# Church's thesis is questioned by new calculation paradigm 

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## Summary:

Church's thesis claims that all effecticely calculable functions are recursive. A shortcoming of the various definitions of recursive functions lies in the fact that it is not a matter of a syntactical check to find out if an entity gives rise to a function. Eight new ideas for a precise setup of arithmetical logic and its metalanguage give the proper environment for the construction of a special computer, the FAGACUS computer. Computers do not come to a necessary halt; it is requested that calculators are constructed on the basis of computers in a way that they always come to a halt, then all calculations are effective. The FAGATOR is defined as a calculator with two-layer-computation. It allows for the calculation of all primitive recursive functions, but multi-level-fagation also allows for the calculation of other fagative functions that are not primitive recursive. The new paradigm of calculation does not have the above mentioned shortcoming. The defenders of Church's thesis are challenged to show that exotic fagative functions are recursive and to put forward a recursive function that is not fagative. A construction with three-tier-multi-level-fagation that includes a diagonalisation leads to the extravagant yet calculable Spark-function that is not fagative. As long as it is not shown that all exotic fagative functions and particularily the Spark-function are arithmetically representable Gödel's first incompleteness sentence is in limbo.

Releasse note: Version 2.0 differs from version 1.2 essentially in renaming the expression ARBACUS by FAGACUS, ARBATOR by FAGATOR, arbor by fagon, arbation by fagation, arbative by fagative, arby by fagy, arba by faga. The reason is that the Latin expression arbor for tree is too general, as there are many kinds of trees. A certain tree the beach (lat. fagus) was picked as an opposite to pine (lat. pinus). In a related calcule the codes are called pinon numbers, in this publication the codes are called fagon numbers. The Boojum-function and the Snark-function also got new names: the Chargefunction and the Spark-function. This was done to avoid to have arithmetic function names that are not unique. Otherwise there are only some minor corrections.

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## 1. Introduction

### 1.1 On the way to recursive functions

It is not easy to read textbooks on mathematical logics - this is at least my impression. It is strange that a topic that should illuminate our thinking defies a simple access. When I started to work on it some years ago I decided for myself to do better and bring more order and add some beauty. It was both a matter of content and aesthetics. I did not start rightout with the idea that there might be some open questions in mathematical logics, although I always had a strange feeling towards some Gödel-type socalled theorems [2] [7], but who has not such a feeling if self-reference is involved? And there was always this strange animal called Church's thesis [4] [5]. One would not allow for a thesis in mathematics, why allow for one in metamathematics or supramathematics**) (supra: meta-meta). The use of axioms within a theory is something else, as it is not claimed that they are intrinsically true. Every theorem of an axiomatic theory really reads: if the axioms are true then this and that is true. If one finds a system where the axioms are actually true one knows that the theorems are true. If not, it is just a Glasperlenspiel. There are conjectures e.g. like the Goldbach-conjecture, but nobody would call a sentence that depends either on the truth or the falsity of the Goldbach-conjecture a theorem. Only in the if-then-form it could be a theorem.

The time between 1926 and 1936 must have been very exciting until there finally was a sustainable concept of effectively calculable functions that included Ackermann-functions [1] : around 1934 the Princeton circle of Church, Kleene and Gödel (and Herbrand) introduced minimisation as an effective procedure complementing primitive recursions, which on their part consist of straightrecursion*) and composition, starting from identity, projections and succession functions. By the way it was technically very simple to introduce the concept of minimisation with respect to arithmetical respresentations that are in the center of Gödel's work. It was much simpler than straight-recursion, where one needed Gödel's ingenious beta-function-technique. After that everything looked fine, except for the ontology problem*) (as I call it) that gave some people some headache, but obviously not too much in the last seventy years; more of this in the next section. In the years after 1936 various competing methods for effectively calculable functions have been put forward, the following list is not complete: Turing, Markov, lamda-calculus, Abacus, Register and so on. But all of them turned out to be equivalent definitions of recursive functions. And they all have a catch of the sort: you cannot tell in general whether a machine comes to a halt or if a function has at least one value zero or so.

### 1.2 Church's thesis and two theses of Gödel

As all the attempts to construct effectively calculable functions have turned out to lead to the same result this was considered as good evidence for Church's thesis: all effectively calculable functions are recursive. To my knowledge there has been no successfull attack on Church's calculability thesis, including hypercomputer concepts [8b]. And this is very important as some famous supratheorems depend on the truth of Church's calculability thesis. I call a proven sentence of a mathematical system a theorem and a proven metasentence*) about a mathematical system a metatheorem and a proven suprasentence ${ }^{* *)}$ about metamathematical systems a supratheorem*). This brings up the immediate question: how can you call something a theorem or a metatheorem or a supratheorem if it depends on a thesis. Properly it has to be called a thesis too (that is why I have used in the summary and in section 1.1 the word "so-called"). And it does not help if somewhere in a first chapter it is written "under the asumption of Church's calculability thesis" or if one keeps repeating the mantra "assuming Church's calculability thesis", if one calls the outcome a theorem or metatheorem or supratheorem. The laymen readers take it as what you have called it. E.g. Gödel's so-called first incompleteness theorem (it is not a theorem but a suprasentence in the first place) really is Gödel's first incompleteness thesis as it depends on Church's calculability thesis.

[^0]And by the way: Gödel-type suprasentences say something about mathematics and nothing but: there are no other infinite language systems outside mathematics that one can reasonably talk about. Insofar they do not lend themselves for general philosophy. But whether authors explain it properly or not they start ranting about the consequences for science, philosophy, life in general and alleged limitations of the human mind. This is not my field.

Assume for the moment that Church's calculability thesis would turn out to be false, as it can happen with theses, otherwise they would not be theses. Some parts of the general public would perhaps maliciously point at mathematicians and claim that this is just another field where professors like to quarrel. It is just of intellectual comfort to respond that everything was only said under well-stated conditions.

What is the reason that such a problem can arise in mathematics, shouldn't it be free from eventual flaws. The answer is: one has to be precise, the problem does not arise in mathematics but only when one talks about mathematics. When one talks in mathematics (or even metamathematics) one usually has a well-defined system like group theory or real functions and no deep ontological problems, e.g. there are individuals, sets, mappings and predicates, sentences and formulae et cetera; and the mathematicians prove the truth of certain sentences. A sentence that starts with "for all" usually has a pretty good meaning. Perhaps this picture of mathematics is a little too romantic, but with a grain of salt that is what mathematics is all about.

When one talks about mathematics and metamathematics, that is when one talks in supramathematics, the situation is completely different. The fantasy and the creativity of mathematician seems to be without limits and they keep inventing all sorts of systems. A suprasentence that starts with "for all" is something completely different from normal mathematics, as it may comprise those systems that have not yet been invented, but that may be invented by future mathematicians, the domain is open. So it is quite natural that things like Church's calculability thesis exist and you should enjoy them, because they may provide an interesting area to work on.

In the following I will present some results on my work on Church's calculability thesis. I have yet to explain what I mean by ontology problems in connection with it. In a system of recursive functions you know what you mean by numbers, formulae or sentences, but you have not such a clear notion what a recursive function is. You cannot state "for all recursive functions" without problems as roughly speaking - recursive functions are defined as programs that halt. As there is no general criterion for the halting of programs you have no criterion if a given program is a recursive function. There are certain classes of recursive functions, e.g. the one that is called primitive, with which you can do beautiful mathematics, but there always remains the Damokles-sword of nonhalting .

If one is not interested in Church's calculability thesis per se but rather on the important application in the proofs of so-called Gödel-type metatheorems one can overcome the ontological discussion as these only need Church's calculability thesis insofar as it is used in the metatheorem that all recursive functions are arithmetically representable [7] by logical formulae that use nothing but zero, succession, addition and multiplication (usually "arithmetically" is left away). In the following I will therefore use a weaker thesis that I (posthumously) call Gödel's calculability thesis: all effectively calculable functions are arithmetically representable.

This is much more convenient: suppose somebody has shown that Church's calculability thesis is false as he has produced a non-recursive effectively calculable function. If this function happens to be arithmetically representable no problem with Gödel-type theses occur. So you better check for Gödel's calculability thesis first. If you find an effectively calculable function that is not arithmetically representable Gödel's first incompleteness thesis is false. If it is unknown whether it is arithmetically representable or not, Gödel's first incompleteness thesis is in limbo.

## 2. Language environment

In this chapter I sketch the environment that is necessary for the introduction of what I call the concrete calcule NU of decimal fagation**) natural numbers. This concrete calcule will turn out to be a real gold-mine, which will be exploited subsequently.

### 2.1 Abstract and concrete calcules

My desire for a clearer view on mathematical logics could not be done without some new methods, both for content and notation. I did not hesitate to redefine some expressions and even to invent some new expressions. The textbook authors have invented new terminology too. I found their special characters pretty ugly and sometimes poorly documented; Cutland [6] may forgive me, that I quote notation of p. 241-245 as an example with strange scripts, arrows et cetera. As I am not affiliated with any organisation I felt completely free to follow new paths. This is the advantage of the independent private scholar. As this publication serves the purpose to distribute some new results I cannot go into all the details and I will only sketch some concepts as it is usually done in scientific magazine contributions, where the learned reader will understand them nevertheless. Some examples will help. A textbook is in work and will be published in some time. I start off with the first of eight ideas:

## (idea 1) abstract and concrete calcules.

The name calcule ${ }^{* *)}$ was chosen as I mean something that may be called calculus in Latin or Kalkül in German; in English, however, calculus is already used for the theory of functions of real numbers. A calcule is a language system, it consists of sentences that are formed according to some syntax rules.

An abstract calcule* ${ }^{*}$ is a formal system, it does not talk about anything. It starts with a list of sentences that are called axioms. The axioms and those sentences that can be obtained via logical deduction are called valid. The sentences of an abstract calcule can be valid, invalid or indefinite. The deeper logical meaning of an abstract calcule is that it allows to state the truth of some if-thensentences where the if-clause states the existence (in whatever sense) of certain entities that fulfill some rules.

A concrete calcule*) talks about a codex*). A codex consists of individuals (finite strings*) of characters of a finite alphabet and a decidable equality relation) that are formed according to some syntax rules. Furthermore a codex can include the precise description of calculation procedures for some functions and relations through a calculator**. I call a machine a calculator if it halts for all programs with all possible inputs, whereas a computer*) is a machine that may or may not halt computing when given a certain program with a certain input. So far this is just wording, when it gets to the real description of calculators one must have a guarantee that no non-halting situations can occur. With this definition every calculation*) is effective and if something is calculable*) it is effectively calculable ("effectively calculable" then becomes a pleonasm). A computer computes, a calculator calculates a result ( in German: "ein Rechner rechnet, ein Kalkulator berechnet ein Ergebnis"). Due to the reference to a codex a concrete calcule is not a formal system.

Sentences of a concrete calcule are true or false. The general method of finding the truth of basic sentences of concrete calcules is yet to be investigated. I give it the name demonstration as opposed to deduction. Once you have true sentences in a concrete calcule you can start using deduction for more true sentences.

Therefore a proof is either a deduction or a demonstration. In this publication I restrict my view of mathematics to abstract and concrete calcules and do not go into the question whether there are other meaningful fields of mathematical work.

### 2.2 Hierarchy of languages

In the context of this publication there are basically two very different types of languages

- proposition languages, which consist of sentences that can be true in some sense or not
- command languages of computer programs.

I start with proposition languages and state

```
(idea 2) Mencish-Funcish hierarchy of precise languages up to supra-tier.
```

If a language talks about another language it is a metalanguage relative to this language. For abstract and concrete calcules I introduce the language Funcish**) (short for Functum-language). I do not use common language as its metalanguage, but rather another precisely defined language that I call Mencish**) (short for Meta-Funcish). Metacalcules are precisely defined but they are not formal systems. A calcule is given a name that refers to its individual sort: in this publication the abstract calcule alpha and the concrete calule NU. They are formulated in Funcish and talked about in Mencish. Mencish is talked about in common language, which is English (or at least, what I, being of German tongue, consider to be English). Section 4.2 will define the command language A0**) for the codex.


