

Lecture 4

Explanations and Causes

Some headlines

Now it is scientifically proved:

Having a lot of money can make you happy!

Scientist all agree:

A serious lack of sleep will cause tiredness.

The evidences are scientifically irrefutable:

Drinking an enormous amount of alcoholic beverages will not make you more attractive!

Some thoughts

- Science is very much esteemed.
- Even "obvious" things can be scientifically explained.
- The "facts" in the headlines are (probably) statements of correlations.
- Or are there deeper explanations?
- So what can science do for us?

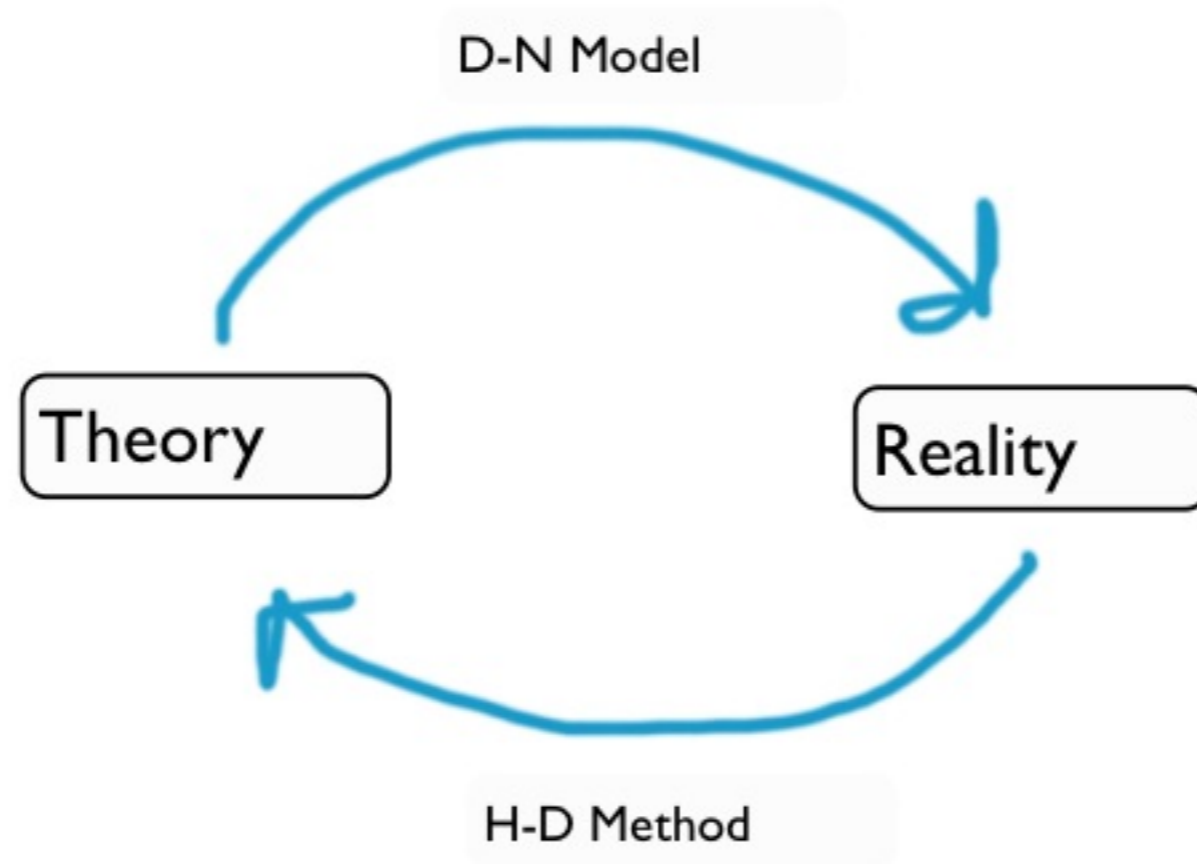
Why science?

