

01 **Chapter 9**
02 **Adding Modality to Ontic Structuralism:**
03 **An Exploration and Critique**
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07 **Stathis Psillos**
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13 *Everyone needs a little magic somewhere.*
14 *John Bigelow & Robert Pargeter [3]*

15 *Effective magic is transcendent nature.*
16 *George Eliot, Middlemarch*
17

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19 **9.1 Introduction**
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22 Ontic Structural Realism (OSR) gives ontic priority to structures over objects. In its
23 most extreme form (captured, admittedly, by a slogan) it states that “all that there
24 is, is structure” [6, p. 189]. If this is true, if there is nothing but structure(s) in the
25 world, the very idea of contrasting structure to non-structure loses any force it might
26 have. Actually, if the slogan is right, the very idea of characterising what there is as
27 *structure*—as opposed to anything else—becomes incoherent. Traditionally, char-
28 acterising something as a structure has made full sense—and has served excellent
29 scientific and philosophical purposes—precisely because structure was understood
30 as an entity with slots, which could be occupied by objects and whose individuation-
31 conditions involved objects only qua slot-fillers. If objects altogether go, whatever
32 remains can be called ‘structure’ only if we take ‘structure’ to be a term of art.

33 Well, Ontic Structuralists are happy to ‘mimic’ talk of non-structure, or objects
34 in particular, but they hasten to add that this mimicking does not imply any serious
35 metaphysical commitment to them. Here are a couple of characteristic passages:

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- 37 • The notion of objects should be reconceptualised in “purely structural terms”
38 [11, p. 37].
 - 39 • The objects play only “a heuristic role allowing for the introduction of the struc-
40 tures which then carry the ontological weight” [8, p. 204].
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I have criticised OS's abandonment of objects—as a distinct and separate ontic category—in my [21]. Steven French [9] has replied to this criticism. I think we have reached a stalemate. Can there be any progress in the debate?

In an attempt to pursue further my (hopefully constructive) criticism of OSR, I want to examine in some detail a key recent idea that seems to shape the very kernel of this view, viz., that structures are *modal*. Perhaps, James Ladyman is more explicit than French in requiring that structures display or possess primitive modality. He says: “the structure described by scientific theories is the modal structure of the phenomena”, adding (somewhat puzzlingly) that “the phenomena have structure but they are not structure” [15, pp. 73–74]. But French too intends to give structures causal power [9].

In Section 9.2, I argue that Ontic Structuralism has to work with a notion of structure that is meant to play two roles at once: it should be abstract enough to be independent of concrete physical systems (and hence shareable by distinct physical systems) and concrete enough to be part of the causal identity of physical systems. I then reveal the tensions there are in this mixed view. In Section 9.3, I take on a more moderate version of OS—advocated by Michael Esfeld—which identifies structure with causal structure. I then argue against the resulting causal structuralist view of the world. In Sections 9.4 and 9.5, I explore a natural way to modalise structure, viz., taking structures to be structural universals. I argue that, despite all *prima facie* advantages, this view inherits all problems that structural universals face and in particular the so-called ‘mereology or magic’ dilemma. In Section 9.6, I examine a *prima facie* plausible way to avoid this dilemma, which is based on the claim that there are certain spatial (or arrangement) universals that capture pure structure. I explain why this view fails to offer solace to ontic structuralism. I conclude that certain plausible attempts to modalise structure leave deep scars on ontic structuralism.

9.2 Adding Modal Force to Structures

There is an immediate problem with adding modal force to structures. If by ‘structure’ we mean *mathematical* structure, how can it be the locus of modality? To be sure, if mathematical structures exist at all, it is plausible to think that they exist necessarily. But there is where their modal status ends. Being abstract, mathematical structures cannot enter into causal relations; they cannot support counterfactual conditionals etc. In my [21], I borrowed several conceptions of structure from mathematical structuralism (*ante rem*, *in re*) and claimed that OSR, armed with a mathematical understanding of structure, is unable to accommodate causation. Hence the modal force of structures that OS advocates is under threat.

This reading of OSR was based on French's reading of structure as primarily group-theoretic [8] and [10] as well as on (repeated) claims of the form: “[T]he structural dissolution of physical objects leads to a blurring of the line between the mathematical and the physical” [11, p. 41]. In fact, the official position is mixed. Ladyman [16, p. 24] says:

91 The *ante rem* structuralism about mathematics defended by Stewart Shapiro among others,
 92 and the ontic structural realism about physics defended by Steven French and myself among
 93 others, are both metaphysical positions. They have in common the idea that relational
 94 structure is ontologically more fundamental than individual objects. There are of course
 95 important differences between them, the most essential of which is that ontic structural
 96 realism is a form of realism about the modal (causal or nomological) structure of the world,
 whereas *ante rem* structuralism is only concerned with mathematical reality.

97 French [9, p. 174] goes one step further by arguing that “the comparison with
 98 mathematical structuralism is misleading”. Here is how he thinks an OS should
 99 conceive of the matter:
 100

101 The quantum structure, say, does not exist independently of any exemplifying concrete sys-
 102 tem, as in the *ante rem* case, it is the concrete system! But that is not to say that such a
 103 structure is simply *in re*, because the ontic structural realist does not—or at least should
 104 not—accept that the system, composed of objects and relations is prior to the structure.
 105 Indeed, the central claim of OSR is that it is the structure that is both (ultimately) ontically
 106 prior and concrete.

