

## Value concepts (1958)

Rudolf Carnap

Received: 22 January 2015 / Accepted: 1 June 2015  
© Springer Science+Business Media Dordrecht 2015

1 **Abstract** Carnap wrote a continuation of his reply to Kaplan (§32 of Carnap's replies  
2 in the 1963 Schilpp volume), which would, however, have made that reply, already  
3 by far the longest in the book, too long. So he set aside his projected notes for a  
4 continuation to serve as the basis for a separate paper, which he never got around to  
5 writing. It is transcribed here from his shorthand and translated into English, with  
6 some introductory notes to provide a little context.

7 **Keywords** Carnap · Decision theory · Instrumental vs. substantive rationality ·  
8 Rationality · Post-Kantian value theory

### 9 **Introductory remarks (A.W. Carus)**

10 As Rudolf Carnap was revisiting the final section (on values) of his replies to critics in  
11 the Schilpp volume on *The Philosophy of Rudolf Carnap* (Carnap 1963), he realized  
12 that the suggestions about formalizing value concepts toward the end of that reply were  
13 rather vague, and he decided to spell out something a little more definite along those  
14 lines. He wrote several pages of shorthand over a couple of days, under the heading  
15 *Wertbegriffe* (value concepts), then decided that the new material would make this  
16 section (already by far the bulkiest of all the replies) disproportionately long. Still, he  
17 liked the approach he had sketched, and decided to keep the notes for a separate paper,  
18 which never materialized.

---

*Editor's note:* The beginning of a new page in Carnap's manuscript is indicated here by the new page number in square brackets.

The resulting shorthand fragment remained in his papers at the Archive for Scientific Philosophy in Pittsburgh<sup>1</sup> and has, as far as I can tell, not been discussed. It follows below, transcribed and translated into English from the odd mishmash of Anglified German in which Carnap took down shorthand notes in his later years.<sup>2</sup> These introductory notes will sketch some relevant context and briefly indicate why this fragment is of more than antiquarian interest.

The final section (§32) of Carnap's replies of which this fragment was intended to be a part was Carnap's reply to Abraham Kaplan, a former graduate student at the University of Chicago.<sup>3</sup> This reply was Carnap's only extended foray into the logic of normative and value statements.<sup>4</sup> It was largely ignored by philosophers of meta-ethics, perhaps because they discerned that §32 closely resembled the exposition of the logic of normative statements given by Richard Hare in *The Language of Morals* a few years earlier.<sup>5</sup> Both Carnap and Hare were non-cognitivists who wanted to account for the obvious and very extensive factual or descriptive components in normative sentences without conflating the two categories; both built on G. E. Moore's "naturalistic fallacy" argument and on Stevenson's *Ethics and Language*. But Hare had put forward his account in the style of Oxford ordinary-language philosophy. Even if Carnap had looked at *The Language of Morals* (which is actually cited in the Kaplan paper he was replying to)<sup>6</sup> it seems unlikely he would have appreciated the close similarity to his own account of normative language, descriptive language, and their inferential interrelations. To moral philosophers, on the other hand, the resemblance would have been more obvious, and they might well have thought it superfluous to respond to Carnap when Hare was already at the center of attention.

Hare was not a doctrinaire or off-the-shelf ordinary-language philosopher. He appealed more to the *functional* difference between descriptive and normative statements (he called the latter "action-guiding", with moral statements a tiny subclass—just the most general ones) than to ordinary usage itself. Still, he opened himself up to the criticism (e.g. by his Oxford successor Bernard Williams (1985)) that the heterogeneity of actual spoken language calls the simple partition of all sentences into

<sup>1</sup> It is located in the Carnap papers (RC) at 89-14-01. A scan of the original shorthand manuscript is also available online at <http://digital.library.pitt.edu/u/ulsmanuscripts/pdf/31735061815522.pdf>.

<sup>2</sup> A transcription of the original "German" text is available (though this would undoubtedly have embarrassed Carnap somewhat) at <http://awcarus.com/2015/04/carnap-on-value-concepts/>.

<sup>3</sup> And later a colleague of Carnap's at UCLA; Kaplan's (1991) vivid memoir of Carnap as a teacher and mentor at the University of Chicago is full of affectionate admiration.

