

# A historical introduction to the philosophy of mathematics

Fall Semester 2026

András Máté

Eötvös Loránd University Budapest  
Institute of Philosophy, Department of Logic  
mate.andras53@gmail.com

11.09.2026.

# General information

Webpage: <https://lps.elte.hu/andras/matfil/matfil.html>

Presentations will be posted after the classes.

Webpage: <https://lps.elte.hu/andras/matfil/matfil.html>

Presentations will be posted after the classes.

Closing and grades:

The course will conclude with a conference on the philosophy of mathematics.

To receive a grade, you must give a presentation on a topic related to the course theme.

During the lectures, I will mention some possible topics (but there are other options).

# Philosophers about mathematics: method, subject, certainty

# Philosophers about mathematics: method, subject, certainty

Aristotle, Posterior Analytics about ‘demonstrative science’:

# Philosophers about mathematics: method, subject, certainty

Aristotle, Posterior Analytics about ‘demonstrative science’:

- It sets out from first principles (*arkhai*) that are true and even clearer, better known and more certain than the theorems.

# Philosophers about mathematics: method, subject, certainty

Aristotle, Posterior Analytics about ‘demonstrative science’:

- It sets out from first principles (*arkhai*) that are true and even clearer, better known and more certain than the theorems.
- The theorems inherit the truth of the *arkhai* via the (absolutely reliable) rules of logic.

# Philosophers about mathematics: method, subject, certainty

Aristotle, Posterior Analytics about ‘demonstrative science’:

- It sets out from first principles (*arkhai*) that are true and even clearer, better known and more certain than the theorems.
- The theorems inherit the truth of the *arkhai* via the (absolutely reliable) rules of logic.

Therefore, demonstrative science consists of undoubtedly true statements.

# Philosophers about mathematics: method, subject, certainty

Aristotle, Posterior Analytics about ‘demonstrative science’:

- It sets out from first principles (*arkhai*) that are true and even clearer, better known and more certain than the theorems.
- The theorems inherit the truth of the *arkhai* via the (absolutely reliable) rules of logic.

Therefore, demonstrative science consists of undoubtedly true statements.

The description of demonstrative science corresponds well to the construction of mathematics in Euclid’s *Elements*.

# Philosophers about mathematics: method, subject, certainty

Aristotle, Posterior Analytics about ‘demonstrative science’:

- It sets out from first principles (*arkhai*) that are true and even clearer, better known and more certain than the theorems.
- The theorems inherit the truth of the *arkhai* via the (absolutely reliable) rules of logic.

Therefore, demonstrative science consists of undoubtedly true statements.

The description of demonstrative science corresponds well to the construction of mathematics in Euclid’s *Elements*.

This picture about mathematics may be called the dogmatic view.

# Plato about mathematics: a sceptic view

*arkhai* are (plausible) hypotheses that are accepted unless (or until) they lead to contradictions.

# Plato about mathematics: a sceptic view

*arkhai* are (plausible) hypotheses that are accepted unless (or until) they lead to contradictions.

These can always be revised (although mathematicians don't want to know about this).

# Plato about mathematics: a sceptic view

*arkhai* are (plausible) hypotheses that are accepted unless (or until) they lead to contradictions.

These can always be revised (although mathematicians don't want to know about this).

Mathematical objects are ideal: they do not exist in space and time, they are not accessible to the senses but only to reason.

# Plato about mathematics: a sceptic view

*arkhai* are (plausible) hypotheses that are accepted unless (or until) they lead to contradictions.

These can always be revised (although mathematicians don't want to know about this).

Mathematical objects are ideal: they do not exist in space and time, they are not accessible to the senses but only to reason.

Figures or *calculi* (small stones used to represent numbers) are just auxiliary tools to help our reason.

# Early modern developments

# Early modern developments

Dogmatic view: almost exclusively dominant until the mid-19th century.

# Early modern developments

Dogmatic view: almost exclusively dominant until the mid-19th century.

Mathematics:

- is about some special objects and structures: numbers and space;

# Early modern developments

Dogmatic view: almost exclusively dominant until the mid-19th century.

Mathematics:

- is about some special objects and structures: numbers and space;
- based on infallible first principles;

# Early modern developments

Dogmatic view: almost exclusively dominant until the mid-19th century.

Mathematics:

- is about some special objects and structures: numbers and space;
- based on infallible first principles;
- proves its theorems from these principles by logical deduction.

# Early modern developments

Dogmatic view: almost exclusively dominant until the mid-19th century.

Mathematics:

- is about some special objects and structures: numbers and space;
- based on infallible first principles;
- proves its theorems from these principles by logical deduction.

