

APPENDIX D : TERMS USED IN SIEP -- LOGIC

This appendix consists of two main parts:

1. Fifty-six passages from SIEP, most of which specifically mention logic. The few that do not can be taken to illuminate Anderson's view of logic.
2. An index to these passages.

This index involves numerous duplications. It aims --

- (a) to guide any reader of Anderson's work to some of the most significant passages which discuss or mention logic;
- (b) to draw attention to the wide variety of claims Anderson made about logic; and
- (c) through the categorisation of some of this material, to assist in the understanding of his conception of logic as some kind of (dialectical) ~~method~~ of inquiry.

It is not claimed that the listings in this index are in any sense complete. The reason for the somewhat overgenerous duplication of entries is that it facilitates the location of passages and cross-references.

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- 3 But I take empiricism as central, as giving the best general description of the philosophy which the other terms partially convey, because the issue which it raises and which it disputes with rationalism, is fundamental to logic, being concerned with truth itself. In the discussion of this issue the ways in which more detailed issues should be dealt with, will in some degree appear.
- 5 Thus empiricism regards it as illogical to make such distinctions as that between existence and subsistence, or between the "is" of identity, that of predication and that of membership of a class; and still more obviously illogical to say that there *is* something defective about "is" itself.
- 6 Discourse depends on what the parties to it *believe*. If you deny what I assert, I may try to prove it by means of other propositions you admit; if we both agree on some propositions, we may set out to see what follows from them; if we are doubtful about any proposition, we may test it by its consequences. In general, discourse is possible when and only when persons come together who (a) agree about something, (b) either disagree, or wish to inquire, about something else. This position itself implies a common logic of assertion, implication and, I should add, definition. Apart from that logic, actual beliefs and observations are all that can be appealed to, and without them the process could not go on. Each of us (not excluding those who take a false view of logic) directs his inquiries and establishes his conclusions, in greater or less disagreement with others, by means of this mechanism of individual statements and particular inferences.

- 8 The logic of application is simply the logic of syllogism; and if a geometrical theorem and a physical observation together imply the contradictory of a physical observation, we are as much entitled to question the theorem as to reject the observations.
- 20 But the point can equally well be put by saying that any theory of the kind is illogical, since it can only be upheld by the making of statements of supposed fact.
- 28 It is thus seen to be logically necessary to hold that, in knowledge, "the knower is not the known".
- 29 A strictly realist theory must dispense with all expressions of these sorts, in order to be consistent with its empirical starting-point and logical basis.
- 37 [re elliptical penny; *logic* not mentioned] Any such judgment will be either correct or mistaken; but correction will only occur by means of judgments of the same order.
- 40 In short, the foundation of the realist position is logical, and if this logic is not impugned, then, whatever the difficulties of any special problem, it must be capable of being worked out in accordance with that logical basis. A theory of "sensa" or of "consciousness" could not be accepted merely because it enabled us to give a simple account of some limited range of facts. It would sooner or later be found to conflict with a logic of propositions; while that logic itself assists us to give a definite theory of the nature of "subjects" and of any particular class of "objects".
- 48 The second and longer part of the *Parmenides* shows the overthrow of Eleaticism by means of the same logic as the Eleatics had used against the Pythagoreans; but this is because it is a commonsense logic, a logic of events, that logic, in fact, which is involved in all discussion and criticism.
- 53 Thus the realistic rejection of "constitutive relations" develops into the empirical recognition of a single way of being, that, namely, of observable things -- *existence*; and the position finally appears as that of a positive and pluralistic logic of events.
- 53 It was fitting that, in the development of such a logic as far as Plato was able to carry it, honourable mention should be made of the names of Parmenides, Zeno and Socrates, since they had all contributed to the working out of the propositional method, though none of them had seen its incompatibility with "ultimates" and all of them had opposed the Heraclitean theory of a single historical order.
- 53 Realism appears finally as a positivist doctrine, a logic of propositions or events; and this brings it into conflict with every theory of degrees of truth and reality.
- 54 The scientist, in so far as he recognises facts and a pluralistic order of events, is in a stronger position than the teleologist. But when he falls short in his logic, divides matters of certainty from matters of uncertainty and makes "probability" the guide of life, when, in fact, in the Pythagorean manner, he separates the rational from the irrational

and appears as an unconscious teleologist, his errors are far more difficult to root out.

