

Hilbert's problems, Gödel, and the limits of computation

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November 14, 2013

Hilbert at the ICM



At the 1900 International Congress of Mathematicians in Paris, David Hilbert gave a lecture on “Mathematical Problems”. He presented 10 problems during his talk and included 13 more in a published text of the speech.

Some of the problems

- 1 “Cantor’s problem of the cardinal number of the continuum”: resolve the continuum hypothesis (Hilbert also suggests determining if the real numbers can be well-ordered).
- 4 “Problem of the straight line as the shortest distance between two points”: “the construction and systematic treatment” of nearly-Euclidean geometries.
- 6 “Mathematical treatment of the axioms of physics”.
- 8 “Problems of prime numbers”: prove the Riemann Hypothesis, resolve Goldbach’s conjecture, generalize to ideal primes of other fields, etc.

<http://aleph0.clarku.edu/~djoyce/hilbert/problems.html>.

Resolutions

- 1 “Cantor’s problem of the cardinal number of the continuum”. Gödel (1940) showed that it is possible to satisfy all the axioms of set theory and have \aleph_1 be the smallest uncountable cardinal. Cohen (1963/4) showed that it is possible to satisfy the axioms and have \aleph_1 **not** be the the smallest uncountable cardinal.
- 4 “Problem of the straight line as the shortest distance between two points”: never really caught on?
- 6 “Mathematical treatment of the axioms of physics”: amounts to finding a Theory of Everything—Physicists are still working on this one.
- 8 “Problems of prime numbers”: prove the Riemann Hypothesis, et cetera: still very much unresolved and very much of interest. Now a Millennium Prize Problem: a solution is worth \$1,000,000.

Hilbert's problems and computation

Focus on two problems:

- 2 “The compatibility of arithmetical axioms”: prove that the axioms of arithmetic are consistent.
- 10 “Determination of the solvability of a Diophantine equation”: “devise a process” for determining “in a finite number of operations” if a polynomial (in any number of variables) with integer coefficients has integer roots.

Problem 10 asks for an algorithm. Problem 2 is also connected to computation, but in less obvious ways.

H2: Prove that the axioms of arithmetic are consistent

Definition

A set of axioms is consistent if there is no statement p such that both p and $\neg p$ can be proved.

Proposition (basic fact of logic)

For all statements p and q

$$p \ \& \ \neg p \implies q.$$

Corollary

A set of axioms is consistent if and only if there is some statement that cannot be proved (i. e. an obviously false statement like $0 = 1$).

Gödel's incompleteness theorems

Theorem (Gödel)

In any consistent mathematical system sufficient for defining ordinary arithmetic, the following hold:

- 1 *There is a mathematical statement p such that neither p nor its negation $\neg p$ can be proved (p is undecidable);*
- 2 *The statement “this system is consistent” is undecidable.*

The second incompleteness theorem proves that Hilbert's second problem cannot be solved within ordinary mathematics. The first incompleteness theorem shows that there will always be assertions that we can neither prove nor disprove from our axioms (addresses Hilbert's Entscheidungsproblem).

What is a proof?

A formal system has a language of “primitive” symbols which can be put together to make formulas and equations, some of which are axioms:

$$\forall a (a + 0 = a) \quad \text{(identity)}$$

$$\forall a \exists b (a + b = 0) \quad \text{(inverses)}$$

$$\forall a \forall b (a + b = b + a) \quad \text{(commutativity)}$$

$$\forall a \forall b \forall c [a \cdot (b + c) = a \cdot b + a \cdot c] \quad \text{(distribution)}$$

\vdots

A proof starts with axioms and consists of applying a few logical rules, for example *modus ponens*:

$$[(p \implies q) \ \& \ p] \implies q.$$

Gödel numbers

In the real world proofs use definitions, abbreviations, and shortcuts, but *every proof can be written as a finite sequence of primitive symbols*. A simple algorithm can determine whether or not such a sequence is a valid proof.

Idea (Gödel)

- Every mathematical statement (including proofs) can be encoded as a natural number.
- Mathematical statements involving numbers may be interpreted as being statement about the mathematical statements represented by those numbers.

