

CHECKING AND THE ARGUMENT FROM INQUIRY

ABSTRACT

In his recent book, *Knowing and Checking*, Guido Melchior argues that, when we attempt to check whether p , we tend to think that we do not know p . Melchior then uses this assumption to explain a number of puzzles about knowledge. One outstanding question for Melchior's account, however, is why this tendency exists. After all, Melchior himself argues that checking is not necessary for knowing, so why would we think that we fail to know that p when we are in the midst of checking that p ? I will explore one such suggestion for why this occurs, arguing that the connection between checking and inquiry can shed light on the impact that checking has on knowing.

Keywords: Knowing, Checking, Inquiry

Word Count: 4,971 (including footnotes)

KNOWING AND CHECKING

1 In his recent book, *Knowing and Checking*, Guido Melchior sets out to explain
2 a number of puzzles about knowledge via an analysis of checking. According to
3 Melchior, we can give an account of checking using a sensitivity principle:

4 S checks whether p is true via method M only if:

- 5 (1) S uses M with the intention of determining whether p is true, and
- 6 (2) In the nearest possible worlds where p is false and where M is used
7 to determine whether p is true, M does not indicate that p is true.¹

8 There are a number of similarities between condition (2) and Robert Nozick's
9 sensitivity account of knowledge. According to Nozick, S knows that p only if
10 the following sensitivity principle holds:

11 If p were false and S were to use M to arrive at a belief whether (or not)
12 p , then S wouldn't believe, via M , that p .²

13 If we use the standard semantics for counterfactuals, then Nozick's sensitivity
14 condition is very similar to (2), as both instruct us to see how things are in the
15 nearest possible world where p is false. Melchior's principle is framed in terms
16 of the indications of a particular method, while Nozick's principle is described
17 in terms of what S believes, with the assumption that S is forming their belief
18 based on the indication of M .

19
20 Even though sensitivity has fallen into disrepute when it comes to knowledge,
21 Melchior defends the view that sensitivity can still be of use when it comes to
22 an account of checking. Take, for example, Ernest Sosa's trash chute case, an
23 example of insensitive knowledge:

Trash Chute

24
25 "On my way to the elevator I release a trash bag down the chute from my
26 high rise condo. Presumably I know my bag will soon be in the basement.
27 But what if, having been released, it still (incredibly) were not to arrive
28 there? That presumably would be because it had been snagged somehow
29 in the chute on the way down (an incredibly rare occurrence), or some
30 such happenstance. But none such could affect my predictive belief as I
31 release it, so I would still predict that the bag would soon arrive in the
32 basement. My belief seems not to be sensitive, therefore, but constitutes
33 knowledge anyhow, and can correctly be said to do so."³

34 This case seems to be an obvious counterexample to a sensitivity account of
35 knowledge. Were the bag to become snagged in the chute, our protagonist

¹See Melchior (2019), pp. 30-41. On page 30, Melchior simply leaves condition (2) as "M is an appropriate method with respect to p", explaining later that what it takes to be appropriate is to be a sensitive method, the condition (2) that I have supplied here.

²See Nozick (1981), p. 179.

³See Sosa (1999), pp. 145-146.

36 would continue to believe that it made it to the trash bin at the bottom, mak-
37 ing their belief insensitive. Nevertheless, it also seems like they know that the
38 trash made it all the way through the chute, showing that satisfying Nozick's
39 sensitivity principle is not necessary for knowledge.

40
41 Suppose, however, that we ask a slightly different question. Instead of wonder-
42 ing whether our protagonist knows that the trash made it to the bottom of the
43 chute, what if we asked instead whether they *checked* that the trash made it
44 to the bottom of the chute. In this case, the answer seems to be no. Beyond
45 throwing the bag in the garbage chute, they did nothing else to check whether or
46 not it had gotten snagged on the way down. On the other hand, if they had used
47 a sensitive method like going down to the basement and looking to see whether
48 their trash was in the bin, then it seems right to say that they checked whether
49 their garbage made it to the bottom of the chute. Melchior's explanation for
50 this difference is that "sensitivity is necessary for checking while it is plausibly
51 not necessary for knowing."⁴ It is possible that someone can know that their
52 trash has reached the bottom of the chute without also checking whether it has
53 because only checking requires using a sensitive method.

