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# 1. Visualization and the Horizons of Scientific Realism

Galileo's often-quoted formula, according to which the universe is written in the language of mathematics, continues with the elucidation, "its characters are triangles, circles, and other geometrical figures, without which it is humanly impossible to understand a single word of it".1 Above the doorway of Plato's Academy, some two millennia earlier, there was engraved, as tradition has it, the inscription "Let no-one ignorant of geometry enter here" - rendered not infrequently, and not without justification, as "Let no one ignorant of mathematics enter here": since for the Greeks it was precisely geometry that constituted the essence of mathematics. And for Plato in a sense all branches of mathematics, and indeed all branches of thought, had to do with shapes. He chose the words *idea* and *eidos* to designate abstract mental contents. These words, which he used alternately, mean "form" or "shape". Both idea and eidos come from the verb idein, "to see"; from eidos there descends the word eidolon, "the visible image".<sup>2</sup> In the writings of Archimedes and Apollonius *eidos*, along with *schēma*, again with the meaning "figure" or "shape", emerged as parts of the mathematical lexicon.<sup>3</sup> History shows mathematics to be inherently bound up with visuality. In fact any dimension of abstract reasoning does essentially rely on the perceptual, in particular on the visual: mental processes invariably involve the component of imagery.

## The Visual Mind

As a fairly recent, succinct summary by Kosslyn et al. puts it: "Mental imagery occurs when perceptual information is accessed from memory, giving rise to the

Cf. James Franklin, "Diagrammatic Reasoning and Modelling in the Imagination: The Secret Weapons of the Scientific Revolution", in Guy Freeland and Anthony Corones (eds.), 1543 and All That: Image and Word, Change and Continuity in the Proto-Scientific Revolution, Dordrecht: Kluwer, 2000, pp. 53 f.

<sup>2</sup> I am indebted to István Bodnár for innumerable enlightening conversations, in the course of the years, on some intricate issues in Greek philosophical usage and intellectual history.

<sup>3</sup> Cf. Reviel Netz, *The Shaping of Deduction in Greek Mathematics: A Study in Cognitive History*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1999, pp. 109 f.

experience of 'seeing with the mind's eye', 'hearing with the mind's ear' and so on. ... Mental images need not result simply from the recall of previously perceived objects or events; they can also be created by combining and modifying stored perceptual information in novel ways. Imagery has had a central role in theories of mental function since at least the time of Plato."<sup>4</sup> Now Plato's views on mental images are of course deeply ambiguous. His philosophy emerged under the impact of the rise of *alphabetic literacy*. And, from Plato onwards, the history of Western philosophy is a history of recurrent clashes between the experience of imagery on the one hand, and the experience of written language on the other.

#### From Plato to Hume

Though *eidos* is not etymologically related to *eikon* – "likeness", "picture" – the acoustic and semantic proximity between the two words does suggest a kind of relatedness, and Plato is not always willing, or able, to avoid that suggestion. But in the *Phaedrus* he definitely tells us that "essences" are "formless, colourless, intangible, perceived by the mind only",<sup>5</sup> and in the *Republic* we learn that "ideas can be thought but not seen"<sup>6</sup>. Also, in a telling passage of the *Philebus* Plato compares the soul to a *book*, adding however that besides the "scribe" who writes "within us" there is also "another artist, who is busy at the same time in the chambers of the soul": "The painter, who, after the scribe has done his work, draws images in the soul of the things which he has described."<sup>7</sup> Aristotle's *De anima* is dominated by the metaphor of the mind as a "writing-table" (*grammateion*), but still it is here that the momentous thesis is formulated according to which "the soul never thinks without an image" (*phantasma*).<sup>8</sup>

It was on the teachings of the Aristotelian school that Bacon drew when he wrote: "Emblem reduceth conceits intellectual to images sensible, which strike the memory more. ... Aristotle saith well, 'Words are the images of cogitations, and letters are the images of words.' But yet it is not of necessity that cogitations

<sup>4</sup> Stephen M. Kosslyn – Giorgio Ganis – William L. Thompson, "Neural Foundations of Imagery", *Nature Reviews Neuroscience*, vol. 2, no. 9 (2001), p. 634.

<sup>5 247</sup>c, Jowett transl.

<sup>6 507</sup>b, Shorey transl.

<sup>7 39</sup>a-b, Jowett transl.

<sup>8</sup> Aristotle, *On the Soul*, 430a and 431a, transl. by J. A. Smith. *The Complete Works of Aristotle: The Revised Oxford Translation*, ed. by Jonathan Barnes, Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1984.

be expressed by the medium of words. For whatsoever is capable of sufficient differences, and those perceptible by the sense, is in nature competent to express cogitations."9 By contrast, Descartes asks us to "recall that our mind can be stimulated by many things other than images – by signs and words, for example, which in no way resemble the things they signify", pointing out, also, that "the perfection of an image often depends on its not resembling its object as much as it might".<sup>10</sup> The British empiricist reaction to Descartes is again characterized by an enhanced sensibility to images, with Locke however retaining a conspicuous susceptibility to the lure of written language. On the one hand Locke, very much in the spirit of Bacon, reflects on the advantages of a dictionary in which "words standing for things which are known and distinguished by their outward shapes [w]ould be expressed by little draughts and prints made of them".<sup>11</sup> And he equates – albeit not always unambiguously - ideas with mental images, for instance in the section on Abstraction, where he says: "ideas taken from particular beings become general representatives of all of the same kind; and their names general names, applicable to whatever exists conformable to such abstract ideas. Such precise, naked appearances in the mind ... the understanding lays up (with names commonly annexed to them) as the standards to rank real existences into sorts."<sup>12</sup> The words "idea", "conception", "thought" and "imagination" Locke tends to treat as synonymous.<sup>13</sup> On the other hand in the Essay there is a marked tendency to equate ideas with single written words. The mind, at birth, is like a "white paper, void of all characters, without any ideas"; when describing the doctrine of stamped, or imprinted, innate characters,<sup>14</sup> it is only the innateness Locke takes issue with. For Berkeley and Hume it was not at all a question that ideas are mental images; their problem, rather, was to understand how images can be the carriers of general meanings.<sup>15</sup>

- 12 Ibid., Book II, ch. xi, sect. 9.
- 13 Cf. e.g. Book III, ch. ii, sect. 6.

<sup>9</sup> Francis Bacon, *The Advancement of Learning* (1605), Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1974, pp. 130 f. Bacon's reference here is to the *De interpretatione*.

<sup>10</sup> *The Philosophical Writings of Descartes*, vol. I, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1985, p. 165.

<sup>11</sup> John Locke, An Essay Concerning Human Understanding, Book III, ch. xi, sect. 25.

<sup>14</sup> Ibid., Book II, ch. i, sect. 2; and Book I, ch. i, sect. 1 and 5.

<sup>15</sup> Recall Locke's famous difficulty, described in Book IV, ch. vii, sect. 9 of his *Essay*. As Locke here puts it, it does indeed "require some pains and skill to form the general idea of a triangle, (which is yet none of the most abstract, comprehensive, and difficult,) for it must be neither oblique nor rectangle, neither equilateral, equicrural, nor scalenon; but all and none of these at once. In effect, it is something imperfect, that

Berkeley, insisting that ideas are indeed images, maintained that generic mental images are inconceivable. Hume however seems to have found a solution: according to his formula in the section "Of Abstract Ideas" of Book One in the *Treatise*, we have ideas "not really and in fact present to the mind, but only in power", ideas we do not "draw … all out distinctly in the imagination, but keep ourselves in a readiness to survey any of them, as we may be prompted by a present design or necessity". Of the British Empiricists, it is Hume whose views on the thinking process are the most consistently imagistic.

