# Kurt Gödel and the Consistency of $\mathbf{R}^{\text {\#\#* }}$ 

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#### Abstract

Summary. This paper continues my investigations of arithmetics formulated relevantly. (See references [1], [10], [12], and [9].) It is proved again that relevant Peano arithmetic $\mathbf{R}^{\#}$ and relevant true arithmetic $\mathbf{R}^{\# \#}$ (with the $\omega$-rule) are demonstrably consistent by simple finitary arguments. E.g., it requires little more than truth-tables to show that $0=1$ is a non-theorem. This removes much of the sting from Gödel's second theorem. Regard for relevance bounds the harm that even potential contradictions can do. But Gödel still collects his dues, since proving negation-consistency remains annoyingly (and ineluctably) non-constructive. To the extent that ~ in Formalese is unlike not in English, as it seems to be, Gödel's theorems are dirty tricks.


## 1.

Being mainly self-educated in beginning logic, I was alarmed to read in [2] that Gödel had shown that elementary number theory is either inconsistent or incomplete. "What," thought I to myself, "could this possibly mean?" Could it be in doubt that $2+2=4$ ? Might one multiply 27 and 37 and get 998 ? What is going on here?

More mature reflection convinces one that what is going on is a logical dirty trick. Speaking at his most persuasive, Gödel in [3] conned a certain sentence $G$ into saying of itself that it was unprovable. ${ }^{1}$ We all know where the story goes from there, at least intuitively. If $G$ is false, then it is provable after all, which engenders contradiction. So $G$ had better be true. And, as this reasoning can be carried out in any sufficiently strong, consistent and effective system $\mathbf{S}$, the moral is (or is alleged to be) that
(I) $\mathbf{S}$ is incomplete, containing an unprovable truth (Gödel's first theorem), and
(II) S lacks the means to formalize a proof of its own consistency (Gödel's second theorem).

I shall throw no stones at (I) here. But (II) is another matter. The idea behind it is said to be (in, e. g., [3] and [4]) that we can formalize the proof of (I). This leaves us with the following S-theorem: ${ }^{2}$

[^0](A) $\vdash_{\mathbf{S}} \operatorname{Wid}(\mathbf{S}) \supset G$.

In view of the rule $\supset \mathrm{E}$ of modus ponens, if we could prove in S that S is consistent then we could also prove in S its non-theorem $G$. As this is impossible (unless things have gone very badly wrong), we cannot prove Wid (S) either.

There is no doubt that [3] is an amazing and an incredible achievement in logic, and that it has been seen as such since its publication over 60 years ago. Still, there is something about the result that does not seem to ring true. ${ }^{3}$ What I wish to offer here are philosophical corrections of the logic that induces the false chime. The first crux lies in the little sign ' $\sim$ '. This sign is supposed to mean 'not'. The real import of Gödel's arguments may be summed up succinctly thus: ' $\sim$ ' never means what it is supposed to mean, within a particular sufficiently strong system intended seriously to formalize mathematics.

To be sure, we can claim to give a semantic interpretation of an effectively presented arithmetic, and tell the world that on this interpretation ' $\sim$ ' means 'not'. The world will then ask how it comes about that on some occasions on which $A$ is false, we cannot prove $\sim A$ in the system. We shall perhaps reply that relative to the interpretation the system is (negation-)incomplete. But how much more accurate it would be to reply instead that, because of certain formal anomalies in the technical engineering, we just cannot so fix things that ' $\sim$ ' works within the system the way that 'not' is to be taken as working in English. ${ }^{4}$

We make this point clear, on Gödelian grounds, with respect to (standard classical Peano arithmetic) P\#. ${ }^{5}$ We suppose some standard coding (Gödel numbering) that assigns to each formula $A$ a unique natural number $I$. We assume that this coding is an effective mapping from formulas to natural numbers, and we shall henceforth use $A^{I}$ for the formula with Gödel number $I .^{6}$ (The scheme of [4] will do for the purpose of furnishing such a (Gödel) numbering.) Let $\mathbf{N}$ be the set of all natural numbers; and, taking our formal system $\mathbf{S}$ abstractly, we identify natural numbers with the corresponding numerals of the system.

