

# The Mathematics of Skolem’s Paradox

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In 1922, Thoralf Skolem published a paper entitled “Some Remarks on Axiomatized Set Theory.” The paper presents a new proof of a model-theoretic result originally due to Leopold Löwenheim and then discusses some philosophical implications of this result. In the course of this latter discussion, the paper introduces a model-theoretic puzzle that has come to be known as “Skolem’s Paradox.”

Over the years, Skolem’s Paradox has generated a fairly steady stream of *philosophical* discussion; nonetheless, the overwhelming consensus among philosophers and logicians is that the paradox doesn’t constitute a *mathematical* problem (i.e., it doesn’t constitute a real contradiction). Further, there’s general agreement as to *why* the paradox doesn’t constitute a mathematical problem. By looking at the way first-order structures interpret quantifiers—and, in particular, by looking at how this interpretation changes as we move from structure to structure—we can give a technically adequate “solution” to Skolem’s Paradox. So, whatever the philosophical upshot of Skolem’s Paradox may be, the mathematical side of Skolem’s Paradox seems to be relatively straightforward.

In this paper, I challenge this common wisdom concerning Skolem’s Paradox. While I don’t argue that Skolem’s Paradox constitutes a genuine mathematical problem (it doesn’t), I do argue that standard “solutions” to the paradox are technically inadequate. Even on the mathematical side, Skolem’s Paradox is more complicated—and quite a bit more interesting—than it’s usually taken to be. Further, because philosophical discussions of Skolem’s Paradox typically start with an analysis of the paradox’s mathematics—and only then examine how the interpretation of this mathematics reveals the paradox’s philosophical significance—it is important to get the mathematics itself right before we start in on our philosophy.

From a structural standpoint, this paper breaks into six sections. In section 1, I formulate a simple version of Skolem’s Paradox and try to disentangle the roles that set theory, model theory and philosophy play in making it look plausible. In section 2, I sketch a generic solution to Skolem’s Paradox—a solution which explains, in rough outline, why no version of the paradox generates a genuine contradiction. Sections 3–5 examine different ways of “filling out” this generic solution. Section 3 focuses on the role quantification sometimes plays in Skolem’s Paradox and includes a discussion of the so-called “transitive submodel” version of the paradox. Sections 4 and 5 look at some cases where quantification *doesn’t* help to explain Skolem’s Paradox. Finally, section 6 presents some concluding philosophical reflections.<sup>1</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Let me emphasize that—with the exception of section 6 and some brief philosophical digressions—this paper focuses fairly tightly on the *mathematical* side of Skolem’s Paradox. In particular, I don’t attempt to survey all the things philosophers have said about the paradox or to assess the various ways the paradox has been used (and abused) in the philosophical literature.

# 1 Skolem’s Paradox

In its simplest form, Skolem’s Paradox involves a (seeming) conflict between two theorems of modern logic: Cantor’s theorem from set theory and the Löwenheim-Skolem theorem from model theory. Cantor’s theorem says that there are uncountable sets—sets which are *too big* to be put into one-to-one correspondence with the natural numbers. The Löwenheim-Skolem theorem says that if a countable collection of first-order sentences has a model, then it has a model whose domain is only countable. Skolem’s Paradox arises when we note that the standard axioms of set theory are themselves a countable collection of first-order sentences. How can the very axioms which prove the existence of uncountable sets be satisfied by a merely countable model?

This puzzle can be made somewhat more concrete by considering a specific case. Let  $T$  be a standard, first-order axiomatization of set theory—say, ZFC. On the assumption that  $T$  has a model, the Löwenheim-Skolem theorem ensures that it has a countable model. Call this model  $\mathbb{M}$ .<sup>2</sup> Now, as  $T \vdash \exists x$  “ $x$  is uncountable,” there must be some  $\hat{m} \in \mathbb{M}$  such that  $\mathbb{M} \models$  “ $\hat{m}$  is uncountable.” But, as  $\mathbb{M}$  itself is only countable, there are only countably many  $m \in \mathbb{M}$  such that  $\mathbb{M} \models m \in \hat{m}$ . On the surface, then, we seem to have a conflict: from one perspective,  $\hat{m}$  looks uncountable, while from another perspective,  $\hat{m}$  is clearly countable.

In exploring this seeming conflict, I want to begin with three preliminary points. First there’s at least one sense in which this appearance of conflict is *clearly* misleading. Strictly speaking,  $\mathbb{M}$  doesn’t understand ordinary English phrases like “ $x$  is uncountable,” so the sentence “ $\mathbb{M} \models$  ‘ $\hat{m}$  is uncountable’” makes no literal sense. Literally, what’s going on is the following. There is a specific formula in the language of first-order set theory which mathematicians sometimes find it convenient to *abbreviate* by “ $x$  is uncountable.” If we avoid this abbreviation—and use, say, “ $\Omega(x)$ ” to denote the relevant formula—then the initial appearance of paradox vanishes. The argument of the last paragraph simply shows that there is some  $\hat{m} \in \mathbb{M}$  such that:

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For discussion of such topics, I invite the reader to examine [1] (esp. chapter 3), [7], [13], and [15]. I also recommend the illuminating exchange between [3] and [21]. For a quite different view, see [10] or [14].

That being said, this paper does serve two philosophical purposes. First, many versions of Skolem’s Paradox depend on misleading (and/or outright mistaken) presentations of the underlying mathematics. I think, therefore, that a clear exposition of this mathematics—highlighting all the little twists and turns—already does a lot towards “solving” the paradox. Second, I think philosophers have tended to overemphasize the role *quantification* plays in Skolem’s Paradox, and that this overemphasis colors most standard assessments of the paradox’s philosophical significance. In sections 4–5, I argue that quantification is less important for Skolem’s Paradox than many commentators have supposed, and, in section 6, I say a little about the philosophical upshot of de-emphasizing quantification.

A final comment is in order. Throughout the paper, I relegate a lot of technical machinery—particularly concerning the construction of specific models—to the footnotes. Most of this machinery can be skipped without losing the main thread of argument. The reader who is willing to accept technical claims on faith should feel free to bypass this material. All readers should be warned that some footnotes, especially those in sections 4–5, presuppose substantial mathematical background.

<sup>2</sup>Throughout this paper, I use blackboard bold letters to denote models and the corresponding unbolded letters to denote the domains of those models: so,  $\mathbb{M}$  is a model and  $M$  is its domain,  $\mathbb{N}$  is a model and  $N$  is its domain, etc. That being said, I will often abuse notation and write things like “ $\mathbb{M}$  is countable” or “ $m \in \mathbb{M}$ ” when I really mean that “ $M$  is countable” or that “ $m \in M$ ”; in context, this should never cause any confusion. Finally, unless otherwise specified, all models should be assumed to be for the language of set theory—i.e., the language with “ $\in$ ” as its sole non-logical primitive.

1.  $\mathbb{M} \models \Omega[\hat{m}]$
- and, 2.  $\hat{m}$  is countable.

Even on the surface, these claims look philosophically innocuous. After all, lots of models satisfy lots of formulas with respect to lots of parameters, and there’s no *general* reason to think that these instances of satisfaction have anything to do with countability and uncountability.

Unfortunately, Skolem’s Paradox is a bit harder than this. There’s a reason mathematicians often abbreviate  $\Omega(x)$  by “ $x$  is uncountable,” and this reason goes a long way toward explaining why 1 and 2 might—even *under* the surface—continue to look paradoxical. Consider the ordinary English sentence “ $x$  is uncountable.” If asked what this sentence means, a set theorist will say something about the lack of a bijection between  $x$  and the natural numbers. If asked about the phrase “is a bijection,” she might go on to talk about collections of ordered pairs satisfying certain nice properties. Finally, if asked about the term “ordered pair,” she may say something about the ways one can identify ordered pairs with particular sets.

Suppose our set theorist takes this explanatory process to its logical conclusion. By continuing to fill in the details of “ $x$  is uncountable,” she will eventually obtain a single sentence which uses no phrases other than “equals,” “is a member of,” “not,” “if . . . then,” and “there is a set  $y$ , such that.” Because this sentence is quite long,<sup>3</sup> she may chose to shorten it by abbreviating the above phrases with the symbols  $=, \in, \neg, \rightarrow,$  and  $\exists y$ . Having done so, she will obtain an explication of the ordinary English sentence “ $x$  is uncountable” which uses no symbols other than  $=, \in, \neg, \rightarrow,$  and  $\exists y$  (and, perhaps, some punctuation).

At this point, we should notice something interesting: the sentence our set theorist has just produced *looks exactly like* the first-order formula that we’ve been calling  $\Omega(x)$ .<sup>4</sup> That is, if we simply compare the syntax of these two expressions on a symbol-by-symbol basis—ignoring any semantic information we may happen to have about them—we will find that they contain *exactly the same symbols* in *exactly the same*

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<sup>3</sup>It’s important to emphasize just how long this sentence really is. Written explicitly, even a simple phrase like “ $x$  is a singleton” turns into the following:

There is a set  $a$  such that it is not the case that if  $a$  is a member of  $x$ , then there exists a set  $b$  such that it is not the case that if  $b$  is a member of  $x$  then  $b$  is equal to  $a$ .

If we examine marginally more complicated phrases—say, “ $x$  is an ordered pair” or “ $f$  is a function”—then we get sentences as long as good size paragraphs. Finally, a full explication of the phrase “ $x$  is uncountable” will require several (largely incomprehensible) pages to write down explicitly!

<sup>4</sup>A caveat is in order here. There are many different ways of explicating the notion “ $x$  is uncountable,” depending on how we decide to “code up” basic set theoretic notions—e.g., *ordered pair* or *natural number*. For convenience, I’m assuming our set theorist has made the *same* decisions we made when we formulated  $\Omega(x)$ . For any particular  $\Omega(x)$ , there is *an* explication of “ $x$  is uncountable” which has the same syntactic form as  $\Omega(x)$ ; so, we don’t lose any generality in assuming that it’s the explication our set theorist actually came up with (if it isn’t, then we can just find another, more accommodating, set theorist!).

Although this issue about coding is quite important when thinking about the semantics of ordinary English set theory, I don’t think it has much to do with the issues underlying Skolem’s Paradox. After all, if we simply reformulate the paradox in terms of some particular explication of “ $x$  is countable”—e.g., by rewriting claim 2 more explicitly—then we can avoid coding issues altogether. For this reason, I’ll largely bypass these issues here (see [1], 1.2.1–1.2.2 for more on the matter).

*order*. This explains why set theorists find it so convenient to abbreviate the formula  $\Omega(x)$  with the expression “ $x$  is uncountable.” It also explains why we might continue to find claims 1 and 2 somewhat puzzling: after all, the formula that  $\mathbb{M}$  satisfies in 1 looks just like the negation of claim 2 (after, of course, claim 2 has been fully explicated).

This brings me to my second preliminary point. In explicating claim 2, we need to start with an initial interpretive question. When we say that the element  $\hat{m} \in \mathbb{M}$  “is countable,” do we mean that

I.  $\{x \mid x \in \hat{m}\}$  is countable

or do we mean that

II.  $\{x \mid \mathbb{M} \models x \in \hat{m}\}$  is countable?

These two interpretations lead to rather different understandings of what’s going on in Skolem’s Paradox. In particular, although they each require us to put some constraints on our choice of  $\mathbb{M}$ , they don’t require us to put the *same* constraints on this choice. Hence, it’s important to get clear about these interpretations—and their associated constraints—before we go any further.<sup>5</sup>

Let me begin with two comments concerning the *difference* between I and II. First, the two interpretations differ *only* in the way they interpret the notion of “membership” vis-a-vis the element  $\hat{m}$ . Interpretation I assumes that we are interested in the *real* membership relation on  $\hat{m}$ , while interpretation II assumes that we are interested in whatever relation  $\mathbb{M}$  *thinks* is the membership relation on  $\hat{m}$ —i.e., in whatever relation on  $M \times M$  serves as the interpretation of “ $\in$ ” under the interpretation function of  $\mathbb{M}$ .

Second, the two interpretations share the same conception of *countability*. On both interpretations, claim 2 asserts the existence of a bijection between  $\omega$  and some particular set, and, on both interpretations, the existence of this bijection is an issue of ordinary (naive) set theory. The difference between the two interpretations concerns the appropriate *range* of this bijection: interpretation I takes the range to be  $\{x \mid x \in \hat{m}\}$ , while interpretation II takes it to be  $\{x \mid \mathbb{M} \models x \in \hat{m}\}$ . To put this point another way, the two interpretations agree on *how* we measure the countability of a given set, but they disagree on *which* set we want to measure—i.e., which set contains the relevant “members” of the element  $\hat{m}$ .<sup>6</sup>

Given this, which of these two interpretations provides the best reading of claim 2? From one perspective, interpretation I is clearly the most natural reading of the phrase “ $\hat{m}$  is countable.” Further, and as we’ll see later, it’s the reading which makes our explication of claim 2 line up most cleanly with the syntax of  $\Omega(x)$ .

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<sup>5</sup>Note that I’m going to resist the idea that any reasonably attractive version of Skolem’s Paradox can be formulated in terms of an *arbitrary* countable model of ZFC. Whatever plausibility attaches to such formulations stems, I think, from some surreptitious slide between the two interpretations of “ $\hat{m}$  is countable” mentioned above.

<sup>6</sup>It’s important to keep this particular how/what distinction in mind. As we move along, we’ll encounter some formulations of Skolem’s Paradox which turn on reinterpreting the notion of countability—i.e., on changing *how* we assess the countability of some fixed set. We’ll encounter other formulations which turn on varying the set whose countability we wish to assess—i.e., on changing *which set* is supposed to be uncountable. Keeping these issues distinct, therefore, will be important for understanding the mathematical issues underlying the various formulations.

Nevertheless, there are (at least) two difficulties with adopting interpretation I in the context of thinking about Skolem’s Paradox.

First, interpretation I runs the risk of making claim 2 straightforwardly false. As Paul Benacerraf has noted, there is absolutely no reason to think that the countability of a model  $\mathbb{M}$  entails that every *member* of  $\mathbb{M}$  is also countable—i.e., “countable” in the sense of interpretation I.<sup>7</sup> In fact, it’s quite easy to construct models of ZFC where the models themselves are countable but where some members of those models are uncountable (again, “uncountable” in the sense of interpretation I).

Since constructing such models lets me introduce some machinery which will eventually prove useful, I give two examples of this phenomenon here (the reader who’s simply looking for the big picture should feel free to skip over these examples for the present). First, suppose that  $\kappa$  is an inaccessible cardinal and that  $\mathbb{N}$  is a countable, elementary submodel of  $V_\kappa$ . In this case, even though  $\mathbb{N}$  is countable, and even though  $\mathbb{N} \models \text{ZFC}$ ,  $\mathbb{N}$  still contains the uncountable set  $(\aleph_1)^V$  as a *member*.<sup>8</sup> Second, suppose that  $\mathbb{N}$  is *any* countable model for ZFC and that  $X$  is any set which doesn’t happen to be a member of the domain of  $\mathbb{N}$ . Then, by simply substituting  $X$  for some arbitrary member of  $\mathbb{N}$  and then modifying the “membership” relation on  $\mathbb{N}$  so as to respect this substitution, we obtain another model  $\mathbb{N}'$  which 1.) contains  $X$ , 2.) has exactly the same cardinality as  $\mathbb{N}$ , and 3.) satisfies exactly the same sentences as  $\mathbb{N}$  (e.g., ZFC). If, therefore,  $X$  happens to be an uncountable set, then  $\mathbb{N}'$  will be a countable model of ZFC which contains an uncountable set as a member.<sup>9</sup>

This, then, is one problem with taking interpretation I as the appropriate reading of “ $\hat{m}$  is countable” in claim 2. Fortunately, this problem isn’t as serious as it may appear to be at first. If we exercise a little care

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<sup>7</sup>See [3], 102–3.

<sup>8</sup>For our purposes, there are two things which are important about this example. First, the fact that  $\kappa$  is inaccessible entails that the model  $\langle V_\kappa, \in \rangle$  satisfies ZFC. Second, the fact that  $\mathbb{N}$  is an elementary submodel of  $V_\kappa$  entails both that  $\mathbb{N}$  also satisfies ZFC and that  $\mathbb{N}$  and  $V_\kappa$  agree on the identity of cardinals which have unique first-order definitions—e.g., cardinals like  $\aleph_1$ ,  $\aleph_2$  and  $\aleph_\omega$ . Hence, each of these (uncountable) cardinals must be an actual *member* of  $\mathbb{N}$ . As a result, the countable model  $\mathbb{N}$  is literally bursting with uncountable elements.