## Figure 1. Hierarchy of languages and codices (tiers of languages)

A hierarchy of languages means that languages appear in tiers*) : with respect to a given language the next higher tiers are called meta-tier, meta-meta-tier and so on, the next lower tier is called infra-tier. The highest tier is called supra-tier (it is usually the common language), the lowest is called hypo-tier. Two languages with a common metalanguage share the same tier. In this publication the supra-tier is the meta-meta-tier and the infra-tier is the same as the hypo-tier. In this publication I will do some things in English that should be properly done in Mencish. This is for shortness and easier readability and is to be taken care of in future publications.

Mencish is in a sense simpler than the languages it talks about. It talks about finite strings of characters, which means that it is something like a concrete arithmetic calcule, which also talks about finite strings of characters, that are called numbers. Of course, it is not inherent in numbers that they have to be written decimal form. Unal, dual, octal in general multal ${ }^{* *)}$, you can write numbers to any base. You may build numbers from the characters of the calcule that a metacalcule is talking about. In this sense all the metaindividuals**) i.e. strings, are numbers. I will make ample use of this simple fact. Finally: the two calcules of this publication and their metacalcules are strictly first-order-logic .

### 2.3 Bavaria-notation

This is the idea of bringing good order and maybe even some beauty:

## (idea 3) Bavaria-notation with typographic distinction between languages.

For the relatively simple cases that are treated in this publication the notation for Mencish and Funcish looks very similar to the usual logical notation. Just for kicks I call it Bavaria-notation**). It is computer-proof, you must not change the style of a single character. The three languages English, Mencish and Funcish each have their own alphabet, so that they can already be distinguished by their typography.

The individuals sorts of abstract calcules are denoted by small Greek letters point 12, individual sorts of concrete calcules are denoted by capital Greek letters point 12, e.g. for my two calcules I have $\alpha$ and N . The metaindividual sorts (strings of the corresponding metacalcules) are in boldface italics $\alpha$ and $N$.

Bavaria-notation obeys rule the that you can tell from the name of an entity its exact ontological placement in the system, or in simple language: the names of entities speak. The name of the binary multiplication function in abstract calcule alpha is e.g. $\alpha \times(\alpha ; \alpha)$ which shows that it is binary and that it maps the two numbers of the argument to a number. Notice that the name is not $\alpha \times$, which in Funcish would be a number-constant like nullum $\alpha$.

No more further theory for the moment, let me specify the alphabets I need and give an example.


Table 1. Alphabet for common language English (as you have already noticed in this publication)

| font Symbol boldface italics |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | point ${ }^{1)}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $N$ | $N$ | $=$ | $\neq$ | $\neg$ | $v$ | 1 | $\rightarrow$ | $\leftrightarrow$ | ( | ; | ) | $\exists$ | $\forall$ | [ | $]$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | 12 |
| font Arial boldface italics |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| A | 1 | B | 2 | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 3 \\ & d \\ & D \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 4 \\ & e \\ & E \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 5 \\ & f \\ & F \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 6 \\ & g \\ & G \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 7 \\ & h \\ & H \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 8 \\ & i \\ & I \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 9 \\ & j \\ & j \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & k \\ & K \end{aligned}$ | I | $m$ | $n$ $N$ | 0 | $p$ | $q$ $Q$ | $r$ | S | $t$ | U |  | $\begin{aligned} & w \\ & w \end{aligned}$ | $X$ $X$ | $\begin{array}{ll}y & z \\ y & Z\end{array}$ |  | $\begin{gathered} \hline 8 \\ 10 \\ 10 \\ 12 \end{gathered}$ |

${ }^{1)}$ specifications in points apply only if the manuscript is printed in original DIN A4 size
Table 2. Alphabet of Mencish metacalcules alpha and $\underline{N U}$ relating to calcules alpha and $\underline{\mathrm{NU}}$ resp.


Table 3. Alphabet of abstract calcule alpha in Funcish
Bavaria-notation solves the quotation problem in a perfect fashion: when you talk in one language about the words of another language you just fill them in without danger of mixing up tiers.

### 2.4 Exemplary abstract calcule alpha of arithmetic natural numbers

As an example for the Bavaria-notation and the proper use of language and metalanguage I specify some strings of the first object-calcule**), the abstract calcule alpha of arithmetic natural numbers. In short notation I write the following definitions of the metaproperties of strings of alpha (notice the difference between boldface italics of metalanguage and straight letters of calcule language and the use of concatenation*) for strings) :

## nullum ::

meaning

```
small-cipher::
succession ::
addition ::
multiplication ::
small-index::
number-variable ::
```

$\alpha n$
[ nullum $(\alpha n)] \wedge[\forall \alpha 1[[\alpha 1 \neq \alpha n] \rightarrow[\neg[$ nullum $(\alpha 1)]]]]$

```
1|2| 3| 4| 5| 6|7| 8| 9
\alpha'(\alpha)
\alpha+(\alpha;\alpha)
\alpha\times(\alpha;\alpha)
small-cipher ! small-index small-cipher ! small-index 0
\alpha small-index
```

The nine axioms of the abstract calcule alpha of arithmetic natural numbers are certain strings, where you please notice the subtle difference between boldface italics and normal style of characters ( $\alpha 2 \neq \alpha n$ is a true and $\alpha_{2}=\alpha n$ is a false metasentence) :

```
\(\alpha \boldsymbol{A} \boldsymbol{a}=\forall \alpha_{1}\left[\alpha^{\prime}\left(\alpha_{1}\right) \neq \alpha_{n}\right]\)
\(\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{A} \boldsymbol{b}=\forall \alpha_{1}\left[\forall \alpha_{2}\left[\left[\alpha^{\prime}\left(\alpha_{1}\right)=\alpha^{\prime}\left(\alpha_{2}\right)\right] \rightarrow\left[\alpha_{1}=\alpha_{2}\right]\right]\right]\)
\(\alpha \boldsymbol{A} \boldsymbol{c}=\forall \alpha_{1}[\alpha+(\alpha 1 ; \alpha n)=\alpha 1]\)
\(\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{A} \boldsymbol{d}=\forall \alpha_{1}\left[\forall \alpha_{2}\left[\alpha+\left(\alpha_{1} ; \alpha^{\prime}(\alpha 2)\right)=\alpha^{\prime}\left(\alpha+\left(\alpha_{1} ; \alpha_{2}\right)\right)\right]\right]\)
\(\alpha \boldsymbol{A} \boldsymbol{e}=\forall \alpha 1[\alpha \times(\alpha 1 ; \alpha n)=\alpha n]\)
\(\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{A} \boldsymbol{f}=\forall \alpha 1\left[\forall \alpha 2\left[\alpha \times\left(\alpha_{1} ; \alpha^{\prime}(\alpha 2)\right)=\alpha+(\alpha \times(\alpha 1 ; \alpha 2) ; \alpha 1)\right]\right]\)
\(\alpha \boldsymbol{A g}=\forall \alpha_{1}\left[\forall \alpha_{2}\left[\left[\alpha+\left(\alpha_{1} ; \alpha_{2}\right)=\alpha n\right] \rightarrow\left[\alpha_{2}=\alpha n\right]\right]\right]\)
\(\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{A} \boldsymbol{h}=\forall \alpha_{1}\left[\forall \alpha_{2}\left[\left[\exists \alpha_{3}\left[\alpha+\left(\alpha_{1} ; \alpha^{\prime}\left(\alpha_{3}\right)\right)=\alpha_{2}^{\prime}\right]\right] \leftrightarrow\left[\left[\exists \alpha_{4}\left[\alpha+\left(\alpha_{1} ; \alpha^{\prime}\left(\alpha_{4}\right)\right)=\alpha_{2}\right]\right] \vee\left[\alpha_{1}=\alpha_{2}\right]\right]\right]\right]\)
\(\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{A} \boldsymbol{i}=\forall \alpha_{1}\left[\forall \alpha_{2}\left[\left[\exists \alpha_{3}\left[\left[\alpha+\left(\left(\alpha_{1} ; \alpha^{\prime}\left(\alpha_{3}\right)\right)=\alpha_{2}\right] \vee\left[\alpha+\left(\left(\alpha_{2} ; \alpha^{\prime}\left(\alpha_{3}\right)\right)=\alpha_{1}\right]\right]\right] \vee\left[\alpha_{1}=\alpha_{2}\right]\right]\right]\right.\right.\)
```

This set of axioms is not categorical*) [7], which means that not all concrete calcules that fulfill these axioms are isomorphic: the correspondences between those concrete calcules are not bijective. This is shown according to Boolos et al. p. 216 [7] : one takes "normal" arithmetics with succession, addition and multiplication, say of decimal numbers as concretisation (I) and constructs the concretisation (II) from (I) by adding to extra numbers with function tables that are extended for these values. Whereas concretisation (I) has commutativity both of addition and multiplication, concretisation (II) has not.

Thus abstract calule alpha of arithmetic natural numbers contains indefinite*) sentences, like e.g.
$[\neg[\operatorname{TRUTH}(\forall \alpha 1[\forall \alpha 2[\alpha+(\alpha 1 ; \alpha 2)=\alpha+(\alpha 2 ; \alpha 1)]])]] \wedge$
[ $\neg[$ FALSEHOOD $(\forall \alpha 1[\forall \alpha 2[\alpha+(\alpha 1 ; \alpha 2)=\alpha+(\alpha 2 ; \alpha 1)]])]]$
Let me point out an important general feature: to every true sentence of a calcule there exist a true metasentence in its metacalcule, namely just the metasentence that states the truth. E.g. the above first axiom is a true sentence of abstract calcule alpha of arithmetic natural numbers: $\forall \alpha 1$ [ $\left.\alpha^{\prime}\left(\alpha_{1}\right) \neq \alpha \mathrm{n}\right]$

The corresonding metasentence is: $\left.\operatorname{TRUTH}\left(\forall \alpha 1\left[\alpha^{\prime}\left(\alpha_{1}\right) \neq \alpha n\right]\right]\right)$
So far abstract calcules, they will not be investigated any further in this publication.

## 3. Concrete calcule NU of decimal fagation natural numbers

### 3.1 Decimal numbers with a twist

It is just for convention that I present the concrete calcule $\underline{\mathrm{NU}}$ as a calcule for decimal numbers. Instead of ten I might as well use any other base greater than three. Quartal numbers (with 0123 ) would do fine, whereas dual numbers (with 01 ) would pose some technical troubles; the troubles could be overcome but it is not worth it as the reader will see.

|  | font Arial | point |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | $\{$ | $\}$ | , | $\langle\quad\rangle$ | 12 |

Table 4. Alphabet for codex NU

${ }^{1)}$ read this Greek letter "capital nu", don't ever say "en"; watch the difference from Times Roman character N : N

## Table 5. Alphabet of concrete calcule NU

Concrete calcule NU of decimal fagation natural numbers talks about the number strings of codex NU that I write in a funny fashion using three synonymous characters.

| instead of 8 | I write | $\{$ | and read "left brace" or "acco" |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| instead of 9 | I write | $\}$ | and read "right brace" or "lade" |
| instead of 89 or $\}$ | I write | and read "comma" |  |

The comma is not really part of the language. I use it like a makro of a programming language that is to be expanded whenever a string is processed. It is just for better understanding of number strings. A matching pair of characters $\{. .$.$\} I call an "accolade".$

```
acco*) ::
lade*)::
decimal-cipher ::
decimal-numeral ::
positive-number::
number::
```

\}

0 | decimal-cipher
decimal-cipher ! positive-number decimal-numeral

I count: zero, one, two, three, four, five, six, seven, eight resp. acco, nine resp. lade and write e.g. my year of birth nineteenhundred-and-fortyone 1$\} 41$; one can get used to that and the reader will see very soon why I do that. I will also use the following number strings:

```
octal-cipher ::
octal-numeral ::
positive-octal-number ::
octal-number ::
field ::
```

```
1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7
```

