

Frege numbers Dedekind's numbers

András Máté

07.10.2022

Frege's *Grundlagen* definition of numbers

Frege's *Grundlagen* definition of numbers

'Having the same cardinality' (equinumerosity, *Equinum*) is an equivalence relation between concepts, defined by the right-hand side of Hume's principle:

Frege's *Grundlagen* definition of numbers

'Having the same cardinality' (equinumerosity, *Equinum*) is an equivalence relation between concepts, defined by the right-hand side of Hume's principle:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Equinum}(F, G) &\leftrightarrow_{def} \\ \exists b([1 - 1](b) \wedge \forall x(F(x) \rightarrow G(b(x))) \wedge \\ &\quad \forall y(G(y) \rightarrow \exists x(F(x) \wedge b(x) = y))) \end{aligned}$$

Frege's *Grundlagen* definition of numbers

'Having the same cardinality' (equinumerosity, *Equinum*) is an equivalence relation between concepts, defined by the right-hand side of Hume's principle:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Equinum}(F, G) &\leftrightarrow_{def} \\ \exists b([1 - 1](b) \wedge \forall x(F(x) \rightarrow G(b(x))) \wedge \\ &\forall y(G(y) \rightarrow \exists x(F(x) \wedge b(x) = y))) \end{aligned}$$

Let $\check{x}H(x)$ be the extension of the concept H . Definition of the number belonging to the concept F :

Frege's *Grundlagen* definition of numbers

'Having the same cardinality' (equinumerosity, *Equinum*) is an equivalence relation between concepts, defined by the right-hand side of Hume's principle:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Equinum}(F, G) &\leftrightarrow_{\text{def}} \\ \exists b([1 - 1](b) \wedge \forall x(F(x) \rightarrow G(b(x))) \wedge \\ &\forall y(G(y) \rightarrow \exists x(F(x) \wedge b(x) = y))) \end{aligned}$$

Let $\check{x}H(x)$ be the extension of the concept H . Definition of the number belonging to the concept F :

$$Nx : F(x) =_{\text{def}} \check{G}(\text{Equinum}(F, G))$$

$\text{Equinum}(F, G)$ is a concept of second grade (for fixed F and variable G)

Frege's *Grundlagen* definition of numbers

'Having the same cardinality' (equinumerosity, *Equinum*) is an equivalence relation between concepts, defined by the right-hand side of Hume's principle:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Equinum}(F, G) &\leftrightarrow_{def} \\ \exists b([1 - 1](b) \wedge \forall x(F(x) \rightarrow G(b(x))) \wedge \\ &\forall y(G(y) \rightarrow \exists x(F(x) \wedge b(x) = y))) \end{aligned}$$

Let $\check{x}H(x)$ be the extension of the concept H . Definition of the number belonging to the concept F :

$$Nx : F(x) =_{def} \check{G}(\text{Equinum}(F, G))$$

$\text{Equinum}(F, G)$ is a concept of second grade (for fixed F and variable G)

This is roughly the same as saying that the number belonging to F is its equivalence class for equinumerosity.

Numbers, natural (finite) numbers

Numbers, natural (finite) numbers

$Num(n) \leftrightarrow_{def} \exists F(Nx : F(x) = n)$ (n is a number)

Numbers, natural (finite) numbers

$Num(n) \leftrightarrow_{def} \exists F(Nx : F(x) = n)$ (n is a number)

This is the answer to the Julius Caesar-problem. But it also covers infinite numbers.

Numbers, natural (finite) numbers

$$\text{Num}(n) \leftrightarrow_{def} \exists F(Nx : F(x) = n) \text{ (n is a number)}$$

This is the answer to the Julius Caesar-problem. But it also covers infinite numbers.

$$0 =_{def} Nx : (x \neq x)$$

Numbers, natural (finite) numbers

$$Num(n) \leftrightarrow_{def} \exists F(Nx : F(x) = n) \text{ (n is a number)}$$

This is the answer to the Julius Caesar-problem. But it also covers infinite numbers.

$$0 =_{def} Nx : (x \neq x)$$

$$ISucc(m, n) \leftrightarrow_{def}$$

$$\exists F \exists y (Nx : F(x) = n \wedge F(y) \wedge Nx : (F(x) \wedge x \neq y) = m)$$