<sup>9</sup> This second example uses a technical trick which will reappear frequently throughout this paper, so it is useful to take a few moments and explain it in more detail. The example depends on two theorems of model theory. First, if two models  $\mathbb{N}$  and  $\mathbb{N}'$  are *isomorphic*—i.e., if there exists a bijection  $f : N \rightarrow N'$  such that for every  $a, b \in N$ ,  $a \in_N b \iff f(a) \in_{N'} f(b)$ — then these models must also be *elementarily equivalent*—i.e., for every sentence  $\phi$ ,  $\mathbb{N} \models \phi \iff \mathbb{N}' \models \phi$ .

Second, if  $\mathbb{N}$  is a model and if  $f : N \rightarrow A$  is a bijection, then  $f$  carries with it a canonical method for building a model which has  $A$  as its domain and which is isomorphic to  $\mathbb{N}$ . To obtain this model, we simply define a relation  $\in_A$  on  $A \times A$  as follows:

$$a \in_A a' \iff f^{-1}(a) \in_{\mathbb{N}} f^{-1}(a').$$

Given this definition,  $\langle A, \in_A \rangle$  is the desired model, and  $f$  itself is the desired isomorphism.

Returning to the example from the text, we find that substituting  $X$  for an arbitrary  $\hat{n} \in \mathbb{N}$  amounts to constructing a bijection  $f : N \rightarrow (N \cup \{X\}) \setminus \{\hat{n}\}$  such that  $f(\hat{n}) = X$  and  $f \upharpoonright (N \setminus \{\hat{n}\}) = \text{Id}$ . Similarly, redefining  $\in$  in the manner suggested above amounts to building the very model which this bijection canonically induces. Given this, claim 1 follows directly from the definition of  $\mathbb{N}'$ ; claim 2 follows from the fact that  $f$  is a bijection, and claim 3 follows from the fact that  $f$  is an isomorphism along with the fact that isomorphic models are elementarily equivalent.

in choosing our model  $\mathbb{M}$ , then we can ensure that  $\hat{m}$  *really is* countable in (even) the interpretation I sense. So, for instance, Paul Benacerraf has suggested that we reformulate Skolem’s Paradox in terms of *transitive* models.<sup>10</sup> If we do so, then we ensure that for every  $m \in \mathbb{M}$ ,  $\{x \mid x \in m\} \subset M$ —in fact, we ensure that  $\{x \mid x \in m\} = \{x \mid \mathbb{M} \models x \in m\}$ .<sup>11</sup> Hence, if  $\mathbb{M}$  itself is countable, then so is  $\{x \mid x \in \hat{m}\}$ , and Benacerraf’s problem simply vanishes.

Unfortunately, transitive models are sometimes hard to come by. If we assume the existence of an inaccessible cardinal—as we did, for instance, in the first example of the second-to-last paragraph—then we can obtain such models easily.<sup>12</sup> Without such an assumption, however, transitive models may be hard to find. It is consistent with ZFC, for example, to accept the existence of non-transitive models of set theory while rejecting the existence of transitive ones.<sup>13</sup> Indeed, it is fairly easy to find consistent extensions of ZFC which are incompatible with transitivity: even if ZFC has transitive models, these extensions do not.<sup>14</sup>

This, then, brings me to a second technique for solving Benacerraf’s problem—i.e., for building our model  $\mathbb{M}$  so as to ensure that  $\{x \mid x \in \hat{m}\}$  is really countable. Let  $\mathbb{N}$  be an *arbitrary* model of ZFC and let  $A$  be a collection of countable sets such that  $|A| = |\mathbb{N}|$ .<sup>15</sup> Employing a trick from footnote 9, we can turn  $A$  into

<sup>10</sup>See [3], 102–3. I will discuss transitive models in some detail when we get to section 3, so I won’t say much about them here. For present purposes, the fact mentioned in the main text—i.e., that  $\{x \mid x \in m\} \subset M$  when  $\mathbb{M}$  is transitive—is enough to be going on with.

<sup>11</sup>So, interpretations I and II *coincide* for transitive  $\mathbb{M}$ .

<sup>12</sup>The technique for obtaining such models involves a result called the “Mostowski Collapsing Lemma.” This lemma allows us to take any well-founded model—i.e., any model which contains no infinite descending  $\in$ -chains—and find a transitive model which is isomorphic to it. Hence, if we start with an inaccessible cardinal  $\kappa$  and then apply the Collapsing Lemma to some countable, elementary submodel of  $V_\kappa$ , we end up with a countable, transitive model of ZFC (see footnotes 8 and 9 for further background concerning this construction).

<sup>13</sup>Here, I use the fact that if  $\mathbb{M}$  is a transitive model of ZFC, and if  $\mathbb{M} \models \exists \mathbb{N}$  “ $\mathbb{N}$  is a transitive model of ZFC,” then  $\mathbb{M}$  must really contain some transitive model of ZFC (to use the jargon, the property “being a transitive model of ZFC” is *absolute* between  $\mathbb{M}$  and  $V$ ). I also use the fact that every transitive model of ZFC satisfies the sentence  $\exists \mathbb{N}$  “ $\mathbb{N}$  is a model of ZFC” (since this sentence is essentially arithmetical, and transitive models get arithmetical sentences right).

Suppose, then, that there *is* a transitive model of ZFC. As an infinite descending sequence of transitive models violates the axiom of foundation, there must be a transitive model which contains no other transitive models as members (a so-called *minimal* transitive model). This model satisfies ZFC *plus*  $\exists \mathbb{N}$  “ $\mathbb{N}$  is a model of ZFC” *plus*  $\neg \exists \mathbb{N}$  “ $\mathbb{N}$  is a transitive model of ZFC”. Hence, even if transitive models exist, it is consistent with ZFC +  $\exists \mathbb{N}$  “ $\mathbb{N}$  is a model of ZFC” to assume that they *don’t*.

<sup>14</sup>Here are two ways to obtain such extensions. The most straightforward way involves adding a new constant  $c$  to our language and then adding the sentences “ $c$  is a natural number,” “ $c \neq 1$ ,” “ $c \neq 2$ ,” etc. to the axioms of ZFC. The resulting theory is (by compactness) consistent; but, since the constant  $c$  names a non-standard natural number, the theory cannot have transitive (or even well-founded) models.

Alternately, we could let  $T$  *any* consistent, axiomatizable extension of ZFC and then note that the theory  $T' = T \cup \neg \text{Con}(T)$  is still consistent but fails to have transitive models (since, in any model of  $T'$ , the “natural number” witnessing  $\neg \text{Con}(T)$  has to be non-standard).

<sup>15</sup>Let me introduce some machinery here. Our goal is to find a set  $A$  such that 1.)  $A$  has the same size as  $N$  and 2.) every member of  $A$  is a countably infinite set. Let  $\mathcal{P}_{\omega_1}(N)$  be an abbreviation for  $\{X \mid X \subset N \text{ and } |X| < \omega_1\}$ . Because  $N$  is infinite, we know that there are at least  $|N|$  many countable subsets of  $N$ . Hence, we can find a *subset* of  $\mathcal{P}_{\omega_1}(N)$  which has the same size as  $N$ . This subset gives us just the  $A$  we want.

a model for the language of set theory which is isomorphic to our original  $\mathbb{N}$ . This gives us a model which 1.) satisfies ZFC, 2.) has the same size as  $\mathbb{N}$ , and 3.) contains only countable sets as members.<sup>16</sup> So, if our original  $\mathbb{N}$  was countable, then this new model will have exactly the properties needed to solve Benacerraf’s problem—i.e., for any  $m \in \mathbb{M}$ ,  $\{x \mid x \in m\}$  will be countable.

This gives us two ways of responding to the first problem with interpretation I—to the (essentially technical) worry that this interpretation might make claim 2 straightforwardly false. Unfortunately, the second of these responses also serves to highlight a second *problem* with interpretation I. Suppose that the model  $\mathbb{N}$  from the last paragraph is *uncountable*. Then the argument of that paragraph allows us to generate a model  $\mathbb{N}'$  such that 1.)  $\mathbb{N}'$  satisfies ZFC, 2.)  $\mathbb{N}'$  has the same size as  $\mathbb{N}$  (indeed  $\mathbb{N}'$  is isomorphic to  $\mathbb{N}$ ), and 3.)  $\mathbb{N}'$  contains only countable sets as members. Given this, and given that we’re taking interpretation I as our reading of claim 2, we can clearly use  $\mathbb{N}'$  as the basis for a new version of Skolem’s Paradox.<sup>17</sup>

But surely something’s gone wrong here. Skolem’s Paradox is supposed to involve the fact that *countable* models of set theory satisfy sentences like “ $\hat{m}$  is uncountable.” We now have a version of the paradox which uses only the *uncountable* model  $\mathbb{N}'$ . Indeed, since any model of set theory—whether countable or uncountable—is isomorphic to a model all of whose members are countable, we can generate versions of “Skolem’s Paradox” for models of any size—and, indeed, any isomorphism type—we happen to want.

There’s a flip side to this problem. Not only does interpretation I make the size of our model irrelevant, it also makes the sentence “x is uncountable” irrelevant. Once again, let  $\mathbb{N}$  be an arbitrary model of ZFC. Applying tricks from the last few paragraphs, we can find a model  $\mathbb{N}'$  such that 1.)  $\mathbb{N}'$  is isomorphic to  $\mathbb{N}$  and 2.)  $\mathbb{N}'$  has only singletons as members.<sup>18</sup> Then, if we give “interpretation I” style readings to phrases like “is the empty set,” “is a doubleton,” “is infinite,” etc., we can generate obvious analogs of Skolem’s Paradox for those phrases.<sup>19</sup>

Together, these examples show that there is something *conceptually* wrong with using interpretation I to make sense of Skolem’s Paradox. A proponent of Skolem’s Paradox thinks that there is something puzzling about the fact that countable models of set theory can satisfy sentences like “ $\hat{m}$  is uncountable.”

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<sup>16</sup>It is worth noting that there is nothing special about the fact that our final model contains only *countable* sets. The same technique can be used to obtain a model all of whose members are *finite*, and a minor modification let us obtain a model all of whose members have cardinality  $\kappa$ , for  $\kappa$  an arbitrary cardinal. In the first case, we let the domain of our model be a subset of  $\mathcal{P}_\omega(N)$  rather than  $\mathcal{P}_{\omega_1}(N)$ ; in the second, we let this domain be a subset of  $\mathcal{P}_{\kappa^+}(\kappa) \setminus \mathcal{P}_\kappa(\kappa)$ . (Note that we use  $\kappa$  rather than  $N$  in this construction, because  $\mathcal{P}_{\kappa^+}(N) \setminus \mathcal{P}_\kappa(N)$  may be empty if  $|N| < \kappa$ ).

<sup>17</sup>That is, since  $\mathbb{N}' \models \text{ZFC}$ , there must be some  $\hat{n} \in \mathbb{N}'$  such that  $\mathbb{N}' \models \Omega[\hat{n}]$ . By our construction, however, every member of  $\mathbb{N}'$  is countable (in the interpretation I sense of the phrase). So, we get obvious analogs of claims 1 and 2 above.

<sup>18</sup>We might, for instance, let  $A = \{\{n\} \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$  and then follow through the argument from the third-to-last paragraph.

<sup>19</sup>For example, let  $\Omega'(x)$  be the formula which “codes up” the phrase “x is the empty set.” Since  $\mathbb{N}' \models \text{ZFC}$ , there must be some  $\hat{n} \in \mathbb{N}'$  such that  $\mathbb{N}' \models \Omega'[\hat{n}]$ . Clearly, however,  $\hat{n}$  isn’t *really* empty; by construction,  $\hat{n}$  is *really* a singleton.

Note that this argument is perfectly general. If P is a set-theoretic property such that there are infinitely many sets which *don’t* have P, then our isomorphism trick lets us build a model,  $\mathbb{N}$ , such that no member of  $\mathbb{N}$  has P. So, if  $\text{ZFC} \vdash \exists x P(x)$ , then we can generate an “interpretation I”-style analog of Skolem’s Paradox for the property P.

On interpretation I, the fact that these models are countable is irrelevant, and the puzzle at issue can be formulated for sentences which are *far* simpler than those involving countability/uncountability. As a result, interpretation I seems to miss the *point* of Skolem’s Paradox.

This brings me to interpretation II. Clearly, interpretation II avoids the two problems we’ve just been discussing. If  $\mathbb{M}$  is countable, then every set of the form  $\{x \mid \mathbb{M} \models x \in m\}$  is also countable; hence, Benacerraf’s problem doesn’t arise. Further, it’s *because*  $\mathbb{M}$  is countable, that  $\{x \mid \mathbb{M} \models x \in m\}$  has to be countable; so, the countability of  $\mathbb{M}$  plays, as it should, a real role in our argument.<sup>20</sup> Nor does the argument generalize to arbitrary set-theoretic properties. If  $\mathbb{M} \models$  “ $\hat{m}$  is the empty set,” then  $\{x \mid \mathbb{M} \models x \in \hat{m}\}$  really is the empty set; if  $\mathbb{M} \models$  “ $\hat{m}$  is a doubleton,” then  $\{x \mid \mathbb{M} \models x \in \hat{m}\}$  really is a doubleton; etc.<sup>21</sup> Hence, interpretation II does a better job of capturing the point of Skolem’s Paradox than interpretation I did.

That being said, interpretation II does have one, relatively minor, problem. If we use interpretation II as the basis for explicating claim 2, then it’s not obvious that our explication will line up syntactically with the  $\Omega(x)$  in claim 1. On the surface, explicating the claim “ $\{x \mid \mathbb{M} \models x \in \hat{m}\}$  is countable” should involve a fair bit of machinery that’s devoted to characterizing the model  $\mathbb{M}$  and to cashing out the notion of satisfaction. But, there’s nothing corresponding to this machinery in (the most natural version of) the formula  $\Omega(x)$ . On the purely syntactic level, it’s the explication of “ $\{x \mid x \in \hat{m}\}$  is countable” which lines up most cleanly with the formula  $\Omega(x)$ .

Fortunately, there are several ways of overcoming this problem. First, we could choose our model  $\mathbb{M}$  so as to ensure that interpretations I and II *agree* on this model. If we let  $\mathbb{M}$  be transitive, for instance, then  $\{x \mid \mathbb{M} \models x \in m\} = \{x \mid x \in m\}$  for every  $m \in \mathbb{M}$ . Similarly, if we start with a countable  $\mathbb{M}$  and an arbitrary  $\hat{m} \in \mathbb{M}$ , then a simple variant of our footnote 9 trick will allow us to find an isomorphic  $\mathbb{M}'$  and  $\hat{m}'$  such that  $\{x \mid \mathbb{M}' \models x \in \hat{m}'\} = \{x \mid x \in \hat{m}'\}$ .<sup>22</sup> In either of these cases, then, the problem from the last paragraph disappears: for *these* models, the syntax of  $\Omega(x)$  lines up with a perfectly natural explication of “ $\{x \mid \mathbb{M} \models x \in \hat{m}\}$  is countable.”

Second, since we’re particularly interested in the membership relation *on*  $\hat{m}$ , we could simply use a new

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<sup>20</sup>Some cautions are in order here. With enough care, it’s possible to build uncountable models which exhibit Skolem’s Paradox-like phenomena (we’ll see some in sections 4–5). Nonetheless, interpretation II does two things for us. It ensures that *every* countable model gives rise to a version of Skolem’s Paradox, and it ensures that uncountable models need to have a special isomorphism-type if they are to give rise to Skolem’s Paradox (so, it’s not the case that *every* model of ZFC is isomorphic to a model in which a variant of Skolem’s Paradox arises).

<sup>21</sup>Of course, there will still be notions other than countability/uncountability which the model gets wrong—e.g., “ $x$  is finite,” “ $x$  is inaccessible,” “ $x$  is the power set of  $y$ ,” etc. But these are relatively complicated set-theoretic notions, so it’s not too surprising that models which get countability/uncountability wrong should also have problems with them. What interpretation II does is to ensure that this problem isn’t *completely general*; on interpretation II, our models get *easy* notions—“being empty,” “being a singleton,” etc.—correct.