Point 2 is the origin of *metamathematics*.

Gödel numbers

Gödel actually gave an explicit code.

0	S	=	¬	∨	&	⇒	≡	∀	∃	∈	()
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13

The integers greater than 13 and congruent to 0 mod 3 are variables for propositions, the integers greater than 13 and congruent to 1 mod 3 are variables for numbers, and the integers greater than 13 and congruent to 2 mod 3 are variables for functions.

A mathematical statement corresponds to a sequence of integers k_1, k_2, \dots, k_n which we then associate to a single number

$$2^{k_1} 3^{k_2} 5^{k_3} \dots p_n^{k_n}$$

where p_n is the n^{th} prime.

Example of a Gödel number

S is the successor function: $S(a) = a + 1$. A simple true statement is “no number is equal to its successor”: $\forall a \neg(S(a) = a)$.

Statement: $\forall a \neg(S(a) = a)$

Sequence: 9, 16, 4, 12, 2, 12, 16, 13, 3, 16, 13

Gödel number: $2^9 \cdot 3^{16} \cdot 5^4 \cdot 7^{12} \cdot 11^2 \cdot 13^{12} \cdot 17^{16} \cdot 19^{13} \cdot 23^3 \cdot 29^{16} \cdot 31^{13}$

Wolfram α reports that this number has 122 digits:

81772105583868532612128696004641827651917484637956352845...

Metamathematics

Every mathematical statement can be encoded as a number. Every number can be decoded into a mathematical statement.

Numbers and mathematical statements are the same thing.

Statements about numbers are also statements about the mathematical statements the numbers represent (and vice versa). This is metamathematics.

Proof of the first incompleteness theorem

Definition

- Let $R_n(x)$ be the n^{th} mathematical formula with one free variable.
- Let $Bew(x)$ be the statement, “the number x represents a provable mathematical statement (when decoded)”.

Proposition

The expression $Bew(x)$ is a mathematical formula with one free variable.

$Bew(x)$ is equivalent to “there is a number y such that y codes for a proof of x ”. Gödel proved that the statement “ y codes for a proof of x ” can be expressed using *just arithmetic (by construction)*.

Proof of the first incompleteness theorem

If mathematical statements can be self-referential, then we should be able to come up with something like the classic “this statement is false” or the set $\{S : S \notin S\}$.

Begin with “the x^{th} statement with input x cannot be proved”:

$$\neg \text{Bew}(R_x(x))$$

This is a mathematical formula with one free variable and so there is some $q \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$R_q(x) \equiv \neg \text{Bew}(R_x(x)).$$

$$R_q(q) \equiv \neg \text{Bew}(R_q(q)) \equiv R_q(q) \text{ cannot be proved}$$

Proof of the first incompleteness theorem

Proposition

If arithmetic is consistent, then neither $R_q(q)$ nor $\neg R_q(q)$ can be proved (the statement $R_q(q)$ is undecidable).

Proof.

If $R_q(q)$ can be proved, then $Bew(R_q(q))$ is true (definition of $Bew(x)$). But $R_q(q) \equiv \neg Bew(R_q(q))$. Hence a proof of $R_q(q)$ is a proof of $\neg Bew(R_q(q))$. Thus $Bew(R_q(q))$ and $\neg Bew(R_q(q))$ must both be true. This is a contradiction (of consistency).

If $\neg R_q(q)$ can be proved then we again reach a contradiction.



Conclusion: **undecidable statements exist** (if arithmetic is consistent).

Proof of the second incompleteness theorem

Let Con be the statement that the mathematical system is consistent.

$$Con \equiv \forall x \neg [Bew(x) \ \& \ Bew(\neg x)]$$

The first theorem showed that if arithmetic is consistent, then $R_q(q)$ is unprovable. $R_q(q)$ asserts its own unprovability and thus must actually be true. Therefore

$$Con \implies R_q(q).$$

If we can prove Con , then using modus ponens we can also prove $R_q(q)$. This would contradict the first theorem. Therefore Con cannot be proved (if the system is consistent).

If the system is consistent, then $\neg Con$ cannot be proved (because it isn't true).

What does it mean?

