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2	Introduction	10:34	22 In regard to both questions alike	8:31
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14	From what survives of his writings	9:00	34 We now come to the intellectual aspect of the religion	10:21
15	The metaphysics of Heraclitus	9:29	Since no one knows who his parents are	9:39
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20	Chapter VIII: Anaxagoras	6:19	I do not think that Plato's logical objections	9:56

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41	Chapter XVI: Plato's Theory of Immortality	10:35	61 Chapter XXIV: Early Greek Mathematics and Astronomy	13:06
42	This, however, is a digression	9:37	Pythagoras, in all probability	12:21
43	The contention that all knowledge	10:28	Part III, Chapter XXV: The Hellenistic World	11:24
44	Chapter XVII: Plato's Cosmogony	8:43	In the second century B.C	8:45
45	This leads to a somewhat curious theory	7:43	55 There was widespread social discontent	9:00
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47	We now reach Plato's final argument	10:18	[7] It is interesting to observe	9:53
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49	Chapter XIX: Aristotle's Metaphysics	12:58	Chapter XXVII: The Epicureans	10:35
50	The true ground of the distinction	10:19	Dicurus disagrees with some of his hedonist	10:15
51	Aristotle's theology is interesting	14:02	🗇 Epicurus has no interest	8:55
52	Chapter XX: Aristotle's Ethics	10:55	The age of Epicurus was a weary age	2:13
53	Whatever may be thought of the magnanimous man	10:35	☐ Chapter XXVIII: Stoicism	9:55
54	Aristotle again shows his good sense	11:15	74 To a modern mind, it's difficult to feel enthusaistic	9:26
55	Chapter XXI: Aristotle's Politics	10:05	🖂 Posidonius (ca. 135 – ca. 51 B.C.) was a Syrian Greek	11:11
56	Plato's Utopia is criticised by Aristotle	12:19	🔟 Undoubtedly the age of the Antonines	12:02
57	This leads to the question	7:20	The contradiction between free will and determinism	10:59
58	Chapter XXII: Aristotle's Logic	11:10	Chapter XXIX: The Roman Empire in Relation to Culture	11:32
59	3. Overestimation of deduction.	9:55	This result was averted by two energetic men.	11:02
60	Chapter XXIII: Aristotle's Physics	13:58	The Hellenizing of Rome	8:22

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3. The unification of government and culture.	7:08	Next comes the question of pious virgins	10:50
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The respect of Plotinus for Plato is very great.	10:15	Chapter V: The Fifth and Sixth Centuries	13:41
84 His objections to gnosticism are of two sorts.	8:29	M One does not find a similar outlook	9:00
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87 The thirteenth-century synthesis	8:51	Gregory's letters are extraordinarily interesting	13:03
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89 Ezekiel is equally shocked	10:17	109 The foundation of the Holy Roman Empire	10:30
90 The history of this period is told	12:32	110 The business of the Patriarch Ignatius	12:23
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93 Origen's longest work is a book entitled	8:42	☐ Chapter IX: Ecclesiastical Reform in the Eleventh Century	11:02
94 Miracles certainly played a very large part	8:37	During the eleventh century various other orders	11:02
95 Chapter III: Three Doctors of the Church	9:29	In Gregory's time began the great dispute	11:14
96 The bishop was, at first	9:16	Chapter X: Mohammedan Culture and Philosophy	12:21
97 St. Jerome was a man of many quarrels.	8:08	117 The Nestorians, through whom, at first	13:23
98 Of St. Augustine I shall speak, in this chapter	9:46	□ Chapter XI: The Twelfth Century	2:28
99 The time came when he and his mother	9:49	We must not be deceived by this literary archaism.	11:40
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121	Abelard's most famous book	10:19	Everybody – men and women alike	7:36
122	Chapter XII: The Thirteenth Century	9:59	Mac Chapter V: The Reformation and Counter-Reformation	7:16
123	During the few years of peace	9:01	[143] Chapter VI: The Rise of Science	10:42
	The only other popular heresy	10:07	Copernicus was not in a position	10:42
125	Chapter XIII: St. Thomas Aquinas	9:59	Galileo also studied projectiles	11:49
126	To return to the Summa contra Gentiles	9:03	In the remainder of this chapter	10:47
127	The Third Book is largely concerned	12:51	[147] Chapter VII: Francis Bacon	12:58
128	Chapter XIV: Franciscan Schoolmen	8:44	™ Chapter VIII: Hobbes's Leviathan	7:15
129	Duns Scotus (ca. 1270–13-8)	12:42	We will now consider the doctrines of the Leviathan	11:35
130	Occam's political works are written	12:58	Throughout the Leviathan, Hobbes never considers	14:32
	Chapter XV: The Eclipse of the Papacy	9:55	[5] Chapter IX: Descartes	10:37
132	Boniface the VIII was an Italian	10:39	This part of his theory was abandoned	10:00
133	The Council of Constance had healed the schism	9:40	Having now secured a firm foundation	11:32
134	Book III, Part I, Chapter I: General Characteristics	11:11	□ Chapter X: Spinoza	10:09
135	Chapter II: The Italian Renaissance	11:50	I come now to Spinoza's theory of the emotions.	9:40
136	The southern extremity of Italy	12:04	'Love towards God' we are told	15:02
137	Chapter III: Machiavelli	10:32	☑ Chapter XI: Leibnitz	10:42
138	The Prince is very explicit in repudiating	11:41	In contrasting himself with Spinoza	10:56
139	Chapter IV: Erasmus and More	11:33	The argument from the pre-established harmony	10:13
140	Erasmus, on his second visit to England	10:39	Leibnitz based his philosophy	11:36

