

IX Responses to the Frege-Geach Worry

Recall from last week the problem. This argument (a slightly modified version of Geach's one) looks valid:

- PI Tormenting the cat is bad.
- P2 If tormenting the cat is bad, getting your little brother to torment the cat is bad.
- C Getting your little brother to torment the cat is bad.

Yet P2 doesn't look to express a moral claim about the wrongness of tormenting the cat. After all, you might think that

If blowing your nose is bad, getting your little brother to blow his nose is bad

is also true, even though you think it is fine to blow your nose. P2 is a conditional. However, if the argument is valid, the antecedent of P2 had better have the same meaning as PI, and the consequent the same meaning as C. But how can expressions of approval be part of a conditional?

I Attitudes to attitudes

A first response — or rather set of responses, since he refined the details several times — came from Simon Blackburn. His basic thought was that the conditional P2 could be seen as an evaluative attitude towards other attitudes: one disapproves of: disapproving of tormenting the cat in general, while not disapproving of it when done by one's little brother. And then the argument gets a kind of informal validity:

Anyone holding this pair [expressed by PI and P2] must hold the consequential disapproval: he is committed to disapproving of getting little brother to [torment the cat], for if he does not his attitudes clash. He has a fractured sensibility which cannot itself be an object of approval. (Blackburn *Spreading the Word*, 195)

This is perhaps plausible in this case: P2 does look like a moral claim itself. But how general is the approach? Can it be extended to other embedded sentences?

It's unclear whether it even extends to sentences under negation. We saw last week that that poses problems for the expressivist. Consider again:

(1) Eating meat is not wrong

If we want to understand this as involving higher order attitudes, then a plausible candidate is that of disapproving of disapproving of eating meat. Does that give us what we want? After all, (1) should presumably be inconsistent with

(2) Eating meat is wrong

But can't I disapprove of something as in (2), and also disapprove of my own disapproval as in (1)? That might show a certain degree of self-loathing, but it doesn't seem incoherent: I might, for instance, think that I am in general much too ready to disapprove of things; it is a fault in myself, of which I heartily disapprove. (Compare Frankfurt on higher-order desires.) So (1) and (2) aren't obviously inconsistent.

This raises the broader problem of whether the requirement of avoiding a ‘fractured sensibility’ is really enough to underpin the validity of arguments containing moral terms. There is much discussion of what is wrong with what has come to be known as Moore’s paradox:

(3) It is raining but I don’t believe that it is.

But almost everyone agrees that while that sentence is somehow self-defeating, it is not contradictory. After all, the third person version will frequently be true:

(4) It is raining but Imelda doesn’t believe that it is.

Valid arguments are typically understood as those whose premises are inconsistent with the negations of their premises. But the kind of inconsistency that Blackburn’s approach imputes here is more like the inconsistency involved in Moore’s paradox, and that isn’t really inconsistency at all. So the corresponding notion of validity isn’t really validity.

2. Hybrid Theories

To get a grip on this approach, start by considering slurs. Philosophers are understandably a bit sensitive about using active ones, so often the focus is on something obsolete, like ‘boche’, a French/English WWI derogatory term for a German. If someone had said, in 1916:

(5) Frege is a confounded boche; I’m not reading his work any more

then presumably they would have said something descriptive by the first part of that sentence (Frege is German), but they would also have expressed their attitude (contempt or whatever) towards him. Perhaps moral terms could be like that, combining both (i) a descriptive element, that explains how they function in deductive arguments etc., and so avoiding the Frege-Geach objection; and (ii) an expressive element that explains the motivational internalism. It might seem that this is bolstered by a hybrid approach to the mental states that moral sentences express, one that combines cognitive and affective elements.

However, getting the details right has proved difficult, and there are many competing approaches.

A first question is: What is the descriptive content meant to be? In the case of the first half of (5) it is straightforward: it is that Frege is a German. But in the case of

(2) Eating meat is wrong

it is not so obvious what it is. Some have suggested that a better parallel is with derogatory terms like ‘jerk’, which are less obviously descriptive. But even that does seem to have some descriptive content about how the person acts, and, in consequence, it is not clear that it is bound to be derogatory:

(6) He’s a jerk, but actually I quite like jerks.

Perhaps this provides a good model for ‘thick’ ethical terms like ‘brave’, ‘loyal’ etc.; but we are still looking for a model for the thin ones like ‘good’, ‘bad’, ‘right’, ‘wrong’, ‘permissible’.

A second issue concerns whether we should think of the expressive aspect of moral terms as providing a component of the meaning in the way that the hybrid theory claims. If someone

speaks with a certain class or regional accent they give away information about themselves (hard to avoid in the UK). But presumably we don't want to think that that information is part of the meaning of what they say. Likewise, if I write about a car bonnet in the US, rather than a hood, I give away the information that I'm not American. But again that information is not part of the meaning of what I say. Presumably what is special about moral terms is that the expressive meaning is conventionally associated with it (recall Stevenson). But might it not be a conventional implicature rather than part of the content?

