

# Notes

## Introduction

1. For a survey, see Rosen (2001).
2. Throughout the book we will use the term ‘arithmetic’, without further qualification, to refer to the theory of natural numbers.
3. See, for instance, Dummett (1978b).
4. In what follows we will use, unless otherwise specified, the adjective ‘true’ *tout court*, and its derivatives, implicitly assuming that statements considered as true are not vacuously such, or not only vacuously such (when appropriately interpreted).

## 1 The Origins

1. This change is all but explicit. However, we do not see how Plato’s metaphor could be interpreted differently, especially in light of what has been said above concerning *Theaetetus*, *Meno* and *Phaedrus*.
2. Plato is here using the term ‘*logismos*’. A more literal translation would render it as ‘calculation’. We prefer, however, to translate it as ‘logistic’ since it seems to us that Plato is here not merely referring to a mathematical procedure or practice, but rather to a branch of mathematics, namely to that branch that he elsewhere calls ‘*hē logistikē*’ (or ‘*hē logistikē technē*’), a term that we shall render as ‘logistic’ too. Logistic was the art of calculating with numbers, and was distinct from the science about them. We will come back to this point in what follows.
3. The terms ‘*dianoia*’ and ‘*nous*’ occur elsewhere in Plato’s dialogues, and with different meanings. For example, they occur in the passage quoted above from the *Phaedrus* (247c–d), where they are rendered, respectively, as ‘mind’ and ‘intelligence’.
4. Here too, Plato insists on the indispensability of earthly knowledge (342d–e): “For unless a man somehow or other grasps the four of these, he will never perfectly acquire knowledge of the fifth.”
5. Plato uses ‘*nous*’ here, but with a different meaning in respect to the meaning that the term has in the aforementioned metaphor of the divided line. See also *Timaeus*, 51d–52a.
6. This conception will be codified in definitions VII.1 and VII.2 of Euclid’s *Elements*.
7. This second interpretation is close to the classic interpretation given by Jakob Klein (1934–6, pp. 17–25) who, however, translates the relevant passage differently from us, having “with reference to *how much* either happens to be” where we have “with the odd and the even, however many they are”.
8. Technically, a progression is the structure common to every system of elements that are linearly ordered and include a first element relative to this

order, starting from which they can all be reached by progressing according to the order.

9. Aristotle is using here the plural neuter *ta mathēmatika*. Leaving aside the unorthodox literal translation of this expression as ‘mathematical things’, we remain with two other possible translations – ‘mathematical objects’ and ‘mathematical entities’ – among which we select the former, which squares nicely with modern terminology.
10. His confutation of option (i) hinges on various arguments presented at the beginning of the second chapter of Book XIII, which in turn take up those presented at the end of the second chapter of Book III.
11. In *Physics*, Aristotle is crystal clear that time – defined as “number of movement in respect of the before and after” (219b 2) – exists only in so far as movement (218b, 21) and the soul that enumerates it (223a, 21–9) exist.
12. This reading of Euclid’s *Elements* is suggested in Panza (2012).
13. Proclus alludes to this argument in passing, however, already in the *Commentary*’s first Part (Chapter vi, 13, 9–11).
14. We use here on purpose the somewhat vague term ‘thought’. A proper account of how Aristotle conceives of the higher faculties of the soul would take us too far afield.
15. With ‘sensibility’ we mean, here and in what follows, the faculty of having perceptual sensations.
16. Points would need a separate treatment, but this would not raise any further difficulty.
17. For a more detailed exposition of what is in this section, see Panza (1997). Among the many expositions of Kant’s philosophy, see Cassirer (1918–21) and Strawson (1966). On Kant’s philosophy of mathematics, see Friedman (1992).
18. As a consequence, knowledge is not, for Kant, true and justified opinion; it is rather a state of mind involving concepts and intuitions.
19. This does not seem to require any special explanation as long as geometrical schemas are concerned. As regards arithmetical ones, consider that, according to Kant, there is a concept for each number, and not only the concept of number, unit, even and odd. If there has to be multiplication of entities at all, this occurs at the level in which concepts, and not schemas, are generated.

## 2 From Frege to Gödel (Through Hilbert)

1. Where  $a$  and  $b$  are two real numbers, a complex number is a binomial  $a + ib$ , where  $i$  is the square root of  $-1$  (namely, it is such that  $i^2 = -1$ ). A suitable definition of reals yields thus a suitable definition of complex numbers.
2. For a comprehensive exposition of Frege’s philosophy of mathematics, see Dummett (1991). General introductions to Frege’s philosophy can be found in Dummett (1973), Kenny (1995).
3. The acronym ‘FA’ (for ‘Frege arithmetic’) is used today for a different theory, which will be discussed in § 5.1.
4. All we shall say on Frege in the present section is referred to the first part of *Grundgesetze*, §§ I.1–I.52.

5. A formal system is generally also called 'formal theory'. By the conventions presented in the *Preface*, however, a theory is a system of statements; it does therefore include neither a language nor deductive rules, even though its statements are obviously expressed in a certain language and can be derived by certain rules. A sentence of a given language (be this formal or not) provides a way for expressing a statement, but it is not necessary that it does. It can simply be taken as a concatenation of symbols or words in a given language. This is common in logic, where sentences of a formal system are studied as such and for their deductive relations, independently of any other function they might happen to have. Strictly speaking, by our terminological conventions, a formal system should not be taken as a theory, even though it includes (or might include) a (formal) theory.
6. Today, we have non-axiomatic formal systems in which the role of axioms is played by suitable inference rules, namely introduction and elimination rules. In our presentation we will only consider axiomatic systems, however.
7. Notice that interpreting a sentence is not *ipso facto* equivalent to turning it into a statement: it does not entail that the force of asserting something is attached to it, but only that it has been fixed what the sentence would assert were that force to be attached to it. On the other hand, a statement can be distinguished by the sentence that expresses it even if no interpretation has been fixed. Thus one might assert, for instance, that  $2 + 3 = 5$ , by uttering the sentence ' $2 + 3 = 5$ ' with assertoric force, without having established yet what the terms ' $2$ ', ' $3$ ', and ' $5$ ' mean. If assertoric force is attached to a sentence, this turns it into a statement. If the sentence is interpreted, then also the statement counts as interpreted; it thus asserts something specific, and can be either true or false.
8. Things are by far less clear for the extension of this system presented in the second volume for the purpose of defining real numbers. We shall come back to this point in § 2.1.4.
9. As is well known, and as we shall see later, Frege's whole system is inconsistent and this is clearly enough to deny that is a logical system. The relevant question lies elsewhere, however, since different ways of emending Frege's system so as to free it from (apparent) inconsistency are known (and will be mentioned later). The relevant question is whether the system so emended can or cannot be taken as logic. And this is where the real controversy lies. We shall come back to this question in § 5.1, where we shall consider a way of recasting Frege's definition of natural numbers whose proponents (known as 'neo-logicians') take to remain within bounds of logic (or analyticity, at least).
10. We will use modern notation, in order to simplify the exposition. This allows us to simplify things significantly by avoiding considering the function  $\neg$ , which plays a crucial role in Frege's system, since it is supposed to occur as a component in five of the seven fundamental functions we shall consider here (namely negation, implication, the two universal quantifiers, and the value-range). Frege calls this function 'horizontal', and defines it by stating that its value is T for T as argument and F otherwise. Avoiding considering this function prevents us entering into some important details concerning the nature of Frege's formal language and the way he understands it.

