

Mathematical Pluralism*

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Abstract

Mathematical pluralism can take one of three forms: (1) every consistent mathematical theory consists of truths about its own domain of individuals and relations; (2) every mathematical theory, consistent or inconsistent, consists of truths about its own (possibly uninteresting) domain of individuals and relations; and (3) the principal philosophies of mathematics are each based upon an insight or truth about the nature of mathematics that can be validated. (1) includes the multiverse approach to set theory. (2) helps us to understand the significance of the distinguished non-logical individual and relation terms of even inconsistent theories. (3) is a metaphilosophical form of mathematical pluralism and hasn't been discussed in the literature. In what follows, I show how the analysis of theoretical mathematics in object theory exhibits all three forms of mathematical pluralism.

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1 Introduction

In the 20th century, one of the main strategies for the philosophical analysis of mathematics was *foundationalism*, the view that all of mathematics is reducible to some foundational mathematical theory (set theory, category theory, etc.). This view reduces the problem of analyzing the content, and our knowledge, of different mathematical theories to that of a single theory. As a proponent, Quine committed himself to sets, on the grounds that our best scientific theories ineliminably quantify over set-theoretically-reducible mathematical objects (1948 [1980], 1970); see also Colyvan 2001). Quine then argued that the epistemology of mathematics reduces to that of natural science.

But Quine's strategy offers no account of unapplied mathematics and justifies only the weakest set-theoretic axioms needed for the mathematics of our best physical theories. Moreover, philosophers since Benacerraf (1965) have questioned theory reduction in mathematics. In general, the fact that mathematical theory T can be reduced to theory T' doesn't imply that the quantifiers of T range over the same domain as the quantifiers of T' .

An alternative account of mathematics, with roots in Hilbert and Carnap, has gathered momentum in recent years, namely, *mathematical pluralism*. The *first* and most common form of mathematical pluralism is the view that every consistent mathematical theory consists of truths about its own domain of individuals and relations. The early Hilbert is a pluralist in virtue of his claim that if a mathematical theory T is consistent, then the objects systematized by T exist.¹ Carnap was also a mathematical pluralist, since he took each linguistic framework to be about the objects and relations represented by its primitive notions (1950 [1956]).² But Carnap declined to answer any 'external' questions about the existence of the objects and relations of a framework – such 'pseudo-questions' should instead be understood as questions about the expediency of adopting one framework rather than another.

¹A letter from Hilbert to Frege, dated 29 December 1899, captures the position:

... if the arbitrarily given axioms do not contradict one another with all their consequences, then they are true and the things defined by the axioms exist.

See Gabriel et al. (eds.) 1980 (39). However, see Detlefsen 1993, Sieg 2014, and Dean 2021 for nuanced discussions about the evolution of Hilbert's views.

²See Kissel (forthcoming) for a discussion of the question of whether Carnap was a *logical* pluralist.

In what follows, this first form of mathematical pluralism is construed in complete generality, as the suggestion that every consistent mathematical theory is true. Adherents are unmoved by the criticism (originally directed at deductivism in Resnik 1980, 132) that the view legitimizes the study of random axiom combinations, such as set theory without pairing. A pluralist leaves the determination of what is interesting to mathematical practice.³ After all, set theory without pairing is still mathematics, and who is to say that it won't one day prove useful in the development of a natural science?

This first form of mathematical pluralism has been taken seriously by a number of recent authors. Despite his reservations about deductivism, Resnik later (1989) suggests that each mathematical theory 'postulates' or 'posits' the relevant mathematical objects. Field (1994, 392, 420–422) and Balaguer (1995, 1998a,b) have argued that platonists should adopt a plenitude principle on which every possible mathematical object exists, so that each mathematical theory describes some part of mathematical reality. Linsky & Zalta (1995) argued that the non-logical expressions of arbitrary mathematical theories can be interpreted in terms of well-defined descriptions that denote abstract objects and abstract relations governed by an unrestricted comprehension principle. Structuralists (Shapiro 1997, Resnik 1997) may be seen as pluralists in so far as they take arbitrary mathematical theories to be about structures (Nodelman & Zalta 2014 explicitly do so). Inferentialists (Wittgenstein 1956; Sellars 1953 [1980], 1974) are pluralists as well, in so far as they take the meaning of the terms of arbitrary mathematical theories to be captured by their inferential roles. We may also count the multiverse approach to set theory (Hamkins 2012) as pluralist. Hamkins claims (216) that "there are diverse distinct concepts of set, each instantiated in a corresponding set-theoretic universe, which exhibit diverse set-theoretic truths". These views will be discussed in some detail in Section 2. Though, for reasons discussed in Section 4.2, we shall not count modal structuralism (or deductivism generally) as a kind of mathematical pluralism, notwithstanding the argument in Hellman & Bell 2006.

This first form of mathematical pluralism includes classical, constructive, intuitionistic, finitist, and other types of consistent mathemat-

³Bueno (2011, 555–558) explains why *relativism* in mathematics doesn't imply that there are no constraints on mathematical practice or that 'anything goes'; for example, not every theory is equally fruitful. His considerations apply to pluralism.

ical theories. For example, Davies (2005, 253) argues for the 'validity' of both classical and constructive mathematics (253) and suggests that the debate about the 'right' way to do mathematics is 'sterile' and 'counter-productive'. He adopts the view that mathematical statements are not true simpliciter but only relative to a theory.⁴

The *second* form of mathematical pluralism extends the first form to 'inconsistent' mathematical theories. Beall (1999) argues that every mathematical theory—consistent and inconsistent alike—truly describes some part of the mathematical realm. To ensure that 'Real Full Blooded Platonism' (RFBP) doesn't degenerate into triviality, he assumes paraconsistent logic as a background for inconsistent theories such as those investigated by Mortensen (1995, 2009). Such theories are not trivial; some of the sentences expressible in the language of the theory are theorems and others are not.⁵ Bueno's (2011) mathematical *relativism* is closely related to this second form of mathematical pluralism, though without any commitment to the existence of mathematical objects and relations. Friend (2013, 2014) argues explicitly for the second form of mathematical pluralism. Warren defends an unrestricted inferentialism (2015, 1353ff; 2020, 55ff) on which (a) the rules that implicitly define an expression are automatically valid and (b) any collection of rules can be used to implicitly specify a meaning for an expression. This leads to a logical pluralism that results in an inferentialist version of the second form of mathematical pluralism (2020, 199ff), on which mathematical theories consist of conventional truths. Priest (2019, §11) also explicitly defends the second form of mathematical pluralism.

⁴Davies (2005, 257) writes:

When talking about mathematics, as opposed to the philosophy of mathematics, one does not have to discuss truth, epistemology, transcendence, etc. A mathematician might say that 'a theorem X is true', but this means exactly the same as 'X is a theorem' as defined above, and does not refer to any theory of truth When mathematicians say as mathematicians that they do not know whether Goldbach's conjecture is true, they mean exactly the same as when they say that nobody has yet found a proof of Goldbach's conjecture.

I suspect this captures the sentiments of a significant cross-section of mathematicians.

⁵Beall concludes (1999, 325):

. . . if we really are going to expand platonic heaven in an effort to ensure our epistemic footing, then we need to explore the option of expanding heaven to its nontrivial limits. If this option is to be rejected, then we need good reason for rejecting it.^[5] For now, no such reason seems to exist.

This second form of mathematical pluralism can be extended to classically inconsistent mathematics. For suppose one could formulate a *consistent* theory of ‘impossible’ objects, some of which are trivial (i.e., ‘have’, in some sense, every property) and some of which are ‘mathematically trivial’ but not ‘trivial *simpliciter*’ (i.e., ‘have’, in some sense, every property expressible in the language of some mathematical theory but don’t have every property whatsoever). I’ll describe a theory of this kind in Section 3. Note that such a theory would allow us to extend the second form of mathematical pluralism to classically inconsistent mathematical theories. For then one could claim that such mathematical theories are about impossible objects that are mathematically trivial (and thus relatively uninteresting) without being simply trivial. Such a view has one thing going for it: we do in fact understand the language and ‘proofs’ of Frege’s *Grundgesetze* (1893/1903). Its formal sentences have content, indeed content Frege used to derive propositions from the axioms. This could be explained by (a) analyzing the *denotation* of the terms in *Grundgesetze* as mathematically trivial objects and relations and (b) regarding the *sense* of those mathematical terms, relative to any person unaware of the paradox, as objects that don’t involve incompatible properties. In any case, this second form of mathematical pluralism, in the limit, is the view that every mathematical theory, whether consistent or classically inconsistent, is about its own domain of individuals and relations.

The *third* form of mathematical pluralism is the view that each of the main philosophies of mathematics is based upon a valid insight. Of course, most philosophers don’t subscribe to this *metaphilosophical* view. Most believe that if platonism is true, nominalism and fictionalism are false, or vice versa. Similarly, many would claim that only one of structuralism and inferentialism is true; either the terms of mathematical language refer to elements of an abstract structure or their content is constituted by their inferential role within a theory, but not both. The standard view is that structuralism is ‘realist’ and referential, whereas inferentialism is ‘anti-realist’ and non-referential.

In what follows, I plan to show how the basic insights from these and other philosophies of mathematics can be preserved. Specifically, I argue that the analysis of mathematics in *object theory* validates all three forms of mathematical pluralism. Object theory (‘OT’) exhibits the first form of mathematical pluralism because its methodology specifies, for any con-

sistent mathematical theory T , the denotations of the terms and the truth conditions of the theorems of T ; each theory T is about its own domain of mathematical individuals and relations. This includes non-classical mathematics, such as constructivism, intuitionism, finitism, etc. OT exhibits the second form of mathematical pluralism since its analysis can be extended to inconsistent mathematical theories, expressed either in paraconsistent logic or classical logic. The terms and sentences of these mathematical theories can also be assigned a precise meaning, as we’ll see in Section 3. Finally, OT exhibits the third kind of mathematical pluralism: it is couched in a formalism having a number of different interpretations, each of which captures a central element in one of the main philosophies of mathematics. We’ll demonstrate this, and the unity it brings, in Section 4.

