# Ramsey's Logicism

András Máté

11 April 2025

# Ramsey

Frank Plumpton Ramsey (1903-1930)



Mathematician
Fundamental works in mathematical logic, combinatorics,
economy, metaphysics

"The Foundations of Mathematics", 1925

"The Foundations of Mathematics", 1925

Aim: Reconstruction of mathematics within a (type-theoretical) logical framework by correcting the *Principia Mathematica* (Russell–Whitehead, 1913) system.

"The Foundations of Mathematics", 1925

Aim: Reconstruction of mathematics within a (type-theoretical) logical framework by correcting the *Principia Mathematica* (Russell–Whitehead, 1913) system.

Main objection against *Principia Mathematica*: the Axiom of Reducibility.

"The Foundations of Mathematics", 1925

Aim: Reconstruction of mathematics within a (type-theoretical) logical framework by correcting the *Principia Mathematica* (Russell–Whitehead, 1913) system.

Main objection against *Principia Mathematica*: the Axiom of Reducibility.

Philosophical basis: Wittgenstein's *Tractatus Logico-Philosophicus*, above all the claim that every proposition is a truth-function of atomic propositions (based on the generalization of the notion of truth-function to infinitely many arguments).

"The Foundations of Mathematics", 1925

Aim: Reconstruction of mathematics within a (type-theoretical) logical framework by correcting the *Principia Mathematica* (Russell–Whitehead, 1913) system.

Main objection against *Principia Mathematica*: the Axiom of Reducibility.

Philosophical basis: Wittgenstein's *Tractatus Logico-Philosophicus*, above all the claim that every proposition is a truth-function of atomic propositions (based on the generalization of the notion of truth-function to infinitely many arguments).

Another basic principle of logicism, which includes some criticism of formalism: the numbers of arithmetics are the same as the numbers used for counting in everyday life, therefore expressions of arithmetics are not just symbols devoid of any content.

Atomic proposition: joining the name  $\phi$  of a quality or a relation with an appropriate number of names for individuals.

Atomic proposition: joining the name  $\phi$  of a quality or a relation with an appropriate number of names for individuals.

If we have n atomic propositions, we'll have  $2^n$  truth-possibilities for them.

Atomic proposition: joining the name  $\phi$  of a quality or a relation with an appropriate number of names for individuals.

If we have n atomic propositions, we'll have  $2^n$  truth-possibilities for them.

If we have an infinite set  $\mathcal{P}$  of atomic propositions, every subset of  $\mathcal{P}$  represents a truth-possibility for them.

Atomic proposition: joining the name  $\phi$  of a quality or a relation with an appropriate number of names for individuals.

If we have n atomic propositions, we'll have  $2^n$  truth-possibilities for them.

If we have an infinite set  $\mathcal{P}$  of atomic propositions, every subset of  $\mathcal{P}$  represents a truth-possibility for them.

A proposition is a <u>truth-function of  $\mathcal{P}$ </u> iff it expresses agreement with some set of truth-possibilities of  $\mathcal{P}$ .

Atomic proposition: joining the name  $\phi$  of a quality or a relation with an appropriate number of names for individuals.

If we have n atomic propositions, we'll have  $2^n$  truth-possibilities for them.

If we have an infinite set  $\mathcal{P}$  of atomic propositions, every subset of  $\mathcal{P}$  represents a truth-possibility for them.

A proposition is a <u>truth-function of  $\mathcal{P}$ </u> iff it expresses agreement with some set of truth-possibilities of  $\mathcal{P}$ .

Propositional function: an expression of the form  $f\hat{x}$  iff by substituting any name of the appropriate logical type for  $\hat{x}$  into  $f\hat{x}$  we get a proposition.

Atomic proposition: joining the name  $\phi$  of a quality or a relation with an appropriate number of names for individuals.

If we have n atomic propositions, we'll have  $2^n$  truth-possibilities for them.

If we have an infinite set  $\mathcal{P}$  of atomic propositions, every subset of  $\mathcal{P}$  represents a truth-possibility for them.

A proposition is a <u>truth-function of  $\mathcal{P}$ </u> iff it expresses agreement with some set of truth-possibilities of  $\mathcal{P}$ .

Propositional function: an expression of the form  $f\hat{x}$  iff by substituting any name of the appropriate logical type for  $\hat{x}$  into  $f\hat{x}$  we get a proposition.

