

Philosophy and ‘Interdisciplinarity’

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The paper analyses the problematic relation of the humanities to scientific thought in the light of the absence of a philosophical system of knowledge that could serve as a shared framework of different regimes of thought. When philosophy agrees to the consensus that it is no longer possible as a system, it invents various forms of ‘interdisciplinarity’ in order to surpass the particularity of individual disciplines of thought.

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Introduction

To the humanities, science appears as a problem, since it brings about a persistent uncertainty regarding the answer to the question that could – after Heidegger – be posed in the following manner: ‘What is called thinking?’ Usually, the humanities deal with this problem according to one of the two basic strategies: they either adopt a certain ideal of science that they should follow in order to become sciences themselves,¹ or define an irreducible specificity of their own manner and object of thinking, a specificity that sciences supposedly cannot replace or treat adequately. This alternative between ‘vulgar’ positivism and ‘naïve’ humanism is supplemented with various attempts to surpass it: we could list a number of demands for forming a scientificity proper to the humanities that would no longer be a mere attempt to pursue an external ideal and thus to ‘imitate’ scientific methodology, but rather a manner of thinking that would ‘structurally’ correspond to modern science. A demand of this kind was especially noticeable in Althusserian Marxism and Lacanian psychoanalysis.² Then there is the frequent opinion that contemporary humanities and science may diverge in their methods, while converging in their findings: the discoveries of the theory of relativity and quantum mechanics are supposed to correspond to the new ontological image of ‘openness’ or ‘non-wholeness’ of the world, suggested by the humanities. And the other type of surpassing the classical alternative is summarised by the principle of

‘interdisciplinarity’: diverse scientific disciplines and the humanities can collaborate in researching a specific object, which makes the gap between different manners of thinking welcome because it contributes to an expansion and deepening of knowledge.

While reflecting on bridging the gap between different regimes of thought one can raise the question whether thinking is also a problem for science itself. If this is indeed the case, if science too has to make clear to itself that it thinks (see Riha 97), the question of thinking becomes a question shared by science and the humanities. Both can either follow their desire to think or give it up and yield to other principles: the former to the imperative of profitability, and the latter to the imperative of ideological applicability of cultural production (see Riha 106). To post such a common question means to step outside the Heideggerian framework, since it is clear to Heidegger that science does not and cannot think.³ But why does the capacity of science to think have to be denied by the philosopher? The scandal that science stirs in the field of humanities is that it shows that *‘thought does not equal sense’* (Riha 106). Nevertheless, the humanities insist that sense is the product that makes their social existence justified. This can be illustrated, say, by an advertising slogan used by the Faculty of Arts in Ljubljana: ‘Humanities make sense.’

The philosophical depreciation of science has its intra-philosophical precondition, which is tightly connected to the difficulties of bridging the gap between irreconcilable regimes of thought. Strictly speaking, Heidegger’s philosophy does not speak about the truth of science from the meta-position of a philosophical system or in line with the philosophical claim to universal knowledge, but because it thinks truth in accordance with another ‘particular’ field of thinking, or – if we adopt Alain Badiou’s terminology – ‘under the condition’ of another exteriority of philosophy, namely art. Heidegger’s philosophy verifies the consequences that the thought of art and especially of poetry has for thought in general. The ideal of thinking is thus an ideal of art, which is identified as the strict opposite of the ideal of science. But the non-relation between both regimes of thought, the impossibility of any complementarity, is in fact a consequence of the impossibility of metaphysical philosophy, its incapability to supply the meta-knowledge that would ensure the unity of thinking. Simply put, philosophy is no longer possible as a system that could serve as a common framework for different disciplines of thought.

