

ON WHETHER THERE IS A RULE-UTILITARIANISM THAT IS NOT OBVIOUSLY UNTENABLE AND CANNOT BE COEXTENSIVE WITH ACT-UTILITARIANISM

Ken Lambert Spring, 1980 The purpose of this paper is to determine whether there can be a kind of rule-utilitarianism that is neither coextensive with act-utilitarianism nor obviously untenable as a moral theory. I shall focus specifically on the critical responses of McCloskey, Diggs, and Brandt to the attempts of Urmson and Rawls to propound a rule-utilitarian theory that meets these requirements (with the caveat that Rawls, like some of the respondents, only develops some elements that are useful to the theory without embracing the rule-utilitarian view humself).

Urmson, citing various texts of Mill, attempts both to show that the theory advocated by Smart and others is based on a misunderstanding of utilitarian theory and practice and to develop an alternative interpretation that overcomes the deficiencies in the act-utilitarian view. According to the latter view, any particular action can be judged to be right or wrong by somehow determining whether its overall consequences will promote or harm the general welfare. While "rules of thumb" can be employed in order to save time in judging which action would be right in most cases, the general principle of utility can always be appealed to as the standard of evaluation whenever the rightness of any particular action is in doubt. To deny the appeal to the general principle in any particular case of doubt would constitute

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an instance of "rule-worship," in which the action is judged to be "right" according to some received moral rule even though the same action might not meet the requirements of the principle of utility. Even the funct with critics of rule-utilitarianism agree with Urmson and Rawls that a thoroughgoing act-utilitarianism both can justify particular actions or knilds of action that are morally counterintuitive, such as killing and various kinds of "telishment," and rests on a misunderstanding of the function of rules.

Urmson and Rawls argue that the rightness or wrongness of a particular action can be determined only by whether it agrees or conflicts with a particular moral rule or a system of rules defining a type of action, a practice, or an institution. The rule or system of rules can in turn be evaluated by dtermining whether its adoption actually does or would possibly promote the general welfare. On this view, the rule or practice defining particular actions has a utilitarian value beyond that of the time that the "rule of thumb" saves the agent. By specifying particular actions as falling under certain practices and systems of rules, and by denying to the agent the appeal to the general principle of utility in deciding what to do in any

particular case, the rule-utilitarian hopes to achieve maximal coordination of the actions and expectations of all of the agents. In addition, the appeal to the principle of utility for moral evaluation on the level of rules and practices guards against the formation or continuation of such morally counterintuitive practices as killing or "telishment." The charge of "rule-worship" can be avoided if the appropriate exceptions to a practice are also defined in its system of rules, if the agent recognizes that the real utility of following a rule outweighs any apparent disutility of performing the particular action it obligates, and if he realizes that the rules themselves can always be modified if the practices they define tend to harm the general welfare.

McCloskey's objections to rule-utilitarianism refer to its tendency to lapse into rule-worship or moral conventionalism, to its tendency to lapse into act-utilitarianism in order to avoid the pitfalls of conventionalism, and to its alleged capability of serving as a theory covering all moral obligations.

Part of the value of the rules of rule-utilitarianism is that they obligate everyone to perform or refrain from performing certain actions. The rule enjoins or restrains simply by "being the rule" or by being backed up by certain penal sanctions, and not by virtue of being the

1) a linguistic point: 'enjoin' is an illocationary verb; a rule enjoins just in virtue of being a rule, not in virtue of sanctions; 'restrain' is perfocutionary. If a rule vertrains, the may indeed be in virtue of some sont of

Fullette not: items 1 + 2 are (almost) by defin Saulte, 3 is not (it's an allegal vitue.) Awhward to conjoin them thus. 7? Mho is promoting anything? And do you men in this sense? The sense of what word or phrase? And to usefulness - where does it come in, given that this?

best rule or because following it promotes the general welfare. But if one can promote the usefulness of rules in this sense, one is also forced to conclude that an action is right (wrong) simply because it agrees (conflicts) with rules defining an established practice, and so one has landed in a moral conventionalism or condition of rule-worship incompatible with the reforming spirit of utilitarianism. This reforming spirit can be revived only if the rule-utilitarian replies that the rules that really obligate us are those which, if they were in practice, would commend themselves to us on utilitarian grounds, and that our following these "ideal" rules will eventually lead to their displacement of the bad "actual" rules. 1 McCloskey seems to reject the appeal to "ideal" rules as irrelevant to established practices, but Diggs and Brandt treat the ideal-actual distinction as a major issue for rule-utilitarianism.