2 The First Form of Mathematical Pluralism

In this section I review OT and its analysis of classical mathematics (Section 2.1), extend the analysis to the multiverse conception of sets and to consistent but non-classical mathematics (Section 2.2), and conclude with a discussion of how OT supplies theoretical components that are missing from other attempts to develop this form of mathematical pluralism (Section 2.3).

2.1 OT and Its Analysis of Classical Mathematics

Since OT has been presented in a number of publications over the years, we leave a summary of its first principles, as expressed in a 2nd-order quantified modal language, to a footnote.⁶ For the analysis of mathemat-

⁶We extend 2nd-order quantified modal logic *without* identity by adding atomic formulas of the form xF , which represent a new mode of predication (read: x encodes F), where F is a 1-place relation (i.e., property) variable. OT includes primitive definite descriptions of the form $\iota x\varphi$ for any φ , and primitive n -place relation terms of the form $[\lambda x_1 \dots x_n \varphi]$ when φ has no encoding subformulas.

Using a primitive 1-place relation term $E!$ for *being concrete, ordinary* objects ($O!x$) are defined as objects x that are possibly concrete ($\diamond E!x$), and *abstract* objects ($A!x$) as objects x that couldn’t be concrete ($\neg \diamond E!x$). Ordinary objects necessarily fail to encode properties, though abstract objects can both exemplify and encode properties. Moreover, if x encodes a property, it necessarily does so ($xF \rightarrow \Box xF$). The central, comprehension principle for abstract objects asserts, for any condition φ in which x doesn’t occur free, that $\exists x(A!x \ \& \ \forall F(xF \equiv \varphi))$. Various works on OT explain how this principle can be applied.

ical theories, we use the type-theoretic version of OT, based on simple type theory. Simple type theory utilizes one primitive type i for individuals, and derived types of the form $\langle t_1, \dots, t_n \rangle$ for n -place relations, where t_1, \dots, t_n are any types, $n \geq 0$.⁷ When the language and axioms of OT are all typed according to this scheme, the comprehension principle asserts the existence of abstract entities at each type t . Where ‘ x ’ is a variable of any given type t , ‘ $A!$ ’ denotes the property of *being abstract* having type $\langle t \rangle$, and ‘ F ’ is a variable of type $\langle t \rangle$, the comprehension schema of typed OT is:

$$\exists x(A!x \ \& \ \forall F(xF \equiv \varphi)), \quad (1)$$

where φ is any condition in which x doesn’t occur free.

This asserts that there is an abstract object of type t that encodes just the properties F such that φ .⁸ As we’ll see below, mathematical individuals will be identified as abstracta of type i and mathematical properties and relations will be identified as abstracta of type $\langle i \rangle$, $\langle i, i \rangle$, $\langle i, i, i \rangle$, etc. Note that principle (1) is an *unrestricted* comprehension principle and, as such, is a plenitude principle – no matter what properties are used to define an abstract object of some type t , the principle guarantees that there is an object of type t that encodes just those properties and no others.

Moreover, identity is defined at each type, so that $x = y$ just in case either x and y are both ordinary objects of type t and necessarily exemplify the same properties, or x and y are both abstract objects of type t and necessarily encode the same properties. Given the 2nd disjunct of this definiens for $x = y$, each instance of (1) yields a *unique* abstract object that encodes just the properties such that φ – there couldn’t be two distinct abstract objects that encode exactly the properties such that φ , since distinct abstract objects have to differ by one of their encoded properties. Thus, descriptions of the form $\iota x(A!x \ \& \ \forall F(xF \equiv \varphi))$ are *canonical* – the description is well-defined (has a denotation) for each φ (with no free occurrences of x).

⁷Thus, $\langle i \rangle$ is the type for properties of individuals, while $\langle i, i \rangle$ is the type for 2-place relations among individuals. $\langle \langle i \rangle \rangle$ is the type for properties of properties of individuals, and $\langle \langle i, i \rangle \rangle$ are properties of relations among individuals. When $n=0$, the empty type $\langle \rangle$ is the type for propositions, i.e., 0-place relations.

⁸When x is a variable of type i , F is a variable of type $\langle i \rangle$, and φ is supplied, the principle (1) asserts the existence of an abstract individual that encodes just the properties F such that φ . When x is a variable of type $\langle i, i \rangle$, F is a variable of type $\langle \langle i, i \rangle \rangle$, and φ is supplied, (1) asserts that there is an abstract relation that encodes just the properties of relations among individuals such that φ . And so on.

To analyze mathematics, OT distinguishes *natural* mathematics and *theoretical* mathematics. Natural mathematical objects are referenced in everyday language, such as when we say “the number of planets is eight”, “the class of insects is larger than the class of humans”, “lines a and b have the same direction” or “figures a and b have the same shape”. The natural mathematical objects referenced in these sentences are analyzed directly in OT without appealing to any mathematical theories.⁹

By contrast, *theoretical* mathematical objects and relations assume distinctive mathematical principles. These are often, but not always, expressed in the form of axioms that govern distinctive mathematical primitives. OT exhibits the first form of mathematical pluralism by using the canonical descriptions just discussed to analyze the objects and relations described by *arbitrary* mathematical theories. The analysis proceeds by assigning, for each mathematical theory T , (i) a unique denotation to the distinguished non-logical terms (individual terms and relation terms) of T and (ii) truth conditions to the theorems of T .¹⁰

To assign denotations to the terms of mathematical theories, we first extend the notion of encoding by saying that an abstract object x *encodes* a proposition p just in case $x[\lambda y p]$, i.e., just in case x encodes the property $[\lambda y p]$ (“*being a y such that p* ”). The definiens $x[\lambda y p]$ has the form xF , where $[\lambda y p]$ has been substituted for F . Then we analyze mathematical theories as abstract individuals that encode propositions. We say that a proposition p is *true in theory T* (“ $T \models p$ ”) just in case T encodes p . Formally, this definition is stated as:

$$T \models p \equiv_{df} T[\lambda y p] \quad (2)$$

We may also read $T \models p$ as: In theory T , p .

We next consider any classical mathematical theory T and formalize it in a non-modal, higher-order logic without function terms (or definite descriptions) but with (closed) relational λ -expressions. The λ -expressions allow one to represent complex properties; for example, in 2nd-order Peano Arithmetic (henceforth ‘PA’), we use $[\lambda x Px \ \& \ x < 4]3$ to represent the claim that 3 exemplifies the property *being prime and less than*

⁹See Zalta 1999 for the analysis of the natural numbers, and Anderson & Zalta 2004 for the analysis of (logically conceived) sets and classes, directions, shapes, etc.

¹⁰OT’s analysis of theoretical mathematics has been refined over the years, and so more recent presentations of the analysis (e.g., Nodelman & Zalta 2014) are more up-to-date than older ones (e.g., Linsky & Zalta 2006; Zalta 2006, 2000a, and 1983, 147–153).

4. Then (a) for each non-logical term τ (constant or predicate) of T , we add τ_T to OT, and (b) whenever φ is any closed theorem of T , we add to OT the *analytic* truth $T \models \varphi^*$, where φ^* is just like φ except that every non-logical term τ in φ has been replaced by τ_T . For example, “0 is a number” is asserted in PA and so becomes imported into OT as the claim $PA \models N_{PA} 0_{PA}$. This formal claim was defined in the previous paragraph and can be read as the analytic truth “In PA, 0_{PA} exemplifies being a PA-number”. We then begin our analysis by identifying a mathematical theory T as an abstract object that encodes all of the truths of T .¹¹ In general, for theories presented axiomatically, facts of the form $T \vdash \varphi$ become imported as facts of the form $T \models \varphi^*$. But if, for example, one were to identify a theory (i.e., a body of truths) non-axiomatically, then we can introduce a proper name, say ‘ \mathfrak{T} ’, for that body of truths and extend object theory with analytic truths of the form $\mathfrak{T} \models \varphi^*$ for each such truth φ in \mathfrak{T} .

To complete the assignment of denotations to the terms of T , we identify the denotation of each well-defined individual constant κ of T by using the following definite description, where x is a variable of type i and the other expressions are appropriately typed:

$$\kappa_T = \iota x(A!x \ \& \ \forall F(xF \equiv T \models F\kappa_T)) \quad (3)$$

In other words, (3) identifies the individual κ of theory T as the abstract individual that encodes exactly the properties F exemplified by κ in T . This is *not* a definition of κ_T (since ‘ κ_T ’ occurs on both the left and right side of the identity symbol) but rather a principle asserting an identity that forms part of the analysis of mathematics in OT. The principle gets its purchase from, and is grounded in, data of the form $T \models F\kappa_T$.

For example, let T be Zermelo-Fraenkel set theory (ZF) and consider the term ‘ \emptyset ’ in ZF. Then the following is an instance of (3):

$$\emptyset_{ZF} = \iota x(A!x \ \& \ \forall F(xF \equiv ZF \models F\emptyset_{ZF})) \quad (4)$$

This same analysis can be generalized to the *relation* terms of a mathematical theory. Suppose Π is a 2-place relation term of T . We may

¹¹That is, when we judge pretheoretically that T is a mathematical theory and import T into object theory as described above, we assert that the following identity holds:

$$T = \iota x(A!x \ \& \ \forall F(xF \equiv \exists p(T \models p \ \& \ F = [\lambda y p])))$$

I.e., T is the abstract object that encodes all and only the properties F of the form $[\lambda y p]$ when p is some proposition true in T . This is *not* a definition, but rather a principle that identifies mathematical theories in OT.

identify the relation that Π denotes relative to T by using the following definite description, where x is now a variable of type $\langle i, i \rangle$, and $A!$ and F have type $\langle \langle i, i \rangle \rangle$:

$$\Pi_T = \iota x(A!x \ \& \ \forall F(xF \equiv T \models F\Pi_T)) \quad (5)$$

(5) identifies the relation Π of theory T as the abstract relation that encodes exactly the properties of relations exemplified by Π in T . The following is an example of (5):

$$\in_{ZF} = \iota x(A!x \ \& \ \forall F(xF \equiv ZF \models F\in_{ZF})) \quad (6)$$

That is, the membership relation \in of ZF is the abstract relation that encodes exactly the properties of relations exemplified by \in_{ZF} in ZF. For example, this abstract relation encodes the property *being a relation R such that the empty set bears R to the unit set of the empty set*, a property that we can represent using the λ -expression $[\lambda R \emptyset R\{\emptyset}]$, where indices have been suppressed for readability and R is in infix notation.