On this and other matters concerned with Frege's formal language, we refer the reader to Landini (2012).

11. More precisely, the second-order quantifier should be denoted by ' $\forall P[\mu_{\xi}(P(\xi))]$ ', where the subscript in ' $\mu_{\xi}$ ' indicates that in  $P(\xi)$  the symbol ' $\xi$ ' is not a placeholder for empty places for objects: the argument of the functions over which ' $P$ ' ranges could for instance be held fixed, like in ' $\forall P[f(P(\Gamma))]$ ', or bounded by another quantifier, like in ' $\forall P\forall x[f(P(x))]$ '.
12. Frege's use of the symbol '|—' should not be confused with the modern use of the '⊢', which indicates that the formula following the symbol has to be proved, or is a theorem.
13. Frege considers the symbol '|—' as composed by '|' and '|—' and takes the former (which he calls 'judgement-stroke' to express the act of assertion and the latter to designate the function horizontal (see note 10 above). It follows that, for Frege, this function occurs in any statement.
14. So far, we have only talked about names of objects. Frege also believes, however, that functions have names, like ' $f(\xi)$ '. The difference between the two cases is crucial, but we cannot pause on similar aspects of Frege's philosophy of language, despite their relation to his philosophy of mathematics. The reader might find various texts treating these issues, among which we recommend Dummett (1973).
15. Following Quine, some believe that second-order logic is not properly logic, but rather set-theory in disguise, and are thus not disposed to concede that the fifth of Frege's fundamental functions presented above corresponds to a logical constant. The reason is that for Quine, second-order variables should be taken as ranging over sets (whose elements are individuals over which first-order variables range, or couples, etc. of individuals). Beside Quine's, there are several possible interpretations: see Quine (1970, pp. 66–8), Boolos (1975, 1984, 1985), Linnebo (2003, 2008), Shapiro (2005b).
16. For reasons that will be clear later, it is important to notice that Frege stresses the analogy between two of these axioms by denoting them with the same roman numeral. These are Laws *IIa* and *IIb*. The three others are Laws *I*, *III*, and *IV* (the latter of which is actually redundant).
17. By 'implicit definition' one generally means a definition that is obtained not by laying down what is the *definiendum*, or by introducing a convention that stipulates how some words or symbols should be understood, but rather by laying down certain conditions that *definiendum* must satisfy. When it is taken as a definition of the *Num.*(–) operator,  $\text{HP}$  is an implicit definition, since it just stipulates an identity condition for the values of this operator. An operator is just a suitable function: if it is applied to certain entities taken as its arguments, it delivers other entities as values. In § 5.1 we will explain why the operator implicitly defined by  $\text{HP}$  does not only deliver natural numbers, but cardinal numbers more generally. In a formal language, an operator is thus designated by a functional constant.
18. Kant has a similar definition of the extension of a concept also in the *Logik Jäsche* (§ 1.7). In both cases, he contrasts the extension of a concept to its "content", namely its characteristic marks. In *Logik Blomberg* (§ 204) he defines in a similar way the *sphaera* of a concept, and then appeals to the notion of extension in order to make its definition clearer: "The multitude of things . . . that I can think under the *conceptus communis* constitute the *sphaera conceptus*".

19. Notice that Frege agrees with Kant that geometrical truths are synthetic *a priori* (§ 89).
20. For more on what follows in this section, see Dummett (1991, pp. 201–8).
21. See note 16.
22. According to modern notation and conception of predicate logic,  $BLV$  should rather be written as follows:  $(\hat{\epsilon}[F(\epsilon)] = \hat{\epsilon}[G(\epsilon)]) \Leftrightarrow \forall x[F(x) \Leftrightarrow G(x)]$ . Here ' $F$ ' and ' $G$ ' are (schematic) predicate letters, and so ' $\hat{\epsilon}[F(\epsilon)] = \hat{\epsilon}[G(\epsilon)]$ ', ' $F(x)$ ' and ' $G(x)$ ' are sentences, rather than names of objects, which motivate the use of ' $\Leftrightarrow$ ' instead of ' $=$ '. This is due to the abandonment of Frege's idea that truth-values are objects, that is, items of the same type of those denoted by individual constants.
23. We are used today to use the term 'Peano axioms' to refer to different axiom systems, among which some are first-order and some are second-order (respectively called 'first-order Peano axioms' and 'second-order Peano axioms'). In the former case, these systems include an axiom schema, replacing the second-order induction axiom, and contain thus, properly speaking, an infinite number of axioms. Frege clearly proves them in a second-order version.
24. On the notion of logic in Kant and Frege, see MacFarlane (2002).
25. Just to give an example of how Frege is reasoning here, let us see how this proof works for the function  $\xi = \zeta$ . If we take both the arguments of these functions to be value-ranges of certain functions, then  $BLV$  allows us to determine whether these functions have the same value-range or not. If yes, the function takes  $T$  as value, if not it takes  $F$  as value. If we take an argument to be the value-range of a certain function, and the other a truth-value, then the functions take either  $T$  or  $F$  as value according to whether the latter has been supposed to be the same value-range as the former or not (that is, according to the foregoing supposition, whether the former is the same value-range as that of  $\xi = (\xi = \zeta)$ , if the latter is  $T$ , or whether the former is the same value-range as that of  $\xi = \neg\forall x[x = x]$ , if the latter is  $F$ , or not). If we take an argument to be the value-range of a certain function and the other an object other than a truth-value, then the function takes  $F$  as value.
26. Today, we would not say that a name of function has a reference, unless we were willing to claim, *contra* Frege, that a function is an object. On the problems related to the extension of the notion of reference to constants different from singular terms, see for instance Dummett (1973, ch. 7) and Wright (1998c).
27. A recursive criterion is a criterion that applies to some cases if and only if it is established whether other cases pertaining (in some sense to be specified) to a lower level satisfy it. It thus applies only to cases satisfying a hierarchy of levels, and requires a starting point, or basis. The same can be said for any recursive rule or stipulation. A typical case of recursive definition is the following definition of natural numbers: 0 is a natural number; if  $n$  is a natural number, then  $s(n)$  is a natural number; nothing else is a natural number. If we have introduced the function  $s(-)$ , called 'successor function', then it follows from the first and second clause that  $s(0)$  is a natural number, and then that also  $s(s(0))$  is a natural number, and so on, by the third clause, for all and only natural numbers.
28. On the source of the contradiction, see also Boolos (1993) and Dummett (1994).