#### **The Darwin Effect**

The British Empiricists' perceptivity for the role of mental images left no trace on the philosophical thinking of the last decades of the 18th and the first half of the 19th centuries. Kant's heroic attempt, in the chapter on schematism in his *Critique of Pure Reason*, to come to terms with the problem of how images and concepts hang together, had absolutely no impact for some hundred and fifty years;<sup>16</sup> philosophy, both on the Continent and in Britain, became for quite some time entirely language-centred. The "linguistic turn", to use the expression made famous by Richard Rorty whose views I will briefly discuss further below, much pre-dated the twentieth century. By way of illustration, let me here give three indirect references. First, the neurologist Henry Head rebelling, in the 1920s, against a very influential paper by Bastian, published in 1869, with Head remarking that "the whole work" of Bastian "was founded on the axiom that 'we think in words"".<sup>17</sup> Secondly, Ribot taking issue, in 1897, with Max Müller, the German-born philologist and orientalist of great renown, working in Britain. As Ribot puts it, Müller accepts as

cannot exist; an idea wherein some parts of several different and inconsistent ideas are put together". Ideas seem to be of a pictorial nature (otherwise the general idea of a triangle would not cause embarrassment) but also they must permit of non-pictorial dimensions (since as *generic* pictures, Locke implies, they *cannot* exist).

<sup>16</sup> Heidegger's Kant and the Problem of Metaphysics, the first study to discover the significance of these Kantian analyses, appeared in 1929. See my paper "Kritik des reinen Bildes: Anschauung, Begriff, Schema", in H. Lenk and R. Wiehl (eds.), Kant Today/Kant aujourd'hui/Kant heute, Münster: LIT, 2006, pp. 71–84, and my discussion of Heidegger in the present chapter.

<sup>17</sup> Henry Head, Aphasia and Kindred Disorders of Speech, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1926, vol. 1, p. 54, referring to H. Charlton Bastian, "On the Various Forms of Loss of Speech in Cerebral Disease". Head is arguing for a "return to the teaching of Aristotle that human reason depends on the senses and imagery", *ibid.*, p. 45.

an "axiom" the "antique aphorism" according to which "it is impossible to think without words".<sup>18</sup> And thirdly: half a century later the mathematician Hadamard is still outraged by Müller, who "claims to find in the fact that thought is impossible without words an argument against every evolutionary theory, a proof that man cannot be descended from any animal species".<sup>19</sup>

That evolutionary theory should enter the picture here is significant. One can witness a late-nineteenth-century revival of the interest in mental images, an early, and for decades forgotten, prelude to the iconic turn proper beginning in the 1970s, an interest that was unequivocally bound up with the impact of Darwin. Before Darwin, there was reason to take the abyss between animal and human intelligence for granted: animal mental life might be based on images, but that of humans was based on language ("in the beginning was the word"). With Darwin this changed. The *Descent of Man* speaks a clear language: "The *Imagination* is one of the highest prerogatives of man. By this faculty he unites former images and ideas, independently of the will, and thus creates brilliant and novel results. … Dreaming gives us the best notion of this power… As dogs, cats, horses, and probably all the higher animals, even birds have vivid dreams, and this is shewn by their movements and the sounds uttered, we must admit that they possess some power of imagination."<sup>20</sup>

It is not by chance that it was Darwin's early advocate T. H. Huxley who in his book on Hume, published in 1878, ventured to return to the topic of "generic ideas" that "may exist independently of language", ideas which Huxley compares to "compound photographs", amounting to "sketches", *generic portraits*, rather than a specific portrait.<sup>21</sup> And it was Darwin's half-cousin Galton who in his *Inquiries into Human Faculty*, published in 1883,<sup>22</sup> first outlined,

<sup>18</sup> Théodule Armand Ribot, L'évolution des idées générales. I am quoting from the English translation, *The Evolution of General Ideas*, Chicago: Open Court, 1899, p. 39, see also p. 28: "Max Müller, who persists in affirming that it is radically impossible to think and reason without words…"

<sup>19</sup> Jacques Hadamard, *An Essay on the Psychology of Invention in the Mathematical Field*, Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press, 1945, p. 67.

<sup>20</sup> Charles Darwin, *The Descent of Man, and Selection in Relation to Sex*, vol. 1, London: John Murray, 1871, pp. 45 f.

<sup>21</sup> There are very many editions of Huxley's *Hume*; a convenient summary of his views on the subject of imagery is provided by William James, in his *The Principles of Psychology* (1890), in the chapter on "Imagination", London: Macmillan & Co., 1901, vol. II, pp. 46 ff.

<sup>22</sup> Francis Galton, *Inquiries into Human Faculty and Its Development* (1883), 2nd ed. London: J. M. Dent & Co., 1907.

based on empirical investigations, a well-rounded and extremely influential theory of mental images, a theory with immediate impact on Binet,<sup>23</sup> James<sup>24</sup> and Ribot,<sup>25</sup> and exploited somewhat later by Titchener,<sup>26</sup> Koffka,<sup>27</sup> Russell<sup>28</sup> and innumerable others, with echoes even in Wittgenstein's thinking.<sup>29</sup> One of the addressees of the questionnaires Galton has sent out was Darwin himself. In his reply, Darwin, as Howard Gruber puts it, "gives an account of himself as someone with fairly strong visual imagery";<sup>30</sup> his answer to the question as to whether he has, and what kind of, visual recollections of his breakfast table, runs: "Some objects quite defined, a slice of cold beef, some grapes and a pear, the state of my plate when I had finished, and a few other objects, are as distinct as if I had photos before me."<sup>31</sup> Indeed *thinking with* mental images, and thinking with *diagrams* emerging from mental images, seems to have been, as Gruber has shown, a centrally important method for Darwin. The "tree of

- 24 Cf. op. cit., vol. 2, pp. 51 ff.
- 25 Cf. Ribot, op. cit., p. 10.

- 29 Cf. Ludwig Wittgenstein, Preliminary Studies for the "Philosophical Investigations": Generally Known as the Blue and Brown Books, ed. by Rush Rhees (1958), Oxford: Basil Blackwell, 1964, p. 18.
- 30 Howard E. Gruber, Darwin on Man: A Psychological Study of Scientific Creativity, 2nd ed., Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1981, p. 237. I am indebted to Csaba Pléh for having drawn my attention to Gruber's work.
- 31 The Life and Letters of Charles Darwin, vol. III, London: John Murray, 1887, p. 239.

<sup>23</sup> Cf. Alfred Binet, *La psychologie du raisonnement* (1886), Engl. translation *The Psychology of Reasoning*, Chicago: Open Court, 1899, pp. 25 f. and 116–118.

<sup>26</sup> Cf. Edward Bradford Titchener, *Lectures on the Experimental Psychology of the Thought-Processes*, New York: Macmillan, 1909, pp. 13, 201 f., 205 f., 208, 211.

<sup>27</sup> Cf. Kurt Koffka, Zur Analyse der Vorstellungen und ihrer Gesetze: Eine experimentelle Untersuchung, Leipzig: Quelle & Meyer, 1912, p. 194.

