# JUSTIFICATION AS A DIMENSION OF RATIONALITY

#### Abstract

How are justified belief and rational belief related? Some philosophers think that justified belief and rational belief come to the same thing. Others take it that justification is a matter of how well a particular belief is supported by the evidence, while rational belief is a matter of how well a belief coheres with a person's other beliefs. In this paper, I defend the view that justification is a dimension of rationality, a view that can make sense of both of these conflicting accounts. When it modifies belief, 'rational' is a multidimensional adjective, as there are multiple dimensions along which a belief can be rational. I will argue that one of these dimensions is justification, an account that can not only explain why philosophers give diverging theories of the relationship between justified belief and rational belief, but can also reveal why rational belief and justified belief are closely related despite being distinct.

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### INTRODUCTION

A number of epistemologists have thought that 'rational belief' and 'justified 1 belief' are synonymous. Ralph Wedgwood says that, at least in the way epistemologists use the terms, "phrases like 'rational belief' mean exactly the same thing as 'justified belief',"<sup>1</sup> while Declan Smithies thinks that "to say that a belief is justified is to say that it is rational or reasonable."<sup>2</sup> Sinan Dogramaci simply notes, as an aside, that the terms can be used interchangeably - "Rationality, justification, reasonableness: same thing. Use whichever word you like."<sup>3</sup> 'Rational' and 'justified' are now so commonly regarded as synonymous that many authors do not even bother to note that they use the terms inter-10 changeably. Maria Lasonen-Aarnio captures this prevailing practice, pointing out that "as is rather standard amongst epistemologists, I have spoken about 11 epistemic justification and epistemic rationality in one breath."<sup>4</sup> Thus, not only 12 do a number of philosophers say outright that the rationality and justification of 13 belief come to the same thing, many more simply treat it as the default position. 14 15

<sup>16</sup> Despite the number of epistemologists who adopt this position, rational belief <sup>17</sup> and justified belief do not come to the same thing, as their behavior diverges at <sup>18</sup> the top of their scales. Consider, for example, the following case:<sup>5</sup>

#### <sup>19</sup> Small Town Election

20 Warren and Greg live in a small, rural town with just over one thousand

residents. Warren is counting the ballots from the recent mayoral election

and finds that Naomi won the election 467-212. The next day, Greg also

learns that Naomi won when he reads it in the town newspaper.

In this scenario, both Warren and Greg are justified in believing that Naomi
has been elected mayor. They both have good evidence to think that she won,
Warren through counting the ballots and Greg through reading the newspaper,
such that the truth values for (1) and (2) coincide:

<sup>28</sup> (1) Warren and Greg are both justified in believing that Naomi won

(2) Warren and Greg are both rational in believing that Naomi won

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<sup>4</sup>See Lasonen-Aarnio (2020), p. 604.

 ${}^{5}$ For a similar case that distinguishes between rational belief and justified belief, see Siscoe (2021), pp. 3-4.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>See Wedgwood (2017), p. 26.

 $<sup>^{2}</sup>$ See Smithies (2019), p. 24.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>See Dogramaci (2015), p. 277. The list could go on. Michael Huemer (2001) contends that the words can be used interchangeably saying, "Another word for what is justified, or should be done or believed, from the first-person perspective, is 'rational' (p. 22). Stewart Cohen (1984) says that "'[R]easonable' and 'rational' are virtual synonyms for 'justified"' (p. 283). Cohen (2016), argues that it does not make any sense to distinguish between rational belief and justified belief, ultimately proposing that we simply replace talk of justified belief with talk of rational belief. Smithies (2012) also puts forward the view that they can be used interchangeably – "To say that one has justification to believe a proposition is to say that it is rational or reasonable for one to believe it" (p. 274).