<sup>22</sup>If  $\{x \mid \mathbb{M} \models x \in \hat{m}\}$  isn’t already a member of the domain of  $\mathbb{M}$ , then we can just replace  $\hat{m}$  with  $\{x \mid \mathbb{M} \models x \in \hat{m}\}$  to get our  $\mathbb{M}'$ . If  $\{x \mid \mathbb{M} \models x \in \hat{m}\}$  *is* a member of  $\mathbb{M}$ , then we can let  $a$  be any set which isn’t a member of  $\mathbb{M}$ . We get  $\mathbb{M}'$  by first replacing  $\{x \mid \mathbb{M} \models x \in \hat{m}\}$  with  $a$ , and then replacing  $\hat{m}$  with  $\{x \mid \mathbb{M} \models x \in \hat{m}\}$ .



symbol to represent this relation. So, for instance, let  $\mathbb{M}$  be a countable model, let  $\hat{m}$  be arbitrary element of  $\mathbb{M}$ , and let “ $\in_{\hat{m}}$ ” be a new binary relation. Expand  $\mathbb{M}$  so as make  $\in_{\hat{m}}$  represent “membership” in  $\hat{m}$ .<sup>23</sup> Then, there’s a natural formula  $\Omega'(x)$  such that  $\mathbb{M}' \models \Omega'[\hat{m}]$  and such that the syntax of  $\Omega'(x)$  lines up cleanly with an equally natural explication of “ $\{x \mid \mathbb{M}' \models x \in_{\hat{m}} \hat{m}\}$  is countable.”<sup>24</sup> This gives us a second technique for making interpretation II work. Unlike the first, it allows us to start with an arbitrary countable model of ZFC; but, like the first, it still requires us to use some trickery to make the  $\Omega(x)$  in claim 1 line up with a natural explication of claim 2.

In the long run, though, this kind of trickery is probably unavoidable. The preceding discussion shows that, if we want to make Skolem’s Paradox look plausible, then we need to find an interpretation of claim 2 which satisfies the following three conditions: 1.) it makes claim 2 come out true, 2.) it ensures that the truth of claim 2 is appropriately *connected* to the fact that  $\mathbb{M}$  is a countable model of ZFC, and 3.) it ensures that the syntax of our explication of claim 2 lines up neatly with the syntax of  $\Omega(x)$ . Interpretation I does a good job with condition 3, but it requires some tricks to deal with condition 1 and it can’t deal with condition 2 at all. Interpretation II takes care of conditions 1 and 2, but it requires some tricks to take care of condition 3. In both cases, therefore, we need some tricks to ensure that our three conditions are jointly satisfied—in particular, we need some constraints on the choice of our model  $\mathbb{M}$ .

This need for care in choosing  $\mathbb{M}$  brings me to my third preliminary point. So far, our discussion has pretty much ignored our initial stipulation that  $\mathbb{M} \models \text{ZFC}$ . (We’ve only used it to ensure that there exists some  $\hat{m} \in \mathbb{M}$  such that  $\mathbb{M} \models \Omega[\hat{m}]$ .) Clearly, though, the fact that  $\mathbb{M} \models \text{ZFC}$  plays a larger role in making Skolem’s Paradox look plausible. After all, it’s not the *members* of  $\mathbb{M}$  which make us think that this model has something to do with set theory: there are many models for the language of set theory which contain objects other than sets, and there are some models which contain no sets at all.<sup>25</sup> So, unless these models satisfy some set-theoretic axioms—say, a significant fragment of ZFC—it’s hard to see why they should be regarded as having *anything* to do with our topic.

To reinforce this point, we should notice *just how badly* models for the language of set theory can fail to satisfy ZFC, while nevertheless satisfying formulas like  $\Omega(x)$ . Consider the model whose domain consists of the numbers 1–10 and which interprets “ $\in$ ” by:

$$n \in m \iff n \leq 5 \text{ and } 5 < m \leq 10.$$

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<sup>23</sup>Some clarification may be in order here. In expanding  $\mathbb{M}$  we’re not *adding* anything to  $\mathbb{M}$ ’s domain—indeed, we’re not *changing*  $\mathbb{M}$ ’s domain at all. Nor are we changing the way  $\mathbb{M}$  interprets the symbol “ $\in$ .” We’re simply stipulating that the expanded model,  $\mathbb{M}'$ , *also* interprets the symbol  $\in_{\hat{m}}$  via the clause:  $\mathbb{M}' \models m_1 \in_{\hat{m}} m_2 \iff m_2 = \hat{m}$  and  $\mathbb{M}' \models m_1 \in m_2$ .

<sup>24</sup>The formula  $\Omega'(x)$  is obtained by taking our original  $\Omega(x)$  and replacing each instance of  $y \in x$  with  $y \in_{\hat{m}} x$ . The explication uses  $\in_{\hat{m}}$  as an abbreviation for  $\mathbb{M}' \models x \in_{\hat{m}} \hat{m}$ . Note that, because  $\mathbb{M}' \models m \in_{\hat{m}} \hat{m} \iff \mathbb{M}' \models m \in \hat{m}$ , this also serves as a reasonable explication of “ $\{x \mid \mathbb{M}' \models x \in \hat{m}\}$  is countable.”

<sup>25</sup>We might, for instance, build a model which contained only my three cats as elements and which interpreted “ $\in$ ” as identity. This model wouldn’t be very interesting—and it certainly wouldn’t satisfy the axioms of set theory—but it would be a model for the *language* of set theory.

In this model, all numbers greater than 5 satisfy  $\Omega(x)$ , although the model itself has no connection with set theory and fails to satisfy even the axiom of extensionality.<sup>26</sup> For that matter, if we let  $\Psi(y)$  be the formula which codes “ $y = \omega$ ,” then *any* model which satisfies “ $\neg\exists y \Psi(y)$ ” will also satisfy “ $\forall x \Omega(x)$ .”<sup>27</sup> So, unless we’re working with a model which satisfies some basic set-theoretic axioms, there’s just no reason to think that the formula  $\Omega(x)$  has any special significance.

At this point, then, we have an overview of the machinery needed to set up Skolem’s Paradox and to make it look somewhat plausible. We start with a countable model for the language of set theory,  $\mathbb{M}$ . This model has several nice properties. Most importantly,  $\mathbb{M} \models \text{ZFC}$ ; but  $\mathbb{M}$  also satisfies one of the structural constraints discussed on pages 4–9 (e.g.,  $\mathbb{M}$  is transitive, or it’s been expanded with an appropriate  $\in_{\hat{m}}$  relation, or ...). Next, we note that there’s a formula  $\Omega(x)$ —a formula which it’s awfully hard to resist abbreviating with the phrase “ $x$  is uncountable”—and an element  $\hat{m} \in \mathbb{M}$  such that  $\mathbb{M} \models \Omega[\hat{m}]$ . This gives us, once again, the two claims highlighted on page 2:

1.  $\mathbb{M} \models \Omega[\hat{m}]$
2.  $\hat{m}$  is countable.

Finally, we provide a natural explication of the phrase “ $\hat{m}$  is countable” in claim 2 which 1.) follows the lead given by interpretation II from page 4 and 2.) uses no symbols other than  $=, \in, \neg, \rightarrow,$  and  $\exists y$  (and, perhaps,  $\in_{\hat{m}}$  and/or some punctuation).

Given all this, Skolem’s paradox arises from two things. First, the sentence produced by our explication of “ $\hat{m}$  is countable” is true. (Since  $\mathbb{M}$  is countable,  $\{x \mid \mathbb{M} \models x \in \hat{m}\}$  is also countable, and our sentence is just a longwinded way of *saying that*  $\{x \mid \mathbb{M} \models x \in \hat{m}\}$  is countable.) Second, this sentence *looks like* an unnegated version of the formula  $\Omega(x)$ . That is, if we simply inspect the syntax of these two expressions—ignoring the initial negation in  $\Omega(x)$ —then we will find that they contain *exactly the same symbols in exactly the same order*. Together, these two facts explain why claims 1 and 2 may still look quite problematic: both of the

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<sup>26</sup>With respect to the axiom of extensionality, note that all of the numbers  $n \leq 5$  have exactly the same “members,” as do all of the numbers  $m > 5$ . With respect to the satisfaction of  $\Omega(x)$ , note that this formula has the overall form:

$$\Omega(x) \equiv_{df} \neg\exists f [“f \text{ is a bijection}” \ \& \ \text{Domain}(f) = \omega \ \& \ \text{Range}(f) = x].$$

Here, the phrases “ $x$  is a bijection,” “ $\text{Range}(f)$ ,” and “ $\text{Domain}(f)$ ” are themselves mere abbreviations for further (rather complicated) formulas. For our purposes, the important thing to notice is that the formulas “ $f$  is a bijection” and “ $\text{Range}(f) = x$ ” together entail that every member of  $x$  is also a member of a member of a member of  $f$ . Hence, since the interpretation of “ $\in$ ” in our model does not allow membership chains containing more than two elements, no  $f$  of the type forbidden by, e.g.,  $\Omega[6]$  lives in our model. Hence, the model satisfies  $\Omega[6]$  (and  $\Omega[7]$ , and  $\Omega[8]$ , etc.).

It is worth noting that this model *also* satisfies  $\Omega[n]$  for  $n \leq 5$ , though unpacking the relevant definitions is more time-consuming in these cases and depends on a particular definition of  $\omega$ . The basic idea is that discussed in the next footnote.

<sup>27</sup>Again, this is a simple consequence of the definition of  $\Omega(x)$ . To see this, simply note that:

$$\neg\exists y \Psi(y) \vdash \neg\exists f [\dots \ \& \ \exists y (y = \text{Domain}(f) \ \& \ \Psi(y)) \ \& \ \dots]$$

for *any* possible values of “ $\dots$ ” (including those relevant to  $\Omega(x)$ ).

claims are true, and the formula that  $\mathbb{M}$  satisfies in claim 1 looks just like the negation of claim 2 (after, of course, claim 2 has been appropriately explicated).

That being said, looks aren't everything, and syntax isn't semantics. To make Skolem's Paradox *work*—as opposed to simply making it look superficially plausible—we need to uncover a stronger connection between  $\Omega(x)$  and some particular explication of “ $x$  is uncountable.” Ideally, we would like to find a deep semantic connection between the two expressions: perhaps they *mean the same thing* or *have the same sense*. At the very least, we need to establish a truth-functional implication between the formula  $\Omega(x)$ , *as this formula gets interpreted at the model*  $\mathbb{M}$ , and the particular explication in question. Without such a connection, Skolem's Paradox won't get off the ground.

For convenience in discussing these issues, let me introduce two pieces of notation. First, I will use  $\Omega_E(x)$  to denote our canonical explication of “ $x$  is uncountable.”<sup>28</sup> Second, I will use  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(x)$  to denote the interpretation of the formula  $\Omega(x)$  on the model  $\mathbb{M}$ . That is,  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(x)$  is the interpretation of  $\Omega(x)$  which results from letting the quantifiers in  $\Omega(x)$  range over the domain of  $\mathbb{M}$ , letting the significance of  $\in$  (and, perhaps,  $\in_{\dot{m}}$ ) be fixed by the interpretation function of  $\mathbb{M}$ , and letting the significance of  $\neg$ ,  $\rightarrow$ , and  $=$  be given by the recursion clauses in the the definition of first-order satisfaction. With these abbreviations in place, the above discussion shows that Skolem's Paradox turns on some variant of the following claim:

$$\forall m \in \mathbb{M} [\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(m) \implies \Omega_E(m)]. \quad (\dagger)$$

This claim captures—in a purely truth-functional manner—the kind of connection between  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(x)$  and  $\Omega_E(x)$  which would have to hold if Skolem's Paradox were to constitute a genuine mathematical contradiction.<sup>29</sup> To solve the paradox, therefore, we simply need to figure out what's wrong with  $(\dagger)$ .

Of course, from one perspective, it's easy to see what's wrong with  $(\dagger)$ : *it's false*. On the one hand, if  $(\dagger)$  were true, then we could use Skolem's Paradox itself to generate a straightforward contradiction in set theory. Since set theory *isn't* contradictory, we should obviously apply *modus tollens* and reject claims

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<sup>28</sup>Recall, here, that  $\Omega_E(x)$  is not generated by *interpreting* a formula of first-order set theory. We do not, that is, *begin* with a string of uninterpreted first-order symbols and then *stipulate* that these symbols are to be understood in some particular way. Instead, we begin with a sentence of ordinary mathematical English, and then use a certain collection of symbols—which just happen to be commonly used in the formulation of first-order set theory—as abbreviations for terms and phrases which already occur in this sentence. As a result,  $\Omega_E(x)$  has exactly the same semantics as an ordinary language explication of “ $x$  is uncountable”—i.e., a completely unabbreviated one.

Of course, the fact that  $\Omega_E(x)$  has the same semantics as this ordinary English explication doesn't mean that  $\Omega_E(x)$  is semantically unproblematic. If there are problems with our original explication of “ $x$  is uncountable”—e.g., problems of vagueness or ambiguity—then these will carry over to  $\Omega_E(x)$ . It does, however, mean that there are no *special* problems arising from the fact that  $\Omega_E(x)$  makes (purely abbreviatory) use of the symbols  $=$ ,  $\in$ ,  $\neg$ ,  $\rightarrow$  and  $\exists$ .

<sup>29</sup>In [1], I isolate a general form of argument which encompasses many different versions of Skolem's Paradox. I show that  $(\dagger)$  provides a necessary condition for any argument of this form to be sound, and I show that  $(\dagger)$  provides a sufficient condition for at least one argument of this form to be sound. In this sense, then,  $(\dagger)$  really does lie at the heart of (the mathematical side of) Skolem's Paradox. For reasons of space, I'll eschew a full discussion of these different variants of Skolem's Paradox here. For more on the subject, see chapter 1 of [1] (especially section 1.2.2).

like  $(\dagger)$ . On the other hand, it’s relatively easy to construct models of ZFC in which, for certain elements  $m$ ,  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(m)$  is true but  $\Omega_E(m)$  is *clearly* false. (We will, in fact, construct several such models later in this paper.) This makes it look as though Skolem’s Paradox can—and perhaps even *should*—be dismissed rather quickly.

Once again, though, I think Skolem’s Paradox is a bit harder than this. For one thing, although the above argument shows *that*  $(\dagger)$  is false, it doesn’t really explain *why* it’s false. That is, it doesn’t provide an analysis of the semantic differences between  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(x)$  and  $\Omega_E(x)$  which explains why the former does not entail the latter (or, at the very least, why the semantics of the two are sufficiently different that we should not be *surprised* when the former doesn’t entail the latter with respect to a particular model  $\mathbb{M}$ ).

For another thing, this approach may seem to miss the *point* of Skolem’s Paradox. Someone worried about Skolem’s Paradox *starts out* thinking that there’s enough of a relationship between  $\Omega_E(x)$  and  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(x)$  that we should seriously consider re-construing classical set theory in light of this relationship. That is, he is at least tempted by the idea that Skolem’s Paradox shows that classical set theory, when taken at face value, *just is* contradictory, and that we need to appeal to philosophical notions like *relativity* or *perspective* to ease the sting of this contradiction.

Given this, I think it is highly unlikely that a proponent of Skolem’s Paradox would be persuaded by the kind of *modus tollens* argument I just gave. This proponent already *knows* that assumptions like  $(\dagger)$  lead to contradictions—that, after all, is the whole *point* of Skolem’s Paradox. By themselves, however, these contradictions don’t lead him to abandon  $(\dagger)$ . Hence, unless my *modus tollens* argument is supplemented by a more detailed analysis of *why*  $(\dagger)$  fails—of *where* the semantics of  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(x)$  and  $\Omega_E(x)$  differ and of *how* this difference leads to the failure of  $(\dagger)$ —the proponent of Skolem’s Paradox is unlikely to find it persuasive.

## 2 A Quick Technical Solution

In this section, I discuss two, fairly obvious, differences between the semantics of  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(x)$  and  $\Omega_E(x)$ . Together, they explain why there’s nothing at all surprising about the failure of claims like  $(\dagger)$ . In doing so, they bolster the plausibility of the basic *modus tollens* argument given at the end of the last section, and they show why there’s no purely mathematical reason to be worried about Skolem’s Paradox.