The problem of rule-utilitarianism becoming coextensive with act-utilitarianism arises in two respects for McCloskey. First, in order to avoid the charge of "rule-worship," the rule-utilitarian is driven to admit particular exceptions to the rules within the various practices and institutions. If the number of exceptions becomes large enough, little will be left of the binding force of the original rules, and the cat will soon be out

of the bag: the agent will want to decide in every case according to the ultimate principle of utility. Secondly, in cases in which there is a conflict of duties or practices involving a particular action, one must decide by grading the practices according to a hierarchy of importance, if one is to preserve their force. But it seems silly, for example, always to prefer the practice of promising to that of truth-telling. Alternatively, however, one is forced to appeal to the ultimate principle of utility in order to judge in the particular case, so that the possibility of the act-utilitarian cat being let out of the bag is as great for cases of conflicting duties as it is for cases of exceptions to them.

For McCloskey, rule-utilitarianism is caught between
the horns of a dilemma: in order to avoid the charge of
"rule-worship," rule-utilitarianism is forced in critical
cases to become coextensive with act-utilitarianism; and
in order to avoid being reduced to act-utilitarianism,
rule-utilitarianism must treat rules in a way that opens
it to the charge of "rule-worship" or moral conventionalism
in the first place. One further aspect of the theory poses auch
problems for its tenability for McCloskey. Since duties
referring to truth-telling, promising, stealing, and
punishment seem to be based on practices, rule-utilitarianism
might be able to account for them adequately as a moral

theory. However, other duties, such as those of developing one's talents, treating others as ends, and not killing, are morally obligatory independently of the sanctions of institutional rules (are recognized intuitively as duties to which one is bound by one's conscience), and apply to actions that are logically prior to general practices. The inevitable options for rule-utilitarianism for McCloskey are thus as follows: a position coextensive with that of act-utilitarianism, a position liable to the charge of "rule-worship," and a position irrelevant to many moral obligations.

Diggs amplifies the value and the liability of the kind of rules that can serve as the rules for rule—utilitarianism. He distinguishes three kinds of rules that define three different kinds of practice. 1. The broadly instrumental rules or "practical maxims" refer to any particular relation of means and ends, such as "if you want to get the nail into the wall, use a hammer." This kind of rule can be learned as one goes along, and can be modified and improved according to the agent's conception of the "best rule." 2. The rules of a job are "legislated" to the agent, and he is obligated to follow them as part of the practice they define. They tend to be held "in force" by external sanctions or

rewards or penalties, and to serve the goal of a "boss" or employer extrinsic to the immediate interest of the agent. This is the kind of rule that in Digg's view is capable of binding agents to certain kinds of action in the rule-utilitarian theory. 3. The rules of a game are adopted by agents whose practice is an end in itself and not a means to some extrinsic goal. This kind of rule can serve as the rule of "bosses," who follow them simply so that the game which they enjoy can go on. In addition, certain subsets of rules of this kind of rule, by defining various styles or manners in which games can be played, provide analogies for certain moral rules independently of rule-utilitarian theory. This kind of moral rule adds a quality to a practice engaged in for its own sake, rather than performing the "police function" of binding the agent to a practice that serves a goal extrinsic to the practice itself (as does rule #2 or the rule-utilitarian rule).3

Digg's objection to rule-utilitarianism, aside from the fact that it cannot account for moral rules of the kind resembling subset rule #3, is that the theory cannot have both "rules" and "utility" at the same time. A moral rule binds or obligates only by being an "actual" rule or the "rule in force," not by being the best rule or the rule srving the general welfare. The rule that

Seeme to me you are overlanding a 3d allowald that the agent is obliged to Lambert - 8 follow is manually binds may happen to be the best rule also, but the properties of bindingness and utility are independent, and must be so of rule-utilitarianism is not to be reduced to act-utilitarianism. For if the agent is obligated to follow a rule only if it maximizes utility in a particular case, then the rule is a "practical maxim" or rule of type #1, and the agent has adopted the standpoint of act-utilitarianism.