- It seems as if science has have two functions:
- Science can make predictions.
- Science can give explanations.
- The first function is of great practical importance.
- But the second function was historically the first.
- And is probably the most fundamental one.

Theory of science as a scientific theory

- Hempel and his colleagues tried to create a theory of how science should be done.
- This theory has its own logic and formal rules.
- It is a sort of science in its own way.
- It describes the connection between theories and observations.
- One component is the HD Method.
- Another is the so called DN Model that is about causes and explanations.

Connections between the H-D Method and the D-N Model



The somewhat ambiguous concept "cause"

As a short preamble we will discuss Global Heating.

- A huge majority of scientist agree that Global Heating (GH) is *caused* by human-related release of carbon dioxide (RC). How is this to be interpreted?
- It could be interpreted as $RC \Rightarrow GH$ (where the implication is taken in some informal sense).
- It could be interpreted as $\text{not } RC \Rightarrow \text{not } GH$ (which means $GH \Rightarrow RC$).
- It could be interpreted to mean both things: $RC \Leftrightarrow GH$. Probably (?) this is what is meant.

Two types of causes

If we have two statements A and B they can be casually connected in two ways:

- Sufficient cause. A is a sufficient cause of B if $A \Rightarrow B$.
- Necessary cause. A is a necessary cause of B if $\text{not } A \Rightarrow \text{not } B$ ($B \Rightarrow A$).
- We will later argue that sufficient cause is what we normally mean by cause.

The two main topics today

We will discuss

- Scientific explanations.
- Causes described scientifically.

We will look at things from a *philosophical* perspective. This means that sometimes we will see that things we thought were simple to maybe are not so uncomplicated after all.

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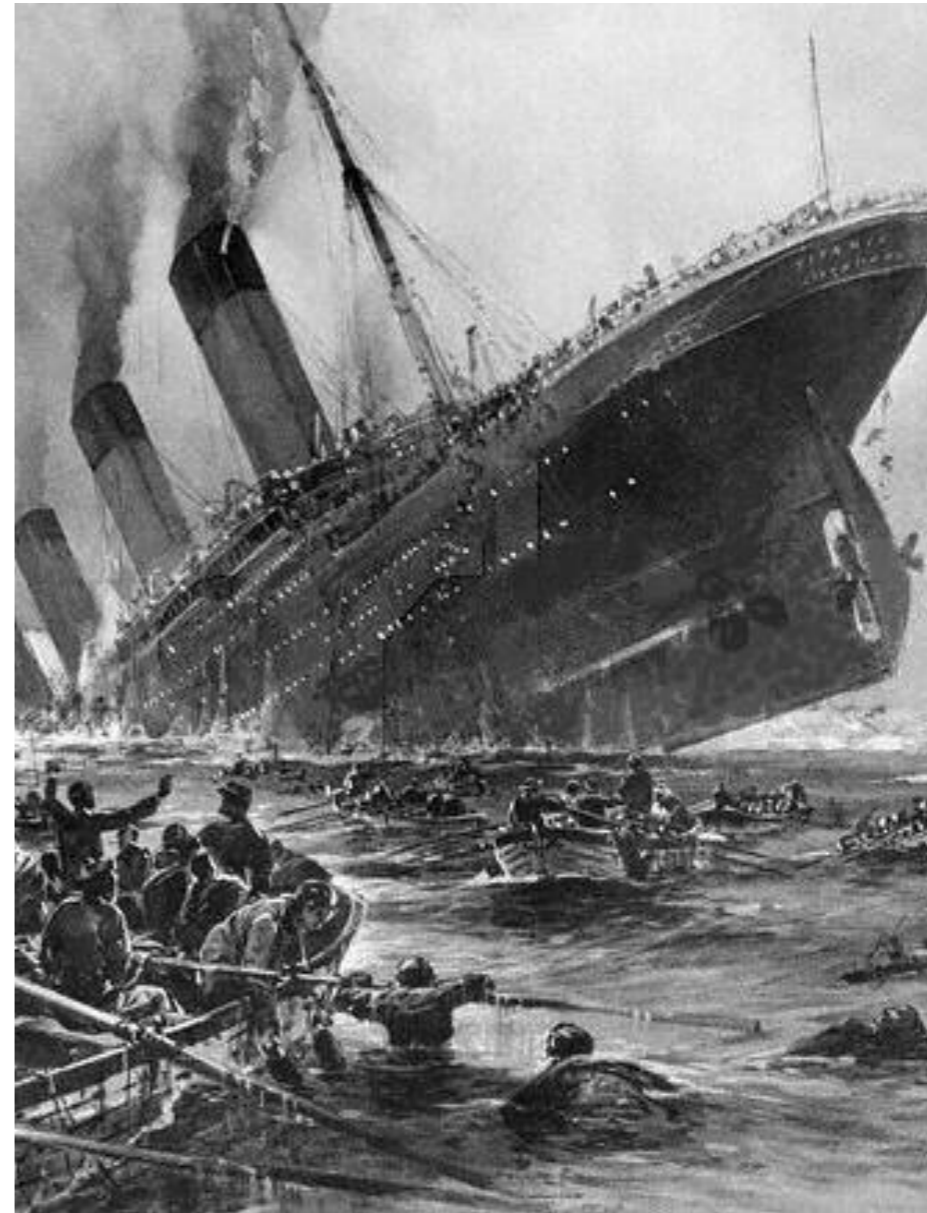
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Why did Titanic sink?