<sup>28</sup> See Bertrand Russell, "On Propositions: What They Are and How They Mean" (1919), Aristotelian Society Supplementary Volume, 2, pp. 1–43, repr. in J. G. Slater (ed.), The Collected Papers of Bertrand Russell, Volume 8: The Philosophy of Logical Atomism and Other Essays, 1914–19, London: George Allen & Unwin, 1986, pp. 284 f.: "If you try to persuade an ordinary uneducated person that she cannot call up a visual picture of a friend sitting in a chair, but can only use words describing what such an occurrence would be like, she will conclude that you are mad. (This statement is based upon experiment.) I see no reason whatever to reject the conclusion originally suggested by Galton's investigations, namely, that the habit of abstract pursuits makes learned men much inferior to the average in the power of visualizing, and much more exclusively occupied with words in their 'thinking'."

life" diagram, published in the *Origins of Species*, has a number of forerunners in Darwin's notebooks – the "tree schema" there actually serves as a basis of specific deductions.<sup>32</sup>

## **Meeting Rorty**

The thesis I am arguing for in this opening chapter is that the demarcation line beyond which we should conceive of scientific theories not as possible explanations of the world, but as mathematical instruments enabling us to arrive at correct practical predictions, is not the much-discussed observable/non-observable border (in the case of Mach and the logical positivists blending into the demarcation line between science and metaphysics), but rather the border between, on the one hand, what we can *imagine*, in the sense of being able to form perceptual images, and, on the other hand, what we cannot describe but in abstract symbolic terms. The present section and the next one are meant to set the stage, in the form of some personal reminiscences and reflections, for my main argument which I will present in the last, somewhat longer, section: "Believe What You Can Visualize".

I became personally acquainted with Rorty late in both of our lives. I met him for the first and the last time in 2004, on two consecutive days. On May 5 I picked him up, with his wife, at the railway station in Budapest where they arrived from a visit in Pécs in southern Hungary. I drove them to their hotel and we discussed some organizational details in connection with the talk he was to give on the next day at the Hungarian Academy of Sciences. He seemed tired; we soon parted. I vividly remember the following morning. There was still some time before his talk was due, the sun was shining beautifully; we walked a short distance from the Academy main building to the Danube – to the Chain Bridge – and suddenly I found myself asking him a question. What did he think, I asked, about the *pictorial turn* underway in philosophy? Clearly, this was a rather extraordinary question to put to the man whose name had been, ever since the mid-1960s, closely associated with the term "linguistic turn"<sup>33</sup>, and whose 1979 book *Philosophy and the Mirror* 

<sup>32</sup> Cf. Gruber, op. cit., pp. 141–144, see also Howard E. Gruber, "Darwin's 'Tree of Nature' and Other Images of Wide Scope" (1978), in Howard E. Gruber – Katja Bödeker (eds.), Creativity, Psychology and the History of Science, Dordrecht: Springer, 2005, pp. 241–257.

<sup>33</sup> The term itself Rorty attributes to Hugo Bergmann, cf. the editor's "Introduction" in Richard Rorty (ed.), *The Linguistic Turn: Recent Essays in Philosophical Method*, Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1967, p. 9.

of Nature was a single extended attack on "ocular" or "visual" metaphors in philosophy<sup>34</sup> – on the "spectator theory of knowledge"<sup>35</sup>. But wasn't W. J. T. Mitchell's 1992 paper "The Pictorial Turn" directly addressing Rorty's work,<sup>36</sup> and didn't the latter by 1990 regard the issues pertaining to linguistic philosophy as having become quaint? Rorty's reaction, there and then, was embarrassing: he has never heard about the expression "pictorial turn", could not imagine what it might mean, and was utterly taken aback by my hurried attempt at some rudimentary explanation. Still, the subject came up again later in the day, during the dinner to which I invited the couple at a restaurant in my home village on the Danube Bend. I think I tried to say something about the implications, for philosophy, of the imagery debate in cognitive science, and about how the ease of accessing and indeed producing pictures in the new digital medium affects not only the ways we communicate, but also the ways we think. This time Dick became interested, as did, also, Mary; they were empathetic, inspiring, and of course absolutely charming; we decided that we should stay in touch and continue discussing the topic.

It did not come to pass. Nor was there an occasion left for me to compare notes with Rorty on the three philosophers who, if I may express it this way, were common heroes to us. I am referring to Heidegger, Wittgenstein, and Wilfrid Sellars, and it is clear that Rorty and I came to hold widely diverging views on them. For the author of *Philosophy and the Mirror of Nature*, Heidegger was, first and foremost, a foe of "the notion of knowledge as accurate representation",<sup>37</sup> a philosopher whose concern was "to explore the way in which the West became obsessed with the notion of our primary relation to objects as analogous to visual perception".<sup>38</sup> My impression is that this dimension in Heidegger's thought never lost its primary significance for Rorty. By contrast, I came to regard the Heidegger of the 1920s as someone who genuinely has something fundamental to say about our encounter with the world, and, not incidentally, about our encounter with the visual world. It is in his *Kant and the Problem of Metaphysics* that Heidegger

<sup>34</sup> Richard Rorty, *Philosophy and the Mirror of Nature*, Oxford: Basil Blackwell, 1979, *passim*, but see esp. pp. 11, 39 and 371.

<sup>35</sup> Ibid., p. 41. The expectation that "the traditional 'spectatorial' account of knowledge" might soon be "overthrown" is already voiced in Richard Rorty (ed.), *The Linguistic Turn: Recent Essays in Philosophical Method*, Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1967, see Rorty's "Introduction", p. 39.

<sup>36</sup> See W. J. T. Mitchell, *Picture Theory*, Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1994, p. 11.

<sup>37</sup> Philosophy and the Mirror of Nature, p. 6.

<sup>38</sup> Ibid., pp. 162 f.

faces the problem of how to reconcile the conceptual with the perceptual. The "power of imagination" – the Kantian *Einbildungskraft* – "refers to all representing in the broadest sense which is not in accordance with perception: conceiving of something, … devising, having an inspiration".<sup>39</sup> As Heidegger puts it, "the correct understanding of the sensible character of the power of imagination" must go hand in hand with an "insight into the primary representational character of thinking".<sup>40</sup> Heidegger not only emphasizes that the power of imagination is a faculty which actually provides *images*,<sup>41</sup> but offers, in a nutshell, a brilliant analysis of the fundamental questions of pictorial representation: of what *likeness* is, and how *general images* are possible.<sup>42</sup>

Heidegger's book on Kant, and especially the passages I refer to here, have never been in the limelight. It is understandable that Rorty did not form a picture of Heidegger the philosopher of images. It is similarly understandable that he was unaware of the later Wittgenstein's preoccupation with pictorial representation. As Rorty put it in *Philosophy and the Mirror of Nature*: "you can't recognize a picture of X *as* a picture of X without being familiar with the relevant pictorial conventions".<sup>43</sup> In the heyday of linguistic philosophy, the later Wittgenstein was invariably read through Goodman's eyes. The uncontested view was that images do not depict, do not resemble; they *denote* – just like the words of verbal language. And *what* they denote will be determined by rules we have to learn.

40 Ibid., p. 103.

<sup>39</sup> Martin Heidegger, *Kant and the Problem of Metaphysics* (1929), transl. by Richard Taft, Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1997, p. 91.

<sup>41</sup> Ibid., p. 91.

