

DXXXXXXXXXXXXXX
XIXXXXXXXXXXXXXX
XXAXXXXXXXXXXXX
XXXGXXXXXXXXXX
XXXXOXXXXXXXXX
XXXXXNXXXXXXXX
XXXXXXAXXXXXXXXX
XXXXXXXLXXXXXX
XXXXXXXXXIXXXXXX
XXXXXXXXXSXXXX
XXXXXXXXXXAXXX
XXXXXXXXXXXXXTXX
XXXXXXXXXXXXXIXX
XXXXXXXXXXXXXXOX
XXXXXXXXXXXXXXN

Diagonalisation

Infinities, Truth, Gödel's Theorems

Rasmus Bakken | Mahin Hossain

University of Oxford

Michaelmas 2025

Lecture Series Overview: Lectures 1 and 2

■ **Lecture 1: Infinities.**

Infinities are unintuitive. To understand them, we'll have to introduce with a notion of "number" baked from scratch.

Lecture Series Overview: Lectures 1 and 2

■ **Lecture 1: Infinities.**

Infinities are unintuitive. To understand them, we'll have to introduce with a notion of "number" baked from scratch.

Lecture Series Overview: Lectures 1 and 2

■ Lecture 1: Infinities.

Infinities are unintuitive. To understand them, we'll have to introduce with a notion of "number" baked from scratch.

We'll see that a whole bunch of different-seeming infinities are actually the same size.

Lecture Series Overview: Lectures 1 and 2

■ Lecture 1: Infinities.

Infinities are unintuitive. To understand them, we'll have to introduce with a notion of "number" baked from scratch.

We'll see that a whole bunch of different-seeming infinities are actually the same size.

And then we'll see that nevertheless, there really are some infinities that are bigger than others.

Lecture Series Overview: Lectures 1 and 2

■ **Lecture 1: Infinities.**

Infinities are unintuitive. To understand them, we'll have to introduce with a notion of "number" baked from scratch.

We'll see that a whole bunch of different-seeming infinities are actually the same size.

And then we'll see that nevertheless, there really are some infinities that are bigger than others.

■ **Lecture 2: Numbers are alive.**

English permits self-referential sentences. These sentences "talk about themselves", threatening paradoxes.

Lecture Series Overview: Lectures 1 and 2

■ **Lecture 1: Infinities.**

Infinities are unintuitive. To understand them, we'll have to introduce with a notion of "number" baked from scratch.

We'll see that a whole bunch of different-seeming infinities are actually the same size.

And then we'll see that nevertheless, there really are some infinities that are bigger than others.

■ **Lecture 2: Numbers are alive.**

English permits self-referential sentences. These sentences "talk about themselves", threatening paradoxes.

Lecture Series Overview: Lectures 1 and 2

■ Lecture 1: Infinities.

Infinities are unintuitive. To understand them, we'll have to introduce with a notion of "number" baked from scratch.

We'll see that a whole bunch of different-seeming infinities are actually the same size.

And then we'll see that nevertheless, there really are some infinities that are bigger than others.

■ Lecture 2: Numbers are alive.

English permits self-referential sentences. These sentences "talk about themselves", threatening paradoxes.

Are these paradoxes just tricks of language? Or...are they secretly embedded, somehow, in mathematics?

Lecture Series Overview: Lectures 1 and 2

■ Lecture 1: Infinities.

Infinities are unintuitive. To understand them, we'll have to introduce with a notion of "number" baked from scratch.

We'll see that a whole bunch of different-seeming infinities are actually the same size.

And then we'll see that nevertheless, there really are some infinities that are bigger than others.

■ Lecture 2: Numbers are alive.

English permits self-referential sentences. These sentences "talk about themselves", threatening paradoxes.

Are these paradoxes just tricks of language? Or...are they secretly embedded, somehow, in mathematics?

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.

Lecture Series Overview: Lectures 3 and 4

■ Lecture 3: Truth and the Liar.

If rigorous theories (about numbers, e.g.) can “talk about themselves”—which of their own features, exactly, can they talk about?

Lecture Series Overview: Lectures 3 and 4

■ Lecture 3: Truth and the Liar.

If rigorous theories (about numbers, e.g.) can “talk about themselves”—which of their own features, exactly, can they talk about?

Lecture Series Overview: Lectures 3 and 4

■ Lecture 3: Truth and the Liar.

If rigorous theories (about numbers, e.g.) can “talk about themselves”—which of their own features, exactly, can they talk about?

What happens when the Liar Paradox shows up in such a theory?

Lecture Series Overview: Lectures 3 and 4

■ Lecture 3: Truth and the Liar.

If rigorous theories (about numbers, e.g.) can “talk about themselves”—which of their own features, exactly, can they talk about?