And principles analogous to (5) hold when Π is an n -place relation term of T for $n \neq 2$. For example, ‘being a number’ (‘ N ’) is a 1-place relation term of PA and would be subject to an identification similar to (6), though expressed using the identity principle for 1-place mathematical relations. This analysis makes it clear that OT’s pluralism extends to both the individual and relation terms of a theory T ; few mathematical pluralists identify mathematical relations as well as individuals.

We can now state the truth conditions for a mathematical theorem via the denotations of its terms. The data (i.e., the theory-relative sentences) are parsed just as one might expect. For example, the truth conditions for:

$$\text{In ZF, no set is a member of the null set.} \quad (7)$$

can be represented as follows:

$$ZF \models \neg \exists x(S_{ZF}x \ \& \ x \in_{ZF} \emptyset_{ZF}), \text{ i.e.,} \quad (8)$$

ZF encodes (the proposition): nothing that exemplifies the property of being a ZF-set bears the ZF-membership relation to the ZF-emptyset.

This states the truth conditions of the target sentence in terms of objects and relations that have been antecedently identified as abstract entities

within the background ontology of OT. This analysis applies to any theory T and its theorems.

But now *remove* the ‘In ZF’ operator from (7) to obtain the bare (‘unprefixed’) mathematical sentence “No set is a member of the null set”. OT treats this sentence, stated in some context, as ambiguous; it has both true and false readings. If we take the context to be ZF, then the false reading is the pure exemplification formula $\neg\exists x(Sx \& x \in \emptyset)$, in which the index on ‘0’, ‘S’, and ‘ \in ’ to ZF has been suppressed. OT stipulates that such unprefixed *exemplification readings* of theoretical mathematics are not true – this is a key to OT’s form of pluralism.¹²

By contrast, the true reading of “No set is a member of the empty set”, in the context of ZF, can be captured as a conjunction of the following facts about \emptyset_{ZF} , S_{ZF} , and \in_{ZF} (suppressing indices for readability):¹³

- $\emptyset[\lambda z \neg\exists x(Sx \& x \in z)]$, i.e., (9)
 \emptyset encodes the property: being an individual z such that no set is a member of z .

- $S[\lambda F \neg\exists x(Fx \& x \in \emptyset)]$, i.e., (10)
 S encodes the property: being a property F such that nothing exemplifying F is a member of \emptyset .

- $\in[\lambda R \neg\exists x(Sx \& xR\emptyset)]$, i.e., (11)
 \in encodes the property: being a relation R such that no set bears R to \emptyset .

These readings are *provable* in OT. For example, (9) follows from (4) and the result of importing the proof-theoretic fact $ZF \vdash [\lambda z \neg\exists x(Sx \& x \in z)]\emptyset$.

¹²This is to be contrasted with the unprefixed statements of *natural* mathematics made in the context of non-technical, natural language. We mentioned previously that OT analyzes “the number of planets is eight”, or “the class of insects is larger than the class of humans”, etc., by applying its subtheory of natural mathematical objects, which doesn’t assume any *theoretical* mathematical principles. As such, OT analyzes such statements differently and regards them as true. See the works on the analysis of natural mathematics in OT mentioned earlier.

¹³Strictly speaking, the λ -expressions in the following representations should be indexed to ZF; we’ve suppressed the index here as well. The indexed λ -expressions denote abstract properties. For example, where t is any type and α a variable of type t , the expression $[\lambda\alpha^t \varphi]_{ZF}$ denotes the abstract property of type $\langle t \rangle$ that encodes just the higher-order properties F (i.e., having type $\langle\langle t \rangle\rangle$) such that in ZF, $[\lambda\alpha^t \varphi]_{ZF}$ exemplifies F . The formalization is straightforward, but again it should be remembered that this is not a definition but a principle of identity that is part of the OT analysis of mathematics.

(11) follows from (6) and the result of importing the proof-theoretic fact that $ZF \vdash [\lambda R \neg\exists x(Sx \& xR\emptyset)]\in$. So the conjunction of (9) – (11) is derivable, and if we use the conjunction to define a single, tertiary encoding claim, then we have fully represented the true reading of the unprefixed claim “No set is a member of the null set” when considered relative to ZF.¹⁴

2.2 The Multiverse and Non-Classical Mathematics

The foregoing analysis of theoretical mathematics in OT easily extends to the multiverse conception of set theory and to non-classical mathematical theories. For the multiverse conception, consider the terms of ZFC rather than ZF; the following are instances of (3) and (5):

$$\emptyset_{ZFC} = \iota x(A!x \& \forall F(xF \equiv ZFC \models F\emptyset_{ZFC})) \quad (12)$$

$$\in_{ZFC} = \iota x(A!x \& \forall F(xF \equiv ZFC \models F\in_{ZFC})) \quad (13)$$

Clearly, \in_{ZFC} is different from \in_{ZF} ; the former supports the truth of the Axiom of Choice while the latter does not.

Thus, each distinct set theory yields a distinct universe of sets and a distinct membership relation. As long as set theories T and T' have different theorems (and aren’t mere alphabetic variants), the notion of ‘set’ each implicitly defines is different. There isn’t one *Urconcept* of membership systematized by the one true set theory. Rather, each set theory defines a different conception of ‘set’ and ‘membership’.¹⁵

This captures the multiverse view in Hamkins (2012, 416) quoted earlier. Hamkins contrasts his view with the ‘universe’ view, on which there is a single conception of set and a single set-theoretic universe in which every set-theoretic assertion has a definite truth-value (416). He

¹⁴Consider the higher-order property $[\lambda zFR \neg\exists x(Fx \& xRz)]$ and use the conjunction of (9) – (11) as the definiens of the following ternary encoding claim asserting that \emptyset , S , and \in encode this property:

$$\emptyset S \in [\lambda zFR \neg\exists x(Fx \& xRz)]$$

Current research into OT takes these n -ary encoding claims as primitive and axiomatizes them, so that n -ary encoding predications can be directly used to represent the data.

¹⁵Again, the exception to this is the natural or logical conception of set, which can be abstracted without mathematical primitives: ϵG (‘the class of G s’) is the abstract object that encodes all and only the properties F materially equivalent to G . One can then define $y \in x$ as: $\exists G(x = \epsilon G \& Gy)$. Thus, from ‘Socrates is a human’ (‘ Hs ’), it follows that $s \in \epsilon H$. A *consistent* but ‘flat’ theory of classes can then be derived (Anderson & Zalta 2004).

then argues that, on his multiverse view, each set-theoretic universe “exists independently in the same Platonic sense that proponents of the universe view regard their universe to exist” (416–17). But our analysis also makes it clear that the distinct universes embody distinct conceptions of ‘membership’.

There are, of course, points of difference between the present view and Hamkins’ multiverse view. Some are minor differences, while others are more significant. Hamkins regards the multiverse view as a ‘higher-order realism’ and a platonism about universes (417), though clearly the OT analysis extends this to realism and platonism about abstract objects generally, at least in the interpretation of the formalism we’ve assumed thus far for the purposes of exposition. A more significant difference concerns Hamkins’ view that “the clearest way to refer to a set concept is to describe the universe of sets in which it is instantiated, and ... identify a set concept with the model of set theory to which it gives rise” (417). OT does identify set concepts by description but not with models of set theory. Model theory already assumes set theory and so the statements of model theory constitutes part of the data OT attempts to explain. We’ll return to this issue in Section 2.3, where we investigate whether one can, as Hamkins suggests, identify a set concept with the model of set theory to which it gives rise.¹⁶

It is now easy to extend OT’s analysis to constructive, intuitionistic, finitistic, etc., mathematical theories. Some of these theories (e.g., finitist theories) are expressed in classical logic but with axioms that are weaker than classical mathematical theories, while others (e.g., intuitionistic, constructive theories) use non-classical logic. In the former case, we use the analysis described above. In the latter case, we consider the deductive system as a whole, i.e., the system that results by combining the non-logical axioms and the logic. Some non-classical theories use the same non-logical axioms as classical theories but are just formulated within a non-classical logic. So, for example, Heyting Arithmetic (HA) uses the same language and non-logical axioms as PA but asserts the latter in the context of intuitionistic predicate logic (IQC). So, although we could regard the proof-theoretic claim $HA \vdash \varphi$ as having the form $T \vdash_L \varphi$, where $T = PA$ and $L = IQC$, we can equally well regard HA as a single

¹⁶See Ternullo m.s., for a related method of capturing the multiverse view in OT; his method focuses on the model-theoretic expression of Hamkins’ view, on which the set-theoretic multiverse consists of the different models of set theory.

deductive system comprising the logical axioms and rules of IQC and the non-logical axioms of PA. So the claim $HA \vdash \varphi$ becomes a claim of the form $T_L \vdash \varphi$. Then we can use the methods outlined above to analyze the terms and truth conditions of HA. And if the consistent theory T in question asserts non-classical axioms within a non-classical logic L , we again consider the theory to be the body of theorems as a whole system T_L and use the same method to analyze sentences φ such that $T_L \vdash \varphi$.

