

Gödel's Incompleteness Theorems

Reinhard Kahle


CMA & Departamento de Matemática
FCT, Universidade Nova de Lisboa


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First-order languages

Definition

A *first-order language* \mathcal{L} is a set of symbols which can be divided in the following six (disjunctive) subsets:

- logical symbols: $\{\neg, \wedge, \vee, \rightarrow, \forall, \exists, =\}$;
- constant symbols: $\mathcal{C} \subseteq \{c_i \mid i \in \mathbb{N}\}$,
examples: $c_0 = 0, c_1 = 1, c_2 = \pi$.
- function symbols: $\mathcal{F} \subseteq \{f_i^j \mid i \in \mathbb{N}, j \in \mathbb{N}, j > 0\}$,
where f_i^j is the i -th function symbol of arity j ;
examples: $f_0^2 = +, f_1^2 = \cdot, f_2^2 = -, f_0^1 = -$ (change of sign).
- relation symbols $\mathcal{R} \subseteq \{R_i^j \mid i \in \mathbb{N}, j \in \mathbb{N}\}$,
where R_i^j is the i -th relation symbol of arity j ;
examples: $R_0^2 = <, R_1^2 = >, R_0^3 = \cdot \equiv \cdot \bmod \cdot, R_0^1 = \text{Prim}(\cdot)$.
- variables: $\{x, y, z, w, \dots, x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots\}$;
- auxiliary signs: $\{“(”, “)”, “,”, “.”\}$.

First-order languages

According to the definition, for a concrete first-order language we have only to specify only the sets \mathcal{C} , \mathcal{F} , and \mathcal{R} .

Examples

- 1 For the language \mathcal{L}_{PA} of the *Peano arithmetic* we have: $\mathcal{C} = \{0\}$, $\mathcal{F} = \{s, +, \cdot\}$, and $\mathcal{R} = \emptyset$, where s is a unary function symbol for the successor function.
- 2 The language of *set theory* (without urelements) can be given by $\mathcal{C} = \mathcal{F} = \emptyset$ and $\mathcal{R} = \{\in\}$.

Definition

The *terms* of \mathcal{L} are defined *inductively* as following:

- 1 Each variable is a term.
- 2 Each constant symbol is a term.
- 3 If t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n are terms and f^n is a n -ary function symbol ($n > 0$), then the expression $f^n(t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n)$ is also a term.

Formulae

Definition

The *formulae* of \mathcal{L} are defined inductively as follows:

- 1 If t_1 and t_2 are terms, then the expression $t_1 = t_2$ is a formula.
- 2 If t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n are terms and R^n is a n -ary relation symbol ($n \geq 0$), then the expression $R^n(t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n)$ is a formula.
- 3 If φ and ψ are formulae, then the following expressions are also formulae:
$$(\neg\varphi), (\varphi \wedge \psi), (\varphi \vee \psi), (\varphi \rightarrow \psi).$$
- 4 If φ is a formula and x a variable, then the expressions $(\forall x.\varphi)$ and $(\exists x.\varphi)$ are also formulae.

The formulas, constructed according 1 and 2 are also called *atomic formulae*.

Definition

The set $FV(\varphi)$ of the *free variables* of a formula φ is *recursively* defined as follows:

- ① If φ is an atomic formula, then $FV(\varphi)$ is the set of variables which occur in φ ;
- ② $FV(\neg\varphi) = FV(\varphi)$;
- ③ $FV(\varphi \wedge \psi) = FV(\varphi \vee \psi) = FV(\varphi \rightarrow \psi) = FV(\varphi) \cup FV(\psi)$;
- ④ $FV(\exists x.\varphi) = FV(\forall x.\varphi) = FV(\varphi) \setminus \{x\}$.

A (*first-order*) *sentence* of the language \mathcal{L} is a formula φ without free variables, i.e., $FV(\varphi) = \emptyset$.

Semantics

- So far, we only considered finite sequences of symbols which we call *terms* or *formulae*; among the *formulae* we distinguished, in particular, the *sentences*.
- Up to this point, these sequences of symbols have to be considered as “meaningless”.
- In the following, we will describe how one can relate a meaning *in the usual mathematical sense* to these sequences of symbols.