107 I find this kind of claim *very* puzzling. To avoid vacuity, where talk about structures
 108 is just a roundabout way to talk about actual and concrete physical systems (like a
 109 hydrogen molecule, or a water molecule, or a pair of entangled electrons or what
 110 have you), OSR should work with a notion of structure that plays two roles. On
 111 the one hand, it should be abstract enough to be independent of concrete physical
 112 systems (so that it can be said that it is shared by distinct but structurally similar
 113 physical systems; it can be represented mathematically independently of the actual
 114 details of concrete physical systems and the like). On the other hand it should be
 115 such that it should be instantiated by (and hence be part of the identity of) concrete
 116 physical systems (so that it plays a role in making a physical system what it is; it
 117 contributes to the explanation of its causal role and the like). Given these two roles
 118 (more on this below), my feeling puzzled has to do with the fact that I simply can-
 119 not see how French’s claim above makes any headway in understanding how these
 120 two roles are actually fulfilled by structures as conceived by ontic structuralists.
 121 To put the point crudely, French seems to require a conception of structure which
 122 renders structures both concrete (qua particular spatiotemporal physical systems)
 123 and abstract (qua shareable by distinct physical systems). In any case, if structures
 124 are all there is, what are they said to be ontically prior to?

125 In my [21], I suggested that there might well be a certain understanding of OSR
 126 which does render structures modal. This is what John Hawthorne [13] has called
 127 ‘Causal Structuralism’. CS is the (popular) view that properties are identified via
 128 their causal profile, that is by the causal powers they confer on their possessors. This
 129 causal profile is a network of causal relations among properties. CS is *structuralism*
 130 because it denies quidditism, viz., the view that there is something to a property—
 131 a *quiddity*—over and above its causal profile, which makes this property what it
 132 is, independently of its causal profile, if indeed it has one. On the quidditist view,
 133 two properties may have the same causal profile and yet be distinct, because they
 134 have different quiddities. Denying quidditism, we may conceive of CS as the view
 135 that properties have no intrinsic nature over and above their causal profile. So, for

136 every property (i.e. for every non-logical or non-mathematical property), there *isn't*
 137 its causal role (profile) *and* whatever fills in (or plays) this role; there is *just* its
 138 causal role.

139 French is not entirely clear on CS, but he [9, p. 182] seems to be open to reading
 140 OSR as a version of CS. The official view, as it were, is that OSR can “appropriate”
 141 whatever the settled view is on whether properties are powers or not. He, then, goes
 142 on to say:

143
 144 What we are faced with is a choice between particular relations or kinds of relations having,
 145 as features, causal aspects particular to those relations or kinds and some form of underlying
 146 causal activity which imbues the relevant relations with causal powers. Granted that the
 147 former seems more clearly structuralist, I can't see why the second couldn't be incorporated
 148 as well.

149 This kind of move does not take us too far ahead. It is *one thing* to particu-
 150 larise causal activity to relations—denying that there is a generic causal activity
 151 underlying all relations—and it is quite another matter to endow relations with
 152 causal activities *in the first place*. The latter claim is presupposed by French in
 153 both options stated in the quotation above, and it is precisely this claim that is
 154 problematic. If relations are imbued with causal powers (idiosyncratic or generic),
 155 a story needs to be told as to how this is possible. These causal powers will
 156 either supervene on the causal powers of the properties of particulars or they will
 157 not. If they do so supervene, this move leads to causal structuralism *simpliciter*.
 158 If they do not supervene, they become mysterious: they are just posited so that
 159 the resulting relational structure has the required modal force. A story should,
 160 then, be told as to how they emerge and how they are what they are. Recall
 161 that, as French himself admits, what we are after is an account of how structures
 162 have causal powers; claiming that they actually *do* is nowhere near the required
 163 account.

164 Let me press this point a bit more. There are cases of relations that cannot be
 165 said to embody causal power or activity, for instance spatio-temporal relations.
 166 There are also the properties and relations of relations themselves, especially the
 167 quasi-logical ones, that cannot be imbued with causal activity, e.g., being reflexive
 168 or being asymmetric or being reducible to etc. More importantly for our purposes
 169 the (higher-order) relations that are supposed to capture the modal relations that are
 170 supposed to exist between properties and relations (e.g., metaphysical entailment,
 171 necessitation, exclusion etc.) cannot themselves be treated as embodying causal
 172 activity, on pain of circularity. Are they then identified in a non-causal way? This
 173 move would amount to attributing a kind of quiddity to them in opposition to the
 174 dicta of causal structuralism. Trying to move in between the horns of this dilemma,
 175 friends of causal structuralism (certainly Lowe and possibly Mumford) take these
 176 higher order relations to be *formal*. This characterisation might well place them
 177 in a special category *vis-à-vis* all other relations, but it is not clear at all what
 178 exactly it is attributed to these relations (what it is for them to be formal other than
 179 being second-order and non-causal) and what the independent motivation for this
 180 characterisation is.

181 There is perhaps a reason why French is not *so* keen on CS. Causal structuralism
 182 does not eliminate or avoid properties altogether. It dispenses with their quiddities,
 183 but, as a matter of fact, it accommodates properties and secures their existence and
 184 causal efficacy via their causal profile. Ontic structuralism would in fact require a
 185 kind of causal *hyperstructuralism* [13, p. 223], whereby causal profiles are *purely*
 186 structural as well. But then we end up with anything but a formal structure, with no
 187 modal profile at all.

188 What is absolutely clear is that the friends of OSR do *not* want to endorse hyper-
 189 structuralism. What is unclear is whether and how they might succeed in this. Writ-
 190 ing on related things, Ladyman [16, p. 39] raises the following worry: “If only (...)
 191 structural aspects of the mathematical formalism of physical theories are relevant to
 192 ontology in physics, then there is nothing to distinguish physical and mathematical
 193 structure”. His reply (*ibid.*, p. 40) however is deeply puzzling:

194 Physical structure exists, but what is it? What makes the world structure physical and not
 195 mathematical? Ladyman and Ross [17] advocate a kind of neo-positivism according to
 196 which when questions like this arise it is time to stop (...).