2.3 What’s Missing From Other Accounts of Pluralism

What’s distinctive about OT as a form of mathematical pluralism is its comprehension principle labeled (1) above. Hilbert’s early view is an informal conditional (roughly, “if the theory is consistent, its objects and relations exist”). (1) explains why Hilbert’s conditional is true and also tells us about the nature of mathematical objects and relations that exist. Given Carnap’s interest in semantics, one might expect his work (1950 [1956]) to contain an explicit statement of the principle that guarantees the *internal* existence of the appropriate objects for each logical framework. (1) is such a principle; without it, we lack a semantic interpretation of the terms for *arbitrary* frameworks and can’t therefore say why the answer to the internal question, ‘Do X s exist?’, for arbitrary frameworks, is always ‘yes’. Resnik’s postulational view isn’t unrelated to Carnap’s view, since a mathematical language is needed to posit the objects in question. But Resnik admits that his view “raises many questions concerning how positing can generate knowledge about preexisting entities – especially how it can do this when the entities are mathematical ones” (1989, 8). Principle (1) connects postulation with existence and provides denotations for mathematical terms; it addresses the open problem of ‘aboutness’ stated at the end of Resnik’s 1989 paper (26).¹⁷

Field and Balaguer both agree that mathematical platonism needs an explicit plenitude principle, and Balaguer (1998a, 7) attempts to formulate one. His ‘full-blooded platonism’ (FBP) is the thesis that every math-

¹⁷Resnik asks (1989, 26):

A more subtle problem concerns the *aboutness* of our mathematical beliefs. What makes them about mathematical objects? And in what sense are they about them? ... A related problem concerns the apparent lack of “epistemic contact” with mathematical objects which positing does not seem to provide.

These are all questions and problems answered in the previous section.

emathical object that could possibly exist does exist. So FBP is clearly pluralistic. But the FBP plenitude principle faces the ‘non-uniqueness problem’, namely, it doesn’t provide unique denotations to the individual constants and relation terms of a mathematical theory. Since FBP invokes possible mathematical objects but not objects that are ‘partial’ (e.g., in the sense of encoding *only* the properties attributed them in a theory), it is subject to questions such as: what does the symbol ‘ \emptyset ’ of ZF denote? Does it denote (a) an empty set such that AC is true or such that AC is false, or (b) an empty set such that CH is true or such that CH is false, ... ?

The non-uniqueness problem becomes even more important when we consider the truth conditions Balaguer offers for unprefixated mathematical claims. He says (1998a, 89–90):

In order for it to be the case that ‘3 is prime’ is true, it needs to be the case that (a) there is at least one object that satisfies all of the desiderata for being 3, and (b) all the objects that satisfy all of these desiderata are prime. Or more simply, it needs to be the case that (a) there is at least one standard model of arithmetic, and (b) ‘3 is prime’ is true in all of the standard models of arithmetic.

This immediately raises the questions, what does ‘3’ contribute to the expression ‘being 3’ and how could ‘being 3’ denote a unique property if ‘3’ doesn’t uniquely denote. In a paper directly addressing the non-uniqueness problem (1998b), the proffered truth conditions change slightly (80):

In order for ‘3 is prime’ to be true, it needs to be the case that there is an object that (a) satisfies all of the desiderata for being 3 and (b) is prime. This, of course, is virtually identical to what traditional U-platonists would say about the truth conditions of ‘3 is prime’. The only difference is that FBP-NUP-ists allow that it may be that there are numerous objects here that make ‘3 is prime’ true.

Here, the ‘U-platonists’ are those who claim that mathematical theories describe *unique* collections of abstract mathematical objects and the ‘FBP-NUP-ists’ are full-blooded platonists who adopt non-uniqueness platonism. But the suggested truth conditions are not virtually identical to the compositional ones a U-platonist would give for ‘3 is prime’. The contrast with OT is clear – assuming the background theory of numbers

PA, OT analyzes the denotation of ‘3’ as *the* abstract individual 3_{PA} , analyzes the denotation of ‘is prime’ (‘ P ’) as *the* abstract property P_{PA} , and resolves the ambiguous predication in terms of two truth conditions, one on which 3_{PA} exemplifies P_{PA} (false) and one on which 3_{PA} encodes P_{PA} (true). Moreover, the OT analysis doesn’t invoke a quantifier “there is an object such that” that doesn’t appear in the target sentence ‘3 is prime’, nor property expressions like ‘being 3’ or ‘desiderata for being 3’. And OT treats ‘is prime’ in the same way as ‘3’ – as denoting something abstract. Balaguer has to abandon the idea of *de re* truth conditions and *de re* knowledge of mathematical claims. Jonas (2023, §4.2.2) notes that such a result leaves it unclear as to “which one of the countless copies of the numbers 13 and 17 are involved in scientific explanation”.

This brings us to the final missing component of FBP, namely, the theoretical treatment of mathematical relations. Here we have a dilemma. Either FBP extends to the claim “Every possible mathematical relation that could exist does exist” or it does not.

- If FBP does extend to this claim, then the non-uniqueness problem arises for every mathematical relation term in every mathematical theory. Consider ZF: there are just too many possible relations having the properties of relations attributed to \in in ZF. If there is no dimension like encoding on which such entities can be identified in terms of a partial group of higher-order properties, then we can’t suppose that \in in ZF characterizes a unique relation. So it isn’t at all clear what FBP takes the content of the relation symbol ‘ \in ’ in ZF (or any other set theory) to be.¹⁸ A defender of FBP can’t say that it is a ‘distinguished’ non-logical relation symbol.
- If FBP doesn’t extend to this claim, then how could the very same

¹⁸For example, it is not clear why Balaguer can say (1995, 315):

This might be expressed by saying that ZFC describes the universe of sets₁, while ZF+not-C describes the universe of sets₂, where sets₁ and sets₂ are different kinds of things.

Cf. Balaguer 1998a, 59. This seems to imply that both ZFC and ZF+not-C respectively describe uniquely distinctive bodies of sets. Adding an index on ‘set’ to produce *set*₁, *set*₂, etc., suggests that these indexed terms pick out unique domains. If that is what is meant, then indexing isn’t justified even on this extended version of FBP, for there are many possible *set* properties for ‘*set*₁’ to uniquely denote. (Does *set*₁ pick out a property whose instances are such that CH is true or whose instances are such that CH is false?) By contrast, the property terms like *S*_{ZFC} (being a set_{ZFC}), \in _{ZFC}, etc., that we introduced above into OT are well-defined.

mathematical relation \in support the truth of the theorems of ZFC as well as the theorems of ZF+not-C, both of which are accepted by FBP? Moreover, without a plenitude principle for mathematical relations, FBP would no longer offer the epistemological virtues it claims: we would have to suppose that there is a single, mathematical relation \in that is somehow ‘out there’, independent of our theories about it. How would we obtain knowledge of such a relation?

This dilemma also applies to the discussion of platonism based on a plenitude found in Field 1994 (420–422) and Field 1998 (293).

To see how OT supplies components missing from both structuralist and inferentialist accounts of mathematics, we begin with structuralism, i.e., the view that mathematics is about structures (Hellman 1989, vii; Parsons 1990, 303; Shapiro 1997, 5). If a structuralist philosophy of mathematics is to be free of ‘ontological danglers’, then it must supply a mathematics-free theory of both structures and the elements of structures. We cannot rest with set theory or category theory as our background theory of structures, as that simply turns mathematical pluralism into mathematical foundationalism and leaves us with the question, what is our philosophical account of the foundational theory?¹⁹ So, what are structures? Nodelman & Zalta (2014, 49–53) answer: (a) intuitively, structures are defined by a partial body of propositions that assert which mathematical objects stand in which mathematical relations, and (b) in OT, the structure T can be identified as T itself, since T encodes the partial group of propositions that are true in T . This analysis of structures is mathematics-free.

Moreover, OT has something to say about what the ‘indeterminate elements’ of structures are supposed to be (Dedekind 1888 [1963, 68]; Benacerraf 1965, 70; Shapiro 1997, 5–6).²⁰ The abstract objects of OT

¹⁹The structuralists themselves recognize the problem; Hellman (1989, 7) says “it is difficult to see in structuralism any genuine alternative to objects-platonism. This is most obvious when the structures are taken as set-theoretic models, i.e. when the structuralist theory is just set theory (perhaps with urelements), or as members of a category (the theory being category theory, taken literally as quantifying over abstract objects called categories). But this worry also pertains to other attempts (e.g. mathematics as a science of “patterns”, where these are taken as platonic entities in their own right).”

²⁰Dedekind (1888 [1963, 68]) says “we entirely neglect the special character of the elements, simply retaining their distinguishability and taking into account only the relations to one another.” Benacerraf (1965, 70) asserts that the elements of an abstract structure

that serve as mathematical individuals and relations encode *only* mathematical properties. Since every mathematical entity is thereby identified entirely by its encoded properties, its ‘special character’, as given by its *exemplified* properties, is ‘entirely ignored’. The classical structuralist philosophies of mathematics lack an alternative theory of such elements (or places) in a structure.

OT supplies a missing component of inferentialism by its exact specification of the inferential role of the non-logical mathematical terms and predicates of a theory T . To see what is needed, consider Warren’s example of the *Peano rules* (2015, 1354; 2020, 200), i.e., the Peano axioms reformulated as rules of inference.²¹ He draws a metasemantic conclusion (1355) about them:

The arithmetical inferentialist/conventionalist will want to say that the Peano Rules are meaning constituting rules for our arithmetical vocabulary (the number predicate $[N]$, the zero constant $[\hat{0}]$, and the successor function $[s(x)]$). ... This allows us to use these rules to explain the truth of any arithmetical sentence that follows from these rules, e.g., consider the truth of ‘two is a number’ or, in our formal toy model: ‘ $Ns(s(\hat{0}))$ ’ (two is a number).