Definition

An \mathcal{L} -*structure* is a pair $\mathfrak{M} = \langle M, F \rangle$, with M a non-empty set and F a function whose domain consists of the constants symbols, function symbols, and relation symbols of \mathcal{L} such that:

- ① If $c \in \mathcal{C}$, then $F(c) \in M$.
- ② If $f^j \in \mathcal{F}$, with $j > 0$, then $F(f^j) : M^j \rightarrow M$, i.e., a j -ary function from M^j to M .
- ③ If $R^0 \in \mathcal{R}$, then $F(R^0)$ is one of the two truth values t (true) or f (false).
- ④ If $R^j \in \mathcal{R}$, with $j > 0$, then $F(R^j) \subseteq M^j$.

In the following, we will write, in general, $I^{\mathfrak{M}}$ instead of $F(I)$, $I \in \mathcal{R} \cup \mathcal{F} \cup \mathcal{C}$. We also give a structure for languages, for which we use only finitely many constant symbols, function symbols, and relation symbols, by the tuple $\langle M, c_1^{\mathfrak{M}}, \dots, c_n^{\mathfrak{M}}, f_1^{\mathfrak{M}}, \dots, f_k^{\mathfrak{M}}, R_1^{\mathfrak{M}}, \dots, R_l^{\mathfrak{M}} \rangle$.

The structure of the natural numbers

Example

For the language of the Peano arithmetic \mathcal{L}_{PA} , we can define the *structure of the natural numbers* by $\mathcal{N} = \langle \mathbb{N}, 0, - + 1, +, \cdot \rangle$.

Notice that the *functions* are usual mathematical (set-theoretical) objects. For example, $+$ is the (infinite) set

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} (0, 0, 0), (0, 1, 1), (0, 2, 2), (0, 3, 3), \dots \\ (1, 0, 1), (1, 1, 2), (1, 2, 3), (1, 3, 4), \dots \\ (2, 0, 2), (2, 1, 3), (2, 2, 4), (2, 3, 5), \dots \\ \vdots \end{array} \right\}$$

In other words, $+$ is the subset of \mathbb{N}^3 consisting of the triples (x, y, z) with $x + y = z$.

Assignment

Definition

An *assignment* in \mathfrak{M} is a function s , which has as domain the variables of \mathcal{L} and as range a subset of M .

Definition

Let \mathcal{L} and \mathfrak{M} be given and let s be an assignment in \mathfrak{M} . We define $(t)^{\mathfrak{M}}(s)$ recursively for every term t of \mathcal{L} :

- 1 If t is a variable x then $(x)^{\mathfrak{M}}(s) = s(x)$.
- 2 If t is a constant symbol c , then $(c)^{\mathfrak{M}}(s) = (c)^{\mathfrak{M}}$.
- 3 If t is a term of the form $f^j(t_1, \dots, t_j)$, then

$$(t)^{\mathfrak{M}}(s) = (f^j)^{\mathfrak{M}}((t_1)^{\mathfrak{M}}(s), \dots, (t_j)^{\mathfrak{M}}(s)).$$

Modified assignment

For the following definition we need the possibility to *modify* assignments (i.e., a function from variables to elements of M).

Given an assignment s and an element $a \in M$, we designate by s_x^a the assignment which coincides with s for all variables except x ; independently of the value of $s(x)$, we fix $s_x^a(x) = a$. More exactly:

$$s_x^a(y) = \begin{cases} s(y), & \text{if } y \text{ is a variable different from } x, \\ a, & \text{if } y \text{ is the variable } x. \end{cases}$$

Definition

Let \mathfrak{M} be a \mathcal{L} structure. We define, for every assignment s and every formula φ the relation $\mathfrak{M} \models \varphi[s]$:

- ① $\mathfrak{M} \models (t_1 = t_2)[s]$ if and only if $t_1^{\mathfrak{M}}(s) = t_2^{\mathfrak{M}}(s)$,
- ② $\mathfrak{M} \models R_i^0[s]$ if and only if $(R_i^0)^{\mathfrak{M}} = t$,
- ③ $\mathfrak{M} \models R_i^j(t_1, \dots, t_j)[s]$, $j > 0$, if and only if $(t_1^{\mathfrak{M}}(s), \dots, t_j^{\mathfrak{M}}(s)) \in (R_i^j)^{\mathfrak{M}}$,
- ④ $\mathfrak{M} \models (\neg\varphi)[s]$ if and only if **it is not the case that** $\mathfrak{M} \models \varphi[s]$,
- ⑤ $\mathfrak{M} \models (\varphi \wedge \psi)[s]$ if and only if $\mathfrak{M} \models \varphi[s]$ **and** $\mathfrak{M} \models \psi[s]$,
- ⑥ $\mathfrak{M} \models (\varphi \vee \psi)[s]$ if and only if $\mathfrak{M} \models \varphi[s]$ **or** $\mathfrak{M} \models \psi[s]$,
- ⑦ $\mathfrak{M} \models (\varphi \rightarrow \psi)[s]$ if and only if, it is not the case that $\mathfrak{M} \models \varphi[s]$ or it is the case that $\mathfrak{M} \models \psi[s]$,
- ⑧ $\mathfrak{M} \models (\exists x.\varphi)[s]$ if and only if **there exists an element** $a \in M$, such that $\mathfrak{M} \models \varphi[s(\frac{a}{x})]$,
- ⑨ $\mathfrak{M} \models (\forall x.\varphi)[s]$ if and only if **for all elements** $a \in M$ it holds that $\mathfrak{M} \models \varphi[s(\frac{a}{x})]$.

Semantic consequence

The assignment s is necessary to assign elements of M to the *free* variables of a formula. For *sentences* φ (i.e., formulas without free variables) s does not matter and can be suppressed in the relation $\mathfrak{M} \models \varphi[s]$:

Definition

Let Φ be a set of \mathcal{L} -sentences and \mathfrak{M} be a \mathcal{L} structure. \mathfrak{M} is a *model* of Φ , written as $\mathfrak{M} \models \Phi$, if for every sentence $\varphi \in \Phi$ we have $\mathfrak{M} \models \varphi$.

Semantic consequence is now defined as follows:

For a sentence ψ we say that it *follows (semantically) from* Φ , written as $\Phi \models \psi$, if for every model \mathfrak{M} of Φ it holds that $\mathfrak{M} \models \psi$.

If $\mathfrak{M} \models \varphi$ holds, we also say that φ is *true in* \mathfrak{M} .

If $\mathfrak{M} \models \varphi$ holds for every structure \mathfrak{M} , we also write $\models \varphi$.

Compactness Theorem

Theorem (Compactness Theorem)

Let Φ be a set of first-order sentences.

If every finite subset Φ_0 of Φ has a model, then there exists also a model of Φ .

Alternative formulation:

Theorem (Compactness Theorem)

Let $\Phi \cup \{\varphi\}$ be a set of first-order sentences.

If $\Phi \models \varphi$, then there exists already a finite subset Φ_0 of Φ , such that $\Phi_0 \models \varphi$.

Hilbert-style calculus I

Definition

We define the *Hilbert-style calculus* **H** as a derivation system with the following (logical) axioms and rules:

① The following formulae are axioms:

- ▶ $\vdash \varphi \rightarrow (\psi \rightarrow \varphi)$
- ▶ $\vdash (\varphi \rightarrow (\chi \rightarrow \psi)) \rightarrow (\varphi \rightarrow \chi) \rightarrow (\varphi \rightarrow \psi)$
- ▶ $\vdash (\neg\varphi \rightarrow \neg\psi) \rightarrow \psi \rightarrow \varphi$
- ▶ $\vdash \varphi \rightarrow (\varphi \vee \psi)$
- ▶ $\vdash \psi \rightarrow (\varphi \vee \psi)$
- ▶ $\vdash (\varphi \rightarrow \chi) \rightarrow ((\psi \rightarrow \chi) \rightarrow (\varphi \vee \psi \rightarrow \chi))$
- ▶ $\vdash (\varphi \wedge \psi) \rightarrow \varphi$
- ▶ $\vdash (\varphi \wedge \psi) \rightarrow \psi$
- ▶ $\vdash \varphi \rightarrow (\psi \rightarrow (\varphi \wedge \psi))$

Definition

2 Equality axioms.

- ▶ $(u = u)$,
- ▶ $(u = w) \rightarrow (w = u)$,
- ▶ $(u_1 = u_2 \wedge u_2 = u_3) \rightarrow (u_1 = u_3)$,
- ▶ $(u_1 = w_1 \wedge \dots \wedge u_n = w_n) \rightarrow (R(u_1, \dots, u_n) \rightarrow R(w_1, \dots, w_n))$,
- ▶ $(u_1 = w_1 \wedge \dots \wedge u_m = w_m) \rightarrow (t[u_1, \dots, u_m] = t[w_1, \dots, w_m])$,

where u, w, u_1, \dots are variables and constant symbols, R a n -ary relation symbol, and t a term, in which u_1, \dots, u_m or w_1, \dots, w_m may occur.