[^1]Then, as is well-known, there is an open formula $P x,{ }^{7}$ with sole free variable $x$, which serves as a provability predicate for $\mathbf{P}^{\#}$ in the following sense:
(1) For all natural numbers $I, P I$ is a theorem of $\mathbf{P}$ \# iff $A^{I}$ is a theorem of $\mathbf{P}^{\text {\# }}$.

Taking truth in the standard model $\mathbf{N}$ in the usual Tarskian sense, we have also
(2) For all natural numbers $I, P I$ is true iff $A^{I}$ is a theorem of $\mathbf{P}^{\#}$.

So on our semantic understanding of $\sim$ we have immediately from (2),
(3) For all natural numbers $I, \sim P I$ is true iff $A^{I}$ is not a theorem of P\#.

But on Gödelian grounds we do not have
(4) For all natural numbers $I, \sim P I$ is a theorem of $\mathbf{P}^{\#}$ iff $A^{I}$ is not a theorem of $\mathbf{P}$.

A counterexample to (4) is our old friend "I am unprovable," alias 17 gen $r$.
Viewed extrinsically, as in (3), we may perhaps think of ' $\sim$ ' as a formal counterpart of 'not'. Viewed systematically, and given (1), what clearer demonstration could we ask than (4) of the proposition that ' $\sim$ ' doesn't work formally in $\mathbf{P}^{\#}$ the way that 'not' works intuitively in English? ${ }^{8}$ And we now fix the considerations and notation set out above for the rest of the paper (including the standard Gödel numbering, which we need not specify further). These considerations are central to an examination of the character and import of Gödel's second theorem. It is of little interest that we cannot prove the consistency of $\mathbf{P}^{\#}$ within itself, unless $\mathbf{P}^{\#}$ has the vocabulary to say that it is consistent (and moreover that what it says in this vocabulary is in fact unprovable).

Let us reflect. First, nobody ever expected $\mathbf{P}^{\#}$ to be muttering introspectively about itself at all. $\mathbf{P}^{\#}$ was constructed to say that $5+3=8$, that every number $>1$ has a prime divisor, and the like. It was not constructed to say that nobody ever loved it before Hilbert, that it often wishes it were complete, or (for present purposes) that it is consistent.

Of course, after Gödel we are all prepared to believe that $\mathbf{P}^{\#}$ does introspect, in code. And this has made its psychoanalysis (or whatever the equivalent process is in formal systems) a regular element in training logicians. As in all psychoanalysis, there is a certain indistinctness in the method. When, e. g., $\mathbf{P}^{\#}$ seems to be saying, "Every natural number is the sum of 4 squares," we may suppose that it is bragging, "Show me a sentential tautology I can't prove!" Or maybe it is complaining, "I can only demonstrate

[^2]Fermat's Last Theorem for regular primes." And this should lead to a little humility on our part. Stripped of the code, $\mathbf{P}^{\#}$ is still saying "Every natural number is the sum of 4 squares." The rest we read into what it says; and, since $\mathbf{P}^{\#}$ is incomplete, we err even in simple arithmetic if we try to interpret what it says categorically.

Second, we must exercise unusual care in finding a technical form for Gödel's second theorem. ${ }^{9}$ We must formalize the statement "I am consistent," uttered by $\mathbf{P}^{\#}$ about itself. There are a couple of ways in which our previous worries about negation will come to the fore. For all of our classically equivalent ways (1)-(6) in section 3 below of saying that formal arithmetic is consistent will assert that something-or-other is not provable. If we are worried about our capacity to express 'not' in $\mathbf{P}^{\#}$ then we shall have most distressing worries about how to say that arithmetic is consistent, even in code.