Chapter XII: Philosophical Liberalism	10:37	I do not wish, at the moment, to discuss induction	8:18
🔟 A new movement. which has gradually developed	10:26	182 The ultimate outcome of Hume's investigation	10:15
Chapter XIII: Locke's Theory of Knowledge	10:40	Part II, Chapter XVIII: The Romantic Movement	11:45
Mhat Locke means by 'reason'	9:17	The beginnings of Romanticism in England	13:44
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Locke's ethical doctrines are interesting	10:47	We come now to the most fruitful period	10:12
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B. The State of Nature	16:19	Rousseau has not that profound respect	9:34
C. The Social Contract	8:32	Chapter XX: Kant A. German Idealism in General	7:54
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D. Property	9:35	A large part of The Critique of Pure Reason	11:05
E. Checks and Balances	9:24	① C. Kant's Theory of Space and Time	8:35
□ Chapter XV: Locke's Influence	8:29	🖽 The second metaphysical argument maintains	9:19
174 The difference in method is connected	8:55	Chapter XXI: Currents of Thought in the Nineteenth Century	10:00
□ Chapter XVI: Berkeley	10:27	🖭 Condorcet (1743–94) has opinions	10:09
Let us now make a critical analysis	10:32	Darwin himself was a liberal	9:27
But we must now ask ourselves what we mean	12:19	(97) Chapter XXII: Hegel	10:53
□ Chapter XVII: Hume	5:21	🖼 Knowledge as a whole has its triadic movement.	11:13
There is a section (Book I, part i, section vii)	9:56	German history is divided by Hegel	11:51
In the Cartesian Philosophy	9:44	Such is Hegel's doctrine of the State	11:53

201	Chapter XXIII: Byron	4:02
202	It is obvious that an aristocrat does not become	14:02
203	Chapter XXIV: Schopenhauer	9:0
204	All this is very sad	9:28
205	Chapter XXV: Nietzsche	11:20
206	Two applications of his ethic deserve notice	12:4
207	It remains to consider the main ethical problem	13:0
208	Chapter XXVI: The Utilitarians	8:43
209	It was through the influence of James Mill	15:33
210	Chapter XXVIII: Karl Marx	12:23
211	On the other hand, when we come to the detail	11:44
212	Chapter XXVII: Bergson	10:22
213	'The intellect', Bergson says	9:30
214	We must now return to the subject of instinct	9:10
	We must now return to the subject of instinct I shall begin with the theory of space	9:10 9:19
215		9:19
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Bertrand Russell

(1872 - 1970)

A HISTORY OF Western Philosophy

and its Connection with Political and Social Circumstances from the Earliest Times to the Present Day

For sixty years Bertrand Russell was the public face of English philosophy. Seen from the outside, he appeared to have everything: aristocratic birth; impeccable connections in the social, political and academic worlds; equally at home in the halls of Cambridge and the literary salons of London; intellectual power that was frightening to ordinary mortals; the ability to produce works on logic and mathematics so profound that only a handful of men in England could read them, but at the same time the literary skills to spread his ideas to the millions; decidedly a member of the establishment, the elite, and yet a man of fiercely

For sixty years Bertrand Russell was the public face of English philosophy. Seen from the outside, he appeared to have everything: aristocratic birth; impeccable connections in the social, political and academic worlds; equally at home in the halls of Cambridge and the literary independent mind. This was Russell's image, and with his eternal pipe, his mane of white hair, his air of omniscience, and his cultured Oxbridge voice, he appeared the embodiment of the intellectual life, rising above the trivial day-to-day struggles that make up ordinary existence.