54
55 With his sensitivity account of checking in hand, Melchior then turns to con-
56 sider a number of knowledge paradoxes, explaining why they are puzzling by
57 appealing to slight differences between checking and knowing. One of the para-
58 doxes that Melchior attempts to explain is the skeptical paradox. Where *sh* is a
59 skeptical hypothesis, like that I am being deceived by an evil demon, Melchior
60 formulates the paradox as a conflict between three plausible claims:

61 **The Skeptical Paradox**

62 Claim 1: We have knowledge of the external world.

63 Claim 2: We do not know that the skeptical hypothesis, $\neg sh$, is false.

64 Claim 3: If we have knowledge of the external world, then we know that
65 $\neg sh$.⁵

66 Claim 1 seems obvious, that we know a great many things about the external
67 world. And if we have knowledge of the external world, then in keeping with
68 Claim 3, we know we are not being deceived by an evil demon. Claim 2, how-
69 ever, calls this knowledge into question. Skeptical hypotheses are formulated
70 such that our beliefs in their denials are insensitive, i.e. if the skeptical hy-
71 potheses were true, we would still believe that they are false. If there were no
72 physical, external world and I was being deceived by an evil demon, I would
73 continue to think that there was a physical external world.

74
75 If Claim 1 and 3 seem plausible, then why are we tempted by Claim 2? Why
76 do we think that we don't know that skeptical hypotheses are false? After all,

⁴See Melchior (2019), p. 3.

⁵Ibid, p. 215.

77 we just pointed out that knowledge doesn't require sensitivity. Why should
78 it make a difference if our external world beliefs are not sensitive? Melchior's
79 answer to this question is that, when we consider if we know whether a skeptical
80 hypothesis is false, we enter a checking context, a context that sends us looking
81 for a sensitive method:

82 **KSAC**

83 "In contexts of checking, when we raise the question whether p (or an
84 alternative q) is true and deliberate about methods for settling this ques-
85 tion, we tend to think that we do not know that p via strongly insensitive
86 methods."⁶

87 According to Melchior, when we raise the question whether a particular propo-
88 sition p is true, we tend to think that we need a checking method in order to
89 know whether p . This tendency then also applies when we consider skeptical
90 hypotheses, sending us looking for methods whereby we can check whether those
91 hypotheses are true or false. As we have discussed, though, in order to check
92 whether p is true, we must use a method that is sensitive to the truth of p , and
93 skeptical hypotheses are unique in that we have no methods that are sensitive
94 to their truth or falsity. Thus, since we cannot check whether a skeptical hy-
95 pothesis is true, we tend to think that Claim 2 is correct.

96
97 Melchior then applies this approach to a number of other knowledge paradoxes
98 as well. For instance, Melchior argues that **KSAC** can explain why knowledge
99 closure puzzles arise. Take Dretske's famous zebra case. S is looking at a zebra
100 at the zoo, but they cannot inspect the zebra closely. In such a case, each of
101 the following seems plausible:

- 102 (i) S knows that the animal in the pen is a zebra.
103 (ii) S does not know that the animal in the pen is not a painted mule.
104 (iii) S knows that, if the animal in the pen is a zebra, then it is not a
105 painted mule.⁷

106 Here we have another conflict that is structurally similar to **The Skeptical**
107 **Paradox**. Even though it seems plausible that (i) and (iii) are true, (ii) nev-
108 ertheless seems true as well, forming an inconsistent triad. This case differs,
109 though, from the **The Skeptical Paradox** in that there are methods for check-
110 ing whether the zebra is a painted mule. However, because the method that
111 S is currently using is not sensitive to whether the animal is a painted mule,
112 Melchior's explanation remains the same. When S considers whether the animal
113 could be a painted mule, they enter a checking context, but they have not yet
114 used a sensitive method to determine whether the animal is not a painted mule.
115 By **KSAC**, this creates a situation in which they think that they do not know
116 that the animal in the pen is a zebra.⁸

⁶Ibid, p. 142.

⁷This case, originally detailed by Dretske (1970), is adapted by Melchior (2019), p. 159.

⁸Melchior also uses **KSAC** to explain paradoxes involving stakes (p. 150) and bootstrap-

117 THE ARGUMENT FROM INQUIRY

118 One outstanding question for Melchior’s account is why, when we are in a check-
119 ing context, we think that we do not know. This is one of the central claims of
120 *Knowing and Checking* – without it, Melchior cannot explain why the sensitivity
121 of checking would have any consequences for knowledge. Surprisingly, Melchior
122 has very little to say about why **KSAC** is true. How could it be that, even
123 though sensitivity is not necessary for knowledge, “we think in these contexts
124 that knowing that p requires checking that p ?”⁹ In the rest of this paper, I will
125 explore some possibilities for why we believe we lack knowledge when we are
126 checking. Checking is a form of inquiry, and many have argued that knowing
127 and inquiring are incompatible, raising the possibility that **KSAC** can be sup-
128 ported by recent literature on the nature of inquiry.