Where do the (true and indubitable) *arkhai* come from?

# Early modern developments

Dogmatic view: almost exclusively dominant until the mid-19th century.

Mathematics:

- is about some special objects and structures: numbers and space;
- based on infallible first principles;
- proves its theorems from these principles by logical deduction.

Where do the (true and indubitable) *arkhai* come from?

Aristotle: experience. Descartes: intuition.

# Early modern developments

Dogmatic view: almost exclusively dominant until the mid-19th century.

Mathematics:

- is about some special objects and structures: numbers and space;
- based on infallible first principles;
- proves its theorems from these principles by logical deduction.

Where do the (true and indubitable) *arkhai* come from?

Aristotle: experience. Descartes: intuition.

Early modern philosophy from Hume onwards: experience cannot teach us necessary and general knowledge.

# Early modern developments

Dogmatic view: almost exclusively dominant until the mid-19th century.

Mathematics:

- is about some special objects and structures: numbers and space;
- based on infallible first principles;
- proves its theorems from these principles by logical deduction.

Where do the (true and indubitable) *arkhai* come from?

Aristotle: experience. Descartes: intuition.

Early modern philosophy from Hume onwards: experience cannot teach us necessary and general knowledge.

Leibniz, Hume: mathematical knowledge is purely conceptual/logical knowledge.

# Early modern developments

Dogmatic view: almost exclusively dominant until the mid-19th century.

Mathematics:

- is about some special objects and structures: numbers and space;
- based on infallible first principles;
- proves its theorems from these principles by logical deduction.

Where do the (true and indubitable) *arkhai* come from?

Aristotle: experience. Descartes: intuition.

Early modern philosophy from Hume onwards: experience cannot teach us necessary and general knowledge.

Leibniz, Hume: mathematical knowledge is purely conceptual/logical knowledge.

Mathematics is nothing else than advanced logic.



Mathematics is not purely logical (analytic) because it is about objects that are given by intuition. But it is not empirical, either.

Mathematics is not purely logical (analytic) because it is about objects that are given by intuition. But it is not empirical, either.

Mathematics is synthetic a priori: it is based on the pure intuition of space and time.

Mathematics is not purely logical (analytic) because it is about objects that are given by intuition. But it is not empirical, either.

Mathematics is synthetic a priori: it is based on the pure intuition of space and time.

Fundamental truths are based on the properties of human cognitive capacity.

# Problems and tendencies in 19th century mathematics 1.: Calculus

# Problems and tendencies in 19th century mathematics 1.: Calculus

Differential and integral calculus is the most successful area of applied mathematics. But it lacks a solid, Euclidean foundation.

# Problems and tendencies in 19th century mathematics 1.: Calculus

Differential and integral calculus is the most successful area of applied mathematics. But it lacks a solid, Euclidean foundation.

Bolzano (*Paradoxes of infinity*, 1853) quotes the following ‘deduction’:

# Problems and tendencies in 19th century mathematics 1.: Calculus

Differential and integral calculus is the most successful area of applied mathematics. But it lacks a solid, Euclidean foundation.

Bolzano (*Paradoxes of infinity*, 1853) quotes the following ‘deduction’:

$$1 - 1 + 1 - 1 + \dots = x$$

# Problems and tendencies in 19th century mathematics 1.: Calculus

Differential and integral calculus is the most successful area of applied mathematics. But it lacks a solid, Euclidean foundation.

Bolzano (*Paradoxes of infinity*, 1853) quotes the following ‘deduction’:

$$\begin{aligned}1 - 1 + 1 - 1 + \dots &= x \\ x &= 1 - x\end{aligned}$$

# Problems and tendencies in 19th century mathematics 1.: Calculus

Differential and integral calculus is the most successful area of applied mathematics. But it lacks a solid, Euclidean foundation.

Bolzano (*Paradoxes of infinity*, 1853) quotes the following ‘deduction’:

$$\begin{aligned}1 - 1 + 1 - 1 + \dots &= x \\ x &= 1 - x \\ \text{Therefore, } x &= 1/2\end{aligned}$$

# Problems and tendencies in 19th century mathematics 1.: Calculus

Differential and integral calculus is the most successful area of applied mathematics. But it lacks a solid, Euclidean foundation.

Bolzano (*Paradoxes of infinity*, 1853) quotes the following ‘deduction’:

$$\begin{aligned}1 - 1 + 1 - 1 + \dots &= x \\ x &= 1 - x \\ \text{Therefore, } x &= 1/2\end{aligned}$$

Comment by Bolzano: first, it must be proved that there is a number which is the sum of the series.