Yet behind this public persona lay a very different story, for Russell's personal life, on both the intellectual and emotional levels, was a story of conflict, of disorder frequently approaching chaos, of pain, disappointment and failure. Disturbed by the early loss of the religious faith in which he was raised, Russell sought throughout his life certainty of knowledge. He thought

he had found it first in mathematics, and then in the formal logic of philosophy. The great goal of his early life was to unite these two spheres, to show that mathematics and logic were equivalent systems of knowledge, using different but parallel languages. Together with Alfred North Whitehead, he wrote Principia Mathematica (1910-1913), a work so difficult and rarefied that he later claimed that its composition had permanently impaired his intellectual faculties, in spite of which he admitted that it had not succeeded in its stated aim. Russell spent the next forty years circling around and around this problem of the foundations of human knowledge. Sometimes he felt that a rigorous systematic answer must be attainable, at other times he despaired. He turned to writing popular works of philosophy, in which he explored the same problem in common-sense language. But all Russell's work in this field remained exploratory; he never achieved a decisive breakthrough into a new vision of what truth was or might be, whether expressed in mathematical terms or in everyday language. All his life he remained a

materialist and an atheist, convinced, in the famous words of his pupil Wittgenstein, that 'The world is all that is the case' and that the only true guide to the way the world really functions is science.

At the same time that this intellectual odyssey was being played out, stability in his personal life proved equally elusive, so much so that he seems to have a streak of utter irrationality, of self-destructiveness, in his nature, which contrasts oddly with what we might expect from a major philosopher. Russell was a compulsive womaniser: he was married four times, but he also conducted a string of affairs. The affairs and the marriages (except the last) all ended in bitter acrimony, leaving him with numbers of children and grandchildren whose traumatic experiences in later life caused him further pain. He became a social and political radical, imprisoned during the Great War, not directly for pacifism, but for criticism of the British government, which technically amounted almost to treason. This cost him his Cambridge fellowship and drove him into populist publishing as a source of income. But the separation from his academic peers led him into intellectual isolation, and if he attempted once again to write serious philosophy, those works were poorly received. He was rarely out of the news, however, and his former colleagues felt that he had become a populariser, a showman who could no longer be regarded seriously. He spent the war years in America, and it was there that he wrote his *A History of Western Philosophy*, published in 1945 and by far the most ambitious non-technical book he had ever attempted.

Introducing the work, Russell commented that in most books of this kind, the great philosophers seem to emerge out of a vacuum, their ideas are analysed, then they vanish, to be replaced by somebody else. Russell's stated aim was to do something more than this, to show how philosophical ideas sprang from their time, the age in which they were produced, and which perhaps they in turn helped to shape. In other words he set out to write not so much a technical history from within the discipline of philosophy, but rather a cultural history of ideas. He wanted not a sequence of individual

miniature portraits, but a coherent, fully composed picture, one that would explain what ancient Greece, medieval Christendom, the Renaissance, the age of empirical science, the age of romanticism and so on, were all about.

This was an exciting and praiseworthy aim: did he succeed? The answer seems to depend on whether one is a serious, academic philosopher, or merely that fabled creature, the intelligent layman. For the layman, Russell produced a rich narrative that filled in a vast amount of historical background, gave wherever possible a living picture of the philosopher in his time, and then an account of his ideas which was brief but authoritative. He brought between the covers of one book a story that covered more than two thousand years of history and thought, a story that would absorb an intelligent layman for many months, perhaps even years, a story to which he could return again and again, and which would spur him on to further more detailed reading.

But to the specialist philosopher the whole enterprise looked much shakier. To state that the historical background

is important to philosophy is one thing; to explain precisely why any given era should produce one particular approach to philosophy, is quite another. General background about the medieval Christian Church, the Scientific Revolution, or the Romantic era, is not enough on its own to lead us into the mind of Aquinas, Descartes, or Hegel, nor is it enough to explain how these men could be outstanding original geniuses, and yet also embody the spirit of their age.

Russell's own ideas and character are very much in evidence throughout. For example his antipathy to religion is well known, yet he devotes more than one fifth of the book to an account of Christian philosophy from the time of the Church Fathers to the eve of the Renaissance. At the end of this section his judgement on Saint Thomas Aguinas, the supreme rational theologian of the Middle Ages, is that 'There is little of the true philosophic spirit in Aguinas... Before he begins to philosophise, he knows the truth.' This surely stands as Russell's universal judgement on religion as a whole. Russell's approach here seems to

have been modelled on that of Gibbon, conveying through stabs of none-toosubtle irony what he really felt about the history of religion. He was evidently fascinated by St Augustine, a man as much the victim of his own passions as Russell himself. Surprisingly however, he was also drawn to Plotinus, the neo-Platonist and one of the most ethereal of all philosophers. Plotinus felt a keen sense of the imperfections of this world, and sought to escape from the anarchy of experience. In reaction, he proposed for the universe a pure, idealised, spiritual structure, which could be known only by rigorous intellectual discipline, and evidently Russell was reminded here of his own youthful pursuit of the ideal of analytical logic, still sadly unfulfilled.