My purpose is not to reignite the worn out theme of ‘the end of grand narratives’ – since, as I will show, the philosophical (self-)critique of universalism is supplemented by an equally important critique of particularism of separated disciplines of thought – but rather to make the question

of the problematic position of post-systemic philosophy an opportunity to present models for thinking the connections between different regimes of thought. The question of 'interdisciplinarity' (in a broader meaning of the word) is secondary for science and the humanities because they have their own respective objects and specific methods of approaching them, which means that they can exist independently. Yet for philosophy, this question is crucial because philosophy does not have an object of its own and is no longer possible as a system, which means that what is at stake is the very possibility of its practice. In what follows, I will address the various manners in which different philosophies conceive of the passages and circulations of concepts between disciplines of thought.

The end of systems?

After Hegel, philosophy has for the most part accepted the consensus that it is no longer possible in the form of a speculative system.⁴ Therefore, it had to redefine its relation to its exteriority, that is, to thought that it does not possess and that does not come to completion in it. Philosophy found a new possibility of its existence in positioning itself on the margins of a particular knowledge/practice in order to support it with the reflection on its methodological foundations and to universalise its effects on thought in general. However, this can lead to what Alain Badiou (*Manifesto* 61–68) calls the 'suture' of philosophy with one of its conditions (positivism sutures it with science, Marxism with politics, etc.) – that is, with a certain regime of thought that a particular philosophy identifies as being true – which eventually results in the self-abolishing of philosophy.

However, in twentieth-century philosophy, a critique of universalism is combined with a critique of particularism: it is common to encounter a critique of 'privatisation' or 'parcelling' of knowledge into distinct disciplines, especially within the humanities and social sciences. Even though philosophy is critical towards its systemic metaphysical tradition, which claimed to possess the universal knowledge, identification of true thought is nevertheless still supposed to be a matter of philosophy and not of the particular sciences. As we have seen, Heidegger's philosophy affirms poetical thinking as true thinking in the light of which science does not think. On the other hand, from the point of view of particular disciplines, philosophy – even though it declares to be proceeding immanently – still 'reduces' the objects of knowledge to its own concepts, which it defines in advance, or uses scientific concepts for its own purposes in a 'metaphorical' way. This can be illustrated, say, by the well known discomfort of art

historians with philosophical commentaries of artworks, or by the scientists' mockery of philosophical (mis)uses of scientific concepts. What kind of a position is philosophy then left with if it resists both, the universal/unlimited and the particular/limited knowledge?

The ontological turn

In Heidegger – the most determined critic of philosophy as metaphysics – the task of thinking truth is to a large extent assigned to art. In the introduction to his collected writings on Hölderlin's poetry (*Elucidations* 21), he writes that his commentaries 'do not claim to be contributions to research in the history of literature or to aesthetics' as they 'spring from a necessity of thought'. In the context of the present discussion, the question is why are literary history and aesthetics unable to capture this necessity? To start with the former, it can only study poetry as an object, but cannot reach the essence of poetry, which according to Heidegger brings about a different kind of thought, the kind that surpasses the epistemological principle prevailing in metaphysics and hence in science, that of adequacy between knowledge and its object. Literary history can offer correct knowledge on poetry as a particular object, but it overlooks the fact that poetry introduces a new paradigm in thinking being and therefore in thinking truth. On the other hand, aesthetics as a philosophical discipline can think of poetry with regard to truth, but its notion of truth is philosophical and thus metaphysical, and is not derived from poetry itself. Only philosophical thought that overcomes metaphysics and hence aesthetics can rise to the level of poetry and re-think its thought. Moreover, Hölderlin's poetry is chosen not as a random interesting object, but rather as a model for thought – it is through this poetry that we will finally be able to grasp what thinking actually means: 'Until now, thinking has not yet been able to think this experience [of Hölderlin's poetry] properly, or to ask about the realm in which this experience is at play.' (217) For Heidegger, being has to be thought according to language, while 'the essence of language must be understood out of the essence of poetry' (58). It is at this moment that Hölderlin enters the scene, since he wrote 'poems solely about the essence of poetry' (50). Hölderlin allows us to pose the question of the essence of poetry, which leads us to the question of language and therefore to the question of being.

