



You are accessing the Digital Archive of the Catalan Review Journal.

By accessing and/or using this Digital Archive, you accept and agree to abide by the Terms and Conditions of Use available at <u>http://www.nacs-</u> <u>catalanstudies.org/catalan_review.html</u>

Catalan Review is the premier international scholarly journal devoted to all aspects of Catalan culture. By Catalan culture is understood all manifestations of intellectual and artistic life produced in the Catalan language or in the geographical areas where Catalan is spoken. Catalan Review has been in publication since 1986. Esteu accedint a l'Arxiu Digital del Catalan Review

A l'accedir i / o utilitzar aquest Arxiu Digital, vostè accepta i es compromet a complir els termes i condicions d'ús disponibles a <u>http://www.nacs-</u> <u>catalanstudies.org/catalan_review.html</u>

Catalan Review és la primera revista internacional dedicada a tots els aspectes de la cultura catalana. Per la cultura catalana s'entén totes les manifestacions de la vida intel lectual i artística produïda en llengua catalana o en les zones geogràfiques on es parla català. Catalan Review es publica des de 1986.

Llull and Leibniz: The Logic of Discovery John R. Welch

Catalan Review, Vol. IV, number 1-2 (1990), p. 75-83

LLULL AND LEIBNIZ: THE LOGIC OF DISCOVERY

JOHN R. WELCH

One of the presuppositions often attributed to analytic philosophy is conceptual atomism, the belief that the majority of concepts are compounds constructed from a relatively small number of primitive concepts. Frege's analysis of number, Rusell's theory of definite descriptions, the Tractatus' simple and complex signs, the positivist reduction program - to name just a few of the most classical instances - were all attempts to resolve complex notions into logical simples. But analytic philosophers did not invent conceptual atomism; Leibniz, for one, was a firm believer. He claimed that «a kind of alphabet of human thoughts can be worked out and that everything can be discovered and judged by a comparison of the letters of the alphabet and an analysis of the words made from them»." Such an alphabet, as Leibniz says, could be used to judge and discover. Not only would it serve to demonstrate propositions already held to be true - a logic of justification - it could also be used to invent or discover new truths — a logic of discovery. What would a logic of discovery look like? Leibniz's answer, his ars inveniendo, was to have two parts: one combinatorial, to generate questions, and one analytic, to answer them.²

How closely Leibniz's thinking here parallels the Ars magna³ of Ramon Llull is not sufficiently known. The parallel is not accidental. As a young man of twenty, Leibniz was both fascinat-

¹ Leibniz, Mathematische Schriften, C.I. Gerhardt (Berlin and Halle, 1849-63; rpt. Darmstadt: Hildesheim, 1962), vol. 7, p. 185. Emphasis in original.

² Opuscles et fragments inédits de Leibniz, ed. Louis Couturat (Paris, 1903, rpt. Darmstadt: Hildesheim, 1961), p. 167.

³ I will refer to the cycle of works collectively known as the Ars magna as the Art.

ed and repelled by the Art. The fascination came from Llull's having anticipated his leading ideas. The repulsion came from Llull's mathematical naiveté, a consequence of having lived some four centuries before the developments in combinatorial mathematics upon which Leibniz hoped to base his own logic of discovery. (Leibniz, in fact, was the first to use the term 'combinatorial' in its modern sense.)⁴ Both of Leibniz's reactions linger in the objectives of this note: to outline what it was about the Art that fascinated Leibniz, first of all; and, after correcting a mistake in Leibniz's critique of Llull, to extend in a new direction.