Clearly an inferentialist can use these rules to explain the truth of any arithmetical sentence that follows from them. And the rules do indicate what role the non-logical expressions have in the transition from premises to conclusion. However, if Warren’s metasemantic claim implies that in a semantics for the language of number theory, each of these distinct non-logical expressions could be assigned a distinct, theoretically-describable inferential role, then the Peano rules don’t yet accomplish this. The rules don’t provide distinct, meaning-constituting rules for each distinct non-logical symbol; for example, the rules don’t specify, in

“have no properties other than those relating them to other ‘elements’ of the same structure.” Shapiro (1997, 5–6) claims “There is no more to being the natural number 2 than being the successor of the successor of 0, the predecessor of 3, the first prime, and so on.”

²¹Specifically, Warren reformulates the axioms, stated in terms of the constant ‘0’, the 1-place predicate ‘ N ’, and the unary function symbol ‘ S ’, as the following rules (2020, 200):

$$(P1) \overline{N0} \quad (P2) \frac{N\alpha}{NS\alpha} \quad (P3) \frac{N\alpha}{0 \neq S\alpha} \quad (P4) \frac{N\alpha \quad N\beta \quad S\alpha=S\beta}{\alpha=\beta}$$

$$(P5) \frac{\varphi(0) \quad \forall \xi (\varphi(\xi) \rightarrow \varphi(S\xi)) \quad N\beta}{\varphi(\beta)}$$

The final rule, P5, is a rule schema.

theoretical terms, what *the* meaning is of the constant symbol ‘0’ or of the predicate symbol ‘N’. Of course, one might be able to use set theory or other forms of mathematics to give a theoretical description of the total inferential pattern of usage for the symbols ‘0’, ‘N’, etc., but OT gives a distinct, mathematics-free, description of the inferential role of each non-logical expression.

In OT, the inferential role of an individual symbol κ of T is precisely captured as κ_T , as defined by (3), and the inferential role of a relation symbol Π of T is captured as Π_T , as defined by (5). (3) and (5) reify distinct subpatterns existing within the entire body of *theorems* of T and so *objectify the inferential roles* of κ and Π in T . \emptyset_{ZF} in (4) objectifies the inferential role of \emptyset in ZF, and \in_{ZF} in (6) objectifies the inferential role of \in in ZF. Without some theoretical description of the inferential role on a per symbol basis, one can’t give *compositional* truth conditions for mathematical theorems. Of course, inferentialism may simply abandon compositionality given its anti-realist approach to meaning, but OT preserves compositionality: the denotations of the terms in a theorem play a role in the truth conditions of the theorem. The truth conditions it offers, in (8) and (9) – (11) for example, yield a content for mathematical theorems that ‘code up’ proof-theoretic facts. They specify truth conditions that make use of objectified inferential roles.

These theoretical identifications of the inferential roles of the non-logical symbols of mathematical theories provide a heretofore missing component of the ‘meaning as use’ doctrine as applied to mathematics. The classical works on inferentialism in the philosophy of mathematics (Wittgenstein 1956; Sellars 1953 [1980], 1974; Dummett 1991) do not offer a theoretical account of the meaning of such symbols. And the recent developments of proof-theoretic semantics are limited to the inferential role of logical constants.²²

Finally, we consider the multiverse view in Hamkins 2012. Hamkins appears to rely on an existence principle that asserts: different conceptions of sets are instantiated in different set-theoretic universes (216). So how do we apply such a principle to produce truth conditions for the various axiom systems for set theory? A related concern about the view is Hamkins’ identification of a set concept with “the model of set theory

²²See, for example, the proof-theoretic semantics developed for certain fragments of language and logic in Prawitz 1973, 2006; Francez & Dyckhoff 2006; and Schroeder-Heister 2006.

to which it gives rise” (2012, 417). Assuming this can be made precise, it raises the question: doesn’t any attempt to specify a model of set theory presuppose some conception of set? In any case, the appeal to model theory seems to presuppose more mathematics, the language of which is precisely what is in question. Interestingly, OT’s analysis seems to be consistent with Hamkins’ claim (417) that “Often the clearest way to refer to a set concept is to describe the universe of sets in which it is instantiated, . . .” We’ve seen that in OT, any distinctive body of set-theoretic truths or theorems describes a set concept and, hence, a universe of sets. That understanding is incorporated into the OT analysis of mathematics generally.²³

3 The Second Form of Mathematical Pluralism

To discuss the second form of mathematical pluralism, note that OT distinguishes *impossible* objects (i.e., those that encode some incompatible properties) from *trivial* objects (i.e., those that encode every property). At each type, there is exactly one trivial object.²⁴ We may then say:

- An abstract object is *mathematically impossible but not trivial with respect to T* just in case it encodes some incompatible properties that are expressible in T but doesn’t encode every property expressible in T .

²³Hamkins’ view has engendered an interesting literature, including objections by Koellner 2009 and a defense by Freire (m.s.). Barton (2016) proposes two ways to understand Hamkins, ontologically and structurally. He argues that the structural interpretation doesn’t address the Benacerraf (1973) problem of mathematical reference and knowledge, and the ontological interpretation leads to a referential regress and so requires that one restrict one’s pluralism (which Barton calls ‘relativism’). But, from the present perspective, one can stop the regress Barton describes for the ontological interpretation by not identifying set concepts with models of set theory. OT’s analysis doesn’t make such an identification and so preserves a multiverse theory that is otherwise consistent with Hamkins’ central view. Moreover, contra Barton, OT has a way of addressing the Benacerraf (1973) problem for structural interpretations, namely, in terms of reference and knowledge *by theoretical description*.

²⁴Let x be a variable of type t , F be a variable of type $\langle t \rangle$, and $A!$ denote the property *being abstract* with type $\langle t \rangle$. Then as an instance of (1), we know that there is an abstract individual that encodes every property:

$$\exists x(A!x \ \& \ \forall F(xF \equiv F = F))$$

And such an object is unique, given the identity conditions described for abstract objects in Section 2.

- An abstract object is *mathematically trivial with respect to T but not simply trivial* iff it encodes every property expressible in T but doesn't encode every property whatsoever.

With these distinctions, we can see how OT validates the second form of mathematical pluralism: the terms of an inconsistent mathematical theory T formulated in a paraconsistent logic denote mathematically impossible but not trivial objects with respect to T , whereas the terms of an inconsistent mathematical theory T formulated in a classical logic denote objects that are mathematically trivial with respect to T (but not simply trivial). Here's how.

3.1 Inconsistent Theories in Paraconsistent Logic

Beall's (1999) RFBP gives rise to the same problem posed for FBP above, namely, the inability to assign unique denotations to the non-logical individual and relation terms of mathematical theories. But the version of RFBP available in OT is immune. Let L be some paraconsistent logic, and let T be, say, naive set theory, or one of the theories in discussed in Mortensen 1995 or 2009. Then we can apply OT as we did for consistent, non-classical mathematics (Section 2.2). We consider the deductive system T_L , i.e., T added to the logic L , and then add $T_L \models \varphi^*$ to OT whenever $T_L \vdash \varphi$. Then we identify the denotation of an individual term κ in T_L with the abstract object that encodes the properties F such that $T_L \models F\kappa$, and identify the denotation of a relation term Π in T_L with the abstract property that encodes the properties of relations attributed to Π in T_L . Given this analysis, the objects of T_L are mathematically impossible but not trivial with respect to T_L – they encode some incompatible properties that are expressible in T_L but they don't encode every property expressible in T_L . And truth conditions for the claims of T_L can be stated in exactly the way described above. Thus, OT overcomes the non-uniqueness problem for Beall 1999.

It also provides a precise semantic account of mathematical language that could supplement Bueno 2011, Friend 2013, and Friend 2014. For example, OT supplements mathematical relativism by *recovering* a sense of unrelativized truth; the claim " \emptyset is a set", said in the context of ZF, has a reading on which it is a categorical (and thus, unprefixated and unrelativized) truth about the relativized objects \emptyset_{ZF} and S_{ZF} , namely, that the former encodes the latter. Moreover, our analysis directly undermines

Mortensen's claim (2009, 647):

Certainly, the legitimacy of inconsistency ought to give pause to the Platonist. It poses the dilemma: either abandon Platonism, or admit inconsistent objects.

If we take the Quinean interpretation of the quantifiers of OT, then there is no dilemma; one can be Platonist *and* admit inconsistent objects.²⁵

3.2 Inconsistent Theories in Classical Logic

This methodology can be taken one step further without triviality. The pluralism of OT can be applied in the analysis of the denotations and truth conditions for the terms of inconsistent mathematical theories expressed in *classical* logic. For example, an analysis of the language of Frege's theory (1893/1903) is needed, since the terms have a content and we understand the language and the claims it makes. On the OT analysis, the terms denote entities that are mathematically trivial with respect to Frege's theory, but not simply trivial entities. To see this, take the Frege system \mathfrak{G} to be second-order logic with λ -expressions, extended with the primitive, non-logical function term ϵG and the non-logical axiom Basic Law V. Let's first apply the OT analysis just to the *individual* terms of \mathfrak{G} . Since $\mathfrak{G} \vdash \psi$ holds for every closed formula ψ expressible in the language of \mathfrak{G} , we import *every* sentence ψ of \mathfrak{G} into object theory as an analytic claim of the form: $\mathfrak{G} \models \psi^*$. This yields analytic truths of the form $\mathfrak{G} \models F\kappa_{\mathfrak{G}}$, for each individual term $\kappa_{\mathfrak{G}}$. So the analysis:

$$\kappa_{\mathfrak{G}} = \iota x(A!x \ \& \ \forall F(xF \equiv \mathfrak{G} \models F\kappa_{\mathfrak{G}}))$$

identifies the denotation of every individual term κ of \mathfrak{G} as the *same* abstract object, namely, the one that encodes every property F of individuals expressible in the language of \mathfrak{G} . So the non-logical terms of \mathfrak{G} denote an object that is mathematically trivial with respect to \mathfrak{G} , but one that isn't simply trivial ($\kappa_{\mathfrak{G}}$ doesn't encode every property whatsoever). Note that OT itself doesn't become inconsistent in virtue of representing

²⁵Colyvan (2008, 122, footnote 13) cites this passage in Mortensen 2009 when discussing a possible objection to his [Colyvan's] argument for inconsistent objects, namely, that they would constitute a reductio of Quine's naturalized metaphysics or even of metaphysics generally. The OT analysis reconciles Platonism and inconsistent objects and forestalls such an objection. In Section 4 below, we'll see that the existence of such objects doesn't undermine a naturalized metaphysics or metaphysics generally.

the terms of Frege's theory this way, nor does it require paraconsistent logic to make sense of the content of those terms.