Before beginning this discussion, a philosophical comment is in order. The solution to Skolem’s Paradox that I sketch here—a solution I call the “technical solution”—simply explains why there’s no straightforward contradiction between naive set theory and the Löwenheim-Skolem theorem. With a little care, it can also be used to explain why the Löwenheim-Skolem theorem doesn’t introduce contradictions into various forms of axiomitized set theory. As a result, the technical solution allows the working set theorist—or the philosopher who is content to take a naively realistic attitude toward set theory—to remain untroubled by Skolem’s Paradox.

Of course, many philosophers will be reluctant to take such an attitude toward set theory—e.g., those

with *theoretical* reasons for identifying the semantics of  $\Omega_E(x)$  with those of  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(x)$ , or even just those who have qualms about the overly-quick invocation of things like “the ordinary English significance of ‘ $\in$ ’.” Such philosophers are unlikely to find the solution developed in this section satisfactory. However, because the main topic this paper—the mathematical side of Skolem’s Paradox—has more to do with the fine *details* of the technical solution than with its ultimate philosophical adequacy, I won’t say too much about these philosophers’ worries here (just a little bit in section 6). For more on their concerns, see [1] (chapter 3), [3], [7], [10], [13], or [15].<sup>30</sup>

What, then, can we say about the semantic differences between  $\Omega_E(x)$  and  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(x)$ ? First, we can note that the semantics of  $\Omega_E(x)$  interpret the symbol “ $\in$ ” so that:

$E_{\in}$ : “ $x \in y$ ” is true iff  $y$  is a set and  $x$  is a member of  $y$ .

In contrast, let  $i_{\mathbb{M}}$  be the interpretation function for  $\mathbb{M}$ . Then the semantics of  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(x)$  interpret “ $\in$ ” so that:

$\mathbb{M}_{\in}$ : “ $x \in y$ ” is true iff  $\langle x, y \rangle$  is a member of  $i_{\mathbb{M}}(\in)$ .

Clearly, however, there is *no* reason to think that these two interpretations of “ $\in$ ” are coextensive. This is most obvious when some elements of  $\mathbb{M}$  aren’t even genuine *candidates* for the ordinary membership relation. It is possible, for instance, to build models of ZFC in which the “membership relation” holds between ordinary housecats.<sup>31</sup> Similarly, providing that there are infinitely many non-sets in the world, we can find models of ZFC whose domains contain no sets at all.<sup>32</sup> In cases like these, it should be quite clear that the semantics of  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(x)$  and  $\Omega_E(x)$  are interpreting the symbol “ $\in$ ” in radically different ways.

Further, even when a model *does* contain sets—and perhaps even *only sets*—there is no guarantee that this model’s interpretation of “ $\in$ ” agrees with the ordinary English interpretation of this symbol. To illustrate this point, let  $\mathbb{N}$  be an arbitrary model of ZFC, let  $X$  be the collection of singletons of members of  $\mathbb{N}$ , and let  $Y$  be the collection of doubletons of members of  $X$ . Applying our trick from footnote 9, we can build a model  $\mathbb{N}'$  such that 1.)  $\mathbb{N}'$  has  $Y$  as its domain and 2.)  $\mathbb{N}'$  is isomorphic to  $\mathbb{N}$  (and, hence, satisfies exactly the same sentences as  $\mathbb{N}$  does). Given this construction, all of the members of  $\mathbb{N}'$  are genuine sets, but  $\mathbb{N}'$  displays

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<sup>30</sup>I should probably also note that I don’t view the technical solution as in any way *original*. Others have said quite similar things (see, e.g., [3], [13] or [15]). Instead, the material in this section is preparatory for the more-detailed discussions of quantification and membership presented in sections 3–5.

<sup>31</sup>To build such a model, we just let  $\mathbb{N}$  be an arbitrary model of ZFC, and we let  $n$  and  $n'$  be arbitrary elements of  $\mathbb{N}$  such that  $\mathbb{N} \models n \in n'$ . Given this, let Puffy and Fluffy be two ordinary housecats (neither of which lives in the domain of  $\mathbb{N}$ ), and let  $f : N \rightarrow (N \setminus \{n, n'\}) \cup \{\text{Puffy}, \text{Fluffy}\}$  be a bijection such that  $f(n) = \text{Puffy}$ ,  $f(n') = \text{Fluffy}$  and  $f \upharpoonright (N \setminus \{n, n'\}) = \text{Id}$ . Then, using  $f$  to induce a canonical “membership” relation on the domain  $(N \setminus \{n, n'\}) \cup \{\text{Puffy}, \text{Fluffy}\}$ —i.e., in the manner described in footnote 9—we obtain a model  $\mathbb{N}'$  such that  $\mathbb{N}' \models \text{ZFC} + \text{“Puffy} \in \text{Fluffy.”}$

<sup>32</sup>Again, this follows from a simple application of our trick from footnote 9. We start by letting  $\mathbb{N}$  be an arbitrary countable model of ZFC. We then let  $X$  be a countable collection of non-sets, and let  $f : N \rightarrow X$  be some arbitrary bijection. Following the argument of footnote 9, we note that  $f$  induces a relation,  $\in_f$ , on  $X$  such that the model  $\langle X, \in_f \rangle$  is isomorphic to  $\mathbb{N}$ . Hence,  $\langle X, \in_f \rangle$  satisfies ZFC as desired.

almost *no* agreement with ordinary English concerning the interpretation of “ $\in$ .” In particular, there are *many* sets  $n_1, n_2 \in \mathbb{N}'$  such that  $\mathbb{N}' \models n_1 \in n_2$ , but there are *no* sets  $n_1, n_2 \in \mathbb{N}'$  such that  $n_1 \in n_2$ .<sup>33</sup>

These examples show that the semantics of  $\Omega_E(x)$  and  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(x)$  sometimes disagree about expressions of the form “ $a \in b$ .” When we move to more complicated expressions, we find further disagreements. In particular, the semantics of  $\Omega_E(x)$  interpret the expression “ $\exists x$ ” as synonymous with the phrase “there is a set  $x$ , such that” (since the former is, after all, simply an *abbreviation* for the latter). In contrast, the semantics of  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(x)$  interpret “ $\exists x$ ” via the recursion clause:

$$\exists. \quad \mathbb{M} \models \exists x \Phi(x) \iff \text{there exists an } m \in M \text{ such that } \mathbb{M} \models \Phi[m].$$

In practice, this amounts to identifying the expression “ $\exists x$ ” with the phrase “there is an element  $x \in \mathbb{M}$ , such that.” Given that the domain of  $\mathbb{M}$  is not identical with the set-theoretic universe (as  $\mathbb{M}$  is, after all, a merely *countable* model), this introduces a second difference between the semantics of  $\Omega_E(x)$  and  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(x)$ .

Let me make a few comments concerning these two semantic differences. To begin: there shouldn’t be anything surprising—from either a mathematical or a philosophical standpoint—about the fact that first-order model theory allows us to vary the interpretation of  $\in$  and  $\exists$  (and, as a result, that it doesn’t “capture” the ordinary English notions of *membership* and *quantification over the set-theoretic universe*). From a mathematical standpoint, model theory is *designed* to allow substantial variation in the models at which particular sentences can be interpreted (and, indeed, in the models at which particular sentences can come out true). The point of model theory is to investigate the *interaction* between models and formulas. So, if we give our formulas too specific a semantics—e.g., by fixing *everything* about the interpretation of our language and leaving *nothing* to vary as we move from model to model—then we threaten to make those formulas model-theoretically trivial.<sup>34</sup>

In the special case of *first-order* model-theory, we fix the interpretation of  $\neg$ ,  $\rightarrow$ , and  $=$ , but we allow the interpretation of quantifiers and of other relations—e.g.,  $\in$  or  $\in_{\bar{m}}$ —to vary. (In particular, therefore, we don’t even *try* to fix the significance of “ $\in$ ” or “ $\exists$ .”) The resulting system is interesting in part because has nice meta-theoretic properties—e.g., completeness and compactness—which render it easy to work with. More importantly, when we use first-order model theory to investigate the axioms of *set theory*, we find that the ability to reinterpret  $\in$  and  $\exists$  as we move from model to model underlies some standard set-theoretic techniques—forcing, inner models, large-cardinal arguments, etc. These techniques turn out to be important for understanding the structure of the *real* set-theoretic universe. Hence, not only is there nothing surprising about the fact that first-order model theory doesn’t capture the ordinary English significance of “ $\in$ ” or “there

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<sup>33</sup>This latter claim follows from the fact that every element of  $Y$  is a doubleton which *contains* only singletons. Hence, there are no elements  $y_1, y_2 \in A$ , such that  $y_1 \in y_2$ .

<sup>34</sup>In particular, then, we shouldn’t be surprised to find that first-order sentences can be satisfied by a whole variety of structurally different models. In designating a sentence “first-order,” we say that it is to be evaluated at *these kinds* of models. And while *some* sentences—e.g.,  $\forall x \forall y x = y$ —may do a good job at picking out the structure of their models, this cannot be the case for all sentences. If it were, then first-order model theory would lose much of its mathematical interest.

is a set,” but there’s also nothing surprising about the fact that mathematicians—i.e., model theorists and set theorists—continue to study it anyway.

From a more philosophical standpoint, the fact that model theory lets us vary the interpretation of certain symbols is part of what makes the subject philosophically fruitful. It is, for instance, what allows us to give model-theoretic analyses of the notion of *logical consequence*, and it’s what lets us to use models as formal proxies for possible worlds in certain metaphysical arguments. Once again, then, the fact that model theory doesn’t fix the significance of every symbol in our language—e.g., “ $\in$ ” in the case of first-order model theory—shouldn’t be viewed as a surprising *flaw* in the model-theoretic machinery; on the contrary, it’s part of what makes this machinery so philosophically useful. To put this point in Microsoft’s jargon, variability of interpretation is a *feature* of first-order model theory, it’s not a *bug*.

This brings me to two final comments. First, it’s important to note that differences in the way  $\Omega_E(x)$  and  $\Omega_M(x)$  interpret “ $\in$ ” and “ $\exists x$ ” give rise to *many* differences in the overall interpretation of these two expressions. Because each expression contains several thousand instances of “ $\in$ ” and “ $\exists x$ ,” there will be *many* places where the semantics of  $\Omega_E(x)$  and  $\Omega_M(x)$  diverge. Hence, ground level differences in the interpretation of “ $\in$ ” and “ $\exists x$ ,” have the potential to ramify into deeper—and far more systematic—differences between the overall semantics of  $\Omega_E(x)$  and  $\Omega_M(x)$ . So, to the extent that we find differences in the interpretation of “ $\in$ ” and “ $\exists x$ ” unsurprising, we should find differences in the overall semantics of  $\Omega_E(x)$  and  $\Omega_M(x)$  even less surprising.

Second, these differences in the semantics of  $\Omega_E(x)$  and  $\Omega_M(x)$  exist *even when* the expressions happen to agree about some particular element of  $M$ —i.e., even when  $\Omega_E(m)$  and  $\Omega_M(m)$  both come out true (or false) for some particular  $m$ . If we look carefully, we will usually find that these sentences are true (or false) for structurally different reasons. The membership relations which make  $\Omega_E(m)$  true may have nothing to do with the instances of  $M \models m_1 \in m_2$  which make  $\Omega_M(m)$  true, and the particular sets which make “there exists a set  $x$  such that ...” true may be different from the elements of  $M$  which make “there exists an  $m \in M$ , such that ...” true. As a result, even when  $\Omega_E(m)$  and  $\Omega_M(m)$  do happen to agree, we should view their agreement as little more than a happy accident.

At the end of the day, then, we should not be surprised to find that that claims like (†) fail rather frequently. Since many of the corresponding parts of  $\Omega_E(x)$  and  $\Omega_M(x)$  have radically different semantics—and semantics which differ in ways which directly affect the truth values of  $\Omega_E(x)$  and  $\Omega_M(x)$ —we have no reason to *expect* that the two expressions will have the same truth-value. Indeed, as noted in the last two paragraphs, the differences between  $\Omega_E(x)$  and  $\Omega_M(x)$  are sufficiently severe and pervasive that it’s little more than an accident when they do happen to agree. If we find a case where they agree on *all* members of a model’s domain, then this agreement itself should be viewed as a surprising fact which stands in need of explanation; in cases where they *don’t* so agree, we should regard their disagreement as completely ordinary and unsurprising.

This, therefore, gives us a generic—and a somewhat simpleminded—solution to Skolem’s Paradox. In its

simplest formulations—e.g., that presented at the beginning of section 1—the paradox rests on a straightforward equivocation between the (superficially similar) expressions  $\Omega_E(x)$  and  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(x)$ . More sophisticated formulations, although they may avoid outright equivocation, must still postulate a *connection* between  $\Omega_E(x)$  and  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(x)$  which is strong enough to ground claims like  $(\dagger)$ . As we have just seen, however, there is absolutely no reason to believe in such a connection. At the level of individual symbols, there are clear differences in the way  $\Omega_E(x)$  and  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(x)$  interpret “ $\in$ ” and “ $\exists$ ”; at the level of whole expressions, postulating a connection between  $\Omega_E(x)$  and  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(x)$  leads to immediate contradictions—i.e., when we consider elements like  $\hat{m}$ . Given all this, we have no reason to regard Skolem’s Paradox as a genuine mathematical problem. Indeed, on reflection, it’s not even a particularly *surprising* fact about the models of first-order set theory.

### 3 The Virtues of Quantification

In the last section, I gave a generic solution to Skolem’s Paradox. I noted that the paradox rests on conflating the ordinary English significance of “ $\in$ ” and “ $\exists$ ” with the significance given to these symbols by first-order model theory—i.e., when we interpret them at a particular model. I did not, however, say anything about *which instances* of “ $\in$ ” and “ $\exists$ ” are really crucial to Skolem’s Paradox. For a generic solution, it’s enough to notice that there are many places where the semantics of  $\Omega_E(x)$  and  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(x)$  diverge; hence, there’s nothing surprising about the fact that these two expressions often have different truth-values.

In the philosophical literature, there’s a widespread tradition of wanting to go a bit further than this—of wanting, that is, to pin down just which instances of “ $\in$ ” and “ $\exists$ ” really serve to *explain* Skolem’s Paradox. And, from one perspective, it seems like we should be able to accomplish this. Consider the formula we’ve been calling  $\Omega(x)$ . Abbreviating wildly, we can represent this formula as follows:

$$\Omega(x) \equiv \neg \exists f \text{ “} f : \omega \rightarrow x \text{ is a bijection”}$$

where  $\omega$  is the standard set-theoretic representation of the natural numbers. Clearly, any interpretation of this formula will depend heavily on the significance we give to its initial existential quantifier—i.e., to the “ $\exists f$ ” which follows the initial negation. As we have seen, however,  $\Omega_E(x)$  and  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(x)$  interpret this quantifier quite differently.

Following this line of thought, let’s track the relevant differences through the details of our claim,  $(\dagger)$ . On the one hand, it’s easy to see that the expression  $\Omega_E(\hat{m})$  means something like:

1. There is no  $f$  in the set-theoretic universe such that  $f : \omega \rightarrow \{x \mid \mathbb{M} \models x \in \hat{m}\}$  is a bijection.

On the other hand, the expression  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(\hat{m})$  means (at best):

2. There is no  $f \in \mathbb{M}$  such that  $f : \omega \rightarrow \{x \mid \mathbb{M} \models x \in \hat{m}\}$  is a bijection.

Given 1 and 2, the explanation for the failure of  $(\dagger)$  looks quite simple. Because the domain of  $\mathbb{M}$  is countable, the set  $\{x \mid \mathbb{M} \models x \in \hat{m}\}$  must also be countable. Hence, there really is a bijection between  $\omega$  and



$\{x \mid \mathbb{M} \models x \in \hat{m}\}$ , and claim 1 is simply false. In contrast, as long as all the  $f$ 's which falsify 1 happen to live outside the domain of  $\mathbb{M}$ , claim 2 can perfectly well be true. As a result, Skolem's Paradox simply shows that countable models don't contain all the functions which live in the set-theoretic universe (no surprise there!), and that some countable models don't contain *any* functions belonging to a particular class—i.e., the class of bijections from  $\omega$  to  $\{x \mid \mathbb{M} \models x \in \hat{m}\}$ .