<sup>4</sup> Some earlier writings (§152 of Carnap 1928; Carnap 1934) on the subject were much briefer and less systematic, but have nonetheless inspired more commentary than Carnap (1963); see e.g. Mormann (2006, 2010), Uebel (2010) and Richardson (2007). Still, §32 has not gone unnoticed (e.g. Uebel 2005, esp. p. 769, and Dreben 1995).

<sup>5</sup> Hare's book was published in 1952, and immediately attracted widespread attention; Kaplan's critique of Carnap on values, citing Hare (see footnote 6 below), was probably written during 1955, and Carnap's reply the year after that. The Schilpp volume on Carnap remained unpublished until 1963, however, as a new publisher for the series had to be found.

<sup>6</sup> Kaplan mentions Hare (1952) as the latest in a series of attempts by the "British school" to distinguish the cognitive from the normative components in sentences, an effort he thinks both mysterious and completely at odds with logical empiricism. It would perhaps repay historical excavation to explore why he might have held this opinion.

48 descriptive and normative into question. There is no basis in ordinary language *itself*  
49 for imposing such a schema; it has to be imported from outside.

50 This is where it would have helped if Carnap's exposition had attracted a little more  
51 attention, as an alternative or complement to Hare's. For Carnap, ordinary usage lacked  
52 the authoritative status it had for Strawson, Williams, Hare, or even, in a different way,  
53 for Quine. In Carnap's own scattered remarks on this theme, he often echoed Fregean  
54 sentiments about the misleading nature of ordinary language. Unlike Frege, of course,  
55 he did not think there was an "underlying" structure of thoughts residing in a third  
56 realm; "Carnap rejects Frege's assumption of a common store of logically interrelated  
57 thoughts expressed by the sentences of colloquial language and perspicuously express-  
58 ible by sentences couched in the framework of Begriffsschrift". (Ricketts 2004, p. 191)  
59 Carnap's version thus has two possible advantages over Hare's: first, it is more consist-  
60 ent with Hare's own (early) aim of developing a logic for normative (and thus moral)  
61 language, as it does not conflate that task with the completely different one of extracting  
62 from ordinary language the distinctions embedded in it (cf. Uebel 2005, esp. p. 769).  
63 So it is not vulnerable to the critique that it fails to map onto ordinary language, while it  
64 can still legitimately claim to *explicate* (Carnap 1950, pp. 1–6) certain distinctions that  
65 appear to play a central role in aspects of ordinary life. Secondly, Hare greatly com-  
66 plicated the reception of his framework for normative language by proceeding, before  
67 long, to build an ambitious utilitarianism on its foundation. This later development, for  
68 good or ill, distracted many from the more basic question of the underlying account  
69 of normative language in *The Language of Morals*. Carnap, as the fragment below  
70 makes evident, was not ultimately a utilitarian or even, perhaps, a consequentialist.

71 This will surprise many readers, as Carnap has often been seen, insofar as any  
72 general framework of values and rationality has been attributed to him at all, as a—  
73 perhaps somewhat heterodox—proponent of Bayesian decision-theoretic rationality  
74 (e.g. Earman 1993; Gower 1997). And it is true that, within the realm of inductive logic  
75 and its wide range of practical applications, this was very much his view. What the  
76 present document makes evident, however, is that he saw inductive value functions,  
77 defined by axioms of induction and the choice of an inductive method, as *partial* value  
78 functions, i.e. as guiding choices only over a restricted range of an individual's (or a  
79 society's) overall priorities.

80 Opinions will differ about how to characterize the view Carnap sketches. If a min-  
81 imal Kantianism is suggested by the distinction between "purely valuational" criteria  
82 of rationality for moral value functions (p. [6]<sup>7</sup>) and instrumental criteria for par-  
83 tial value functions (which may be regarded as an explication of Kant's distinction  
84 between *Vernunft* and *Verstand*), it is evidently a more rarefied, and less Rousseau-  
85 oriented, Kantianism from those worked out in more laborious detail by, e.g. Rawls  
86 or Habermas.<sup>8</sup> Still, it is worth noting that Carnap himself rejects a certain kind of  
87 consequentialism in this document:

<sup>7</sup> Page references to Carnap's manuscript, in square brackets, are to the original document; in the translation below, they are embedded in the text in square brackets.

<sup>8</sup> To which it was compared, though in ignorance of the present document, by Carus (2007, pp. 297–309); see also Carus (this volume). A fascinating and surprising parallel between Rawls and Carnap is drawn in the concluding paragraphs of Dreben (1995).