Though OT's analysis implies, for example, that all the individual terms of \mathfrak{G} denote the same individual, it doesn't imply that they all have the same sense. The senses of expressions are also representable in OT – as abstract objects that encode properties. OT assumes that these senses vary from person to person and even from time to time (Zalta 1988, Ch. 9–12). The reason Frege didn't see the contradiction is that his sense (representation) of '0' and his sense (representation) of '1' were *distinct* – his senses of the terms encoded different properties, at least prior to being informed about the paradox. Had he cognitively associated the same representations with '0' and '1' and concluded that 0 and 1 were characterized by the same properties, he would have judged that $0 = 1$ and that his system led to an absurdity.

This same analysis extends to the primitive predicates of \mathfrak{G} , such as the identity predicate. OT analyzes ' $=_{\mathfrak{G}}$ ' as the mathematically trivial relation that encodes all of the properties of identity expressible in (the OT representation of) \mathfrak{G} . For example, $=_{\mathfrak{G}}$ encodes *being a binary relation F that relates 0 and 1*, i.e., $[\lambda F 0F1]$ (suppressing indices). Thus, for any classically inconsistent T (such \mathfrak{G}), OT predicts that, for each n , the n -ary relation terms of T all have the same mathematically trivial inferential role – this is, in part, what makes such theories mathematically uninteresting.

4 The Third Form of Mathematical Pluralism

The third kind of mathematical pluralism that OT exhibits is metaphilosophical – its formalism can be interpreted in ways that preserve the ideas central to many of the principal philosophies of mathematics. In Section 4.1, we focus on those philosophies of mathematics that take mathematical language at face value and attempt to give an account of that language. In Section 4.2, we examine why the most important elements of deductivism, as embodied by modal structuralism, can't and shouldn't be preserved in OT.

4.1 Metaphilosophy of Mathematical Language

Linsky & Zalta (1995) explain in some detail how the main principles of platonism and naturalism are preserved in OT.²⁶ We can extend this reconciliation a bit here, by first remembering that the quantifier ' $\exists\alpha$ ' in OT, on this interpretation, is Quinean and implies the existence of the entities over which α ranges. Then OT becomes committed to the existence of abstract individuals and abstract relations. While this preserves the main thesis of Platonism, note that we can *apply* OT to assert the existence of theoretical mathematical entities *only once* a mathematical theory T is identified and analyzed. That is, the data are truths of the form "In mathematical theory T , ..." that emerge from mathematical practice. Thus, the existence claims that OT outputs from this data in some sense depends on natural world patterns that are inherent in *mathematical practice*. Instances of (1) objectify those patterns. This is a form of naturalism (more on this in footnote 39 below).

Some of the main ideas underlying fictionalism can be sustained as well. By taking truths of the form "In mathematical theory T , ..." as basic, OT agrees with Field's view (1989, 3) that "the sense in which ' $2 + 2 = 4$ ' is true is pretty much the same as the sense in which 'Oliver Twist lived in London' is true". But we need not agree that "Oliver Twist lived in London" and ' $2 + 2 = 4$ ' are true *only* in the story- or theory-relative sense, for they can be given true encoding readings. Furthermore, Colyvan & Zalta (1999, 347–348) develop an interpretation of OT under which one can *derive* the claim that mathematical objects *don't exist*. Their suggestion is to adopt the Meinongian interpretation of the quantifier ' $\exists\alpha$ ' as 'there are' (not 'there exist'), as in "there are fictional characters that inspire us even though they don't exist". Then if one interprets the predicate ' $E!$ ' as 'exists', abstract objects become entities that couldn't possibly exist, since the definition is $A!x \equiv_{df} \neg\Diamond E!x$. And since mathematical objects, as identified above, are abstract, it follows *a*

²⁶They start with the idea that the mind-independence and objectivity of abstract objects is *not* to be analogized with the mind-independence and objectivity of objects in the natural world. Abstract objects are not subject to an appearance-reality distinction, but rather 'have' (in the encoding sense) exactly the properties attributed to them in their respective theories. Nor are they 'out there' in a sparse way waiting to be discovered – they constitute a plenitude and so the epistemological principles governing our knowledge of natural scientific theories don't apply. Finally, in the case of mathematical objects (and abstract objects generally), the distinction between knowledge by acquaintance and knowledge by description just *collapses* – description suffices for acquaintance.

fortiori that they don't exist.

Recall that in addition to offering true readings, OT offers a false reading for unprefixing mathematical claims such as '2 is prime'. It therefore validates the intuition that such claims of mathematics are false (Field 1980 [2016], Leng 2010). So under this interpretation, OT preserves the fictionalist claims (a) that "In PA, $2 + 2 = 4$ " is true, (b) that " $2 + 2 = 4$ " is false [at least on one reading], and (c) that none of 2, 4, \emptyset , ω , π , etc., exist.²⁷

A variant of the interpretation just described preserves the main idea of nominalism. Bueno and Zalta (2005) interpret the quantifier ' $\exists\alpha$ ' of OT not by appealing to the 'nominalist platonism' described in Boolos 1985, but by applying the distinctions in Azzouni 2004. The latter uses an 'existentially-unloaded' understanding of \exists as 'some'. On this reading, a quantified claim doesn't even imply the *being* of anything. Azzouni distinguishes mere *quantifier commitment* from *ontological commitment*, and if we interpret object theory's quantifier in terms of mere *quantifier commitment*, the theory becomes nominalistic, at least according to some philosophers. Building on ideas in Routley [Sylvan] (1980), Priest argues similarly (2005 [2016], vii):

But the main technical trick is just thinking of one's quantifiers as existentially neutral. ' \forall ' is understood as 'for every'; ' \exists ' is understood as 'for some'. Existential commitment, when required, has to be provided explicitly, by way of an existence predicate.

Further on, he again suggests that we should read the existential quantifier as *some*.²⁸ Since this position has been ably defended, apply it to OT's formalism and the result is Azzouni-Priest-Routley nominalism.

Indeed, OT helps us to make sense of ideas that, at present, are somewhat metaphorical, namely, that mathematical objects are 'ultrathin' (Azzouni 2004, 127; Rayo forthcoming) and are objects whose "existence

²⁷Moreover, if one's fictionalism about mathematics takes on board the views about make-believe in Walton 1990 (as does Leng 2010), then OT offers a way to make those views systematic (Zalta 2000b).

²⁸Priest uses \exists instead of \exists and writes (2005 [2016], 13):

... one must precisely not read $\exists xA(x)$ as 'There exists something, x , such that $A(x)$ '. Assuming that existence and being are the same thing, one should not even read it as 'There is something, x , such that $A(x)$ '. The reading 'Something, x , is such that $A(x)$ ' will do nicely.

does not make a substantial demand upon the world" (Linnebo 2018, 4). Azzouni suggests that mathematicians just need to write down axioms and the resulting 'posits' have no epistemic 'burdens' (cf. Resnik 1989). And Rayo (forthcoming) develops a conception of 'ultrathin' objects on which they arise in virtue of language-based networks. This notion of thinness is evident in OT, in several ways. The mere statement of a mathematical theory T triggers OT to articulate a distinctive group of mathematical objects and relations for T . These objects and relations are *thin* along the encoding dimension, for they have only a partial (i.e., not complete) complement of encoded properties (namely, only the properties attributed to them in their respective theories). With OT in the background, no additional 'demands upon the world' are needed for the terms of T to acquire content. Indeed, all one has to do to become acquainted with a mathematical entity such as 0_{PA} , \emptyset_{ZF} , \in_{ZF} , or \in_{ZFC} , etc., is to *understand* its defining description, as given by *theoretical* identity claims similar to (4), (6), (12), and (13). We don't need a special faculty, or an 'information pathway' for acquiring knowledge of abstract objects; we just need the faculty of the understanding (Linsky & Zalta 1995, 547).

We've already seen, in Section 2.3, how OT supplies components missing from structuralism and inferentialism. Given this discussion, we can then interpret the OT formalism in a way that preserves the central insights of both philosophies of mathematics, starting with structuralism. The OT analysis is that mathematical theories *are* structures, where these are identified without any mathematical assumptions other than analytic truths about mathematical theories. Let me reiterate that by identifying mathematical individuals and relations as abstracta that encode only their mathematical properties and no others, OT neglects their 'special character' (i.e., neglects their exemplified properties). And, as previously noted, this analysis complements the standard (non-modal) structuralist views, which only discuss 'places in structures', but rarely talk about 'relational places', i.e., the places that 'partial' or 'indeterminate' relations occupy in a structure.

Once we interpret OT as a form of structuralism, a variety of puzzles about structuralism become soluble. To take an example, consider the puzzle Shapiro described for his view (2006, 115): previously he had claimed (1997) that individual natural numbers do not have non-structural *essential* properties, but now he admits that numbers in fact do seem to have some such properties:

For example, the number 2 has the property of being an abstract object, the property of being non-spatio-temporal, and the property of not entering into causal relations with physical objects. ... Abstractness is certainly not an *accidental* property of a number—or is it? (2006, 116)

After an extended discussion (2006, 117–20), he concludes not only that *abstractness* is not a mathematical property but that it isn't therefore an essential property of natural numbers. From the point of view of OT, this conclusion is a *consequence* of the analysis in Section 2.1. The essential properties of numbers are just the mathematical properties they encode, not the properties (such as being abstract, not being a building, having no causal powers, etc.) they necessarily exemplify.²⁹

Turning now to inferentialism, we again restrict our attention to axiomatic theories, since inferentialism presupposes some sort of deductive relationships among the truths of T . But with this restriction, we can be brief, since the discussion in Section 2.3 already provides the essentials. Given any axiomatic theory T , we can interpret the schematic and specific principles (3) – (6) as picking out the inferential roles of the non-logical, mathematical terms of T . These principles identify a specific role for each non-logical term of T .