1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7

```
0 octal-cipher
```

0 octal-cipher
octal-cipher ! positive-octal-number octal-numeral
octal-cipher ! positive-octal-number octal-numeral
| positive- octal-number
| positive- octal-number
octal-number | 0 positive-octal-number

```
octal-number | 0 positive-octal-number
```


### 3.2 The decimal fagation calculator FAGATOR

Before I start talking about calculators lets have some definitions:

```
small-letter-symbol:: a | b | c | ... | x | y | z | - | | + | > | ^
small-word :: small-letter-symbol | small-word small-letter-symbol
number-constant :: N small-word
```

number-constant strings are names of number strings, e.g. for nullum I have number-constant( Nn )

```
zero :: 0
nullum :: Nn
nullum-thing*) :: zero | nullum
number-variable :: N small-index
number-dingus*):: number | number-constant | number-variable
number-thing :: number-variable; number
number-array :: number ; number-array ; number
number-argument :: ( ) \ ( number-array )
number-variable-array :: number-variable | number-variable-array ; number-variable
number-variable-argument :: ( ) | ( number-variable-array )
number-dingus-array:: number-dingus | number-dingus-array; number-dingus
number-dingus-argument :: ( ) | ( number-dingus-array )
```

So far the codex NU that concrete calcule NU is talking about has only number strings. In order to do some mathematics I need some mappings or relations. As it was introduced in section 1.1. a codex can contain calculators, that take care of functions and relations. Codex $N U$ contains a series of functions that I call the decimal fagation calculator or decimal FAGATOR**) which is an acronym for FAGation calculATOR:

NFAGA(N)
NFAGA(N;N)
NFAGA(N;N;N)
and so on, where I call the first argument position the program-position*) and the consecutive the input-positions*). As I do not have any other functions I will use a synonymous notation with the prodecure number behind the argument without the danger of any confusion:

```
\forallN1 [ NFAGA(N1) = ( )N1 ]
*N1[ }\forall\textrm{N}2[\textrm{NFAGA}(\textrm{N}1;\textrm{N}2)=(\textrm{N}2)N1]
*N1[ }\forall\textrm{N}2[\forall\textrm{N}3[\textrm{NFAGA}(\textrm{N}1;\textrm{N}2;\textrm{N}3)=(\textrm{N}2;N3)N1]]
```

...
and so on. This is part of the conventions that I call Bavaria-notation (as opposed to the Polish notation where parentheses are lacking). This abbreviation is only used in concrete calcule NU .

The decimal fagation calculators that I am going to define in the next two chapters produce exactly the usual primitive recursive functions. Decimal fagation calculators are just another method to calculate primitive recursive functions. However, it lends itself to some new ideas that will turn out to be very useful. Decimal fagation calculators make use of the decimal ${ }^{1)}$ FAGACUS ${ }^{* *)}$ computer that I am going to describe in the following. FAGACUS is an acronym for FAGation abaCUS.

[^1]
### 3.3 Definition of fagon-number and primitive-fagon-number strings

Firstly I define two important classes of numbers, which will be the basis of fagation.
In the following $\boldsymbol{f}$ is mnemonic for field and a for accolade*), denoting whether a number string starts or ends with a field or an accolade respectively.

```
f-f-tree :: field | field a-f-tree | f-a-tree field | field a-a-tree field
accolade-tree :: {} | { f-f-tree}
a-a-tree :: accolade-tree ; a-a-tree a-a-tree; a-a-tree f-a-tree ; a-f-tree a-a-tree
f-a-tree :: f-f-tree a-a-tree
a-f-tree :: a-a-tree f-f-tree
fagon-number:: octal-number| positive-octal-number a-f-tree \
    positive-octal-number a-a-tree | a-f-tree | a-a-tree
```

Now one can see why I have chosen the word fagon : it is Latin for tree. And this leeds to FAGACUS, FAGATOR, fagation etc.

For short: an fagon-number ${ }^{*)}$ string has a tree-structure through matching characters $\{$ and $\}$, where no \{\{ or \}\} are admissible, furthermore it does not contain multiply prenulled octal numbers.
E.g. $\{1\{0\} 0,01\}$ is an fagon-number string, $10\{\{$ and $\{001\}$ are not fagon-number strings.

A number string that is not an fagon-number string is called a herbum-number string.
A branch of a tree is called accolade; an accolade starts with an acco and finishes with a lade. The first field of an accolade is called its counter*), the last field its limit**.

A primitive-fagon-number*) string is an fagon-number string where counter and limit fields of all accolade do only appear inside the accolade as limit fields or in the fast-finish-form*) \{counter, limit \}
E.g. $\{1\{1\} 2\}$ is not a primitive-fagon-number string as the counter 1 appears within the accolade, $\{0\{0,01\} 01\}$ is a primitive-fagon-number string altough the counter appears within the accolade but in the admissible form.

The meaning of primitive-fagon-number strings will become clear soon: they are the number strings that lead exactly to the primitive recursive functions as they are known in normal recursive function theory [6] . If one uses them in the program field for a binary function say of addition NFAGA $\left(\mathrm{N}+; \mathrm{N}_{1} ; \mathrm{N}_{2}\right)=\left(\mathrm{N}_{1} ; \mathrm{N}_{2}\right) \mathrm{N}+$ it is guaranteed that the computation halts for all input.

An fagon-number string that is not a primitive-fagon-number string is called a complex-fagon-number**) string.

In the arithmetical universum of number strings fagon-number strings are very scarce and even more so primitive-fagon-number strings, you may compare it to stars in the relatively empty physical universe. And yet, what a beautiful and big world is the physical universe and what a beautiful and big world is the arithmetical universe!

## 4. FAGACUS computer

### 4.1 Direct coding and fields

I always found Gödel numbering something weird, as it is entering the considered systems from the outside. That the original method used prime numbers had its special yet strange touch but did not bother me. That and my deep trust in the finity of language is what lead me to

## (idea 4) direct coding instead of cumbersome Gödelisation.

By direct coding I mean that every number string can be interpreted as a primitive recursive function and that for every primitive recursive function there is a number string which is its code. Codes and number strings are the same. You will get a first feeling what I mean by a coding of functions by numbers if you look at the following example, where you will also understand why I write the numbers 8 and 9 with synonymous characters \{ and \}, which leeds to a tree structure.

The binary function of addition $x+y$ of two numbers is coded by the number string 8089019818908902 or synonymous form $\{0,01\}\{1,0,02\}$ and given the name $\mathrm{N}+$ as numberconstant. It means that there are input fields 01 and 02 , that the value $\langle 01\rangle$ of the field 01 is put into field 0 and then the value of this field 0 is incremented by one when the scratch field 1 runs from value 1 to the value $\langle 02\rangle$ of field 02 , if the field 02 has value 0 nothing is done in the second part. As you see accolades $\{\ldots\}$ are used as loops*) (like do-loops in applied computing).

Like an Abacus or a Register computer the FAGACUS computer has an unlimited memory with unlimited fields*) that are used during the computation to store values, e.g. $\langle 01\rangle$ as value field 01 , where the symbols $\rangle$ are just used inside the codex. There is an additional register*) field in the memory that is not addressable inside a program, it contains the number of the program to be computed. The fields are referenced by numbers according to the following convention:

| program-register field |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | 00 | scratch fields by octal numbers |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | pren | input ulled | fields octal | numb |  |  |  |  | output field |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| ... | 012 | 011 | 010 | 07 | 06 | 05 | 04 | 03 | 02 | 01 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 10 | 11 | 12 | $\ldots$ |

Table 6. FAGACUS computer memory fields

```
output-field*):: 0
input-field*) :: 0 octal-cipher ! input-field octal-numeral
scratch-field*::: octal-cipher | scratch-field octal-numeral
field :: output-field ! input-field | scratch-field
program-register :: 00
```

|  |  | description with fields |  | description with values |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| prog. reg.f. | input fields | 00 | 01, 02, ... | prog. value | input values |
| arity Arbacus computation |  | arity Arbacus computation |  | arity Arbacus computation |  |
| output field |  | 0 |  | $\langle 0\rangle$ |  |

Figure 2. FAGACUS computer with fields
A computer works step by step. By step I mean the smallest units in a computation, that will be given in the next section for the FAGACUS computer.

### 4.2 Computation rules

After these preliminaries I have to go into the details of
(idea 5) FAGACUS computer with a new programming language without referenced branching.

I will define the new programming language that I call A0. It is a command language as opposed to proposition languages Funcish and Mencish. Actually it is an interpretative language as will be seen (in applied computing the best known interpretative language is BASIC). A program is given by an fagon-number string, which is interpreted in the following way. Besides the empty command $\}$ that is abbreviated by the comma there are only the two following commands:

S succeed, replace the actual value of a field by its successor e.g. 12
R repeat performing an accolade $\{\ldots\}$ of commands e.g. $\{1,2\{4\} 3\}$ enclosed by acco and lade a certain number of times, as given by the limit value in the lade-field with the acco-field carrying the counter of the step, do nothing if the limit value is zero, in this case the counter field has value zero after performing; before the accolade is performed the acco-field is set to zero, it then starts with one at the end the acco-field contains the the limit value of the lade-field

Two special cases of the repeat command: only one field or one pair of fields in accolade:

| D | delete, put the value to zero | e.g. $\{13\}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| C copy the value of the second field to the first | e.g. | $\{4,03\}$ |

At the start of a computation firstly all fields are initialised to zero, then the input fields 010203 ... to the values of the input argument starting from the left. If the arity of the argument is higher than the highest input field just ignore the higher ones. If the arity of the argument is less than the highest input field the values of the exceeding input fields are put to zero through the initialisation.

Computation starts from the left and proceeds to the right, a cursor moves through the digits of the number string. The output is in field 0 . The only backspacing can occur at the end of an accolade. This is where non-halting may occur, e.g. fagon-number $1\{0\{0\} 1\}$ never halts, as you see from the table:

| step | field 0 | field 1 | command |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | initialise |
| 1 | 0 | 1 | succeed |
| 2 | 0 | 1 | initial value |
| 3 | 1 | 1 | succeed as limit not yet reached |
| 4 | 0 | 1 | delete |
| 5 | 1 | 1 | succeed as limit not yet reached |
| 6 | 0 | 1 | delete |
| $\ldots$ |  |  | and so on forever |