Brandt agrees with Diggs and McCloskey that the rules of rule-utilitarianism, in the sense of actual rules defining established practices, can lead to a moral conventionalism. Howver, for Brandt, the "rules in force" of rule-utilitarian theory need not always be the actual rules of a practice, nor need they define a practice or an institution. Brandt gives a positive twist to two insights that have negative import for rule-utilitarianism for McCloskey: that ideal rules, rather than the actual rules, are what would be the best rules if followed in any practice or instaltution; and that certain moral rules can be binding even if they define no practices or institutions at all. Brandt tries to incorporate the tenable aspects of rule-utilitarianism into an "Ideal Moral Code" theory, that can avoid the problem of a conventionalism of actual rules, and preclude the necessity of reducing rule-utilitarianism to actutilitarianism in critical cases.

In resolving the problem of the conventionalism of actual rules for rule-utilitarian theory, Brandt revives the revolutionary or at least reformist character of the utilitarian spirit (apparently possible only for actutilitarians in the views of McCloskey and Diggs). If the actual rules do not seem to promote the general welfare as well as some ideal rules would, then the former are not necessarily obligatory:

the Ideal Moral Code theory has the advantage of implying that the moral rules recognized in a given society are not necessarily morally binding. They are binding only in so far as they maximize welfare, as contrasted with other possible moral rules.

It seems that Brandt aims at reintegrating that which Diggs regards as functionally split: the elements of rule and utility in rule-utilitarianism. But can Brandt accomplish this synthesis of functions without reducing rule-utilitarianism to act-utilitarianism? He thinks that one can, if one maintains the reference of rules to actual practices even as one changes or reforms the actual rules in light of the ideal rules:

an institutional system forms the setting within which the best (utility-maximizing) moral code is to be applied, and one's obligation is to follow the best moral rules in that setting - not to do what the best moral rules would rquire

for some other, more ideal setting.6

In the critical cases in which there are conflicts of duties or in which particular actions cannot be evaluated by referring them to general practices or institutions under which they fall, the rule-utilitarian need not transform himself into an act-utilitarian by applying the general principle of utility in the particular case. He can simply opt for the intuitive recognition of an action as either morally enjoined, prohibited, or permitted, and the internal sanction of his own conscience can substitute in these cases for the binding force of the external sanction otherwise provided by practices or institutions.

I think that the Ideal Moral Code theory of Brandt yields a rule-utilitarianism of a not obviously untenable, if somewhat modified, form. The ideal rules of the Code allow the rule-utilitarian to keep to the high road of institutional reform, without becoming mired in the bogs of conventionalist stagnation or engulfed in the act-utilitarian otherthrow of all institutions. The Code also permits one to recognize certain actions as morally obligatory independently of either established practices or utilitarian consequences. Wether the rule-utilitarian can concede this occasionally independent evaluative function to the Code, in exchange for its assistance in

areas that really matter to him, is a difficult question to answer. It seems, in any case, that Brandt's formulation of rule-utilitarianism aims at this concession as a way of yielding a tenable theory without reducing it to act-utilitarianism.

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Notes

- 1. McCloskey, H.J., "An Examination of Restricted Utilitarianism," in Gorovitz, Samuel, ed., Mill: Utilitaratinism. Indianapolis: The Bobbs-Merrill Company, Inc., 1971, pp. 211-12.
 - 2. Ibid., p. 211A.
- 3. Diggs, B.J., "Rules and Utilitarianism," in Gorovitz, supra note 1, pp. 321-22.
 - 4. Ibid., p. 313.
- 5. Brandt, R.B., "Some Merits of One Form of Rule Utilitarianism," in Gorovitz, supra note 1, p. 340.
 - 6. <u>Ibid.</u>, p. 340.
- 7. The ideas of Urmson and Rawls referred to in this paper can be found in Urmson, J.O., "The Interpretation of the Moral Philosophy of J.S. Mill," in Gorovitz, <u>supra</u> note 1, pp. 168-174; and in Rawls, John, "Two Concepts of Rules," in Gorovitz, <u>supra</u> note 1, pp. 175-194.