- There are some obvious explanations.
- What about *scientific* explanations?



What is an explanation?

First some examples:

- Kepler's elliptical planet orbits explained observed astronomical data.
- Newton's mechanics explained the elliptical planet orbits.
- Bacteria explained Semmelweis's observations.
- Quantum Mechanics explained the behavior of electrons.

Everyday explanations

- The most common type of explanation occurs when we ask why a person does something. What is his or hers motive?
- In an evolutionary way it is perhaps the primal type of explanation. We can call it an *anthropological* explanation.
- In ancient times we tried to understand Nature in anthropological terms.
- But these explanations have gradually been replaced with other types of explanations.

When do we accept an explanation?

We can say the following:

- An explanation is some form of insight.
- We feel that we have been given an explanation when "we see the whole picture".
- We feel that something is explained when we don't have to ask any more questions.

Can all this be expressed in a scientific way?

Four types of explanations

Let us assume that P calls for an explanation. Here are some ways of doing it:

- Causal explanation: If something causes P , then it also explains P .
- Functional explanation: P has some good function and this fact explains P .
- Explanation by purpose: There is some mind that has wanted P .
- Pragmatic explanation: The explanation is adapted to the type of answer the questioner wants.

When are the different types of explanation used?

- Physics: Uses explanation by cause.
- Biology: Explanation by cause and by function.
- Social Science: Possibly all types of explanation.
- Mathematics and Computer Science: Mostly explanation by cause and logical explanation (which maybe can be considered a special type of explanation by cause).

Causal explanation

- Is considered the fundamental scientific explanation
- But there are different ideas of what form such an explanation should have.
- The most famous idea was proposed by Carl Hempel: The Deductive - Nomological Model. (D-N Model).
- Nomological means that the model refers to a scientific law.

The D-N Model



Carl Hempel

We have a fact P in a situation S . In the D-N model this fact is explained in the following way:

1. A general scientific law L .
($I \Rightarrow P$)
2. An initial condition that applies in S .

3. Conclusion: P

A special form

A special form of the D-N model is the following:

1. General scientific law: In all situations of type A we have that B is true.

2. The situation S is of type A.

3. Conclusion: B is true in S.

We have in this way got an explanation why B is true in S.