- 54 Rationalist fluctuations are due simply to this, that the rationalist cannot state his doctrine at all without introducing a certain amount of empirical fact, "irrational" as he may call it, and steps have to be taken to conceal the conflict of this fact with the "ultimates", whatever they may be. And until the recognition of a logic of events has prompted us entirely to "remove hypotheses" of degrees of reality and treat things on a common level, we are prone to fall into dualistic errors and, while imagining that we are conducting a straightforward inquiry, to *remove appearances*, i.e., deny facts, instead of "saving" them.
- 55 [Logic not mentioned, but method of dispute-belief] But, supposing that this does not happen, does this mean that "they can never get away from doubt"? Not at all. As Mr Miller has put it, "A makes a statement which he believes to be true, but B doubts it; what can A do to show that he is right?" A began, it appears, not by doubting but by believing; and, though he has failed to make B believe, this does not give A any reason for ceasing to believe. And, of course, if he *had* convinced B, that would not be an additional reason for believing.
- 56 [Logic not mentioned] It is most of all in ethics that these scientific requirements are repudiated, and that disagreement and the absence of a "criterion" are taken to imply that there are no independent facts, or that the facts cannot be discovered. But this is a quite incoherent view, as has been shown most particularly by Socrates, in his criticism of Sophistic theories, and by G.E. Moore.
- 59 For Realism, then, as against all the "ultimates", facts are good enough. It does away with the philosophy of good intentions, of "service" to the idol of social utility or any other, and establishes philosophy as logic, the logic of events.
- 60 When the separation is made, it will appear that in his doctrine of Space-Time he has laid the foundation of a thoroughgoing realism as a logic of events.
- 63 The unfortunate feature of this contention of Alexander's is that, when he comes to deal with the actual spatio-temporal relation of togetherness, he imports into it certain of the peculiar characteristics of knowledge, and so is developed the theory of perspectives, which opens the way to relativity; just as the idealists begin by treating mind as an absolute, and end by treating the Absolute as having some of the real characters of mind, and so make "the universe" progress, and logic along with it.
- 80-81 Hegel is right, then, in maintaining, in opposition to eclecticism or pragmatism, that philosophy should be systematic. But its systematic character should appear in the form of a single logic, not in the form of "totality", of a pretended *solution of all problems*. He is right, also, in maintaining that this logic should be historical, if we take this to mean that it is the theory of things as historical; but it should not itself be considered as advancing, however the study of it may do so. It is the theory of what things are at any time; and, granted that philosophical progress may be made, the nature of philosophical problems remains the same now as it was in 500 B.C. It is only if modern

philosophers have discovered truths which ancient philosophers failed to discover, that modern philosophy can be said to have made any advance on ancient philosophy. To substitute for a logic of things as developing a developing logic is to do away with the object of philosophical study and fall into scepticism; for logic can only develop illogically. The *pretended* object of philosophical study which remains for the devotees of a progressive logic -- the totality, the "Absolute", the historical-unhistorical -- merely exemplifies this scepticism, for its "phases" have to be taken at random; there is nothing to show that any phase is a phase of *its*, that any history is *its* history.

- 83 It is in laying the foundations of a logic of things as historical that Kant is important, and in relation to this part of Kant's theory Hegel can be regarded only as reactionary. ... Kant showed, as against Locke, that the objects of science are just the objects of observation, that "matter" (that which is created of in physics) is what we perceive and not something behind it. He showed as against sensationalism (a rationalist doctrine mis-called "empiricism") that connections and distinctions among things are known *along with* things.

- 86 The recognition of a single logic of events, of complex things interacting in Space and Time, disposes at once of the logic and of the psychology of "thought".

For an answer to Hegel, then, we have to drop epistemology -- the intrusion of mind into logic and of a false logic into psychology -- and return to the Greek consideration of *things*, as Burnet, no less than the English realists, assists us to do; we have to develop a positive theory of mind as feeling and as multiple, on the lines suggested by Freud; we have to be empirical, like James, and to recognise Space and Time as the conditions of existence, as is done by Alexander, largely under the influence of Kant.

- 87 Certain main points, which, of course, could be more fully and exactly treated, emerge from this brief consideration of Hegel's place in the history of philosophy. We find that only a pluralistic logic of events can provide a logical answer to idealism, and that rationalism, in science and philosophy, opens the way to monism and this again to scepticism -- theology, defeatism, leaving things in the hands of higher powers. We find, further, that history is not progress, that the history of speculation, in particular, is not a progressive discovery of truths and removal of errors, an outstanding illustration being that idealistic errors of Kant, akin as they are to the errors erected by Hegel into a system, did not prevent him from utilising empirical material and working out a logic of events which was not developed but only obscured by Hegel.

- 87 But the denial of the doctrine of progress does not prevent us from recognising the occurrence of discoveries and other good things. So the baneful effects of the anti-logic of Hegel, his encouragement of mystification in the doctrine of reconciliation of opposites and the cult of profundity, his provision of a sounding and worthless terminology of the theologically-minded and the literary moralisers, his detrimental influence, in opposition to precision and to independence of thought and action, on culture in general -- all this should not keep us from seeing that inquiry has here and there been stimulated by his attempt at finding a single logic and his insistence on the historical

treatment of things, and even by his merely drawing attention to the work of his predecessors.

