Philosophy of Science

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Motivations

'Philosophy of science is about as useful to scientists as ornithology is to birds' (Feynman)

'It always surprises me that no one points out that ornithology would indeed be a great use to birds—if they could ask the ornithologists for advice, and if they could understand it.' (Maudlin)

What is philosophy of science?

- Second-order discipline that reflects on science (Either a particular science or science in general)
- \cdot Looks to establish the foundations of scientific inquiry
- Examples of questions that philosophy of science addresses:
- What is a scientific theory? What is its structure?
- Is scientific reasoning reliable? If so, why?
- Is science rational?
- What is the relationship between hypotheses and evidence?
- Can science give us a "true" picture of "reality"? Does it?
- What is a scientific/physical/natural law?
- Can science provide explanations? Does it?

Three aspects of science

- Predictive
- Descriptive
- Explanatory

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- Anguished sceptic: 'Aaaaaaah.... We can't know anything! Maybe I am just a brain in a vat!'
- Instrumentalist: 'Ahhhhh....Who cares? Science is just a tool to predict experimental outcomes.'
- Reflective deliberator: 'Hmmmm... This allows me to identify my core metaphysical and epistemological commitments, which I can then update as I learn new things about the world.'
- Philosophy of Science: A useful tool for the reflective deliberator.

Why is scientific reasoning reliable?

- How does science/how do scientists infer predictive laws from observations?
- One straightforward answer: Using *inductive* inferences.
- Inductivism: Scientific generalisations, laws and hypotheses can gain positive support from empirical evidence.
- Goal for today: Try to understand/develop an account of the relationship between evidence and hypotheses.

- Induction: (Roughly) A form of reasoning in which premises take the form of singular statements (usually observation statements) and the conclusion takes the form of a generalisation.
- Useful comparison: Deduction.
- Inductive arguments: Concerned with premises providing *support* for a conclusion (in a sense to be made precise).
- Deductive arguments: Concerned with guaranteeing the preservation of truth between premises and conclusions.

- Question: How does one justify an inductive inference/rule?
- (Well... how does one justify a deductive inference/rule...?)
- Is the following a good argument?

1: If India won the cricket world cup, then they were the best team in the world.

2: India won the cricket world cup.

C: They were the best team in the world.

- The form of the argument: *P*, If *P*, then *Q*. Therefore *Q*.
- What allows us to infer *Q* from *P* and if *P* then *Q*?
- (Notation: If P then Q: $P \rightarrow Q$; P and Q: $P \land Q$)
- Possible justification: Add a new premise: $(P \land (P \rightarrow Q)) \rightarrow Q$.
- But what justifies this?
- Response: $(P \land (P \land (P \rightarrow Q) \rightarrow Q)) \rightarrow Q$
- And so on...

Nelson Goodman's response

- Deductive inferences can be given a justification that does not descend into an infinite regress.
- Some paradigm cases of deductively valid arguments are used to propose inference rules.
- These inference rules allow us to determine whether non-paradigm cases of deductive inference are justified.
- Back-and-forth between individual arguments shaping the rules, and rules determining which other arguments are valid.
- Suggestion: Play the same game for induction (thus avoiding the infinite regress)
- Moral: Don't ask about how to justify induction as an inference rule. Ask instead how to describe/characterise valid inductive arguments.

What do good inductive arguments look like?

- All that matters is how pieces of evidence *support* a conclusion. Good inductive arguments are those in which evidence supports a conclusion.
- Introduce a new concept: Inductive confirmation
- To **confirm** is to increase the **probability** that the conclusion is true.
- Non-contradiction: If a sentence S inductively confirms a sentence P, then any other sentence, S' that reports the same observations as S should not inductively confirm its negation, ¬P.
- Proposal: Scientific hypotheses are inductively confirmed by non-contradictory evidence.
- Promising...?

- Define a new term 'grue': An object is **grue** if and only if either it is observed before some time, *t*, and found to be green, or else it is blue.
- Grue and green: Grass outside the window now.
- Grue but not green:
- Green but not grue:
- Important: The object itself does not (have to) change colour at *t*.

A gruesome obstacle

- All evidence for emeralds been green on New Year's Day 2020 is also evidence for their being grue on that day.
- A purely formal account of induction gives us contradictory predictions based on the same evidence.
- Non-contradiction violated.
- Problem: This can be generalised easily.
- Think of any term that is a good basis for an induction. I can construct infinitely many equally well confirmed terms such that non-contradiction is violated.
- This is the **new riddle of induction**.

- Suggestion 1: Green is simpler than grue; it is not defined using an 'or.'
- Suggestion 2: Green picks out a 'natural kind'.
- Suggestion 3: Green is 'entrenched'.
- Further suggestions...?

Conclusion

Conclusion: Where does that leave us?

- Remember where we started: Trying to understand the relationship between evidence and hypotheses.
- Plausible claim: Scientific reasoning is inductive.
- Consequence: No amount of observation will allow us to determine whether a generalisation is true.
- Response: We are not interested in guaranteeing infallibly the truth of generalisations. We just want to characterise good inductive inferences.
- Consequence: No amount of past observation will determine which type of generalisation is good. (New riddle of induction)
- Further responses depend on commitments that go beyond just the sum total of observations.
- Reflective deliberators rejoice—this is precisely what philosophy of science is for!