197 Refraining from asking a question does not eliminate the problem raised in it! One
 198 way to proceed might well be to try to see whether there can be a meaningful distinc-
 199 tion between mathematical structure and physical structure that can be raised *within*
 200 OSR. It will turn out that the problems faced by attempts to draw such a distinction
 201 are bigger than the possible benefits of drawing it. But it is worth exploring the
 202 options, before we pass a judgement.
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205

206 9.3 Causal (Hypo)structuralism

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208 There is, in the market, a moderate version of OSR, advocated by Michael Esfeld
 209 among others, according to which “physical structures are networks of concrete,
 210 qualitative physical relations among objects that are nothing but what stands is these
 211 relations, that is, do not possess an intrinsic identity over and above the relations in
 212 which they stand” [7, p. 180]. M-OSR, let’s call it, does not do away with objects
 213 altogether. One (certainly, I) may have qualms about what exactly it is for something
 214 to have ‘no intrinsic identity over and above the relations in which it stands’. I take
 215 it that this can only tell us *how many* objects there are, without saying a lot more
 216 about *what* they are. But let’s pass that over in silence. The key claim of interest is
 217 that M-OSR adopts Causal Structuralism and thereby promises to ground/explain
 218 the modal features of ontic structuralism. Indeed, Esfeld advertises his programme
 219 as filling a lacuna (this concerned with modality) in OSR [7, p. 180].

220 Before we discuss how the lacuna is filled and how successfully this is performed,
 221 let me raise a couple of preliminary points. The master argument for Causal Struc-
 222 turalism is anti-quidditism. More specifically, the standard rendition of the master
 223 argument is that if properties have quiddities, these will end up being unknowable.
 224 Indeed, Lewis has famously called this view ‘Ramseyan Humility’. Lewis is happy
 225 with the humility—hence, there is no problem with positing quiddities—but others

226 think that the cocktail Quidditism & Humility is poisonous. Hence, they deny Quid-
227 ditism, which implies Humility. I am not going to review this debate here, in the
228 interest of speed. Suppose, however, that quidditism is wrong (though I very much
229 doubt it). Esfeld (and others) think that Causal Structuralism avoids Quidditism. In
230 a sense, it does, since if all properties are powers, and if powers are individuated
231 by their causal profile only, there is no further issue of what makes a causal power
232 what it is. Nor is there room for positing an extra individuating factor which marks
233 the identity of the power independently of its causal profile. Two putative distinct
234 causal powers which have exactly the same causal profile are one and the same
235 property. Esfeld (and others) also think that Causal Structuralism avoids Humility.
236 In a sense, it does, since if all properties are powers, and if powers are the kind of
237 entities that cause things to happen, and if knowledge requires causal contact with
238 the thing known, knowledge of properties is *in principle* possible.

239 There is a certain sense, however, in which Causal Structuralism simply relocates
240 the quiddity. The identifying feature of a property is simply transformed from a local
241 individuating feature to a global feature of the causal network in which the property
242 participates. What is more, this global feature is no longer individuating! Let me
243 explain.

244 Causal Structuralism advances a holistic account of the individuation of proper-
245 ties. Strictly speaking, this is not necessary. There can be an ‘essentialist’ version of
246 CS according to which not all elements that are parts of a property’s causal profile
247 are essential to this property being what it is. On an essentialist causal structural-
248 ism, only some parts of the causal profile of a property P (perhaps some particular
249 relations to some other properties or some particular effects) fix the identity of P.
250 Though this *is* a genuine option, it is hard to defend it unless there is a natural
251 distinction to be drawn between the essential and the accidental parts of a causal
252 profile.

253 To the best of my knowledge, most causal structuralists are in favour of an anti-
254 essentialist holistic individuation of causal powers. In its clearest form, this posi-
255 tion is found in [19], but is also explicitly present in [5] and others. Mumford says
256 that “a property’s identity is fixed by the (causal) role it plays in relation to other
257 properties” but adds that though the identity of a property “is fixed by relations to
258 other properties, its existence has no ontological dependence on those properties
259 [19, p. 171]. Later on, he explains that he accepts holism, whereby “the world is a
260 single whole, composed of properties whose essence and identity are determined by
261 their place in that whole” [19, p. 184]. And again: “the properties that are real in a
262 world must (...) form an interconnected web: a system with no property standing
263 alone or outside”.

264 If this image is taken seriously, a property cannot be identified, unless what all
265 other properties to which it is related are has already been specified; that is, unless
266 all other properties have already been identified. But since this tangle arises for *any*
267 property whatever, it follows that no property can be identified unless some other
268 properties have already been identified, and because of this, no property can be
269 identified *simpliciter*. All we get, at best, is a web of causal profiles, but no other
270 way to tell how the several parts of the web are related to (or flow from) certain

271 properties. This way to understand the identity of properties was motivated, at least
 272 partly, by an attempt to avoid the supposedly mysterious quiddities qua unknowable
 273 metaphysical identifiers of properties. Nothing much is gained by replacing them
 274 with a more mysterious holistic network of relations among properties, which is
 275 supposed to confer identity on properties, without in the end identifying any of
 276 them. Quiddities are not dispensed with; they become a global *totalitas*.

