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Diagonalisation

Infinites, Truth, Gödel's Theorems

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Lecture Series Overview: Lectures 1 and 2

- **Lecture 1: Infinities.**

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We'll show that rigorous formal theories can, in a precise and controlled sense, "talk about themselves". No tricks of language, no ambiguity. Just maths.

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We discuss their implications for the scope and limits of mathematical theories and mathematical reasoning.

Lecture 1 Summary

- Introduce number via *matching* (one-to-one correspondence) and *cardinality*.
- Show that \mathbb{N} , the evens, the integers, and the rationals are all the same size (*countably infinite*).
- Present Cantor's diagonal argument: the reals are *uncountable*.
- Explain Russell's paradox and why set formation needs rules.

No one shall expel us from the paradise that Cantor has created for us.

— *David Hilbert*

Roadmap

- 1 Number via Matching
- 2 First Encounters with Infinity
- 3 Cantor's Diagonal Argument
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What is a number?

Names like *twenty-five*, *25*, or *XXV* label the same thing, but names alone don't explain the concept of number.¹

A more basic route: **matching**. Lay out two collections in parallel and pair items perfectly. If this can be done with no leftovers, they are the *same size*.

¹Try computing $XXV \times XXXII$ without converting to Arabic numerals. Some names are handier than others!

Same size = one-to-one correspondence

Sameness of size

Two collections A and B are the same size if their members can be paired up perfectly (*bijection*). No item is paired twice; none is left out.

Definitions

- **Bijection:** perfect pairing.
- **Equinumerous:** $A \sim B$ iff a bijection exists.
- **Cardinality:** the *size* revealed by matching.

Checking that equinumerosity behaves like equivalence

Is equinumerosity a good way to talk about equivalent size? Well, equivalence famously has three properties. Let's check that equinumerosity respects these three properties:

- **Reflexive:** Any collection matches itself (pair each item to itself).
- **Symmetric:** If A matches B , then B matches A (reverse the pairings).
- **Transitive:** If A matches B and B matches C , then A matches C (follow the lines in two hops).

Numbers as sizes (cardinalities)

If a collection matches a finite list $\{1\}, \{1, 2\}, \dots, \{1, \dots, n\}$, we say it has cardinality $1, 2, \dots, n$.

The numeral “3” is a convenient *label* for the common size of all collections equinumerous with $\{1, 2, 3\}$. We write that $|\{1, 2, 3\}| = 3$. Ultimately, numbers emerge from matching.

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Finite vs. Infinite

Infinite collection

A collection is *infinite* if it cannot be matched with any finite list $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$.

We will now see that an infinite collection may be matched with a *proper part* of itself. This is impossible for finite collections.

Evens are the same size as naturals

Let $\mathbb{N} = \{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$, $E = \{0, 2, 4, 6, \dots\}$. Pair each natural with its double:

| | | | | | |
|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|-----|
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | ... |
| \updownarrow | \updownarrow | \updownarrow | \updownarrow | \updownarrow | |
| 0 | 2 | 4 | 6 | 8 | ... |

No leftovers and no repeats $\Rightarrow \mathbb{N} \sim E$.

Integers are the same size as naturals

List integers by “zig-zagging” from 0:

| | | | | | | | |
|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|-----|
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | ... |
| \updownarrow | \updownarrow | \updownarrow | \updownarrow | \updownarrow | \updownarrow | \updownarrow | |
| 0 | 1 | -1 | 2 | -2 | 3 | -3 | ... |

Every integer appears exactly once $\Rightarrow \mathbb{N} \sim \mathbb{Z}$.

Rationals are the same size as naturals

A rational is a reduced fraction p/q with $p \in \mathbb{Z}$, $q \in \mathbb{N}_{>0}$. Arrange as a grid and sweep along diagonals, skipping repeats (e.g. $2/2 = 1/1$):

| | | | | | |
|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------|
| $\frac{0}{1}$ | $\frac{1}{1}$ | $\frac{2}{1}$ | $\frac{3}{1}$ | $\frac{4}{1}$ | \dots |
| $\frac{0}{2}$ | $\frac{1}{2}$ | $\frac{2}{2}$ | $\frac{3}{2}$ | $\frac{4}{2}$ | \dots |
| $\frac{0}{3}$ | $\frac{1}{3}$ | $\frac{2}{3}$ | $\frac{3}{3}$ | $\frac{4}{3}$ | \dots |
| $\frac{0}{4}$ | $\frac{1}{4}$ | $\frac{2}{4}$ | $\frac{3}{4}$ | $\frac{4}{4}$ | \dots |
| $\frac{0}{5}$ | $\frac{1}{5}$ | $\frac{2}{5}$ | $\frac{3}{5}$ | $\frac{4}{5}$ | \dots |
| \vdots | \vdots | \vdots | \vdots | \vdots | |

Hence $\mathbb{Q} \sim \mathbb{N}$.