Table 7. example program computation
The above example is not a primitive-fagon-number string. All primitive-fagon-number programs halt when applied to any input. The beauty of programming language $\mathbf{A 0}$ lies in the fact that one can check the sufficient condition of program halt that governs all primitive recursive functions. It is trivial that all primitive recursive functions and only the primitive recursive functions can be obtained by applying the FAGACUS computer to a primitive-fagon-number string as program. The power of A0: you can program " if-then-else" (let Na and Nb be two example numbers without scratch-field collision) :

| numberconstant | description | number | arity |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| N | unification**) | 0 | 0 |
| Nnf | $\begin{aligned} & \text { nullification**), } \\ & \text { nullum constantion**) } \end{aligned}$ | \{0\} | 0 |
| Ndf | duofication**), | \{0\}0,0 | 0 |
| Ndef | decification**), | \{0\}0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0 | 0 |
| Nid | identity, identation**) | \{0,01\} | 1 |
| Ndpj | bi-projection | \{0,02\} | 2 |
| Ntpj | tri-projection | \{0,03\} | 3 |
| $\mathrm{N}^{\prime}$ | succession | \{0,01\} 0 | 1 |
| Nsig | signum, signation**), | \{1 \{0\} 0,01\} | 1 |
| Nneg | not, logical negation | \{0\} $0\{1$ \{0\} 01\} | 1 |
| Nand | and, logical addition | \{1,01\} \{2, 1,02\} \{2 \{0\} 0,1\} | 2 |
| Nor | or, logical multiplication | \{3\} \{2 \{1,3,01\} 02\} \{2 \{0\} 0,3\} | 2 |
| N+ | addition $\mathrm{x}+\mathrm{y}$ | \{0,01\}\{1,0,02\} | 2 |
| N× | multiplication $x^{*} \mathrm{y}$ | \{2 \{1,0,01\} 02\} | 2 |
| Nxp | exponentiation $\mathrm{x}^{\mathrm{y}}$ | \{0\} 0 \{1 \{2,0\} \{0\} \{3 \{4,0,01\} 2\} 02\} | 2 |
| Nsuxp | superexponentiation | \{0\}0\{6\{4,0\}\{0\}0\{5\{2,0\}\{0\}\{3\{1,0,01\}2\}4\}02\} | 2 |
| Nfac | factorial x ! | \{0\} $0\{4$ \{1,0\} \{0\} \{2 \{3,0,1\} 4\} 01\} | 1 |
| Nprd | predecession [ $\mathrm{x}-1$ ] | \{2\} $\{1$ \{0,2\} 2,01\} | 1 |
| Ntst | truncated subtraction [ $\mathrm{x}-\mathrm{y}$ ] | \{0,01\} \{1 \{2,0\} \{3\} \{4\{0,3\} 3,2\} 02\} | 2 |
| Nadi | absolute difference | $\{5,01\}\{1\{2,5\}\{3\}\{4\{5,3\} 3,2\} 02\}$ | 2 |
|  |  | \{0,02\} \{1 \{2,0\} \{3\} \{4\{0,3\} 3,2\} 01\} \{1,0,5\} |  |
| Nevy | evenness characteristic ${ }^{2)}$ | \{1 \{3, 0$\}\{0\} 0\{2\{0\} 3\} 01\}$ | 1 |
| Nody | oddity characteristic | \{0\} 0 \{1 \{3,0\} \{0\}0 \{2 \{0\} 3 \} 01\} | 1 |
| Ndiv | entire division [ $\mathrm{x} / \mathrm{y}$ ], | \{6,01\} 6 \{ 7,6$\}$ | 2 |
|  | if divide by zero successor | $\{5$ \{1 \{2,6\} \{3\} \{4\{6,3\} 3,2\} 02\} \{1 \{0,5\} 6\} 7\} |  |
| Ndir | entire division remainder, | $\{0,01\} 0\{7,0\}$ | 2 |
|  | [ $\mathrm{x}-[\mathrm{x} / \mathrm{y}] * \mathrm{y}$ ] | \{5 $\{1$ \{2,0\} \{3\} \{4\{0,3\} 3,2\} 02\} \{1 \{6,0\} 0\} 7\} |  |
|  | if divide by zero identity | \{2\} $\{1$ \{0,2\} 2,6\} |  |
| Nrt | entire root [ ${ }^{\text {root }} \mathrm{y}$ ] | \{6 \{7\} 7 \{ 1 \{2,7\} \{7\} \{3 \{4,7,6\} 2\} 01\} | 2 |
|  | is zero if y zero | $\{5,02\} 5\{1$ \{2,5\} \{3\} \{4\{5,3\} 3,2\} 7\} |  |
|  | is y if x zero | \{2\} \{1 \{2\} 2,5\} \{1,0,2\} 02\} |  |
| Nlg | entire logarithm [ $\log _{x} \mathrm{y}$ ] | \{0\}0 \{7\} \{6 \{3,0\} \{2 \{4,0,01\} 3\} 7 | 2 |
|  | is zero if y zero | \{1 \{2,02\} 2 \{3\} \{4 \{5,3\} 3,2\} 0\} |  |
|  | is y if x zero | \{1\} $\{2$ \{1\} 1,5\} \{2 \{6,02\} 1\} 02\} \{0\} \{2\} \{1 \{0,2\} 2, 7\} |  |
| Neqy | equality characteristic | $\{5,01\}\{1\{2,5\}\{3\}\{4\{5,3\} 3,2\} 02\}$ | 2 |
|  |  | \{0,02\} \{1 \{2,0\} \{3\} \{4\{0,3\} 3,2\} 01\} \{1,0,5\} |  |
|  |  | \{1,0\} 00$\}\{2$ \{0\} 0,1\} |  |
| Niey | inequality characteristic | $\{5,01\}\{1\{2,5\}\{3\}\{4\{5,3\} 3,2\} 02\}$ | 2 |
|  |  | \{0,02\} \{1 \{2,0\} \{3\} \{4\{0,3\} 3,2\} 01$\}\{1,0,5\}$ |  |
|  |  | \{1,0\} 00$\} 0\{2\{0\} 1\}$ |  |
| Nminy | minority characteristic | \{2,01\} 2 \{3\} \{4 \{1,3\} 3,2\} 02\} \{0\} \{2\{0\} 0,1\} | 2 |
| Nemiy | equal-minority charact. | $\{2,01\}\{3\}\{4\{1,3\} 3,2\} 02\}\{0\}\{2\{0\} 0,1\}$ | 2 |

[^2]Table 8. Some important primitive-fagon-number strings (to be continued)

${ }^{1)}$ does not collide with other string forming rules
Table 8. Some important primitive-fagon-number strings (continuation)

I rewrite the number Niey for the equality characteristic of the above table. With the usual characters for eight and nine I get the following more familiar form of a number that is close to $10^{95}$. If you think that this is a big number, just wait for sections 6.5 and 6.6 :

## 5. FAGATOR calculator

### 5.1 Bootstrap mechanism

So far I have described the action of an FAGACUS computer when it is fed a primitive-fagon-number as program. What happens in the two cases when the given number is not a primitive-fagon-number?

In the first case it is a herbum-number, i.e. not an fagon-number. The above rules for computation cannot be applied and therefore I assign arbitrarily that the FAGACUS computer does not halt in this case, but rather keeps on forever.

In the second case it is a complex-fagon-number. In this case one can apply the above rules but there are two possibilities when applied to a certain input, either the computer halts after a finite number of steps or it does not. At the moment I do not go into the question if it can be decided whether it halts or not. In any case that is where the problems may arise, the predetermined breaking point, if you wish.

The important thing is that there exist primitive-fagon-number strings Nfagy, Nhery, Npary and Ncary that give rise to characteristic functions via fagation by which it can be checked if a number string is

```
- fagon-number
- herbum-number**
- primitive-fagon-number
- complex-fagon-number
```

```
\forallN1 [[fagon-number(N1)] [ TRUTH((N1)Nfagy = 0)]]
\forallN1 [ [ herbum-number(N1)] [TRUTH((Ni)Nhery = 0)]]
\forallN1 [[ primitive-fagon-number(N1)]\leftrightarrow[TRUTH((Ni)Npary = 0)]]
\forallN1 [[ complex-fagon-number(N1)] ↔[TRUTH((Ni)Nxary = 0 )]]
```

I do not go into the concept of truth in this publication, just note that I have written the metaproperty TRUTH with a first capital letter; by this I indicate that this is in general not a decidable metaproperty, whereas a metaproperty like fagon-number is decidable.

I talk about a bootstrap*) mechanism as one can apply Nfagy to itself and gets (Nfagy)Nfagy $=0$ thereby stating primitive-fagon-number(Nfagy)

These primitive-fagon-number strings are rather difficult to construct and are not developped in this publication. I just sketch how a programmer has to proceed in the construction of Nfagy. If you are familiar with primitive recursive functions it is immediately clear that these characteristic functions are primitive recursive. The necessary loops that run over all characters from left to right the number string have of a luxurious majorant given by the number string itself.

- Firstly one has to check the acco-lade-structure: starting from the left one checks digit by digit if the count of accos \{ never gets below the count of lades \} and that if at the right end the two counts match.
- Secondly one checks that no $\{\{$ or $\}\}$ occur
- Thirdly one checks that it does not contain multiply prenulled octal numbers.

For the construction of Npary one fourthly checks that the counter and limit fields of all accolades do at most appear inside the accolade as limit fields or in the fast-finish-form $\{$ counter, limit $\}$.

The intrinsic top-down-structure of the command language $\mathbf{A 0}$ allows for a check if a number string is a primitive-fagon-number string. I do not see a similar possibility for a command language with referenced branchings (like in Abacus- or Register-programs).

### 5.2 Two-layer-computation for fagation

Now everything is prepared to define the full action of the calculators NFAGA(N;..;N) when applied to arguments of program in first position and normal input in the adjoining positions, e.g. multiplication $\mathrm{N} \times$ with binary input:

NFAGA( $\{\{2\{1,0,01\} 02\} ; 734 ; 1\{ )=(734 ; 1\{ )\{2\{1,0,01\} 02\}$
primitive-term*):: number-argument number
Every number can be applied to every number-argument. If the arity of the number does not coincide with the arity of the number-argument the calculators obeys the following rule:

- argument positions that are higher than the arity of the number are ignored
- missing argument positions that are required due to the arity of the number are taken as zero

Remember, per definitionem a computer may or may not halt, a calculator always halts. A program can be performed on a computer or on a calculator. Now I am going to construct the fagation calculator from the FAGACUS computer. To this end I introduce
(idea 6) FAGATOR two-layer-calculator for primitive recursion, as a new paradigm.
In a single calculation more than one application of a computer may occur; infinitely many applications would not make sense. Some finite logic may connect the various layers*). The important rule for the multiple application of computers within calculators is that no-halt-situations are excluded. There is no reason why the so defined calculator should not be used more than once, i.e. in many levels*) of a calculation, as I will show in the next section.

In concrete calcule NU two layers are sufficient, where I use bootstrap mechanism with Npary on layer 1 in order to check if the given program is a primitive-fagon-number string; you get this result after a finite count of steps. On layer 2 the actual computation is performed; as no non-halting loops can occur you get a result after a finite count of steps. For herbum-number strings the trivial result is zero , I call them Nully ${ }^{* *)}$. The overwhelming majority of number strings is Nully (see also remark at the end of section 3.3). The following simple diagram describes the new calculator:


Figure 3. Flow-diagram fagation calculator (see table 6 and figure 2 )

## 6. Investigating fagations

### 6.1 Definition of pattern, term and scheme strings

In the following I will no longer talk of functions but only of scheme strings. As you may have noticed I have only used the word "function" in common language but I have never used a word function in metalanguage Mencish. There is deeper meaning in that as functions are equivalence classes of scheme strings (of denumerably infinite cardinality), but I will not go into this any further.

I define pattern*) strings:

```
pattern-array :: pattern | pattern-array ; pattern
pattern-argument :: ( ) \ ( pattern-array )
pattern ::
number-dingus \ pattern-argument pattern
```

A pattern string without a number-variable is called term*) string, a term string can be called a nullarypattern**) string. A pattern string with at least one number-variable is called scheme*) string. According to the highest appearing number-variable one has positary-scheme**) i.e. unary-scheme, binary-scheme, trinary-scheme ... strings, I speek of free arity.

According to the count of different number or number-constant strings one has once-parametricscheme, twice-parametric-scheme, thrice-parametric-scheme ... strings, I speek of parametric arity.

### 6.2 Primitive recursion and primitive-scheme strings

Now that the proper language is installed I am prepared to investigate the concrete calcule NU that gives rise to fagative ${ }^{* *)}$ functions that are given through scheme strings and whose evaluation are written as term strings.

The calculators of all arities has been designed to perform calculations for a given program number string and input number strings of given arity, e.g. the addition of 3 and 4 by $(3 ; 4)\{0,01\}\{1,0,02\}=7$ that one can abbreviate by using the number-constant string $\mathrm{N}+$ to give $(3 ; 4) \mathrm{N}+=7$. In the language of the preceding section $(3 ; 4)\{0,01\}\{1,0,02\}$ and $(3 ; 4) \mathrm{N}+$ are term strings.