Third, one begins to wonder what Gödel's second theorem adds to his first theorem. No one expects us to be able to prove what we cannot say. And it then seems otiose to claim that any effective, finitary proof of the consistency of formal arithmetic would yield a proof in $\mathbf{P}^{\#}$ of a formula that, so far as $\mathbf{P}^{\#}$ is concerned, is only a dubious candidate for the role of being the statement in the vocabulary of $\mathbf{P}^{\#}$ which expresses its consistency. We don't linger over these issues. We even take a rather orthodox stand with respect to them. But we do note that they are exacerbated when we ask "What particular form, even in English, should the statement that $\mathbf{P}^{\#}$ (or any formal arithmetic) is consistent take?" We devote the next two sections to some of these problems.

## 2.

We ask ourselves first why we (or Hilbert, or Gödel) should care whether arithmetic ${ }^{10}$ is consistent. We answer immediately that, mainly, we do not care. Put optimistically, we are so strongly convinced that arithmetic is consistent that demonstrating its consistency is just a game-the game of seeing how little, or how much, is required for a formal consistency proof. After all, it was the reliability of mathematical analysis that truly worried Hilbert and others. And since the ultimate effect of the great 19th and early 20th century programs was to substitute insecurity in reasonings about sets for insecurity in reasonings about infinitesimals and series, the neck-wringing that Gödel administered to these programs in 1931 leaves us having registered no gain on the main point. ${ }^{11}$

[^3]But while we are playing the game, what we are presumably concerned to show is that our intuitive arithmetic is reliable, by establishing that our carefully chosen formal counterparts of that arithmetic are reliable. So long as we accept Gödel's first theorem, part of that task remains beyond us. For according to that theorem no effectively presented formal system in the ordinary first-order vocabulary will serve as a fully acceptable formal counterpart of intuitive arithmetic.

So any effective formal arithmetic is at best a partial arithmetic. We can improve this situation in a couple of ways. First, it is clear that being partial is not to be confused with being unreliable. It is sad to have to relate that this is the point at which the usual appeals to Gödel's second theorem tend to descend into perversity. For it is claimed that no bag of mathematical tricks can be demonstrated to be reliable, except on appeal to some trick that isn't in the bag. So we are confronted with a picture (on the usual story) on which the reliability of any mathematical system (save such as are inadequate for whole number arithmetic) can only be demonstrated in some system less reliable, prima facie, than the system from which we began.

This picture, if accurate, severs mathematical logic from its chief foundational purpose-namely, making possible a rigorous reconstruction of intuitive mathematics. One gets the impression rather that even the reconstruction of simple arithmetic is dubious enough, and that every step on becomes even more dubious. And it is accordingly no wonder that many mathematical logicians have gone off to live in a world of their own-a world, frankly, that has little relevance to mathematics, even less to the philosophy of mathematics, and almost none to general philosophy. For the depressing picture is that more than intuitive mathematics must be assumed in order to reconstruct intuitive mathematics. Chauvinist mathematicians (e. g., Poincaré), who always bridled at the suggestion that their discipline was just pure logic, may find cause to rejoice in this picture. But logicians must weep, for it denigrates exact thought for the sake of the old mumbo-jumbo.

We began to talk about consistency, but we have slipped in this section into talk about reliability. Consistency is a formal property of formal systems (though, depending on the author, it may be any one of several properties, not necessarily related). Reliability is an intuitive property, measuring a formal system against the purposes for which it was designed. And let it be clear from the outset that it is reliability that is most desired. We wish that our formal systems shall be adequate to their purposes. And whatever formal property we decide to identify with the honorific 'consistent', it is of interest only insofar as possession of this property is a guide to (and hopefully a guarantee of) the system's reliability.