Numbers, natural (finite) numbers

$$Num(n) \leftrightarrow_{def} \exists F(Nx : F(x) = n) \text{ (n is a number)}$$

This is the answer to the Julius Caesar-problem. But it also covers infinite numbers.

$$0 =_{def} Nx : (x \neq x)$$

$$ISucc(m, n) \leftrightarrow_{def} \\ \exists F \exists y (Nx : F(x) = n \wedge F(y) \wedge Nx : (F(x) \wedge x \neq y) = m)$$

$$1 =_{def} Nx : (x = 0)$$

Numbers, natural (finite) numbers

$$Num(n) \leftrightarrow_{def} \exists F(Nx : F(x) = n) \text{ (n is a number)}$$

This is the answer to the Julius Caesar-problem. But it also covers infinite numbers.

$$0 =_{def} Nx : (x \neq x)$$

$$ISucc(m, n) \leftrightarrow_{def} \\ \exists F \exists y (Nx : F(x) = n \wedge F(y) \wedge Nx : (F(x) \wedge x \neq y) = m)$$

$$1 =_{def} Nx : (x = 0)$$

$$ISucc(0, 1)$$

Numbers, natural (finite) numbers

$$Num(n) \leftrightarrow_{def} \exists F(Nx : F(x) = n) \text{ (n is a number)}$$

This is the answer to the Julius Caesar-problem. But it also covers infinite numbers.

$$0 =_{def} Nx : (x \neq x)$$

$$ISucc(m, n) \leftrightarrow_{def} \\ \exists F \exists y (Nx : F(x) = n \wedge F(y) \wedge Nx : (F(x) \wedge x \neq y) = m)$$

$$1 =_{def} Nx : (x = 0)$$

$$ISucc(0, 1)$$

$$m < n \leftrightarrow_{def} ISucc^*(m, n)$$

See Conceptual Notation chap. 3 about R^* .

Numbers, natural (finite) numbers

$$Num(n) \leftrightarrow_{def} \exists F(Nx : F(x) = n) \text{ (n is a number)}$$

This is the answer to the Julius Caesar-problem. But it also covers infinite numbers.

$$0 =_{def} Nx : (x \neq x)$$

$$ISucc(m, n) \leftrightarrow_{def} \\ \exists F \exists y (Nx : F(x) = n \wedge F(y) \wedge Nx : (F(x) \wedge x \neq y) = m)$$

$$1 =_{def} Nx : (x = 0)$$

$$ISucc(0, 1)$$

$$m < n \leftrightarrow_{def} ISucc^*(m, n)$$

See Conceptual Notation chap. 3 about R^* .

$$m \leq n \leftrightarrow_{def} m = n \vee m < n$$

Numbers, natural (finite) numbers

$$\text{Num}(n) \leftrightarrow_{\text{def}} \exists F(Nx : F(x) = n) \text{ (n is a number)}$$

This is the answer to the Julius Caesar-problem. But it also covers infinite numbers.

$$0 =_{\text{def}} Nx : (x \neq x)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{ISucc}(m, n) &\leftrightarrow_{\text{def}} \\ \exists F \exists y (Nx : F(x) = n \wedge F(y) \wedge Nx : (F(x) \wedge x \neq y) = m) \end{aligned}$$

$$1 =_{\text{def}} Nx : (x = 0)$$

$$\text{ISucc}(0, 1)$$

$$m < n \leftrightarrow_{\text{def}} \text{ISucc}^*(m, n)$$

See Conceptual Notation chap. 3 about R^* .

$$m \leq n \leftrightarrow_{\text{def}} m = n \vee m < n$$

$$\text{NNum}(n) \leftrightarrow_{\text{def}} 0 \leq n \text{ (n is a natural number)}$$

Theorems; „Frege’s theorem”

Theorems; „Frege’s theorem”

Frege numbers: the $NNum$ -s endowed with the immediate successor-relation $Isucc$.