What I am interested in now are primitive-scheme strings, e.g. the binary addition with two numbervariable strings ( $\mathrm{N} 1 ; \mathrm{N} 2$ ) $\mathrm{N}+$ which I call a binary-primitive-scheme string, as it contains number-variable strings in the input argument positions and a number-constant string in the program position.

```
primitive-scheme*) :: number-dingus-argument number-constant ;
    number-dingus-argument number
```

A scheme string that is not a primitive-scheme string is called a complex-scheme*) string.
In section 4.2 it was remarked that it is trivial that all primitive recursive functions and only those can be obtained by applying the FAGACUS computer to a primitive-fagon-number string as program. It is also immediately clear that the FAGATOR calculator produces all primitive recursive functions and only those, by applying it to number strings; in the first layer all non-primitive-fagon-number strings are singled out to produce nullification (function that is always zero). In the second layer the actual calculation is performed. Primitive fagative is the same as primitive recursive.

One does not have to worry that so many numbers give rise to nullification and that for every function there is an infinity of possible primitive-fagon-number strings. There is room enough for everybody. Such is the world of numbers: very big.

### 6.3 Multilevel-calculations for fagation, primative-scheme and exotic-scheme strings

So far it may look that fagation is just another method to calculate primitive recursive functions. But let us look at composition of functions. Composition of functions means that one inserts one function into another, e.g. the simplest case in traditional notation $\mathrm{f}(\mathrm{g}(\mathrm{x}))$. Of course one can do this with scheme strings and obtain other scheme strings, actually I have already done this when recursively defining scheme strings in section 6.1 .

In section 3.2 I have already singled out the first argument position of the calculator functions e.g. NFAGA $\left(\mathrm{N}_{1} ; \mathrm{N}_{2} ; \mathrm{N}_{3}\right)=\left(\mathrm{N} 2 ; \mathrm{N}_{3}\right) \mathrm{N}_{1}$ by using synonymous Bavaria-notation, that puts the program number behind the argument. The reason ${ }^{1)}$ was that the program number (in the example $\mathrm{N}_{1}$ ) of the first position is treated completely different from the input-argument (in the example N 2 ; N 3 ) that follows it. In a completely natural way there appears

```
(idea 7) multi-level-calculation including procession*) for non-primitive functions.
```

It means that there are two types of compositions, with far reaching consequences. I call it primative ${ }^{* *)}$ when the insertion happens in the input-argument and I call it processive ${ }^{* *)}$ when the insertion takes place in the program number. If one inserts functions into each other one has various levels of composition, that is why I call it multilevel-calculation*).

A scheme string is called a primative-scheme string, when all insertions are primative, otherwise it is called a processive-scheme string. A scheme string is called an orthodox-scheme*) string, when no number-variable strings appear in the place of program number, otherwise it is called a paradox$\boldsymbol{s c h e m e}^{*)}$ string. A scheme string is called a conventional-scheme*) string, when it is both a primativescheme and an orthodox-scheme string. A scheme string that is not a conventional-scheme string is called an exotic-scheme ${ }^{*)}$ string.

As long as one has conventional-scheme strings and inserts them into each other in input positions, or as I say uses primation**) only, one stays in the world of conventional-scheme strings, is it closed under this type of composition. This corresponds to the fact that primitive recursive functions are closed under composition.

Theorem A: $\forall \mathrm{N} 1[\forall \mathrm{~N} 2[\exists \mathrm{~N} 3[\forall \mathrm{~N} 4[((\mathrm{~N} 4) \mathrm{N} 2) \mathrm{N} 1=(\mathrm{N} 4) \mathrm{N} 3]]]]$
Proof idea:
There is a primitive-fagon-number Nuuc such that $\mathrm{N}_{3}=\left(\mathrm{N}_{1} ; \mathrm{N}_{2}\right) \mathrm{Nuuc}_{\text {, }}$, the result is a concatenation $\mathrm{N}_{1}$ $\{1\}\{2\} . . .\{01,0\}\{0\}$ N 2 with sufficient scratch field deletions in between.

All theorems of that type can be combined in metatheorems
Metatheorems $\boldsymbol{A}$ : Every conventional-scheme string can be replaced by a primitive-scheme string
$\forall N_{1}\left[\right.$ [ unary-conventional-scheme( $N_{1}$ )] $\rightarrow$
[ $\exists \mathrm{N}_{2}\left[\left[\right.\right.$ number $\left.\left.\left.\left.\left(\mathrm{N}_{2}\right)\right] \wedge\left[\operatorname{TRUTH}\left(\forall \mathrm{N} 1\left[\mathrm{~N}_{1}=(\mathrm{N} 1) \mathrm{N}_{2}\right]\right)\right]\right]\right]\right]$
$\forall N_{1}[$ [binary-conventional-scheme(N1)] $\rightarrow$
[ $\exists \mathrm{N} 2\left[\right.$ [number( $\left.\left.\mathrm{N}_{2}\right)\right] \wedge$ [TRUTH( $\left.\left.\left.\left.\left.\forall \mathrm{N} 1\left[\forall \mathrm{~N} 2\left[\mathrm{~N}_{1}=(\mathrm{N} 1 ; \mathrm{N} 2) \mathrm{N}_{2}\right]\right]\right)\right]\right]\right]\right]$
${ }^{1)}$ besides abbreviation an aesthetical reason for this notation is given by the direction that the calculator works: first the memory is filled with the values of input and then (after the program check) the computation cursor starts moving from left to right (except for backward jumps at the end of accolades)

### 6.4 Procession and generators

I brought up idea 4 of direct coding which says that every number string is a program although the most number strings just lead to the constantion zero. But it brings a a completely new quality into calculation: you calculate a number string and use this as a new program. When I write it in Bavarianotation it becomes clear why I call it procession, look e.g. at the following scheme as an example: $\left(\mathrm{N}_{2}\right)\left(\mathrm{N}_{1}\right)\{1\} 1$

Like in most cases the first result is trivial, i.e. $(\mathrm{N} 1)\{1\} 1=0$ and as $(\mathrm{N} 2) 0=1$ the result is the unication (it gives constant value 1).

But I can force interesting results when the first result is itself a nontrivial primitive-fagon-number string. Look at the following examples of identation and hidden addition:
$(\mathrm{N} 2)(\mathrm{N} 1)\{0,01\}=(\mathrm{N} 2) \mathrm{N}_{1}$
$\left(\mathrm{N}_{1} ; \mathrm{N} 2\right)\left(\{0,01\}\left\{1,0,02\{ ) \mathrm{N}^{\prime}=\left(\mathrm{N}_{1} ; \mathrm{N} 2\right)\{0,01\}\{1,0,02\}=(\mathrm{N} 1 ; \mathrm{N} 2) \mathrm{N}+\right.\right.$
Besides similar rather amusing constellations there is the very important case that the first result is a nontrivial primitive-fagon-number string for all input. I say that the the first program primitive-fagonnumber string is a Generator-number*) string. It is not decidable by a general method if a primitive-fagon-number string is a Generator-number string, but this poses no problem. One has to demonstrate this in every single case.

By the way generator-technique is well established in applied computing (so-called fourth-generationlanguages, where here the word "generation" has nothing to do with generating, but with progress).

In section 6.5 and 6.6 I will give important examples for the generator-technique. It will turn out that problems that have lead to the extension from primitive recursive functions to recursive functions (via the inclusion of minimisation) are so much easier solved with processive-scheme strings.

### 6.5 Hyperexponention

The following series of binary functions was first given by Hilbert [1] p.185: hyperexponentiation**, ordered by degree. The binary input in fields 01 and 02 is called base and power.

| number- <br> constant | description | primitive-fagon-number |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Nmp <br> $(0)$ Nhxpg | multiplication variant $\mathrm{x}^{*} \mathrm{y}$ | $\{2,02\}\{0\}$ |
| $\mathrm{N}^{\wedge}$ | hyperexponentiation degree 0 | $\{3\{1,0,01\} 2\}$ |
| $(1) \mathrm{Nhxpg}$ | hypenentiation variant $\mathrm{x}^{\mathrm{y}}$ | $\{4,02\}\{0\} 0\{5$ |
|  |  | $\{2,02\}\{0\}$ |
| $\mathrm{N}^{\wedge \wedge}$ | superexponentiation | $\{3\{1,0,01\} 2\} 4\}$ |
| $(2) \mathrm{Nhxpg}$ | hyperexponentiation degree 2 | $\{6,02\}\{0\} 0\{7$ |
|  |  | $\{2,0\}\{0\} 0\} 0$ |
|  |  | $\{3\{1,0,01\} 2\} 4\} 6\}$ |
| $\mathrm{N}^{\wedge \wedge \wedge}$ | supersuperexponentiation | $\{10,02\}\{0\} 0\{11$ |
| (3)Nhxpg | hyperexponentiation degree 3 | $\{6,02\}\{0\} 0\{7$ |
|  |  | $\{4,0\}\{0\} 0\{5$ |
|  |  | $\{2,0\}\{0\}$ |
|  |  | $\{3\{1,0,01\} 2\} 4\} 6\} 10\}$ |
| $\ldots$ | and so on |  |

Table 9. Hyperexponentiation primitive-fagon-number strings (for binary scheme)

Looking at the last columns one immediately can see the rule for the generator which works up to a given degree by concatenation of the slightly manipulated ( $\boldsymbol{z}$ : leave away 2 from 02 ) preceding string in front and at the rear with two number strings that follow a simple rule.

It is not difficult to construct a possible number Nhxpg although it may be very lengthy, just think of the starting number (in usual decimal notation 828902980983818908901929 ) for input 0 . You do a loop with the degree as limit and then you concatenate two numbers, one in front, one behind. These pre- and post-numbers follow a simple rule. Concatenation can be built from simple primitive-fagon-number strings of table 8 and one needs some rather lengthy constantions like e.g. the above starting number.
$\left(\mathrm{N}_{2} ; \mathrm{N}_{3}\right)\left(\mathrm{N}_{1}\right) \mathrm{Nh}_{2}$ xpg is a trinary-processive-scheme with degree $\mathrm{N}_{1}$, base $\mathrm{N}_{2}$ and power $\mathrm{N}_{3}$.
In a very natural and simple fashion I get the special case of the Ackermann function that is contained in hyperexponentiation, as given by Hilbert [1] p. 185 . When defining these functions with minimisation it is quite complicated. Have you ever seen a textbook where the mimimisation for the Ackermann function has been written down explicitely? Here it is obtained without leaving the concrete calcule NU that is based on primitive recursive functions but obviously allows for much more.

|  | $2 \times \mathrm{N} 1$ | $2^{\wedge} \mathrm{N} 1$ | $2^{\wedge \wedge} \mathrm{N} 1$ | $2^{\wedge \wedge \wedge} \mathrm{N}_{1}$ | $2^{\wedge \wedge \wedge \wedge} \mathrm{N}_{1}$ |  |
| :---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| degree <br> power | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | $\ldots$ |
| 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | $\ldots$ |
| 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | $\ldots$ |
| 2 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | $\ldots$ |
| 3 | 6 | 8 | 16 | 65336 |  | $\ldots$ |
| 4 | 8 | 16 | 65336 |  |  | $\ldots$ |
| $\ldots$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |

Table 10. Hyperexponentiation lowest values for base 2

In the preceding section I have said that one has to prove the Generator property of a number string in every single case.

Theorem B: Existence of a Generator-number Nhxpg for hyperexponentiation. Applied to a number string it produces a primitive-fagon-number string.
$\forall \mathrm{N} 1$ [ ((N1)Mhxpg)Npary = 0 ]
Proof idea: follows from the very construction
I call a direct proof in a concrete calcule a demonstration; besides that one can prove by deductions too. It is a very intersting question and a big field of future work to find out what rules govern the demonstrations in a concrete calcule.

I have shown an example that via procession one can construct other scheme strings within the concrete calcule NU of decimal fagation natural numbers that calculates genuinely recursive functions, e.g.the hyperexponentiation. These scheme strings are complex.

### 6.6 Hyperincrementation

You may think that the unary-scheme as obtained from hyperexponentiation, where base power and degree have the same value $(\mathrm{N} 1 ; \mathrm{N} 1)(\mathrm{N} 1) \mathrm{Nhxpg}$ is an extremely fast growing function. But one can do even better.

I introduce the concept with the innocent name of hyperincrementation**); it means the series of fastest growth ( incrementatio citissime) given by unary-scheme strings.