- 88 <Design> For, apart from the mere ignoring of Hume, there is also the tendency to substitute for the criticised doctrine [argument from Design] other doctrines which are open to the very same type of criticism. And both these reactions are facilitated by Hume's "scepticism", i.e., by his failure to work out a *logic*.
- 90 The only way to escape from the vicious circle, in which dualism collapses into monism and monism explodes into dualism, is to adopt a pluralistic position in which variously characterised and related things are recognised as existing in the same way (spatio-temporally) -- a single logic of existence replacing conceptions of "self-subsistence", "relative existence" and any other flights of rationalistic fancy.
- 90 All that his criticism lacks is development in the direction of a thorough-going empiricist logic, which would show that his declension to scepticism is uncalled for.
- 100 But, in the light of the above passage, it is clear why Hume did not see how near he then was to the mark; for, although the question is plainly one of the conditions of existence in general (somewhat confused, no doubt, by the reference to an *origin*), he does not see that these conditions will govern alike the various forms of operation he mentions, that they are not "principles" but particular proceedings of particular things. Philo's question reminds one of the supposition that in certain parts of the "universe" two and two may not be four; indeed, it is even worse, since it is a logical question that is at issue, since we cannot travel away from logic, however distant a system we go to, but the very supposition of such a system is a supposition of complex and interacting things.
- 106 The foregoing argument, ... shows that criticism of Descartes must be on the grounds of logic, and the persistence of rationalistic confusions of the functions of subject, predicate and copula (as in the distinction of an "is" of existence from the "is" of predication, and so forth) shows that such criticism is not of merely historical interest. But it is on the psychological side that Descartes has been specially influential; and, though criticism of rationalistic psychology must still be logical (i.e., must be criticism of rationalism), it is important to bring out the particular ways in which mental events are confused and obscured by Cartesian assumptions.
- 107-8 The case [i.e., Berkeley's dualism] can be met only by a logic of situations, which treats mental situations, and non-mental situations, and situations embracing the mental and the non-mental, as all of the same order, none having any peculiar "inwardness" or "outwardness".
- 122 [Logic not mentioned] When, for example, in supporting man's freedom, he "also" admits necessitation in nature, he prompts the determinist to bring up the important point that there is no distinction whatever between man and nature (and hence no question of a false or forced analogy between the two), that "nature" means no more and no less than *what is*. <see next entry> and that a theory of the conditions of existence, embodying a general theory of causality, will apply indifferently to men and any other existing things.

- 122 But without giving some ground for belief in causal necessitation in "nature", they cannot show that this ground is *lacking* in the case of man; and if they do give such a ground, it will be seen to cover the case of any "humanity" with which we are acquainted -- apart from the point, previously noted, <see previous entry> that humanity is in any case included in the subject-matter of logic ("what is") and comes under the logical theory of causality.
- 123 In other words, discounting metaphysical notions of "governing" and restricting ourselves to a positive account of inter-related ways of working, we should treat the occurrence of "initiative" in the human mind in exactly the same logical way as we should treat the occurrence of magnetism in a pin.
- 123(ctd) The above remarks suggest a less direct treatment of logical problems, viz., by considering what is involved in the recognition of a thing as a subject of investigation -- more generally, in the very possibility of "discourse". This is, of course, the traditional approach (the "Socratic" approach) to logic; it leads up to and does not abrogate the consideration of what is involved in the recognition of the thing as existing; it is only in terms of existence that we can, in the end, criticise discourse. But this way of expressing the matter brings out the point that, in rejecting a particular logical theory, we should be able to show that the exponent of it not merely has a false view of existence but implicitly, in his own statement of the case, admits the view that we are upholding against him (as when a person *argues* against objective implication or *denies* objective truth). A particularly important instance is that of the demonstration, by the upholder of a spatio-temporal logic, of the fact that those who argue that certain things (e.g., minds) are *not* spatio-temporal, cannot avoid implying that they are. Again, indirect "proof" of a logical position may take the form of showing that our opponent's view involves him in insoluble problems -- though this amounts to the same as contradicting the possibility of discourse.
- 123-4 The position confronting us is that which upholds determination and also indetermination. And this position can be met by the regular arguments against any attempt to divide reality into "realms" (in effect, to have more than one logic or theory of being) -- and particularly, as I have indicated in a number of papers, by the demonstration of the impossibility of finding any *relation* between the different realms; so that there will be a "universe" of complete determination and *another* "universe" of complete indetermination.
- 137 The view that hypotheticals (or, more broadly, conditionals) are a peculiar *species* of propositions illustrates the inferior way of treating logic -- that which, instead of bringing everything under logic, subordinates logic to something else; specifically, to forms of speech, i.e., ultimately, to types of human procedure and relationships. Thus, in classifying propositions, one can go to forms of speech, to the ways in which things are said, or one can go to the sorts of things that can be *meant*; in other words, to the sorts of things that can be.

The former method is, at best, eclectic; no classification could possibly cover all the forms of speech, all the varieties of communication. But all possible forms of speech must fall under forms of being; anything that can be said, or, perhaps better, that can be conveyed, must have some "logical form" -- and the first task of logic

is to find the types of logical form, even if "putting into logical form" is rendered difficult in particular cases by the confusion of the speaker's thought or by the multifarious purposes which people try to serve by what they say.

- 138 But it should be understood that even if the argument to which I am proceeding, an attempted demonstration of "the four forms" as the only logical forms, were open to decisive objections, some argument of this *kind* is essential to logic -- the alternative, as I said, being eclecticism, the employment of an unformulated and uncriticised method of selection, the adoption of an unstated "logic" amounting in fact to the subjection of logic to non-logical considerations.
- 139 These "categorical" forms, then, are *the only* logical forms, the only forms in which we can assert that *something is so*; and thus the logical form of "hypotheticals" (and similarly with "modals, etc.") must be found among the four forms.
- 142 Taking it, then, that the question of hypotheticals in this second usage is that of relations of implication among propositions, we have particularly to note that it is not a question of our proceedings or attitudes. These are, of course, subject to logic (there can be logical consideration of them), but logic is not subject to them; they do not affect the characters and relations of issues.
- 142-3 It would be to distinguish between "if p, q" and "p, therefore q" only in terms of our attitudes, i.e. according as we are sure of p and infer q or merely consider, from the formal relationship, that being sure of p would lead us to infer q but logic is not affected by our taking up one attitude or the other -- the logical question is that of implication.
- 147 I think I have said enough to show that a logic of conditionals can have no consistent notation, that it cannot cope with many of the problems, carry out many of the operations, which present no difficulties to a categorical logic, and that, as regards the operations to which it is in some measure adequate, their strict form is still the categorical.