Theorems; „Frege’s theorem”

Frege numbers: the $NNum$ -s endowed with the immediate successor-relation $ISucc$.

$$NNum(n) \rightarrow \neg ISucc(n, n)$$

If a predicate extension has an one-to-one mapping onto a proper part of it (i.e., it is Dedekind-infinite), then its number is an immediate successor of itself.

Theorems; „Frege’s theorem”

Frege numbers: the $NNum$ -s endowed with the immediate successor-relation $ISucc$.

$$NNum(n) \rightarrow \neg ISucc(n, n)$$

If a predicate extension has an one-to-one mapping onto a proper part of it (i.e., it is Dedekind-infinite), then its number is an immediate successor of itself.

$n = Nx : (x < n)$ That is, Frege’s natural numbers are quite similar to the finite von Neumann ordinals.

Theorems; „Frege’s theorem”

Frege numbers: the $NNum$ -s endowed with the immediate successor-relation $ISucc$.

$$NNum(n) \rightarrow \neg ISucc(n, n)$$

If a predicate extension has an one-to-one mapping onto a proper part of it (i.e., it is Dedekind-infinite), then its number is an immediate successor of itself.

$n = Nx : (x < n)$ That is, Frege’s natural numbers are quite similar to the finite von Neumann ordinals.

„Frege’s theorem”: Frege numbers satisfy the axioms of primitive Peano-arithmetics. I.e., 0 is not an immediate successor, $ISucc$ is one-to-one and mathematical induction holds.

Frege's work today

Frege arithmetics (today): second-order logic + Hume's principle.

Frege arithmetics (today): second-order logic + Hume's principle.

Using Frege's definitions, we get a theory equivalent to second-order Peano arithmetics.

Frege arithmetics (today): second-order logic + Hume's principle.

Using Frege's definitions, we get a theory equivalent to second-order Peano arithmetics.

It is consistent *relative to Peano arithmetics* (demonstrated by Boolos in the 1980's).

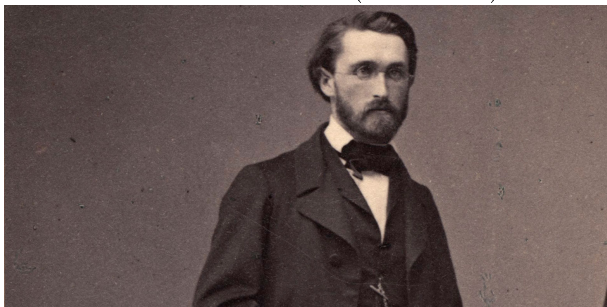
Frege arithmetics (today): second-order logic + Hume's principle.

Using Frege's definitions, we get a theory equivalent to second-order Peano arithmetics.

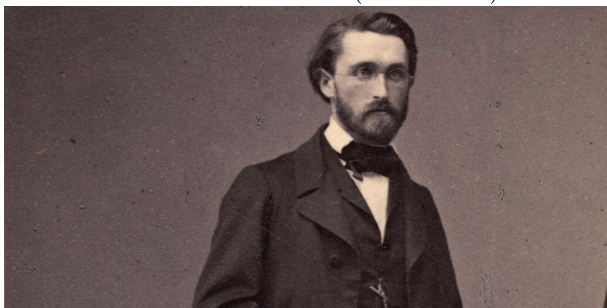
It is consistent *relative to Peano arithmetics* (demonstrated by Boolos in the 1980's).

An introduction of abstract objects into a theory by an abstraction principle is a consistent extension of the theory *relative to set theory* if the equivalence classes generated by the principle are sets.

Richard Dedekind (1831-1916)

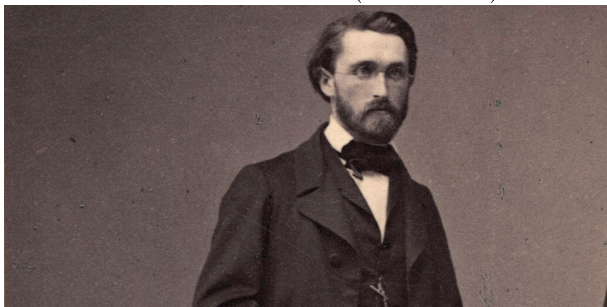


Richard Dedekind (1831-1916)