Hempel's statement

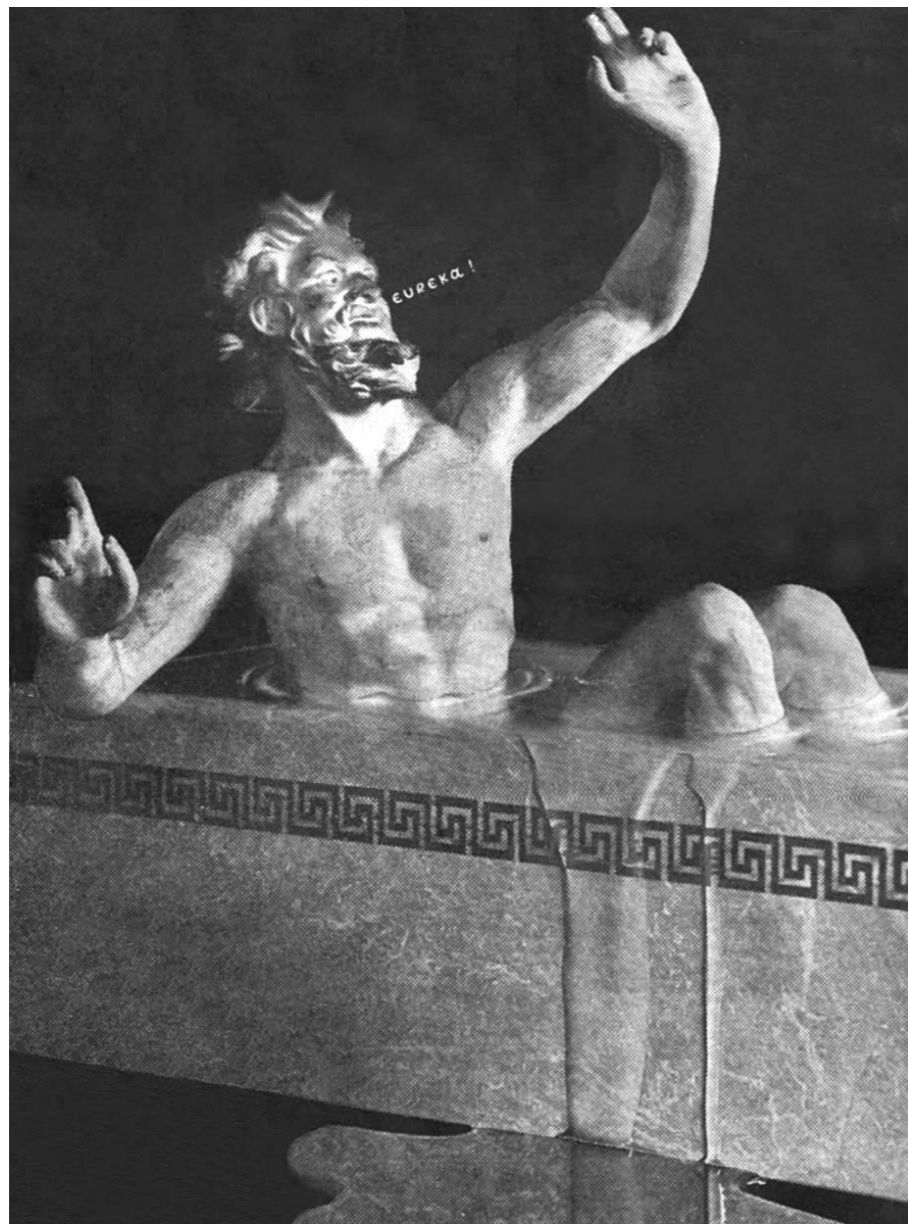
- Hempel said that all scientific explanations have the form indicated in the D-N model.
- The most important part of an explanation is that we have a general law that we "know" is true.
- The conclusion must follow by a *logical deduction* from the law L and the initial condition I.
- The conclusion P must be such that it can be empirically verified (observed).
- The initial condition I can be said to be *the cause* of P.

Example



- Semmelweis wondered why so many patients died in maternity ward no.1.
- Following the D-N model we should say that bacteria caused their deaths.
- The scientific law is the fact that bacteria spread diseases.