88 Assume  $X$  is perfectly rational at time  $t$  and chooses action  $a$  in  $A_X$ . Then it is  
 89 nonetheless still possible for a *not to be an optimum* with respect to  $V_X$  [ $X$ 's  
 90 comprehensive value function]. It could be that an action  $a'$  is better than  $a$  with  
 91 respect to  $V_X$ , due to certain circumstances not known to  $X$  at the time of the  
 92 action. It could even be that the objectively better, i.e. more successful action  $a'$   
 93 would not be rational for  $X$ . As emphasized elsewhere (§[26.IV]<sup>9</sup>), rationality  
 94 is not to be determined by success. (p. [10])

95 Carnap refers here to the passages from his 1963 replies regarding the use of experience  
 96 in the choice of axioms for inductive logic, and of inductive methods, so as to ensure  
 97 that the choices they lead to are rational.<sup>10</sup> Here the analogy between the partial value  
 98 functions bearing on the choice of inductive axioms and methods, on the one hand, and  
 99 comprehensive or moral value functions on the other, becomes explicit, with respect  
 100 to the relevance of experience to the respective choices. The analogy has limits; while  
 101 instrumental rationality may *constrain* substantive (moral) rationality, in this view, it  
 102 does not determine it; the “purely valuational” criteria Carnap invokes (p. [6] of the  
 103 document below) ultimately govern the choice of values, and in this respect Carnap  
 104 remains faithful to Kant.<sup>11</sup>

105 The overall view sketched by Carnap has some potentially attractive features. It  
 106 combines a Bayesian decision-theoretic rationality at the cognitive (or more broadly  
 107 instrumental) level with a kind of minimally Kantian substantive rationality at the level  
 108 of ultimate values, without claiming (like Kant and some later Kantians) to be able to  
 109 determine a single, unique highest principle of morality. There is a striking parallel  
 110 between this idea and the “relativized a priori”, as Michael Friedman has called it,  
 111 of which different versions are suggested in Poincaré, Schlick, early Reichenbach,  
 112 Cassirer, and Carnap. Just as (Kantian) unique synthetic a priori knowledge is rel-  
 113 ativized by these figures to different historical epochs or human purposes, so the  
 114 (Kantian) unique categorical imperative is relativized by Carnap, in the fragment pub-  
 115 lished here, to the many different fundamental values that prevail in different contexts  
 116 and cultures. Not only does this conception leave room for value pluralism, then, but  
 117 it clearly subordinates instrumental rationality to ultimate values in a way that has

<sup>9</sup> All references within Carnap's manuscript are to sections of his replies or others' papers in the Schilpp volume (Carnap 1963), for which the manuscript was originally intended.

<sup>10</sup> That he is referring to this passage is reinforced by other references back to it in the published text, e.g. “I do not share the widespread view that the rationality of an inductive method depends upon factual knowledge, say, its success in the past. I think that the question of rationality must be answered by purely a priori considerations (see my comments. . . in §26(IV))”. (Carnap 1963, p. 981) The passages referred to here are quoted in Carus (this volume).

<sup>11</sup> It has been suggested that the constraints thus placed on possible “highest principles of morality” are “merely formal”, and have no substantive bite. But it seems that Carnap is in no worse a position here than traditional Kantians who embrace the categorical imperative or some modernized version of it. For it is widely admitted that the categorical imperative is itself too abstract and “formal” to be applied to any concrete situation; it is in need, when it comes down to real life, of supplementation by the normative equivalent of “coordination rules”. How are Carnap's constraints on the selection of such “highest principles” from the infinite set of candidate principles—which require the selection of a particular substantive principle in that set, arising from specific human purposes and ideals—more “formal” than that?