129

130 According to Sextus Empiricus, there is something wrong with inquiring while
131 knowing. After all, don’t we inquire in order to know? If we already know that
132 p , what’s the point of inquiring further? Consider the following passage, which
133 Jan Wieland calls Sextus’ **Argument from Inquiry**:¹⁰

134 **The Argument from Inquiry**

135 “Dogmatists are precluded from inquiry. For inquiring about objects
136 and states of affairs is not inconsistent in those who agree that they do
137 not know how these things are in nature, but only in those who think
138 they have accurate knowledge of them, since for the latter the inquiry
139 has already reached its end, as they think, whereas for the former the
140 supposition on which every inquiry is based still holds – namely, that
141 they have not already found out the facts.” (*PH*, 2.11)

142 In this passage, Sextus argues that there is something inconsistent about in-
143 quiring while taking oneself to know. The goal of inquiry is knowledge, but if
144 someone thinks that they have already achieved this goal, as the dogmatists do,
145 then there is nothing left to inquire about.¹¹ Why inquire after you have already
146 discovered the facts?

147

148 Sextus’ thesis, that there is something inconsistent about inquiring while taking
149 oneself to know, is strengthened by the fact that it seems strange to both claim
150 knowledge that p while continuing to inquire whether p . Take, for example, the
151 oddity of (1) through (3), all statements that claim knowledge in the midst of

ping (p. 193). Because these solutions are all similar in spirit to Melchior’s explanation of the skeptical paradox, my points in the rest of this paper can be applied to these other paradoxes as well.

⁹See Melchior (2019), p. 145.

¹⁰See Wieland (2014).

¹¹Those who argue that knowledge is the aim of inquiry include Hannon (2019); Kappel (2010); Kelp (2011), (2014), (2021a), (2021b); Kvanvig (2009); Millar (2011); Rysiew (2012); Sartwell (1991) and (1992); Whitcomb (2017); and van Elswyk and Sapir (2021), amongst others.

152 ongoing inquiry:¹²

153 (1) #I know that the patient has cancer, but I will investigate whether
154 he has cancer

155 (2) #I know that it is raining, but I must learn whether it is raining

156 (3) #I know that we turn left here, but let me look at the map to see if
157 we turn left here

158 All of (1)-(3) seem strange, if not downright contradictory, reinforcing Sextus'
159 point that there is something incompatible between knowing and continuing to
160 inquire. This tension is only heightened by similar judgments about knowledge
161 and the interrogative attitudes. Inquiring is often accompanied by interroga-
162 tive attitudes like wondering whether p , deliberating whether p , contemplating
163 whether p , or being curious whether p .¹³ However, adopting an interrogative
164 attitude towards p while taking oneself to know p can be just as puzzling as
165 (1)-(3):

166 (4) #I know that the door is locked, but I wonder whether the door is
167 locked

168 (5) #I know that the stove is off, but I'm curious: Is the stove off?

169 (6) #Yes, I know that $12 + 14 = 26$, but I'm contemplating: Does $12 +$
170 $14 = 26$?

171 With (4)-(6), we see that it is strange to both claim to know that p and still
172 have an interrogative attitude towards p , deepening the conflict between inquir-
173 ing and knowing. If the interrogative attitudes typically accompany inquiry, but
174 those same attitudes seem incompatible with knowledge, then perhaps inquiry
175 itself is incompatible with knowledge.

176
177 One theory that hopes to explain why statements like (1)-(3) and (4)-(6) seem
178 strange is that there is a normative conflict between knowing and continuing to
179 inquire:

180 **Ignorance Norm**

181 If one knows that p , then one ought not inquire into p ¹⁴

182 According to the **Ignorance Norm**, a person should stop investigating into
183 p once they know that p . This is closely linked to the goal of inquiry. If the
184 goal of inquiry is to come to know, then what sense does it make to continue
185 inquiring once you have already achieved that goal? Similar norms have been
186 advocated for the interrogative attitudes. Jane Friedman, for example, thinks

¹²Those who point out the tension between knowing and continuing to inquire include Armour (2011), p. 673; Fantl (2018), p. 142; Fantl and McGrath (2012) and (2014); Friedman (2013), (2017), (2019a), (2019b); and van Elswyk and Sapir (2021).

¹³See Friedman (2013), (2017), (2019a), (2019b).

¹⁴For authors who defend versions of the **Ignorance Norm**, see Friedman (2017) and (2019b), van Elswyk and Sapir (2021), and Whitcomb (2017), amongst others.

187 that “one ought not inquire into/have an interrogative attitude towards [a ques-
 188 tion] at t and believe [an answer to that question],”¹⁵ holding that someone
 189 should not both know p while taking up an interrogative stance towards the
 190 question whether p .