## 3.

Now let us pick up a few stones. Already in [4] was Feferman's [5] cited, which does present a plausible candidate for Wid ( $\mathbf{S}$ ) which is a theorem of suitable $\mathbf{S}$. What are we to conclude from that? Only that the proof of (A) of section 1 will then break down, unless (God forbid) $S$ is already inconsistent. But, in choosing our stones, let us forget (temporarily) about trying to find a way to say in $\mathbf{S}$ that $\mathbf{S}$ is consistent. What, in English, is a reasonable way of saying this? Here are some.
(1) There exists a formula $A$ such that $A$ is a non-theorem of $\mathbf{S}$
(2) $0=1$ is a non-theorem of $S$
(3) All numerically incorrect equations ${ }^{12} A$ are non-theorems of $\mathbf{S}$
(4) All algebraically incorrect polynomial equations ${ }^{13} A$ are non-theorems of $S$
(5) $\sim(0=0)$ is a non-theorem of $\mathbf{S}$
(6) For no formula $A$ are both $A$ and $\sim A$ theorems of S

These are intended as increasingly stringent criteria for consistency. ${ }^{14}$ But except for the option (7) of the last footnote, these criteria all come classically to the same thing. For intuitively (6) implies (5), and so forth until we get to the fact that (2) implies (1). But (1) implies (6), completing the circle, on account of the implicational paradox $A \& \sim A \supset B$. So classical logic blurs what are intuitively clear distinctions.

Relevant and other substructural logics $L$ exist that excise some of the evils of classical logic. Perhaps if we choose one of these $\mathbf{L}$ in which to formulate our formal arithmetic $\mathbf{S}$, the distressing equivalence of all of (1)-(6) will disappear. And we need go no further than the Church-Anderson-Belnap system $\mathbf{R}$ of [8] and [9] to reach this goal. ${ }^{15}$ Here for example is a list of postulates to be added to the first-order relevant logic $\mathbf{R}^{\forall \exists x}$ of $[9]^{16}$ to formulate the first-order relevant Peano arithmetic $\mathbf{R}^{\#}$.

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\mathrm{R} \mathrm{\#} & x=y \rightarrow x^{\prime}=y^{\prime} \\
\mathrm{R} \mathrm{\# 2} & x=y \rightarrow(x=z \rightarrow y=z) \\
\mathrm{R} \mathrm{\# 3} & x+0=x
\end{array}
$$

[^4]R\#4 $x+y^{\prime}=(x+y)^{\prime}$
$\mathrm{R} \# 5 \times \times 0=0$
R\#6 $x \times y^{\prime}=(x \times y)+x$
R\#7 $x^{\prime}=y^{\prime} \rightarrow x=y$
$\mathrm{R} \# 8 \sim\left(x^{\prime}=0\right)$
$\mathrm{R} \# 9$ A0 \& $\forall x\left(A x \rightarrow A x^{\prime}\right) \rightarrow \forall x A x^{17}$
As rules we take
$\rightarrow \mathrm{E}$ From $A \rightarrow B$ and $A$ infer $B$
$\forall$ I From $A$ infer $\forall x A$
Unfortunately for $\mathbf{R}^{\#}$, it is even less satisfactory than $\mathbf{P}^{\#}$ as a vehicle for formal arithmetic. ${ }^{18}$ But there is a repair $\mathbf{R}^{\# \#}$, which adds the following $\omega$-rule:
$\forall 012 \ldots$ Infer $\forall x A x$ from all of $A 0, A 1, \ldots, A n, \ldots$, for every numeral $n$.
We borrow from previous results to show that R\#\# (and a fortiori $\mathbf{R}^{\#}$ ) is consistent.