29. Russell generally talks of classes, but he distinguishes between “class as many” and “class as one”, a distinction that closely resembles the modern one between class and set. More on this issue can be found in any good introduction to set theory, such as Quine (1963), Suppes (1972), Potter (2004, especially Appendix C). Here, we will use ‘set’ in its current meaning.
30. But see note 15 above.
31. This idea echoes Frege’s context principle, but it is radically different from that expressed by it: Frege maintained that the meaning of words should be found in the context of the statements in which they occur, but he did not claim that they have a meaning only in such contexts, or even worse that some words could contribute to the formation of meaningful statements despite their being meaningless.
32. What follows is merely a rough discussion of the rise of set theory. Many detailed texts are available though, like Hallet (1984) or Ferreirós (1999). Cavallès (1938) is a classical exposition.
33. If we take a finite set, it is easy to see that if it has  $n$  members, the set of its subsets has  $2^n$ . *Mutatis mutandis*, this holds for infinite sets too. If  $\alpha$  is the cardinal of an infinite set, the cardinal of the set of its subsets is  $2^\alpha$ .
34. On the notion of progression, see Chapter 1, note 8. Here it is enough to notice that a set satisfies second-order Peano axioms if and only if it forms a progression under a successor relation which is appropriately defined on it (at least insofar as these axioms are not taken to include axioms for order, addition and multiplication, as it is sometimes the case).
35. Actually, the issue is far more complex: the precise relations between this model and Peano axioms depend on the way in which these latter are formulated. If they are formulated in a second-order language (thus being finite in number), they have a single model, up to isomorphism (namely, any two distinct models of these axioms are isomorphic to each other: there is a bijection among their elements preserving all the relations that make them count as models of the relevant axioms). When this happens, a theory is said to be categorical. If they are formulated in a first-order language (thus being infinite in number since they necessarily include an induction axiom schema: cf. note 23 above, not all of their models are isomorphic: some (called ‘non-standard’) include some additional elements. This is a consequence of the upward Löwenheim-Skolem theorem. Here are some logic manuals in which these issues can be explored further: Mendelson (1964), Kleene (1967), Shoenfield (1967), Boolos and Jeffrey (1989), Ebbinghaus, Flum and Thomas (2004). On model theory, see Chang and Keisler (1973), Hodges (1993), Rothmaler (2000).
36. See § 2.5. For more on this, see Cohen (1966), Woodin (2001a, 2001b), Kanamori (2004).
37. We cannot but give a very general formulation of this tenet here, but we hope it will suffice for a sufficiently clear idea of the point at issue.
38. The presence of paradoxes will of course be unacceptable even from Carnap’s point of view. The logical point then lies in the relation between impredicative definitions and the paradoxes. Poincaré (1906) saw in the former the main cause of the latter; we now know that many impredicative definitions are perfectly consistent (an instance is  $HP$ , used for a definition of natural numbers: see § 5.1). For more on this, see Chihara (1973), Heinzmann (1985), Feferman (2005).
39. But see § 4.2 and § 7.2.4.

40. Some of Hilbert's and Bernays's articles can be found in Hilbert (1932–5, vol. III). Translations in collections can be found in van Heijenoort (1967), Largeault (1992), Ewald (1996), Mancosu (1998). The most mature version of Hilbert's and Bernays' foundational proposal is in Hilbert and Bernays (1934–9). Many of the things we will say in what follows do not square with the ideas presented in this latter book, where finitary mathematics is seen as a formal theory. Our exposition will be closer to earlier versions of that proposal. The difference between the two approaches largely depends on a change in the conception of intuition supposedly involved in finitary arithmetic. On this, see Mancosu (1998), pp. 149–88). On Hilbert's programme, see Giaquinto (1983) and Detlefsen (1986).
41. Hilbert makes use of inverted commas neither around his number-signs nor around the signs he uses for the purpose of communication. For the former, this could be justified by the fact that these signs are not supposed to denote anything else but themselves, with the result that the object  $1 + 1$  is here the same as the object ' $1 + 1$ '. But for the latter, things are different. In this case, we prefer then to introduce inverted commas according to the conventions widely accepted today.
42. According to Parsons' terminology (see Parsons 1998, p. 252; 2008, pp. 241–2), this means that 'concrete' should here be taken as synonymous with 'quasi-concrete' (see § 5.4).
43. Today we know, thanks to Gödel's theorems themselves, that this prevents  $\tau$  from being a second-order theory satisfying other requisites that are generally required by a good mathematical theory.
44. Gödel actually proves a slightly weaker theorem than this. The stronger version we have stated has been proved by John Barkley Rosser (1936).
45. Brouwer (CW) contains Brouwer's original works (with English translations of Dutch texts). Translations can also be found in many collections (see also note 40). Among the many works on Brouwer, see Stigt (1990), van Dalen (1999–2005) and van Atten (2004).
46. Let us take variables to range over the relevant objects. If one wants to prove ' $\exists x(F(x))$ ', for some property  $F$ , one proves that the negation of this statement, ' $\neg\exists x(F(x))$ ' (which is equivalent to ' $\forall x\neg F(x)$ '), leads to contradiction, from which ' $\neg\neg\exists x(F(x))$ ' (or ' $\neg\forall x\neg F(x)$ ') follows by *modus tollens*. By double negation elimination, one then gets the statement to be proved.
47. On this, see Tieszen (2005) and van Atten (2006). On Husserl's philosophy of mathematics, see Tieszen (1995) and Haddock and Hill (2000).
48. Gödel provides a model of  $\text{ZF}$  (provided by the proper class  $L$  of constructible sets), and shows that it satisfies the Axiom of Choice and the Continuum Hypothesis. Clearly, all we will say here about  $\text{CH}$  is relative to classical mathematics.