# Bolzano on infinite quantities

Bolzano's theorem:

If a function is continuous in a closed interval and has opposite signs at the ends of the interval, then it has a zero point inside the interval.

Bolzano's theorem:

If a function is continuous in a closed interval and has opposite signs at the ends of the interval, then it has a zero point inside the interval.

It seems to be obvious by the naive notion of continuous function.

# Bolzano on infinite quantities

Bolzano's theorem:

If a function is continuous in a closed interval and has opposite signs at the ends of the interval, then it has a zero point inside the interval.

It seems to be obvious by the naive notion of continuous function.

Bolzano: the paradoxes of infinite(ly small or large) quantities can be resolved by scrupulous (re-)defining basic concepts and proving everything what seems to be obvious.

# Bolzano on infinite manifolds

# Bolzano on infinite manifolds

A paradox of infinite manifolds:

On the one side, the set of even natural numbers appears to be as large as the set of all natural numbers (because there is a one-to-one correspondence).

# Bolzano on infinite manifolds

A paradox of infinite manifolds:

On the one side, the set of even natural numbers appears to be as large as the set of all natural numbers (because there is a one-to-one correspondence).

On the other side, it should be smaller because, according to an axiom of Euclid: The whole is always larger than a [proper] part.

# Bolzano on infinite manifolds

A paradox of infinite manifolds:

On the one side, the set of even natural numbers appears to be as large as the set of all natural numbers (because there is a one-to-one correspondence).

On the other side, it should be smaller because, according to an axiom of Euclid: The whole is always larger than a [proper] part.

Bolzano proves at length and scrupulously that this difficulty cannot be circumvented.

# Bolzano on infinite manifolds

A paradox of infinite manifolds:

On the one side, the set of even natural numbers appears to be as large as the set of all natural numbers (because there is a one-to-one correspondence).

On the other side, it should be smaller because, according to an axiom of Euclid: The whole is always larger than a [proper] part.

Bolzano proves at length and scrupulously that this difficulty cannot be circumvented.

His conclusion: The paradoxes of infinite manifolds cannot be solved at all.

# After Bolzano

# After Bolzano

The paradoxes of calculus are solved precisely on the way he proposed.

# After Bolzano

The paradoxes of calculus are solved precisely on the way he proposed.

A joint work of the greatest mathematicians of the 19th century (Cauchy, Bolzano, Weierstrass, Dedekind and others): the arithmetization of the calculus.

# After Bolzano

The paradoxes of calculus are solved precisely on the way he proposed.

A joint work of the greatest mathematicians of the 19th century (Cauchy, Bolzano, Weierstrass, Dedekind and others): the arithmetization of the calculus.

Dedekind (*Continuity and irrational numbers*, 1872) defines the continuum of real numbers (based on the natural numbers that are taken as given).

# After Bolzano

The paradoxes of calculus are solved precisely on the way he proposed.

A joint work of the greatest mathematicians of the 19th century (Cauchy, Bolzano, Weierstrass, Dedekind and others): the arithmetization of the calculus.

Dedekind (*Continuity and irrational numbers*, 1872) defines the continuum of real numbers (based on the natural numbers that are taken as given).

Cantor solves Bolzano's paradox of infinite manifolds simply by rejecting the Euclidean axiom.

# After Bolzano

The paradoxes of calculus are solved precisely on the way he proposed.

A joint work of the greatest mathematicians of the 19th century (Cauchy, Bolzano, Weierstrass, Dedekind and others): the arithmetization of the calculus.

Dedekind (*Continuity and irrational numbers*, 1872) defines the continuum of real numbers (based on the natural numbers that are taken as given).

Cantor solves Bolzano's paradox of infinite manifolds simply by rejecting the Euclidean axiom.

Cantor: infinite manifolds and therefore infinite numbers are as real as finite numbers. They have a slightly different arithmetic from the arithmetic of finite numbers.

# After Bolzano

The paradoxes of calculus are solved precisely on the way he proposed.

A joint work of the greatest mathematicians of the 19th century (Cauchy, Bolzano, Weierstrass, Dedekind and others): the arithmetization of the calculus.

Dedekind (*Continuity and irrational numbers*, 1872) defines the continuum of real numbers (based on the natural numbers that are taken as given).

Cantor solves Bolzano's paradox of infinite manifolds simply by rejecting the Euclidean axiom.

Cantor: infinite manifolds and therefore infinite numbers are as real as finite numbers. They have a slightly different arithmetic from the arithmetic of finite numbers.

Theory of infinite sets, infinite cardinals and ordinals.