<sup>42</sup> The following lines can perhaps convey the flavour of Heidegger's analyses here: "It is possible to produce a copy (photograph) … from … a likeness, [a photograph] of a death mask for example. The copy can now directly copy the likeness and thus reveal the 'image' (the immediate look) of the deceased himself. The photograph of the death mask, as copy of a likeness, is itself an image – but this is only because it gives the 'image' of the dead person, shows how the dead person appears, or rather how it appeared. … – Now the photograph, however, can also show how something like a death mask appears in general. In turn, the death mask can show in general how something like the face of a dead human being appears. But an individual corpse itself can also show this. And similarly, the mask itself can also show how a death mask in general appears, just as a photograph shows not only how what is photographed, but also how a photograph in general, appears", *ibid.*, p. 66. I have corrected a misprint or mistranslation in the edition here quoted: the phrase "The copy can now directly copy the likeness" there has "only" instead of "now" (i.e. "nur" instead of "nun").

<sup>43</sup> Philosophy and the Mirror of Nature, p. 25.

Now this is not at all a view Wittgenstein uniformly entertained. For instance, in the so-called "Part II" of the *Philosophical Investigations*, he outlines cases where understanding a picture appears to be entirely independent of language use. Giving the example of a "picture-face", he remarks: "In some respects I stand towards it as I do towards a human face. I can study its expression, can react to it as to the expression of the human face. A child can talk to picture-men or picture-animals, can treat them as it treats dolls." Let me note that remarks such as this were definitely rare in Wittgenstein's printed works, as available from the 1950s to the 1990s. The printed corpus only partially conveyed the richness, complexities, continuities of, and changes in, Wittgenstein's ideas on pictorial representation. It was only with the publication of the Bergen electronic edition, making his full *Nachlaß* available, that the extent of Wittgenstein's commitment to the idea of images and words playing intertwining roles became clear.<sup>44</sup>

## **Images of Sellars**

In the "Introduction" to his volume *The Linguistic Turn*, Rorty outlines a number of alternatives for the future of philosophy. One of these he characterizes as no longer envisaging "the dissolution of philosophical problems, but rather the creation of new, interesting and fruitful ways of thinking about things in general". On this alternative, "[p]hilosophers would be, as they have traditionally been supposed to be, men who gave one a *Weltanschauung* – in Sellars' phrase, a way of 'understanding how things in the broadest possible sense of the term hang together in the broadest possible sense of the term'."<sup>45</sup> The passage Rorty here quotes, from Sellars' "Philosophy and the Scientific Image of Man", played, way back in the late 1960s, a formative role in the development of my own thinking.<sup>46</sup> Sellars was my first, and most important, mentor in philosophy. We never met in person – in those

<sup>44</sup> See my "Wittgenstein's Philosophy of Pictures" (2001), in A. Pichler and S. Säätelä (eds.), Wittgenstein: The Philosopher and his Works, Frankfurt a. M.: ontos verlag, 2006, pp. 322–353.

<sup>45</sup> The Linguistic Turn, p. 34.

<sup>46</sup> The passage in full: "The aim of philosophy, abstractly formulated, is to understand how things in the broadest possible sense of the term hang together in the broadest possible sense of the term. Under 'things in the broadest possible sense' I include such radically different items as not only 'cabbages and kings', but numbers and duties, possibilities and finger snaps, aesthetic experience and death." (Wilfrid Sellars, *Science, Perception and Reality*, London: Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1963, p. 1.)

days Hungarians were seldom permitted to leave the country for a scholarly visit to the States – but we corresponded, and he lavishly furnished me with preprints and offprints. What I was most impressed by was the particular variety of scientific realism Sellars stood for: the view that science is "continuous with common sense", and the idea of theoretical entities as postulated but real. I am still fascinated by this idea. In my rudimentary attempts to come to grips with some issues in the philosophy of time, I find Sellars' suggestion that "time has the status of a quasi-theoretical entity"<sup>47</sup> particularly helpful.<sup>48</sup> Now Sellars the scientific realist stresses that it is of course physics, or rather the future advance of physics, and not metaphysics, that ultimately determines what the nature of the theoretical entity *time* is.<sup>49</sup> In the final section of the present chapter I will explain why I think that on this point I have to diverge from Sellars – why I believe that we need something like descriptive metaphysics here to defend the rights of common-sense understanding in the face of apparent excesses in scientific theory-building. As I indicated above, my argument will turn on the role of *images* in our thinking.

Sellars does not allow for such a role. What he tells us in "Philosophy and the Scientific Image of Man" is that "all attempts to construe thoughts as complex patterns of images have failed, and, as we know, were bound to fail"<sup>50</sup>, that "association of thoughts is not association of images"<sup>51</sup>, and that "however intimately conceptual thinking is related to sensations and images, it cannot be equated with them, nor with complexes consisting of them"<sup>52</sup>. But Sellars does not only not *equate* thoughts with images, he actually *excludes* the latter from the realm of the former. As it becomes clear e.g. from his major essay "Empiricism and the Philosophy of Mind", mental episodes, for him, are *linguistic* episodes, and imagery boils down to *verbal* imagery<sup>53</sup> – while at same time, in that

<sup>47</sup> Wilfrid Sellars, "Time and the World Order", in Herbert Feigl and Grover Maxwell (eds.), *Minnesota Studies in the Philosophy of Science*, vol. III, Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, p. 551.

<sup>48</sup> For a first experiment of mine along Sellarsian lines see my "Time and Communication", in F. Stadler and M. Stöltzner (eds.), *Time and History/Zeit und Geschichte*, Frankfurt/M.: ontos verlag, 2006, pp. 302 f.

<sup>49 &</sup>quot;Time and the World Order", p. 593.

<sup>50</sup> Science, Perception and Reality, p. 15.

<sup>51</sup> Ibid., p. 16.

<sup>52</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 32. I find the way this last passage begins telling: "one scarcely needs to point out these days that however intimately conceptual thinking is related to sensations and images, it cannot be equated with them...".

<sup>53</sup> First published in 1956, repr. in Science, Perception and Reality, pp. 177 f.

very essay, he develops a theory within the framework of which he could easily have explained the status of mental images. According to this theory, thoughts are theoretical entities construed, in primordial times, on the analogy of overt verbal episodes. Sellars does find a place in his framework for impressions - but not for images.<sup>54</sup> Experts on Sellars might respond by pointing out that, still, the notion of "picturing" played a central role in his paper "Truth and 'Correspondence"", or indeed in the chapter on "Picturing" in his book Science and Metaphysics. Recall however, that for Sellars picturing was but a relation between configurations of objects in the world on the one hand, and *linguistic* configurations on the other.55 From his reminiscences of Wittgenstein's Tractatus the message of paragraphs 4.016 and 4.02 is completely missing. And this is what Wittgenstein wrote there: "In order to understand the essence of the proposition, consider hieroglyphic writing, which pictures the facts it describes. - And from it came the alphabet without the essence of representation being lost. - This we see from the fact that we understand the sense of the propositional sign, without having had it explained to us."