The grandfather of mathematical structuralism

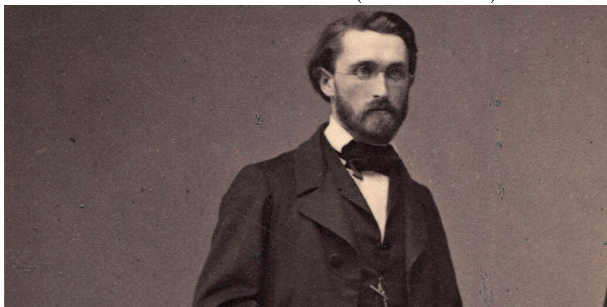
Richard Dedekind (1831-1916)



The grandfather of mathematical structuralism

Structuralism:

Richard Dedekind (1831-1916)

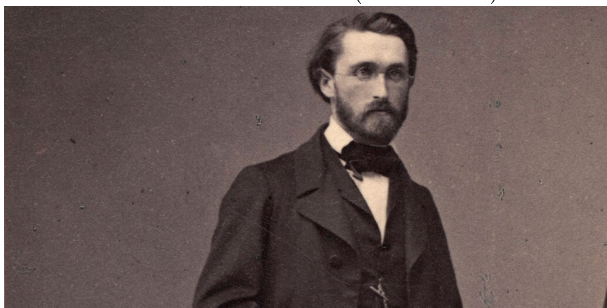


The grandfather of mathematical structuralism

Structuralism:

- ① Bourbaki circle from the 1930's

Richard Dedekind (1831-1916)

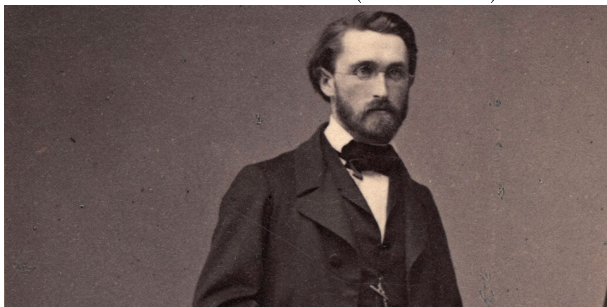


The grandfather of mathematical structuralism

Structuralism:

- 1 Bourbaki circle from the 1930's
- 2 Paul Benacerraf: „What numbers could not be” (1965)

Richard Dedekind (1831-1916)



The grandfather of mathematical structuralism

Structuralism:

- 1 Bourbaki circle from the 1930's
- 2 Paul Benacerraf: „What numbers could not be” (1965)
- 3 William Lawvere's works on category theory (from the 1960's)

Dedekind cut

1872: *Continuity and irrational numbers*

1872: *Continuity and irrational numbers*

Dedekind cut: Divide the rational numbers into two classes such that all members of the first (lower) class are less than any members of the second (upper) class. Such a classification is called cut.

There are three sorts of cuts:

- 1 The upper class has a minimal member.
- 2 The lower class has a maximal member.
- 3 Neither of 1. or 2.

1872: *Continuity and irrational numbers*

Dedekind cut: Divide the rational numbers into two classes such that all members of the first (lower) class are less than any members of the second (upper) class. Such a classification is called cut.

There are three sorts of cuts:

- 1 The upper class has a minimal member.
- 2 The lower class has a maximal member.
- 3 Neither of 1. or 2.

Irrational numbers: cuts of the sort 3.

1872: *Continuity and irrational numbers*

Dedekind cut: Divide the rational numbers into two classes such that all members of the first (lower) class are less than any members of the second (upper) class. Such a classification is called cut.

There are three sorts of cuts:

- 1 The upper class has a minimal member.
- 2 The lower class has a maximal member.
- 3 Neither of 1. or 2.

Irrational numbers: cuts of the sort 3.

Rational numbers can be identified with cuts of sort 1. (or 2., as you like it.)

1872: *Continuity and irrational numbers*

Dedekind cut: Divide the rational numbers into two classes such that all members of the first (lower) class are less than any members of the second (upper) class. Such a classification is called cut.