# Remaining problems

How to define the natural numbers?

How to define the natural numbers?

Why should we think that the theory of natural numbers is free of paradoxes?

How to define the natural numbers?

Why should we think that the theory of natural numbers is free of paradoxes?

Is the Cantorian concept of set as clear and well supported as it seems to be?

# Problems and tendencies ... 2. Geometry

## A. Non-euclidean geometries

# Problems and tendencies ... 2. Geometry

## A. Non-euclidean geometries

Euclid's 5th axiom (or 9th postulate) :

Take a line on the plane and a point that is not contained by this line. Then there is one and only one line that contains the point and does not intersect the previous line (this the parallel).

# Problems and tendencies ... 2. Geometry

## A. Non-euclidean geometries

Euclid's 5th axiom (or 9th postulate) :

Take a line on the plane and a point that is not contained by this line. Then there is one and only one line that contains the point and does not intersect the previous line (this the parallel).

Not as clear and obvious as other axioms of Euclid are because it is about infinity.

# Problems and tendencies ... 2. Geometry

## A. Non-euclidean geometries

Euclid's 5th axiom (or 9th postulate) :

Take a line on the plane and a point that is not contained by this line. Then there is one and only one line that contains the point and does not intersect the previous line (this the parallel).

Not as clear and obvious as other axioms of Euclid are because it is about infinity.

Equivalent proposition: The sum of the angles of a triangle is equal to two right angles.

# Problems and tendencies ... 2. Geometry

## A. Non-euclidean geometries

Euclid's 5th axiom (or 9th postulate) :

Take a line on the plane and a point that is not contained by this line. Then there is one and only one line that contains the point and does not intersect the previous line (this the parallel).

Not as clear and obvious as other axioms of Euclid are because it is about infinity.

Equivalent proposition: The sum of the angles of a triangle is equal to two right angles.

From the other axioms, it can be proved that there is at least one non-intersecting line (or the sum of the angles is not greater than two right angles).

## Problems and tendencies ... 2. Geometry

### A. Non-euclidean geometries

Euclid's 5th axiom (or 9th postulate) :

Take a line on the plane and a point that is not contained by this line. Then there is one and only one line that contains the point and does not intersect the previous line (this the parallel).

Not as clear and obvious as other axioms of Euclid are because it is about infinity.

Equivalent proposition: The sum of the angles of a triangle is equal to two right angles.

From the other axioms, it can be proved that there is at least one non-intersecting line (or the sum of the angles is not greater than two right angles).

18th century: several attempts to prove the axiom (typically by contradiction).

# The solution: away with the Euclidean axiom

# The solution: away with the Euclidean axiom

1831: János Bolyai publishes his work on ‘absolute’ and hyperbolic geometry.

# The solution: away with the Euclidean axiom

1831: János Bolyai publishes his work on ‘absolute’ and hyperbolic geometry.

In the subtitle, he takes aim the Kantian view of geometry: „The absolute science of space, regardless of the truth or falsity of Euclid’s ninth postulate which can never be decided *a priori*”

# The solution: away with the Euclidean axiom

1831: János Bolyai publishes his work on ‘absolute’ and hyperbolic geometry.

In the subtitle, he takes aim the Kantian view of geometry: „The absolute science of space, regardless of the truth or falsity of Euclid’s ninth postulate which can never be decided *a priori*”

Absolute geometry: Euclid’s system without the axiom of parallels. But it does not answer an important question about space.

# The solution: away with the Euclidean axiom

1831: János Bolyai publishes his work on ‘absolute’ and hyperbolic geometry.

In the subtitle, he takes aim the Kantian view of geometry: „The absolute science of space, regardless of the truth or falsity of Euclid’s ninth postulate which can never be decided *a priori*”

Absolute geometry: Euclid’s system without the axiom of parallels. But it does not answer an important question about space.

Hyperbolic (Bolyai-Lobachevsky) geometry: Absolute geometry + the negation of the ninth postulate.

# The solution: away with the Euclidean axiom

1831: János Bolyai publishes his work on ‘absolute’ and hyperbolic geometry.

In the subtitle, he takes aim the Kantian view of geometry: „The absolute science of space, regardless of the truth or falsity of Euclid’s ninth postulate which can never be decided *a priori*”

Absolute geometry: Euclid’s system without the axiom of parallels. But it does not answer an important question about space.

Hyperbolic (Bolyai-Lobachevsky) geometry: Absolute geometry + the negation of the ninth postulate.

About twenty years later the equiconsistency of Euclidean and Bolyai-Lobachevsky-geometry is proved (Cayley-Klein model). It is therefore impossible to decide which is the true science of the space.