### 3 Benacerraf's Arguments

1. Other accounts of the debate which will occupy us in the following chapters can be found in Engel (1995), Shapiro (2000a, pp. 281–9), Bostock (2009). For more detailed discussions, see the essays in Shapiro (2005a).
2. Benacerraf distinguishes between what he calls 'transitive' counting, by which objects are counted, and what he calls 'intransitive' counting, consisting in

uttering the names of natural numbers in their right order. According to Benacerraf, one cannot count transitively if one hasn't mastered intransitive counting, since to count transitively consists in associating objects to the names of natural numbers uttered in their correct order.

3. Benacerraf (1965, p. 51, note 3) acknowledges that not everyone concedes that the possibility of defining the usual arithmetical operations on the elements of a progression, and that of using these elements in counting objects, are necessary conditions for taking these elements to be the natural numbers. Many believe (Benacerraf mentions Quine, 1960, § 54) that natural numbers can be identified with the elements of any progression whatsoever. This point is relevant under many respects, but it does not affect the argument we are discussing, since for the latter it is enough that Zermelo's and von Neumann's progressions are considered as adequate. Benacerraf (1996a, Appendix; 1966b) will later admit that the decidability of the ordering relation on the elements of a progression is not essential, arguing that it is always possible to define a decidable ordering relation on a progression. This issue is not settled, however: see, for example, Halbach and Horsten (2005), who maintain that the decidability condition is essential.
4. See note 3.
5. On the various theories of truth, see for instance Künne (2003); Burgess and Burgess (2011).
6. For general discussions on the epistemological challenges to platonism raised by Benacerraf's dilemma, see for instance Wright (1983, §§ 11–12); Hale (1987, ch. 4); Lewis (1986, pp. 108–15); Field (1989a, pp. 25–30), (1989b, § 2); Burgess and Rosen (1997, pp. 35–60); Divers and Miller (1999), Cheyne (2001), Liggins (2006, 2010b), Linnebo (2006), Callard (2007), Azzouni (2008), Kasa (2010).

#### 4 Non-conservative Responses to Benacerraf's Dilemma

1. As a matter of fact, Field (1984) suggests that it is still possible to speak of mathematical truth even without denying that knowledge requires truth. However, mathematical knowledge is not given, according to him, by the theorems of mathematics (as complying with clause (i)); it is, rather, either knowledge that certain theorems have some (modal) logical properties, or knowledge of the fact that some mathematicians accept certain theories or assumptions.
2. Granted that a nominalistic statement is a statement formulated in a nominalistic language, nothing prevents it being necessarily true. If '*t*' is a term of such a language, the statement 'For any *x*, if *x* is identical to *t*, then it is identical to *t*' is a case in point, and also is a consequence (given any minimal logic) of any theory some of whose axioms are statements in which '*t*' occurs. If this happens with a bridge-law of a nominalistically impure mathematical theory, the statement is a consequence of this theory.
3. One could doubt that it is possible, given this condition, to have nominalistically impure mathematical theories that have nominalistic consequences non-necessarily true. Still, Field (1982, pp. 48–9) gives an example of such a theory. He shows how to obtain a (consistent) version of set-theory, allowing for "sets with non-sets as members" and for the existence of "a set



of all non-sets”, where the axiom schema of separation and replacement admit of instances involving “the empirical vocabulary that is ordinarily used to describe non-sets”, and in which the axiom of infinity is dropped and replaced by its negation. This theory would have “consequences about the physical world that conflict with most current physical theories”, and are then, obviously, non-necessarily true. But notice that the “most current physical theories” to which Field refers here are theories implying – or so understood as to imply – the “existence of an infinite discrete linear ordering of non-mathematical entities”. His point is, indeed, that in such a theory, together with the described version of set-theory, one could “define a function symbol mapping some  $x$  in the ordering into 0, its immediate successor into 1, the successor of that into 2 and so on”, which, together with the existence of a set of all non-sets and the replacement axioms-schema extended in the mentioned way, entails “the existence of a set containing 0, 1, 2 and so on, in violation of the negation of the axiom of infinity”. One could have, however, good reasons for arguing that such a “physical theory” – or at least such a theory so understood – is not genuinely physical, after all.

4. This would be the case, for example, with the version of set-theory mentioned in note 3, if it were taken to be a pure mathematical theory, namely if the non-sets that are allowed to be members of sets were taken to be some sort of mathematical entities (under the supposition, of course, that some mathematical entities could be non-sets).
5. Intuitively speaking, an uninteresting (mathematical) theory is certainly not good, whatever condition it might meet. Still, Field’s limitation to interesting mathematical theories has also a technical aim: we shall come back to this in § 6.3.
6. In order to understand why this condition is equivalent to the preceding one, one can reason as follows. Suppose that  $\neg\varphi$  is a nominalistic, non-contradictory, statement, and that  $M+\varphi$  is inconsistent. Then,  $\neg\varphi$  would be a consequence of  $M$  that is not necessarily true (since  $\varphi$  is not contradictory), and thus  $M$  would have nominalistic consequences that are not necessarily true. It follows that  $\neg\varphi$  would be a consistent nominalistic statement, whereas  $M+\neg\varphi$  would be inconsistent.
7. In Field (1980) the conservativeness of mathematics is not defined as we have defined it earlier following Field (1982), but rather directly through the condition just stated. Field (1980, pp. 12–13) thus has a slightly modified version of the first part of the argument given earlier to show that “our mathematical theories” are conservative, and presents (*ibid.*, p. 16–19) two other more technical arguments, specifically addressing the case of set theory (which is considered as a mathematical theory *par excellence*).
8. Notice that the issue here is whether these terms and variables can be eliminated from a not purely mathematical language. The easy solution adopted here cannot thus serve to define natural numbers as such and to give an extra-mathematical foundation for arithmetic.
9. Field (1980, p. 21) defines these numerical existential quantifier on the basis of other quantifiers:  $\exists_{\geq i}x[F(x)]$ , to be read as ‘There are at least  $i$   $x$ s that are  $F$ s’. It is easy to pass from one definition to the other; we give only one of these for the sake of simplicity.