There are three sorts of cuts:

- 1 The upper class has a minimal member.
- 2 The lower class has a maximal member.
- 3 Neither of 1. or 2.

Irrational numbers: cuts of the sort 3.

Rational numbers can be identified with cuts of sort 1. (or 2., as you like it.)

But what are the natural numbers?

The Nature and Meaning of Numbers

The Nature and Meaning of Numbers

1887: *What numbers are and what they ought to be?*

The Nature and Meaning of Numbers

1887: *What numbers are and what they ought to be?*

„In science nothing capable of proof ought to be accepted without proof.”

The Nature and Meaning of Numbers

1887: *What numbers are and what they ought to be?*

„In science nothing capable of proof ought to be accepted without proof.”

Chapter I.: System [= set], subset, union, intersection.

The Nature and Meaning of Numbers

1887: *What numbers are and what they ought to be?*

„In science nothing capable of proof ought to be accepted without proof.”

Chapter I.: System [= set], subset, union, intersection.

II.: Transformation [= function] of a system [= on a set], composition.

The Nature and Meaning of Numbers

1887: *What numbers are and what they ought to be?*

„In science nothing capable of proof ought to be accepted without proof.”

Chapter I.: System [= set], subset, union, intersection.

II.: Transformation [= function] of a system [= on a set], composition.

III.: Similar transformation (= injective function)

The Nature and Meaning of Numbers

1887: *What numbers are and what they ought to be?*

„In science nothing capable of proof ought to be accepted without proof.”

Chapter I.: System [= set], subset, union, intersection.

II.: Transformation [= function] of a system [= on a set], composition.

III.: Similar transformation (= injective function)

[A function φ is injective iff $\varphi(x) = \varphi(y) \rightarrow x = y$]

The Nature and Meaning of Numbers

1887: *What numbers are and what they ought to be?*

„In science nothing capable of proof ought to be accepted without proof.”

Chapter I.: System [= set], subset, union, intersection.

II.: Transformation [= function] of a system [= on a set], composition.

III.: Similar transformation (= injective function)

[A function φ is injective iff $\varphi(x) = \varphi(y) \rightarrow x = y$]

$S' = \varphi(S)$ is the system consisting of the φ -maps of the members of S . If φ is a similarity transformation, then it has a converse that is a similarity transformation again and φ is an one-to-one correspondence between the members of S and S' .

Similar systems, chains

Similar systems, chains

Two systems are similar iff there is a similarity transformation between them.

Similar systems, chains

Two systems are similar iff there is a similarity transformation between them.

Based on similarity, we can divide the class of all systems into (equivalence) classes. Given a system R , we can define the class of the systems similar to it. R is the *representative* of the class. Any member of the class can be chosen as representative.

Similar systems, chains

Two systems are similar iff there is a similarity transformation between them.

Based on similarity, we can divide the class of all systems into (equivalence) classes. Given a system R , we can define the class of the systems similar to it. R is the *representative* of the class. Any member of the class can be chosen as representative.

Let S be any system, φ a transformation for which $\varphi(S) \subseteq S$.

Similar systems, chains

Two systems are similar iff there is a similarity transformation between them.

Based on similarity, we can divide the class of all systems into (equivalence) classes. Given a system R , we can define the class of the systems similar to it. R is the *representative* of the class. Any member of the class can be chosen as representative.

Let S be any system, φ a transformation for which $\varphi(S) \subseteq S$.

$K \subseteq S$ is a (φ -)chain iff $\varphi(K) \subseteq K$

Similar systems, chains

Two systems are similar iff there is a similarity transformation between them.

Based on similarity, we can divide the class of all systems into (equivalence) classes. Given a system R , we can define the class of the systems similar to it. R is the *representative* of the class. Any member of the class can be chosen as representative.

Let S be any system, φ a transformation for which $\varphi(S) \subseteq S$.

$K \subseteq S$ is a (φ -)chain iff $\varphi(K) \subseteq K$

S itself is a chain, $\varphi(K)$ is a chain if K is a chain, union and intersection of chains is a chain.

Similar systems, chains

Two systems are similar iff there is a similarity transformation between them.