What happens when the Liar Paradox shows up in such a theory?

Is there any hope of rigorously formalising the notion of (mathematical) truth?

Lecture Series Overview: Lectures 3 and 4

■ Lecture 3: Truth and the Liar.

If rigorous theories (about numbers, e.g.) can “talk about themselves”—which of their own features, exactly, can they talk about?

What happens when the Liar Paradox shows up in such a theory?

Is there any hope of rigorously formalising the notion of (mathematical) truth?

■ Lecture 4: Gödel.

We tie everything together to demonstrate Gödel’s Incompleteness Theorems.

Lecture Series Overview: Lectures 3 and 4

■ Lecture 3: Truth and the Liar.

If rigorous theories (about numbers, e.g.) can “talk about themselves”—which of their own features, exactly, can they talk about?

What happens when the Liar Paradox shows up in such a theory?

Is there any hope of rigorously formalising the notion of (mathematical) truth?

■ Lecture 4: Gödel.

We tie everything together to demonstrate Gödel’s Incompleteness Theorems.

Lecture Series Overview: Lectures 3 and 4

■ Lecture 3: Truth and the Liar.

If rigorous theories (about numbers, e.g.) can “talk about themselves”—which of their own features, exactly, can they talk about?

What happens when the Liar Paradox shows up in such a theory?

Is there any hope of rigorously formalising the notion of (mathematical) truth?

■ Lecture 4: Gödel.

We tie everything together to demonstrate Gödel’s Incompleteness Theorems.

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.

Paradise

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

4 Russell's Paradox

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 $\text{XXV} \times \text{XXXII}$ 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.

Roadmap

1 Number via Matching

2 First Encounters with Infinity

3 Cantor's Diagonal Argument

4 Russell's Paradox

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:

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & \dots \\ \uparrow & \uparrow & \uparrow & \uparrow & \uparrow & \\ 0 & 2 & 4 & 6 & 8 & \dots \end{array}$$

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

Integers are the same size as naturals

List integers by “zig–zagging” from 0:

$$\begin{array}{ccccccccccc} 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & \dots \\ \uparrow & \downarrow \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & 2 & -2 & 3 & -3 & \dots \end{array}$$

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. $2/2 = 1/1$):

$\frac{0}{1}$	$\frac{1}{1}$	$\frac{2}{1}$	$\frac{3}{1}$	$\frac{4}{1}$...
$\frac{0}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{2}{2}$	$\frac{3}{2}$	$\frac{4}{2}$...
$\frac{0}{3}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{2}{3}$	$\frac{3}{3}$	$\frac{4}{3}$...
$\frac{0}{4}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{2}{4}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{4}{4}$...
$\frac{0}{5}$	$\frac{1}{5}$	$\frac{2}{5}$	$\frac{3}{5}$	$\frac{4}{5}$...
⋮	⋮	⋮	⋮	⋮	⋮

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

Countable infinity

Definition (Countably infinite)

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

Countable infinity

Definition (Countably infinite)

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

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.

Roadmap

- 1 Number via Matching
- 2 First Encounters with Infinity
- 3 Cantor's Diagonal Argument
- 4 Russell's Paradox

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	\vdots

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	\vdots

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

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

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	\vdots

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

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

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

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

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

Roadmap

1 Number via Matching

2 First Encounters with Infinity

3 Cantor's Diagonal Argument

4 Russell's Paradox

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

There is no set containing all sets.

Russell's paradox

Theorem

There is no set containing all sets.

Proof.

Let V be the set of all sets.

Russell's paradox

Theorem

There is no set containing all sets.

Proof.

Let V be the set of all sets.

Let R be the set of all elements x of V such that $x \notin x$.

Russell's paradox

Theorem

There is no set containing all sets.

Proof.

Let V be the set of all sets.

Let R be the set of all elements x of V such that $x \notin x$.

Question: is R a member of itself?

Russell's paradox

Theorem

There is no set containing all sets.

Proof.

Let V be the set of all sets.

Let R be the set of all elements x of V such that $x \notin x$.

Question: is R a member of itself?

- If $R \in R$, then by definition $R \notin R$.

Russell's paradox

Theorem

There is no set containing all sets.

Proof.

Let V be the set of all sets.

Let R be the set of all elements x of V such that $x \notin x$.

Question: is R a member of itself?

- If $R \in R$, then by definition $R \notin R$.
- If $R \notin R$, then by definition $R \in R$.

Russell's paradox

Theorem

There is no set containing all sets.

Proof.

Let V be the set of all sets.

Let R be the set of all elements x of V such that $x \notin x$.

Question: is R a member of itself?

- If $R \in R$, then by definition $R \notin R$.
- If $R \notin R$, then by definition $R \in R$.

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.