Let's look at this argument from a slightly different angle. We know that the quantifiers in  $\Omega_E(\hat{m})$  range over a domain which is large enough to include several (indeed  $2^{\aleph_0}$ !) bijections  $f : \omega \rightarrow \{x \mid \mathbb{M} \models x \in \hat{m}\}$ . Further, the semantics of  $\Omega_E(\hat{m})$  allows it to recognize these  $f$ 's *as* bijections from  $\omega$  to  $\{x \mid \mathbb{M} \models x \in \hat{m}\}$ . So,  $\Omega_E(\hat{m})$  comes out false. The idea behind the present argument is that this kind of analysis should *almost* work for  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(\hat{m})$  as well. *If*  $\mathbb{M}$  only knew about some bijection  $f : \omega \rightarrow \{x \mid \mathbb{M} \models x \in \hat{m}\}$ , *then*  $\mathbb{M}$  would recognize  $f$  as a bijection from  $\omega$  to  $\{x \mid \mathbb{M} \models x \in \hat{m}\}$ . As a result,  $\mathbb{M}$  would satisfy some formula of the form “ $f : \omega \rightarrow \hat{m}$  is a bijection,” and it would fail to satisfy  $\Omega(\hat{m})$ . In short, if the quantifiers in  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(\hat{m})$  could only know about the same functions that the quantifiers in  $\Omega_E(\hat{m})$  know about, then the analysis of  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(\hat{m})$  would run exactly parallel to that of  $\Omega_E(\hat{m})$ . However, the quantifiers in  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(\hat{m})$  *don't* know about the same functions as the quantifiers in  $\Omega_E(\hat{m})$ , and this difference is what explains the failure of claims like  $(\dagger)$ .

This, then, gives us a simple—and a relatively attractive—solution to Skolem's Paradox. It's a solution which focuses on differing interpretations of the initial existential quantifier in  $\Omega(x)$ , and which uses these differences to explain the failure of claims like  $(\dagger)$ . It's also a rather common solution in the philosophical literature. Variants of it can be found in [3], [7], [12], and [13], and it's even made its way into several introductory textbooks (see, for instance, [16] and [20]). Further, although I don't think this quantificational analysis provides a *complete* solution to Skolem's Paradox (for reasons we'll discuss in sections 4–5), I do think it gets some things deeply right.

First, the quantificational solution is right to insist that there is a difference in the way  $\Omega_E(x)$  and  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(x)$  interpret the initial existential quantifier in  $\Omega(x)$ . More specifically, it's right to insist that there exist bijections  $f : \omega \rightarrow \{x \mid \mathbb{M} \models x \in \hat{m}\}$  which 1.) live within the range of the quantifiers in  $\Omega_E(x)$  (and, in so doing, help to explain why  $\Omega_E(x)$  comes out false), but which 2.) live outside the range of the quantifiers in  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(\hat{m})$ . After all, there are only countably many elements in the domain of  $\mathbb{M}$ , and there are  $2^{\aleph_0}$  bijections between  $\omega$  and  $\{x \mid \mathbb{M} \models x \in \hat{m}\}$ . So, at least some of these bijections (indeed  $2^{\aleph_0}$  many of them!) must live outside the domain of  $\mathbb{M}$ . As a result, there *really is* an important difference between the class of bijections which gets “noticed” by the initial existential quantifier in  $\Omega_E(x)$  and that which gets “noticed” by the initial existential quantifier in  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(x)$ .

Second, there are *some cases* where this difference in quantifier-ranges really does explain what's going on in Skolem's Paradox. To see this—and to further bring out real virtues of the quantificational solution to Skolem's Paradox—it's worth looking at one such case in more detail. I begin with some terminology. Let's say that a model  $\mathbb{N}$  is *transitive* if 1.) every member of  $\mathbb{N}$  is itself a set, 2.) every member of a member of  $\mathbb{N}$  is also a member of  $\mathbb{N}$  and 3.) the “membership” relation on  $\mathbb{N}$  is just the real membership relation

restricted to  $\mathbb{N}$ 's domain—i.e.,  $i_{\mathbb{N}}(\in) = \{\langle n_1, n_2 \rangle \in N \times N \mid n_1 \in n_2\}$ .

This terminology puts us in a position to understand the so-called “transitive submodel” version of Skolem’s Paradox. Suppose that our favorite model of ZFC—i.e.,  $\mathbb{M}$ —is actually a countable *transitive* model.<sup>35</sup> Then there are four things we should immediately notice. First, transitivity takes care of all of the interpretation I/interpretation II type problems discussed in section 1. If  $\mathbb{M}$  is transitive, then  $\{x \mid x \in m\} = \{x \mid \mathbb{M} \models x \in m\}$  for every  $m \in \mathbb{M}$ . So, the fact that  $\mathbb{M}$  is countable really does imply that each  $m \in \mathbb{M}$  is also countable. Further, the equivalence of “ $m \in \hat{m}$ ” with “ $\mathbb{M} \models m \in \hat{m}$ ” implies that we don’t need any  $\in_{\hat{m}}$ -style tricks to ensure that the syntax of  $\Omega_E(x)$  and  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(x)$  line up appropriately.<sup>36</sup>

Second, the transitivity of  $\mathbb{M}$  eliminates *one* of the semantic differences between  $\Omega_E(x)$  and  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(x)$  which we discussed in the last section. For any elements  $m_1$  and  $m_2$  in  $\mathbb{M}$ :

$$\mathbb{M} \models m_1 \in m_2 \quad \text{if and only if} \quad m_1 \in m_2.$$

As a result, any purely extensional differences between the way  $\Omega_E(x)$  and  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(x)$  interpret the symbol “ $\in$ ” vanish on transitive models. This means that we have to explain the transitive submodel version of Skolem’s Paradox in terms of the way  $\Omega_E(x)$  and  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(x)$  interpret their quantifiers.

Third, the transitivity of  $\mathbb{M}$  ensures that  $\mathbb{M}$  “gets it right” about a lot more than just the membership relation. Let me say that a relation  $R$  is *absolute* for transitive models if there is some formula  $\Psi^R(\bar{x})$  such that for any transitive  $\mathbb{N} \models \text{ZFC}$  and any  $\bar{n} \in \mathbb{N}$ :

$$R \text{ holds of } \bar{n} \iff \Psi_E^R(\bar{n}) \iff \Psi_{\mathbb{N}}^R(\bar{n}) \iff \mathbb{N} \models \Psi^R[\bar{n}].^{37}$$

Clearly, the definition of transitivity ensures that the relation “is a member of” is absolute for transitive models. With a bit of work, we can show that the following are also absolute:

- $f$  is a function;  $f$  is injective;  $f$  is surjective;  $f$  is bijective.
- $x = \text{Domain}(f)$ ;  $x = \text{Range}(f)$ .
- $x$  is finite;  $x$  is infinite;  $x$  is an ordinal;  $x$  is a limit ordinal;  $x = \omega$ .

Hence, transitive models “know” quite a lot about the sets they contain. For a wide range of set-theoretic concepts, transitive models of ZFC pin these concepts down accurately (at least, that is, with respect to elements living in those models’ domains).

<sup>35</sup>As I noted on page 6, the assumption that there exists a countable transitive model of ZFC is slightly stronger than the assumption that there exists an arbitrary model of ZFC. That being said, it’s not a *particularly* strong assumption—it follows, for instance, from almost any standard large cardinal assumptions. Nonetheless, it is stronger anything we’ve assumed so far.

<sup>36</sup>Note that when  $\mathbb{M}$  is transitive,  $\hat{m} = \{x \mid \mathbb{M} \models x \in \hat{m}\}$ . Hence, we can avoid writing things like  $f : \omega \rightarrow \{x \mid \mathbb{M} \models x \in \hat{m}\}$  and just use the more perspicuous:  $f : \omega \rightarrow \hat{m}$ . I will use this later notation throughout the remainder of this section.

<sup>37</sup>Here,  $\Psi_E^R(\bar{n})$  is just the “ordinary English” interpretation of  $\Psi^R(\bar{n})$  and  $\Psi_{\mathbb{N}}^R(\bar{n})$  is the interpretation of this formula *at*  $\mathbb{N}$ . The notation is intended as a strict analog of the  $\Omega_E(x)$  and  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(x)$  notation introduced on page 11. I will use this type of notation freely throughout the remainder of this paper.

Finally, the transitivity of  $\mathbb{M}$  lets us determine just which symbol in  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(x)$  should “take the blame” for Skolem’s Paradox. As we have already seen, the fact that  $\mathbb{M}$  is transitive ensures that extensional differences between  $\Omega_E(x)$  and  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(x)$  must be located in the interpretation of “ $\exists x$ ” (since differences involving the interpretation of “ $\in$ ” have already been eliminated). Further, the above discussion of absoluteness provides us with the resources to isolate *just which instance* of “ $\exists x$ ” really does the explanatory work.

To see this, we should first note that the class of concepts which are absolute for transitive models is rich enough to include the two-place relation “ $f$  is a bijection between  $\omega$  and  $x$ .” That is, there exists a formula  $\Psi(f, x)$  such that for any transitive  $\mathbb{N} \models \text{ZFC}$  and any  $n_1, n_2 \in N$ ,

$$n_1 \text{ is a bijection between } \omega \text{ and } n_2 \iff \Psi_E(n_1, n_2) \iff \Psi_{\mathbb{N}}(n_1, n_2).^{38}$$

Further, the formula we’ve been calling  $\Omega(x)$  is closely related to this formula  $\Psi(f, x)$ . In particular,

$$\Omega(x) \equiv_{df} \neg \exists f \Psi(f, x).$$

This gives us the technical machinery we need to explain where  $\Omega_E(x)$  and  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(x)$  really differ.

At the most general level, we can start with the fact that  $\Omega_E(x)$  and  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(x)$  clearly interpret the symbol “ $\neg$ ” the same way: both make  $\neg\phi$  true exactly when  $\phi$  is false. Next, we note that the absoluteness of  $\Psi(f, x)$  ensures that, for any particular  $f, x \in \mathbb{M}$ , the sentences  $\Psi_E(f, x)$  and  $\Psi_{\mathbb{M}}(f, x)$  are also extensionally equivalent. Hence, differences in the interpretation of symbols occurring *inside of*  $\Psi(f, x)$  won’t help to explain the failure of  $(\dagger)$ . When we combine these two facts, we see that the only significant difference between the semantics of  $\Omega_E(x)$  and  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(x)$  involves the interpretation of the initial existential quantifier in  $\Omega(x)$ . For transitive models, therefore, the analysis of  $(\dagger)$  given by the quantificational solution to Skolem’s Paradox—i.e., the analysis which focuses solely on the range of the initial existential quantifier in  $\Omega(x)$ —really does explain the failure of  $(\dagger)$ .

Let’s take a closer look at this explanation by tracking it through a particular case. Since we already know that  $\hat{m}$  provides a witness to the failure of  $(\dagger)$ —i.e., that the conditional  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(\hat{m}) \implies \Omega_E(\hat{m})$  is both false and an instantiation of  $(\dagger)$ —we’ll focus our attention there. Given what we already know about  $\Psi(x, y)$ , the following two facts are clear:

1. For any set  $f$ ,  $\Psi_E(f, \hat{m})$  is true if and only if  $f$  is a bijection between  $\omega$  and  $\hat{m}$ .
2. For any  $f \in \mathbb{M}$ ,  $\Psi_{\mathbb{M}}(f, \hat{m})$  is true if and only if  $f$  is a bijection between  $\omega$  and  $\hat{m}$ .

Further, the fact that  $\mathbb{M}$  is countable entails that  $\hat{m}$  is also countable. So, there really is a bijection  $\hat{f} : \omega \rightarrow \hat{m}$ .

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<sup>38</sup>To get this  $\Psi$ , note that we already have formulas  $\Psi_1(f)$ ,  $\Psi_2(x, f)$ ,  $\Psi_3(y, f)$ , and  $\Psi_4(y)$ , which capture, respectively, the concepts “ $f$  is a bijection,” “ $x = \text{Range}(f)$ ,” “ $y = \text{Domain}(f)$ ,” and “ $y = \omega$ .” Note further that any transitive model of ZFC must already contain the real  $\omega$  (since  $\text{ZFC} \vdash \exists y y = \omega$  and the formula  $y = \omega$  is absolute for transitive models). Therefore, the formula:

$$\Psi(f, x) \equiv \Psi_1(f) \wedge \Psi_2(x, f) \wedge \exists y (\Psi_3(y, f) \wedge \Psi_4(y))$$

accurately captures the concept “ $f$  is a bijection between  $\omega$  and  $x$ .”

Now, because  $\hat{f}$  is a bijection between  $\omega$  and  $\hat{m}$ , fact 1 entails that  $\Psi_E(\hat{f}, \hat{m})$  is true. So, since the quantifiers in  $\Omega_E(\hat{m})$  range over the whole universe of sets—in particular, then, over a domain large enough to contain  $\hat{f}$ —the expression  $\exists f \Psi_E(f, \hat{m})$  must also be true. Hence,  $\Omega_E(\hat{m}) \equiv \neg \exists f \Psi_E(f, \hat{m})$  must be false. In contrast, fact 2 only entails that  $\mathbb{M}$  recognizes *those bijections which live in its domain*. That is, if some  $f \in \mathbb{M}$  is a bijection between  $\omega$  and  $\hat{m}$ , then  $\mathbb{M}$  “knows” that it’s a bijection between  $\omega$  and  $\hat{m}$ , and if  $f \in \mathbb{M}$  is *not* a bijection between  $\omega$  and  $\hat{m}$ , then  $\mathbb{M}$  “knows” that it’s not. It so happens, however, that neither  $\hat{f}$  nor any other bijection between  $\omega$  and  $\hat{m}$  lives in the domain of  $\mathbb{M}$ . Hence, the initial quantifier in  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(\hat{m})$  doesn’t “see” any  $f$  for which  $\Psi_{\mathbb{M}}(f, \hat{m})$  comes out true. As a result,  $\exists f \Psi_{\mathbb{M}}(f, \hat{m})$  comes out false, and  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(\hat{m})$  comes out true.

This, then, gives us a more detailed explanation of the failure of  $(\dagger)$ . There are two things to note about this explanation. First, our ability to pin down the particular quantifier which accounts for the failure of  $(\dagger)$  depends on the fact that  $\mathbb{M}$  is a transitive model. It is *because*  $\mathbb{M}$  is transitive that we know that the expressions  $\Psi_E(f, x)$  and  $\Psi_{\mathbb{M}}(f, x)$  are equivalent, and it is only because we know about this equivalence that we can isolate the initial “ $\exists f$ ” in  $\Omega(x)$  as the place where  $\Omega_E(x)$  and  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(x)$  really disagree. If  $\mathbb{M}$  were *not* transitive, then we would have no reason for believing that  $\Psi_E(f, x)$  and  $\Psi_{\mathbb{M}}(f, x)$  are equivalent—in particular, we would have none of the absoluteness results from page 18. In *that* case, therefore, any of the instances of “ $\in$ ” and “ $\exists y$ ” which occur *inside of*  $\Psi(f, x)$  could—at least in principle—explain the failure of  $(\dagger)$  just as well as the initial “ $\exists f$ ” in  $\Omega(x)$  does.

Second, the clarity of this transitive model explanation helps, I think, to explain the popularity of the quantificational solution to Skolem’s Paradox. As noted above, this is a case—and a very often cited case—where the quantificational solution *really does* explain what’s going on in Skolem’s Paradox. When we combine this with the fact—discussed on page 17—that countable models *always do* exclude genuine bijections between  $\omega$  and  $\{x \mid \mathbb{M} \models x \in \hat{m}\}$  from the range of their quantifiers, we can see the real virtues of the quantificational solution. Even if it doesn’t provide a *complete* solution to Skolem’s Paradox, it does provide an excellent partial solution—i.e., a solution which works perfectly well in some particular cases.