It is because of the key role of poetry that Heidegger poses the problem of the relation between philosophy (*Denken*) and poetry (*Dichten*) as two manners of approaching the common and mutual origin of language and being: 'All essential Saying hearkens back to this veiled mutual belong-

ing of Saying and Being, word and thing.' (Heidegger, *On the Way* 155) Yet their proximity is of a problematic character: these two manners of 'essential Saying' cannot be translated into one another without something getting lost in the process. It is no coincidence that Heidegger (*What is* 98) concludes his text 'What is philosophy?' with a statement on this very problem: 'Between both there is, however, at the same time an abyss for they "dwell on the most widely separated mountains".' There is thus a non-relation between philosophy and poetry – and that is why they should not be combined as in a 'cloudy mixture', but imagined as parallel lines that 'intersect in the infinite' (Heidegger, *On the Way* 90). At the same time, they must not be thought as separated because the 'nearness that draws them near is itself the occurrence of appropriation by which poetry and thinking are directed into their proper nature' (ibid.).

Philosophy and art are thus linked by the question of being, which according to Heidegger supplements knowledge with sense and orientates the workings of man. This link is then not a resemblance by analogy or a subsequent 'interdisciplinary' linkage; if particular sciences are not linked by this fundamental question, knowledge remains merely the 'multiplicity of dispersed disciplines', whose 'rootedness [...] in their essential ground has atrophied' (Heidegger, *Pathmarks* 81–82). Philosophy thus has to stand firm against the multitude of particular disciplines, which are linked merely by the technical relation of subjects of will to the objects of the world.

The importance of art for philosophy should therefore not be understood only on the grounds of the so-called language turn, but also on the grounds of 'the ontological turn', which according to Badiou (*Deleuze* 19) decisively marks the philosophy of the last century and confirms the significance of Heidegger: 'When all is said and done, there is little doubt that the century has been ontological, and that this destiny is far more essential than the "linguistic turn" with which it has been credited.' This statement can also be confirmed by the other major ontological-aesthetical project in German philosophy of the twentieth century, namely that of Theodor W. Adorno. In Adorno's view, too, the philosophical thought on art is determined by a kind of ontological question, a question of a certain real that is necessarily lost in the constitution of reality: 'If thought is in any way to gain a relation to art it must be on the basis that something in reality, something back of the veil spun by the interplay of institutions and false needs, objectively demands art, and that it demands an art that speaks for what the veil hides.' (Adorno, *Aesthetic* 24) The task of thought is to grasp what in an object is more than the object: 'This "more" is not imposed upon it but remains immanent to it, as that which has been pushed out of it.' (Adorno, *Negative* 161) This task is also the task to overcome the

division between disciplines which reduce the object to what it merely is.

In contrast to Heidegger, however, a third wheel is added to the company of art and philosophy, namely politics. Art and philosophy share a common ambivalence regarding their position in society: on the one hand, their distance from the society, their autonomy, is itself a product of society, a result of the triumph of bourgeoisie and capitalism, while on the other hand it is a carrier of the promise of a different world, a world of humanity emancipated from social antagonisms and the 'false needs' they create. The 'more' that thought strives for and that undermines the division of the disciplines is the 'more' of emancipation – something that does not yet exist. The 'more' is also the truth in which art and philosophy 'converge' (Adorno, *Aesthetic* 172). The truth that circulates in art, philosophy and politics is a becoming truth that can only be achieved through emancipation: 'The appearance of the nonexistent as if it existed motivates the question as to the truth of art. By its form alone art promises what is not; it registers objectively, however refractedly, the claim that because the nonexistent appears it must indeed be possible.' (109)

In order to remain faithful to this promise, thinking has to give up universalism as well as particularism, as both are subjected to the principle of identity, which necessarily has to be abolished according to Adorno. It is true that particularism can overcome the hegemony of universality, but it ends up in the identitarian fetishism of particular entities. Both positions thus have to be surpassed by 'negative dialectics', which can think what is un-identical about objects, and answer the 'call for binding statements without a system', a 'call for thought models', which makes negative dialectics 'an ensemble of analyses of models' (Adorno, *Negative* 29). Negative dialectics thinks objects in a broader context without subjecting them to a 'more general super-concept' (ibid.) What we have just inaccurately called 'broader context' is actually the object's participation in social antagonisms and at the same time its utopian dimension.