Theorem (Gödel)

In any consistent mathematical system sufficient for defining ordinary arithmetic, the following hold:

- 1 *There is a mathematical statement p such that neither p nor its negation $\neg p$ can be proved (p is undecidable);*
- 2 *The statement “this system is consistent” is undecidable.*

“This theorem established a fundamental distinction between what is *true* about the natural numbers and what is *provable*...” (Floyd and Kanamori in the Notices).

Hilbert's tenth problem

“Determination of the solvability of a Diophantine equation”: “devise a process” for determining “in a finite number of operations” if a polynomial (in any number of variables) with integer coefficients has integer roots.

Modern formulation: write a computer program to determine if an arbitrary polynomial with integer coefficients has integer roots.

Examples of Diophantine equations:

- ① $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$
- ② $x^2 + 1 = 0$
- ③ $x^2 + y^2 = z^2$
- ④ $x^2 - ay^2 = \pm 1$ (Pell's equation)

Diophantine sets

Let $P(a, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ be a polynomial with variables a and x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n . We wish to determine if there exist integers b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n so that

$$P(a, b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n) = 0.$$

The existence of such an integer root will depend on the choice of a .

Example

The polynomial $x^2 - a$ has an integer root only when a is a square.

Definition

A subset $S \subseteq \mathbb{Z}$ is *Diophantine* if there is a polynomial $P(a, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ such that

$$S = \{a \in \mathbb{Z} : P(a, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = 0 \text{ has an integer root}\}.$$

The MRDP theorem

Theorem (Matiyasevich, Robinson, Davis, Putnam)

A set is Diophantine if and only if it is computably enumerable.

Definition

A set is *computably enumerable* if there is a computer program that enumerates the elements of the set (in no particular order). A set is *computable* if there is a computer program that can determine if any given number is in the set.

Proposition

A set is computable if and only if both the set and its complement are computably enumerable.

Consequences

Examples of computable sets:

- 1 $\{a \in \mathbb{Z} : a \text{ is even}\}.$
- 2 $\{a \in \mathbb{N} : a \text{ is prime}\}.$
- 3 $\{a \in \mathbb{N} : a \text{ is the Gödel number of a valid proof}\}.$

By the MRDP theorem each of the above sets is Diophantine. In particular, there is a polynomial $P(a, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ such that $P(a, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ has an integer solution if and only if a is prime. An example (using 26 variables):
<http://mathworld.wolfram.com/PrimeDiophantineEquations.html>.

Computationally enumerable sets

Theorem

There is a set which is computably enumerable but not computable.

Proof.

Let P be the set of provable statements: $P = \{x \in \mathbb{N} : Bew(x)\}$.

Suppose that P is computable. Check to see if Con is in P .

- If Con is in P , then the system is consistent and Con cannot be proved. Contradiction.
- If Con is not in P , then there is some statement that cannot be proved (namely Con). Thus the system must be consistent. This is a proof of Con . Contradiction.

Therefore P is not computable. □

Algorithm for P

A pseudo-python script for enumerating P :

```
 $n = 1$ 
while TRUE:
    for  $x$  in range(0, $n$ ):
        for  $i$  in range(0, $n$ ):
            if  $i$  is a proof of  $x$ :
                return  $x$ 
     $n = n + 1$ 
```

Another important non-computable but computably enumerable set is the **halting set**: K .

Resolution of the tenth problem

Resolution of the tenth problem

Let A be any non-computable but computably enumerable set. By the MRDP theorem A is Diophantine. Hence there is a polynomial $P(a, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ that has a root if and only if $a \in A$.

If there were an algorithm that could determine whether or not $P(a, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ has a root for any given a , then we could easily modify this into an algorithm to determine membership in A . Therefore no such algorithm exists.

Conclusion: Hilbert's tenth problem is impossible.

Remark

The tenth and second problems are related in another way.

Corollary

There is a polynomial $P(a, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ and a number a_0 such that the statement

$$\forall x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n \in \mathbb{Z} \ P(a_0, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \neq 0$$

(translation: “ $P(a_0, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = 0$ has no integer solutions”)

cannot be proved even though it is true.