## 4 The Vices of Quantification I

So, why doesn’t the quantificational solution work in *all* cases? Why does it fail as a *general* solution to Skolem’s Paradox? To answer these questions, recall one of the roles that transitivity played in the last section. By making  $\mathbb{M}$  transitive, we ensured that if  $\mathbb{M}$  *contains* a bijection  $f : \omega \rightarrow \hat{m}$ , then  $\mathbb{M}$  also *recognizes*  $f$  as a bijection from  $\omega$  to  $\hat{m}$ . This was the point of our discussion of absoluteness, and it played a key role in allowing us to isolate a particular quantifier as the one which “explained” Skolem’s Paradox. To generate an example where this kind of analysis breaks down, therefore, we should start by looking for a model which contains various bijections without recognizing them as bijections.

Fortunately, it’s relatively easy to find such a model. The idea is to start with a transitive model,  $\mathbb{N}$ ,

and then use our footnote 9 trick to replace some element of  $\mathbb{N}$  with a bijection of the relevant sort (while leaving enough other things fixed that our new model,  $\mathbb{M}$ , doesn't recognize this new element *as* a bijection of the relevant sort). More formally, let  $\mathbb{N}$  be a countable, transitive model of ZFC, let  $\hat{m}$  be an element of  $\mathbb{N}$  such that  $\mathbb{N} \models \Omega[\hat{m}]$ , and let  $\hat{n}$  be an element of  $\mathbb{N}$  such that  $\text{Rank}(\hat{n}) > \text{Rank}(\hat{m}) + \omega$ .<sup>39</sup> Now, since  $\mathbb{N}$  is countable and transitive, the set  $\hat{m} = \{x \mid \mathbb{N} \models x \in \hat{m}\}$  is also countable; so, there exists a bijection  $\hat{f} : \omega \rightarrow \hat{m}$ . Next, we define a function  $\sigma : N \rightarrow (N \setminus \{\hat{n}\}) \cup \{\hat{f}\}$  such that:

$$\sigma(n) = \begin{cases} n & \text{if } n \neq \hat{n} \\ \hat{f} & \text{if } n = \hat{n} \end{cases}$$

This function  $\sigma$  allows us—by means of the trick described in footnote 9—to construct a new model,  $\mathbb{M}$ , such that 1.)  $\text{Domain}(\mathbb{M}) = (N \setminus \{\hat{n}\}) \cup \{\hat{f}\}$  and 2.)  $\sigma$  is an isomorphism between  $\mathbb{N}$  and  $\mathbb{M}$ .

From a technical perspective, this new model has four nice properties. First, because  $\sigma$  is an isomorphism between  $\mathbb{N}$  and  $\mathbb{M}$ ,  $\mathbb{M}$  satisfies the same sentences as  $\mathbb{N}$  did; in particular, therefore,  $\mathbb{M} \models \text{ZFC}$ . Second, because  $\mathbb{N} \models \Omega[\hat{m}]$  and  $\sigma : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{M}$  is an isomorphism such that  $\sigma(\hat{m}) = \hat{m}$ ,  $\mathbb{M} \models \Omega[\hat{m}]$  as well. Third, because we chose  $\hat{n}$  from a different “part” of  $\mathbb{N}$  than  $\hat{m}$ , the equivalence  $\hat{m} = \{x \mid x \in \hat{m}\} = \{x \mid \mathbb{M} \models x \in \hat{m}\}$  carries over from the transitive model case (see fn. 36). Finally, because  $\hat{f} \in \mathbb{M}$ ,  $\mathbb{M}$  *contains* a function which witnesses the fact that  $\hat{m}$  is countable. Although  $\mathbb{M}$  does not *recognize* this function in the right sort of way—as indicated by the fact that  $\mathbb{M} \models \Omega[\hat{m}]$ — $\mathbb{M}$  *does contain* the relevant function.<sup>40</sup>

From a more philosophical perspective, this example brings out two things about Skolem's Paradox. First, it provides an example where the quantificational analysis of Skolem's Paradox starts to break down. Informally, it's no longer true to say that the quantifiers in  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(\hat{m})$  don't “know” about any bijections between  $\omega$  and  $\{x \mid \mathbb{M} \models x \in \hat{m}\}$  (while those in  $\Omega_E(\hat{m})$  do know about such bijections). More formally, the key absoluteness result on which the analysis of the last section depended—i.e., that for  $\Psi(f, x)$ —doesn't hold in the current context. In this context,  $\Psi_E(\hat{f}, \hat{m})$  is true, but  $\Psi_{\mathbb{M}}(\hat{f}, \hat{m})$  is not.

Second—and more strongly—I think this case provides an example where Skolem's Paradox can't be explained by quantifier-ranges at all. To see this, we can begin by taking a closer look at the non-absoluteness of  $\Psi(f, x)$ . On the one hand, because  $\mathbb{M} \models \Omega[\hat{m}]$ , we know that  $\Psi_{\mathbb{M}}(\hat{f}, \hat{m})$  must be false. On the other hand, the fact that  $\hat{f}$  really is a bijection between  $\omega$  and  $\hat{m}$  entails that  $\Psi_E(\hat{f}, \hat{m})$  must be true. These facts, together with the fact that both  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(x)$  and  $\Omega_E(x)$  “know” about  $\hat{f}$ —i.e., the fact that  $\hat{f}$  is within the range

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<sup>39</sup>A remark on this choice of  $\hat{n}$  is in order. Basically, I have chosen  $\hat{n}$  so as to ensure that it does not live in the same “part” of  $\mathbb{N}$  as  $\hat{m}$  does. In particular,  $\hat{n}$  is not a member of either  $\hat{m}$  or  $\omega$ . What's more,  $\hat{n}$  isn't equal to any ordered pair of the form  $\langle n_1, n_2 \rangle$ , where  $n_1 \in \hat{m}$  and  $n_2 \in \omega$ , nor is  $\hat{n}$  equal to a collection of such ordered pairs. As a result, we can manipulate  $\hat{n}$  in various ways without modifying the parts of  $\mathbb{N}$  which directly involve  $\hat{m}$ ,  $\omega$ , and  $\omega \times \hat{m}$ . The significance of this choice of  $\hat{n}$  will become clear as my argument progresses.

<sup>40</sup>Of course, there are other bijections  $f : \omega \rightarrow \hat{m}$  which don't live in the domain of  $\mathbb{M}$  (since, as before, there are  $2^{\aleph_0}$  different bijections between  $\omega$  and  $\hat{m}$ , and not all of them can live in the countable domain of  $\mathbb{M}$ ). I will discuss these other bijections in section 5.

of the quantifiers of both  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(x)$  and  $\Omega_E(x)$ —suggest that any differences between  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(x)$  and  $\Omega_E(x)$  lie *inside of*  $\Psi(f, \hat{m})$ , rather than in the way  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(x)$  and  $\Omega_E(x)$  interpret their initial existential quantifiers.

Following this line of thought, let's look even more closely at  $\Psi(\hat{f}, \hat{m})$ . Abbreviating wildly, we get:

$$\begin{aligned} \Psi(\hat{f}, \hat{m}) &\equiv_{df} \forall x \in \hat{f} [x \in \omega \times \hat{m}] \\ &\quad \wedge \forall x \in \omega \exists! y \in \hat{m} [\langle x, y \rangle \in \hat{f}] \\ &\quad \wedge \forall y \in \hat{m} \exists! x \in \omega [\langle x, y \rangle \in \hat{f}]. \end{aligned}$$

Now, if we examine this formula closely, we will find that many of its subformulas receive equivalent interpretations under the semantics of  $\Psi_E(\hat{f}, \hat{m})$  and those of  $\Psi_{\mathbb{M}}(\hat{f}, \hat{m})$ ; to use our earlier jargon, these subformulas are *absolute* between  $V$  and  $\mathbb{M}$ . In particular, we should observe that for any set  $s$ :<sup>41</sup>

- $s \in \hat{m} \iff \mathbb{M} \models s \in \hat{m}$ .
- $s \in \omega \iff \mathbb{M} \models s \in \omega$ .
- $s \in \omega \times \hat{m} \iff \mathbb{M} \models s \in \omega \times \hat{m}$ .
- If  $s_1 \in \omega$  and  $s_2 \in \hat{m}$ , then  $s = \langle s_1, s_2 \rangle \iff \mathbb{M} \models s = \langle s_1, s_2 \rangle$ .

Finally, we should observe that, with respect to the sets that are actually relevant to the truth or falsity of  $\Psi(\hat{f}, \hat{m})$ , there's a fair bit of agreement between the quantifiers in  $\Psi_E(\hat{f}, \hat{m})$  and those in  $\Psi_{\mathbb{M}}(\hat{f}, \hat{m})$ . In particular, every  $s \in \hat{n} \cup \hat{m} \cup \omega \cup (\omega \times \hat{m})$  lives in the range of both sets of quantifiers.

Keeping these observations in mind, we can distinguish three kinds of differences between the semantics of  $\Psi_E(\hat{f}, \hat{m})$  and those of  $\Psi_{\mathbb{M}}(\hat{f}, \hat{m})$ . **First**, there are differences that occur *within* subformulas that are, themselves, absolute between  $V$  and  $\mathbb{M}$ —e.g., formal differences in the interpretation of quantifiers within expressions like “ $x \in \omega \times \hat{m}$ .” **Second**, there are differences in the interpretation of quantifiers where 1.) these quantifiers are explicitly bounded as they occur in  $\Psi_E(\hat{f}, \hat{m})$  and  $\Psi_{\mathbb{M}}(\hat{f}, \hat{m})$  and 2.) these quantifiers have ranges, both as they occur in  $\Psi_E(\hat{f}, \hat{m})$  and as they occur in  $\Psi_{\mathbb{M}}(\hat{f}, \hat{m})$ , which include every element in *either* of the relevant bounding sets. So, for instance, the initial quantifier in “ $\forall x \in \hat{f} [x \in \omega \times \hat{m}]$ ” is bounded by the expression “ $\in \hat{f}$ ”; but the ranges of the quantifiers in both  $\Psi_E(\hat{f}, \hat{m})$  and  $\Psi_{\mathbb{M}}(\hat{f}, \hat{m})$  are large enough to include  $\{x \mid x \in \hat{f}\} \cup \{y \mid \mathbb{M} \models y \in \hat{f}\}$ . Similarly, the initial quantifiers in “ $\forall x \in \hat{m} \exists! y \in \omega [\langle x, y \rangle \in \hat{f}]$ ” are bounded by “ $\in \hat{m}$ ” and “ $\in \omega$ ” respectively; but the quantifiers in both  $\Psi_E(\hat{f}, \hat{m})$  and  $\Psi_{\mathbb{M}}(\hat{f}, \hat{m})$  range over  $\hat{m} \cup \{y \mid \mathbb{M} \models y \in \hat{m}\}$  and  $\omega \cup \{y \mid \mathbb{M} \models y \in \omega\}$ . **Third**, there are differences in the interpretation of the membership sign in the three instances of the expression “ $\in \hat{f}$ ” which occur in  $\Psi(\hat{f}, \hat{m})$ —i.e., one instance of “ $x \in \hat{f}$ ” and two of “ $\langle x, y \rangle \in \hat{f}$ .”

Clearly, neither of the first two kinds of difference can explain the difference in truth-value between  $\Psi_E(\hat{f}, \hat{m})$  and  $\Psi_{\mathbb{M}}(\hat{f}, \hat{m})$ . Because differences of the first kind are isolated within subformulas whose truth-values are constant between  $\Psi_E(\hat{f}, \hat{m})$  and  $\Psi_{\mathbb{M}}(\hat{f}, \hat{m})$ , these differences cannot be where  $\Psi_E(\hat{f}, \hat{m})$  and

<sup>41</sup>Note, here, that it's our original choice of  $\hat{n}$  which ensures that the following claims are true. By choosing  $\hat{n}$  to be in a different “part” of  $\mathbb{N}$  than  $\hat{m}$  and  $\omega$  were, we ensured that replacing  $\hat{n}$  with  $\hat{f}$  does not effect the following properties.

$\Psi_{\mathbb{M}}(\hat{f}, \hat{m})$  ultimately diverge. Similarly for differences of the second kind. Although the quantifiers in  $\Psi_E(\hat{f}, \hat{m})$  range over a *larger* domain than those in  $\Psi_{\mathbb{M}}(\hat{f}, \hat{m})$ , none of the “extra” objects within the range of  $\Psi_E(\hat{f}, \hat{m})$ ’s quantifiers are relevant to the truth-values of formulas like  $\forall x \in \hat{f} [x \in \omega \times \hat{m}]$  or  $\forall x \in \hat{m} \exists! y \in \omega [\langle x, y \rangle \in \hat{f}]$  (whether these formulas are interpreted after the fashion of  $\Psi_E$  or of  $\Psi_{\mathbb{M}}$ ). Hence, none of these differences in quantifier-ranges can explain the final difference in truth-value between  $\Psi_E(\hat{f}, \hat{m})$  and  $\Psi_{\mathbb{M}}(\hat{f}, \hat{m})$ .

This, therefore, brings us back to the third difference between  $\Psi_E(\hat{f}, \hat{m})$  and  $\Psi_{\mathbb{M}}(\hat{f}, \hat{m})$ —their differing interpretations of the membership sign in the expression “ $\in \hat{f}$ .” As this is the only difference which is not covered by cases 1 and 2, it must be the one which explains the difference in truth-values between  $\Psi_E(\hat{f}, \hat{m})$  and  $\Psi_{\mathbb{M}}(\hat{f}, \hat{m})$ . Further, this explanation is relatively intuitive. The notion captured by  $\Psi_E(x, y)$ —that “ $x$  is a bijection between  $\omega$  and  $y$ ”—is a notion that’s *defined in terms of* the members of  $x$ . So, since  $\mathbb{M}$  doesn’t know about the *real* members of  $\hat{f}$  (recall, the things  $\mathbb{M}$  thinks are members of  $\hat{f}$  are really members of  $\hat{m}$ ),  $\mathbb{M}$  doesn’t know that  $\hat{f}$  is a bijection between  $\omega$  and  $\hat{m}$ . Hence, it’s not surprising that  $\mathbb{M}$  fails to satisfy the formula  $\Psi(\hat{f}, \hat{m})$ . It’s a simple consequence of the discrepancy between  $\mathbb{M}$ ’s understanding of the membership relation on  $\hat{f}$  and the real membership relation on  $\hat{f}$ .

This gives us an analysis of the failure of  $(\dagger)$  which is quite different from the one given in section 3. There, the explanation for the failure of  $(\dagger)$  involved the differing interpretations which  $\Omega_E(\hat{m})$  and  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(\hat{m})$  give to their quantifiers (and, in particular, to one specific quantifier). Here, the explanation depends on the way these expressions interpret the symbol “ $\in$ ” in the embedded formula  $\Psi(f, \hat{m})$  (and, again, we can limit our attention to a few specific instances of “ $\in$ ”). Of course, there are other places where the semantics  $\Omega_E(\hat{m})$  and  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(\hat{m})$  differ formally (that’s true in the transitive submodel case as well), but these are the differences which really *explain* the present version of Skolem’s Paradox.

This example gives an initial indication as to why the standard, quantificational solution to Skolem’s Paradox is inadequate. In particular, it shows that an analysis of Skolem’s Paradox which works fine for transitive models *does not* work for all models (e.g., because we may lose the absoluteness of  $\Psi(f, x)$ ). Further, I’ve made a preliminary argument for the claim that this new example can’t be explained by looking at quantifier-ranges at all. In the next section, I’ll bolster this argument by looking at two more examples. Along the way, I’ll try to dispel a worry that the argument of this section may have occasioned. I’ll end with some general remarks about Skolem’s Paradox.

## 5 The Vices of Quantification II

Let’s start with a possible concern about the analysis of the last section. In giving the analysis, I noted that the bijection  $\hat{f}$  lived in the domain of the quantifiers of both  $\Omega_E(\hat{m})$  and  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(\hat{m})$ , and I then focused my attention on the difference in truth value between  $\Psi_E(\hat{f}, \hat{m})$  and  $\Psi_{\mathbb{M}}(\hat{f}, \hat{m})$ . There are, however,  $2^{\aleph_0}$  other bijections  $g : \omega \rightarrow \hat{m}$  which don’t live in the domain of  $\mathbb{M}$ . Why can’t one of these other bijections “explain”

the fact that  $\Omega_E(\hat{m})$  is false while  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(\hat{m})$  is true? Why, in short, can't the difference between  $\Omega_E(\hat{m})$  and  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(\hat{m})$  still be explained—if only partially—by the way these sentences interpret their initial existential quantifiers?