Even though it seems possible that 'rational' and 'justified' are synonymous in (1) and (2), this cannot be the case, as the truth values of (3) and (4) come apart:

<sup>33</sup> (3) Warren is more justified than Greg in believing that Naomi won

<sup>34</sup> (4) Warren is more rational than Greg in believing that Naomi won

While it is plausible that Warren is more justified than Greg in believing that
Naomi won – after all, he was the one who counted the ballots – it seems obviously wrong to say that Warren's belief is more rational than Greg's. Rather,
because they both adopted the belief that was justified for them, it seems like
they are equally rational.

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Even though Small Town Election makes a strong case that 'rational belief' and 'justified belief' are not synonymous, it also leaves a number of unanswered questions. It is not a fringe view to think that rational belief and justified belief come to the same thing – it might even be the dominant account. If 'rational' and 'justified' are not synonymous, though, then we need an answer to the Synonymy Question:

47 Synonymy Question – Why have so many philosophers taken 'rational
48 belief' and 'justified belief' to be synonymous?

If it is not true that being rational and being justified are the same property, 49 then the fact that a considerable number of philosophers think that 'rational 50 belief' and 'justified belief' are synonymous could use some explaining. Philoso-51 phers are far more likely to posit multiple senses of a term than they are to 52 declare distinct terms as synonymous. To see this, we need look no further than 53 justification itself. Even if we limit ourselves to just epistemic justification, the 54 types of justification that have been posited include propositional and doxastic 55 justification, immediate and mediate justification, prima and ultima facie justi-56 fication, and personal and objective justification, amongst others. This makes 57 it particularly striking that a number of philosophers have thought that we do 58 not need to distinguish between rational belief and justified belief. Why think 59 that they are synonyms to begin with? 60

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One reason, perhaps, that philosophers have regarded 'rational belief' and 'jus-62 tified belief' as synonymous is that they seem closely related. Robert Audi has 63 argued that rationality and justification are intertwined, saying that "a natural 64 and promising way to begin to understand rationality is to view it in relation 65 to its sources. The very same sources yield justification, which is closely related 66 to rationality."<sup>6</sup> One theory, of course, for how the two are related is that they 67 come to the same thing. Where does that leave us, though, if 'rational belief' 68 and 'justified belief' are not synonymous? Thus, another unresolved issue is 69 how exactly rationality and justification are connected: 70

 $<sup>^{6}\</sup>mathrm{See}$  Audi (2004), p. 18.

Linking Question – Are rational belief and justified belief actually
 closely related? And if so, how?

The simple answer, of course, is that a belief's being rational and being justified are the same property, but that account is undermined by cases like Small
Town Election. If rational belief and justified belief are not equivalent, then
how else might they be closely related?

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Against the thought that rational belief and justified belief are somehow in-78 tertwined, another view has developed that keeps rationality and justification 79 strictly distinct. On this way of thinking, rationality and justification are ac-80 tually quite different, with rationality picking out the coherence of a particular 81 set of beliefs and justification referring to those beliefs which are supported 82 by one's evidence/epistemic reasons. Alex Worsnip exemplifies this alternate 83 account, saying that "In my view, the term 'justified belief,' in contrast to 'ra-84 tional belief', is best used simply to refer to a belief's being supported by the 85 evidence," whereas "rationality is a matter of the right kind of coherence be-86 tween one's mental attitudes."<sup>7</sup> James Pryor gives a similar account, arguing 87 that what beliefs are rational and what beliefs are justified can come into conflict 88 - "I will count a belief as rational when it's a belief that none of your other be-89 liefs or doubts rationally oppose or rationally obstruct you from believing. This 90 makes "being rational" a different quality than having justification. A subject 91 can have some justification to believe p, but be unable to rationally believe p on 92 the basis of that justification, because of some (unjustified) beliefs and doubts 93 he also has."<sup>8</sup> Both Worsnip and Prvor treat rationality as merely a matter of 94 how beliefs fit together, whereas justification concerns the evidence/epistemic 95 reasons that a person has for their beliefs. This view would answer the linking 96 question by saying that, though 'rational' and 'justified' can both be used to 97 evaluate beliefs, they pick out distinct properties. 98

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There is, thus, another way of characterizing 'rational belief' and 'justified belief' other than the synonymy account, a view which takes them to be quite distinct. But this is rather surprising. How could it be that, while a large number of philosophers thought that 'rational belief' and 'justified belief' were synonymous, another tradition sprang up that treated rationality and justification as strictly distinct, taking rationality to be merely a matter of coherence?