3 Quantifier axioms:

- ▶ $\vdash (\forall x.\varphi(x)) \rightarrow \varphi(t)$
- ▶ $\vdash \varphi(t) \rightarrow (\exists x.\varphi(x))$

Hilbert-style calculus III

Definition

As rules we have:

4 Modus Ponens.

$$\frac{\begin{array}{l} \vdash \varphi \rightarrow \psi \\ \vdash \varphi \end{array}}{\vdash \psi}$$

5 Generalisation; let x be a variable not free in φ .

$$\frac{\vdash \varphi \rightarrow \psi(x)}{\vdash \varphi \rightarrow \forall y.\psi(y)}$$

$$\frac{\vdash \psi(x) \rightarrow \varphi}{\vdash (\exists y.\psi(y)) \rightarrow \varphi}$$

Definition

A *proof of φ starting from a set of formulae Φ* (in the Hilbert-style calculus **H**), is a *finite* sequence of formulae $\psi_1, \psi_2, \dots, \psi_n$ with $\psi_n = \varphi$, and each of these formulae ψ_i is either

- an axiom of **H**,
- an element of Φ , or
- is obtained from the previous formulae $\psi_j, j < i$, by an application of a rule.

We say that φ is *provable from Φ* (in the Hilbert-style calculus **H**), and write $\Phi \vdash \varphi$, if there exists a proof of φ starting from Φ .

Example

$\varphi \rightarrow \varphi$ is not an axiom in our calculus.

Example

$\vdash (\varphi \rightarrow ((\varphi \rightarrow \varphi) \rightarrow \varphi)) \rightarrow (\varphi \rightarrow (\varphi \rightarrow \varphi)) \rightarrow (\varphi \rightarrow \varphi)$	Second axiom
$\vdash \varphi \rightarrow ((\varphi \rightarrow \varphi) \rightarrow \varphi)$	First axiom
$\vdash (\varphi \rightarrow (\varphi \rightarrow \varphi)) \rightarrow (\varphi \rightarrow \varphi)$	Modus Ponens
$\vdash \varphi \rightarrow (\varphi \rightarrow \varphi)$	First axiom
$\vdash \varphi \rightarrow \varphi$	Modus Ponens

Deduction theorem

Proposition (Deduction theorem)

Let Φ be a set of sentences, φ a sentence, and ψ a formula.

$$\Phi \vdash \varphi \rightarrow \psi \quad \text{if, and only if} \quad \Phi \cup \{\varphi\} \vdash \psi.$$

Example

$$\{\varphi\} \vdash \varphi$$

Definition of proof

$$\vdash \varphi \rightarrow \varphi$$

Deduction theorem

Correctness

Lemma (Correctness lemma)

Let Φ be a set of sentences and \mathfrak{M} a model of Φ .

If $\varphi(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ is provable from Φ , then

$$\mathfrak{M} \models \forall x_1. \forall x_2. \dots. \forall x_n. \varphi(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n).$$

Completeness of predicate logic

Theorem (Gödel's completeness theorem (for **H**))

Let Φ be a set of sentences of a first-order language \mathcal{L} .

A sentence φ is provable from Φ if and only if φ is true in all structures which are models of Φ . Formally:

$$\Phi \vdash \varphi \quad \text{if and only if} \quad \Phi \models \varphi.$$

- This theorem speaks about *semantic completeness*.
- It ensures that the logical symbols ($\neg, \wedge, \vee, \rightarrow, \forall, \exists, =$) are treated by our calculus exactly in the way we have attributed a meaning to them (in the definition of the notion of structure).
- Please note the implicit universal quantification on the right hand side: $\Phi \models \varphi$ stands for:

For **all** models \mathfrak{M} of Φ it holds that $\mathfrak{M} \models \varphi$.