As I contended earlier, there must, if there is to be logic, be a limited number of "logical forms", and there will be the problem of finding *some* argument which shows what they are. There will, if this problem is solved, be the further problem of carrying out the "reduction" of forms which superficially appear to escape the basic classification. I do not think anyone will deny certain *analogies* between hypothetical and categorical forms; the question, then, is whether there is any real distinction. My contention has been that there is not, that hypotheticals are rough devices for dealing with matters that can be covered in an exact way by a categorical logic, a logic which recognises *only* A, E, I and O propositions, their features and relations.

- 148 Opponents of a predicative logic have commonly maintained that there are valid arguments of the form ArB, BrC \therefore ArC (arguments holding wherever the relation r is transitive; such validity, in fact, being what is meant by calling a relation transitive) which cannot be presented in ordinary predicative form, particularly in syllogistic form, but depend on principles other than the syllogistic.

- 148 When we do this, I would argue, when we get a distinction between the valid and the invalid which can be "read off", a distinction, i.e., which is determinable simply from the form and not at all from the material of the arguments, this can only be in terms of a predicative logic; and I shall endeavour to show that in a number of types of argument which have been taken to be striking *exceptions* to the syllogistic character of demonstrative reasoning, the formal distinction must actually be made in syllogistic terms -- that the distinction is between valid and invalid *syllogisms*.

The standpoint of predicative logic involves an immediate questioning of the view that relational assertions (or relational propositions) are the constituents of relational arguments and are to be definitely distinguished from "subject-predicate" assertions.

- 155 To see in what terms these arguments may be set out syllogistically (or in strict form) we can consider swings or turnings from the left and observe that any such swings which pass through A must pass through B, whereas those that pass through B need not pass through A; ... Putting this more concretely in terms of *things* beyond or not beyond a given thing in a rightward swing, we come to the pair of assertions "All things to the right of A are (things) to the right of B" and "Some things to the right of B are not (things) to the right of A"; that is to say, to a relation of inclusion.
- 161 The attempt to have separate *relational* and *qualitative* logics can only lead to confusion and insoluble problems; what this attempt misses is the fact that any object (any known thing and any existing thing) is a complex situation involving both relations and qualities, so that there will always be connections to be found between any object and any other object, between any and any other problem or line of investigation.
- 172 Ryle does not specifically say that he takes questions of quality and questions of relation (and so on with whatever other categories he recognises) to belong to different regions of inquiry; but he gives no sign of seeing that the logician is concerned not with a miscellaneous bunch of types of question which can be raised about this subject or that, but with a group of types of question which have a *common ground*, which hang together in any inquiry and thus apply to any subject-matter.
- 177 But in such cases of *not therefore not* (possibly), just as in the case of *therefore* (necessarily), we are concerned with fact or "actuality" and there is no question of special kinds of copula; even though the statements have not always been put in precise logical form, we are clearly not going beyond the ordinary predicative logic, the logic of unqualified fact.
- 182 The division is supported by illogicality (particularly, the relativism of "that whose nature it is to know") and thus the question of meaninglessness is shifted to that of "logical exclusion" from that of *material* exclusion, in considering which, in terms of our experience, we can easily see that it does not apply in this case but the mental *is* bodily. It is only, in short, when we distinguish realms of reality (qualify the copula) that we get involved in logical impasses -- not when we *deny* such distinctions.
- 183 [*logic* not mentioned] What would have influenced my apparent assimilation of philosophy to science (not so much besides as

incidentally to my repudiation of "the ultimate") is that each of them is concerned with situational reality, with the spatio-temporal field, with things as they in a single sense are.

- 185 There can be little doubt, however, that the failure of such criticisms to stick was due to the steadily larger and more influential groups who devoted themselves to inquiry but had little knowledge of the history of critical thought and treated "method" rather in a mechanical than in a logical way.
- 185 Professor Ryle speaks of what logic *tells me*, with the suggestion that I am laying claim to some private communication or even special revelation. What I maintain is that there can be no logic unless it is in the facts (or situations) of which we are aware. And what I take myself to be informed of by what might be called my "logical sense" is the *continuity* of things or their *coherence*, their "making sense" because they have a common ground, It would, of course, be maintained by the empiricist logician that no one can offer a *consistent* "separatist" answer to logical questions, but the primary point is that logical questions arise wherever *any* questions arise. ... That is something we must always be considering, as part of our consideration of any special situations whatever, and that is how we come to have a "logic" -- to see (as I should say), if we are consistent, the errors of dualism, the absence of any breaks in reality, along with special problems of how things intermingle. I have suggested that *lack* of consistency in these matters is contingent on pursuit of special aims and objects; but the main point is that we cannot have a piecemeal logic, that logic is concerned with the *running together* of questions of all sorts ("in all the categories") and that to be confused on this matter is to be hazy on one's "logical (or philosophical) sense". This I have also described as a sense of *form*; and it is because form is not additional *matter*, but is characteristic of any matter that may be in question, that one can speak of logic (or philosophy) as governing or directing science, and not the other way round -- just as it is *taking* it the other way round, making matter to duty for form, making science do duty for philosophy, that has produced the intellectual chaos of the present day.
- 186 n¹¹ It seems to me that Plato's later philosophy was affected by the same error as is exhibited in my article, though my argument goes the other way round: i.e., that, instead of arguing from the "necessity" of logical equality to that of social equality, he argued from the "necessity" of social inequality to that of logical inequality, this his residual rationalism, his continued adherence to a hierarchical logic, his inability to take the last steps to empiricism (in spite of his contributions to empiricism in the development of a propositional logic and in an approach, at least, to the theory of *being* as the copula and not as a concrete entity or term) could be accounted for by the belief that to support "egalitarian logic" was to support egalitarian society and thus to wreck cultural life.
- 187 It is thus that philosophers, as far as they still carry out their own studies and do not, as has happened so much of late, submit to the direction of scientists dialectically untrained, can themselves offer guidance which would remove "hypotheses" or blockages in the lines of scientific study; it is thus that logic, even while asserting the equal reality of all existing things, can claim that it "stands above" the sciences, that it "governs" the various concrete fields of investigation