118 eluded some well-known attempts to conjoin these different components or levels of  
119 rationality.<sup>12</sup>

120 Carnap's strongest argument against deriving "perfect" rationality (at least) from  
121 successful outcomes comes in his final paragraph (though the connection is not made  
122 explicit):

123 "More rational," whether applied to different periods or to two possible behav-  
124 iors of the same person in the same period, cannot very well be exactly defined.  
125 Roughly speaking, a behavior is more rational than another when it comes closer  
126 to perfectly rational behavior. But since deviations from perfectly rational behav-  
127 ior are possible in completely different ways, e.g. in the ways mentioned above...  
128 and within each of these once again in different ways, it is hardly possible to  
129 decide without an arbitrary convention under what conditions a deviation in one  
130 way should be considered equal to a deviation in another way. (p. [10])

131 This impossibility of comparing, let alone measuring, different deviations from "per-  
132 fect rationality" is in fact an immediate consequence of the sharp distinction between  
133 the criteria for determining instrumental (or partial) rationality from those governing  
134 substantive (comprehensive) rationality. If values are chosen by standards that are  
135 merely constrained (and not determined) by instrumental considerations, then dis-  
136 tance from overall ("perfect") rationality would be arbitrary even if (as Carnap did not  
137 believe) *instrumental* rationality were only a matter of learning from experience or of  
138 past success.

139 It is both surprising and admirable that Carnap was so bluntly honest with himself  
140 about the consequences of his conception of rationality. For of course he was notori-  
141 ously an advocate of quantitative concepts; he thought that psychology, for instance,  
142 would have to become more quantitative to be more scientific. And we find him admit-  
143 ting, here, that a quantitative measure of moral value functions is not feasible. It is  
144 probably not an accident that this fragment ends where it does, or that it was not  
145 ultimately picked up again and worked out. For while Carnap was honest enough to  
146 put down the words just quoted, the conclusion expressed in them must have been  
147 unwelcome to him.

148 Unburdened by this prejudice, we can appreciate the fragment for what it *does*  
149 suggest: a principled way of integrating instrumental and substantive rationality into  
150 a single coherent framework.<sup>13</sup> It casts an interesting light on Carnap's long years of  
151 struggle with inductive logic to know that he saw it as having a place within such a com-  
152 prehensive conception of human thought and action. It casts an especially interesting  
153 light on Carnap's various remarks about the practical applicability of inductive logic,  
154 "probability as a guide in life", and reveals that they were not merely passively echo-  
155 ing Condorcet, Laplace, and the positivist tradition (let alone the English tradition of

<sup>12</sup> In Habermas, for instance, the weak coordination of instrumental, hermeneutic, and communicative rationalities and the lack of clarity about which form of ultimate meta-rationality is to govern any such coordination; in Rawls, the problematic relation between the "reasonable" and the "rational", and again, of the meta-reason that adjudicates between their respective scopes.

<sup>13</sup> Which is worked out in a little more detail in Carus (this volume).

156 Butler, Moore, and Keynes), but were rooted in a deeper and more complex—perhaps  
157 minimally Kantian—conception that was under constant re-examination.

158 **Acknowledgments** I am grateful to the Archive of Scientific Philosophy, Hillman Library, University  
159 of Pittsburgh, for permission to publish this document; all rights are reserved. I am especially grateful to  
160 Brigitta Arden for her assistance with a few questionable transcriptions, drawing on her extensive experience  
161 with Carnap's shorthand manuscripts. Florian Steinberger, Rick Creath, and Michael Friedman provided  
162 useful comments and feedback at various points in the evolution of the introductory comments; Thomas  
163 Uebel, Christian Damböck, and two anonymous reviewers provided very helpful feedback on the final  
164 draft. I am grateful to Georg Schiemer and the editors of *Synthese*, Otávio Bueno and Gila Sher, for their  
165 willingness to publish this fragment and their encouragement in seeing the idea through to completion.