## 4.

Where $n$ is any natural number, we let $F_{\alpha}$ be the integers $\{0,1, \ldots, n-1\}$ modulo $n$. Note that + and $\times$ are naturally defined on $F_{\alpha}$. And we let S3 be the 3 -valued matrix on $\{+1,0,-1\}$ defined as follows: ${ }^{19}$

| $\rightarrow$ | -1 | 0 | +1 |
| ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| -1 | +1 | +1 | +1 |
| $* 0$ | -1 | 0 | +1 |
| $*+1$ | -1 | -1 | +1 |

The *'ed elements 0 and +1 are designated values, and we set $m \leq n$ in S3 if $m \rightarrow n$ is designated. (Note that $\leq$ is just the usual order on $-1,0,+1$.) Letting $\rightarrow$ be defined by the table above, define the other connectives on S3 by

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \sim m=-m, \\
& m \& n=\min (m, n), \text { and } \\
& m \vee n=\max (m, n) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Where $D$ is a domain of individuals, we can also interpret the quantifiers in S3 by setting

[^5]\[

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \forall x A x=\min (A d: d \in D) \\
& \exists x A x=\max (A d: d \in D)
\end{aligned}
$$
\]

where for each $d \in D$ we have $A d$ as the "truth-value" in S3 that results from evaluating $A x$ at $d$. We can now complete a standard interpretation $I$ of each of the $F_{\alpha}$ in $\mathbf{S 3}$ by specifying the value of $I$ on atomic sentences. In the simplest case, where $n=2$ and $F_{\alpha}=\{0,1\}$, we set

$$
\begin{aligned}
& (=2 \mathrm{t}) \quad I(0=0)=I(1=1)=0, \text { and } \\
& (=2 \mathrm{f}) I(0=1)=I(1=0)=-1 .
\end{aligned}
$$

It is readily observed that all theorems of $\mathbf{R}^{\# \#}$ take non-negative values on $I .^{20}$ This immediately shows that $\mathbf{R}^{\# \#}$ (and a fortiori $\mathbf{R}^{\#}$ ) is consistent in senses (1) and (2) of section 3 , by a completely elementary argument. So much for the demise of the Hilbert program purportedly brought on by Gödel!

What about the notions (3)-(6) of III? (3) is in principle no more difficult than (2); for any number equation $t=u$ will reduce to one $m=n$, where $m$ and $n$ are numerals; assuming without loss of generality that $m \leq n$, we can further reduce an incorrect number equation to $n-m=0$, where $n-m$ is a positive integer. We generalize $(=2 \mathrm{t})$ and $(=2 \mathrm{f})$ above to define standard $I$ by
(=nt) $I(k=k)=0$ for all $k \in F_{\alpha}$
$(=\mathrm{nf}) I(j=k)=-1$, for all distinct $j, k \in F_{\alpha}$
And it is now clear that all theorems of $\mathbf{R}^{\# \#}$ take a designated value on each standard $I$ in $\mathbf{S 3}$ while for each incorrect number equation it is trivial to find a $F_{\alpha}$ that refutes it. That's consistency in sense (3). And we can extend this proof to get consistency in sense (4), observing that every incorrect polynomial equation has a substitution instance in natural numbers which is numerically incorrect. So $\mathbf{R}^{\# \#}$ is polynomially consistent as well.

We have, however, taken these methods about as far as we can. In particular, we cannot get from the $F_{\alpha}$ a simple proof that $\mathbf{R}^{\# \#}$ is negationconsistent or even that $\sim(0=0)$ is unprovable, which are (6) and (5) respectively of III. Consider the latter. As our standard interpretation $I$ will assign 0 to each $k=k$, it will similarly assign $-0=0$ to $\sim(k=k)$. As 0 is itself a designated value in $\mathbf{S 3}$, this is no way to show that negated identities are unprovable. Moreover since $A \& \sim A \rightarrow \sim(0=0)$ is a theorem scheme of $\mathbf{R}^{\# \#}$ (indeed, already of $\mathbf{R}^{\#}$ ), we cannot use the $F_{\propto}$ to establish negation-consistency either.