While this interpretation preserves the basic insight of inferentialism, the more interesting fact is how it reconciles the referential and use-theoretic approaches to the meaning of mathematical language and renders them consistent (cf. Murzi & Steinberger 2017). The point has already been made: the objectified inferential roles can serve as the denotations of mathematical terms in a compositional semantics. Thus, the

²⁹This is explained in some detail in Zalta 2006 (685–687). To take another example, Shapiro says (2006, 133) “Presumably, a structuralist cannot accept haecceities for places, since a haecceity seems to be a non-structural property.” But on one reading, this conclusion is predicted by OT – the theory implies, on cardinality grounds, that not every abstract object has a haecceity. For suppose we temporarily assume set theory and model abstract objects as sets of properties. Then if every distinct abstract object had a distinct haecceity, there would be a 1-1 mapping from the power set of the set of properties into a subset of the set of properties, in violation of Cantor's theorem. For a full discussion of this issue see Section 4.3 (“No Haecceities”) in Nodelman & Zalta 2014, 64–66.

On the other hand, OT does allow one to introduce, for each theory T , a restricted identity relation, $=_T$, on the individuals of T . Then, OT does assert the existence of haecceities $_T$, i.e., properties of the form $[\lambda x x =_T y]$, where y is an object of T . For a full discussion of this issue, see Section 3.2 (“Elements and Relations of Structures”) in Nodelman & Zalta 2014, 52–53.

formalism of OT suggests that the traditional opposition between inferentialism, on the one hand, and referential theories such as Platonism and structuralism, is partly a matter of focus – there is no inherent inconsistency.

To see how the basic insight of formalism is preserved, let us ignore many of the differences between Hilbertian formalism,³⁰ term formalism,³¹ and game formalism.³² That's because in each case, the essential idea is that mathematics is about (formula and symbol) *types* and not *tokens*. That is, on any version of formalism, mathematics is not about any particular marks on the page or about any particular sound waves emanating from the mouths of mathematicians, but rather about the types that the marks or sound waves are tokens of. The ‘formal rules’ that the principles of T represent apply to types, not to tokens.

To preserve this insight, we use OT to identify *types* as abstract objects that encode properties. A type encodes just the distinctive properties that the tokens of that type exemplify. For example, a pure symbol type encodes just the shape and/or sound properties needed to identify tokens of that type. In the case of a mathematical theory T , the formal objects denoted by the terms and predicates of T are not pure symbol types, but symbol types as abstracted from the role they play in the formulas true in T . Under this interpretation, the individual terms of mathematics denote individual-symbol types that encode the abstract property-symbol types denoted by the predicates.³³ For exam-

³⁰I'm focusing here on what Hilbert regarded as the *ideal* part of mathematics, which deals with infinity. Thus, the formulas of ideal mathematics are uninterpreted and though they have the syntactic form of sentences (and thereby allow us to apply formal, inferential rules of thought), they have no semantics (Hilbert 1927 [1967, 475]; Weir 2021, §1). See Detlefsen 1993 for a careful review of Hilbert's evolving formalist views. It seems that earlier, he thought that consistent theories defined *forms* of existence. Detlefsen (1993, 288) criticizes this view, on the grounds that definitions aren't creative, but I think Hilbert was relying on the principle that if a theory is consistent, then it is not only a definition but a creative one!

³¹This is the view that the expressions of mathematics, e.g., the singular terms, are referring expressions, but refer to symbols rather than to mathematical entities distinct from symbols. See Shapiro 2000 (141); Weir 2021, §2.

³²This is the view that the terms in mathematical formulas do not pick out objects and properties, but instead the formulas are simply elements of a game in which symbol strings are transformed according to fixed rules. See Shapiro 2000 (144); Weir 2021, §2.

³³It is important to remember that OT *doesn't use model theory* to define what the individuals and relations of a theory T are, i.e., it doesn't say that to be an individual or relation of T is to be the value of a variable x or F used in T . Rather, OT defines the individuals and

ple, \emptyset_{ZF} , as identified in (6), becomes a symbol-type that encodes just those property-symbol types F whenever the formula type “In ZF, $F\emptyset$ ” constitutes part of the data. Since ZF is given axiomatically, this data comes from sentence types of the form “ $ZF \vdash F\emptyset$ ”.

We’ve already discussed how principles (1), (3), and (5) answer the question of how the constants and predicates of each framework come to denote the right objects and relations, so that the Carnapian internal question “Do Xs exist?” is always true, or provably true, within the framework. This fact about OT suffices to show how it preserves the basic insight of Carnapianism.

No metaphilosophy of mathematics would be complete without some discussion of logicism. But my discussion here will be only a sketch, since this is a topic of ongoing research. Many philosophers now believe that logicism is a non-starter, since mathematics has strong existence claims and logic has very weak ones, making any reduction of mathematics to logic impossible. Indeed, logicism *is* a non-starter *if* one’s conception of logic makes it impossible for strong existence claims to be logical truths and *relative interpretability* is the standard of reduction. But if one (a) develops a conception of logic that allows 2nd-order comprehension and (1) above to be logically true, and (b) uses an alternative, but equally precise, standard of reduction (on which each well-defined term is assigned a unique denotation and the theorems are assigned readings on which they are true), then not only can OT be viewed as part of logic but mathematics becomes reducible to logic plus analytic truths. The key to this conception of logic is the idea that 2nd-order comprehension and (1) are *required* for having logically complex thoughts (including mathematical thoughts) and for the validity of complex reasoning (including mathematical reasoning). Since this is the topic of another paper, we’ll leave the matter here.³⁴

4.2 Paraphrasing Mathematical Language

OT shares with deductivism the idea that the fundamental truths of a mathematical theory T are statements under the scope of an operator: “In T , ...” in the case of OT, and “If the conjunction of the axioms relations of T to be entities that are distinguishable in the formalism of T . For a full discussion of this issue, see Nodelman & Zalta 2014, §3.2, 52–53 (a definition of the elements and relations of T), and §4.4, 66–73 (indiscernibles are not elements of a theory).

³⁴See Leitgeb, Nodelman, & Zalta, m.s., which develops a defense of logicism.

of T hold, then ...” in the case of deductivism.³⁵ But the similarity ends there, especially when we consider the sophisticated variant of deductivism embodied by modal structuralism (MS). OT doesn’t preserve the ideas underlying MS because the two theories are attempts to address different problems. OT takes mathematical language at face value, as containing constants and predicates that have a semantic *content* (at our world). It attempts to preserve the tradition in which (axiomatic) mathematical theories are formally represented in a classical, non-modal predicate calculus extended with (a) the non-logical constants and non-logical predicates, and (b) non-logical axioms that are *categorically stated*. OT, which is based on an ambiguity in predication, assigns these categorical predications two readings (a true encoding reading and a false exemplification reading), as outlined above.

But MS doesn’t adopt this methodology; instead it denies that the constants and predicates of mathematical theories have a semantic content at our world, and denies that categorical predications and categorical quantified claims serve as the proper analysis of mathematical axioms. Instead, it replaces each distinguished non-logical constant and predicate in the language of a mathematical theory T by a distinct variable of the appropriate type, so that the categorical claims φ of T become

³⁵This connection makes OT and deductivism subject to the same objection: how to distinguish mathematics from fiction, since both approaches relativize the basic truths with respect to these operators. Quine 1936 [1976, 83] argues that deductivism w.r.t. geometry:

... reduces merely to an exclusion of geometry from mathematics, a relegation of geometry to the status of sociology or Greek mythology; the labeling of the ‘theory of deduction of non-mathematical geometry’ as ‘mathematical geometry’ is a verbal *tour de force* which is equally applicable to the case of sociology or Greek mythology.

But even Quine would have to admit there are *some* common mechanisms between fiction and math. Just as the properties of Zeus, Sherlock Holmes, etc., and the higher-order properties of such fictional properties as *being a hobbit*, *being an orc*, etc., are tied to a story, the properties of π , ω , \aleph_0 , etc., and the higher-order properties of such mathematical relations as membership, group addition, etc., are tied to mathematical theories. Both fictions and mathematical objects are examples of ‘partial’ or ‘incomplete’ objects, since their identities are grounded in incomplete narratives.

Moreover, it doesn’t follow that an analysis based on these similarities somehow disrespects mathematics, assigns it a ‘lower’ status, or collapses mathematics and fiction. There are still a significant number of differences, concerning the rigors of mathematical practice vs. the freedoms of fictional practice, the applicability of math to science, the interest in math of the structural properties of relations, etc. See Bueno 2011 for further discussion, in defense of relativism.

open formulas of the form $\varphi(\vec{x}, \vec{F})$, where \vec{x} and \vec{F} represent the sequence of individual and relation variables introduced to replace the non-logical primitives. Then, since the conjunction of the axioms, $\wedge T$, becomes an open formula, $\wedge T(\vec{x}, \vec{F})$, MS paraphrases the categorical theorems φ of T as logical theorems of the form:

$$\Box \forall \vec{x} \forall \vec{F} (\wedge T(\vec{x}, \vec{F}) \rightarrow \varphi(\vec{x}, \vec{F}))$$

I.e., necessarily, for any objects \vec{x} and relations \vec{F} , if the conjunction of the axioms of T holds w.r.t. \vec{x} and \vec{F} , then $\varphi(\vec{x}, \vec{F})$ holds. To complete its analysis of mathematics, MS then requires an additional group of assertions; for every theory T , MS asserts or implies:

$$\Diamond \exists \vec{x} \exists \vec{F} (\wedge T(\vec{x}, \vec{F}))$$

I.e., it is possible that there are objects \vec{x} and relations \vec{F} such that the conjunction of the axioms of T holds w.r.t. \vec{x} and \vec{F} . Finally, MS encourages the nominalistic interpretation of the second-order quantifiers of the background formalism.