in a way in which science could not govern *logic* -- since it is by common forms, and not by special materials, that investigation can be directed. It is to be understood, of course, that the scientist who sets himself up as a master of method though he has engaged in no systematic study of philosophy will always be found to be *borrowing* from philosophy, to be using scraps from Locke, Hume and so on, in fixing up his rickety apparatus.

- 194 [Note: Although logic is not specifically mentioned, the following passage is relevant.] This last point recalls Arnold's distinction (again in Ch.I of *Literature and Dogma*) between "a term of science or exact knowledge" and "a term of poetry and eloquence" -- and here the Heraclitean or objectivist position is that no line can be drawn between these, that there can be no defensible claim to knowledge of distinct things which have no common measures, which do not exist in the same situations and enter into joint transactions. And, in particular, there is the implication that we can no more have quantity without quality than we can have quality without quantity or otherwise than as spatio-temporal process.

But while Heraclitus had this sense of the interlocking of all materials and all problems, he had by no means worked out a critical apparatus (a doctrine of types of problem and forms of solution in any inquiry) in the way that Socrates, followed by Plato, did. And thus for a general conception of the objectivist outlook, of classicism on its basic *philosophical* side, of the "judgment" which applies to all subjects and the "literalism" which is always ruinous to inquiry, we have to go to both these sources; ...

- 195 Adamson (*History of Logic*, p.85) says that to both Bacon and Descartes "the scholastic logic presented itself as the essence of a thoroughly false and futile method of knowledge. ... Both thinkers were animated by the spirit of reformation in science, and both emphasise the practical end of all speculation. For both, therefore, logic, which to neither is of high value, appeared to be a species of practical science, a generalised statement of the mode in which intellect acquires new knowledge, in which the mind proceeds from known to unknown." This degradation of the subject, logic, to the status of an instrument or set of devices is typical of the practicalist or instrumentalist outlook (though it still cannot show how deviser and devised can enter into common situations or, as the phrase goes, "exist in the same world"), and it may be compared to recent views of scientific method (which is actually logic, considered in terms of types of questions that can arise in inquiry) as simply the procedures of scientists. The matter is illustrated again in the contempt of the two thinkers for syllogism (in fact, the commonest as well as the most fruitful form of demonstrative reasoning) and its replacement by the Baconian "induction" and the Cartesian "intuition". . . .
- 200 If any other subject is to have a general apparatus of criticism, it can have it only by drawing upon philosophy -- that is, on major contributions to the theory of objective reality and of the types of question that can be raised concerning any objective reality or actual subject. Thus the historian has to concern himself with questions of sequence and causality, the literary critic has to go into questions of form or structure, these being in either case primarily matters of logic. Each of them has his special lines of criticism; but, when we examine these, we find that they lead us in the same direction. The

historian has his scrutiny of documents and weighing of testimony, but here not only is he confronted immediately with simple logical questions of the soundness or unsoundness of the inferences they present, or of the coherence of their materials, but he has to take account of types of human error and illusion, of obstacles to discovery, which can be elucidated only by reference to logic, to types of actual situations.