All this is striking, for Sellars definitely had a sense for images and pictures. As becomes clear when looking at the posthumous volume *Kant and Pre-Kantian Themes: Lectures by Wilfrid Sellars*,<sup>56</sup> in class he loved to draw pictures and diagrams as a means to explain philosophical problems. And the situation becomes really baffling when we realize that in the mid-1930s, when Sellars was studying

<sup>54</sup> A cognitive psychological theory along what can be regarded as Sellarsian lines was developed in Allan Paivio's *Imagery and Verbal Processes* (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1971), one the first contributions to the so-called imagery debate. "Mental images", wrote Paivio, belong to the order of "postulated processes", they are "theoretical constructs", "inferential concepts", i.e. entities or processes themselves not observable, but having observable aspects and implications. Introspective experiencing of visual images on the one hand, and the objective recording of neural phenomena on the other, are empirical observations of a very different sort, but they refer to one and the same theoretical construct of a "mental image". Paivio contrasts his own methodology with "the classical approach to imagery" in which "the term image was used to refer to consciously-experienced mental processes" (*Imagery and Verbal Processes*, pp. 6–11). I will come back to Paivio later in the present chapter.

<sup>55</sup> The title of Joseph C. Pitt's book *Pictures, Images and Conceptual Change: An Analysis of Wilfrid Sellars' Philosophy of Science* amounts to a practical joke: in this book a "picture" is defined as a "linguistic item intimately tied to the concepts of a matterof-fact and truth" (Dordrecht: Reidel, 1981, p. 10).

<sup>56</sup> Atascadero, CA: Ridgeview, 2002, ed. by Pedro Amaral.

philosophy at Oxford, his tutor was H. H. Price,<sup>57</sup> whose 1953 book *Thinking and Experience* is without doubt the fundamental twentieth-century philosophical treatise on the role of mental images. By way of ending the present section of this chapter, let me quote a passage from that book. "After listening to a lecture on Imageless Thinking", recounts Price, "a lady in the audience came up to the lecturer and said with a puzzled air, 'But, Professor, you can *think*, can't you?".<sup>58</sup>

## **Believe What You Can Visualize**

A famous figure that no-one assumes could not think is Albert Einstein. Now Einstein was a thoroughly visual thinker. The reader is of course familiar with those oft-quoted passages, in the Schilpp volume and in the Hadamard book, in which he insisted that in his creative work the role of the perceptual was paramount, while that of the verbal was merely secondary. "The words or the language", Einstein told Hadamard, "as they are written or spoken, do not seem to play any role in my mechanism of thought. The psychical entities which seem to serve as elements in thought are certain signs and more or less clear images... - ... [These] ... elements are ... of visual and some of muscular type. Conventional words or other signs have to be sought for laboriously only in a secondary stage...".<sup>59</sup> Or the passage from his autobiographical notes: "When ... memory-pictures emerge, this is not yet 'thinking'. And when such pictures form series, each member of which calls forth another, this too is not yet 'thinking'. When, however, a certain picture turns up in many such series, then ... it becomes an ordering element for such series, in that it connects series which in themselves are unconnected. Such an element becomes an instrument. a concept."60 We can assume that the visual thought-experiments through which Einstein used to explain his special theory of relativity represented pretty much the very train of thoughts that, in the first place, led him to his discoveries.

<sup>57</sup> See Sellars' "Autobiographical Reflections", in Hector-Neri Castaneda (ed.), Action, Knowledge, and Reality: Critical Studies in Honor of Wilfrid Sellars, Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill, 1975, p. 285. Sellars refers to Price in "Empiricism and the Philosophy of Mind", loc. cit., p. 162.

<sup>58</sup> H. H. Price, *Thinking and Experience*, London: Hutchinson's Universal Library, 1953, p. 234. – For a brief summary of Price's position on images, see my "Pictorial Meaning and Mobile Communication", in Kristóf Nyíri (ed.), *Mobile Communication: Essays on Cognition and Community*, Vienna: Passagen Verlag, 2003, pp. 159 f.

<sup>59</sup> Hadamard, op. cit. (cf. note 19 above), pp. 142 f.

<sup>60</sup> P. A. Schilpp (ed.), *Albert Einstein: Philosopher-Scientist*, Evanston, IL: The Library of Living Philosophers, Inc., 1949, p. 7.

## **Time Reduced to Space?**

Based upon what he imagined – what he *visualized* – Einstein developed a view of what time really *was*. I do not take the side of Arthur Fine, who in his important essay "The Natural Ontological Attitude" (an essay Rorty seems to have found congenial,<sup>61</sup> and one that refers to Paul Horwich's "semantic realism" as the closest counterpart, in the philosophy of language, to Fine's own position<sup>62</sup>) ascribes an instrumentalist position to Einstein's 1905 paper;<sup>63</sup> I concur, rather, with Thomas Sattig's position, according to which "Einstein's original formulation of Special Relativity", as contrasted with the formulation he adopted under the influence of Minkowski, "was metaphysically a theory of ordinary space and time"<sup>64</sup>. Now the view Sattig himself accepts is the one Minkowski had put forward in 1908. As Sattig maintains: "Spacetime points and regions are not just mathematical metaphors; they are among the most fundamental entries in our ontological inventory. The realistic interpretation was adopted by Minkowski ... as well as [after 1908] by Einstein".<sup>65</sup>

My train of thought here is designed to indicate a line of argument which might cast doubt on the reality of Minkowskian spacetime. Thus, at this juncture I shall part ways with Sattig, and join up with Arthur Fine, according to whom "to claim genuine reality for ... the four-dimensional space-time manifold" amounts to accepting ideas which "not only ... boggle the mind of the average man in the street ..., they boggle most contemporary scientific minds as well". As Fine sees the matter, "the majority opinion among working, knowledgeable scientists" is that relativity theory is "a powerful instrument", but is not understood as a genuine foundation for "realist existence and nonexistence claims".<sup>66</sup>

<sup>61</sup> See Rorty, "Pragmatism, Davidson and Truth" (1986), in his *Objectivism, Relativism, and Truth*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1991.

<sup>62</sup> Fine, "The Natural Ontological Attitude" (1984), repr. in Martin Curd and J. A. Cover (eds.), *Philosophy of Science: The Central Issues*, New York: Norton, 1998, p. 1208.

<sup>63</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 1194.

<sup>64</sup> Thomas Sattig, *The Language and Reality of Time*, Oxford: Clarendon Press, 2006, p. 44.

<sup>65</sup> *Ibid*.

<sup>66</sup> Fine, *op. cit.*, pp. 1194 f. – Marshalling arguments both from the philosophy of science and the philosophy of religion, William Lane Craig, some fifteen years later, takes a similar position: "A good many philosophers of science think of the four-dimensional, geometrical representation of space-time, not realistically, but *instrumentally*, that is

Now why do I believe that the notion of a four-dimensional spacetime must, the great array of brilliant philosophical treatises to the contrary notwithstanding, indeed boggle the mind? I am coming to my main argument. In "Philosophy and the Scientific Image of Man", Sellars wrote: "it is a familiar fact that not everything that can be conceived can, in the ordinary sense, be imagined".<sup>67</sup> The position I am here defending, representing the tradition, in part outlined earlier in this chapter, from Plato through Hume to Titchener, Bartlett, Arnheim, H. H. Price, and Allan Paivio, maintains that, on the contrary, nothing can be conceived that cannot in the ordinary, albeit very broad, sense be imagined. Or, to put it in slightly less radical terms: scientific propositions which offer no kind of transition to visual imagery should not be taken as descriptions or indeed explanations of what there really is. By "transition", I mean something Wittgenstein seems to have meant with *überführen*, when in § 449 of Philosophical Investigations he wrote: "Man bedenkt nicht, daß man mit den Worten rechnet, operiert, sie mit der Zeit in dies oder jenes Bild überführt", or as Anscombe has it: "We do not realize that we *calculate*, operate, with words, and in the course of time translate them sometimes into one picture, sometimes into another."