191
 192 The **Ignorance Norm** is not the only route to explaining the apparent conflict
 193 between knowing and inquiring. One might hold that there is an even deeper,
 194 metaphysical conflict between knowledge and inquiry, or that there is some kind
 195 of normative or metaphysical tension between believing and inquiring. The full
 196 range of options is pictured in Figure 1:

	Knowledge	Belief
Normative	I	III
Metaphysical	II	IV

197

Figure 1: Conflicts with Inquiry

198 Quadrant (I) represents the **Ignorance Norm**. Along with the **Ignorance**
 199 **Norm**, there might be a metaphysical conflict between knowledge and inquiry
 200 (II), a normative conflict between belief and inquiry (III), or a metaphysical
 201 conflict between belief and inquiry (IV).

202

203 These positions are not meant to be mutually exclusive, as all have the poten-
 204 tial to explain the apparent tension between knowledge and inquiry. Positions
 205 (I) and (II) do that fairly straightforwardly, maintaining that there is either
 206 a normative or metaphysical inconsistency between knowing and continuing to
 207 inquire. Because belief is necessary for knowledge, positions (III) and (IV)
 208 can also explain the clash between knowing that p and continuing to inquire
 209 whether p . If it is not metaphysically possible or normatively permissible to
 210 both believe and inquire, then this will also create a metaphysical or normative
 211 conflict between knowing and inquiring. All of these views find defenders in
 212 the literature on inquiry. Millson (2020) defends (III), while Kelp (2021a), p.
 213 53, and (2021b), p. 368, and McGrath (2021), n. 37, advocate for (IV). Fried-
 214 man (2017), (2019a), and (2019b) discusses both (III) and (IV), holding that
 215 inquiring whether p requires suspending on p (a version of III), but then going
 216 on to argue that believing p and simultaneously suspending on p is irrational

¹⁵See Friedman (2019b), p. 303.

217 (a position falling in quadrant IV). Armour-Garb (2011) defends (II), and van
218 Elswyk and Sapir (2021) argue for (I) over (III), contending the knowledge is
219 the weakest epistemic state incompatible with inquiry.

220

221 What does all of this have to do with checking? The first thing to note is that
222 checking is a paradigmatic form of inquiry. In the evolving literature on inquiry,
223 checking is regularly discussed, and a number of authors apply the **Ignorance**
224 **Norm** to checking, arguing that inquirers should never check if they already
225 know.¹⁶ Not only is checking often treated as a form of inquiry, but like with (1)-
226 (3), we can also use checking to create assertions that are borderline paradoxical:

227 (7) #I know that the patient has cancer, but I will check whether he has
228 cancer

229 (8) #I know that it is raining, but I'm going to check whether it is raining

230 (9) #I know that we turn left here, but let me check whether we turn left
231 here

232 As with (1)-(3), (7)-(9) seem strange, if not outright contradictory. Why check
233 if it's raining if you already know that it is? Like with inquiry more generally, a
234 ready explanation is that the goal of checking is to know. Thus, once someone
235 thinks that they know that p , there is no further point to checking that p .

236

237 If checking is a form of inquiring, then positions (I)-(IV) apply to checking as
238 well. One either shouldn't check if they already know (on views I and III), or
239 it is impossible to check if one already knows (on II and IV). This also supplies
240 us with an explanation for why **KSAC** is true. If checking whether p is either
241 normatively or metaphysically in conflict with knowing that p , then it makes
242 sense that we think we do not know when we enter a checking context. If the
243 normative view is correct, then to the extent that it seems like we should check
244 that p , this will also suggest that we do not actually know that p , for if we
245 knew that p then this would generate the sense that we need not check. If
246 the metaphysical view is correct, then to the extent that our checking seems
247 authentic, then this would suggest that we do not know that p , as it would
248 not be possible to actually check while knowing. Thus, if checking is a form
249 of inquiry and there is a conflict between knowing and inquiring, then we can
250 explain why **KSAC** is true.

251 ARE KNOWING AND INQUIRING REALLY INCONSISTENT?

252 A potential worry for our explanation of the connection between knowing and
253 checking is that the **Ignorance Norm** might be too strict. Isn't it permissible
254 to inquire once someone already knows? After all, there might be other goals
255 associated with inquiry besides knowing. Even if I already know that p , I might

¹⁶See Armour-Garb (2011), p. 670; Hawthorne and Stanley (2008), p. 587; Friedman (2017), p. 131; and Friedman (2019a), p. 86.