10. Field (1985) contains replies to Shapiro's objections (see also Field, 1984, for more on the second-order issue), but these do not have the last word on the matter.
11. In the sense that is relevant here, the language of mereology is based on a fundamental relation, that of (being) part of, that gets applied to concrete objects. If these objects do not have parts, they are called 'atoms'. A concrete object that has parts is said to be the 'mereological sum' of its parts. These latter can be either atoms or other mereological sums. A mereological sum is thus a concrete object constituted by its parts (atoms or sums), these being concrete in their turn. These parts need not necessarily be contiguous in space (we can thus have the mereological sum of Mount Everest and Big Ben). This language clearly involves quantification over concrete objects only (atoms or sums). For an introduction, see Varzi (2009).
12. Burgess and Rosen (1997, § II.A) show how this argument could be carried out in detail.
13. The distinction was originally suggested by Burgess (1983), refined in Burgess and Rosen (1997, pp. 6–7). For a more detailed exposition, see Burgess, Rosen (2005, pp. 515–18). For discussion, see Chihara (2005, pp. 483–9) and Hellman (1998).
14. Burgess and Rosen interchangeably use expressions like 'content', 'what a statement says' and 'meaning'. In order to avoid undue qualifications, we will only use the term 'content'.
15. We say 'propositional attitude' in order to make clear that the term 'attitude' is used so as to denote a propositional mental state. But we do not, nor do the authors considered here, want to imply that attributing a particular propositional attitude entails the existence of propositions as abstract objects.
16. Hellman (1998, pp. 342–4) has argued against Burgess' and Rosen's distinction, claiming that it is not generally among the aims of nominalists, not even those qualifying as revolutionary, to suggest that nominalistic versions of mathematical and scientific theories should replace traditional ones in practice. Nominalists would rather be putting forward theories on the epistemology of mathematics fully compatible with the actual use of traditional theories.
17. Yablo seems to have modified his views lately, elaborating suggestions presented in Yablo (2006, 2009). We present them in the form in which they have been discussed until recently.
18. See Rayo, Yablo (2001).
19. See, on this, McGee (1997, pp. 56–62).
20. Though Yablo (2002, pp. 179–85) suggests how to extend his view concerning the real content of mathematical statements to set-theory, it is not clear whether he can claim that the real content of set-theoretical statements is given by logical truths, nor if this can be claimed for any mathematical theory.
21. Yablo has suggested in unpublished work that a statement like 'There are infinite prime numbers' should be interpreted as 'There are natural numbers, and they are such that there is an infinite number of them which are prime'. 'There are infinite prime numbers' should then be considered analogously to a physical law like 'Objects with no net force on them move with constant

- velocity' (to be rendered as 'There are bodies with no net force on them and they move with constant velocity'), and its real content would express a condition that natural numbers would satisfy, if they existed. But what is this condition, if it is to be external to arithmetic?
22. For a defence of Field's programme on similar lines, see also Liggins (2006).
  23. Leng (2010) defends a fictionalist view that closely resemble Yablo's. Leng also has detailed discussions of many issues related to recent debates on mathematical fictionalism.
  24. The first component is called 'hypothetical' since the translation scheme transforms any statement of a given mathematical theory in a modal conditional statement. By 'hypothetical component' one can mean, depending on the context, both the component of the overall interpretation procedure, or, for any specific modalized version of a theory, the collection of statements translated in accordance with that procedure.
  25. To these assumptions the axioms of second-order logic must be added (where the comprehension schema is appropriately modified in modal terms, see Hellman, 1989, p. 24; 2005, pp. 553–4), together with those of the S5 system of quantified modal logic, without the Barcan formula (for details, see any good introduction to modal logic, such as Hughes and Cresswell, 1996).
  26. To be precise: neither of actual objects, nor of possible but non-actual objects, the so-called *possibilia*. These latter are avoided thanks to a particular restriction of the second-order comprehension schema (Hellman, 2005, pp. 553–4).
  27. Parsons is commenting on a suggestion by Putnam (1967) on the possibility of interpreting set theory nominalistically over concrete domains, a suggestion that Hellman (1989, p. 71) recalls, before offering a modal structuralist interpretation that is not nominalist (1989, ch. 2). Parsons' objection can however be addressed to Hellman's modal structuralism.
  28. This seems to go against Zalta's idea (see § 5.2) that an abstract object is an object that is not concrete in any possible world, an object that could not exist for a nominalist.
  29. For discussions on the various kinds of modality, see Plantinga (1974), Kripke (1980), Lewis (1986), Hale (1999), Fine (2005), Mackie (2006). For various uses of modality in mathematics, see Putnam (1967), Field (1984, 1989b), Parsons (1983b), Hale (1996b), Chihara (2008), Leng (2010, § 3.2), Friedman (2005).
  30. For more on this point and its consequences for the interaction between cognitive sciences and the philosophy of mathematics, see Doridot and Panza (2004). For a similar objection, see Parsons (2008, p. 211).
  31. Maddy has subsequently rejected the indispensability argument (see §§ 7.3.1 and 7.4.3). In her 1997 work (p. 152, note 30), Maddy still takes it that set theory has cognitive grounds, but claims for set-theoretical platonism no more on the basis of an argument as that just presented, but on the basis of her conception of naturalism (see § 7.3.1). Recently, Maddy has also argued for a form of mathematical realism that leaves unsettled whether platonism about sets is true (see § 7.3.1.1); according to her latest views, her argument for set-theoretical platonism on cognitive grounds could turn out to be "unnecessary" (Maddy 2011, p. 72, cf. also p. 118).
  32. Two simple examples might help appreciating the difference: both the notion of empty set and the distinction between a set  $E$  and the sets

$\{E\}$  and  $E \cup \{E\}$ , which are crucial in set-theory, have no clear analogue in any system of concepts suitable for an appropriate account of perceptual experiences.