Still, if one thing doesn't work, we can try another. Defining material implication $\supset$ as usual by

$$
\text { (D) } A \supset B={ }_{\mathrm{df}} \sim A \vee B
$$

[^6]we already have provable in $\mathbf{R}^{\text {\# }}$
(8) $\sim(0=0) \supset 0=1$,
in view of the theoremhood of $0=0$. Of course (8) is also provable in $\mathbf{R}^{\# \#}$. But $\mathbf{R}^{\# \#}$, unlike $\mathbf{R}^{\#}$, admits $\supset \mathrm{E}$, as [12] demonstrates. So, as $0=1$ has a finitary refutation mod 2 , we can rest content that $\sim(0=0)$ is also a nontheorem; similarly, since if any contradiction were a theorem then so also would $\sim(0=0)$ be provable, we can assert that $\mathbf{R}^{\# \#}$ is negation-consistent.

So we can. But the pleasant finitary character of our appeal to S3 through the $F_{\ltimes}$ is gone and lost forever ${ }^{21}$ when we go through the $\supset E$ proof of [12]. Granted, on Gödelian grounds a charge will be made somewhere for a proof of negation-consistency. And the charge in this case is the non-constructive character of the argument of [12].

## 5.

What, I have been asked, is the relation between $\mathbf{R}^{\#}$ and $\mathbf{R}^{\# \#}$ and more familiar systems like classical $\mathbf{P}^{\#}$ ? When I first published a few of my results about relevant arithmetic in the abstract [1], it was my hope that $\mathbf{R}^{\text {\# would }}$ exactly contain $\mathbf{P}^{\#}$, in the sense that every theorem $A$ of $\mathbf{P}^{\#}$ would be a theorem of $\mathbf{R}^{\#}$, on direct truth-functional translation. This was not to be, on account of Friedman's contribution to [11]. But there are nonetheless several exact translations on which $\mathbf{P}^{\#}$ is a truth-functional subsystem of $\mathbf{R}^{\text {\# }}$. Thus all theorems of $\mathbf{P}^{\#}$ are on these translations theorems of $\mathbf{R}^{\#}$, whence all classical metatheory goes through.
$\mathbf{R}^{\# \#}$ is quite another kettle of fish. It stands to $\mathbf{R}^{\#}$ as classical true arithmetic $\mathbf{P}^{\# \#}$ stands to $\mathbf{P}^{\#}$. It is proved in [12] (though already noted in [1]) that $\mathbf{P}^{\# \#}$ is contained in $\mathbf{R}^{\# \#}$ on direct truth-functional translation. This disposes immediately of many questions that one might have had about $\mathbf{R}^{\# \#}$. Its theorems are not recursively enumerable; nor is it recursively axiomatizable. (Why? Because the truths of $\mathbf{P} \# \#$ aren't r.e.)

A referee has called attention to an apparent incoherence between section 1 (in which we said that Gödelian troubles arose because ' $\sim$ ' does not mean 'not') and section 3 (in which we complained that what is most wanted in formal systems for arithmetic and other stuff is reliability). This is a good point, though I wish here to reiterate both claims. Naturally we want our systems to be reliable; and I say that relevant systems are (demonstrably) more reliable than the standard brands. For we can rest reasonably content with what has been shown here. We have sidestepped the layers and layers of Gödelian uncertainty by showing that some sorts of mistakes just can't happen, if we formulate our theories relevantly. This has been a point all too easily overlooked in the debates for and against the adequacy of

[^7]truth-functional insights. To have faith is a wonderful thing (perhaps). But in logic, reason is supposed to rule. And not merely actual contradiction but also potential contradiction can undermine a system that is formulated truth-functionally. Regard for relevance bounds the harm that even potential contradictions can do.

But Gödel bites the truth-functionalist even more deeply. What are we to make of a statement

$$
\sim(721 \text { is provable })
$$

when this is the very statement \#721? As I said at the outset, this is a dirty trick. And dirty tricks ought not to be confused with profound metaphysical insights about 'not'. We rest our case!