- 201 It should be understood that, in the cultivation of the fields of inquiry that have come to be known as "scientific", there is no less need for the exercise of "judgment" for the recognition of logical categories or the formal distinction among types of problem, for the removal of hypotheses of division in reality, than there is in the pursuit of any other inquiry; it is as speculative and critical, not as "technical", that work in these fields would be truly scientific. But in fact what we find there is the multiplication of divisions and specialisations, the identification of "method" not with logic but with the use of technical devices, the substitution of a mechanical for a critical apparatus. And it is this narrow, specialising and instrumentalist attitude that has infected the most influential schools of philosophy at the moment, leading them largely to ignore the history of philosophy, the "classics" of the subject which could provide them with an outlook at once broader and more critical.
- 201n⁴ [Logic not mentioned] Reference may again be made to the work of Burnet in Greek philosophy, with its striking combination of philosophical and historical insight -- bringing home to us the way in which knowledge of philosophy can help us to determine the course of philosophical thought and the views of individual thinkers, while knowledge of the doctrines of individual thinkers and their historical connections can help us to arrive at philosophical truths (to learn philosophy). This conjunct operation of critical factors, leading to fresh discovery and to comprehensiveness of view, illustrates the general principle that the coherent position, the position that "makes sense", is the one on which all lines of criticism converge.
- 206 The demonstration of the hollowness of these pretensions may have been historically inadequate and politically negative, but, as far as it went, it was logically sound.
- 209-210 There is a logical difficulty in that, if the goodness acquired in the early training really "participates in" (i.e., partakes of the nature of) true goodness, it cannot be a mere matter of habituation but must partake of critical activity as well.
- 210 We have seen that the fundamental weakness of his philosophy is its unhistorical character, and this finds its logical expression in the attribution of true reality to certain unchanging "forms", or ideals, everything changeable being relatively unreal.
- 212 Such evasion of the issue is described by the educated as "illogical", but the pointing out of fallacies of this kind is a very small part of what is involved in Logic or Dialectic. Its full import can be grasped only when we consider it in relation to the most advanced studies, i.e., to the sciences.
- 212 Fields of study are not cut off from one another but mingle just as peoples do. And to treat each as a separate "world" is to fall into contradictions. It is the business of Dialectic to show that the

supposed "indemonstrables" and "indefinables" of the sciences are not indemonstrable or indefinable, but are subject to investigation. Thus all hypotheses implying a division in reality require to be "destroyed" (or removed).

What this involves is that there is a single logic which applies to all the sciences, a single way of being which all their objects have; we cannot divide reality into higher and lower orders, for the difference and the relation between them would alike be indefinable and indemonstrable. Thus any "science" which affects to discover powers or faculties which "make things what they are", or to apply "laws" to "phenomena", is guilty of logical error. [DOCTRINE OF ONE WAY OF BEING] ... The application of logic to "reasons" leads to the conclusion, already obscurely apprehended by the first Ionian philosophers, that any explanation must be on the same level as the thing explained, so that the former in turn can be explained in a similar way.

But the discovery of illogicalities in the theory of Socrates does not affect the fact that he has given a valuable account of the conditions of scientific inquiry.

- 213 In general, we can criticise only by reference to beliefs which we definitely hold; otherwise there would be nothing to say for or against any disputed view. And unless this feature of logical criticism is recognised, the Socratic insistence on logic, the setting of criticism against instruction, is misleading. So long as we do not set anything above criticism, we can make progress; but we do so not by having any kind of higher knowledge, but by having opinions and acting on them, that is, by reacting on things which are as historical as ourselves.
- 215 The illogicality of this theory appears at once from its conception of the different sorts of reality which attach to norms and to the things which come under these norms, or from its attempt to distinguish values from facts. If the statement that something "ought to be" has any meaning, it can only be that the thing *is*, positively, obligatory; that this is a matter of fact. When such a statement is taken to be true, it can be dealt with by means of the ordinary logical mechanism of assertion and denial, proof and testing of hypotheses, definition and division -- and in no other way.
- 216 There is nothing *logically* peculiar about the future; what we think of as existing then, we think of as existing in the same sense as what exists now. And the characters we attribute to future occurrences are those which we have already found in similar occurrences.
- 219 Our object-seeking activities (passions or inclinations) govern our judgments; and there is no logical basis for supposing the existence of a non-passionate judge or "rational" faculty, over and above our activities themselves, which is peculiarly critical of them, or to which they should be referred.
- 222 If we take the facts which have been considered as constituting the field of ethics, it will appear that the logic of moral events is the same as that of any other events.
- 247 The historical and deterministic treatment of goods is, in fact, only one example of the removal of metaphysics from science, the establishment of all scientific objects on a single level of

investigation. And in thus upholding a logic of events, realist ethics helps to free philosophy from the confused ethics in which metaphysics is rooted -- from the conception of "higher realities", that is to say, preferred delusions.

- 308 The difficulty of where to draw the line, as in Plekhanov's example of when a man has grown a beard, is quite irrelevant here; because as regards any given amount of hair, there is no point up to which it is not present and from which it is present; and how much hair we call "a beard" is a linguistic, not a logical question. There is no greater logical difficulty in dealing with the contention of Engels (*Landmarks*, , p.43) that it is impossible "to fix the precise moment of death, for physiology shows that death is not a single and sudden event but a very slow process". Physiology could not show this unless it could say when a body is dead and when it is not dead, and, if such statements can be correctly made, then there is a moment up to which it is not dead and from which it is dead.
- 314 That Marxism is a *metaphysic*, a doctrine of guiding principles, a mingling of logic and ethics to the detriment of both, is shown by its conception of the advance of things to "higher" and "higher" levels, its belief in a world which as Eastman puts it, is evolving "by its own inevitable dialectic" toward something "higher", toward something "more magnificent".
- 315 It appears also that, on this view, there will be a confounding not merely of logic and ethics but of all theories whatsoever; they will all rank as expressions of the basis, and even if (as is not the case) there could still be distinctions of degree, it would only be degrees of expressiveness, and what was legal and what political, what religious and what philosophical, would not appear.
- 367 But Flugel's statement that the distinction between means and ends is "nearly always" relative is not (as indeed the reservation itself would show) based on logical considerations. It follows immediately upon the statement that it is the business of ethics to decide what the "higher values" are (so that applied psychology, like other applied sciences, "is concerned with 'means' rather than with 'ends'"), and is the beginning of an attempt to whittle away that concession to ethics.

