & n = l(u)+1]}

th Su x(n|y) derives from x on substituting y in place of the n-th term of x (it being assumed that 0 < n £ l(x)).</p>
28.

0 St v,x ° en {n £ l(x) & v Fr n,x & not (\$p)[n (k+1) St v,x ° en {n < k St v,x & v Fr n,x & (\$p)[n < p < k St v,x & v Fr p,x]}^{3]}

The essence



Sirst theorem of undecidability:

If axiomatic theory is consistent, there exist theorems which can neither be proved or disproved

The essence



Second theorem of undecidability:

There is no constructive procedure which will prove axiomatic theory to be consistent.



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Euclid's *Elements*

The axioms



It is possible

- to draw a straight line from any point to any point.
- to produce a finite straight line continuously in a straight line.
- to describe a circle with any centre and radius.

That all right angles equal one another.

Parallel lines don't cross

Euclid's *Elements*



Consistency

Can mutually inconsistent statements be derive from a set of axioms.

Say in Euclid's geometry

Euclid's *Elements*

In other words



Can we be sure no one some day derives a proposition which contradicts another proposition.

PRINCIPIA MATHEMATICA

BY

ALFRED NORTH WHITEHEAD, Sc.D., F.R.S.

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AND

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VOLUME I

Cambridge at the University Press 1910



•1. PRIMITIVE IDEAS AND PROPOSITIONS

Since all definitions of terms are effected by means of other terms, every system of definitions which is not circular must start from a certain apparatus of undefined terms. It is to some extent optional what ideas we take as undefined in mathematics; the motives guiding our choice will be (1) to make the number of undefined ideas as small as possible, (2) as between two systems in which the number is equal, to choose the one which seems the simpler and easier. We know no way of proving that such and such a system of undefined ideas contains as few as will give such and such results[•]. Hence noty say that such and such ideas are undefined in such and such not that they are indefinable. Following Peano, we shall call the descriptions intended to point out to the reader what is meant; but the explanations do not constitute definitions, because they really involve the ideas they explain.

In the present number, we shall first enumerate the primitive ideas required in this section; then we shall define *implication*; and then we shall enunciate the primitive propositions required in this section. Every definition or proposition in the work has a number, for purposes of reference. Following Peano, we use numbers having a decimal as well as an integral

part, in order to be able to insert new propositions between in the integral part of the number will be used to echapter. Definitions will generally have numbers whose than 1, and will be usually put at the beginning of chap the integral parts of the numbers of propositions will bbeing preceded by a star; thus " $\cdot 101$ " will mean the defiso numbered, and " $\cdot 1$ " will mean the chapter in which numbers whose integral part is 1, i.e. the present chap generally be called "numbers."



PRIMITIVE IDEAS.

Rementary propositions. By an "elementary" p a does not involve any variables, or, in other h involve such words as "all," "some," "the" or e proposition such as "this is red," where " this " ion, will be elementary. Any-combination of any by means of negation, disjunction or conjunct

coopnized methods of proving independence are not applie in. Cf. Principles of Mathematics, § 17. What is there a supplies with even greater force to primitive ideas.

Undecidable

Russell's paradox:





Examples:



Normal set:

 $A = \text{the set of MPhys 2 student} \\ \Rightarrow A \not\subset A$

Non-normal: B = the set of all thinkable things $\Rightarrow B \subseteq B$





Define: N = Set of all Normal sets

Question: Is N normal?

Solution Set the set of the set

 \bigotimes But if N \subseteq N then N is <u>non-Normal</u>

So N being Normal implies N being non-Normal !





Define: N = Set of all Normal sets

Solution Of Normal → Solution Of Normal → Solution Of Normal.

But if N is non-Normal it is a member of itself, and N contains per definition Normal sets, i.e., N is <u>Normal</u>.

So N being non-Normal implies N being Normal !



How to determine the truth of

l am a liar!"

Epimenides' paradox

M. C. E. S. C. H. E.

The strategy of Gödel's proof

Distinguish between:

mathematics

$$x = x,$$
$$x^2 = 9$$

x=4 is not a solutionof x+2=3,PM is consistent

&

The strategy of Gödel's proof

Enumeration of formalised system:

Signs: Gödel number not V 2 or 3 \Rightarrow If ... then Ξ 4 there is an 5 = equals \mathbf{O} 6 zero S 7 immediate successor



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The strategy of Gödel's proof Enumeration of formalised system: Math formulas:





The strategy of Gödel's proof Enumeration of formalised system: Meta-maths:

The formula G is not demonstrable using the rules of PM







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The crunch

Gödel constructed a formula G for which he showed that:

G is demonstrable







More crunch

The meta-mathematical content of G is:

G= 'The formula G is not demonstrable'

Or formally within PM:

 $\neg(\exists x) Dem(x, Sub(n, 17, n))$



And more crunch

G= 'The formula G is not demonstrable'

So since G cannot be demonstrated, it is, per definition, TRUE, though its TRUTH cannot be proved within PM



The Conclusion

All axiomatic systems will contain true propositions which cannot be proved within the system

And contain propositions which cannot be determined whether true of false

Some consequences:

The continuum hypothesis:



Cantor

No set can have a number of elements between the cardinality of the natural numbers and the cardinality of the real numbers

Cardinality:

The real numbers cannot be countered



Cantor

Proof: assume the opposite $r_1 = 0.x_{11}x_{12}x_{13} \cdots$ $r_2 = 0.x_{21}x_{22}x_{23} \cdots$ $r_3 = 0.x_{31}x_{32}x_{33} \cdots$ $r = 0.x_{11}x_{22}x_{33}$ $r = 0.\tilde{x}_{11}\tilde{x}_{22}\tilde{x}_{33}$ **Cardinality:**

So clearly:



Cantor

reals > # integers

But:

is there a set with a number of elements in between?

Cantor said: "No" - but could not prove it.

Consequences continued:



The continuum hypothesis:

Was the first problem in Hilbert's list of 23 unsolved important problems.

Paul Cohen showed in 1963 that the continuum hypothesis is undecidable



More consequences:



Truth cannot be identified with provability

Control Roger Penrose: Creative mathematicians do not think in a mechanistic way. They often have a kind of insight into the Platonic realm which exists independently of us.

More consequences:



We cannot build one all embracing explanation of everything based on one finite set of axioms.

There exist more true statements than the countable number of truths that can be recursively deduced from a finite set of axioms.

The world is too complex for a `finitistic' axiomatic approach to suffice.

Creativity is needed at all levels of description.

So where does this leave The Theory of Everything J. Jensen, Dept. of Math., IC