277 Hawthorne discusses a version of this problem and notes that it is not too disturb-
 278 ing. His idea is this. Take all the laws that characterise all properties in the world and
 279 express them in a lawbook. Then use the Ramsey-Lewis technique to Ramsify away
 280 the properties, by replacing each property-name by a distinct variable and prefixing
 281 the resulting open sentence with an equal number of existential quantifiers. Call this,
 282 Hawthorne says “the Ramsified lawbook”. He then [13, p. 220] adds:

283

284 We can now articulate causal structuralism very easily, and whatever its merits, we cannot
 285 be accused of vicious circularity. Since the variable ‘F1’ replaced [property name] A, we
 286 can give a theory of the individual essence of A by the open sentence you get by dropping
 287 the existential quantifier prefixing ‘F1’. According to causal structuralism, it is a necessary
 288 truth that anything that satisfies that open sentence is identical to A. Generalizing, the causal
 289 structuralist will say that any natural property can be defined by a suitable open sentence
 290 delivered by the Ramsified lawbook for that property.

290

291 Fair enough! But this strategy won’t take us very far if *all* properties are taken to
 292 be structurally identified powers that are Ramsified away. For if all properties are
 293 identified by their relations to all other properties and all properties are Ramsified
 294 away, nothing will be left to tell us what these properties are. The suitable open sen-
 295 tence delivered by the Ramsified lawbook for a certain existentialised away property
 296 will include all other existentialised away properties; hence it will not specify any of
 297 them. All it will succeed in identifying is the whole network of properties that satisfy
 298 the Ramsified lawbook, without identifying any of them in particular. Here again,
 299 we get, at best, a *totalitas* (the Ramsified lawbook) and a specification of properties
 300 in relation to it. But if everything is Ramsified, even this relative specification will
 301 leave us in the dark as to what property is what. There is a way out, of course, and
 302 this is to keep some part of the lawbook unRamsified. But this would imply that at
 303 least some properties get their identity in a different manner.

304 *Mutatis mutandis*, the same goes for Alexander Bird’s attempt to disarm the prob-
 305 lem with holistic individuation noted above. He favours a graph-theoretic account
 306 of the relations among causal powers (or potencies, as he prefers to call them).
 307 The details need not detain us here. The relevant point is that according to Bird
 308 if the relations that structure the fundamental properties have certain features or
 309 characteristics—they are asymmetric, non-irreflexive relations—then the properties
 310 so structured can be individuated. As he [4, p. 142] put it:

311

312 Thus if we consider that the fundamental properties are structured by the asymmetric, non-
 313 irreflexive relation between a power and its essential manifestation property, then we can
 314 see that there could be any number of fundamental properties, represented by the vertices
 315 on directed graphs that may contain loops.

316 There is no disagreement with what Bird asserts. However, the nodes in the holistic
 317 causal network are told apart from each other because (and only when) the net-
 318 work is of a certain sort: the relations that structure it have certain properties which
 319 are individuated non-structurally and independently of their causal role (though it
 320 is doubtful that they have a causal role in the first place). To put the point a bit
 321 provocatively, causal structuralism (of the sort discussed so far) does offer indi-
 322 viduation conditions for causal powers that acquire their identity by their place in
 323 a network of causal profiles, provided that *some* properties or relations (or, indeed,
 324 the network itself), get their identity independently of their place in this network.
 325 Actually, for causal structuralism to get off the ground, causation itself must be a
 326 relation which is identified independently of its role in a causal network. But this is
 327 a different story. The bottom line is that Causal Structuralism ends up being causal
 328 *hypostructuralism*.

329 Mumford [19, pp. 186–187] appeals to a standard move, which is common to all
 330 friends of powers. This is that some powers are, ultimately, identified by the effects
 331 they have on us and our sensory modalities in particular. He [19, p. 187] says:

332 We are able to interact with properties. Among the effects they have in their cluster of causal
 333 powers, are the effects they have on us, namely their phenomenal appearance. We can thus
 334 know properties either by the phenomenal appearance they cause in us or by the phenomenal
 335 appearance on us of other effects they cause. Some of the relations borne by properties are
 336 thus experienced and in this way we are able to break into the circle of interdefinability for
 337 the nature of a property.

338 In a similar fashion, Chakravartty [5, p. 136] says:

339 Every case of warranted causal property attribution is facilitated by some properties that are
 340 known independently of a knowledge of their further effects. These latter property instances
 341 are the direct objects of our perceptions.

342
 343 There is no doubt that *some* properties have effects on us. But if we took a property's
 344 effects on us to give us privileged access to the identity of a property—assuming
 345 we can tell which property has what effects on us—the very idea that a property
 346 is identified by its relations to all other properties to which it is related would be
 347 threatened. As noted already, some such relations would become the essential iden-
 348 tifiers. We would therefore end up with essentialist causal structuralism. To sum up
 349 my first preliminary point, there is a sense in which Causal structuralism replaces
 350 *quiddity* with *totalitas*. And there is also a sense in which this is avoided only by
 351 retreating to causal *hypostructuralism*.

352 My second preliminary point is that there is also a sense in which CS replaces
 353 Humility with Audacity *only in name*. The friends of CS take pride in claiming that
 354 if properties are powers, they are in principle knowable; hence Humility is avoided.
 355 Esfeld sums up this sentiment by saying that on CS “what the properties are can in
 356 principle be discovered via the effects they produce” [7, p. 184]. If CS holds sway
 357 on all properties, Humility (associated with quidditism) is replaced by Audacity:
 358 *all* properties can be known. Even without a lot of reflection, this claim appears
 359 too strong. The chains by means of which causal properties are detected (and
 360 hence known) are long, complicated and sometimes devious. Some properties—to

361 remote causally, or too shielded by other causal properties—might not be known,
 362 even if CS is true. On reflection, however, things are worse. Given the problem
 363 identified above concerning the individuation of properties, it might well turn out
 364 that even if the total network of causal profiles—what I called *totalitas*—might be
 365 knowable, what properties play what role *within* this totality might not be know-
 366 able after all—unless the nexus of interdependent and interconnected properties is
 367 broken at several places (e.g., at the level of phenomenal effects on humans) in
 368 such a way that among the several effects that a property has, the effect that has
 369 on us is singled out as *the* identifier of this property. Not only is CS in danger
 370 of being abandoned. More importantly, humility is still with us, despite claims to
 371 the opposite, for all those properties that are not fortunate enough to yield effects
 372 on us.