This kind of ontological-political unity of thought can also be found in Gilles Deleuze, for whom the main characteristic of being is its 'univocity': 'The univocity of Being signifies that being is Voice that it is said, and that it is said in one and the same "sense" of everything about which it is said.' (Deleuze, *The Logic* 179) Philosophy has to attain this ontological unity and establish a plane of thought that will enable the passing of concepts over different problem fields. In *A Thousand Plateaus*, for instance, we can find the conceptual double of molar and molecular, which originates in chemistry but is assigned a key role in thinking politics, psychoanalysis, linguistics, etc. Throughout the book, we can also find the geological notion of 'stratum', developed in the chapter on the 'geology of morals'. This

kind of linkage of different problem fields is made possible by the modern type of book, the 'rhizome-book', as opposed to the classical 'root-book'. The 'rhizome-book' is not centred around a subject or an object, but unobstructedly connects its various points. Hence, the question is no longer what the book is about or what does it mean, but how it functions and what it connects with: 'when one writes, the only question is which other machine the literary machine can be plugged into, must be plugged into in order to work' (Deleuze and Guattari, *A Thousand* 5).

To understand how this passing over of concepts is possible, we must turn to *The Logic of Sense*, in which Deleuze defines thinking by combining the figure of 'the ideal game' without proper rules as introduced in Carroll's *Alice in Wonderland* with Mallarmé's line 'All Thought emits a Throw of Dice':

The ideal game of which we speak cannot be played by either man or God. It can only be thought as nonsense. But precisely for this reason, it is the reality of thought itself and the unconscious of pure thought. [...] Each thought emits a distribution of singularities. All of these thoughts communicate in one long thought, causing all the forms or figures of the nomadic distribution to correspond to its own displacement, everywhere insinuating chance and ramifying thought (Deleuze, *The Logic* 60).

The concepts can pass over discipline borders because they exist on a level that precedes these borders. On the virtual plane there is only one thought that enables problems and concepts to be communicated. Strictly speaking, thought is not the universal common element that establishes the general unity of sense. The connecting element is rather the moment of 'nonsense' or of the 'unconscious of pure thought'. This kind of thinking is at the same time immediately political: 'This game, which can only exist in thought and which has no other result than the work of art, is also that by which thought and art are real and disturbing reality, morality and the economy of the world.' (Ibid.)

We should not overlook the fact that Deleuze – in contrast to Heidegger or Adorno – grants science the dignity of thought: in *What is Philosophy?* he and Guattari regard philosophy, art and science as the three disciplines of thought. Badiou (*Deleuze* 1) claims that Deleuze's use of scientific concepts (Badiou is speaking primarily of mathematics) is merely metaphorical. However, a kind of preemptive reply to this reproach can be found on those pages of *Difference and Repetition* that examine mathematics as an example of Deleuze's method of transporting concepts between different domains:

There is no metaphor here, except the metaphor consubstantial with the notion of Ideas, that of the dialectical transport or 'diaphora'. Herein lies the adventure

of Ideas. It is not mathematics which is applied to other domains but the dialectic which establishes for its problems, by virtue of their order and their conditions, the direct differential calculus corresponding or appropriate to the domain under consideration. (Deleuze, *Difference* 229)

Philosophy does not apply concepts of one domain to other domains, but rather establishes 'ideas' that can get their name and basic logical scheme from, say, a mathematical concept, yet actualise themselves independently inside a specific domain. Here, Deleuze distinguishes between two moments of the classical definition of metaphor: the *transfer* of meaning is distinguished from the *principle* of this transfer, namely the principle of resemblance or of analogy. Philosophical thinking, which strives to achieve the 'one long thought' beyond the division of the disciplines, is based on the transfer of ideas, but this transfer relies not on resemblance, but on the becoming of the idea that establishes itself 'immediately in each domain' (Deleuze, *Difference* 249).