## 166 References for Introductory Remarks

- 167 Carnap, R. (1928). *Logischer aufbau der welt*. Leipzig: Meiner.
- 168 Carnap, R. (1934). Theoretische fragen und praktische entscheidungen. *Natur und Geist*, 2, 257–260.
- 169 Carnap, R. (1950). *Logical foundations of probability*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- 170 Carnap, R. (1963). Replies and systematic expositions. In P. Schilpp (Ed.), *The philosophy of Rudolf Carnap*  
171 (pp. 859–1013). LaSalle, IL: Open Court.
- 172 Carus, A. W. (2007). *Carnap in twentieth-century thought: Explication as enlightenment*. Cambridge:  
173 Cambridge University Press.
- 174 Carus, A.W. (this volume). Carnapian rationality. *Synthese*, this issue.
- 175 Dreben, B. (1995). Cohen's Carnap, or subjectivity is in the eye of the beholder. In K. Gavroglu, J. Stachel,  
176 & M. W. Wartofsky (Eds.), *Science, politics, and social practice* (pp. 27–42). Dordrecht: Kluwer.
- 177 Earman, J. (1993). Carnap, Kuhn, and the philosophy of scientific methodology. In P. Horwich (Ed.), *World*  
178 *changes: Thomas Kuhn and the nature of science* (pp. 9–36). Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- 179 Gower, B. (1997). *Scientific method: An historical and philosophical introduction*. London: Routledge.
- 180 Hare, R. M. (1952). *The language of morals*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- 181 Kaplan, A. (1991). Rudolf Carnap. In E. Shils (Ed.), *Remembering the University of Chicago: Teachers,*  
182 *scientists, and scholars* (pp. 32–41). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- 183 Mormann, T. (2006). Werte bei Carnap. *Zeitschrift für philosophische Forschung*, 60, 169–189.
- 184 Mormann, T. (2010). Wertphilosophische abschweifungen eines logischen empiristen: Der Fall Car-  
185 nap. In A. Siegesleitner (Ed.), *Logischer empirismus, werte, und moral: Eine neubewertung*  
186 (pp. 81–102). Vienna: Springer.
- 187 Richardson, A. (2007). Carnapian pragmatism. In M. Friedman & R. Creath (Eds.), *The Cambridge Com-*  
188 *panion to Carnap* (pp. 295–315). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- 189 Ricketts, T. (2004). Frege, carnap, and quine: Continuities and discontinuities. In S. Awodey & C. Klein  
190 (Eds.), *Carnap brought home: The view from jena* (pp. 181–202). LaSalle, IL: Open Court.
- 191 Uebel, T. (2005). Political philosophy of science in logical empiricism: The left Vienna Circle. *Studies in*  
192 *History and Philosophy of Science*, 36, 754–773.
- 193 Uebel, T. (2010). 'BLUBO-metaphysik': Die verwerfung der werttheorie des Südwestdeutschen neukan-  
194 tianismus durch Carnap und Neurath. In A. Siegesleitner (Ed.), *Logischer empirismus, werte, und*  
195 *moral: Eine neubewertung* (pp. 103–129). Vienna: Springer.
- 196 Williams, B. (1985). *Ethics and the limits of philosophy*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

## 197 Value Concepts 198 (a shorthand manuscript by Rudolf Carnap, transcribed and translated 199 by A.W. Carus)

200 *Value concepts and rational agent* First written to supplement my reply to Kaplan  
201 in the Schilpp volume. But that would have got too long. So better *as a basis for a later*  
202 *paper!*

203 21 February 58



204 **Value Concepts**205 **Relatively to a value system**

206 Let  $V$  be a *value function* (It is not assumed that there is a person whose value function is  
 207  $V$ .) This means that for every possible history of the world  $W$ ,  $V(W)$  is a real number.  
 208 Since only the differences among values of  $V$  matter, in the following definitions,  
 209 two value functions  $V$  and  $V'$  that differ only by a constant (for every  $W$ ,  $V'(W) =$   
 210  $V(W) + A$  with constant  $A$ ) may be viewed as equivalent.

211 Let the proposition  $q$  apply only to a limited time interval  $t_q$  and a limited spatial  
 212 region  $R_q$ . Then  $V(q)$  is to be understood as follows, where  $W_T$  is the true history:

- 213 (α) (a) If  $q$  is actually the case, then  $V(q) = V(W_T)$ .  
 214 (b) If  $q$  is false, then  $V(q) = V(W_q)$ , where  $W_q$  is the possible history of the  
 215 world that would occur if  $q$  were always the case.

216 In (b) a counterfactual conditional is used. The explication of these is still contro-  
 217 versial. For our purposes the following indications should suffice, though they would  
 218 need to be made more precise. In the present context, we will use only counterfactuals  
 219 in which the condition  $q$  is limited in the above way and moreover in which  $q$  is con-  
 220 sistent with the totality PL of the actual physical laws (in the sense of §. . . , so not in  
 221 the sense of the laws currently recognized by scientists).  $W_q$  is therefore the history  
 222 of the world that meets the following conditions: [2]