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374

375 9.4 The Abstract and the Causal

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377 These, I am afraid, are preliminary skirmishes. The key battle is still to come. At
 378 stake is Esfeld’s claim that CS can make good on the OS promise to modalise struc-
 379 ture. He [7, p. 185] declares: “the fundamental physical structures are causal in
 380 themselves so that there is no need to postulate underlying causal properties”. And
 381 he (*ibid.*, p. 187) adds:

382

383 if the fundamental physical structures are modal structures, being the power to produce
 384 certain effects, then (...) any difference in the fundamental structures, accounting for there
 385 being two different types of arrangements of fundamental structures in two possible worlds,
 386 automatically leads to some difference in the effects that these structures produce and
 387 thereby also to some difference in the domain of observable phenomena.

387

388 The thought here is that different structures produce different effects and in partic-
 389 ular different observable effects. This, however, does not seem quite right. Take
 390 Newtonian mechanics, where $\mathbf{F} = m\mathbf{a}$, and compare it with a reformulation of it,
 391 according to which \mathbf{F} is always the vector sum of two more basic forces \mathbf{F}_1 and \mathbf{F}_2 .
 392 Suppose further that \mathbf{F}_1 and \mathbf{F}_2 are such that they sustain each other and can act
 393 only in tandem to produce acceleration. Suppose further that \mathbf{F}_1 and \mathbf{F}_2 have no
 394 other effects. We have two modally-laden structures which are non-isomorphic but,
 395 nonetheless, empirically equivalent.

396 Indeed, it is only by fiat that CS can block the following from being a genuine
 397 possibility. Two properties A and B act in tandem to generate a certain causal pro-
 398 file Q . Suppose, further, that A or B , taken individually, do not have any further
 399 causal role. Causal structuralism entails that, all else being equal, a world W_1 with
 400 A & B having causal profile Q would be identical with a world W_2 in which a *single*
 401 property C has causal profile Q . We may never be able to figure out whether we
 402 live in W_1 or W_2 , but to make sense of this metaphysical difference we need to go
 403 beyond causal roles.

404 Still, the main thought remains: CS can make OSR more attractive by taking
 405 physical structures to be genuinely causal, their essence being their power to pro-

406 duce certain effects. Esfeld takes it that one of the advantages of this move is that
 407 the distinction between mathematical and physical structure is no longer blurred. In
 408 what follows, I shall argue that Esfeld's blending of ontic structuralism with causal
 409 structuralism is misplaced.

410 Concrete structures are best seen as relational systems—that is systems of entities
 411 having properties and standing in certain definite relations to each other. As such,
 412 they are concrete systems, located in space and time. They can stand in causal rela-
 413 tions to other systems, where, as a rule, these causal relations are determined, at least
 414 partly, by the properties and relations of the elements of the relational system. They
 415 have a structure in the sense that they have a certain spatial-geometric arrangement.
 416 Their unity—qua concrete relational systems—is causal-nomological.

417 Qua concrete structures, relational systems can share structure; they can instanti-
 418 ate a common structure. In fact, two or more distinct relational systems fall under the
 419 same *type* partly because they share structure. Two or more water molecules—qua
 420 concrete relational systems—are *water* molecules precisely because they have the
 421 structure of a water molecule, which is a type of structure distinct from other types
 422 of structure not just on the basis of the elements that compose it but also on the
 423 basis of their structural properties. The structure or form of a water molecule is an
 424 abstract entity. It is shareable among distinct (and spatially separated) particulars.
 425 Unlike a concrete water molecule, it has slots—which can be occupied by distinct
 426 elements. Structure, in general, is like a universal which is instantiated in many
 427 particulars. It is an one over the many; a recurring and repeatable characteristic of
 428 distinct particulars.

429 The question then, as already noted in Section 9.2, is: how can this structure—
 430 qua *abstract*—be modal? How can it have modal features? Can it stand in causal
 431 relations? Can it support counterfactuals? If we think of structures as universals,
 432 that is properties, it transpires that they can be both abstract and modal. Properties,
 433 qua universal, are abstract—they are not concrete; they are shareable by many par-
 434 ticulars; they are not 'in' space and time in the way particulars are—and yet they
 435 are causal in that they can and do cause things to happen. They can also stand in
 436 nomological relations, relations of counterfactual dependence and the like. At least
 437 this is what a lot of realists about properties qua universals think. But what kind of
 438 universals could structures be?

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 440

441 9.5 Structural Universals to the Rescue?

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443 The most natural suggestion is that qua universals, structures should be taken to be
 444 *structural universals*. Structural universals have been explicitly introduced in order
 445 to account for the sharing of structure among particulars. They have been seen as
 446 universals of structure. Bigelow and Pargeter [3, p. 82], for instance, say:

447

448 Chemical compounds are structures which are formed from the elements. The property
 449 of *having* such a structure is a universal which is related in quite distinctive ways to the
 450 universals which determine the elements. It is a *structural* universal.