There are, I think, three ways of responding to these questions. First, we should note that there is no particular  $g : \omega \rightarrow \hat{m}$  which plays a special role in explaining the differences between  $\Omega_E(\hat{m})$  and  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(\hat{m})$ . After all, for any particular  $g$ , we can easily build a new version of  $\mathbb{M}$  which contains that  $g$ —i.e., by substituting it for  $\hat{f}$  in the preceding construction. Indeed, a trivial modification of that construction allows us to include countably many bijections  $g : \omega \rightarrow \hat{m}$  within the domain of  $\mathbb{M}$ .<sup>42</sup> So, there's no sense in which we've somehow used the *wrong*  $\hat{f}$  in building our model  $\mathbb{M}$ .

Second, it's hard to see how some  $g : \omega \rightarrow \hat{m}$  could explain the difference between  $\Omega_E(\hat{m})$  and  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(\hat{m})$ . Presumably, the thought goes something like this. In the case of  $\Omega_E(\hat{m})$ , the quantifiers range over a domain large enough to include the relevant  $g$ 's. Further, the semantics of  $\Omega_E(\hat{m})$  recognize these  $g$ 's as bijections from  $\omega$  to  $\hat{m}$ . So,  $\exists f \Psi_E(f, \hat{m})$  comes out true, and  $\Omega_E(\hat{m})$  comes out false. The idea, then, is that this kind of analysis should *almost* work for  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(\hat{m})$ . If  $\mathbb{M}$  knew about some bijection  $g : \omega \rightarrow \hat{m}$ , then  $\mathbb{M}$  would recognize  $g$  as a bijection from  $\omega$  to  $\hat{m}$ . As a result,  $\mathbb{M}$  would satisfy some formula of the form  $\Psi(g, \hat{m})$ ; so, it would also satisfy  $\exists f \Psi(f, \hat{m})$ , and it would fail to satisfy  $\Omega(\hat{m})$ . In short, if the quantifiers in  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(\hat{m})$  only knew about the same functions that the quantifiers in  $\Omega_E(\hat{m})$  know about, then the analysis of  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(\hat{m})$  would run exactly parallel to that of  $\Omega_E(\hat{m})$ .

Why, though, should we believe any of this? After all,  $\mathbb{M}$  *already does* contain one bijection  $\hat{f} : \omega \rightarrow \hat{m}$ , and  $\mathbb{M}$  *doesn't* recognize  $\hat{f}$  as a bijection (or, at least, not as a bijection between  $\omega$  and  $\hat{m}$ ). Why should we think  $\mathbb{M}$  would do any *better* when it comes to other bijections? In the transitive model case, our absoluteness results ensured that  $\mathbb{M}$  got bijections right—that if  $\mathbb{M}$  knew about some bijection  $g : m \rightarrow n$ , then  $\mathbb{M}$  recognized  $g$  as a bijection from  $m$  to  $n$ . So, it was at least superficially plausible to think that if  $\mathbb{M}$  *could know* about some new  $g : \omega \rightarrow \hat{m}$ , then  $\mathbb{M}$  would properly recognize  $g$  as a bijection from  $\omega$  to  $\hat{m}$ .<sup>43</sup> But, once  $\mathbb{M}$  misidentifies *one* bijection—i.e.,  $\hat{f}$ —then there's no particular reason to think it should do better with respect to *other* bijections.

These first two points suggest that the questions raised at the beginning of this section are not well-motivated. Unlike in the transitive model case, there may simply be no coherent story about how initial quantifiers *could* help to explain the version of Skolem's Paradox we're now considering. If so, then our solution to this version of Skolem's Paradox is going to have to look quite a bit different from the quantifier-oriented solution presented in section 3. And, while this doesn't *directly* show that the membership-oriented solution presented in the last section is correct, it does lend that solution a good deal of *indirect* support.<sup>44</sup>

<sup>42</sup>I.e., we just use  $\sigma$  to replace countably many elements of  $\mathbb{N}$  (all with sufficiently high rank) with new bijections  $g : \omega \rightarrow \hat{m}$ .

<sup>43</sup>Of course, it's hard to know how to evaluate this kind of subjunctive conditional, since its antecedent is *necessarily* false. We can, however, say the following: *if*  $\mathbb{M}$  were extended to a larger transitive model,  $\mathbb{M}'$ , such that  $\mathbb{M}'$  contained a bijection  $g : \omega \rightarrow \hat{m}$ , *then*  $\mathbb{M}'$  would recognize this  $g$  as a bijection between  $\omega$  and  $\hat{m}$ .

<sup>44</sup>Recall, here, that the discussion of absoluteness and bounded quantification on pp 21–23 showed that most of the symbols



This brings me to a third point. As we saw earlier, part of the appeal of the quantificational solution to Skolem’s Paradox comes from the fact that, for any countable model  $\mathbb{M}$  and any  $\hat{m} \in \mathbb{M}$ , there are  $2^{\aleph_0}$  bijections  $g : \omega \rightarrow \{m \mid \mathbb{M} \models m \in \hat{m}\}$  which don’t live in the domain of  $\mathbb{M}$ . Clearly, there’s no way of formulating a version of Skolem’s Paradox which allows us to evade this fact.<sup>45</sup> We can, however, formulate puzzles that are closely *analogous* to Skolem’s Paradox and which *do* allow us to evade this fact. Further, the solution to these later puzzles follows precisely the lines given in the last section. This leads me, once again, to think that the solution from the last section is correct (and that the fact about “missing” bijections is largely a red herring in our present context).

Let’s look at two of these analogous puzzles. The first involves the comparison of  $\Omega_E(x)$  and  $\Omega_M(x)$  where  $\mathbb{M}$  is a, suitably chosen, *uncountable* model of ZFC. As usual, we’ll start by letting  $\mathbb{N}$  be a countable, transitive model of ZFC. Applying a theorem of Keisler and Morley, we generate a model  $\mathbb{N}'$  such that 1.)  $\mathbb{N}'$  is an elementary end extension of  $\mathbb{N}$  and 2.)  $|\mathbb{N}'| = 2^{\aleph_0}$ .<sup>46</sup> Now, let  $\hat{m}$  be an element of  $\mathbb{N}$  such that  $\mathbb{N} \models \Omega[\hat{m}]$ , and let  $\mathbb{X} = \{g : \omega \rightarrow \hat{m} \mid g \text{ is a bijection}\}$  (so,  $\mathbb{X}$  is the set of *real* bijections between  $\omega$  and  $\hat{m}$ ). Finally, using the fact that  $|\mathbb{N}'| = 2^{\aleph_0}$ , we build a bijection  $\sigma : \mathbb{N}' \rightarrow \mathbb{N}' \cup \mathbb{X}$  such that  $\sigma \upharpoonright \mathbb{N}' = \text{Id}$ ; we let  $\mathbb{M}$  be the model induced by this  $\sigma$ —i.e., induced in the manner described in footnote 9.

At the end of this construction, our new model,  $\mathbb{M}$ , has five nice properties: 1.)  $\mathbb{M} \models \text{ZFC}$ , 2.)  $\mathbb{M} \models \Omega[\hat{m}]$ , 3.)  $\hat{m} = \{x \mid \mathbb{M} \models x \in \hat{m}\}$ , 4.)  $\hat{m}$  is countable, and 5.) every real bijection,  $g : \omega \rightarrow \hat{m}$ , is actually a member of  $\mathbb{M}$ . Here, 1 follows from the fact that  $\mathbb{N}$  satisfies ZFC, together with the fact that  $\mathbb{N}'$  is an elementary extension of  $\mathbb{N}$  and that  $\sigma : \mathbb{N}' \rightarrow \mathbb{M}$  is an isomorphism. 2 follows from the same facts, along with the fact that  $\sigma(\hat{m}) = \hat{m}$ . 3 and 4 follow from the fact that  $\mathbb{N}$  is countable and transitive, together with the fact that  $\mathbb{N}'$  is an end extension of  $\mathbb{N}$  and that  $\sigma \upharpoonright \mathbb{N}' = \text{Id}$ . Finally, 5 follows from our choice of  $\mathbb{X}$ , together with the fact that  $\mathbb{X} \subset \mathbb{M}$ .

There are two things to notice about all this machinery. First, properties 1–4 give rise to an obvious analog of Skolem’s Paradox. After all,  $\mathbb{M}$  is a model of ZFC which satisfies  $\Omega[\hat{m}]$  (properties 1 and 2), despite the fact that the set  $\hat{m} = \{x \mid \mathbb{M} \models x \in \hat{m}\}$  is only countable (properties 3 and 4). So, just as in our previous examples,  $\Omega_M(\hat{m})$  is true, and  $\Omega_E(\hat{m})$  is false. Second, this analog of Skolem’s Paradox neatly evades the concerns raised at the beginning of this section. After all, fact 5 ensures that *all* of the  $2^{\aleph_0}$

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in  $\Omega(x)$  are irrelevant to explaining this version of Skolem’s Paradox. If, as suggested above, the initial quantifier in  $\Omega(x)$  is also irrelevant, then the instances of “ $\in$ ” isolated on page 23 provide the only possible focus for our explanation.

<sup>45</sup>As a matter of classification, I take it that “Skolem’s Paradox” always involves the comparison of  $\Omega_E(x)$  and  $\Omega_M(x)$ , where  $\mathbb{M}$  is a *countable* model. Hence, the fact mentioned in the main text will always be present (though, as I have argued, it may not always be *relevant*).

<sup>46</sup>Some clarification is probably in order here. To say that  $\mathbb{N}'$  is an elementary extension of  $\mathbb{N}$  means that for any formula  $\phi(\bar{x})$  and any sequence  $\bar{n} \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $\mathbb{N}' \models \phi[\bar{n}] \iff \mathbb{N} \models \phi[\bar{n}]$ . In particular, then, the fact that  $\mathbb{N}$  satisfies ZFC entails that  $\mathbb{N}'$  also satisfies ZFC; further, for any  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $\mathbb{N}' \models \Omega[n] \iff \mathbb{N} \models \Omega[n]$ . To say that  $\mathbb{N}'$  is an end extension of  $\mathbb{N}$  means that for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $\{x \mid \mathbb{N} \models x \in n\} = \{x \mid \mathbb{N}' \models x \in n\}$ ; so, moving to  $\mathbb{N}'$  doesn’t involve adding “new” elements to old members of  $\mathbb{N}$ . Given this, Keisler and Morley proved (see [9]) that any countable model of ZFC has elementary end extensions of arbitrarily large cardinality.

bijections  $g : \omega \rightarrow \hat{m}$  which witness the falsity of  $\Omega_E(\hat{m})$  live within the domain of  $\mathbb{M}$ .

Indeed, we can go a bit further than this. It’s pretty clear that any solution to this analog of Skolem’s Paradox *has* to run parallel to the solution sketched on pp 21–23. Since *every* bijection which witnesses the falsity of  $\Omega_E(\hat{m})$ —i.e., every  $g$  which makes  $\Psi_E(g, \hat{m})$  come out true—is contained within the domain of  $\mathbb{M}$ , the difference in truth-value between  $\Omega_E(\hat{m})$  and  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(\hat{m})$  can’t be explained by looking at the interpretation of the initial quantifiers in  $\Omega_E(\hat{m})$  and  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(\hat{m})$ . Nor can we explain  $\mathbb{M}$ ’s failure to “recognize” elements of  $\mathbb{X}$  as bijections between  $\omega$  and  $\hat{m}$  by appealing to way  $\mathbb{M}$  interprets the quantifiers in the embedded formula  $\Psi(x, \hat{m})$ . To be sure, the quantifiers in formulas like  $\Psi_E(g, \hat{m})$  *do* range over a larger domain than those in  $\Psi_{\mathbb{M}}(g, \hat{m})$ . As before, however, every set which is relevant to the truth of  $\Psi_E(g, \hat{m})$  is a member of  $\omega \cup \hat{m} \cup (\omega \times \hat{m})$ . These sets *are* within the range of the quantifiers in  $\Psi_{\mathbb{M}}(g, \hat{m})$ , and *every* set in the range of the quantifiers of  $\Psi_{\mathbb{M}}(g, \hat{m})$  is within the range of the quantifiers in  $\Psi_E(g, \hat{m})$ .<sup>47</sup> Hence, the only remaining explanation for the difference in truth-values between  $\Omega_E(\hat{m})$  and  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(\hat{m})$  stems from the way these formulas interpret the symbol “ $\in$ .”<sup>48</sup>

This, therefore, gives us an analog of Skolem’s Paradox whose solution has to follow the lines sketched in the last section. I’ll close this section with a second such analog. Whereas my first example involved the comparison of  $\Omega_E(x)$  and  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(x)$  for an uncountable model,  $\mathbb{M}$ , this one will compare  $\Omega_{\mathbb{N}}(x)$  and  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(x)$  where  $\mathbb{N}$  and  $\mathbb{M}$  are both countable. As before, we can start by letting  $\mathbb{N}$  be a countable, transitive model of ZFC. Next, let  $\mathbb{N}' = \mathbb{N}[G]$  be a generic extension of  $\mathbb{N}$  such that  $\omega_1^{\mathbb{N}}$  has been “collapsed” to have cardinality  $\aleph_0$ .<sup>49</sup> Given this, let  $X = \{n \in \mathbb{N} \mid \mathbb{N} \models \text{“Rank}(n) < \omega_\omega \text{”}\}$ , and let  $\sigma : \mathbb{N}' \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$  be a bijection such that  $\sigma \upharpoonright X = \text{Id}$ . Finally, using our trick from footnote 9, we can define a new membership relation on the domain of  $\mathbb{N}$  such that  $\sigma$  becomes an isomorphism between  $\mathbb{N}'$  and  $\mathbb{M}$  (where  $\mathbb{M}$  is the new model canonically induced by this bijection).

At this point, we are in a position to formulate a puzzle very much like Skolem’s Paradox except that it holds *between*  $\mathbb{N}$  and  $\mathbb{M}$  (rather than between  $\mathbb{N}$  and the set-theoretic universe). To begin, note that the fact that  $\sigma \upharpoonright X = \text{Id}$  ensures that  $\mathbb{N}$  and  $\mathbb{M}$  agree about the membership relation on  $\omega_1^{\mathbb{N}}$ . That is,

$$\{x \mid \mathbb{N} \models x \in \omega_1^{\mathbb{N}}\} = \{x \mid \mathbb{N}' \models x \in \omega_1^{\mathbb{N}}\} = \{x \mid \mathbb{M} \models x \in \omega_1^{\mathbb{N}}\}.$$
<sup>50</sup>

However,  $\mathbb{N}$  and  $\mathbb{M}$  do not agree about the *countability* of  $\omega_1^{\mathbb{N}}$ . On the one hand,  $\mathbb{N} \models \Omega[\omega_1^{\mathbb{N}}]$ . On the other

<sup>47</sup>As in our original example, this point can be put in terms of “bounding sets.” For any particular  $g : \omega \rightarrow \hat{m}$ , all of the quantifiers in  $\Psi(g, \hat{m})$  are bounded by sets like  $g$ ,  $\hat{m}$ ,  $\omega$ , and  $\omega \times \hat{m}$ . Since the elements of these bounding sets all live in the domain of  $\mathbb{M}$ , the quantifiers in  $\Psi_{\mathbb{M}}(f, \hat{m})$  will “know” about all these elements.

<sup>48</sup>Again, as in the original example, a careful analysis allows us to isolate three specific instances of “ $\in$ ” which do all the explanatory work. Since there’s nothing new going on in this particular case, I omit the details of this further analysis.

<sup>49</sup>The details of this construction are too complicated to explain fully here. The relevant facts about  $\mathbb{N}'$  are these: 1.)  $\mathbb{N}'$  is a countable, transitive model of ZFC, 2.)  $\mathbb{N}'$  is an “end extension” of  $\mathbb{N}$  (cf. footnote 46), and 3.)  $\mathbb{N}' \models \text{“}\omega_1^{\mathbb{N}} \text{ is countable”}$ . Note that 3 entails that  $\mathbb{N}' \models \neg\Omega[\omega_1^{\mathbb{N}}]$  and that 1–3 together entail that  $\mathbb{N}'$  contains some (real) bijection  $g : \omega \rightarrow \omega_1^{\mathbb{N}}$ . Further details about this kind of construction can be found in chapter 7 of [11] or chapter 3 of [8].