 $\forall x f(x)$  is the logical product [conjunction],  $\exists x f(x)$  is the logical sum [disjunction] of all the propositions resulting by substitution from  $f\hat{x}$ . I.e., they are truth functions.

A proposition is a <u>tautology</u> iff it expresses agreement with the whole set of truth-possibilities; it is a <u>contradiction</u> iff it expresses agreement with the empty set.

A proposition is a <u>tautology</u> iff it expresses agreement with the whole set of truth-possibilities; it is a <u>contradiction</u> iff it expresses agreement with the empty set.

Two propositional symbols are instances of the same proposition if they express agreement with the same set of truth possibilities.

A proposition is a <u>tautology</u> iff it expresses agreement with the whole set of truth-possibilities; it is a <u>contradiction</u> iff it expresses agreement with the empty set.

Two propositional symbols are instances of the same proposition if they express agreement with the same set of truth possibilities.

Reformulation of the logicist thesis: Mathematics must consist of (or be reconstructed in the form of) tautologies.

A proposition is a <u>tautology</u> iff it expresses agreement with the whole set of truth-possibilities; it is a <u>contradiction</u> iff it expresses agreement with the empty set.

Two propositional symbols are instances of the same proposition if they express agreement with the same set of truth possibilities.

Reformulation of the logicist thesis: Mathematics must consist of (or be reconstructed in the form of) tautologies.

Axiom of Reducibility: not a tautology. If it is true, it is an empirical fact about the world.

A proposition is a <u>tautology</u> iff it expresses agreement with the whole set of truth-possibilities; it is a <u>contradiction</u> iff it expresses agreement with the empty set.

Two propositional symbols are instances of the same proposition if they express agreement with the same set of truth possibilities.

Reformulation of the logicist thesis: Mathematics must consist of (or be reconstructed in the form of) tautologies.

Axiom of Reducibility: not a tautology. If it is true, it is an empirical fact about the world.

A second fundamental thesis: mathematics is essentially extensional. E.g. set equivalence means that there exists a mapping between the two sets, and this is independent of whether the mapping can be expressed (defined) in some way.

Logical paradoxes:

### Logical paradoxes:

• Classes which are not members of themselves

### Logical paradoxes:

- Classes which are not members of themselves
- Burali-Forti: the greatest ordinal

### Logical paradoxes:

- Classes which are not members of themselves
- Burali-Forti: the greatest ordinal

Semantical paradoxes:

### Logical paradoxes:

- Classes which are not members of themselves
- Burali-Forti: the greatest ordinal

### Semantical paradoxes:

• The liar

### Logical paradoxes:

- Classes which are not members of themselves
- Burali-Forti: the greatest ordinal

### Semantical paradoxes:

- The liar
- Richard's paradox about definable real numbers

### Logical paradoxes:

- Classes which are not members of themselves
- Burali-Forti: the greatest ordinal

### Semantical paradoxes:

- The liar
- Richard's paradox about definable real numbers
- The heterological paradox (to be presented in an exact form below)

### Logical paradoxes:

- Classes which are not members of themselves
- Burali-Forti: the greatest ordinal

### Semantical paradoxes:

- The liar
- Richard's paradox about definable real numbers
- The heterological paradox (to be presented in an exact form below)

Semantical paradoxes involve the notion of 'meaning' (denoting) and are irrelevant to mathematics. Logical paradoxes, on the other hand, involve only logical and mathematical concepts and show that something went wrong in our logic (mathematics).

PM considers every set as defined by some propositional function. Objections: see the above regarding set equivalence. Nothing guarantees that every set can be expressed by some propositional function. Sets are independent from the way we express them.

PM considers every set as defined by some propositional function. Objections: see the above regarding set equivalence. Nothing guarantees that every set can be expressed by some propositional function. Sets are independent from the way we express them.

PM avoids paradoxes with the help of the Theory of Types. In fact, it can be divided into two parts, corresponding to the division of paradoxes.

PM considers every set as defined by some propositional function. Objections: see the above regarding set equivalence. Nothing guarantees that every set can be expressed by some propositional function. Sets are independent from the way we express them.

PM avoids paradoxes with the help of the Theory of Types. In fact, it can be divided into two parts, corresponding to the division of paradoxes.

Part 1.: Propositional functions cannot take themselves as arguments. There are functions of individuals, functions of functions of individuals, etc. This is the hierarchy of (simple) types.