## 5 Conservative Responses to Benacerraf's Dilemma

1. Several essays by Hale and Wright are collected in their (2001) work. See also Hale (1987); Hale and Wright (2002); Cook (2007). For a survey, see MacBride (2003).
2. This name is common today, and comes from a passage in Wright (1983, p. 51). For a more detailed formulation, see MacBride (2003, p. 108).
3. A relation  $R$  is an equivalence relation if it is reflective, symmetric, and transitive, namely if for every  $x$ ,  $y$ , and  $z$ , respectively:  $R(x,x)$ ; if  $R(x,y)$ , then  $R(y,x)$ ; if  $R(x,y)$  and  $R(y,z)$  then  $R(x,z)$ .
4. Zalta (PM) presents a version of the theory updated to 1999.
5. Using a typed language not only ensures greater rigour, but also allows that what we will later say about mathematical objects can be said about higher-order entities, such as monadic properties, relations, etc.
6. It is important to understand that the sheaf of properties of which Nessy is a reification is not given by the two properties of being a monster and living in Loch Ness, but only by the property of being a monster living in Loch Ness and by all properties, if any, that an object has if it has that property. Taken separately, the two properties of being a monster and of living in Loch Ness do not satisfy the formula ' $\forall y[P(y) \Leftrightarrow [Mst(y) \wedge LcNs(y)]]$ ', indeed.
7. In the philosophy of language, by 'proposition' one usually means the content of a statement or what a statement expresses. In mathematics the same term is used instead to denote theorems or, more generally, statements, and this usage is for the sake of simplicity often adopted also in the philosophy of mathematics as well. Here the term is used with the former meaning.
8. The term 'second-order Peano arithmetic' is used to denote different variants of second-order arithmetic, all involving a finite number of axioms suggested by those advanced by Peano himself in his seminal work (1889). In the variant considered by Zalta, these axioms are five and include a monadic predicate constant designating the property of being a natural number (this is necessary, since the theory has to be immersed within Object Theory, and the objects the former characterizes must then be distinguished from other possible objects of the latter; in other presentations, this constant can be avoided, since no individuals distinct from natural numbers are involved) and no dyadic functional or predicate constant used to designate addition, multiplication and order (which makes this variant merely characterize the structure of progression; see Chapter 1, note 8).

## 6 The Indispensability Argument: Structure and Basic Notions

1. On the applicability of mathematics, see Steiner (1989, 1998, 2005), Pincock (2012).

2. We mentioned Gödel (1947) in § 2.5. For the others, see Frege (1893–1903, § 91), on which Garavaso (2005); Carnap (1939, p. 64), on which Psillos (1999, pp. 10–11); von Neumann (1947, p. 6).
3. See Quine (1948, pp. 16–19; 1951a, pp. 44–6; 1954, pp. 121–2; 1966b, p. 244; 1969c, p. 97–8; 1981c, pp. 149–50).
4. Though typically endorsed under the assumption that mathematical objects are abstract,  $\text{IA}$  is independent of the nature of mathematical objects, and then in principle acceptable by nominalists who believes that there are mathematical objects, but they are concrete. For the sake of generality, we will merely speak of mathematical objects.
5. Those who believe the first premise to be too harsh can still accept a weaker formulation in which that premise is discharged and the conclusion is conditional in form: if there are true theories / if  $s$  is true, then . . .
6. On this issue, see also Pincock (2004), Paseu (2007).
7. Mark Steiner (1978, pp. 19–20) argues, however, for a different interpretation of Quine's views, suggesting a transcendental version of  $\text{IA}$ .
8. While Putnam's formulation suggests an epistemic reading, his overall discussion suggests a non-epistemic one.
9. A close, but distinct, reading of 'realism' is the one famously introduced by Dummett, according to whom the term refers to the thesis "that statements of [a] disputed class possess an objective truth-value, independently of our means of knowing it: they are true or false in virtue of a reality existing independently of us" (1978b, p. 146).
10. In §§ 6.2.2, 7.3.2 and 7.4.2 we shall pause on another related view, usually called 'scientific realism'.
11. Notice that not all of Quine's views that might be relevant to mathematics are always considered as relevant, or even compatible for  $\text{IA}$ . Bueno (2003) has argued, for instance, that Quine's views on ontological relativity (Quine, 1968) may clash with his alleged endorsement of  $\text{IA}$ . We will here consider only those aspects of Quine's views that bear relevance to  $\text{IA}$ .
12. But see Busch and Sereni (2012).
13. Baker's argument has been offered in the context of a discussion concerning the role of mathematical explanation in science and its relations to  $\text{IA}$ . Here we can only point to the relevant works, among which are Baker (2001, 2005), Colyvan (2002), Melia (2002), Batterman (2010), Pincock (2011), Saatsi (2011), Bueno and French (2012). On the partly related issue of explanations in mathematics, see Mancosu (2008b, 2011).
14. Here and in what follows we call 'vocabulary' the set of non-logical constants (namely, singular terms and predicate or functional constants) of a language.
15. We use the adjective 'putative' in order to stress that the indispensability to  $s$  of either quantification over a certain domain of entities, or these very entities, or the reference to them, should not be taken to entail by itself that there is a certain relation between  $s$  and some existent objects, for this would of course make  $\text{IA}$  question-begging.
16. Option (ii) is suggested by argument [3] and is particularly faithful to Quine's view. Notice that, if only quantification has to be considered, and not also singular terms, then the vocabulary fixed by  $\text{T}$  is to be restricted to predicate constants alone. As suggested by Quine (1948) himself, this could be done by introducing for any singular term a corresponding predicate which is