In my view, the definitive theory on how words and images hang together is Paivio's *dual coding approach*, first summarized in his 1971 book *Imagery and Verbal Processes*. Paivio notes that while "the developmental studies inspired by Piaget, Bruner, and Werner all involved the assumption that images are specialized for the representation of concrete objects and events, whereas inner speech is functionally useful in dealing with abstract problems, concepts, and relationships", this functional distinction cannot be rigidly maintained, as is indicated by "the apparent development of relatively abstract (schematic) images and concretization of abstract ideas in the form of specific images". What Paivio emphasizes is that, ordinarily, "neither images nor words act as independent processes"; rather, they continually interact.<sup>68</sup> Now if this is what really happens, as I believe it is, then we can conclude that strings of words that do not give rise to a steady flow of images do not, strictly speaking, refer to anything; they might be symbolic devices facilitating inferences, but they in no way mirror the world.

to say, as an elegant and handy way of presenting the Special Theory of Relativity or the General Theory of Relativity..." (*Time and Eternity: Exploring God's Relationship to Time*, Wheaton, IL: Crossway Books, 2001, p. 95). Arguing against the notion of a timeless God, Brentano, too, consistently held that the idea that "time is the fourth dimension of space" was, at best, a *harmless fiction*. (Franz Brentano, *Philosophical Investigations on Space, Time and the Continuum*, transl. by Barry Smith, London: Croom Helm, 1988, pp. 94 ff. and 173 ff., dictations from 1915 and 1917.)

<sup>67</sup> Loc. cit., p. 5.

<sup>68</sup> Imagery and Verbal Processes, pp. 27 and 32.

## The Visual and the Motor

There is an essential connection between the visual on the one hand, and the motor and the tactile on the other. Paivio reports previous research showing that mature imagery incorporates "the implicit motor components of imitative acts", and goes on to show that "a motor component (implicit or explicit) appears to be generally characteristic of images of movement, and of the transformations involved in the generation of an integrated figural image or the solution of more complex problems requiring visual thinking. The motor component somehow facilitates the transition from one substantive part of the stream of thought to another."<sup>69</sup> The two classic studies to have suggested the dependence of visual imagery on an underlying motor dimension are, first, Ribot's Les Maladies de la volonté, published in 1882, and secondly, the work of Galton I have referred to earlier. As Ribot has put it, "the anatomical basis of all our mental states includes both motor and sensory elements. ... our perceptions, in particular the important ones, those of sight and touch, imply as integral elements movements of the eye or the members; and ... if movement is an essential element when we see an object really, it must play the same role when we see it ideally. Images and ideas, even abstract, suppose an anatomical substratum in which the movements are in some measure represented."70 As to Galton, he was struck by the problem that those, too, can – obviously but strangely – get along with the task of thinking who appear to be unable to experience mental images. And this was his solution to the problem: "the missing faculty seems to be replaced so serviceably by other modes of conception, chiefly, I believe, connected with the incipient motor sense, not of the eyeballs only but of the muscles generally, that men who declare themselves entirely deficient in the power of seeing mental pictures can nevertheless give life-like descriptions of what they have seen and can otherwise express themselves as if they were gifted with a vivid visual imagination".<sup>71</sup> It is very much under the influence of the Ribot passage just quoted that Binet introduces his discussion of the "motor type";<sup>72</sup> James refers to Galton, and cites Binet citing Ribot, in one single, highly important passage.<sup>73</sup>

<sup>69</sup> Ibid., pp. 30 f.

<sup>70</sup> Théodule Armand Ribot, *The Diseases of the Will* (1882), 4th Engl. transl., Chicago: Open Court, 1915, p. 3.

<sup>71</sup> Galton, *Inquiries into Human Faculty*, 1883 (see note 22 above), p. 61.

<sup>72</sup> The Psychology of Reasoning, 1886 (see note 23 above), Engl. transl. 1899, pp. 23 f.

<sup>73</sup> James, op. cit., vol. II, p. 61.

The motor component - one is of course reminded here of Arnheim's analysis of descriptive gestures, "those forerunners of line drawing", in his 1969 book Visual Thinking. As he there puts it: "the perceptual qualities of shape and motion are present in the very acts of thinking depicted by the gestures and are in fact the medium in which the thinking itself takes place. These perceptual qualities are not necessarilv visual or only visual. In gestures, the kinesthetic experiences of pushing, pulling, advancing, obstructing, are likely to play an important part."<sup>74</sup> One is reminded, also, of John M. Kennedy's 1993 book Drawing and the Blind,75 providing, in fact, an elaborate new theory of visual and tactile perception. One is reminded of neurologist Antonio Damasio's remark that "[w]hen people visualize what they intend to accomplish, an accompanying bodily response makes them feel the reality of their goal".<sup>76</sup> And one is reminded of Hacking's insistence, in his "Experimentation and Scientific Realism", that it is not so much observability, but rather the possibility of *manipulating* objects, which is the guarantee of reality.<sup>77</sup> The lesson I draw from Hacking's paper is that imaginability and tangibility are closely related, and that, hence, imaginability is a likely criterion of explanatory power.

#### Minkowski and Weyl

But let me return to Minkowski. This is how he began his famous talk in Cologne in 1908: "The views of space and time which I wish to lay before you have sprung from the soil of experimental physics, and therein lies their strength. They are radical. Henceforth space by itself, and time by itself, are doomed to fade away into

<sup>74</sup> Rudolf Arnheim, Visual Thinking, Berkeley: University of California Press, 1969, pp. 117 f. I will come back to this passage by Arnheim in chapter 5 below. – The changes in Arnheim's views on the connections between the visual and the motor, occurring in the course of his journey from the first edition of his Art and Visual Perception, 1954, through his Visual Thinking, 1969, to the second edition of Art and Visual Perception, 1974, are as instructive as they seem to have gone practically unnoticed. I am indebted to my good friend Gábor Palló, historian of science, for memorable discussions on the subject.

<sup>75</sup> New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.

<sup>76</sup> Antonio R. Damasio, Descartes' Error: Emotion, Reason, and the Human Brain, New York: Grosset/Putnam, 1994, here quoted after Stefan Klein, The Secret Pulse of Time: Making Sense of Life's Scarcest Commodity, New York: Marlowe & Co., 2007, pp. 222 f.

<sup>77</sup> Ian Hacking, "Experimentation and Scientific Realism" (1982), repr. in Curd and Cover (eds.), *Philosophy of Science*, p. 1157.

mere shadows, and only a kind of union of the two will preserve an independent reality."78 A mere few lines later there comes the step which, from my present perspective, I see as crucial. Minkowski announces that he "will try to visualize the state of things by the graphic method". He embarks on drawing a diagram (three more will follow in the course of his presentation), saying: "With this most valiant piece of chalk I might project upon the blackboard four world-axes." And he immediately adds that understanding the diagram of course requires some abstraction, because of "the number four"; but such a measure of abstraction "is for the mathematician no infliction". By drawing this diagram, he continues, "we obtain, as an image, so to speak, of the everlasting career of the substantial point, a curve in the world, a *world-line*...".<sup>79</sup> The German wording is: "Wir erhalten alsdann als Bild sozusagen für den ewigen Lebenslauf des substantiellen Punktes eine Kurve in der Welt, eine Weltlinie...". Now the twist of course is that the "Bild" we get is not an image at all, since – forgive me for spelling out the obvious – a four-dimensional diagram cannot be drawn, cannot be visualized, cannot be imagined.<sup>80</sup> I guess this has been pointed out innumerable times, but let me here just refer to the 1965 paper by Peter Geach, "Some Problems about Time", observing some of the oddities of Minkowski's graphs, and let me quote from Strawson's editorial introduction to the volume in which the Geach paper was included. "Geach edges his common sense with logic", writes Strawson, "to attack some fanciful theorizing - claiming to derive respectability from physics – which, in place of our ordinary conception

<sup>78</sup> Hermann Minkowski, "Space and Time", in H. A. Lorentz, A. Einstein, H. Minkowski and H. Weyl, *The Principle of Relativity: A Collection of Original Memoirs on the Special and General Theory of Relativity* (1923), Mineola, NY: Dover Publications, 1952, p. 75.