- 223 (β) (a)  $W_q$  coincides with  $W_T$  over its entire range *before* the time interval  $t_q$ ,  
 224 (b) as well as during the interval  $t_q$  *outside* the region  $R_q$ ,  
 225 (c) within the space-time region  $\{t_q, R_q\}$ ,  $W_q$  coincides as far as possible with  
 226  $W_T$  and diverges from  $W_T$  only as far as is necessary to make  $q$  true;  
 227 (d) *after* the interval  $t_q$ ,  $W_q$  coincides with  $W_T$  in all space-time regions not  
 228 affected causally by the previous  $q$ , while they diverge from  $W_T$  in the regions  
 229 affected by  $q$  as determined by  $q$  in conjunction with the laws PL. [3a]

- 230  
 231 (γ)  $p$  is *better* than  $q$  with respect to the value function  $V =_{Df} V(p) - V(q) > 0$ .  
 232 (δ)  $p$  is *good* with respect to the value function  $V =_{Df} p$  is better than not- $p$ . [3b]

233 Assuming that an agent  $X$  has a choice among the possible actions of a set  $A_X$ , we  
 234 define:

- 235 (ε) The possible action  $a$  in  $A_X$  is an *optimum* with respect to the value function  
 236  $V =_{Df}$  no action in  $A_X$  is better (in the sense of (γ)) than  $a$  with respect to  $V$ . [3c]

237 (22 February)

238 A person  $X$  at a given time has not just a *single* value function, but a great many  
 239 of them, representing different value aspects. If  $X$ , following the dietary advice of his  
 240 doctor, says “It is better for me to avoid a certain kind of food”, he has a certain value  
 241 function in mind, one that represents only health values, and only for himself. Other  
 242 partial value aspects might be: his business profit, his aesthetic pleasure, his own well-  
 243 being with respect to all aspects jointly, the well-being of a family, that of a large group,  
 244 that of a nation, that of all humanity. But there is also a comprehensive value function

245 of X that comprises all aspects, and in which the relative weight of each aspect in  
 246 any possible overall situation finds expression—aspects that are sometimes in mutual  
 247 conflict. Different things are meant by [the expression] “moral value judgement.”  
 248 Perhaps it is best to use this term for the overall value judgement, in which the different  
 249 aspects are included. [4]

## 250 The rational agent

251 (ζ) *Relative rationality* With respect to a value function V, a credibility function  
 252 Cred, a body of evidence E and a set A of possible actions, an action a in A is  
 253 *rational* =<sub>DF</sub> for no action a' in A different from a is V(W) using Cred on the  
 254 basis of E and a' preferred to V(W) on the basis of E and a. (The degree to which  
 255 V(W) is preferred with respect to a certain body of evidence is the sum over all  
 256 possible W of the products of V(W) with the credibility of W on the basis of the  
 257 evidence in question; see § [25(II)].) [5]

258 There are certain standards on the basis of which a Cred-function can be criticized  
 259 as irrational; these have been discussed elsewhere (Kemeny's essay §[III]; and my  
 260 §[26(IV)] in this reply). It is the task of inductive logic to arrive at such standards.

261 Are there also *standards of rationality for value functions*? The above-mentioned  
 262 standards of inductive logic are not applicable here. The acceptance of a value function  
 263 is completely independent of factual questions, for what the value function primarily  
 264 evaluates is not particular actions or processes but rather entire possible histories of  
 265 the world. Considerations about the consequences to be expected from an action do  
 266 not come into the picture, for in a W all consequences are already included and given.  
 267 [For instance, take the case where] the function V<sub>1</sub> values W<sub>1</sub> more highly than W<sub>2</sub>,  
 268 while the function V<sub>2</sub> does the reverse:

- 269 (a)  $V_1(W_1) > V_1(W_2)$   
 270 (b)  $V_2(W_1) < V_2(W_2)$ .

271 Assume that the agent X<sub>1</sub> accepts V<sub>1</sub> and X<sub>2</sub> accepts V<sub>2</sub>. Assuming that X<sub>1</sub> and  
 272 X<sub>2</sub> discuss their value functions and, in particular, the descriptive results (a) and (b).  
 273 In their discussion they will consider only the two histories W<sub>1</sub> and W<sub>2</sub>. X<sub>1</sub> may have  
 274 different evidence values than X<sub>2</sub> for each of these two histories; but that is irrelevant  
 275 for the question of choosing between V<sub>1</sub> and V<sub>2</sub>. This [6] question concerns only  
 276 whether one values W<sub>1</sub> more highly than W<sub>2</sub> or vice versa; that has no bearing on the  
 277 question whether W<sub>1</sub> will occur or has a higher probability [of occurring] than W<sub>2</sub>.