Based on similarity, we can divide the class of all systems into (equivalence) classes. Given a system R , we can define the class of the systems similar to it. R is the *representative* of the class. Any member of the class can be chosen as representative.

Let S be any system, φ a transformation for which $\varphi(S) \subseteq S$.

$K \subseteq S$ is a (φ -)chain iff $\varphi(K) \subseteq K$

S itself is a chain, $\varphi(K)$ is a chain if K is a chain, union and intersection of chains is a chain.

If $A \subseteq S$, then the intersection of all chains containing A is a chain containing A and contained by S . It is the chain of A , A_0 , or $\varphi_0(A)$.

Similar systems, chains

Two systems are similar iff there is a similarity transformation between them.

Based on similarity, we can divide the class of all systems into (equivalence) classes. Given a system R , we can define the class of the systems similar to it. R is the *representative* of the class. Any member of the class can be chosen as representative.

Let S be any system, φ a transformation for which $\varphi(S) \subseteq S$.

$K \subseteq S$ is a (φ -)chain iff $\varphi(K) \subseteq K$

S itself is a chain, $\varphi(K)$ is a chain if K is a chain, union and intersection of chains is a chain.

If $A \subseteq S$, then the intersection of all chains containing A is a chain containing A and contained by S . It is the chain of A , A_0 , or $\varphi_0(A)$.

Theorem of complete induction: For any systems Σ and $A \subseteq \Sigma$, if for any $x \in A_0 \cap \Sigma$, $\varphi(x) \in A_0 \cap \Sigma$, then $A_0 \subseteq \Sigma$.

Infinity

A system is (Dedekind-)infinite iff it is similar to a proper part of itself. Finite in the other case.

A system is (Dedekind-)infinite iff it is similar to a proper part of itself. Finite in the other case.

66. Theorem. There exist infinite systems.

Proof.* My own realm of thoughts, i. e., the totality S of all things,[?] which can be objects of my thought, is infinite. For if s signifies an element of S , then is the thought s' , that s can be object of my thought, itself an element of S . If we regard this as transform $\phi(s)$ of the element s then has the transformation ϕ of S , thus determined, the property that the transform S' is part of S ; and S' is certainly proper part of S , because there are elements in S (e. g., my own ego) which are different from such thought s' and therefore are not contained in S' . Finally it is clear that if a, b are different elements of S , their transforms a', b' are also different, that therefore the transformation ϕ is a distinct (similar) transformation (26). Hence S is infinite, which was to be proved.

Numbers

Chapter VI.: Simply infinite systems

Chapter VI.: Simply infinite systems

N is simply infinite iff there is a similarity φ and an element of N called 1 s.t.

$$N = \varphi_0(1) \text{ and } 1 \notin \varphi(N)$$

Chapter VI.: Simply infinite systems

N is simply infinite iff there is a similarity φ and an element of N called 1 s.t.

$$N = \varphi_0(1) \text{ and } 1 \notin \varphi(N)$$

Theorem: Every infinite system contains a simply infinite system as a part of it.

Chapter VI.: Simply infinite systems

N is simply infinite iff there is a similarity φ and an element of N called 1 s.t.

$$N = \varphi_0(1) \text{ and } 1 \notin \varphi(N)$$

Theorem: Every infinite system contains a simply infinite system as a part of it.

Natural numbers: the elements of any simply infinite system N if we entirely neglect the special character of the elements; simply retaining their distinguishability and, taking into account only the relations to one another in which they are placed by the order-setting transformation ϕ

Numbers: some theorems

Numbers: some theorems

Every natural number m generates a chain m_0 and $m \in m_0$.

Numbers: some theorems

Every natural number m generates a chain m_0 and $m \in m_0$.

Every natural number different from 1 is an immediate follower (φ -map) of some natural number.

Numbers: some theorems

Every natural number m generates a chain m_0 and $m \in m_0$.

Every natural number different from 1 is an immediate follower (φ -map) of some natural number.

Complete induction: If

- 1 $A(m)$ holds;
- 2 for any $n \in m_0$, if $A(n)$, then $A(\varphi(n))$,

then $A(x)$ holds for any member of m_0 .