From Ontological to Metaphorical Affinity

It seems that according to Deleuze, philosophy has a double role: on the one hand, it is one of the disciplines of thought, and on the other, it is the very 'in-between' of disciplines, the place of the becoming of pure thought, the manifestation of thought's unity. Thus, Deleuze can write about literature, film, mathematics, geology, biology, the classics of philosophy, capitalism, etc., and at the same time always about one and the same thing: through a metonymical slide of themes and problems he constitutes the consistency of a series of concepts that form his philosophy. Let us take a look at how Deleuze's procedure is described by Jacques Rancière and how the latter uses this description to delimit his own method:

In my opinion, Deleuze is one of those philosophers who tried to expand philosophy, to give it a constitutive role in what we consider its objects, so that it could enter into its own exteriority, or put it in its centre. He therefore provides an essential demarcation for my own intention, which is to make philosophy, on the contrary, exit from itself so that its procedures, propositions, arguments and descriptions can be included in the topography of a wider territory of inventions of thought, where philosophy can meet the sentences of writers, the montages of directors, but also linguistic and mental inventions introduced by those who do not count as thinkers. (Rancière, 'Politique' 174)

One could say that Deleuze's method is 'centripetal': philosophy can expand freely, it can talk about anything, but only in order to acquire new

concepts with which it could reaffirm its ontology. On the other hand, Rancière's method could be described as 'centrifugal': as taking philosophical theses away from philosophy in order to confront them with non-philosophical theses. According to Deleuze, all thought can be incorporated into philosophical thought, while according to Rancière, all thought, including philosophical thought, can be untied from the 'body' that produced it, that is, from the explicit intention, original context and capabilities that were supposed to authorise its carrier. Any thought can be confronted with any other thought – for Rancière, no less than this is demanded by the epistemological supposition of equality, which is already a form of epistemology's politics:

To be able to understand what is at stake in emancipation, the division of disciplines should be abolished. This epistemological demand is also a political one. To posit thought as something that denies the divisions between philosophical argumentation, historical explication and literary statements is also to define it as anyone's capability. Basically, there are two logics: the one that divides thought into reserved competences, into domains of specialists who fragment it with regard to differences that serve as a currency of a principle inequality, and the one that treats thought as an undividable capability, similar in all of its executions, that can be shared between anyone. I see philosophy first and foremost as the capability to declassify and redistribute the territories assigned to disciplines and competences. Philosophy claims that thought belongs to everyone. (167–168)

Rancière sees his task as a thinker in forming a discourse that would enable the preservation, and contribute to further verifications, of equality as a supposition. That is why he devoted himself to, in his own words, 'constituting a sphere of intelligibility for this egalitarian power' (Rancière, 'La Méthode' 515). This sphere not only functions in the field of politics, but also forms the meta-politics of other practices. For this purpose, Rancière undertakes research in various domains – politics of emancipation, pedagogy, aesthetics, historiography, and epistemology –, while putting on the same plane the texts of the classics of philosophy and literature, texts of contemporary sociologists and historians and also texts written by the proletarians of the nineteenth century who spent their nights engaging in 'cultural' activity rather than merely reproducing their labour power (see Rancière, *La nuit*).