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APPENDIX E: SOME MAJOR EMPIRICIST DEFINITIONS

On the basis of arguments put forward in the text, the following major claims and definitions are suggested here as appropriate for empiricism.

1. *Rationalism*

Rationalism is the philosophical movement, originally founded in theological beliefs, which upholds (a) the notion of soul or mind, (b) some kind of transcendental entities (forms ideas, concepts, etc.) which are the elements of "knowledge", and (c) that there is some method of comparing and analysing the forms, or ideas in the mind; a method which is quite distinct from the empirical methods of observing (or "sense") and dialectic.

2. *Idealism*

Idealism is any view which reifies mind, or gives mind a privileged place in the scheme of philosophy. On this view, rationalism is a form of idealism; but the two are almost indistinguishable.

3. *Monism*

Monism is the doctrine of one substance, mind, embracing all things. According to Speake, monism is "1. A philosophical theory that maintains that there is one, and only one, substance. Examples of this type of theory are provided by the philosophies of Spinoza and Hegel. 2. (in the context of discussions of mind-body relations) A theory of mind-body relations that is not dualistic" [1979, p.219].

4. *Dualism*

Dualism is any view which divides all things into two substances, mind and matter (or any equivalent). Speake says dualism is "A theory concerning the fundamental types into which individual substances are to be divided. It asserts that substances are either material or mental, neither type being reducible to the other" [Ibid, p.91].

5. *Voluntarism*

Voluntarism is the view that mind is an active, causal agent which is itself uncaused. Speake says voluntarism is "1. A certain sort of metaphysics (of which Schopenhauer's is typical), that holds that the true nature of reality is will. 2. In controversies about the nature of history, a theory that attaches too much weight to the human will as a factor in history, ... " [Ibid, p.343].

6. *Representationism*

Representationism is any theory which postulates intermediaries of a mental kind in the processes of perceiving or communicating: any entities such as ideas, concepts, *sensa*, *quaia*, judgments or meanings of any kind. So representationism can be seen as a by-product of rationalism, or the notion of mind. This account is not inconsistent with a widely accepted view. Speake, for example, describes *representationalism* (or *representationism*) as:

A generic term that broadly refers to theories of perception wherein the sensing mind is believed not to have direct acquaintance with its objects, but to apprehend them through the medium of ideas that are supposed to *represent* those objects. ... it starts by laying down an obstacle to such explanation since it assumes initially that human minds do not apprehend objects directly. [1979, p.284]

7. *Necessary Truth*

Necessary truth is supposed to be a truth created by the mind or by relations between ideas within the mind.

8. *Contingent Truth*

Contingent truth is supposed to be a truth not created by the mind nor by relations between ideas within the mind.

9. *Empiricism*

Empiricism is the dialectical, propositional, observational method of critical inquiry identical with scientific method as described above. Empiricism does not make any assumptions; it is a method, and adheres consistently to its principles of method. It does not make any theological assumptions and does not make any assumptions about minds, ideas, concepts, etc.; but it examines in the same critical way, by the same impartial or objective, methodologically consistent method, all terms, conceptions, definitions, claims, beliefs, assertions, denials, assumptions, theories or hypotheses. Although empiricism does not make any assumptions, it can accommodate and work within any range of assumptions, which will then be subject to examination, criticism, testing, proof and disproof. Assumptions brought within the range of dialectic, logic or scientific method are not part of the method of critical inquiry, but are material around which a specific phase of dialectic works.

10. *Dialectic*

Dialectic is defined here as the critical, discursive method of testing any claims or hypotheses which are expressed in propositional form (including anything believed, assumed, asserted, denied, doubted, remembered or hypothesised), within a more or less defined range of beliefs and assumptions. In conjunction with the process of definition -- which is another important part of the critical, discursive, or philosophical process -- dialectic is also a method of testing terms or conceptions by treating them propositionally. It may be used in conjunction with observational procedures, or it may simply assume that certain observations have been, or could be, carried out; in the latter case, it is a purely discursive process. Therefore, it can deal with any theoretical subject or problem of inquiry or understanding; it is a universal method of inquiry. Any specific phase of dialectic begins with the identification of an issue in dispute or doubt. It then clarifies (a) some major points of agreement in relation to the issue, and (b) assumptions being made in relation to the issue; and tests the issue in relation to these beliefs and assumptions. Dialectic is the distinctive method of critical philosophy, and is a methodologically consistent method of testing anything expressed in propositional form.

11. *Criticism*

Criticism is dialectical testing applied in a specific case: to a specific claim, belief, assertion, denial, claimed observation, hypothesis, theory, or term, conception or definition. Criticism is perhaps more frequently associated with the disputatious part of dialectic, or with *elenchus*: with rejection or disproof. However, there is nothing illogical about subjecting a belief or theory to criticism (critical examination) without pre-empting its outcome; and there is nothing illogical about saying that a specific hypothesis or theory has survived the most stringent criticism. In fact, both of these ways of speaking are perfectly acceptable and traditional.

12. *Logic*

It is necessary to distinguish two components (or between two quite different senses) of logic: informal and formal logic.

Informal logic is identical with dialectic, critical propositional discourse, or the method of critical inquiry in practice.