A rather metaphoric comparison: just as the velocity of light poses an upper limit for all physical motions the consecutive hyperincrementation poses an upper limit for the numbers that can be calculated with a certain expenditure.

The size of an fagon-number string is defined by the count of fields that appear in it. The size is calculated by a primitive-scheme string through a primitive-fagon-number string Nsiz. The count of accolades, i.e. matching pairs \{ \} (which includes commas) is equal to size if the number string ends with character $\}$ and the predecessor of size if the last digit is an octal number

The idea is: when you look at a primitive-fagon-number string you can ask: what is the fastest growth you can produce with a primitive-fagon-number string of the same size.

Another measurement in this context is the depth given by Ndep that gives the maximum of nested accolades, because in nesting of accolades you get the best explosion rate.

| numberconstant | description | measurements | number |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Ndp (0)Nhicg | duplication 2 x degree 0 | size 5 , depth 1 | \{0,01\} \{1,0,01\} |
| Nic <br> (1)Nhicg | incrementation $2^{x} x$ degree 1 | size 9 , depth 2 | $\begin{aligned} & \{0,01\}\{1\{2,0\} \\ & \{3,0,2\} 01\} \end{aligned}$ |
| Nsic (2)Nhicg | superincrementation degree 2 | size 13, depth 3 | $\begin{aligned} & \{0,01\}\{1\{2,0\} \\ & \{3\{4,0\} \\ & \{5,0,4\} 2\} 01\} \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ |
| Nssic <br> (3)Nhicg | supersuperincrementation degree 3 | size 17 , depth 4 | $\begin{aligned} & \{0,01\}\{1\{2,0\} \\ & \{3\{4,0\} \\ & \{5\{6,0\} \\ & \{7,0,6\} 4\} 2\} 01\} \end{aligned}$ |
| $\ldots$ | and so on |  |  |

Table 11. hyperincrementation primitive-fagon-number strings (for unary-scheme)
And again I have a relatively simple generator Nhicg for this series, where the members are unaryscheme strings that grow eventually faster than any other unary-scheme string of the same size. It can be constructed along similar lines as shwown in the preceding section for hyperexponentiation.

Problem: find the series for nullary hyperincrementation, i.e. the primitive-fagon-number strings that produce the largest output without any input field for a given size of the string (it may be a little tricky for small sizes).

### 6.7 Majorant scheme strings

As hyperincrementation functions are the fastest growing functions for a given depth, they allow to determine majorants for all primitive-scheme strings.

Theorem C : A certain degree of hyperincrementation provides an eventual majorant for unary-primitive-scheme strings
$\forall \mathrm{N} 1$ [ $\exists \mathrm{N} 2[\exists \mathrm{~N} 3[\forall \mathrm{~N} 4[[(\mathrm{~N} 3 ; \mathrm{N} 4) \mathrm{Nemiy}=\mathrm{Nn}] \rightarrow[((\mathrm{N} 4) \mathrm{N} 1 ;(\mathrm{N} 4)(\mathrm{N} 2) \mathrm{Nhicg}) \mathrm{Nemiy}=\mathrm{Nn}]]]]]$ where Nemiy is the equal-minority-characteristic

## Proof idea:

If $\mathrm{N}_{1}$ is not a primitive-fagon-number it is trivial, take $\mathrm{N} 2=0$
Otherwise take $\left(\left(\mathrm{N}_{1}\right) \mathrm{Ndepth}\right) \mathrm{N}^{\prime}$ as N 2
Problem: find a total majorant for unary-primitive-scheme strings (that also takes care of small input values). Using that majorant one can also give a majorant for the count of steps that is needed in the calculation of the values of the unary-primitive-scheme string for a value (just multiply by the size of the program number ).

### 6.8 Other exotic-scheme strings, especially paradox-scheme strings

In the preceding sections there were processive-scheme strings like hyperexponentiation and hyperincrementation as examples of exotic-scheme strings. As another example of a processivescheme string take the denumeration (with repetitions) of all generated unary-primitive-scheme strings with two levels:

A binary-bis-procession-scheme string:
( N 2 )((N1)Ncol )(N1)Nrow
and its diagonal
( N 1 )((N1)Ncol)(N1)Nrow
There are other even more exotic exotic-scheme strings in concrete calcule NU of decimal fagation natural numbers, paradox-scheme strings that have at least one number-variable string in a program position. The simplest example is
the zero value unary-paradox-scheme:
(Nn)N1
There are paradox-scheme strings that do not contain any number or number-constant strings. I call them ex-nihilo-scheme*) strings, they seem to come ex nihilo, from nowhere. Two simple examples are
the diagonal unary-ex-nihilo-scheme string: ( $\mathrm{N}_{1}$ ) $\mathrm{N}_{1}$
the trinary-ex-nihilo-scheme string:
( N 3 ) $\left(\mathrm{N}_{2}\right) \mathrm{N}_{1}$
The above diagonalisations do not lead outside fagative functions as the diagonalisation only relates to a class of fagative functions, the results are proper scheme strings.

It is clear that exotic-scheme strings do not give primitive recursive functions. What then? Do they correspond to recursive functions? It was shown that in section 6.5 . and 6.6 that at least some processive-scheme strings like hyperexponentiation and hyperincrementation do. In sections 7.4 and 8.1 I will further discuss this question.

## 7. Metainvestigating fagations

### 7.1 Definition of phrase, sentence and formula strings

In section 6.1 I have defined scheme strings that give rise to functions. Now I am going to define phrase*) , sentence and formula*) strings (the latter giving rise to relations).

```
positive-nullitive-phrase :: pattern= nullum-thing | nullum-thing= pattern
negative-nullitive-phrase :: pattern = nullum-thing | nullum-thing \not= pattern
nullitive-phrase**) :: positive-nullitive-phrase | negative-nullitive-phrase
positive-equitive-phrase :: pattern1 = pattern2
negative-equitive-phrase :: pattern1 = pattern2
equitive-phrase**) :: positive-equitive-phrase | negative-equitive-phrase
```

The binary metarelation bound-in means that the number-variable does appear bound. The binary metarelation free-in means that the number-variable appears genuinely, but not bound, and therefore can be bound. phrase strings are constructed metarecursively from equitive-phrase strings by junctive logic and quantive logic operators:

```
\forallN1 [[phrase(N1)] @ [[ equitive-phrase(N1)]v
[\existsN2[\existsN3[\existsN4[[[[[[number-variable(N3)]^[free-in(N2;N3)]]^
[phrase(N2)]]^[phrase(N4)]]^ [[[[[[[N1= ᄀ[N3]]\vee[N1 = [ N2]^[ N4]]]v
```




A phrase string without a free number-variable string is called nullitive-phrase or sentence string, a phrase string with free number-variable string is called formula string. A formula string has an arity ??? that is given by the highest free number-variable string.

```
arithmetic-prog-number-thing:: Nnullum |{0} |{0, input-field } {
    N' | {0,01} 0 {N+ | {0,01}{1,0,02} | N\times | {2 {1,0,01} 02}
arithmetic-pattern-array :: arithmetic-pattern | arithmetic-pattern-array; arithmetic-pattern
arithmetic-pattern-argument :: ( ) | (arithmetic-pattern-array )
arithmetic-pattern*) :: number-dingus;
    arithmetic-pattern-argument arithmetic-prog-number-thing
```

You get arithmetic-phrase, arithmetic-sentence and arithmetic-formula strings if you replace in the above definitions pattern by arithmetic-pattern and phrase by arithmetic-phrase accordingly. The arithmetic-scheme strings correspond to the multinomials; example of a trinary multinomial in traditional notation: $3+7 \mathrm{x}_{3}+2 \mathrm{x}_{1}{ }^{2} \mathrm{x}_{2}+53 \mathrm{x}_{1}{ }^{3} \mathrm{x}_{2}{ }^{5} \mathrm{x}_{3}{ }^{6}$.

### 7.2 Arithmetic representability of fagative functions

Already the first result of Gödel's famous paper [2] of 1931 was quite surprising: all primitive recursive are arithmetically representable. I can transfer this result immediately to calcule NU :

Metatheorem B: All primitive-scheme strings of a given arity are arithmetically representable
$\forall N_{1}$ [ [number(N1)] $\rightarrow$ [ $\mathrm{NN}_{2}$ [[ binary-arithmetic-formula(N2)]^
[TRUTH( $\left.\left.\left.\left.\left.\forall \mathrm{N} 1\left[\forall \mathrm{~N} 2\left[\left[(\mathrm{~N} 1) N_{1}=\mathrm{N}_{2}\right] \leftrightarrow\left[\mathrm{N}_{2}\right]\right]\right]\right)\right]\right]\right]\right]$
$\forall N_{1}$ [ [ number(N1)] $\rightarrow$ [ $\mathrm{ZN}_{2}$ [[ trinary-arithmetic-formula(N2)]^
[TRUTH( $\left.\left.\left.\left.\left.\forall \mathrm{N} 1\left[\forall \mathrm{~N} 2\left[\forall \mathrm{~N} 3\left[\left[(\mathrm{~N} 1 ; \mathrm{N} 2) N_{1}=\mathrm{N} 3\right] \leftrightarrow\left[\mathrm{N}_{2}\right]\right]\right]\right]\right)\right]\right]\right]\right]$ and higher arities ...

And as conventional-scheme strings can be replaced by primitive-scheme it holds
Metatheorem C: All conventional-scheme strings are arithmetically representable
In the Princeton group [4] [5] of 1936 it was shown that all recursive functions are arithmetically representable too. How about fagative functions, is there a corresponding metatheorem for exoticscheme strings? I can show it immediately for those processive-scheme strings that are known to give recursive functions, like e.g. hyperexponentiation.

Metatheorem $\boldsymbol{D}$ : Hyperexponentiation is arithmetically representable
ZN1 [ [quaternary-arithmetic-formula(N1)]^
[TRUTH( $\forall \mathrm{N} 1$ [ $\left.\left.\left.\left.\forall \mathrm{N} 2\left[\forall \mathrm{~N} 3\left[\forall \mathrm{~N} 4\left[[(\mathrm{~N} 2 ; \mathrm{N} 3)(\mathrm{N} 1) \mathrm{Nhxpg}=\mathrm{N} 4] \leftrightarrow\left[\mathrm{N}_{1}\right]\right]\right]\right]\right]\right)\right]\right]$
Proof idea: take the same arithmetic-formula string $N_{1}$ as one has for recursive functions.
So far I have shown that all conventional-scheme strings and some exotic-scheme strings are arithmetically representable. This brings up the interesting question if all scheme strings are arithmetically representable. In section 7.4 I will further discuss this question.

### 7.3 Undecidable sentences and the identity problem

With respect to undecidability theorems and metatheorems there are no changes in concrete calcule $\underline{\mathrm{NU}}$ in comparison to recursive functions: there is no general effective decision procedure. For simplicity I just take the unary case and define Nully, Unnully $\boldsymbol{y}^{* *)}$, Posy ${ }^{* *)}$ and Unposy ${ }^{* * *}$ strings (for some strange reasons in mathematical logics Unposy is called regular, although this word is used in other areas of mathematics in some other completely different meanings).:

```
\forallN1 [[ number(N1)] }
[[[[[unary-primitive-Nully(N1)]\leftrightarrow[TRUTH(\forallN1[(N1)N1=0 ])]]^
[[unary-primitive-Unnully(N1)]\leftrightarrow[TRUTH( \existsN1 [(N1)N1\not= 0 ])]]]^
[[unary-primitive-Posy(N1)]\leftrightarrow[TRUTH(\forallN1[(N1)N1\not= 0 ])]]]^^
[[unary-primitive-Unposy(N1)]\leftrightarrow[TRUTH( \existsN1 [(N1)N1=0 ])]]]]
\forallN1[ \forallN2 [[[number(N1)]^[number(N2)]] }
[[unary-primitive-equality(N1;N2)] ↔[TRUTH(\forallN1[(N1)N1=(N1)N2])]]]]
```

Decidability refers to sentences. At what tier of languages (see section 2.2) does one talk about decidability? A decision for a sentence string is a mapping of the sentence string to a value true or false. Such a mapping can be performed by a calculation only with respect to numbers that appear in the sentence string of a class of sentence strings. As two examples:

Primitive decision means that a primitive-scheme string is to be evaluated. Effective decision means that an effective-scheme*) string is to be evaluated.