- intended to apply only to the referent of the original term, and substitute all occurrences of the former accordingly: for instance, 'Pegasus flies' would become 'There is one and only one  $x$  such that  $x$  pegazises and  $x$  flies'.
17. See Chapter 5, note 3.
  18. See Quine (1960, ch. 7, note 5). Quine's doubts on the nominalist programme endorsed in Goodman and Quine (1947) goes back as far as 1948; see Mancosu (2008c).
  19. There are various reasons telling against the availability of a sharp separation of the vocabularies of scientific theories into observational and theoretical sub-vocabularies. Acknowledging this possibility was crucial for logical positivists, but has been subject to several objections (see Putnam, 1962; Suppe, 1977). We can set these issues aside here, since as far as the discussion on  $\text{IA}$  is concerned, it is usually granted that the required separation is available for the relevant scientific theories, supposing that the theoretical vocabulary is (or includes) a mathematical vocabulary.
  20. A theory is recursively enumerable if its theorems can be effectively enumerated, that is arranged in a succession  $\tau_1, \tau_2, \dots$  whose elements can be effectively obtained one after the other (possibly in an infinite time). Notice that 'recursive' and 'recursively', here and in the next note have a different meaning than that suggested in Chapter 3, note 27. Here, they indicate that some effective decision procedure is available.
  21. A theory is recursively axiomatizable if, given any well-formed formula of its language, it is possible to determine whether it is one of the axioms of the theory. The set of the theory's axioms is then said to be recursive.
  22. Craig himself implicitly warned against this philosophical use of his theorem, observing that, in his proof,  $v_\phi$  is such that its theorems are obtained in a "mechanical and artificial way" and are not "psychologically or mathematically . . . more perspicuous" than those of  $v$  (1956, p. 49).
  23. An example of the necessity of distinguishing between the empirical content of a theory and the content of its observational statements is offered in Melia (2000), on which see § 7.1.
  24. Colyvan's discussion of "the role of confirmation theory" in his (2001, pp. 78–81) hints at the relative character of the notion of "preferability". We take our clarification of (in)dispensability to improve on that suggestion.
  25.  $\text{IA}$  apart, this criterion plays a crucial role in ontology: see, among others, Carnap (1950a), Alston (1958), Church (1958), Jackson (1980), Hodes (1990), Melia (1995, 2000), Azzouni (1998), Yablo (1998, 2001), Alspector-Kelly (2001), Eklund (2005), Hofweber (2005a, 2005b, 2007), Chalmers *et al.* (2009).
  26. See note 16 above.
  27. Clearly, our choices about which objects to countenance will not be wholly arbitrary, and criteria for this can be thought of. One minimal criterion adopted by Quine is that we should not accept the existence of entities for which no clear identity conditions can be stated: hence his slogan, "no entity without identity" (Quine, 1958, p. 20).
  28. Notice that the 'if' direction of this double implication is much less innocent than it appears at first glance, since it depends on admitting the *prima facie* reading of a statement of the form ' $\exists x[\mathcal{A}(x)]$ ', according to which such a statement just asserts that there exists an  $x$  such that  $\mathcal{A}(x)$ : this reading of the quantifiers, sometimes also called 'objectual', might be questioned by alternative conceptions of quantification.

29. Notice, however, that in order to avoid circularity, some basic statements – like those used in reporting results of empirical tests, or, generally, those which Quine calls ‘observational statements’ – must be to a certain extent independent of the whole theory. See, for details, Quine (1960, § 2.10; 1969b; 1981e, ch. 2; 1993); see also Quine and Ullian (1975, ch. 1).
30. See Haack (2009, ch. 6), on Quine’s ambiguity in the use of the term ‘science’.
31. This leaves open to be decided what makes a statement part of a theory, and what makes a theory scientific. These are rather complex questions, and different answers might come with different conceptions of naturalism.
32. Stronger conceptions are available. Some see naturalism as the thesis that only non-abstract entities exist. Both the Eleatic Principle discussed by Colyvan (2001, ch. 3), and the naturalism endorsed by Weir (2005) and Armstrong (1997, p. 5) are cases in point (for a discussion, see Cheyne, 2001, ch. 7). Under these readings, naturalism is almost indistinguishable from nominalism. Hence, as argued by Colyvan, this form of naturalism is in principle incompatible with <sup>IA</sup>.
33. Confirmationist holism should be kept distinct from semantic holism, which is roughly the thesis that the meaning of words or statements cannot be determined in isolation, but depends on the role they play in the whole language they belong to (see Fodor, Lepore, 1991). Both theses were suggested by Quine as consequences of his objections to the “dogmas” of logical empiricism (Quine, 1951a), though the former was originally advanced in Duhem (1906, especially p. 225), and is also known as the Duhem-Quine thesis.
34. On occasions, Quine states his view in more moderate terms, claiming for instance that “it is an uninteresting legalism . . . to think of our scientific system of the world as involved *en bloc* in every prediction. More modest chunks suffice” (1981b, p. 71).
35. A noticeable exception, besides Putnam, is Azzouni (2009). As mentioned in § 6.2.2, Colyvan himself (2001, p. 12) observes that the ‘only’ implication in premise (i) of argument [3] is not required, although he includes it in his argument “for the sake of completeness and also to help highlight the important role naturalism plays in questions of ontology”. Whatever this role may be, acknowledging that this implication is not required suggests that argument [3] can be freed by naturalism.
36. Some have accepted this unpalatable conclusion nonetheless (see Colyvan, 2000; 2001, pp. 134–40).
37. Quine accepted this conclusion. He claimed that the objects of unapplied mathematical theories are “without ontological rights” and considered those theories as “mathematical recreation” (1986, p. 400; in Quine 1990, pp. 94–5 and 1995, pp. 55–6 this position is partially revised but the general attitude remains the same). This has engendered a wide debate: see § 7.3.1, and Parsons (1983b), Maddy (1992), Leng (2002), Colyvan (2007).

## 7 The Indispensability Argument: The Debate

1. Since the set of theorems of a theory could itself be taken as a system of axioms.

2. Notice that if this is so, the presence, in these theories, of statements that are neither nominalistic nor mathematical does not prevent the conclusion that, supposing that it is conservative over consistent bodies of non-mathematical statements, acceptable mathematics is dispensable from these theories according to a specification of [(In)dispensability] in terms of *o*-equivalence (and of some appropriate criterion of virtuosity). Let *s* be a consistent, axiomatized, deductively closed, first-order scientific theory, the set of whose axioms is divided into three complementary sets  $A_N$ ,  $A_M$  and  $A_{HT}$  formed, respectively, by nominalistic axioms, by  $M$ -loaded axioms for some acceptable mathematical theory  $M$ , and by axioms that are neither nominalistic nor mathematical. From the conservativeness of acceptable mathematics over any consistent body of non-mathematical statements it follows that a nominalistic statement  $\phi$  is a theorem of *s* if and only if it is derivable from  $A_{N+HT}$ . Thus the sub-theory  $s_{N+HT}$  whose axioms are those belonging to  $A_{N+HT}$  includes all the nominalistic consequences of *s* and no other nominalistic consequence. It is then *o*-equivalent to *s* (granted that *o*-equivalence is defined as said).
3. Pincock (2004) offers a criticism to  $IA$  for platonism that somehow recalls Field's use of representation theorems. He suggests what he calls a 'mapping account', according to which applicability of mathematics in science is due to the possibility of correlating (mapping) physical with mathematical models. This would allow him to claim that even if mathematics is indispensable, it does not follow that mathematical objects exist (for discussion, see Bueno and Colyvan, 2011; Batterman, 2010; Pincock, 2011).
4. Representation theorems that must be proved in order to specify the second among the mentioned equivalence relations will have to be necessarily proved in a platonist metatheory. We have already touched upon this issue in § 4.1.
5. The piecemeal character of this argument is criticised in Dummett, 1993, p. 435.
6. We slightly modify Melia's notation for the sake of exposition.
7. Being concrete, a mereological sum is usually identified with the region of space it occupies.
8. These assumptions are not mutually equivalent, not even if one assumes, as Quine does, that statements of the form ' $\exists x[\mathcal{A}(x)]$ ' of a first-order predicate language render the unique sense in which it can be said of an object that it exists. First, it might be that some of the statements considered in (b) are resistant to a reduction into a first-order predicate language. Second, one might think that expressions like 'exists', 'there are', etc. occurring in those statements are just idiomatic, and do not indicate the existence of objects at all, or at least do not indicate the existence of objects satisfying the first-order open formula ' $\mathcal{A}(x)$ '.
9. And leaving aside issues of ontological relativity discussed in Quine (1968). As already mentioned (see note 11, Chapter 6) we abstract here from some of Quine's theses, giving a somewhat simplified picture of Quine's ideas on the relations between language and ontology, which is, however, faithful enough to the way in which Quine's views are usually treated in connection to  $IA$ .
10. Wiles' proof is not internal to Peano arithmetic (either first- or second-order), since it employs various other mathematical theories, and nothing