278 Although all logic, including inductive logic, and factual knowledge are irrelevant,  
 279 it nonetheless seems to me that there are other, purely valuational criteria by which  
 280 to judge a value function as more or less rational than another. I am not going to  
 281 attempt to set up fundamental standards for such judgements here. I only want to  
 282 mention some considerations whose justification in such a judgement seems plausible  
 283 and would likely be approved by most people, even if they diverge markedly in their  
 284 valuations. First, it seems reasonable to require that a value function V(W) is derivable  
 285 from general principles regarding the valuation of particular processes; specifically  
 286 that the value of V(W) be an algebraic sum (or integral) of positive or negative values



287 determined by some sort of principles governing certain very specific processes, while  
 288 the remaining processes are irrelevant. (The relevant processes [7] arise e.g. from  
 289 certain affective processes in humans, or from a more general kind of processes in  
 290 beings that are animate or regarded as such; while the inorganic processes are of  
 291 course irrelevant.) Then it should also be required that the principles have a general  
 292 character, that they are expressible by mathematical functions of the relevant properties  
 293 of the processes involved, specifically mathematical functions that are continuous and  
 294 relatively smooth, rather than jumping up and down. These examples of requirements  
 295 may be doubtful. I have not mentioned them to defend their validity, but only to  
 296 indicate why I think that there are certain standards a value function must meet to be  
 297 rational. The clarification of such standards I can't attempt here. But it seems clear  
 298 that if such standards were worked out, they would only exclude as irrational certain  
 299 value functions, and still admit an infinite set of different value functions that are  
 300 extremely different from each other, and among them would be many that would be  
 301 considered by most people, perhaps by all, as completely wrong and immoral. So the  
 302 standards I speak of do not at all have the function of excluding "immorality" [8] or of  
 303 distinguishing between value judgments that occur psychologically in controversies  
 304 about moral or political questions. In the following I will speak of "the standards of  
 305 rationality for value functions" as if they had already been arrived at. [9]

306 Now we define:

307 The behavior of an agent  $X$  is *perfectly rational* during a certain time period  $\Delta t$   
 308 when it meets the following conditions:

- 309 (η) (a) In *deductive thought*, which includes the whole of pure mathematics, he never  
 310 makes any errors during  $\Delta t$ .  
 311 (b) During the period  $\Delta t$  he uses a rational method in his *inductive thought*;  
 312 specifically, there is a *credibility* function  $\text{Cred}_X$  for him that meets the criteria of  
 313 rationality.  
 314 (c) His behavior during the period  $\Delta t$  is governed (in the way to be described  
 315 under (d)) by a *value function*  $V_X$  that meets all standards of rationality.  
 316 (d) Whenever  $X$  has a choice, at a time  $t$  within the period  $\Delta t$ , among different  
 317 actions in a set  $A_{X,t}$ , and if at  $t$  his total evidence is  $E_{X,t}$ , then the action chosen  
 318 by  $X$  has *relative rationality* (in the sense of  $\zeta$ ) with respect to  $V_X$ ,  $\text{Cred}_X$ ,  $E_{X,t}$ ,  
 319 and  $A_{X,t}$ . [10]

320 Assume  $X$  is perfectly rational at time  $t$  and chooses action  $a$  in  $A_X$ . Then it is  
 321 nonetheless still possible for a *not to be an optimum* with respect to  $V_X$ . It could  
 322 be that an action  $a'$  is better than  $a$  with respect to  $V_X$ , due to certain circumstances  
 323 not known to  $X$  at the time of the action. It could even be that the objectively better,  
 324 i.e. more successful action  $a'$  would not be rational for  $X$ . As emphasized elsewhere  
 325 (§[26.IV]), rationality is not to be determined by success.

326 No one is ever perfectly rational in the sense just defined. "More rational",  
 327 whether applied to different periods or to two possible behaviors of the same  
 328 person in the same period, cannot very well be exactly defined. Roughly speak-  
 329 ing, a behavior is more rational than another when it comes closer to per-  
 330 fectly rational behavior. But since deviations from perfectly rational behavior are  
 331 possible in completely different ways, e.g. in the ways mentioned above (η)

332 (a), (b), (c), (d), and within each of these once again in different ways, it is  
333 hardly possible to decide without an arbitrary convention under what conditions  
334 a deviation in one way should be considered equal to a deviation in another  
335 way.

Revised Proof