Any discussion of philosophy's relation to its exteriority should also take into consideration Badiou's theory of conditions. Even though Badiou is famous for his reaffirmation of the further possibility of philosophy, we should note that at the same time he continues the work on the deconstruction of philosophy. In this manner, Badiou denies philosophy both the capability to think being and the capability to say the truth. For

him, being can only be thought by mathematics (that is, science), namely set theory, and the truths can only happen inside a limited number of practices: the practices of politics, art, science and love. What kind of task is then left to philosophy? Philosophy creates 'a general space' in which 'thought accedes [...] to *its* time' (Badiou, *Manifesto* 38). To think its own time is to think crucial events that set off procedures of truth that defined this time. Philosophy thus invents concepts with which it is possible to think the 'compossibility' (37) of contemporary truths, that is, to think truths as all being possible simultaneously. These truths are the 'conditions' of philosophical thinking. But since events only exist as something that has already disappeared, and since the existence of truth procedures is destined to uncertainty because of their polemic and interruptive character, philosophy gives them 'shelter' (ibid.) by affirming and announcing them. The task of philosophy is double: it has to produce a concept of truth that will be on the level of the truths of its time, and at once to affirm the existence of truths as such and therefore to negate the sophistic position according to which there is only the multitude of opinions.

At first sight it is not clear why Badiou places so much emphasis on thinking truths from different domains together and simultaneously. Yet there are at least two reasons for that. The first is Badiou's conviction that philosophy has to evade the 'suturing' with any of its conditions, for this would put to a stop 'the free play' necessary for 'intellectual circulation between the truth procedures' (Badiou, *Manifesto* 61). However, we should not confuse this 'free play' with the demand for the autonomy of *domains* in which truths are possible (in terms of Lyotard's language games), but see it rather as a *possibility of affinity* between truths in different domains. For example, it is not so much that art should be independent from politics, but rather that there is a possibility that an artistic truth and a political truth can 'converge'. Moreover, resistance to 'suturing' does not mean resistance to any kind of overdetermination by one of its conditions. The notion of condition itself implies overdetermination, since the aim of philosophy is to prevent any limitation of the effects of a particular truth on thinking.

With the presupposition of the possible affinity of truths, we have already discovered the second meaning of 'compossibility'. Still, it is unclear how it should be understood. In Badiou's earlier work, *Theory of the Subject*, we can find a broad 'thematic repertoire' consisting of political theory, logics and mathematics, historical circumstances, psychoanalysis, literature and theatre, god, classical philosophy ... All of these themes have to appear in the book so that it can achieve its goal of a renewed notion of dialectics centred around the category of the subject. For this purpose, it has to confront with one another various authors that have in

their own way contributed to the development of dialectics. Badiou's list of thinkers he takes into account is also very extensive and not limited to philosophers: Hegel, Hölderlin, Mallarmé, Lacan, Pascal, Rousseau, Marx, Engels, Lenin, Mao ... (Badiou, *Theory* xxxix–xl) Oliver Feltham designates the method of this book as 'dialectical braiding'. This metaphor does well to describe Badiou's method, which according to Feltham (130) is itself metaphorical as it attempts 'to prolong and extend the metaphorical substitutions already at work in Mallarmé's oeuvre by adding [Badiou's] own signifiers as further metaphors'. Philosophical signifiers signify the dialectical matrix developed by Mallarmé in a sonnet in order to confront this matrix with the dialectics developed, say, by a political organisation. Philosophical concepts may be products of pure thought, but their production is based on deriving implications of thought inventions in various domains such as politics, mathematics or poetry – they form a place where translatability between surpluses of thought is made possible.

This is the procedure Badiou maintains also in his later theory of conditions. Philosophy does not bind the truths together in a system, or simply list them – what it does can be better described with 'the metaphor [...] of the liberty of movement' (Badiou, *Manifesto* 38). It is because of this movement that mathematics can occur as ontology – the concepts of set theory only become ontological concepts after philosophy intervenes by stating: 'mathematics is ontology'. However, the circulation does not stop here. Thoughts on being can also be found, say, in a Mallarmé sonnet (Badiou, *Conditions* 49–67). Moreover, philosophy also record 'the political condition in conformity with the parameters of ontology' (Badiou, *Metapolitics* 72). This circulation is made possible by the 'metaphorical affinity' (Badiou, *Being* 95) that philosophy establishes between its own conditions. Finally, unlike Heidegger, Adorno or Deleuze, the philosophical circulation of concepts in Rancière and Badiou is no longer made possible by the 'univocity' of being – which is why the interconnection of these concepts is 'merely metaphorical', but in a new, affirmative sense.