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Coherence Question – Why have a number of philosophers taken ra-

 $<sup>^{7}</sup>$ See Worsnip (2018), p. 12 and p. 3. It should be noted that Worsnip (Forthcoming) and (2021) has now dropped this distinction, preferring to characterize both evidence and coherence as constraints on rationality, a point which might be more terminological than substantive, see Worsnip (Forthcoming), p. 81, fn. 9.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup>See Pryor (2004), pp. 364-365. Similar accounts of rationality can be found in Broome (2005) and (2013); Jackson (2011); Kolodny (2005), (2007), and (2008); and Scanlon (1998) and (2007). Lasonen-Aarnio (2020) describes this strain of thought as follows: "Rationality concerns, roughly, a kind of internal coherence amongst a subject's attitudes [...] By contrast, what is permitted (and perhaps required) given one's epistemic reasons is proportioning one's doxastic states to the evidence" (p. 617).

107 tionality to just be a matter of coherence?

We, thus, have three outstanding questions about the relationship between justified belief and rational belief – why so many philosophers took them to be the same thing, why a separate tradition arose on which rationality refers only to the coherence of a set of beliefs, and how justification and rationality are actually related.

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114 In this paper, I plan to defend answers to all three of these questions. I will argue that justification is a dimension of rationality, a position that can explain 115 not only why some philosophers thought that 'rational' and 'justified' are inter-116 changeable while others held that rationality is purely a matter of coherence, 117 but can also show how rationality and justification are related. In Section 1, I 118 will distinguish between unidimensional and multidimensional adjectives, argu-119 ing in Section 2 that 'rational' is a multidimensional adjective. Just as there 120 are multiple dimensions on which a person can be healthy, there are multiple 121 dimensions on which a belief can be rational.<sup>9</sup> I will then argue in Section 122 3 that justification is one dimension of rationality, an account that opens up 123 a strategy for providing answers to the **Synonymy Question**, the **Linking** 124 Question, and the Coherence Question. After introducing this account of 125 rational belief, I will consider two potential objections in Sections 4 and 5 -126 Scanlon's argument that only coherence considerations contribute to irrational 127 belief and the externalist view that it is possible to describe someone as rational 128 but not justified. Whether a belief is justified is a dimension of whether a belief 129 is rational, an insight that offers a definitive link between the justification and 130 rationality of belief. 131

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A brief note before we begin. Some epistemologists may treat terms like 'ra-133 tional' and 'justified', not as picking out the properties of rationality and jus-134 tification, but simply as tools for referring to some general positive epistemic 135 status. Take, for instance, Pryor's claim that his "main interest when doing 136 epistemology is in the conditions, nature, and 'logic' of a status or quality that 137 folk language may have no unambiguous direct expression for. I can direct the 138 attention of theorists to this status by calling it 'prospective justification or war-139 rant to be more confident' that something is the case."<sup>10</sup> For the purposes of 140 this paper, I will consider how we should understand the relationship between 141 rationality and justification if we treat 'rational' and 'justified' as actually pick-142 ing out these properties rather than being a rough way of referring to some 143 other, distinct epistemic status. 144

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup>Along with belief, we can also evaluate a number of other things as being rational or irrational, including persons, fears, credences, regrets, and actions. Due to limitations of space, I will only be considering the behavior of 'rational' as it applies to belief, as rational belief has often occupied center stage in the literature on justification and rationality. A promising direction for future research would be to see whether rationality is multidimensional in these other cases as well. Thank you to a reviewer for suggesting the data available from investigating other varieties of rationality.

 $<sup>^{10}{\</sup>rm See}$  Pryor (2018), p. 112.