Completeness: duality

- The equivalence proven in the completeness theorem:

$$\Phi \vdash \varphi \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \Phi \models \varphi$$

results in an interesting duality:

- On the left side we have a statement of the form:

It exists a proof ...

while on the right hand side we a statement of the form:

For all models ...

- Thus, the completeness theorem allows to replace the universal quantification over models (which, in general, is not easy to handle) by an existential quantification over proofs.
- To show the semantic consequence $\Phi \models \varphi$ we do not need to “search” for φ in all models of Φ , but we can simply give *one* proof.

Completeness: syntax vs. semantics

- In this perspective, (syntactic) proofs seem to be superior to semantic arguments.
- But we may ask how can we show that a formula is *not* provable or, equivalently, that it does not hold semantically, i.e.,

$$\Phi \not\vdash \varphi \quad \text{or} \quad \Phi \not\models \varphi.$$

- In this case, we obtain a *negated* existential quantification on the syntactic side, which is equivalent to a universal quantification:

For all proofs it is the case, that φ is not the last formula.

- Now, the semantic side has the “advantage”; its negated universal quantifier turns into a existential quantifier:

It exists a model in which φ is false.

- Such a model can be called *counter model* for φ .

- There is a known historical example for this case: for more than 2000 years mathematicians were looking for a *proof* of the parallel axiom from the other euclidean axioms.
- We know today, that it is not provable from these axioms.
- This was shown “semantically”: by construction of a counter model.
- The syntactic side may compensate its disadvantage to show “negative” propositions, if it is possible to prove $\Phi \vdash \neg\varphi$.
- Assuming the consistency of Φ , this implies immediately $\Phi \not\vdash \varphi$.
- However, in general, $\Phi \not\vdash \varphi$ does *not* imply $\Phi \vdash \neg\varphi$.
- This follows, for instance, from the geometry example: Let the *absolute Geometry* Φ_{Geo} be the euclidean axioms without the parallel axiom φ_{Par} .
- Of course, Φ_{Geo} does not imply the negation of the φ_{Par} .
- In this sense, this axiom system Φ_{Geo} is *syntactically incomplete*: It exists a formula, namely φ_{Par} , such that:

$$\Phi_{\text{Geo}} \not\vdash \varphi_{\text{Par}} \quad \text{and} \quad \Phi_{\text{Geo}} \not\vdash \neg\varphi_{\text{Par}}.$$

Peano arithmetic

We use the language of Peano arithmetic $\mathcal{L}_{PA} = \{0, s, +, \cdot\}$.

Definition (Peano arithmetic)

Peano arithmetic **PA** comprises the following six non-logical axioms and the following axiom scheme:

$$(PA1) \quad \forall x. \neg(s(x) = 0),$$

$$(PA2) \quad \forall x, y. s(x) = s(y) \rightarrow x = y,$$

$$(PA3) \quad \forall x. x + 0 = x,$$

$$(PA4) \quad \forall x, y. x + s(y) = s(x + y),$$

$$(PA5) \quad \forall x. x \cdot 0 = 0,$$

$$(PA6) \quad \forall x, y. x \cdot s(y) = (x \cdot y) + x.$$

The axiom scheme of complete induction:

$$\varphi(0) \wedge (\forall y. \varphi(y) \rightarrow \varphi(s(y))) \rightarrow \forall x. \varphi(x).$$

Syntactic completeness

- The *standard model* of Peano arithmetic is given by the structure of the natural numbers:

$$\mathcal{N} = \langle \mathbb{N}, 0, +1, +, \cdot \rangle.$$

- “By construction”, \mathcal{N} is a model of **PA**, i.e. for every sentence φ it holds

$$PA \vdash \varphi \quad \Rightarrow \quad \mathcal{N} \models \varphi.$$

- The obvious question is whether the other direction also holds:

$$\mathcal{N} \models \varphi \quad \stackrel{?}{\Rightarrow} \quad PA \vdash \varphi.$$

- Gödel's First Incompleteness theorem shows that this implication does not hold.
- It is easy to observe, that this implication is equivalent to the *syntactical completeness* of **PA**, i.e., the question whether for every formula φ it holds that:

$$PA \vdash \varphi \quad \text{or} \quad PA \vdash \neg \varphi ?$$