<sup>50</sup>The first of these equalities follows from the fact that  $\mathbb{N}'$  is an end extension of  $\mathbb{N}$ . The second follows from the fact

hand, our forcing construction ensures that  $\mathbb{N}' \models \neg\Omega[\omega_1^{\mathbb{N}}]$  (see footnote 49). So, the fact that  $\sigma : \mathbb{N}' \rightarrow \mathbb{M}$  is an isomorphism, together with the fact that  $\sigma(\omega_1^{\mathbb{N}}) = \omega_1^{\mathbb{M}}$ , ensures that  $\mathbb{M} \models \neg\Omega[\omega_1^{\mathbb{N}}]$  as well.

This gives us a simple analog of Skolem’s Paradox: even though  $\mathbb{N}$  and  $\mathbb{M}$  agree about the members of  $\omega_1^{\mathbb{N}}$ , the expression  $\Omega_{\mathbb{N}}(\omega_1^{\mathbb{N}})$  comes out true, and the expression  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(\omega_1^{\mathbb{N}})$  comes out false. Further, there’s no possibility of explaining this discrepancy by appealing to the differing ways  $\Omega_{\mathbb{N}}(x)$  and  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(x)$  interpret their quantifiers. Since  $\mathbb{N}$  and  $\mathbb{M}$  have the same domain,  $\Omega_{\mathbb{N}}(x)$  and  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(x)$  interpret their quantifiers *in exactly the same way*. Hence, any difference in truth-value between  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(\omega_1^{\mathbb{N}})$  and  $\Omega_{\mathbb{N}'}(\omega_1^{\mathbb{N}})$  *must* be explained in terms of the differing ways  $\mathbb{N}$  and  $\mathbb{M}$  interpret the symbol “ $\in$ .” In short, this is a case where the *only possible* solution to our puzzle follows the membership-oriented lines sketched in section 4.<sup>51</sup>

This, then, explains why I think the concerns raised at the beginning of this section are misguided. Although it’s certainly true that, given any countable  $\mathbb{M} \models \text{ZFC}$  and any  $\hat{m} \in \mathbb{M}$ , there will be  $2^{\aleph_0}$  bijections  $g : \omega \rightarrow \{x \mid \mathbb{M} \models x \in \hat{m}\}$  which don’t live in the domain of  $\mathbb{M}$ , it’s not at all clear that these bijections are relevant to the solution of (all versions of) Skolem’s Paradox. For the version of Skolem’s Paradox discussed in the last section, it’s unclear *how* these bijections are supposed to explain the difference in truth-value between  $\Omega_E(\hat{m})$  and  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(\hat{m})$  (while it’s quite clear how certain instances of “ $\in$ ” could do this explanatory work). Further, there are cases which involve the *same kind* of phenomena as Skolem’s Paradox where the corresponding bijections simply don’t exist. Given this, we should be cautious about insisting that Skolem’s Paradox has a single, uniform explanation which can be formulated in terms of quantifier ranges. Although such quantificational solutions work well in certain cases—e.g., the transitive model case—there are other solutions which work better when we turn to more complicated cases—e.g., the case discussed in section 4.

## 6 A Few Concluding Remarks

In the first five sections of this paper, I provided a tour through (some of) the mathematical issues involved in Skolem’s Paradox. I looked at what it takes to make this paradox “look plausible,” what we need to “solve” the paradox, what *different* solutions are appropriate for different versions of the paradox, etc. In this section, I want to step back and take a somewhat broader view. I’ll start by highlighting a few of the main points—both technical and philosophical—from the preceding sections. I’ll then examine what I take to be the main philosophical worry which the preceding discussion may have provoked.

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$\sigma \upharpoonright X = \text{Id}$ . Basically, the fact that  $\sigma$  is the identity in the “neighborhood” of  $\omega_1^{\mathbb{N}}$  ensures that “locally-definable” properties of  $\omega_1^{\mathbb{N}}$  will be absolute between  $\mathbb{N}$  and  $\mathbb{M}$  (and, for that matter, between either of these models and  $V$ ). With a little work, we can show that *all* of the properties listed on page 22 are absolute between  $\mathbb{N}$  and  $\mathbb{M}$ , when we put  $\omega_1^{\mathbb{N}}$  in place of our previous  $\hat{m}$ . In particular, then, “ $x = \omega$ ” and “ $x \in \omega \times \omega_1^{\mathbb{N}}$ ” will both be absolute.

<sup>51</sup>In fact, the solution of this puzzle follows our previous solution rather closely. By letting  $\mathbb{N}'$  be an end extension of  $\mathbb{N}$  and then setting  $\sigma \upharpoonright X = \text{Id}$ , we ensured that the vast majority of the symbols in  $\Omega(\omega_1^{\mathbb{N}})$  occur within subformulas that are absolute between  $\mathbb{N}$  and  $\mathbb{M}$ . This fact, together with the fact that  $\mathbb{N}$  and  $\mathbb{M}$  agree on the interpretation of their quantifiers, entails that any differences between  $\Omega_{\mathbb{N}}(\omega_1^{\mathbb{N}})$  and  $\Omega_{\mathbb{M}}(\omega_1^{\mathbb{N}})$  must be explained by ways these formulas interpret the usual three instances of “ $\in$ ”—i.e., the three instances highlighted in the “ $\in f$ ” clauses in the formulation of  $\Psi(f, x)$  on page 22.

From a technical perspective, there are two points I want to emphasize. First, it’s a lot harder to formulate a plausible-looking version of Skolem’s Paradox than it may seem to be at first. To make Skolem’s Paradox look plausible, we need to exercise some care in choosing the countable model in terms of which the paradox is formulated (in general, an arbitrary countable model of ZFC won’t do the job). We also need to think about just *how* we explicate our ordinary English notion of countability. Finally, we need to ensure that the choices we make with regard to these first two issues *fit together* appropriately: if, for instance, we use a model with a designated  $\in_{\hat{m}}$ -relation to formulate the paradox, then we need to explicate our notion of countability in terms of that relation. So, even getting a superficially plausible version of the paradox onto the table may require some careful technical work.

Second, Skolem’s Paradox isn’t *just* a puzzle concerning the interpretation of quantifiers. To be sure, there are some versions of the paradox which are best solved by looking at the way first-order models interpret quantification—e.g., the transitive submodel argument discussed in section 3. But, there are other versions of the paradox which require quite different solutions—e.g., the versions examined in sections 4–5. Given this, we should resist the idea that Skolem’s Paradox has a completely general explanation which can be formulated in terms of quantifier ranges. Indeed, if we’re really looking for a *general* solution to Skolem’s Paradox—a solution which applies to *all* formulations of that paradox—then I doubt we can find one which is much more specific than the “generic solution” of section 2.

Let me make a comment about this second point. For expository reasons, sections 3–5 focused on cases where we could pretty easily isolate the specific symbols whose interpretation served to “explain” Skolem’s Paradox (instances of “ $\exists x$ ” in 3, and instances of “ $\in$ ” in 4–5). I don’t, however, think that all cases are quite this simple. As we saw on page 3,  $\Omega(x)$  is an incredibly long formula, so there are many different symbols which can, in the context of specific models, “take the blame” for particular instances of Skolem’s Paradox. Further, there are cases where Skolem’s Paradox can’t be pinned on specific symbols at all—i.e., cases where the paradox turns on a complicated interplay between the interpretation of several different symbols.<sup>52</sup> So, unless we’re willing to accept a wildly disjunctive solution—potentially one with  $2^{\aleph_0}$  cases—I don’t think we can get a general solution to Skolem’s Paradox which is more specific than the one given in section 2.<sup>53</sup>

So much, then, for the technical issues. On the more philosophical side, there are also two points worth emphasizing. First, there shouldn’t be anything too surprising about Skolem’s Paradox. At a general level, we can isolate clear differences between the semantics of ordinary English set theory and the model-theoretic

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<sup>52</sup>To explore this possibility, the reader is encouraged to think through the case where  $\kappa$  is an inaccessible cardinal and  $\mathbb{M}$  is a countable elementary submodel of  $\langle V_\kappa, \in \rangle$ . Let  $\hat{m} = \aleph_{17}$ , and analyze the version of Skolem’s Paradox which results from the fact that  $\mathbb{M} \models \Omega[\hat{m}]$ .

<sup>53</sup>I do, however, think there’s a lot to learn from tracking Skolem’s Paradox through the details of various specific models. In doing so, we learn about the particular pathologies which give rise to things like Skolem’s Paradox, about the strengths and weaknesses of first-order formulations of set theory, and about the fine details of our (various) conceptions of cardinality. There are a lot of open questions here, and I encourage philosophers—or, at least, those philosophers who are as fascinated by Skolem’s Paradox as I am—to spend more time exploring this paradox in the context of specific models.

semantics of formulas like  $\Omega(x)$ —e.g., in their interpretation of symbols like “ $\in$ ” and “ $\exists$ ”—and we can see how Skolem’s Paradox turns on an equivocation between these two kinds of semantics. At a more local level, when we track these differences through the details of particular models, we can often isolate just which symbols really give rise to Skolem’s Paradox, and we can explain *how* the interpretation of these symbols gives rise to the paradox. Given all this, the paradox itself should no longer seem very puzzling.

Second, the argument of sections 4–5 should lead us to be cautious about any philosophical analysis of Skolem’s Paradox which focuses overmuch on quantification or which overemphasizes certain special cases of the paradox—e.g., the transitive submodel case. As we have seen, Skolem’s Paradox comes in many forms, and, even at the technical level, these different forms require different kinds of solutions. This point carries over to the philosophical level as well. It’s clear, for instance, that Skolem’s Paradox may lead us to ask difficult questions about things like the indefinite extensibility of the concept of set or the coherence of absolute notions of quantification, but I doubt very much that answers to these questions will enable us to provide a (complete) solution to the paradox itself. At best, they will help us to solve those instances of the paradox which most clearly turn on the interpretation of quantifiers. For philosophy, then, as much as for mathematics, a full solution to Skolem’s Paradox will have to focus on the fine-grained analysis of *many different* models of set theory (where these different models give rise to different philosophical questions).

These, then, are what I take to be the main points of the preceding discussion. I want to close by considering a worry which this entire discussion may have provoked. So far, I have treated Skolem’s Paradox as though it were an essentially *technical* matter. I started by taking both Cantor’s theorem and the Löwenheim-Skolem theorem at face value—by, that is, taking a naively realistic attitude towards the mathematics lying behind these two theorems—and I then tried to explain why, understood in this manner, the theorems don’t conflict with each other. In doing so, I felt perfectly free to make use of expressions like “the ordinary English understanding of membership,” “the real members of  $\hat{m}$ ,” “quantifiers which range over the *whole* set-theoretic universe,” etc.

The worry here is that this analysis might be a bit *too* naive. At the most basic level, this worry flows from simple incredulity at the idea that anything as strong as full classical set theory can simply be *presupposed* when solving puzzles like Skolem’s Paradox.<sup>54</sup> Moving deeper, our incredulity can be reinforced by recalling *other* philosophical puzzles about the interpretation of mathematical language—i.e., puzzles which call into question the determinacy of naive talk about things like “membership” or “the whole universe of sets.”<sup>55</sup> Finally, the entire development of twentieth-century set theory may seem to tell against my approach to Skolem’s Paradox. After all, the standard response to the classical paradoxes has been to move *away* from naive approaches to set theory and *toward* formal axiom systems (and especially first-order axiom systems).

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<sup>54</sup>In the literature, incredulity about appeals to our “ordinary English” understanding of set theory is often expressed in terms of opposition to “Platonism.” See [5], [10], [18], and [19] for some examples of this way of putting things.

<sup>55</sup>See [10] for an attempt to parley one of Benacerraf’s classical puzzles—that presented in [2]—into this kind of challenge to naively technical solutions to Skolem’s Paradox. See [21] for a similar argument based on Wittgensteinian considerations concerning the relationship between meaning and use.

Clearly, addressing these kinds of worries in any detail would lead us rapidly into deep waters. I don't plan to do that here. Indeed, I won't even try to develop these worries more completely or to track them through the relevant literature. Instead, I'll just make a few short remarks in defense of the kind of technical solution given in sections 2–5. For obvious reasons, I don't regard these remarks as a complete response to the above worries; at best, they constitute a gesture in the direction of such a response.

Let's begin by recalling the *point* of Skolem's Paradox. In theory, the paradox highlights a certain incoherence—or perhaps even an inconsistency—in our ordinary ways of thinking about set theory. More specifically, it purports to show that there is a conflict between the naive acceptance of Cantor's theorem and certain instances of the Löwenheim-Skolem theorem. Since the Löwenheim-Skolem theorem is, presumably, unassailable, this leads to the conclusion that Cantor's theorem should not be taken at face value—i.e., that we should view naive talk about “absolutely uncountable sets” as problematic and to be avoided.

Notice the order of argument here. We start with a naive acceptance of Cantor's theorem. (At the very least, we start with an open mind towards this theorem and towards the naive set theory which lies behind it.) We then formulate Skolem's Paradox. The paradox shows that there is a problem with our initial naiveté, and it forces us to abandon our original acceptance of “ordinary-English” formulations of set theory. In short: Skolem's Paradox does the philosophical work here, and the problematization of ordinary-English set theory is (part of) the philosophical payoff.

My concern, then, is that the worries we're now discussing effectively reverse this order of argument. They *start* with a rejection of ordinary-English set theory—start, that is, with the very thing that Skolem's Paradox is supposed to help us establish—and they then *use* this rejection as a means of defending Skolem's Paradox against certain technical challenges (e.g., those in sections 2–5). On this way of proceeding, however, it's hard to see how Skolem's Paradox still does any real philosophical work. On the surface, it's our initial worries—and whatever arguments may lie behind them—that do the real philosophical work; Skolem's Paradox just tags along for the ride.

Let me put this point another way. Anyone who comes to set theory with serious worries about the determinacy (or even the coherence) of ordinary talk about sets and membership will, *of course*, have corresponding worries about the solution to Skolem's Paradox which I developed in sections 2–5. But, they will also have *independent* worries about the notions of countability and uncountability (since these notions are, after all, defined in terms of the problematic notions of membership and quantification over the set-theoretic universe). As a result, there's no need for them to bring Skolem's Paradox into the discussion. Given their initial worries, they have direct arguments against naive talk about “absolutely uncountable sets,” and Skolem's Paradox becomes completely superfluous. In short: taking these kinds of worries seriously doesn't help to make Skolem's paradox more significant. On the contrary, it threatens to reduce the paradox to a mere technical side show.

Here's one more (and final) way of thinking about all this. To solve Skolem's Paradox, we need to show that there's no conflict between Cantor's theorem and the Löwenheim-Skolem theorem. But that's *all* we

need to do. We don't *also* have to solve every other problem in the philosophy of set-theory—i.e., we don't have to solve them *before* we can use words like “set” and “membership” to provide a solution to Skolem's Paradox. In saying this, I'm not trying to dismiss these other problems; I'm just emphasizing that they are, in fact, *other problems*.<sup>56</sup> When we focus resolutely on Skolem's Paradox itself—on the purported conflict between Cantor and Löwenheim—then we find that the technical analysis of sections 2–5 is exactly what we need to solve *this particular puzzle*. In the present context, that's all we need to do.

This, then, explains why I'm at least inclined towards a wholesale dismissal of the kinds of worries now under discussion. It's not that I think that these worries are trivial or misguided (some of them clearly aren't); it's just that I don't think that attending to these worries helps us to understand Skolem's Paradox itself (indeed, I think the worries tend to trivialize the paradox). Of course, I'm aware that I'm evading all of the argumentative details here: to really make these thoughts stick, I'd have to develop the above worries in far more depth and to explore their interaction with Skolem's Paradox in far more detail. But that is a project for another time. For now, I'll simply end with a final summary of this paper: there is no conflict between Cantor's theorem and the Löwenheim-Skolem theorem.

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<sup>56</sup>An analogy from ethics may be helpful here. Presumably, it's legitimate to discuss topics like abortion or just war theory without first solving the Liar Paradox and/or the problem of induction. This is true *even though* we may want to use the word “truth” in our ethical discussions and/or make some empirical generalizations. To think otherwise is to think that we need to solve *all* philosophical problems in order fruitfully discuss *any* of them. *That's* neither a reasonable nor a profitable standard for good philosophical discourse.

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