<sup>79</sup> Ibid., p. 76.

<sup>80</sup> Clearly there exist methods of n-dimensional visualization in mathematics, a spectacular one – and probably the best known – being the parallel coordinates system by Alfred Inselberg. But Inselberg never suggested that his visualizations are as it were depictions of anything in the real world. In a telling introductory passage of his recent book *Visual Multidimensional Geometry and Its Applications*, he referred to the 1917 paper "In What Way Does it Become Manifest in the Fundamental Laws of Physics that Space has Three Dimensions?" by the physicist Paul Ehrenfest – a close friend, incidentally, of Einstein – as showing, say, that "planetary orbits are stable only in space of dimension 3. Higher-dimensional planetary systems, if they ever existed, would have a short career due to the orbits' instability, which offers an interesting hypothesis for the dimensional Geometry and Its Applications, Dordrecht: Springer, 2009, p. 2).

of objects undergoing change, advocates thinking of a three-dimensional-object-ata-time as a 'temporal slice' of a four-dimensional object. He presses his criticisms by urging the lack of analogy, the radical differences, between spatial and temporal order."<sup>81</sup> The Geach–Strawson pair has elicited some angry comments from J. J. C. Smart, who in a paper in 1972 stressed that although "in popular exposition" Minkowski did in fact attempt graphic visualization, "his *argument* is not the analogy with graphs. His argument is that only space-time entities are invariant...".<sup>82</sup> But this is precisely the point. Minkowski devised but a mathematical instrument, presenting it, however, as a true description of the real world. As Arnheim has put it in his *Visual Thinking*: while grasping the view of time suggested by the special theory of relativity can be supported by visualizing the alternation of the images of two systems, "one for which an object is in motion and another for which the same object is at rest", the "fourth spatial dimension", postulated subsequently, is "a purely mathematical construct", not accessible to our mental imagery.<sup>83</sup>

I will come back to Minkowski and to Smart in a minute, but let me just pause to present two famous passages by another great German mathematician, heir to the Einstein–Minkowski tradition: Hermann Weyl. The first passage is from Weyl's book *Space–Time–Matter*, originally published in 1918. "[T]he scene of action of reality", Weyl writes,

83 Arnheim, op. cit., pp. 288–291. "If a fourth spatial dimension cannot be visualized", Arnheim goes on to write, "it is probably because ... [b]eyond [the third dimension] geometrical calculations – just as any other multidimensional calculations, such as factor analysis in psychology – must be content with fragmentary visualization, if any. This also means probably putting up with pieces of understanding rather than obtaining a true grasp of the whole. – No fourth dimension of space, however, is in fact claimed to exist by modern physics. It is, in the words of Arthur Eddington, 'a fictitious construction'" (*ibid.*, p. 292). The piece by Eddington Arnheim refers to is the chapter "Spherical Space" in the former's *The Expanding Universe* (1933), Arnheim quotes from the collection by Milton K. Munitz (ed.), *Theories of the Universe: From Babylonian Myth to Modern Science*, Glencoe, IL: The Free Press, 1957.

<sup>81</sup> P. F. Strawson (ed.), *Studies in the Philosophy of Thought and Action*, London: Oxford University Press, 1968, p. 5.

<sup>82</sup> J. J. C. Smart, "Space-Time and Individuals", in Richard Rudner and Israel Scheffler (eds.), *Logic & Art: Essays in Honor of Nelson Goodman*, Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill, 1972, p. 7. My impression is that Smart here has moved away from the position in his *Philosophy and Scientific Realism*. He there wrote: "many of the puzzles and paradoxes of relativity ... can most easily be resolved by drawing diagrams of Minkowski space-time, in which most of [the] at first sight counter-intuitive facts will at once look quite obvious" (London: Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1963, pp. 136 f.).

is not a three-dimensional Euclidean space, but rather a *four-dimensional world, in which space and time are linked together indissolubly.* However deep the chasm may be that separates the intuitive nature of space from that of time in our experience, nothing of this qualitative difference enters into the objective world which physics endeavours to crystallise out of direct experience. It is a four-dimensional continuum, which is neither "time" nor "space". Only the consciousness that passes on in one portion of this world experiences the detached piece which comes to meet it and passes behind it, as *history*, that is, as a process that is going forward in time and takes place in space.<sup>84</sup>

The second passage is from Weyl's Philosophy of Mathematics and Natural Science, originally published in 1927 in German. As Weyl here puts it: "The objective world simply is, it does not happen. Only to the gaze of my consciousness, crawling upward along the life line of my body, does a section of this world come to life as a fleeting image in space which continuously changes in time."85 What Richard Gale says about this passage does just as well fit the first one, namely that it should be understood as a metaphor, since, if taken literally, it would be simply absurd.<sup>86</sup> But let me make two comments. First, that whether taken literally or not, these passages are metaphysical statements, not implied by the mathematics on which they are apparently based. This is especially conspicuous in the case of the 1927 formulation, following in the book after an extended, partisan philosophical argument. My second comment is that metaphors are meaningless if they cannot be visualized, as Weyl's obviously cannot. I conclude that the Minkowski-Weyl interpretation of space-time is a merely instrumental one. And I suggest that scientific explanations must end, and a common-sense world view ought to be defended, at the point where mathematics ceases to be backed by images.

#### **Visualization in Mathematics**

Clearly, most of mathematics *is* backed by images. This is – may I refer back to the beginning of the present chapter – rather evident in the case of geometry. Arnheim himself, in his chapter "Thinking with Pure Shapes", stressed that not only "self-evident geometry", but also arithmetics and algebra have a thoroughly

<sup>84</sup> Hermann Weyl, *Space–Time–Matter* (4th German edition 1921), Mineola, NY: Dover Publications, 1952, p. 217.

<sup>85</sup> Hermann Weyl, *Philosophy of Mathematics and Natural Science*, Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press, 1949, p. 116.