PM considers every set as defined by some propositional function. Objections: see the above regarding set equivalence. Nothing guarantees that every set can be expressed by some propositional function. Sets are independent from the way we express them.

PM avoids paradoxes with the help of the Theory of Types. In fact, it can be divided into two parts, corresponding to the division of paradoxes.

Part 1.: Propositional functions cannot take themselves as arguments. There are functions of individuals, functions of functions of individuals, etc. This is the hierarchy of (simple) types.

Unquestionably correct and sufficient to remove the logical paradoxes.



### The hierarchy of orders

#### Part 2.:

• Elementary proposition: truth-function of a finite number of atomic propositions.

- Elementary proposition: truth-function of a finite number of atomic propositions.
- Elementary (predicative Russell) function: the values are elementary propositions.

- Elementary proposition: truth-function of a finite number of atomic propositions.
- Elementary (predicative Russell) function: the values are elementary propositions.
- First-order functions: by quantification from elementary functions (over individual and elementary functional variables).

- Elementary proposition: truth-function of a finite number of atomic propositions.
- Elementary (predicative Russell) function: the values are elementary propositions.
- First-order functions: by quantification from elementary functions (over individual and elementary functional variables).
- Second-order functions: by quantification over first-order functional variables. Etc.

#### Part 2.:

- Elementary proposition: truth-function of a finite number of atomic propositions.
- Elementary (predicative Russell) function: the values are elementary propositions.
- First-order functions: by quantification from elementary functions (over individual and elementary functional variables).
- Second-order functions: by quantification over first-order functional variables. Etc.

This hierarchy of orders escapes the semantical paradoxes.

#### Part 2.:

- Elementary proposition: truth-function of a finite number of atomic propositions.
- Elementary (predicative Russell) function: the values are elementary propositions.
- First-order functions: by quantification from elementary functions (over individual and elementary functional variables).
- Second-order functions: by quantification over first-order functional variables. Etc.

This hierarchy of orders escapes the semantical paradoxes.

But it blocks important mathematical ideas and arguments (math. induction, Dedekind cut). That is why the axiom of reducibility is needed for Russell.



If two symbols express agreement with the same set of truth-possibilities, they are instances of the same proposition.

If two symbols express agreement with the same set of truth-possibilities, they are instances of the same proposition.

The adjective 'elementary' belongs to the symbol, not to the proposition itself. It may happen that some instances of a proposition are elementary while others are not.

If two symbols express agreement with the same set of truth-possibilities, they are instances of the same proposition.

The adjective 'elementary' belongs to the symbol, not to the proposition itself. It may happen that some instances of a proposition are elementary while others are not.

E. g.

$$F(a), \exists x (F(x) \land x = a)$$

Propositional function (redefined): a symbol  $\phi(\hat{x}(, \hat{y} ...))$  which gives a proposition if we substitute names of arbitrary individual(s) for the variable(s).

Propositional function (redefined): a symbol  $\phi(\hat{x}(, \hat{y}...))$  which gives a proposition if we substitute names of arbitrary individual(s) for the variable(s).

A propositional function gives us a proposition for any individual – even if we don't have symbols for each such proposition.

Propositional function (redefined): a symbol  $\phi(\hat{x}(, \hat{y}...))$  which gives a proposition if we substitute names of arbitrary individual(s) for the variable(s).

A propositional function gives us a proposition for any individual – even if we don't have symbols for each such proposition.

Let  $f(\hat{\phi}\hat{x})$  a symbol for a function of function of individuals. What is the domain for the functional variable  $\phi$ ? What does  $\forall \phi f(\phi \hat{x})$  mean?

Propositional function (redefined): a symbol  $\phi(\hat{x}(, \hat{y}...))$  which gives a proposition if we substitute names of arbitrary individual(s) for the variable(s).

A propositional function gives us a proposition for any individual – even if we don't have symbols for each such proposition.

Let  $f(\hat{\phi}\hat{x})$  a symbol for a function of function of individuals. What is the domain for the functional variable  $\phi$ ? What does  $\forall \phi f(\phi \hat{x})$  mean?

(Function here means always propositional function and we restrict ourselves to the one-variable case.)

Propositional function (redefined): a symbol  $\phi(\hat{x}(, \hat{y}...))$  which gives a proposition if we substitute names of arbitrary individual(s) for the variable(s).

A propositional function gives us a proposition for any individual – even if we don't have symbols for each such proposition.