Acknowledgement. Thanks are due to numerous colleagues for discussions of the topics of this paper over the years. Among them are the referees, Dunn, Belnap, McRobbie, Martin, Restall, Slaney, Mares, Friedman, Paris, Thistlewaite, Mortensen and many others. Surendonk's help in preparing the text was another godsend.

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[^0]:    * This paper is in its final form and no similar paper has been or is being submitted elsewhere.
    ${ }^{1} G$ is 17 gen $r$, says [3].
    ${ }^{2}$ We follow [3] in using "Wid" (for "widerspruchsfrei") for "consistent".

[^1]:    ${ }^{3}$ So much so, I was informed by van Fraassen when he was editor of the Journal of Philosophical Logic, that a chief source of manuscripts submitted to that journal were "fix-ups" for Gödel's theorems.
    ${ }^{4}$ In view of the Liar Paradox and associated anomalies, we might more candidly have to admit that we don't know how 'not' really works in English, either.
    ${ }^{5}$ Take $\mathbf{P}^{\#}$ to be the system $\mathbf{S}$ of [4, p. 102f]; equivalently, let it be the system PA of [7].
    ${ }^{6}$ Even more elegant is the course of simply identifying the formula $A^{I}$ with the number $I$. One might read [3] as suggesting this very course. For as it doesn't really matter what the formal objects constituting a denumerable formal system are, they might as well be the natural numbers. This is Gödel numbering with a vengeance!

[^2]:    ${ }^{7}$ In [3] we have "Bew" (for "beweisbar") instead of "P" (for "provable").
    ${ }^{8}$ Recall that (4) must fail, on pain of bankruptcy otherwise for the standard arithmetical mythology!

[^3]:    ${ }^{9}$ Feferman said so in [5], and Gödel appended a footnote to the same effect to the translation of [3].
    ${ }^{10}$ or at least any part of it of which serious use is going to be made
    ${ }^{11}$ Indeed, they have led to a certain abandonment of the main point, all hands being needed (as Reid aptly puts it in [6]) to defend the homeland of arithmetic.

[^4]:    ${ }^{12}$ A formula $t=u$ without free variables is correct if so by primary school arithmetic, else it is incorrect. $27 \times 37=999$ is correct. $2+2=5$ is incorrect.
    ${ }^{13}$ A polynomial equation $t=u$ is correct if so by high school algebra, else it is incorrect. Thus, e. g., $(x+y)(x+y)=x x+x y+y y$ is incorrect. Correct is $(x+y)(x+y)=x x+2 x y+y y$.
    ${ }^{14}$ Another criterion begs for admission here-namely, (7) no arithmetic falsehood is a theorem of $\mathbf{S}$. But (7) jumps from the Deep End into the Standard Numerical Mythology. We do not jump with it-yet!
    ${ }^{15}$ As Mortensen and I point out in [10], the stronger Dunn-McCall system RM will also do.
    ${ }^{16}$ Before [9], $\mathbf{R}^{\forall \exists x}$ was called $\mathbf{R Q}$. See [10]-[12] for the vocabulary of $\mathbf{R}^{\#}$ and its notational conventions.

[^5]:    ${ }^{17}$ This induction postulate may be stated as a rule RMI for $\mathbf{R}^{\text {\# . [13] rightly }}$ prefers RMI in weaker logics.
    ${ }^{18}$ Ackermann's rule $\gamma(\supset \mathrm{E})$ fails for $\mathbf{R}^{\#}$. See Friedman and Meyer's [11].
    19 The 3-valued Sugihara matrix S3 appears early and often in [8] and [9].

[^6]:    ${ }^{20}$ The nice thing here is that we have actually made the $\omega$-rule $\forall 012 \ldots$ finitary. For, mod 2 , the quantifiers are just ranging over 0 and 1 !

[^7]:    ${ }^{21}$ Just like "my darling Clementine"