Definition (Countably infinite)

A collection is *countably infinite* if its elements can be listed in a single infinite line: first, second, third, ...

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Theorem

We have $\mathbb{N} \sim E \sim \mathbb{Z} \sim \mathbb{Q}$. In other words, the integers and the rational numbers are both countably infinite.

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Decimal expansions in $(0, 1)$

Every real number $x \in (0, 1)$ has a decimal form $x = 0.d_1d_2d_3\dots$, with digits $d_k \in \{0, \dots, 9\}$.

A few have two forms (e.g. $0.5000\dots = 0.4999\dots$); to avoid ambiguity, agree *never* to use the endlessly repeating-9 form.

The reals are not countable

Theorem (Cantor)

The real numbers in $(0, 1)$ cannot be listed as x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots . Equivalently, $(0, 1)$ is uncountable.

Proof idea: build an anti-diagonal

Assume for contradiction we have a list with decimals $x_i = 0.a_{i1}a_{i2}a_{i3}\dots$

| | 1st | 2nd | 3rd | 4th | 5th | 6th | ... |
|----------|----------------------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|-----|
| x_1 | <u>a_{11}</u> | a_{12} | a_{13} | a_{14} | a_{15} | a_{16} | ... |
| x_2 | a_{21} | <u>a_{22}</u> | a_{23} | a_{24} | a_{25} | a_{26} | ... |
| x_3 | a_{31} | a_{32} | <u>a_{33}</u> | a_{34} | a_{35} | a_{36} | ... |
| x_4 | a_{41} | a_{42} | a_{43} | <u>a_{44}</u> | a_{45} | a_{46} | ... |
| x_5 | a_{51} | a_{52} | a_{53} | a_{54} | <u>a_{55}</u> | a_{56} | ... |
| x_6 | a_{61} | a_{62} | a_{63} | a_{64} | a_{65} | <u>a_{66}</u> | ... |
| \vdots | \vdots | \vdots | \vdots | \vdots | \vdots | \vdots | |

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Build $y = 0.b_1b_2b_3 \dots$ by changing the diagonal digits: set

$$b_n = \begin{cases} 5, & a_{nn} \neq 5, \\ 4, & a_{nn} = 5. \end{cases}$$

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$$b_n = \begin{cases} 5, & a_{nn} \neq 5, \\ 4, & a_{nn} = 5. \end{cases}$$

Then y differs from x_n in the n -th place for every n , so y is not on the list—contradiction.

Consequences of diagonalization

$$|\mathbb{N}| = |\mathbb{Z}| = |\mathbb{Q}| \quad \text{but} \quad |\mathbb{R}| \text{ is strictly larger.}$$

No list can capture all reals; the diagonal construction always finds a missing one.

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Unrestricted set formation is dangerous

Late 19th/early 20th century: widespread use of an informal comprehension principle—“for any clear condition, there is a set of all things satisfying it.”

Russell's paradox

Theorem

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Either way: contradiction.



Russell's Paradox - Corollary

Corollary

It is not the case that for any clear condition there is a set satisfying it.

Aftermath and the modern view

- Frege's attempt to reconstruct arithmetic from logic hindered. Russell proposed type-theoretic restrictions; later developed with Whitehead in *Principia Mathematica*.
- Modern set theories (e.g. Zermelo–Fraenkel, ZF/ZFC) keep fruitful set talk while restricting formation to block paradoxes.

Takeaways

- Number can be grounded in everyday *matching*: 'same number' means 'a perfect pairing is possible'.
- Infinite collections can match proper parts; finite collections cannot.
- Many familiar infinities (\mathbb{N} , \mathbb{Z} , \mathbb{Q}) are the same size: countably infinite.
- Cantor's diagonal argument shows \mathbb{R} is strictly larger than \mathbb{N} .
- Russell's paradox warns that not every condition defines a legitimate set; rules are required.