Towards a new paradigm of systematicity

This overview established that even as philosophy parts from its traditional systematic image, it cannot completely make do without a certain form of universality of its concepts or of their validity throughout different fields of knowledge or practices. It is true that philosophical concepts can no longer be the place where thinking, initially rising from somewhere outside philosophy, achieves its completion. But when philosophy posi-

tions itself on the margins of a knowledge or a practice, it examines the wider consequences of a discovery or of an event that took place there. It examines the discoveries that are not only valid for the object of a certain knowledge, but that can also be ‘extended’ beyond the frontiers of that knowledge. The working space of philosophy is thus the middle ground of the passing over of concepts between different discourses. When philosophy refuses to form a system, it *no longer applies* its concepts to objects of a certain knowledge or practice, but *connects the implications* of particular discoveries and actions that it adopts as singular thought models. Yet to fulfil this task, philosophy has to affirm the connectivity and translatability between disciplines of thought, and therefore to forge a new paradigm of the universal reach of its own concepts.

This paradigm consists of three moments. The *first* would be the philosophical identification of a certain truth or an exceptional instance of thinking, within a particular domain, that could have wider consequences. On the basis of the implications of this thinking, philosophy invents concepts, which is the *second* moment, the moment of ‘pure’ thought. What follows is the *third* moment, namely the moment of explication: philosophy tries to use its concepts to explain a situation in another domain and find in it examples of thought, or of truth, that would be equivalent to those in the original domain. The three moments can be exemplified by the following scheme:

$$\text{thought}_x \rightarrow (\text{implication}) \rightarrow \text{philosophical concept} \rightarrow (\text{explication}) \rightarrow \text{thought}_y$$

However, it is important that a particular domain alternates between positions x and y , so that philosophy can both examine its implications and explicate philosophical concepts within it. Without this reciprocity a suturing, and hence a blockage, of philosophical circulation takes place.

It has to be noted, though, that the transfer of consequences of concepts onto other domains has to be distinguished from the popular notion of interdisciplinarity. The latter aims to supplement the discoveries from different disciplines with each discipline remaining within its own methodological boundaries and its own definition of its object. The results are therefore combined subsequently and do not have an interior relation to each other. And the process we have described can better be described as an intervention that can change the methodological paradigm of a discipline and the way it defines its object. Philosophy is essentially ‘interdisciplinary’ in a more radical sense: on the basis of a thought model the very coordinates of its thinking can change.

NOTES

The notion of 'the ideal of science' is borrowed from Jean-Claude Milner and his commentary on Freud's scientism (35).

² As regards Lacanian psychoanalysis we can quote Milner: 'As far as the analytical operation is concerned, science does not play the role of an ideal point which could as well be infinitely remote. Strictly speaking, science is not exterior; on the contrary, it structures the very matter of [psychoanalysis'] object.' (36)

³ 'Science, therefore, does not *think*, in *this* sense it cannot think with its methods. For example, I cannot say what physics is with the methods of physics. I can only think what physics is in the mode of philosophical questioning.' (Heidegger, *Martin* 42)

⁴ Several authors see the sense of philosophy precisely in a reflection on its own limits and hence on the limits of thinking in general. However, acknowledgment of a limit can easily turn into injunction: thinking is not merely limited, it *has* to be limited. In this manner, philosophy finds another possibility of its further existence – it becomes an ethical discourse, the discourse of the imperative of limitation. Ethics – especially in the negative form of preventing evil – functions as a set of rules aimed at reducing the power of radical thought: it criticises philosophy in its claim to universality, and science in its effects on the biological real; it warns against the crimes of 'totalitarian' regimes as the destiny of any radical politics; etc. The ethical discourse is symptomatic: it originates in a critique of the exterior position of systemic thinking while simultaneously renewing this exteriority by forcing itself upon certain practices as a set of normative limitations not grounded in these practices

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