# 146 1 Multidimensional Adjectives

#### 147 1.1 UNIDIMENSIONAL AND MULTIDIMENSIONAL ADJECTIVES

A number of adjectives are multidimensional in that there are multiple underly-148 ing dimensions that affect whether or not they apply.<sup>11</sup> Compare the adjectives 149 'tall' and 'healthy.' Whether someone is tall is a function of a single dimension, 150 height, whereas whether someone is healthy is a function of multiple dimensions. 151 A person can be made unhealthy by having high blood pressure, broken bones, 152 a contagious virus, or a weakened immune system. This, of course, is not to say 153 that there is no contextual variation in who counts as tall. The height required 154 to count as tall amongst basketball players is greater than the height that is 155 required amongst elementary school students, but what makes 'tall' unidimen-156 sional is that this contextual variation occurs only along the dimension of height. 157 'Healthy,' on the other hand, is multidimensional, as it involves more than just 158 one underlying component. As we can see in Figure 1, the primary character-159 istic that distinguishes multidimensional from unidimensional adjectives is that 160 they have multiple underlying dimensions that are used to determine when they 161 apply. 162





Figure 1: Uni- vs. Multi-dimensional Adjectives

A number of linguistic tests can be used to reveal whether an adjective is uni- or
 multidimensional. Multidimensional adjectives, for example, permit sentences
 that quantify over all of their dimensions:

- <sup>169</sup> (5) Joe is healthy in every respect
- (6) The boxes are identical in every respect
- (7) Susan is honest in every respect

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup>For the development of linguistic views regarding multidimensional gradable adjectives, including the various tests used in this section, see Kamp (1975), Klein (1980), Sassoon (2012) and (2013), and Solt (2018).

Due to their multiple underlying dimensions, 'healthy,' 'honest,' and 'identical,' 172 all easily accept the "every respect" construction. Just as it is possible to be 173 healthy in a number of respects, it is also possible to be identical in a number of 174 respects. Two boxes can be identical with respect to their color, weight, height, 175 length, width, etc. The same is true of honesty. In his recent work on the virtue 176 of honesty, Christian Miller has pointed out that honesty involves more than 177 just avoiding telling lies. In particular, it can count against someone's honesty 178 if they act deceitfully, break their promises, or cheat their employer.<sup>12</sup> The 179 dimensional aspect of these adjectives is also on display with interrogatives: 180

- 181 (8) In what ways is Joe healthy?
- (9) In what ways are the boxes identical?
- 183 (10) In what ways is Susan honest?

Just like we can say that someone is healthy or honest in every respect, we can also inquire as to what ways they are healthy or honest. It may be that a person is healthy or honest in every way, or it could be that they are only healthy or honest in a few ways. Regardless of how healthy or honest someone is, though, multiple dimensions dimensions are required to assess whether they possess these characteristics.

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<sup>191</sup> Unlike multidimensional adjectives, unidimensional adjectives sound much less
 <sup>192</sup> natural in "every respect" constructions:

- <sup>193</sup> (11) ?Dan is tall in every respect
- (12) ?The cup is empty in every respect
- <sup>195</sup> (13) ?The rope is long in every respect

The issue with (11)-(13) is that 'tall,' 'long,' and 'empty,' pick out just one 196 dimension. 'Tall' picks out where someone falls on a scale of height, 'empty' 197 picks out how much substance there is in a container, and 'long' picks out 198 where an object falls on a scale of length. This is not to say that these terms 199 can never be used in any other sense. 'Long,' for instance, has both a temporal 200 and a spatial sense – just as a rope can be (spatially) long, a shift at work can be 201 (temporally) long. What differentiates multidimensional adjectives, however, is 202 that they encode a number of characteristics within just one sense of the term. 203 I need to consider multiple dimensions before I can dub a person healthy, but 204 I only need to consult one dimension in order to call a rope long. Because 205 unidimensional adjectives only encode one dimension, we also encounter issues 206 with interrogatives: 207

- <sup>208</sup> (14) ?In what ways is Dan tall?
- (15) ?In what ways is the cup empty?
- (16) ?In what ways is the rope long?