A simple example



Archimedes

- Let L be Archimedes' law: If a body has smaller density than that of water, it floats.
- Let P be "this piece of wood floats".
- Let I be "This piece of wood has lower density than that of water".
- Then I is an explanation of P .

Why do we need laws?

- Of course, there are "explanations" without reference to laws.
- If I say that I arrived late because there was a stop in the subway I have given an explanation, but not a *scientific* explanation.
- The principle is that for an explanation to be scientific it must refer to scientific laws.

What is a scientific law then?

- A classic example. We have two proposals for scientific laws:
- L1: All spheres made of gold have a radius of less than 1000 meters.
- L2: All spheres made of uranium 235 have a radius of less than 1000 meters.
- Both L1 and L2 are probably true in this universe. But it seems as if L2 is true for a deeper reason.

Accidental truth and necessary truth

- If we negate the "laws" we get:
- $\sim L1$: There is a sphere made of gold with radius more than 1000 meters.
- $\sim L2$: There is a sphere made of uranium 235 with radius more than 1000 meters.
- We see that $\sim L2$ is physically impossible while $\sim L1$ is not.
- So we see that L2 cannot be falsified while L1 possibly could.

Hempel's principle of symmetry

- There is an interesting symmetry between explanations and predictions.
- Let us assume that we have the statement: "In situation S we have a fact P".
- Then assume that P can be explained by a law L and an initial condition that applies to the situation S.
- But then we can make the prediction that in a situation S where I applies P will occur as a fact.
- And if we can scientifically predict that P will occur in a situation where I applies, we have explained P.
- So, once more: If a theory can explain facts then it also predicts facts and vice versa.

Problems with the D-N Model

- Even if we think that the D-N model is sound and important, we should be aware that there are some problems with it.
- In a sense it could be too *strong*. It can exclude something as a cause even if it really should be considered a cause.
- And in another sense it could be too *weak*. It can classify something as a cause even if should not.
- The D-N model is a high-level method for determining causes. It can sometimes need to be complemented by low-level methods.

Too strong



- We know that Titanic sank because it collided with an iceberg.
- That would be a scientific explanation(?)
- But then, what exactly is the scientific law?
- Perhaps we could state an appropriate scientific law(?)

Too weak



- This is another classic example: There is a flagpole outside the City Hall in Missoula, Montana.
- On this particular day the sun shines so that the sun-rays hit the flagpole at an angle of 37 degrees.
- The shadow is 20 meters long.
- This is the scientific explanation for the fact that the flagpole is 15 meters high!
- Or ... isn't the height the explanation for the length of the shadow?
- The D-N model cannot decide this question!

What are causes?

- So it seems that sometimes the D-N model can indicate something as a cause even if it really isn't.
- But then, what is a cause? It is hard to define even if we feel that we understand it intuitively.
- Let us look at another example:

And it is a tragic example

- We get to know that a man A is dead. Why did he die?
- We then hear that two months ago he visited his doctor who told him that he had an lethal disease and just had one month left to live. That would be a scientific explanation why he doesn't live anymore.
- But then we are told that the day after his visit to the doctor he was run over by a tram and died.
- The later explanation is obviously the right one(?)

A closer analysis of causes

- A more detailed analysis of what causes are can run like this:
- Assume that we have an implication $A \Rightarrow B$.
- If we are looking for an explanation of B, we have to describe both A and the implication. The implication should be given by a general law.
- If we are looking for a cause of B we can often be a little more informal about the implication. (It is more philosophy than science.)

A closer analysis of causes II

- We have already talked about necessary and sufficient causes. We will focus on sufficient causes.
- Let us assume that $E_1 \& E_2 \& E_3 \& \dots \& E_k \Rightarrow F$.
- Let us also assume that the implication is no longer true if any of the E_i :s are excluded.
- We then say that each one of the E_i :s is a cause of F .
- But if we want to chose just one cause?
- We can chose the one that is most unlikely to occur.