One of the puzzles of the book is this: Russell states explicitly his belief that true knowledge comes only from science, that outside science there is only speculation, untestable and unprovable. Yet in the book the amount of space devoted to the history of science and its relationship with philosophy is very small, even when discussing the 19th and 20th

centuries. In the closing sections of the book, modern science - atomic structure, quantum physics and relativity - also occupy one page, while the expanding universe is not mentioned at all, and nor is Freudian psychology. The only definition of philosophy that Russell puts forward is the rather vague one that it occupies an intermediate borderland between science. which offered certain knowledge, and theology, which offered only dogma. If this were true, we wonder why he did not feel it necessary to counterpoint the history of science with that of philosophy, showing how the one impacted on the other. Nor does he reflect on the limitations of science, its inability to guide us in the moral, spiritual and existential choices of real life

Perhaps the central truth is that a history of philosophy cannot be held together without some strong conception of what philosophy is, outside of its time-bound manifestations. Wisdom and knowledge, creation and cosmology, God and man, nature and man, good and evil, law and social structure, science and mathematics, history and purpose,

perception and thought, language and logic, experience and reason: at various times all these subjects have absorbed those whom we call philosophers, and many of them have concentrated on one or two of these areas, ignoring the others or even dismissing them as meaningless. This diversity of subject matter makes it extremely difficult to grasp or define the identity of philosophy as a whole. Philosophy is clearly a quest for truth, a reflection on human knowledge and on how we may arrive at the truth. Throughout its history, philosophy has pursued this quest in a number of different fields, through different problems and areas of human experience. To explain why these different areas have appeared to be central to philosophers in different historical epochs, and whether these problems have ever been solved, is a massive task, requiring enormous erudition and exceptional clarity of thought. Russell guides us expertly through the nature of Plato's ideal society, Aristotle's metaphysics, Descartes' theory of mind and body, Spinoza's serene pantheism, Nietzsche's glorification

of will and power, the foundations of logical analysis laid by Frege and by Russell himself, and many other difficult ideas. But does he manage to pull all of this together into a purposeful narrative and identify what the purpose is, or say whether it might ever be capable of fulfilment? it is surely existentialism, the product of twentieth-century war, dehumanisation and the disillusionment with formal philosophy. Yet in the last dozen years of his life Russell seemed to throw himself into a form of social commitment à la Sartre, devoting himself to anti-nuclear and anti-war campaigns which kept him

Professional philosophers questioned this very point, and they either ignored the book out of respect for Russell, or allowed it faint praise as a layman's introduction; any history of philosophy that devoted a chapter to Byron was certain in any case to dismay academic readers. In the middlebrow press it was well reviewed by distinguished names like G.M. Trevelyan, A.L. Rowse and Julian Huxley – none of whom were of course philosophers – and the book was specifically cited when Russell was awarded the Nobel Prize for Literature in 1950. It still holds the status of a popular classic.

Russell brought his history to an end around 1920, just a little too early for him to take note of existentialism, which is a pity, because if ever there was a philosophy that was a child of its time

twentieth-century war, dehumanisation and the disillusionment with formal philosophy. Yet in the last dozen years of his life Russell seemed to throw himself into a form of social commitment à la Sartre, devoting himself to anti-nuclear and anti-war campaigns which kept him still a giant figure in the public eye, as he had been for sixty years. His own formal philosophy had been unable to do justice to the richness of life, but throughout his extraordinary life he had shown a willingness to throw away logic when driven by deeper impulses that he could not rationalise, and the last phase of his life completed this pattern, caught in the intractable battle between reason and passion.

Notes by Peter Whitfield



Jonathan Keeble combines his audio work with a busy theatre and TV career. He has featured in over 600 radio plays for the BBC, appearing in everything from Shakespeare and Sherlock Holmes to *Doctor Who* and *The Archers*, in which he played the evil Owen. His voice work is much in demand and ranges from the audio guide for the Sistine Chapel to voicing the Angel of Death in the film *Hellboy II*, with stops at all points in between. An award-winning reader, Jonathan has recorded over 200 audiobooks.

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