451 And David Lewis [18, p. 82], while opposing the idea of structural universals, admits
452 that a good reason for admitting structural universals is to explain “structural resem-
453 blance as the sharing of universals”. The key idea is that the fact that distinct partic-
454 ulars are composed of similar parts which are arranged in a similar way—that is the
455 very idea of sharing structure—might be explained by positing structural universals.

456 Structural universals are *universals*—they are repeatable and recurring features
457 of the world; they are instantiated by spatio-temporally distinct particulars; they are
458 in some non-spatial sense ‘in’, or ‘part of’, the particulars that instantiate them.
459 Structural universals are *structural*: they have other universals as parts (again in
460 non-spatio-temporal sense) and the particulars that instantiate them have proper
461 spatio-temporal parts in which the universals that are ‘parts’ of the structural univer-
462 sal are instantiated. *Methane* is a standard example. A methane molecule is made of
463 one carbon atom and four hydrogen atoms, arranged in a certain spatial way. The
464 bonds between the carbon atom and the hydrogen atoms are co-valent. *Methane*
465 molecules—actual particulars—are supposed to instantiate the methane universal.
466 This is a structural universal in that its components (in a non-spatio-temporal sense)
467 are two monadic universals (being carbon, being hydrogen) and a dyadic universal
468 (being bonded). Actually, within a concrete particular structure which is a methane
469 molecule (by virtue of instantiating the universal *Methane*), the universal *Hydrogen*
470 is instantiated four times, the universal *Carbon* is instantiated once, and the universal
471 *Bonded* is instantiated four times. We will come to the difficulties that this generates
472 in a moment, but for the time being let us explore the idea that *Methane*—*qua* struc-
473 tural universal—is both abstract *and* modally laden. There is a pattern of entailments
474 such that, for instance, when the universal *Methane* is instantiated, the universal
475 *Hydrogen* is instantiated too. There is also a pattern of exclusions such that, for
476 instance, when the universal *Carbon* is instantiated as part of *Methane*, the universal
477 *polar bond* is not instantiated. Besides, the very idea of structural universals, allows
478 for the possibility that there is ‘structure’ all the way down; that is, that there are no
479 simple universals at all.

480 This kind of account can capture Esfeld’s view that physical structures are causal.
481 It’s *not* part of the theory of structural universals that properties are powers, but there
482 is no incompatibility here at all. So coupled with causal structuralism, structural
483 universals can account for “the essence of a causal structure” being “in the power
484 to produce certain effects [7, p. 188] while at the same time ground the obvious
485 fact that causal structures—*qua* structures—are shareable. Esfeld, to be sure, talks
486 of *fundamental* physical structures and focuses his attention on quantum structures
487 of entanglement. But I take it that this is a side issue. There is no principled problem
488 in applying the theory of structural universals to quantum systems, and conversely
489 staying at the level of molecular structures does not detract from the fact that there
490 is a way to accommodate modal features to structures by going for structural uni-
491 versals.

492 An advantage of going for structural universals is that there might be a way to
493 explain sameness of structure in terms of isomorphism. Particular concrete systems
494 can be said to be isomorphic to the structural universal they instantiate. Besides,
495 particular concrete systems can share the same structure by instantiating the same

496 structural universal. This can be explained, as Armstrong does it, by a process of
 497 abstraction. We start from concrete physical systems, e.g., methane molecules and
 498 proceed by abstracting away the particulars. What thereby remains is a pattern of
 499 interrelated universals. This is a structural universal which can be described, as
 500 Armstrong [2, p. 432] put it, as “an individual that is a carbon atom, four further
 501 individuals that are hydrogen atoms, and where . . . etc. etc.”.

502 This cannot be quite right. The universals that constitute the structural universal
 503 occur once in it. The universal *Hydrogen*, for instance, is one; it might be instan-
 504 tiated four times in the methane molecule, but this does not mean that it occurs
 505 four times in the *Methane* universal—if it did, universal *Hydrogen* would not be a
 506 proper universal. Lewis [18], who identified this problem first, noted that structural
 507 universals defy mereology. He then presented the friends of structural universals
 508 with a dilemma: either structural universals have literally other universals as proper
 509 *parts*, but then they cannot be isomorphic to their instances, or structural universal
 510 are mereologically atomic but then it becomes magical how they share structure
 511 with the particulars that instantiate them; how, in particular, they impose a certain
 512 structure on the proper parts of the particulars that instantiate them.

513 There are various ways in which the friends of structural universals have replied
 514 to this dilemma, but the bottom line is to claim that structural universals have a *sui*
 515 *generis* non-mereological constitution. Armstrong captured this, at least partly, by
 516 denying that structural universals have parts—as opposed to *constituents*. He also
 517 toyed with the idea that the non-relational constituents of a structural universal are
 518 *particularising* universals, that is they are such that we can speak of them as having
 519 universals as instances—for instance, *Hydrogen* is a particularising universal in that
 520 it can have four hydrogen universals as instances in the structural universal *Methane*
 521 [1, p. 88]. Lewis called “amphibians” these particularised denizens of structural
 522 universals and claimed, quite correctly I think, that positing them makes things a
 523 lot more complicated. For instance, how many universals of *Hydrogen* do we now
 524 have? One? One plus all the particularised instances?

525 Bigelow and Pargeter, on the other hand, argued that a structural universal *R*
 526 is a relational property of a particular, where the relational property is such that it
 527 stands in “a pattern of internal relations of proportion to other properties [3, p. 88].
 528 Accordingly, the structural universal *Methane*

529
 530 relates the molecule to various properties. These properties are being carbon, being hydro-
 531 gen, being bonded. Being methane, then, is to be identified with a highly conjunctive
 532 second-order relational property of an individual (molecule): the property of having a part
 533 which has the property of being hydrogen, and having a part which is distinct from the first
 534 part which has the property of being hydrogen, and.. [3, p. 87].