All of (14)-(16) sound amiss. If we know that Dan is tall, there is no further information to be gained about the ways in which this is so. There is only one

 $<sup>^{12}</sup>$ See Miller (2017) and (2020).

way which this could be true – whether he meets the contextual standard for 213 height in a given scenario. Likewise, there are not multiple ways in which the 214 cup can be empty. The only dimension that 'empty' picks out is how much of 215 a particular substance there is in the cup. And even though 'long' has different 216 senses, only the spatial sense is under consideration when we are talking about 217 a rope. Thus, unidimensional adjectives do not allow discussing various under-218 lying dimensions in the same way that multidimensional adjectives do. 219 220 Even though multidimensional adjectives involve multiple dimensions simulta-221 neously, it is possible to specify which dimensions we care about in a particular 222 situation. Consider the following: 223 (17) With respect to his cardiovascular health. Joe is healthy 224 (18) In terms of their height and weight, the boxes are identical 225 (19) When it comes to keeping her promises, Susan is honest 226 All of (17)-(19) allow for dimensional specification. Not only can we speak of 227 being healthy or identical in general, but we can single out certain respects in 228 which someone can be healthy or honest. Instead of just talking about whether 229 two objects are identical in general, we can specify the ways in which they are 230 identical, in this case their height and their weight. 231 232 Dimensional specification need not always be explicit. Oftentimes, context limits 233 the dimensions under consideration. Take, for instance, a nurse who, removing 234 a cast from a patient's arm declares, "It looks like you're healthy!" If the doctor 235 disputes the nurse's claim, saying that the patient still has high blood pressure. 236 the nurse can maintain that they were only talking about the patient's fractured 237 arm. Or suppose that an interior decorator is asked about the color of the two 238 bedrooms in a newly renovated home. If, in response, they say, "The bedrooms 239 are identical," it would be strange indeed to disagree by remarking that the 240 rooms have different widths and lengths. Context can, thus, help specify which 241 dimensions are under consideration with particular uses of multidimensional ad-242 jectives.

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Whereas multidimensional adjectives allow for dimensional specification, unidi mensional adjectives, once again, behave somewhat differently:

(20) ?With respect to his \_\_\_\_\_, Dan is tall?

 $_{248}$  (21) ?In terms of its \_\_\_\_\_, the rope is long?

(22) ?When it comes to \_\_\_\_\_, the cup is empty?

With all of (20)-(22), it is unclear how we would sensibly complete them. For instance, suppose that we completed (21) by saying that, in terms of its length, the rope is long. Even though this would not be ungrammatical, it does not further specify the dimension of longness to which we are referring, as only multidimensional adjectives allow for dimensional specification. 255 1.2 Multidimensional Adjectives: Conjunctive, Disjunctive, and 256 Additive

We can also distinguish between conjunctive and disjunctive forms of multidi-257 mensional adjectives. Conjunctive adjectives quantify over all of their contextu-258 ally relevant underlying dimensions. If two boxes have the same dimensions but 259 differ in color, it is acceptable to say that they are not identical, revealing that 260 'identical' is a conjunctive, multidimensional adjective. In order to be identical, 261 two boxes must be identical with respect to all of the relevant underlying di-262 mensions. This is not to say that we must always consider every dimension. As 263 we have already seen, context can specify the particular dimensions that are at 264 issue. In the case of the interior decorator, only color is relevant for whether the 265 rooms can be described as identical. However, when they are not used in a way 266 that specifies a particular dimension for consideration, conjunctive adjectives 267 require that all of their dimensions fall in the appropriate range. 268

Disjunctive adjectives, on the other hand, only require that one of their un-270 derlying dimensions falls in the appropriate range. Consider, for example, the 271 multidimensional adjective 'nonidentical'. There are a number of dimensions 272 along which two boxes can be nonidentical, but it only requires one of these to 273 judge that the two boxes are nonidentical. Two boxes can fail to be identical 274 because they are different colors, different lengths, or different heights. As seen 275 in Figure 2, conjunctive multidimensional adjectives must rise above the neces-276 sary contextual threshold in all of their relevant dimensions, while disjunctive 277 multidimensional adjectives only need to fall below the threshold in at least one 278 of their relevant dimensions. 279