Let  $f(\hat{\phi}\hat{x})$  a symbol for a function of function of individuals. What is the domain for the functional variable  $\phi$ ? What does  $\forall \phi f(\phi \hat{x})$  mean?

(Function here means always propositional function and we restrict ourselves to the one-variable case.)

Russell: The domain consists of expressions constructed in certain way that can be substituted for  $\hat{\phi}\hat{x}$ .



Propositional function (redefined): a symbol  $\phi(\hat{x}(, \hat{y}...))$  which gives a proposition if we substitute names of arbitrary individual(s) for the variable(s).

A propositional function gives us a proposition for any individual – even if we don't have symbols for each such proposition.

Let  $f(\hat{\phi}\hat{x})$  a symbol for a function of function of individuals. What is the domain for the functional variable  $\phi$ ? What does  $\forall \phi f(\phi \hat{x})$  mean?

(Function here means always propositional function and we restrict ourselves to the one-variable case.)

Russell: The domain consists of expressions constructed in certain way that can be substituted for  $\hat{\phi}\hat{x}$ .

Ramsey: this is the root of the whole problem of reducibility.



Functions belonging to the domain have to be characterized by their meanings independently of how they are expressed (if they can be expressed at all).

Functions belonging to the domain have to be characterized by their meanings independently of how they are expressed (if they can be expressed at all).

The notion of truth function can be extended from propositions to propositional functions on this (extensional) way.

Functions belonging to the domain have to be characterized by their meanings independently of how they are expressed (if they can be expressed at all).

The notion of truth function can be extended from propositions to propositional functions on this (extensional) way.

A function is <u>atomic</u> iff it formed by replacing one or more occurrence of some individual names with variables in an atomic proposition.

# $\overline{\text{Predicative}_{Ramsey}}$

Functions belonging to the domain have to be characterized by their meanings independently of how they are expressed (if they can be expressed at all).

The notion of truth function can be extended from propositions to propositional functions on this (extensional) way.

A function is <u>atomic</u> iff it formed by replacing one or more occurrence of some individual names with variables in an atomic proposition.

A function is  $\underline{\text{predicative}}_{Ramsey}$  iff it is the truth function of arguments that are either atomic functions of individuals or propositions.

Ramsey's predicative functions are closed for logical operations including quantification.

Ramsey's predicative functions are closed for logical operations including quantification.

Universal quantification is understood as (infinitary) logical product, i.e. conjunction, existential quantification as logical sum.

Ramsey's predicative functions are closed for logical operations including quantification.

Universal quantification is understood as (infinitary) logical product, i.e. conjunction, existential quantification as logical sum.

E. g. the following definition is allowed and yields a predicative function of individuals:

$$F\hat{x} =: \forall \phi f(\phi \hat{z}, \hat{x})$$

Ramsey's predicative functions are closed for logical operations including quantification.

Universal quantification is understood as (infinitary) logical product, i.e. conjunction, existential quantification as logical sum.

E. g. the following definition is allowed and yields a predicative function of individuals:

$$F\hat{x} =: \forall \phi f(\phi \hat{z}, \hat{x})$$

f denotes the function of application. The domain of quantification here is the class of propositional functions of one individual. It includes F itself. Circularity?

Ramsey's predicative functions are closed for logical operations including quantification.

Universal quantification is understood as (infinitary) logical product, i.e. conjunction, existential quantification as logical sum.

E. g. the following definition is allowed and yields a predicative function of individuals:

$$F\hat{x} =: \forall \phi f(\phi \hat{z}, \hat{x})$$

f denotes the function of application. The domain of quantification here is the class of propositional functions of one individual. It includes F itself. Circularity?

Ramsey: yes, but this sort of circularity is not vicious. The proposition Fa, the value of F for an individual a is the conjunction of all the propositions of the form  $\phi a$  - including Fa itself. No reference to a class of which F is a member, but to the members of that class only.

Let R be the name of the relation of denotation, i.e. R is the relation which the symbol ' $\phi$ ' has to the function  $\phi \hat{x}$ . Let us define a propositional function H on the following way:

$$H(x) \Leftrightarrow x \text{ is heterological} \Leftrightarrow \exists \phi(xR(\phi\hat{z}) \land \neg \phi x)$$

Let R be the name of the relation of denotation, i.e. R is the relation which the symbol ' $\phi$ ' has to the function  $\phi \hat{x}$ . Let us define a propositional function H on the following way:

$$H(x) \Leftrightarrow x \text{ is heterological} \Leftrightarrow \exists \phi(xR(\phi\hat{z}) \land \neg \phi x)$$

Let R be the name of the relation of denotation, i.e. R is the relation which the symbol ' $\phi$ ' has to the function  $\phi \hat{x}$ . Let us define a propositional function H on the following way:

$$H(x) \Leftrightarrow x \text{ is heterological} \Leftrightarrow \exists \phi(xR(\phi\hat{z}) \land \neg \phi x)$$

Deduction of the heterological paradox:

 $\bullet$  H is a predicative function of x.