A third issue concerns the link between the descriptive content and the emotive. Presumably they are not simply conjoined: it is not that it is good, *and* I'm moved. The descriptive content meant to be the reason that people are moved.

None of these are obviously unanswerable concerns, but there is currently not much agreement from proponents of this approach on how to respond to them.

3. Systematic new contents

The main figure here is Gibbard. Unlike Blackburn's higher order account, Gibbard's account is completely general: it can accommodate *any* expressive sentence. It works by using exactly the same machinery that is standardly used to handle belief ascriptions to handle non-cognitive attitudes. And because of this, it can handle not just sentences that combine two non-cognitive attitudes (the kind that featured in our original formulation of the Frege-Geach problem) but also contents that combine non-cognitive attitudes and attitudes of belief (e.g. 'If he's in trouble you should help him'), or indeed any other attitude provided it has the right kind of content (we'll see what this restriction means at the end).

To see how it works, we start with one of the standard ways of representing belief. The contents of beliefs can be thought of as sets of possible worlds: the belief that *p* is the set of worlds in which *p* is true. Equivalently, it is the set of worlds that you arrive at when all the worlds in which *p* is not true are excluded. Adding further beliefs can then be thought of as the exclusion of further worlds. So if I believe that *p* and I believe that *q*, my belief state is represented by the class of worlds that remains when I exclude all of the worlds in which *p* is false, and all of the worlds in which *q* is false. An agent's total belief state can then be thought of as the set of worlds that is left when this process is done with all of their beliefs; equivalently, it is the set of worlds that are compatible with all of their beliefs. Call these the agent's *belief worlds*.

This approach gives a clear account of the sentential connectives, and also explains why the classical argument forms are valid. So, for instance, an agent believes If *p* then *q*, just in case every *p*-world amongst their belief worlds is also a *q*-world; and modus ponens is valid for belief given this. Parallel moves work for the other sentential connectives. (The account isn't without its critics: if *p* and *q* are true in the same set of worlds—for instance, any two necessary truths—then they seem to have the same content on this approach. A great deal of work has gone into softening the threat of this, but we won't pursue that here.)

Fundamental to Gibbard's approach is the realization that exactly the same machinery can be used to describe attitudes other than belief. Suppose that you accept a set of norms, such as the norm against lying. And suppose, in a standard expressivist way, you think that moral sentences express those norms, so that the sentence 'lying is wrong' expresses the norm against lying, but makes no assertion. Then, even though the attitudes expressed here are non-cognitivist ones, for each norm we can *divide the worlds into those that the agent takes to conform to that norm, and those that do not*. So, for instance, we can divide the worlds into those in which no one lies, thereby conforming to the lying norm, and those in which someone does. And then, just as with beliefs, we can further restrict the class of worlds to those that conform to all of the agent's norms.

Because we are treating norms in the same way that we treated beliefs — as a way of partitioning worlds — we can understand operations on them in just the same way. So take the conditional ‘If lying is wrong, then encouraging others to lie is also wrong’. That sentence is true for the agent just in case the worlds that they take to conform to the norm expressed by the sentence ‘lying is wrong’, are also worlds that they take to conform to the norm expressed by the sentence ‘encouraging others to lie is wrong’. (It is, of course, debatable whether that is true—some might understand those norms as having nothing to do with each other.) So, even though the atomic, norm-expressing sentences get a non-cognitive content, the conditional in which they occur does not. And we can see that modus ponens is valid for it. If the speaker endorses the norm expressed in the antecedent, and on their understanding of the norms, the conditional is true, then they will endorse the norm expressed by the consequent.

Moreover, we can make sense of conditionals combining sentences that express beliefs and sentences that express norms. Take the norm expressed by the sentence ‘You should help people who need it’. A natural (though not uncontroversial) reading of this is as a conditional, with a descriptive antecedent and a norm expressing consequent: ‘If someone needs help, you should help them’. On the account we are considering, this will be true given your norms when applied to some individual, A, just in case all of your belief worlds in which A needs help are worlds in which you would embrace the norm ‘I should help A’, i.e. worlds that would only conform to that norm if you did help A. And so again such a mixed conditional validates modus ponens.

The approach described here is very general. In the characterization I have given, following Gibbard’s early work, we have seen how it can combine belief expressing sentences with *norm* expressing sentences. In later work Gibbard focuses on sentences that express *plans*. There is no obvious end to the different attitudes that could be accommodated. All they need is to have a structure that enables us to partition the worlds in accordance with whether they do or do not conform to them; to that extent they have a broadly representational content. Not all sentences have this content. Dreier supposes that instead of greeting Bob with a simple ‘Hi’, we might say, in greeting, ‘Bob is hiyo’. Grammatically that move is easy enough to make, but in making we haven’t arrived at a sentence with which the world either does or doesn’t conform; so it will make no sense to put it into a conditional.