# Problems in geometry B.: Hidden axioms in Euclid

# Problems in geometry B.: Hidden axioms in Euclid

For more than 2000 years, Euclid's geometry was considered the example of perfect deductive theory.

# Problems in geometry B.: Hidden axioms in Euclid

For more than 2000 years, Euclid's geometry was considered the example of perfect deductive theory.

Axiom of (Moritz) Pasch:

Given a triangle and a line that intersects one side of the triangle at an interior point. Then the line either intersects one of the other sides or contains the vertex not belonging to the first side.

# Problems in geometry B.: Hidden axioms in Euclid

For more than 2000 years, Euclid's geometry was considered the example of perfect deductive theory.

Axiom of (Moritz) Pasch:

Given a triangle and a line that intersects one side of the triangle at an interior point. Then the line either intersects one of the other sides or contains the vertex not belonging to the first side.

This proposition is:

# Problems in geometry B.: Hidden axioms in Euclid

For more than 2000 years, Euclid's geometry was considered the example of perfect deductive theory.

Axiom of (Moritz) Pasch:

Given a triangle and a line that intersects one side of the triangle at an interior point. Then the line either intersects one of the other sides or contains the vertex not belonging to the first side.

This proposition is:

- ① evidently true;

# Problems in geometry B.: Hidden axioms in Euclid

For more than 2000 years, Euclid's geometry was considered the example of perfect deductive theory.

Axiom of (Moritz) Pasch:

Given a triangle and a line that intersects one side of the triangle at an interior point. Then the line either intersects one of the other sides or contains the vertex not belonging to the first side.

This proposition is:

- ① evidently true;
- ② independent of the other axioms;

# Problems in geometry B.: Hidden axioms in Euclid

For more than 2000 years, Euclid's geometry was considered the example of perfect deductive theory.

Axiom of (Moritz) Pasch:

Given a triangle and a line that intersects one side of the triangle at an interior point. Then the line either intersects one of the other sides or contains the vertex not belonging to the first side.

This proposition is:

- ① evidently true;
- ② independent of the other axioms;
- ③ needed for some theorems of Euclid;

# Problems in geometry B.: Hidden axioms in Euclid

For more than 2000 years, Euclid's geometry was considered the example of perfect deductive theory.

Axiom of (Moritz) Pasch:

Given a triangle and a line that intersects one side of the triangle at an interior point. Then the line either intersects one of the other sides or contains the vertex not belonging to the first side.

This proposition is:

- ① evidently true;
- ② independent of the other axioms;
- ③ needed for some theorems of Euclid;
- ④ never stated explicitly in the *Elements*.

# How to avoid such accidents?

# How to avoid such accidents?

First, let's rearrange the axiom system of geometry to include the hidden axioms (Hilbert: *Grundlagen der Geometrie*, 1899)

# How to avoid such accidents?

First, let's rearrange the axiom system of geometry to include the hidden axioms (Hilbert: *Grundlagen der Geometrie*, 1899)

But what guarantee is there that hidden assumptions will not be used in the future?

# How to avoid such accidents?

First, let's rearrange the axiom system of geometry to include the hidden axioms (Hilbert: *Grundlagen der Geometrie*, 1899)

But what guarantee is there that hidden assumptions will not be used in the future?

We need a logical theory to check every step of a proof. But Aristotelian syllogistic is far too weak for that.

# How to avoid such accidents?

First, let's rearrange the axiom system of geometry to include the hidden axioms (Hilbert: *Grundlagen der Geometrie*, 1899)

But what guarantee is there that hidden assumptions will not be used in the future?

We need a logical theory to check every step of a proof. But Aristotelian syllogistic is far too weak for that.

Since Aristotle and Euclid, it was always demanded that the steps of a mathematical proof follow with logical necessity from the previous steps. But it was never defined what logical consequence is. The logic of the mathematical theories had always been intuitive/implicit. People accepted that certain propositions follow from other propositions without having any method or background theory to verify it.

# How to avoid such accidents?

First, let's rearrange the axiom system of geometry to include the hidden axioms (Hilbert: *Grundlagen der Geometrie*, 1899)

But what guarantee is there that hidden assumptions will not be used in the future?

We need a logical theory to check every step of a proof. But Aristotelian syllogistic is far too weak for that.

Since Aristotle and Euclid, it was always demanded that the steps of a mathematical proof follow with logical necessity from the previous steps. But it was never defined what logical consequence is. The logic of the mathematical theories had always been intuitive/implicit. People accepted that certain propositions follow from other propositions without having any method or background theory to verify it.

This is just another remaining problem.