256 want to confirm that p , verify that p , double check that p , make sure that p , or
257 corroborate that p .¹⁷ Falbo (Forthcoming) and Woodard (2022) make the case
258 that inquiry aims, not just at knowledge, but at epistemic improvement more
259 generally.

260
261 When we make it clear that we are seeking further epistemic goods other than
262 knowledge, then it does not seem inconsistent to take oneself to know and con-
263 tinue to inquire, as it did with (1)-(3) and (7)-(9). Take, for example, the
264 following examples of inquiring while knowing:

265 (10) I know that I locked the car, but I'm double checking just to be
266 certain

267 (11) I know that the defendant was at the hotel on the night in question,
268 but I want to check the security cameras to confirm

269 (12) I know that we turn left to get to the hospital, but let me look at
270 the map to make sure

271 In (10)-(12), we can see that it does not always sound paradoxical to both take
272 oneself to know and continue to inquire.¹⁸ If I want to become more confident
273 that p , gain further justification for believing that p , or become certain that p ,
274 then it seems permissible to continue to inquire whether p even after one knows
275 that p .

276
277 If knowing and inquiring are compatible, this might make trouble for Melchior's
278 proposed **KSAC** principle. After all, if further inquiry and knowledge are per-
279 fectly consistent, then an activity like checking that p might also be compatible
280 with knowing that p , leaving us once again without an explanation for why those
281 who check whether p might think that they do not know that p . In response to
282 this potential concern, it is important to point out that we are not necessarily
283 trying to explain why checking is, in fact, incompatible with knowing. Instead,
284 our task is to explain why we often have the *intuition* that checking is incom-
285 patible with knowing. **KSAC** does not say that knowing and checking cannot
286 coexist, but rather says that we have the tendency to think they cannot. One
287 potential explanation, of course, for this intuition is something like the **Ignorance**
288 **Norm**, but even if the **Ignorance Norm** is false, we can still give other
289 plausible explanations for this intuition.

290
291 Another possible explanation of the oddity of (1)-(3) and (7)-(9) is that knowl-
292 edge is the most commonplace goal of inquiry. Typically, knowing the answer is
293 enough to settle the questions we are interested in, and, of the many things that

¹⁷Against the **Ignorance Norm**, Falbo (2021) argues that confirming that p is compatible with knowing that p , Woodard (Forthcoming) defends the rationality of double checking while knowing, and Beddor (manuscript) points out that inquiry can be aimed at becoming certain that p .

¹⁸For those who defend cases like these, see Falbo (Forthcoming) and Woodard (2022) and (Forthcoming).

294 we know, there are very few that we need to confirm or double check. If most
295 inquiries halt at knowledge, though, then it may be surprising when a select few
296 inquiries proceed past that point, surprising enough to make statements like
297 (1)-(3) and (7)-(9) hard to make sense of without further information. When
298 we are given that further information though, like in (10)-(12), then we can see
299 that (1)-(3) and (7)-(9) need not be contradictory after all, leaving room for the
300 further goals of inquiry.¹⁹ This solution explains why (1)-(3) and (7)-(9) are
301 puzzling without also being committed to the **Ignorance Norm**.

302
303 If the above explanation is correct, that (1) through (3) sound inconsistent
304 because knowledge is the most common goal of inquiry, then we can also use
305 this to explain **KSAC**. The reason that we have the tendency to think we do
306 not know when we are checking is because knowledge is the most common aim
307 of inquiry. Any situation where we feel that it is warranted to check whether p
308 is therefore one where we doubt whether we know that p . This solution means
309 that the intuitions associated with **KSAC** can be misleading, but Melchior is
310 open to the possibility that these intuitions are false, saying that “**KSAC** is a
311 claim about our knowledge intuitions, not about whether these intuitions are
312 true.”²⁰ This opens up the possibility that a person could know that a skeptical
313 hypothesis is false but still not think that they know because they are unable
314 to check whether that hypothesis is false.

315 CONCLUSION

316 *Knowing and Checking* explores several important issues, providing an account
317 of checking, charting the connections between checking and knowing, and further
318 investigating the role of sensitivity within epistemology. In this paper, I have
319 attempted to survey some of the deeper reasons why knowing and checking
320 might be connected through principles like **KSAC**, bringing recent work on
321 inquiry to bear on Melchior’s groundbreaking work on checking. I am interested
322 to hear what Melchior thinks of these possible strategies for developing his view,
323 and how he sees his work interacting with discussions of inquiry more generally.

¹⁹For this suggestion, that the infelicity of (1)-(3) can be explained by the fact that knowledge is the most common aim of inquiry, see Woodard (Forthcoming).

²⁰See Melchior (2019), p. 144.

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