Llull anticipated Leibniz in the belief that human reason was a matter of combining a few primitive notions. To specify these notions, Llull devised a conceptual alphabet which, he believed, limned the basic structure or the universe. In the later, ternary phase of the Art (ca. 1290-1308), the alphabet takes the following form.⁵

	Fig. A	Fig. T	Questions and Rules	Subjects	Virtues	Vices	
BC	goodness greatness	difference concordance	whether? what?	God angel	justice prudence	avarice gluttony	
D	eternity*	contrariety	of what?	heaven	fortitude	lust	
E F	power wisdom	beginning middle	why? how much?	man imaginative	temperance faith	accidie	
GH	will virtue	end majority	of what kind? when?	sensitive vegetative	hope charity	envy ire	
I	truth	equality	where?	elementative	patience	lying	
K	glory	minority	how? and with what?	instrumentative	pity	inconstancy	

* or duration

⁴ De arte combinatoria in Opera Philosophica Omnia, J.E. Erdmann, rpt. Renate Vollbrecht (Meisenheim/Glan, Scientia Aalen, 1959).

⁵ The alphabet is taken from the Ars brevis. See Anthony Bonner's Selected Works of Ramon Llull (1232-1316) (Princeton, Princeton Univ. Press, 1985), vol. I, p. 581. On the various phases of the Art, see ibid., I, pp. 56-7. Each or the alphabet's six columns is meant to depict one of the universe's fundamental structural features. The first column (under 'Fig. A') lists the Lullian dignities, externalizations of the divine personality from which the world's goodness, greatness, duration, an so forth emanate in Neoplatonic fashion. The second column is composed of what Llull takes to be the primary logical categories. The third column details the kinds of questions that can be asked; the fourth, the medieval ontological hierarchy; and the fifth and sixth, the essential moral categories.

Llull also anticipated Leibniz in recognizing that such an alphabet was the key to a logic of discovery. Moreover, the combinatory and analytic parts of Leibniz's *ars inveniendi* are clearly prefigured in the alphabet's function. Combining the «letters» of the alphabet, which were in fact words, produced «words», which were (roughly) sentences. Once the harvest of all logically possible combinations of the alphabet's letters was in (corresponding to the combinatory part of Leibniz's *ars inveniendi*), the Art was to be used to winnow the false combinations from the true (the analytic part). The result, the wheat, would be the sum total of the most general truths about the world — the definitive philosophy.

But in *De arte combinatoria*, Leibniz faults Llull's execution of the combinatorial part of this task.⁶ Llull considered only binary and ternary combinations of the letters of the alphabet, but unary all the way up through nonary combinations are possible.⁷ Therefore, Leibniz argued, the 9 letters of each column can be combined in $2^9 - 1 = 511$ possible ways. And, since there are 6 columns, Llull's simple alphabet yields the astounding number of $511^6 = 17$, 804, 320, 388, 674, 561 possible combinations.

Actually, Leibniz's figure is either too low or too high.

⁶ De arte combinatoria, p. 22.

⁷ The 9 unary combinations would have been useless to Llull, who was interested only in combinations that, when interpreted, bear truth values.

The formula for the total number k of unary through *n*-ary combinations that can be obtained from *n* things without repetition is $k = 2^n - 1$. But Leibniz proceeds, in effect, by applying the formula to only the first column of the alphabet, obtaining 511, and raising that result to the sixth power. To see that this skews the results, the reader might try following Leibniz's procedure to answer two questions about the model

 $M = b \in I$ How many unary through *n*-ary combinations of

without repetitions are there where n = 6 (the number of letters in M)? 2) For the same number of letters, how many unary through ternary combinations without repetitions are there? Applying the formula in Leibniz's fashion to the first column of M yields 7, and squaring it gives 49. But there are $2^6 - 1 = 63$ combinations answering to the first question, making 49 too low; and there are 6 unary + 15 binary + 20 ternary = 41 combinations answering to the second question, making 49 too high.8 The same thing happens with Llull's alphabet. If Leibniz wanted the total number of unary through n-ary combinations without repetitions where n = 55 (the number of letters in the alphabet), that number is 255 - 1, all of 39 orders of magnitude larger than the figure in De arte combinatoria. On the other hand, if he wanted the total number of unary through nonary combinations without repetitions of the same number of letters, that is a number on the order of 10°, which is 7 orders of magnitude smaller than Leibniz's figure.