guarantees, to the best of our knowledge, that an internal proof is possible, that is, that the axioms of Peano arithmetic are strong enough to make such a proof possible. Quite to the contrary, in order to prove  $\neg\textit{Fermat}$  it would be enough to prove, within Peano arithmetic or any other appropriate version of arithmetic, a formula of the form  $ap + bp = cp$  where  $a$ ,  $b$ ,  $c$ , and  $p$  are given natural numbers.

11. One may see also assumption (a) as called into question by the claim that all that the acknowledgement that there are numbers allows one to say is that some modal facts concerning progressions hold. Analogously, one could think that the idea that statements of the form ' $\exists x[\mathcal{A}(x)]$ ' of a first-order predicate language should be interpreted in terms of objectual quantification (see note 28, Chapter 6) is contradicted by the idea that  $\neg\textit{Fermat}$  and ' $\Box[AX^* \Rightarrow \neg\textit{Fermat}^*]$ ' have the same 'mathematical content'. The way Putnam understands the expressions 'for mathematics' and 'mathematical content' seems however to leave room for different conclusions. In any case, what seems to be beyond discussion (given the overall content of Putnam, 1967, and also Putnam, 2004, ch. 2) is rather that his argument puts pressure on assumption (b).
12. For more on Putnam's notion of equivalence involved here, see Putnam (1983). Criticism of Putnam's view of equivalent descriptions is in Burgess and Rosen 1997, pp. 200–1. A recent discussion of equivalent descriptions is in Field (Forthcoming). Maddy (2011) advances a view on the ontology of mathematics that, despite important differences, echoes Putnam's idea of equivalent descriptions.
13. On the evolution of Putnam's thought on the issue, see also Liggins (2007).
14. Of course, (s)he can do that, but it is not mandated. This and related issues for fictionalists are discussed in Sainsbury (2010); see also Azzouni (2010).
15. The two would still be different, since Field gives nominalist reformulations for scientific theories using mathematics, but not for mathematical theories themselves, whereas Yablo would offer them for mathematical theories too.
16. We shall suppose, for the sake of the argument, that the statement 'The average family has 2.3 children' is not understood as meaning that, given a certain particular number of families, and a certain particular number of children, the average family has  $n$  children average. Rather, it should be understood as a statement concerning what happens generally, independently of the particular number of families and children under consideration.
17. For reference on the relevance of Quine's criterion in ontological debates, see Chapter 6, note 25.
18. See Chapter 4, note 31.
19. For objections to this argument, see Chihara (2006).
20. Maddy (2005, 2011) examines the differences between her and Burgess' and Rosen's position. These differences do not seem to us to be as clear cut as Maddy seems to suggest.
21. This view echoes Putnam's conception of equivalent descriptions; see § 7.2.2.
22. The debate on constructive empiricism is huge: see Churchland and Hooker (1985) and Monton (2007), for example.
23. It is controversial whether it is allowed, or even mandated, to van Fraassen to reject IBE only when it would lead to justifying the existence of either

- unobservable entities or mathematical objects, or whether he should rather reject it in general as a non-valid inference. See Psillos (1999, pp. 211–15).
24. It is unclear what Sober is meaning when he speaks of background assumptions. It is natural to assume that they include bridge-laws (see § 4.1). Should this be the case, however, it would be implausible to think that two scientific theories to which two different mathematical theories are indispensable could be confronted with experience relative to the same background assumptions. In order to oppose Lobacewski, who thought hyperbolic geometry could be experimentally verified, Poincaré (1902) gives an argument showing that no experimental evidence can favour this geometry over Euclid's. His argument rests on the very idea that those geometries cannot be confronted with experience if not through different bridge-laws.
  25. For other objections to Sober's view, see Resnik (1995), Hellman (1999), Colyvan (1999; 2001, pp. 126–34). Another objection to  $IA$ , somehow related to Sober's views, is raised by Vineberg (1996). For other discussions of  $IBE$  as related to  $IA$ , see Saatsi (2007, 2011), Busch (2011).
  26. Leng (2010) argues against confirmational holism on similar lines, and combines her argument with a fictionalist interpretation of idealizations in empirical sciences.
  27. See also § 6.7.
  28. Quite independently of  $IA$ , Resnik (1997, ch. 7) defends confirmational holism from numerous objections (on this, see Peressini, 2008).
  29. The argument is presented in slightly different terms in Resnik (1995, pp. 169–71) and in (1997, pp. 46–8). We stick to the original formulation.
  30. Though it has similarities with Burgess' and Rosen's naturalistic argument; see § 7.3.1.1.
  31. Resnik's argument in (1997, pp. 46–8) stops with conclusion 7(vi); however, conclusion 7(vii) is present in the formulation of the argument in (1995, pp. 169–71).
  32. See also Leng, 2010, pp. 255–8.

# References

Where not otherwise indicated, references in the main text are to the original edition; otherwise, we have indicated with an ‘\*’ the edition to which references in the main text refer. As far as texts in languages other than English, and especially Greek texts, are concerned, translations have been occasionally modified with respect to the English translations referenced, through examination of the original texts and confrontation of other available translations in English and other languages.

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