This methodology doesn't attempt to analyze the axioms of T as categorical predications or universal claims. Indeed, it is consistent with MS that none of the constants or predicates of T have denotations, much less denote specifically mathematical objects or relations. Moreover, since the Barcan Formula (BF) is invalid in the S5 modal logic assumed in MS (Hellman 1989, 17), one cannot validly infer $\exists \vec{x} \exists \vec{F} \Diamond (\wedge T(\vec{x}, \vec{F}))$ from $\Diamond \exists \vec{x} \exists \vec{F} (\wedge T(\vec{x}, \vec{F}))$. So mathematical theories are not *about* structures or indeed about anything (such theories are not committed to objects and relations standing in the right structural relationships), though it is *possible* that they are about something.³⁶ In many ways, MS is a form of

³⁶I not sure that Hellman and Bell (2006, 75–76) are justified when they say, near the end of their paper:

It turns out, however, that there is a way out of this impasse, but at a price. If we introduce modality and tolerate talk of the possibility of large domains of discourse—essentially just large numbers of objects—then we have a natural way of recognizing a plurality of models of set theory, and toposes, living side-by-side within these domains, of which there also can be many, but without ever allowing for any totality of all such domains. . . . Similar methods yield characterizations of other key mathematical structures such as the natural numbers, full models of set theory, and various topoi, etc., again, without ever countenancing classes or relations as objects.

It is not clear how the appeal to modality allows MS to 'recognize' or 'characterize' partic-

mathematical eliminativism rather than a form of *mathematical pluralism*, since the distinctive primitive notions employed by mathematicians are all eliminated in favor of variables and modally quantified conditionals.

But supposing OT and MS are comparable theories, it is still difficult to compare them. Here are some questions that can be raised. One cluster concerns the status of the possibility claims that MS must assert to complete the analysis of mathematical theories. MS has to add at least one special axiom of the form $\Diamond \exists \vec{x} \exists \vec{F} (\wedge T(\vec{x}, \vec{F}))$, for each mathematical theory T that it analyzes. So, the question is, can one actually state MS generally? Does MS include the universal claim: $\forall T \Diamond \exists \vec{x} \exists \vec{F} (\wedge T(\vec{x}, \vec{F}))$? Is MS analyzing T or $T + \Diamond \exists \vec{x} \exists \vec{F} (\wedge T(\vec{x}, \vec{F}))$? If the latter, then why don't we see explicit modal claims in mathematical practice? These questions may prove to be difficult to answer, especially if the possibility claims added to MS have to be customized so as to be the weakest claims that can do the job.³⁷

By contrast, OT doesn't have to add modal claims for each new mathematical theory it analyzes – it just takes the theory-prefaced statements as the data and the rest falls out from OT comprehension (1), the identification principles (3) and (5), and the various readings of the unprefixed mathematical claims that this methodology makes possible.³⁸

A second question concerns the analysis of mathematical constants and predicates that appear outside purely mathematical contexts. Presumably, MS can't accept the following claims at face value:

- π is more well-known than Euler's number e .

ular structures or domains for set theory, category theory, natural numbers, etc., for *there are no such structures*. MS doesn't even allow talk about entities that are possible structures or possible domains, given the invalidity of BF. And if they were to accept BF, one could only instantiate the external quantifiers $\exists \vec{x}$ and $\exists \vec{F}$ to arbitrary names and predicates. How would this justify talk about *the* (structure of the) natural numbers, *the* standard model of T , etc., without having incomplete objects and relations of some kind at their disposal?

³⁷See Hellman 1989, pp. 27–30, for the claim needed for PA (concerning the possible existence of ω -sequences); p. 45, for the claim needed for 2nd-order real analysis (RA) (concerning the possible existence of complete, ordered, separable continua); and p. 71, for the claim needed for 2nd-order ZF (concerning the possibility of natural set-theoretic models). And see Hellman 1996 for the possibility claims needed for other mathematical theories. Given these discussions, it may that the simplified methodology for MS presented above obscures the fact that customized, special axioms are needed on a case-by-case basis.

³⁸The fact that the analysis of mathematics in MS requires the addition of possibility claims also raises a question of whether it can provide an analysis of inconsistent (but not trivial) mathematical theories. Will MS require a modal logic in which \Diamond is interpreted as quantifier over both possible and non-normal worlds?

- At one time, mathematicians didn't believe that $\sqrt{-1}$ exists.
- Fraenkel wondered whether the existence of $\omega + \omega$ could be proved in Zermelo set theory.
- The number Zero wasn't always used for counting.

These claims can be analyzed in OT without any special heroics (though in some cases, it might be best to deploy OT's approach to natural mathematics rather than its analysis of theoretical mathematics). But I suspect the same can't be said for MS – there is no *de re* knowledge or belief about mathematical entities of any kind.

5 Final Observations

It is important to mention what *hasn't* been attempted in the foregoing. I've said only a little about the epistemology of mathematics (this was the subject of Linsky & Zalta 1995). I've not discussed at any length how OT analyzes *natural* mathematics (i.e., the mathematical statements from ordinary language, which don't presuppose mathematical principles). I've not tried to give an account of the special uses of language during the process of theory formation or theory comparison. Nor have I elaborated on the facts that (a) the modal logic of encoding is captured by the principle $xF \rightarrow \Box xF$ (i.e., encoding claims are necessary if true), (b) the true readings of unprefixing mathematical statements are encoding claims, but (c) the necessity of the mathematical truths that can be derived from (a) and (b) rests on contingent analytic truths of the form "In theory T , p ".³⁹ These issues are all worthy of being discussed, but haven't been pursued in any detail here.

³⁹In the first paragraph of Section 4.1 above, it was suggested that OT's analysis of mathematics is naturalistic in the sense that the patterns it objectifies arise from the contingent practices of mathematicians. The practice of asserting axioms governing primitive constants and predicates gives rise to claims of the form "In theory T , p ", such as (7). When these analytic claims are represented in OT and asserted as axiomatic, we do *not* also assert their necessitations but instead mark them as 'modally fragile' (i.e., as resting on a contingency). OT is constructed so that theorems resting on contingencies are *not* subject to the Rule of Necessitation (RN). However, when "In theory T , p " is formalized as an encoding claim, we may derive that it is necessary via the modal logic of encoding, *not* via Rule RN. So the resulting necessary theorems are flagged as derived from an axiom marked as modally fragile. For example, the analytic truth (7) becomes represented as the modally fragile axiom (8). Consequently, when we derive the encoding claims (9) – (11), we can apply the modal logic of encoding to derive their necessitations. But then, they are flagged

Let me instead close with two thoughts. The first concerns a real obstacle to theory acceptance about the nature of mathematics, namely, the fact that many philosophers of mathematics *don't agree on the data* to be explained. Some (platonists, structuralists, logicians, etc.) think that the unprefixing theorems of our most well-entrenched mathematical theories are true; others (fictionalists, nominalists, modal structuralists, etc.), take these claims to be false; and still others suggest that the claims are relative or fail to be truth-apt. This lack of agreement about the data should, and can, be explained. OT does so via the distinction between exemplification and encoding predications, which attempts to resolve a subtle ambiguity in predication and thus an ambiguity in the data. This ambiguity is resolved by formulating both true and false readings that disambiguate unprefixing mathematical claims. One would expect disagreement about the data if (a) some philosophers, on the basis of certain background assumptions, focus on the true readings, (b) other philosophers, on the basis of different background assumptions, focus on the false readings, and (c) still other philosophers, in the presence of arguments by (a) and (b) philosophers, conclude that the data is neither strictly true nor strictly false (i.e., as not truth-apt or as always relative). If none of these groups admit to an ambiguity, the various sides are bound to disagree and talk past each other concerning solutions and explanations of the data.

This explains the conclusion in Balaguer 1998a. Balaguer lists eight points on which platonism (as embodied by FBP) and anti-platonism (as embodied by fictionalism) agree (152–155), and notes that they disagree only on one point, namely, that "FBP-ists think that mathematical objects exist and, hence, that our mathematical theories are true, whereas fictionalists think there are no such things as mathematical objects and, hence our mathematical theories are fictional" (155). He then draws a strong *epistemic* conclusion (namely, that we could never have a cogent argument that settles the dispute over mathematical objects), and a strong *metaphysical conclusion* (namely, that there is no fact of the matter as to whether platonism or anti-platonism is true). But, Colyvan & Zalta (1999, 347) note that these conclusions could be explained by the following hypotheses: (a) platonism focuses on the sense in which unprefixing mathematical claims are true, while fictionalism focuses on the sense in

as necessary truths that are derived from, and rest on, a contingency, as in the deductive system in Zalta m.s.

which they are false, (b) both platonism and fictionalism are different, *incompatible interpretations* of the *same formalism* (these interpretations were described above, in the first two paragraphs of Section 4.1), and (c) natural language can be equally well regimented in two ways: one gives rise to the platonist interpretation and the other the fictionalist interpretation. These hypotheses would *predict* Balaguer's conclusion that platonism and fictionalism are on a dialectical par and would *explain* why Balaguer comes to the conclusion that there may be no fact of the matter as to which is true.

The concluding thought is to consider that OT wasn't developed specifically for the analysis of mathematics. Rather, it was formulated for systematically analyzing abstract objects generally. It therefore has additional explanatory power in so far as it provides us with a theory of possible worlds, concepts, fictions, Platonic forms, Fregean numbers, senses, etc. The present effort focuses solely on OT's application to theoretical mathematics and I would argue that it gives one a better overall perspective on the subject. If no other theory provides a better understanding of both the language and objects of mathematics, or better unifies apparently incompatible philosophical accounts of mathematics, then OT is a conceptual framework to consider seriously until a better overall theory comes along.

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