Numbers: some theorems

Every natural number m generates a chain m_0 and $m \in m_0$.

Every natural number different from 1 is an immediate follower (φ -map) of some natural number.

Complete induction: If

- 1 $A(m)$ holds;
- 2 for any $n \in m_0$, if $A(n)$, then $A(\varphi(n))$,

then $A(x)$ holds for any member of m_0 .

To sum up, the axioms of second-order PA hold for simply infinite systems.

Numbers: some theorems

Every natural number m generates a chain m_0 and $m \in m_0$.

Every natural number different from 1 is an immediate follower (φ -map) of some natural number.

Complete induction: If

- 1 $A(m)$ holds;
- 2 for any $n \in m_0$, if $A(n)$, then $A(\varphi(n))$,

then $A(x)$ holds for any member of m_0 .

To sum up, the axioms of second-order PA hold for simply infinite systems.

In other words, simply infinite systems are models of second order Peano arithmetics. The converse is also true: every model of second-order PA is a simply infinite system.

A negation-complete arithmetics ?!?

A negation-complete arithmetics ?!?

X. The class of simply infinite systems

A negation-complete arithmetics ?!?

X. The class of simply infinite systems

Theorem 132. All simply infinite systems are similar.

X. The class of simply infinite systems

Theorem 132. All simply infinite systems are similar.

In other words: the theory of simply infinite systems is categorical, i.e. each model of the theory is isomorphic to the others.

A negation-complete arithmetics ?!?

X. The class of simply infinite systems

Theorem 132. All simply infinite systems are similar.

In other words: the theory of simply infinite systems is categorical, i.e. each model of the theory is isomorphic to the others.

Conclusion: in all models, the same propositions of the language of second-order PA are true.

A negation-complete arithmetics ?!?

X. The class of simply infinite systems

Theorem 132. All simply infinite systems are similar.

In other words: the theory of simply infinite systems is categorical, i.e. each model of the theory is isomorphic to the others.

Conclusion: in all models, the same propositions of the language of second-order PA are true.

Every proposition of this language is either true in every simply infinite system and therefore a *semantical consequence* of the second-order Peano-axioms, or the same holds for its negation.

A negation-complete arithmetics ?!?

X. The class of simply infinite systems

Theorem 132. All simply infinite systems are similar.

In other words: the theory of simply infinite systems is categorical, i.e. each model of the theory is isomorphic to the others.

Conclusion: in all models, the same propositions of the language of second-order PA are true.

Every proposition of this language is either true in every simply infinite system and therefore a *semantical consequence* of the second-order Peano-axioms, or the same holds for its negation.

Therefore, second-order Peano arithmetics (the set of *semantical consequences* of second-order Peano axioms) is negation complete.

Metalogical consequences

Gödel's first incompleteness theorem: First-order Peano Arithmetics has no negation-complete *axiomatic* extension.

Gödel's first incompleteness theorem: First-order Peano Arithmetics has no negation-complete *axiomatic* extension.

The semantic completeness of a logical calculus: all semantic consequences of any set of premises can be derived in the calculus. First-order logic has a semantically complete calculus (GÖDEL 1930).

Gödel's first incompleteness theorem: First-order Peano Arithmetics has no negation-complete *axiomatic* extension.

The semantic completeness of a logical calculus: all semantic consequences of any set of premises can be derived in the calculus. First-order logic has a semantically complete calculus (GÖDEL 1930).

Second-order logic cannot have a semantically complete calculus. Because if it had, then we could derive all semantic consequences from the second-order Peano axioms and obtain a negation complete axiomatic extension of first-order Peano arithmetics.

Some additional remarks

Some additional remarks

A simpler proof of the impossibility of a semantically complete second-order logical calculus: the semantic consequence relation of second-order logic is not compact. There are valid inferences with infinitely many premises where the conclusion does not follow from any finite subset of the premises.

A simpler proof of the impossibility of a semantically complete second-order logical calculus: the semantic consequence relation of second-order logic is not compact. There are valid inferences with infinitely many premises where the conclusion does not follow from any finite subset of the premises.

What is arithmetical truth? The answer seems simple: a theorem of second-order PA. But the appearance of simplicity here is misleading.