A house on fire!

- Let F be the fact that a house has burnt down. What is the cause? We find three facts:
- $E1$ - The walls in the house were filled with an isolation material that was quite likely to catch fire.
- $E2$ - The electrical cables in the walls had very bad isolations.
- $E3$ - The owner turned on the light switch.
- We can then see that $E1 \& E2 \& E3 \Rightarrow F$.
- But is there a cause more relevant than the others? - Maybe $E2$.

Another way of viewing causes: Temporal connections

- If A is a cause of B , then A should be a *predecessor* of B .
- The simplest way of describing this is that A immediately precedes B in time and there is something in A that makes B occur.
- We can also try to find a chain of simpler causes that connect A to B .
- In physics there are attempts to define such chains by describing transference of energy between bodies.

Another way: Statistical correlations

- We can use probability to decide if A is a possible cause of B.
- If $P(A\&B) > P(A)P(B)$ we say that A and B are (positively) correlated. Then A could be a cause of B.
- The condition is equivalent to $P(B|A) > P(B)$.
- The condition is symmetric in A and B: If A is a possible cause of B, then B is a possible cause of A.
- "Which came first? The hen or the egg."

Reichenbach's principle

This principle says that:

- If A and B are uncorrelated ($P(A\&B) = P(A)P(B)$) no one is the cause of the other.
- If they are positively correlated then either
 1. A is the cause of B
 2. or B is the cause of A
 3. or there is a third factor C that is the cause of both A and B.

Examples of Reichenbach's principle

- An investigation of a school class shows that there is a positive correlation between the children's shoe sizes (A) and how well they perform on tests (B).
- Is A the cause of B or vice versa?
- No, there is a third fact, their age (C), that is a cause of both A and B.

- If Another study shows that there is a positive correlation between someone being a teetotaler (A) and having a very bad liver (B).
- Here B is probably a cause of A.
- Or we could assume that the person has once been an alcoholic (C). Then C is a cause of both A and B.

Other types of explanations

The previous slides have been about causal explanations. We will now briefly review some other types of explanations:

- Explanations with unifying theories.
- Explanations by reduction.
- Functional explanations.
- Explanations by purpose.
- Pragmatic explanations.

Explanations with unifying theories

- The D-N model looks at statements, observations and laws *in isolation*. Another way of viewing explanations is that the statements and laws should be seen in relation to other observations.
- A unifying theory is a theory that explains a lot of observations (almost everything).
- The ideal would be to explain an event P by such a theory.
- Possible examples are Newton's mechanics and Darwin's theory of evolution.