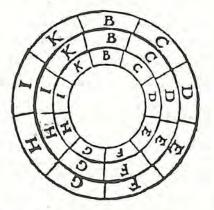
Nevertheless, Leibniz was right about things being much more complicated than Llull thought. In the remainder of this note, I offer a very modest second to Leibniz's critique. Instead of the alphabet, however, I will focus on the table that appears

⁸ The correct answer to the first question is obtained by applying the formula to the entire 3×2 matrix. For the second question, the formula (n/r) = n!/r!(n-r)! gives the number of combinations without repetitions of n things taken r at a time.

78

for the first time in the *Taula general* (1293) and remains intact down to the *Ars generalis ultima* and the *Ars brevis* (both 1308), the final versions of the Art. The table was designed with two very different functions in mind: to automatically provide a middle term for a sound categorial syllogism on any subject whatsoever, and to exhaustively tabulate the ternary combinations of the first two columns of the alphabet. The remarks that follow concern only the second of these functions.

Llull's table was generated from the Fourth Figure of his Art, which is reproduced below.



As one can see, the Fourth Figure is composed of three concentric circles, each compartmentalized by the variables B through K from the extreme left of the alphabet. The outer circle is to be thought of as fixed and the two inner circles as movable so as to produce the various ternary combinations of variables. In the manuscripts and some of the earliest printed editions, the inner circles really did move; they were cut out and joined to the center of the outer circle by a thread knotted at both ends. The Fourth Figure was thus a primitive logical machine.

Here is how it generates the table. Given the 9 variables B through K, there are $\frac{9!}{3!(9-3)!} = 84$ ternary combinations without

BCD	BCE	3 BCF	4 BCG	5 BCH	BCI	P BCK	8 BDE	9 BDF	10 BDG	11 BDH	12 BDI
13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24
BDK	BEF	BEG	BEH	BEI	BEK	BFG	BFH	BFI	BFK	BGH	BGI
25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36
BGK	BHI	BHK	BIK	CDE	CDF	CDG	CDH	CDI	CDK	CEF	CEG
37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48
CEH	CEI	CEK	,CFG	CFH	CFI	CFK	CGH	CGI	CGK	CHI	CHK
49	50	51	52	53	54	55	56	57	58	59	60
CIK	DEF	DEG	DEH	DEI	DEK	DFG	DFH	DFI	DFK	DGH	DGI
61	62	63	64	65	66	67	68	69	70	71	72
DGK	DHI	DHK	DIK	EFG	EFH	EFI	EFK	EGH	EGI	EGK	EHI
73	74	75	76	77	78	79	80	81	82	83	84
EHK	EIK	FGH	FGI	FGK	FHI	FHK	FIK	GHI	GHK	GIK	HIK

repetitions of variables. They are as follows.

Each of these combinations is incorporated in the table at the head of one of 84 columns. The remainder of each column is composed of 19 variations on the combination at its head and the letter T. The complete table has $84 \times 20 = 1680$ compartments, therefore. For our limited purposes, however, the abbreviated table from the *Ars brevis* will suffice.⁹ It lists only 7 of the 84 columns.

9 Bonner, p. 597.

The Table

BCD	CDE	DEF	EFG	FGH	GHI	HIK	
BCTB	CDTC	DETD	EFTE	FGTF	GHTG	нітн	
BCTC	CDTD	DETE	EFTF	FGTG	GHTH	HITI	
BCTD	CDTE	DETF	EFTG	FGTH	GHTI	HITK	
BDTB	CETC	DFTD	EGTE	FHTF	GITG	нктн	
BDTC	CETD	DFTE	EGTF	FHTG	GITH	нкті	
BDTD	CETE	DFTF	EGTG	FHTH	GITI	НКТК	
BTBC	CTCD	DTDE	ETEF	FTFG	GTGH	нтні	
BTBD	CTCE	DTDF	ETEG	FTFH	GTGI	нтнк	
BTCD	CTDE	DTEF	ETFG	FTGH	GTHI	HTIK	
CDTB	DETC	EFTD	FGTE	GHTF	HITG	IKTH	
CDTC	DETD	EFTE	FGTF	GHTG	нітн	IKTI	
CDTD	DETE	EFTF	FGTG	GHTH	HITI	ІКТК	
СТВС	DTCD	ETDE	FTEF	GTFG	HTGH	ITH.	
CTBD	DTCE	ETDF	FTEG	GTFH	HTGI	ITHK	
CTCD	DTDE	ETEF	FTFG	GTGH	нтні	ITIK	
DTBC	ETCD	FTDE	GTEF	HTFG	ITGH	ктні	
DTBD	ETCE	FTDF	GTEG	HTFH	ITGI	ктнк	
DTCD	ETDE	FTEF	GTFG	HTGH	ITHI	КТІК	
TBCD	TCDE	TDEF	TEFG	TFGH	TGHI	тнік	