535 Still, this is supposed to be a non-mereological mode of composition, which is
 536 characterised by a pattern of essential internal relations among properties and rela-
 537 tions. Part of the problem with this move has to do with the appeal to essentialism.
 538 It should be accepted as a primitive (modal) fact that there is an essential relation
 539 between *being methane* and *being carbon*. This is already magical enough. But
 540 as Katherine Hawley [12] has noted, even if this were granted, it does not follow

541 from it that there is a link between the thus understood structural universal *being*
 542 *methane* and the patterns of co-instantiation of the universals *Carbon*, *Hydrogen*
 543 and *Bonded* that characterises a *Methane* molecule. In other words, that *Methane*
 544 essentially involves *Carbon*, *Hydrogen* and *Bonded* related by internal relation *R*
 545 does not, as it stands, explain why a particular methane molecule has the structure
 546 it does.

547 The problem that Lewis has identified is that there should be a nontrivial expla-
 548 nation of how the structural universal shares structure with the particular it is instan-
 549 tiated in. This problem becomes more acute when we consider cases in which two
 550 structural universals which are ‘made of’ the same universals are structurally dis-
 551 tinct. The standard example is butane and isobutane. Butane molecules are made up
 552 of four carbon atoms, ten hydrogen atoms and thirteen co-valent bonds in a particu-
 553 lar configuration. Isobutane (methylpropane) molecules consist of exactly the same
 554 atoms as butane but in a different configuration. *Butane* and *Isobutane* have the
 555 same components (the simple universals *carbon*, *hydrogen* and *bonded*); the same
 556 number of instances of these universals; and yet they differ in structure because their
 557 components are combined in different ways. Their molecular diagrams are given in
 558 Figs. 9.1 and 9.2.

559 Cases such as these suggest that distinct structural universals can be composed
 560 of exactly the same parts and this defies the principle that the parts determine the
 561 whole (and in particular the same parts-same whole principle). This is known as the
 562 Principle of Uniqueness of Composition (PUC): given some parts, there is only one
 563 whole they can compose. Lewis adheres to this principle and hence denies structural
 564 universals. Armstrong, on the other hand, accepts structural universals and defies
 565 PUC arguing that states of affairs violate it anyway. [Take a non-symmetrical rela-
 566 tion *R* and two particulars *a* and *b*. PUC suggests that there is only one mereological
 567 sum with these three as parts, but state of affairs *Rab* is different from state of affairs
 568 *Rba*. So states of affairs violate PUC.]

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Fig. 9.1 Molecular diagram of Butane

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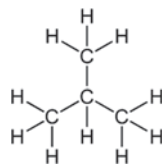
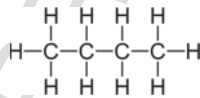
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Fig. 9.2 Molecular diagram of Isobutane

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9.6 Arrangement Universals

But there is a different way to proceed, which is relevant to our current concerns. This has been explored by Javier Kalhar [14]. If you think of it, *Butane* and *Isobutane* are different because they instantiate different spatial arrangements, or better, different bonding arrangements. This is obvious by the molecular diagrams above. Kalhat's idea is that *Butane* and *Isobutane* are different structural universals because they involve—as parts—different arrangement universals, alongside the universals *Carbon*, *Hydrogen* and *Bonded*. These arrangement universals are *being butane-like structured* and *being isobutane-like structured*. That *being butane-like structured* is a universal is obvious since it can be instantiated—qua spatial arrangement—not just by carbon atoms and the like but by anything whatever. (Similarly for *being isobutane-like structured*.) But *being butane-like structured* is also shared by all butane molecules. It explains their structural similarity and also the difference between butane molecules and isobutene molecules. Arrangement universals are, to be sure, second-order universals; more specifically, second order relations over first order relational (*Bonded*) and non-relational (*Carbon*, *Hydrogen*) universals. But this is not a problem that needs to give us pause. What's interesting is that these arrangement universals can be seen as the product of a double abstraction. First, the particulars are abstracted away (and we get the structural universal, *à la* Armstrong); second, the first-order universals are abstracted away, and we get a spatial structure, viz., the *pure* structure of the structural universal. So the arrangement universal *being butane-like structured* could be represented as follows:



If arrangement universals are parts of structural universals, it follows that PUC above need not be violated. Structural universals can be distinct because they have as parts distinct arrangement universals. In this sense, the structure of the structural universal is part of its very constitution; it contributes to making it what it is and to what modal features it has. This account seems to suit particularly well Esfeld's approach, according to which physical structure is modally laden. It also helps explaining how "different types of arrangements of fundamental structures" lead to some difference in the effects they have [7, p. 187].

Admitting spatial universals is a step forward in this debate at least in the sense that we can now think of the *structure* of a structural universal as something repeatable and shareable. It is instantiated by the particular that instantiates the structural universal, but it is also instantiated by other particulars. It is a genuine one over the many. Besides, it can be instantiated by distinct types of particulars, making sense of the claim that, for instance, a methane molecule and a toy-model arrangement with spheres and pegs can share structure (thereby explaining how the

631 toy-model can represent the structure of the methane molecule). More importantly,
632 being a universal, it can embody modality; it can enter into causal or nomological
633 relations etc.