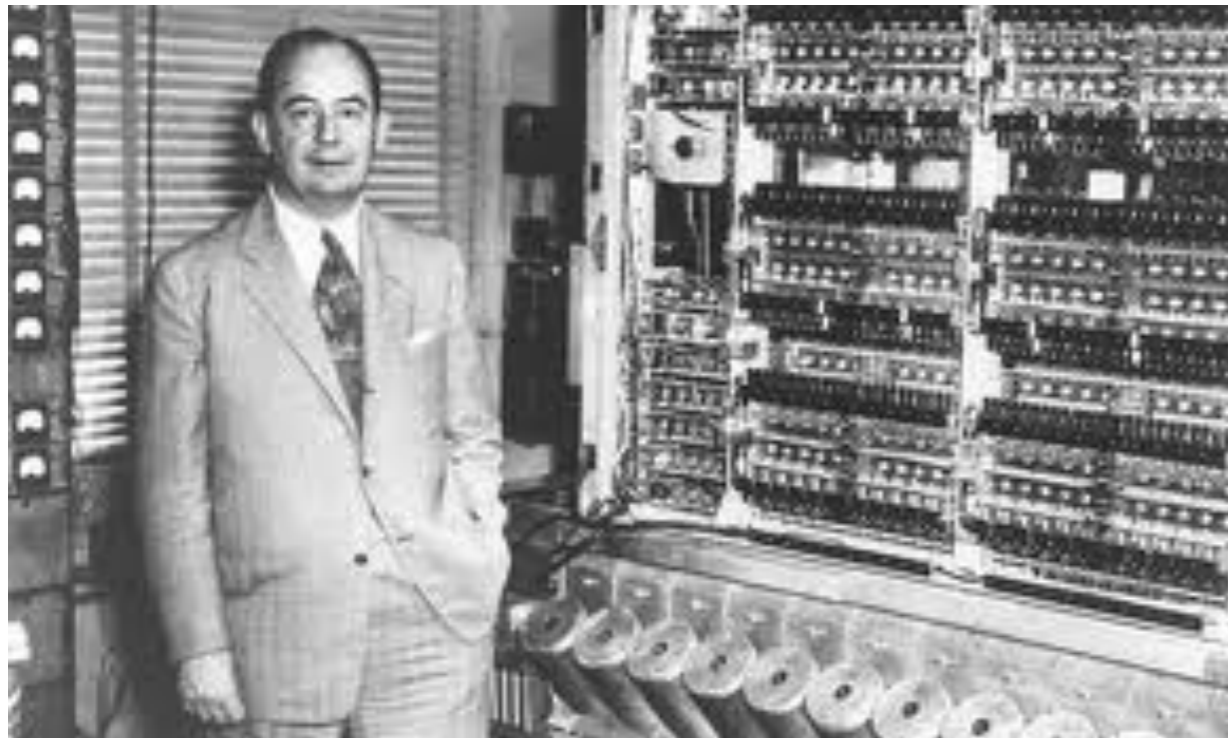
Explanations by reduction

- An attractive way of explaining observations is to reduce them to a basic theory and restate them in the language of the theory.
- A classic example is the attempt to explain *everything* by a reduction to a model of the universe consisting of colliding particles. The model is not longer really relevant, though.
- Another example is the reductions of thoughts and feeling to chemical reactions in the brain.
- And maybe everything can be reduced to Quantum Mechanics? So the only thing we have to learn is QM?!
- We can see that there must be limits for the practical uses of reductions.

Functional explanations

- We want to explain why condition P occurs. We do it by noticing that P has a (good) function.
- Why do we have eyes? So that we can see!
- In biology The Theory of Evolution gives a justification for this way of thinking.
- In Social Science there are perhaps some justifications to. (What about Social Darwinism?)
- A good function doesn't need to be willed by anyone to occur. This is a cornerstone of Darwinism.

Explanations by purpose



von Neumann

- Explanations by purpose is a model for explaining human behavior.
- A special model of explanation used in social sciences is *rationality*.
- In this context rationality means that each person acts in order to maximize his or hers *utility*. This model is used in *Game Theory*.

Pragmatic explanations

- According to this view, explanations are not that important in science. The important thing is deductions and so on.
- What we mean by an explanation depends on the context.
- What type of answer do you want?

Contrast classes



We look at an example: In Shakespeare's play Hamlet, prince Hamlet kills Polonius. (One of his few physical actions.)

We might ask: "Why does Hamlet kill Polonius?"

Contrast classes II

This question can be read in at least three different ways:

1. Why does *Hamlet* kill Polonius?
2. Why does Hamlet *kill* Polonius?
3. Why does Hamlet kill *Polonius*?

To each reading there is a contrast class that indicate what the alternatives are:

5. {Hamlet, Gertrud, Ofelia, The director, ...}
6. {Kill, Confuse, Kiss, Sue, ...}
7. {Horatio, Rosencrantz, Gyldenstiern, The critic, ...}

An explanation tries to explain why a particular alternative from the relevant contrast class is the one occurring. An explanation must be adapted to the exact form of the question.

Conclusion



- According to most views explanation is a central concept in science.
- Explanations provides a connection between theory and observations.
- If we want a theory of explanation that focus on deduction and scientific laws, the D-N model seem to be the best alternative.
- But it needs to be complemented with some common sense.