Llull uses T as an interpretive device: all variables appearing before it are to be interpreted by reading across the alphabet to its first column; all variables coming after it are interpreted by reading across to the second. Hence *BCTB* stands for 'goodness', 'greatness', and 'difference', while *TBCD* stands for 'difference', 'concordance', and 'contrariety'. What Llull has done, in effect, is to construct each column from the possible ternary combinations of the 6 «letters» that are the values of the variables at the head of the column. The column BCD, for example, is composed of the 20 combinations of the values of the variables B, C, and D.

There are two critical points to be made about this table. The first is that Llull restricts himself unduly to combinations that, when interpreted, have no repetitions. All ternary combinations from the table are considered meaningful, with BCDT, for example, being interpreted as 'Goodness is as great as eternity'.¹⁰ But if that makes sense, so does BCCT, 'Goodness is as great as great-ness'. Yet BCCT — and all the other combinations with repetitive values — are excluded from the table. If we include them, the total number of triples is not 84 but 9³ = 729.¹¹

The second point is that even if we assume only Llull's 84 combinations without repetitive values, the table still turns out to be more complicated than it appears. When Llull interprets *BCDT*, for example, as 'Goodness is as great as eternity', he ignores the fact that there are 5 other ways of ordering the variables and 5 other equally legitimate interpretations.

BDCTGoodness ia as eternal as greatness.CBDTGreatness is as good as eternity.CDBTGreatness is as eternal as goodness.DBCTEternity is as good as greatness.DCBTEternity is as great as goodness.

He does not register the difference between the variables, where order does not matter (BCD = DCB), and the variables' interpretations, where order matters indeed ('Goodness is as great as eternity' 'Eternity is as great as goodness'). Thus one might

¹⁰ When interpreting the compartments at the head of the column, T is understood as the last letter. *BCD*, then, is interpreted as *BCDT*.

¹¹ Prantl argued that this was the correct number in *Geschichte der Logik im Abendlande* (Leipzig, 1867; rpt. Graz, Akademische Druck-u. Verlagsanstalt, 1955), vol. III, p. 162, n. 90. expect some sort of mixup about combinations, which are not ordered, and permutations, which are. That is in fact what happens. Llull calculates the number of *combinations* of the 6 values taken 3 at a time: $\frac{6!}{3!(6\cdot3)!} = 20$. What he should have done, however, is to calculate the number of *permutations* of the values taken 3 at a time: $\frac{6!}{(6\cdot3)!} = 120$.¹² What would a corrected table, one with unique entries for all and only the 3-place permutations without repetitions of values, look like? It would be larger than Llull's original, of course. Since the problem is not the ternary combinations of 9 variables but the ternary permutations of their 18 values, a corrected table would have $\frac{18!}{(18-3)!} = 4896$ compart ments.

> JOHN R. WELCH Saint Louis University - Madrid

¹² The formula for the number of permutations without repetitions of n things taken r at a time is nPr = n!/(n-r)! The procedure I am recommending here is none other than Llull's in an analogous situation. To evacuate the *binary* combinations of variables from the Third Figure, he specifies the possible permutations of their values. See Bonner, p. 598.