Let R be the name of the relation of denotation, i.e. R is the relation which the symbol ' $\phi$ ' has to the function  $\phi \hat{x}$ . Let us define a propositional function H on the following way:

$$H(x) \Leftrightarrow x \text{ is heterological} \Leftrightarrow \exists \phi(xR(\phi\hat{z}) \land \neg \phi x)$$

- $\bullet$  H is a predicative function of x.

Let R be the name of the relation of denotation, i.e. R is the relation which the symbol ' $\phi$ ' has to the function  $\phi \hat{x}$ . Let us define a propositional function H on the following way:

$$H(x) \Leftrightarrow x \text{ is heterological} \Leftrightarrow \exists \phi(xR(\phi\hat{z}) \land \neg \phi x)$$

- $\bullet$  H is a predicative function of x.
- $\odot$  'heterological' denotes H, i.e. it has R to H.
- **③** H(`heterological') $\Leftrightarrow \exists \phi(\text{`heterological'} R(\phi \hat{z}) \land \neg \phi'\text{heterological'})$

Let R be the name of the relation of denotation, i.e. R is the relation which the symbol ' $\phi$ ' has to the function  $\phi \hat{x}$ . Let us define a propositional function H on the following way:

$$H(x) \Leftrightarrow x \text{ is heterological} \Leftrightarrow \exists \phi(xR(\phi\hat{z}) \land \neg \phi x)$$

- $\bullet$  H is a predicative function of x.
- $oldsymbol{\circ}$  'heterological' denotes H, i.e. it has R to H.
- **③** H(`heterological') $\Leftrightarrow \exists \phi(\text{`heterological'} R(\phi \hat{z}) \land \neg \phi'\text{heterological'})$
- **3** But the first member of the conjunction in the scope of the existential quantifier is true iff we take the function H as the value of the variable  $\phi$ , and therefore



## Heterological

Let R be the name of the relation of denotation, i.e. R is the relation which the symbol ' $\phi$ ' has to the function  $\phi \hat{x}$ . Let us define a propositional function H on the following way:

$$H(x) \Leftrightarrow x \text{ is heterological} \Leftrightarrow \exists \phi(xR(\phi\hat{z}) \land \neg \phi x)$$

Deduction of the heterological paradox:

- $\bullet$  H is a predicative function of x.
- **③** H(`heterological') $\Leftrightarrow \exists \phi(\text{`heterological'} R(\phi \hat{z}) \land \neg \phi'\text{heterological'})$
- **3** But the first member of the conjunction in the scope of the existential quantifier is true iff we take the function H as the value of the variable  $\phi$ , and therefore
- $H(\text{`heterological'}) \Leftrightarrow \neg H(\text{`heterological'})$



In Principia, step (4) of the deduction is blocked because H does not belong to the domain of the variable  $\phi$ . (It is of higher order.)

In Principia, step (4) of the deduction is blocked because H does not belong to the domain of the variable  $\phi$ . (It is of higher order.)

Ramsey: Step (2) is invalid. H does not denote the heterological-function on the same simple way as an elementary function symbol denotes the function.

In Principia, step (4) of the deduction is blocked because H does not belong to the domain of the variable  $\phi$ . (It is of higher order.)

Ramsey: Step (2) is invalid. H does not denote the heterological-function on the same simple way as an elementary function symbol denotes the function.

Let us introduce the symbol S to denote the two-variable propositional function smaller than. What does denote the function  $\exists y(\hat{x}Sy)$ ?

In Principia, step (4) of the deduction is blocked because H does not belong to the domain of the variable  $\phi$ . (It is of higher order.)

Ramsey: Step (2) is invalid. H does not denote the heterological-function on the same simple way as an elementary function symbol denotes the function.

Let us introduce the symbol S to denote the two-variable propositional function smaller than. What does denote the function  $\exists y(\hat{x}Sy)$ ?