Formal logic is the theory of the method of critical inquiry (or dialectic). It studies critical, propositional discourse by --

- (a) describing, analysing, classifying, dividing and defining its components or elements (this is the identification of logical forms of propositions, logical relations between propositions, and the logical forms of valid arguments) and
- (b) describing its methods, procedures or dynamic.

13. *Science*

Science is not knowledge.

Science is not fundamentally deductive in character, but is distinguished, and is ultimately to be defined by its scholarly, critical, at times destructive, at times speculative, dialectical method employed in conjunction with disciplined observation and experiment.

The empiricist theory of sciences is that they are learned, dialectical, disputatious, speculative and observational disciplines concerned with problems of understanding or theoretical problems (not practical problems), which disciplines are limited to more or less defined areas and problems, although they take into account the findings of other learned disciplines (philosophy and science) which are relevant to their own fields. Sciences are distinguished by a common, disciplined or methodologically consistent method of testing any (scientific) observations, findings, theories, hypotheses, beliefs or assumptions by dialectic (critical testing) in conjunction with scholarship, observing, describing, defining, speculation (theory formulation), and by experiment and mathematics when appropriate. Rather than being conceived of as static knowledge, the empiricist view of sciences is that they are endlessly disputatious processes: continuous dialectical processes that engage innumerable participants and disputants throughout the history of a specific discipline, which disciplines always take into account their own histories of controversy.

14. *Scientific Method*

Scientific method is dialectic supplemented by a number of methodologically consistent investigatory procedures; it is the dialectical method of testing observations, findings, theories, hypotheses, beliefs, assumptions, conceptions, terms or definitions (expressed or expressible in propositional form) by reasoning and observation in conjunction, within a more or less well defined field of beliefs and assumptions. In conjunction with definition, it can also test terms or conceptions. It is supplemented by --

- (i) scholarship: the study of the best views on the subject as well as recording one's own views and findings and participation in the ongoing discussion of issues; it thereby takes into account the history of theories and controversies within the field; and these constitute some of the assumptions in a specific phase of inquiry;
- (ii) disciplined critical observation (including experiment) followed by exact description;
- (iii) speculation: the formulation of hypotheses or theories which are critically tested dialectically and by observation; inquiry may

make new discoveries by observing, but it cannot make new theoretical discoveries without speculation;

- (iv) mathematics, when appropriate; i.e., inquiry will employ methodologically consistent processes of mathematics (counting, measuring and calculating) in relation to any quantitative problems.

15. *Mathematics*

Mathematics is not a science.

The rationalist reification of mathematics as the model for "other" science(s) is fallacious.

Mathematics --

- (i) is compatible with and is an indispensable part of, the method of critical inquiry or dialectic; counting is an integral and indispensable part of critical observing and describing; measuring is an integral and indispensable part of objective and discriminating observing and describing; calculating is an important extension of these;
- (ii) is that part of the method of critical inquiry concerned with quantitative matters;
- (iii) is an integral part of all sciences;
- (iv) is an integral part of the extended method of critical inquiry or scientific method; being that part concerned with quantitative problems of understanding.

* * * * *

It will be seen that the definitions relating to rationalism-idealism, #1 to 8 above, are *generated* by the notion of mind. This would not warrant comment by anyone who upheld that notion, but once the notion of mind is questioned, it becomes very obvious that it creates not only a wide range of philosophical problems, but a range of extremely difficult, we may suspect, *insoluble* problems. It is the source of one major branch of what is known as metaphysics.

Of course it is not being claimed that the foregoing views were expressed by Anderson; but it is being claimed (a) that they are perfectly consistent with a great deal that he said and with the general "drift" of his thought; and (b) that what has been outlined as the empiricist view of logic, dialectic, criticism and scientific method is implicit in Anderson's position.

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This Bibliography is divided into three parts:

PART I: COMPREHENSIVE LISTING OF PUBLISHED MATERIAL
BY ANDERSON, arranged chronologically

- (a) Up to 1962
- (b) After 1962, published by others

PART II: PUBLISHED MATERIAL ABOUT ANDERSON

- (a) No author (arranged chronologically)
- (b) Arranged alphabetically, by author

PART III: GENERAL BIBLIOGRAPHY
(that is, other material used in the
preparation of this Thesis)

- (a) Books
- (b) Journal Articles, etc.

The first two Parts build on Geraldine Suter's important
Bibliographic Study on the Philosophy of John Anderson
(see *Acknowledgments*).

BIBLIOGRAPHY

PART I : COMPREHENSIVE LISTING OF PUBLISHED MATERIAL BY ANDERSON
Arranged chronologically. The date of the listing here is that of
publication, not the date of the address, as in Geraldine Suter's
Bibliography. "Jude" was Anderson's pen name.

Abbreviations:

GUM *Glasgow University Magazine.*
AJPP *Australasian Journal of Philosophy and Psychology*
AJP *Australian Journal of Philosophy*
UR *Union Recorder*
(R) *Review Article*
AJPH *Australian Journal of Politics and History*

(a) up to 1962

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* These notes are derived from footnotes relating to each article in *ART AND REALITY*

** Many of Anderson's earlier works have been (and continue to be) re-printed in *Heraclitus*, and are not listed here.

PART II: PUBLISHED MATERIAL ABOUT ANDERSON

(excluding newspapers, other than approximately 10 significant articles)

(a) No author (arranged chronologically)

Note: M = Mention only

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