Theorem D: Primitive undecidability if a number string is unary-primitive-Nully or unary-primitiveUnnully or unary-primitive-Posy or unary-primitive-Unposy :
$\neg[\exists \mathrm{N} 1[\forall \mathrm{~N} 2[[(\mathrm{~N} 2) \mathrm{N} 1=0] \leftrightarrow[\forall \mathrm{N} 3[(\mathrm{~N} 3) \mathrm{N} 2=0]]]]$
$\neg[\exists \mathrm{N} 1[\forall \mathrm{~N} 2[[(\mathrm{~N} 2) \mathrm{N} 1=0] \leftrightarrow[\exists \mathrm{N} 3[(\mathrm{~N} 3) \mathrm{N} 2 \neq 0]]]]$
$\neg[\exists \mathrm{N} 1[\forall \mathrm{~N} 2[[(\mathrm{~N} 2) \mathrm{N} 1=0] \leftrightarrow[\exists \mathrm{N} 3[(\mathrm{~N} 3) \mathrm{N} 2=0]]]]$
$\neg[\exists \mathrm{N} 1[\forall \mathrm{~N} 2[[(\mathrm{~N} 2) \mathrm{N} 1=0] \leftrightarrow[\forall \mathrm{N} 3[(\mathrm{~N} 3) \mathrm{N} 2 \neq 0]]]]$
Proof idea: (for the first case unary-primitive-Nully, other cases similarily)
Suppose the contrary $\exists \mathrm{N}_{1}\left[\forall \mathrm{~N} 2\left[\left[(\mathrm{~N} 2) \mathrm{N}_{1}=0\right] \leftrightarrow\left[\forall \mathrm{N}_{3}\left[(\mathrm{~N} 3) \mathrm{N}_{2}=0\right]\right]\right]\right.$
Choose $\mathrm{N}_{2}$ as a concatenated string constructed from such an $\mathrm{N}_{1}$ as: $\mathrm{N}_{2}=\mathrm{N}_{1}\{2,0\}\{0\} 0\{1\{0\} 2\}$
This gives the negation of $\mathrm{N}_{1}$
Insert [ $\left.\left(\mathrm{N}_{1}\{2,0\}\{0\} 0\{1\{0\} 2\}\right) \mathrm{N}_{1}=0\right] \leftrightarrow\left[\forall \mathrm{N}_{3}\left[(\mathrm{~N} 3) \mathrm{N}_{1}\{2,0\}\{0\} 0\{1\{0\} 2\}=0\right]\right]$
And there is the desired contradiction
Theorem E: Primitively undecidability of unary-primitive-equality of unary-primitive-schemes strings
$\neg[\exists \mathrm{N} 1[\forall \mathrm{~N} 2[\forall \mathrm{~N} 3[[(\mathrm{~N} 2 ; \mathrm{N} 3) \mathrm{N} 1=\mathrm{Nn}] \leftrightarrow[\forall \mathrm{N} 4[(\mathrm{~N} 4) \mathrm{N} 2=(\mathrm{N} 4) \mathrm{N} 3]]]]$
Proof idea:
Applying equality characteristic Neqy it can be reduced to the question if a string is unary-primitiveNully as the unary-scheme string of the equivalent equitive-phrase ((N4)N2;(N4)N3)Neqy = Nn can be replaced by a concatenated unary-scheme string (N4)N2 N4 N3 N5 Neqy where N4 stores the result in a scratch field that is not in $\mathrm{N}_{3}$ and inititalises output field and scratch fields of $\mathrm{N}_{3}$ and $\mathrm{N}_{5}$ puts the stored result of $\mathrm{N}_{2}$ into field 01 and the output of $\mathrm{N}_{3}$ into field 02 and inititalises output field and scratch fields of Neqy.

Let me return to the proof idea for the first case unary-primitive-Nully. One could think that the decision procedure of evaluating a unary-primitive-sentence string was chosen too simple. There are more possibilities, i.e. unary-effective-sentence strings.
effective-phrase*) strings are constructed metarecursively from equitive-phrase strings by junctive**) logic and limited quantive ${ }^{* *)}$ logic operators. Remember ( $\mathrm{N} 1 ; \mathrm{N} 2$ ) Nemiy $=\mathrm{N} n$ means N 1 less-equal N 2

```
\forallN1 [[ effective-phrase(N1)] ↔[[ equitive-phrase(N1)] v
```



```
[\neg[var-free-in(N2;N3)]]]^[var-free-in(N2;N4)]]^[effective-phrase(N4)]]^
[ effective-phrase(N5)]]^
[[[[[[N1 = [\neg[ N2]]]v
[N1=[N4]^[N5]]] v[N1=[N4]\vee[N5]]]\vee[N1=[N4]->[N5]]]v
[N1=\forallN2[[(N2;N3)Nemiy = Nn] 
[N1=\exists N2[[(N2;N3)Nemiy = Nn] [ [N4]]]]]]]]]]]]
```

The binary metarelation var-free-in( $N ; N$ ) means that the first string appears properly free in the second ( N 1 does not properly appear in $\mathrm{N}_{11}$ ). Every effective-phrase string can be calculated effectively for every booking of its number-variable strings. A booking is a replacement of numbervariable strings by number strings.

Metatheorem $\boldsymbol{F}$ : Effective undecidability if a number string is unary-primitive-Nully or unary-primitiveUnnully or unary-primitive-Posy or unary-primitive-Unposy, the first case for shortness, where the metafunction $\operatorname{NINSERT}(N ; N ; N)$ inserts the third string in the first string whereever the second string appears properly as a number-variable string :
$\neg\left[\exists N_{1}\right.$ [[unary-effective-scheme(N1)]^[ $\forall N_{2}$ [[number(N2)] $\rightarrow$
[TRUTH([ $\left.\left.\left.\left.\left.\left.\operatorname{NINSERT(N1;~} \mathrm{N}_{1} ; \mathrm{N}_{2}\right)\right] \leftrightarrow\left[\forall \mathrm{N} 1\left[\left(\mathrm{~N}_{1}\right) \mathrm{N}_{2}=0 \mathrm{l}\right]\right]\right]\right]\right]\right]$

Proof idea:
One proceeds in a similar fashion as was used in the last theorem. One reduces the problem to the question if there is an equivalent string for the unary-effective-scheme string that is unary-primitiveNully . Some of the tools are already in the toolbox of table 8 in section 4.3 : negation Nneg, conjunction Nand, disjunction Nor, equality Neqy, inequality Niey, equal-minority Nemiy : implication, biconditional are straightforward and others for limited omnication**) and for limited existication ${ }^{* *)}$ e.g. $\forall \mathrm{N}_{1}\left[\left[\left(\mathrm{~N}_{1} ; \mathrm{N} 2\right) \mathrm{Nemiy}=\mathrm{Nn}\right] \rightarrow \ldots\right.$ and $\exists \mathrm{N}_{1}\left[\left[\left(\mathrm{~N}_{1} ; \mathrm{N}_{2}\right) \mathrm{Nemiy}=\mathrm{Nn}\right] \wedge \ldots\right.$ can be added in a fashion similar to Cutland [6] p. 38. Without further discussion:

Metatheorem $\boldsymbol{E}$ : Effective undecidability if a number string is primitive-Nully or primitive-Unposy Metatheorem $\boldsymbol{F}$ : Effective undecidability if a scheme string is Nully or Unposy

It will be interesting to further investigate the matter of decidability. For the moment it is enough that the concrete calcule NU has undecidabilities and the identity problem. But as decidability depends on the concept of calculability one should always treat that concept first and decidabilty second.

### 7.4 Fagative versus recursive functions

What did I achieve by introducing concrete calcule $\underline{\mathrm{NU}}$ of decimal fagation natural numbers with its fagative functions in comparison to recursive functions? It is visualised in the following figure:


Figure 4. Set diagram of calculable decimal functions

In principle there are seven areas but the areas $\mathbf{C}, \mathbf{D}, \mathbf{E}, \mathbf{F}$ or $\mathbf{G}$ could be empty. As fagative functions contain all primitive recursive functions area $\mathbf{A}$ is not empty. As fagative functions e.g. contain hyperexponentiation that is not a primitive recursive function but a recursive function area $\mathbf{B}$ is not empty either. Areas $\mathbf{F}$ and $\mathbf{G}$ will be discussed in section 7.5 ? How about areas $\mathbf{C}, \mathbf{D}$ and $\mathbf{E}$ ?

Church's calculability thesis states that areas $\mathbf{C}, \mathbf{D}, \mathbf{F}$ and $\mathbf{G}$ are empty. If one of the areas $\mathbf{C}$ and $\mathbf{D}$ were nonempty it would mean that Church's calculability thesis is false, as there were calculable functions that are not recursive functions. This conjecture can be formulated as a metasentence about a concrete calcule MU that allows for a precise description of both recursion and fagation. In order to talk about both in one calcule one needs two more calculators Mloop(...) and Mhalt(...) that operate for a given number of steps in addition to the calculator MFAGA(...), but I cannot discuss it here.

There seems to be a good chance that at least some paradox-scheme strings can be shown to lead to recursive functions. Perhaps one can adapt the method that Cutland [6] p. 85-99. describes for universal functions. Perhaps can simulate the action of the calculator by means of a fix program that I call interpreter following the language of applied computing (compare the programming language BASIC in applied computing). Of course the interpreter has to include the check if a number string is a primitive-fagon-number string.

In principle exotic functions may appear in areas $\mathbf{C}$ and $\mathbf{D}$. Then the "Diagonal lemma" [7] and Gödel's first incompleteness thesis would need another justification. Otherwise one has to show that exotic functions all belong to area $\mathbf{B}$.

If area $\mathbf{E}$ were nonempty it would mean that there are recursive functions that are not fagative. I doubt it but I cannot prove it. This conjecture can be formulated precisely as a metasentence of the above sketched concrete calcule MU that allows for a precise description of both recursion and fagation.

Suppose it can be shown that areas $\mathbf{C}, \mathbf{D}$ and $\mathbf{E}$ are empty, then recursive and fagative functions are the same. That looks like a nice result, but what would be gained? A lot, as fagative functions are effectively denumerable as opposed to recursive functions. This is the cornerstone that following section is built on..

### 7.5 The extravagant Spark-function

I am aiming for a calculable function that is not fagative. It is obvious that the diagonal method is a sensible choice. Alonso [8a] quotes Kleene that he had realised that one cannot apply the diagonal method for recursive functions: "When Church proposed this thesis, I sat down to disprove it by diagonalising out the class of the lamda-definable functions. But quickly realising that the diagonalisation cannot be done effectively, I became overnight a supporter of the thesis".

Although the programs that give rise to recursive functions are effectively denumerable, recursive functions cannot effectively be marked in that series. This is what I have called the ontology problem in section 1.1. It is not a problem that it is an enumeration with repetitions, and it is not a problem that there is the identity problem of section 7.3 (it is not decidable if two programs belong to the same function). It is a problem of marking the good ones. In concrete calcule NU of decimal fagation natural numbers I cannot talk about "all fagative functions" either. However, I can do so effectively in its metacalcule $\underline{\boldsymbol{N U}}$ with the decidable metaproperty scheme, e.g.
$\forall N_{1}$ [ [ unary-scheme(N1)] $\rightarrow \ldots$ and it is a denumeration too: strings are denumerable!
If you want: I can effectively metatalk about all fagative functions and therefore I can apply the diagonal method. In order to do that properly I have to provide the tools. I start with
(idea 8) three-tier-multi-level-calculation as an extreme paradigm.