<sup>86</sup> Richard M. Gale (ed.), *The Philosophy of Time: A Collection of Essays* (1967), London: Macmillan, 1968, pp. 298 f.

perceptual basis, that "[c]ounting is preceded by the perceptual grasp of groups", and that "[n]umbers are perceptual entities, visual and to some extent tactual and auditory".<sup>87</sup> Recent developments suggest that the 19-century visualization Angst in mathematics, and in the philosophy of mathematics, is receding. In his book Visual Thinking in Mathematics, Marcus Giaquinto convincingly argues that it is indeed possible "to achieve generality when thinking with particular images"<sup>88</sup> – a geometrical proof *can*, and when possible, *should*, proceed visually; that "[s]o far from being language based, the origin of our knowledge of simple sums seems to be a kind of finger expertise"<sup>89</sup>, and both arithmetics and number theory allow for visual proofs;<sup>90</sup> that in algebra "[s]ubstitution, relocation, copying, deletion, and insertion" - that is, the "major classes of symbol manipulation" - are typically "performed in visual imagination, when moving from one term or formula to another. It is likely that in *some* cases, especially symbol relocation, the visualizing has a motor element".<sup>91</sup> and that even in analysis there is room and need for visualization - Giaquinto refers to, and elucidates, the famous Cambridge mathematician J. E. Littlewood's piece "Post-script on pictures". Littlewood, Giaquinto writes, did indeed believe that "a diagram could provide proof of an analytic theorem".<sup>92</sup>

<sup>87</sup> Arnheim, op. cit., pp. 221 f., 211 and 213. On p. 214 Arnheim refers to Marguerite Lehr's highly interesting introduction to Catherine Stern's seminal book, *Children Discover Arithmetic: An Introduction to Structural Arithmetic*, London: George G. Harrap, 1953. Catherine Stern was, at the New School for Social Research from 1940 to 1943, research assistant to Max Wertheimer, the founder of Gestalt Psychology.

<sup>88</sup> Marcus Giaquinto, *Visual Thinking in Mathematics: An Epistemological Study*, Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2007, p. 151.

<sup>89</sup> Ibid., p. 123.

<sup>90</sup> On this issue see also Michael D. Resnik, *Mathematics as a Science of Patterns*, Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1997, cf. esp. pp. 229 ff.

<sup>91</sup> Giaquinto, op. cit., p. 203.

<sup>92</sup> Ibid., p. 163. – As Littlewood puts it in the section "Post-script to pictures", in the volume Littlewood's Miscellany (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1953, repr. 1986, p. 54): "My pupils will not use pictures, even unofficially and when there is no question of expense. This practice is increasing; I have lately discovered that it has existed for 30 years or more, and also why. A heavy warning used to be given that pictures are not rigorous; this has never had its bluff called and has permanently frightened its victims into playing for safety. Some pictures, of course, are not rigorous, but I should say most are (and I use them whenever possible myself)." Littlewood and Wittgenstein were friends. They first met in Manchester, and then again in Cambridge. The greater part of Wittgenstein's numerous drawings in his manuscripts pertain to the foundations of mathematics; and a major message of Wittgenstein's

The point where visualization in mathematics utterly breaks down is where it purports to picture time as a fourth dimension of space. It is here the common-sense world-view has to step in. To defend the common-sense world-view involves explaining, without explaining away, some crucial common-sense metaphors. Now this is how J. J. C. Smart begins his 1949 paper "The River of Time":

There are certain metaphors which we commonly feel constrained to use when talking about time. We say that we are advancing through time, from the past into the future, much as a ship advances through the sea into unknown waters. Sometimes, again, we think of ourselves as stationary, watching time go by, just as we may stand on a bridge and watch leaves and sticks float down the stream underneath us. ... Thus instead of speaking of our advance through time we often speak of the flow of time. ... These metaphorical ways of talking are philosophically important in a way in which most metaphorical locutions are not. They ... are, in some way, *natural* to us; at first sight, at any rate, it seems difficult to see how we could avoid them.<sup>93</sup>

Difficult or not, Smart did his best to demonstrate the alleged spuriousness of these common-sense metaphors. By contrast, I believe we should strive to build up a philosophical strategy which in fact vindicates them. Such a strategy is hinted at in chapter 4 below. Coming to the end of the present chapter, there remain three questions.

## **Concluding Queries**

The first question, lurking in the background throughout my argument: what does "imaginability" amount to? Is imaginability confined to what we, in our world as it is actually given to us, can in fact imagine? Should we not, rather, say what Reichenbach, referring to Helmholtz, suggests, namely that "imagining ... visually" a world different from ours is indeed possible, by "depicting the series of sense perceptions which one would have if one lived in such a world"; and that "human beings, living in a non-Euclidean world, would develop an ability of visualization which would make them regard the laws of non-Euclidean geometry as necessary and self-evident, in the same fashion as the laws of Euclidean geometry appear self-evident to us."<sup>94</sup> My stance here is similar to Ramsey's, commenting

philosophy of mathematics is that mathematical facts and physical facts *overlap*; images of physical facts, then, can indeed convey mathematical truths.

<sup>93</sup> J. J. C. Smart, "The River of Time", Mind, vol. 58, no. 232 (Oct. 1949), p. 483.

<sup>94</sup> Hans Reichenbach, "The Philosophical Significance of the Theory of Relativity", in Schilpp (ed.), *Albert Einstein*, pp. 300 and 308.

on the *Tractatus*: "what we can't say we can't say, and we can't whistle it either". What we can't imagine we can't imagine, and can't whistle it either. We can imagine, for we can visualize, spherical geometry, although it constitutes a kind of non-Euclidean one. But we can in no way visualize, say, spacetime with eleven dimensions as string theory suggests; and here we should not let physicists string us along, but should assume a decidedly instrumentalist attitude.

Secondly, with the views I have here put forward, where would I locate my position in the philosophy of science? I still feel myself belonging to the realist camp, siding with Grover Maxwell's contention that there is a "continuous transition from observability to unobservability" which has no relevance at all to the existence/nonexistence issue;<sup>95</sup> siding with Hacking's view that the experimenter is necessarily, and rightly, convinced of the reality of a great many unobservable entities;<sup>96</sup> and of course sharing Sellars' faith in the power of science to draw up ever more correct images of the world. But I also take seriously the cautioning words Sellars again and again voiced: what contemporary science offers consists, in no small measure, of promissory notes. The position I suggest appears to me to offer a felicitous compromise between commonsense realism and scientific realism. But there is one variety of scientific realism I can, clearly, not make friends with: structural realism, although this is considered, it seems, by many realists and antirealists alike as "the most defensible form of scientific realism"<sup>97</sup>. Structural realism says that we should epistemically commit ourselves only to the mathematical or structural content of our theories. I believe that, quite on the contrary, we should commit ourselves to the visualizable content of them.

And so, by way of conclusion, let me now ask myself a third, very brief, and somewhat emotional, question: had that hoped-for next meeting with Rorty happened, how would it have played out? Certainly we would have been in agreement that verbal language in general, and the language of theories in particular, do *not picture*; they are conventional instruments the community of human beings use.

<sup>95</sup> Grover Maxwell, "The Ontological Status of Theoretical Entities" (1962), repr. in Curd and Cover (eds.), *Philosophy of Science*, p. 1057.

<sup>96</sup> Hacking, op. cit., pp. 1154 f.

<sup>97</sup> See the opening sentence of James Ladyman's excellent discussion in the *Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy* entry "Structural Realism" (http://plato.stanford.edu/ entries/structural-realism, first published in Nov. 2007), see also Ladyman's earlier book *Understanding Philosophy of Science*, London: Routledge, 2002, as well as the unpublished, but widely cited, chapter "The Scientific Realism Debate" in Ioannis Votsis' 2004 PhD dissertation.

But everyday thinking and communication, as well as scientific theories, involve more than just verbal language. They involve images, too. They involve, indeed they fundamentally rely on, visualizations. And can we not say that the images presupposed, or suggested, by our most successful theories amount to something like *mirrors of nature*? I believe Rorty would have found this idea intriguing. He might even have liked it.