Such cases of denoting are more difficult and the relation R is not legitimately extended to them.

 $\bullet$  Type 0: individuals

- Type 0: individuals
- Type 1: functions of individuals

- Type 0: individuals
- Type 1: functions of individuals
- Type 2: functions of functions of individuals, etc.

- Type 0: individuals
- Type 1: functions of individuals
- Type 2: functions of functions of individuals, etc.

This simple theory of types is enough to eliminate the logical paradoxes.

- Type 0: individuals
- Type 1: functions of individuals
- Type 2: functions of functions of individuals, etc.

This simple theory of types is enough to eliminate the logical paradoxes.

We can construct another classification based on the bounded variables contained in the symbol of a proposition resp. function (see above). That is the hierarchy of orders, and the order of a function is independent of its type. (BTW. order belongs to the expression.)

- Type 0: individuals
- Type 1: functions of individuals
- Type 2: functions of functions of individuals, etc.

This simple theory of types is enough to eliminate the logical paradoxes.

We can construct another classification based on the bounded variables contained in the symbol of a proposition resp. function (see above). That is the hierarchy of orders, and the order of a function is independent of its type. (BTW. order belongs to the expression.)

The orders may help us to give a definite meaning to *denotes* and to eliminate the semantical paradoxes on this way.

- Type 0: individuals
- Type 1: functions of individuals
- Type 2: functions of functions of individuals, etc.

This simple theory of types is enough to eliminate the logical paradoxes.

We can construct another classification based on the bounded variables contained in the symbol of a proposition resp. function (see above). That is the hierarchy of orders, and the order of a function is independent of its type. (BTW. order belongs to the expression.)

The orders may help us to give a definite meaning to *denotes* and to eliminate the semantical paradoxes on this way.

E. g. in the paradox of the least natural number not nameable in fewer than nineteen syllables we create a new definition that is of higher order than the definitions it refers to.

The problematic axioms of *Principia*:

The problematic axioms of *Principia*:

• Axiom of Reducibility

The problematic axioms of *Principia*:

- Axiom of Reducibility
- Axiom of Infinity

#### The problematic axioms of *Principia*:

- Axiom of Reducibility
- Axiom of Infinity
- Multiplicative Axiom (=Choice): for every system S of non-empty sets, there is a function f defined on the system s.t. for every  $s \in S$ ,  $f(s) \in s$ .

The problematic axioms of *Principia*:

- Axiom of Reducibility
- Axiom of Infinity
- Multiplicative Axiom (=Choice): for every system S of non-empty sets, there is a function f defined on the system s.t. for every  $s \in S$ ,  $f(s) \in s$ .

Reducibility: it is neither a tautology nor a contradiction but an empirical statement about the world.

The problematic axioms of *Principia*:

- Axiom of Reducibility
- Axiom of Infinity
- Multiplicative Axiom (=Choice): for every system S of non-empty sets, there is a function f defined on the system s.t. for every  $s \in S$ ,  $f(s) \in s$ .

Reducibility: it is neither a tautology nor a contradiction but an empirical statement about the world.

Choice: in the framework of the *Principia* it is empirical. But in Ramsey's interpretation, it becomes a tautology. But not necessarily provable.

Consider the following sequence of propositions:

Consider the following sequence of propositions:

• There is at least one individual.

Consider the following sequence of propositions:

- There is at least one individual.
- There are at least two individuals.

. . .

#### Consider the following sequence of propositions:

- There is at least one individual.
- There are at least two individuals.

. . .

• There are at least  $\aleph_0$  individuals.

#### Consider the following sequence of propositions:

- There is at least one individual.
- There are at least two individuals.

. . .

- There are at least  $\aleph_0$  individuals.
- There are at least  $\aleph_1$  individuals.

. . .

Consider the following sequence of propositions:

- There is at least one individual.
- There are at least two individuals.

. . .

- There are at least  $\aleph_0$  individuals.
- There are at least  $\aleph_1$  individuals.

. . .

The members of this sequence are all either tautologies or contradictions. We don't know where the contradictions begin.

Consider the following sequence of propositions:

- There is at least one individual.
- There are at least two individuals.

. . .

- There are at least  $\aleph_0$  individuals.
- There are at least  $\aleph_1$  individuals.

. . .

The members of this sequence are all either tautologies or contradictions. We don't know where the contradictions begin.

Therefore, the Axiom of Infinity is a tautology if it is true, but it can't be proved. It must be postulated.