In the final passage of section 2.2 I have observed that metacalcules are essentially arithmetic: the strings of a finite alphabet of characters that a metacalcule is talking about can be considered as multal numbers (dual, decimal etc.). This means that one can define all fagative functions for these multal numbers. In addition one can define metarelations and metafunctions with reference to the objectcalcule (they start with a capital letter if the involved metaproperty TRUTH is not decidable).

I have defined unary-scheme strings of concrete calcule NU. Obviously it is decidable if strings are unary-scheme strings. They contain fifteen characters from a reduced alphabet of 35 characters of table 5 in section 3.1, as I do not allow the use of comma instead of $\}$ and of number-constant strings for the following considerations about a reduced concrete calcule $\underline{\mathrm{NU}}$ in the reduced metacalcule $\underline{N U}$.


Table 12. Reduced alphabets for reduced concrete calcule NU and for unary-scheme strings
The intrinsic fagative functions of the metacalcule $\underline{\boldsymbol{N U}}$ necessitate trigintiquintal FAGACUS and trigintiquintal FAGATOR with some programming language A35, but that is no problem, actually I just need the primitive recursive functions that are included in fagative functions. All the definitions of metarelations and meta-functions in preceding sections starting from section 3.1 with suffices that small suffices like e.g. fagon-number belong to this class, whereas metarelations and metafunctions with suffices that contain capital letters like e.g. Posy necessitate proofs in the concrete calcule NU of decimal fagation numbers for their evaluation.

For a series of all unary-scheme strings I take the series of trigintiquintal numbers in normal ascending order. The trigintiquintal numbers that are not unary-scheme strings appear in the series as well and are defined to be equivalent to the nullification unary-scheme string $\{0\}$, this is of course the vast majority. The procedure is similar to defining primitive-fagon-number strings of concrete calule NU , there just are different rules not for number strings but the entities of the concrete calcule NU , the trigintiquintal strings. And I remind you that the number strings of calcule NU are also strings of the metalanguage.

I can talk about the metaentities of the metalanguage in the metametalanguage. As I do it informally in this paper I use plain English (supralanguage), i.e. the common language instead of a genuine and separate meta-metalanguage.

I have a series of all unary-scheme strings, of course with a tremendous amount of trivial ones. When calculating the value of a unary-scheme string it is either 0 if it is trivial, or it is calculated for the input number by replacing all appearances of the number-variable string $\mathrm{N}_{1}$ by this number and then the machinery of the concrete calcule NU is started for the actual calculation.

Now I can convert every unary-scheme string coded by a trigintiquintal number into a decimal number by a conversion metafunction NTRIGINTIQUINTAL-TO-DECIMAL( $N$ ). The result is a number string.

There is the inverse metafunction NDECIMAL-TO-TRIGINTIQUINTAL( $N$ ) that converts decimal numbers to trigintiquintal numbers for number input, otherwise the result is put to zero. The result is a string.

I introduce the metafunction $\operatorname{NINSERT}$-UNARY-SCHEME $(N ; N)$ that puts the second string into the first string at all places instead of all appearances of the string $\mathrm{N}_{1}$ if the first string is a unary-scheme string and the second string is a number string; otherwise the result is put to zero. The result is a term string.

I introduce the metafunction $\operatorname{NSUCCESSOR}(\boldsymbol{N})$ that calculates its successor of the string, a trigintiquintal number. The result is a string, the next trigintiquintal number (succession is in metacalcule $\underline{\boldsymbol{N U}}$ ). It is immediately clear that all auxiliary metafunctions that are used in constructing it are total and primitive recursive with respect to the metacalcule $\underline{N U}$.

I finally introduce the metafunction $\operatorname{NEVALUATE}(N)$ that calculates the value of a-a term string, if the input is a term string, otherwise the result is put to zero. Therefore the result is always a number string. The calculation is done according to the rules of the concrete calcule $\underline{\mathrm{NU}}$ of decimal fagation natural numbers. This metafunction is not a primitive recursive with respect to the metacalcule $\underline{N U}$ but is precisely defined like follows (watch out for the different fonts of $=$ and $=$ ):

```
\forallN1 [\forallN2 [
[[[ term(N1)]^[number(N2)]]->[[NEVALUATE(N1)=N2]\leftrightarrow[TRUTH(N1=N2)]]]^
[[\neg[[ term(N1)]^[number(N2)]]]->[NEVALUATE(N1)=nullum ]]]]
```

Nobody can keep me away from evaluating the series of all unary-scheme strings for their own value, that has been converted into a decimal number string and take its successor. You see: classical diagonalisation producing a unary metascheme $\operatorname{NCHARGE}\left(N_{1}\right)$

## $\forall N_{1}$ [NCHARGE(N1) $=$ NSUCCESSOR(NDECIMAL-TO-TRIGINTIQUINTAL( NEVALUATE(NINSERT-UNARY-SCHEME(N1;NTRIGINTIQUINTAL-TO-DECIMAL(N1)))))]

From this unary metascheme I construct an extravagant*) function that I call the Spark-function*). The Spark-function is defined for all decimal numbers, the result is always a decimal number. It is obtained by translating the argument decimal number into a trigintiquintal number. Then the metafunction $\operatorname{NCHARGE}(\mathbf{N})^{*}$ is calculated for this trigintiquintal number, the result is translated back into a decimal number (decimal is necessary for comparison in figure 4). The Spark-function is not in the metacalcule $\underline{\boldsymbol{N U}}$, but is only describable in the third tier, the supralanguage. But you can also use the expression "calculable" only in the third tier, the supralanguage.

The metafunction $\operatorname{NCHARGE}(N)$ is not contained in the unary-scheme string series due to classical diagonalisation: therefore it is not an fagative function and the derived Spark-function is not an fagative function either. The important point is that it is calculable! It is sort of a new "Ackermann" function. How is the Spark-function to be placed. in figure 4 ? There are three possibilities:

1 recursive (and thus arithmetically representable)
2 arithmetically representable, but not recursive
3 not arithmetically representable and not recursive
in area $\mathbf{E}$
in area $\mathbf{F}$
in area $\mathbf{G}$

With possibilty 1 Church's calculability thesis could survive. With possibilty 2 Gödel's calculability thesis could survive. But for me there seems to be little chance that the Spark-function is arithmetically representable. As long as nobody shows that the Spark-function is arithmetically representable possibilty $\mathbf{3}$ cannot be ruled out with the consequence that the "Diagonal lemma" and Gödel's first incompleteness thesis are in limbo.

Remark: If somebody could show that the Spark-function is arithmetically representable, there still remain doubts as to Gödel's first incompleteness thesis. There may be many concrete arithmetical calcules, metacalcules thereof and even calcules of higher tier that embrace recursive functions and have more functions. Maybe these calcules cannot be combined into a single one. One could even think of an infinite ladder of metacalcules, where you take one function out of every ladder-step. Or other wild things in metacalcule NU like 0 (1)1 (2)(2)2 (3)(3)(3)3 and so on. Who knows about the fantasy of mathematicians and metamathematicians. There is not necessarily a "mother of all calculators". And somebody could come up with another proposal for another weird function that has yet to be shown to be arithmetically representable.

## 8. Conclusion

### 8.1 Challenging the defenders of Church's calculability thesis

If someone has formulated a thesis (or a conjecture) that all elements have a certain property, and someone puts forward a special precisely defined element it is the responsibilty of the defender of that thesis (or that conjecture) to show that this special element has this certain property. As long as it is not shown that thesis (or that conjecture) is in limbo. Such is the logic of a thesis (or a conjecture).

Church's calculability thesis states that all calculable functions are recursive functions. I have put forward fagative functions. Fagative functions are calculable. As they are given by the scheme strings of concrete calcule $\underline{\mathrm{NU}}$ of decimal fagation natural numbers they can be effectively denumerated in its metacalcule $\underline{N U}$. Therefore it is up to the defenders of Church's calculability thesis to show that all fagative functions are recursive.

Challenge 1.1: the defenders of Church's calculability thesis have to show that areas $\mathbf{C}$ and $\mathbf{D}$ of figure 4 are empty, meaning that there are no fagative functions that are not recursive. All exotic fagative functions have to be shown to be recursive, meaning that they all belong to area $\mathbf{B}$.

The challenge is formulated in a precise manner. As long as it is not answered in a correspondingly precise manner Church's calculability thesis is in limbo. The method of Cutland [6] p. 85-99 for universal functions may be a good starting point to meet this challenge.

Challenge 1.2: the defenders of Church's calculability thesis have to show that the Spark-function is recursive, meaning that possibilty $\mathbf{1}$ of figure 4 applies. No problems would then arise for Gödel's first incompleteness thesis.

### 8.2 Challenging the defenders of Gödel's calculability thesis

Gödels's calculability thesis is weaker than Church's. So there is less to show:
Challenge 2.1: the defenders of Gödels's calculability thesis have to show that area $\mathbf{D}$ of figure 4 is empty, i.e. that all exotic functions are arithmetically representable

Challenge 2.2: the defenders of Gödels's calculability thesis have to show that possibilities $\mathbf{1}$ or $\mathbf{2}$ of figure 4 apply, i.e. that the Spark-function is arithmetically representable.

No problems would then arise for Gödel's first incompleteness thesis.
I do not advise to put to much work right now into meeting challenge 2.2 . The results of section 7.5 has given me the courage for a forthcoming publication: I will present an abstract calcule of natural numbers, that seems to have a categorical set of axioms (see section 2.4), which would contradict some theorems of Skolem [3] and Gödel's first incompleteness thesis; the latter implies that there is no axiomatic system that completely describes natural numbers. Skolem stands for the large majority of mathematicians that adhere to a certain Platonism without which a lot of mathematics would not be possible but that has to be questioned when it comes to the matter of "effective" calculations. A critical analysis of Skolem's theorems is necessary.

### 8.3 Counterchallenge welcome

Finally I put forward the conjecture that area $\mathbf{E}$ of figure 4 is empty meaning that there are no recursive functions that cannot be expressed as fagative functions. If on looks at unary functions only: is there a unary-scheme string for every unary non-primitive recursive function (i.e. one with at least
one minimisation)? I do think so but I cannot prove it. But in the sense of the introductory remark of the preceding section I accept as

Counterchallenge: if I am presented with a non-primitive recursive function, I have to show that I can write down the appropriate scheme string of the concrete calcule NU of decimal fagation natural numbers that gives rise to this function. As it all comes down for the challenger to show that minimisation functions are "regular" I am quite confident, because that proof has to be presented to the defender. And I think that one can obtain the recipe for the scheme from an analysis of that proof.

### 8.4 Résumé

Why did the Princeton group invent minimisation for the inclusion of Ackermann functions, why didn't they go a way like the one that has been sketched in this publication? I think it is so much easier today: now there are real computers, program languages, program codes and program generators. Since some years there is the idea of hypercomputation [8b], however, it tries to tackle the problem straight on and has not yet been overall successfull. I have chosen a bypath.

Suppose that the challenges 2.1 and 2.2 are met and the Spark-function turns out to be arithmetically representable, then Gödel's first incompleteness thesis would survive, but there still would be the challenges 1.1 and 1.2. If these were also met Church's calculability thesis would survive. But in any case, besides a new way to look at computers and calculators the following would remain of my reasoning:

For a logical analysis of a sentence one should always ask to what tier of languages it belongs and try to write it down in the appropriate language. And one never should call a thesis or a conjecture a theorem.

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[^0]:    *) a star is attached if a word is given a new or special meaning, e.g. thesis is used for supralanguage sentences and conjecture for language and metalanguage sentences. **) two stars are attached to all words that I have coined newly.

[^1]:    ${ }^{1)}$ Until section 7.5 I will only talk about decimal FAGACUS and FAGATOR and therefore will leave away decimal.

[^2]:    ${ }^{1)}$ constantion: it gives constant value ${ }^{2)}$ warning: in characteristic functions I choose truth value 0 and falsity value 1 .
    I think it is nicer to represent the logical "and" by "plus"; in applied computing one has the error code zero for "no error".