634 We therefore seem to have a conception of physical structure (qua structural uni-
635 versal) which is both abstract (repeatable, recurring, shareable) *and* modal. But there
636 is bad news too: we are not yet done with the mereology vs magic problem. Spatial
637 universals—structures—have slots alright, but they are ‘filled in’ by other universals
638 many times over. This is not quite right, since the universal *Hydrogen*, for instance,
639 is one and not the 10 particularising instances or whatever required to ‘fill in’ the
640 butane-like structure. *Butane* and *isobutane* do differ because they have different
641 structural parts (spatial universals), but we still do not get isomorphism with partic-
642 ular molecules, since a particular butane molecule, for instance, has 10 hydrogen
643 atoms, whereas the universal *Butane*, alongside the *being butane-like structured*
644 universal, has one *Hydrogen* as its part (since *Hydrogen*, qua universal, is one and
645 not ten).

646 It follows that an appeal to spatial universals cannot ultimately offer a mereolog-
647 ical account of the relations between the structural universal and the particular that
648 instantiates it. It can certainly explain why PUC need not be violated if two or more
649 universals have some of their parts the same, provided they differ in their structure
650 (in their arrangement universals). But it fails to explain the relation between the
651 structural universal and the particular in which it is instantiated as one of isomor-
652 phism.

653 There is a further problem with spatial universals in particular, which would
654 remain even if all other problems disappeared. This is that there is no clear sense in
655 which they can be seen as powers or as embodying power. If anything, arrangement
656 (spatial) universals should be seen as categorical properties, capturing structural
657 arrangements among universals. What is more, a spatial universal (a certain geo-
658 metrical arrangement, let us say, qua structural universal) is not a physical structure
659 in the sense that a concrete molecule is. It could be isomorphic to a concrete physical
660 structure, if all of the above problems were indeed resolved, but the isomorphism
661 would not hold between two physical structures, but rather between a concrete phys-
662 ical structure (e.g., a concrete molecule) and a structure such that it would much
663 more plausible to think of it as a geometrical structure.

664 Trying to disarm Lewis’s criticism of structural universals, Hawley [12] has
665 recently claimed that the dilemma ‘mereology or magic’ is false. She explored a
666 different way forward, arguing that there is space for “a non composition relation” of
667 the structural universal by its constituents. The details of her way forward are inter-
668 esting, exploring the possibility of viewing composition as partial identity. But when
669 it comes to the crunch (how does a structural universal impose a certain structure on
670 the parts of the particulars that instantiate it?), what she says is rather puzzling. She
671 says:

672 Perhaps there is sense in which *being methane*, *being butane*, and being isobutene stand in a
673 different relations to the same parts (*being carbon*, *being hydrogen* and a bonding relation).
674 What relations? Well, those relations that underpin the relevant patterns of co-instantiation.
675

676 She does admit that this is not terribly illuminating, but adds that for friends of
 677 structural universals the difference between *Butane* and *Isobutene* is not brute; they
 678 can see this difference “as grounded in the different relations each universal bears
 679 to its parts” [12, p. 129].

680 But why should that be so? Why should it be the case that the relations that
 681 “underpin the relevant patterns of co-instantiation” are exactly the relations that
 682 structure the structural universal? Without further explanation, it seems we are being
 683 asked to accept this in the spirit of natural piety.

684 There have been indeed other attempts to characterise structural universals. Arm-
 685 strong, in his later work [2], has characterised them as *types* of states of affairs.
 686 Pagès [20] has criticised this view and has gone for an account of structural uni-
 687 versals in terms of formal relations among first-order properties and relations. But
 688 Pagès’s account seems, in the end, to replace structural universals with structures of
 689 universals [2, p. 432], the idea being that the unity of the structural universal is lost.

690

691

692 9.7 Concluding Thoughts

693

694 Structural universals, combined with the claim that properties are causal powers,
 695 were meant to offer a way to explain how physical structures have modal force
 696 while at the same time are abstract and shareable among the particulars that instan-
 697 tiate them. This kind of avenue had not been explored so far. But despite its initial
 698 promise, it stumbles over important problems that structural universals face. The key
 699 problem is that though structure is meant to represent by isomorphism, structural
 700 universals fail to do that, despite some ingenious attempts to make them succeed.
 701 This has a direct bearing on the modest version of ontic structuralism, which aligns
 702 ontic structuralism with causal structuralism and aims to pin modality on physical
 703 structure. I am not claiming there are no other ways to think of physical structure.
 704 What I *am* claiming, however, is that if we take talk of physical structure *seriously*—
 705 if that is, we think of structure as a universal of a sort, recurring and repeatable and
 706 being instantiated by different concrete relational systems—thinking of it along the
 707 lines of structural universals is both natural and initially promising. If the arguments
 708 above hold any water, the promise is not fulfilled.

709

710 There is a certain optimism around that causal structuralism is the right way to
 711 think of properties. Esfeld [7, p. 192] sums it up thus:

712

713 The metaphysics of causal properties holds hence all the way down from common sense
 714 including the experience of ourselves as agents in the world via the special sciences to fun-
 715 damental physics. It therefore provides for a complete and coherent view of the world that
 716 reaches from fundamental physics via biology to psychology and to the social sciences. The
 717 argument for the metaphysics of causal properties, taking, as physics teaches us, the form
 718 of a metaphysics of causal structures, cannot simply be that it is anchored in common sense.
 719 The argument is that it leads to a complete and coherent view of the world, including all the
 720 domains of empirical science, and avoiding a gap between metaphysics and epistemology
 by not having to postulate that there is something in the world whose essence is a pure
 quality that can in principle not be known because it does not make any difference.

721 If what was said above has any grain of truth, there are important cracks in the causal
 722 structuralist ‘complete and coherent view of the world’. Indeed, there are cracks in
 723 the structuralist metaphysics anyway.

724

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