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Figure 2: Conjunctive vs. Disjunctive Multidimensional Adjectives

If we were to represent this a bit more formally, where DIM is a function from contexts c and predicates P to predicates p, DIM(P,c) picks out all the relevant dimensions of P at context c, e.g. DIM(identical, c) picks out all the contributing features of similitude that are relevant in context c. Thus, a multidimensional adjective is conjunctive if and only if it satisfies the universal quantifier such that  $\lambda x. \forall Q \in DIM(P,c): Q(x)$ . On the other hand, a multidimensional adjective is disjunctive if and only if it satisfies the existential quantifier such that  $\lambda x. \exists Q \in DIM(P,c): Q(x).$ 

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It is also important to acknowledge a third variety of multidimensional adjective. 292 lying between the conjunctive and the disjunctive. Additive multidimensional 293 adjectives are like the conjunctive in that they require more than one dimension 294 to fall in the appropriate range. At the same time, though, it is not necessary 295 that all dimensions must do so. Take, for example, our earlier example 'healthy'. 296 If I am slightly unhealthy along one dimension, say by having high blood pres-297 sure, it seems too strong to conclude that I am altogether unhealthy. In order to 298 count as unhealthy, I would need to be very unhealthy along a single dimension 299 or somewhat unhealthy along several. Thus, it is possible to be healthy overall 300 even though I am not healthy in every respect, making 'healthy' an additive 301 multidimensional adjective. 302

# <sup>303</sup> 2 'RATIONAL' AS A MULTIDIMENSIONAL ADJECTIVE

Now that we have laid out the characteristics of multidimensional adjectives, 304 I will argue that 'rational' is a multidimensional adjective, making the case 305 that it is either additive or conjunctive. From recent work in epistemology, it 306 should already be familiar that a number of authors have proposed that there 307 are multiple respects in which a belief can be rational, structural and substan-308 tive rationality. The distinction goes roughly as follows. Structural rationality 309 is what gives rise to coherence requirements, norms that govern the way that 310 beliefs should hang together. Popular norms of structural rationality include 311 that beliefs should be logically consistent or that lower and higher-order beliefs 312 should be enkratic. Whereas structural rationality might require that particular 313 sets of beliefs be logically consistent, substantive rationality requires that you 314 respond correctly to your reasons or evidence. If your beliefs are due to bias or 315 wishful thinking instead of strong evidence, you are violating the requirements 316 of substantive rationality. When applied to individual beliefs, a belief is sub-317 stantively rational if it is supported by someone's evidence and it is structurally 318 rational if it coheres with their other beliefs.<sup>13</sup> In the remainder of this section, 319 I will argue that, for a belief to be fully rational, it must be both structurally 320 and substantively rational, making 'rational' a multidimensional adjective. 321

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A number of recent authors make use of the distinction between structural and substantive rationality. Daniel Fogal says that he "take(s) there to be two threads in our thought and talk about rationality" both "responding correctly to the reasons one has" and "having the right structural relations hold between

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>13</sup>Following Worsnip (2023), p. 4, structural rationality and irrationality are ultimately properties of sets of beliefs. Thus, when referring to individual beliefs, such beliefs are structurally rational or irrational depending on how they cohere with the rest of a person's beliefs. S's belief *b* is structurally rationally if and only if, for all the subsets of S's beliefs, *b* can be combined with those subsets without creating a structurally irrational set.

one's attitudinal mental states."<sup>14</sup> Pryor notes that, when it comes to discus-327 sions of the normativity of coherence and the normativity of reasons, there is 328 a trend for epistemologists to "use 'rationality' to refer to the whole genus."<sup>15</sup> 329 Worsnip has also moved from equating rationality with structural considerations 330 to recognizing that both "structural and substantive rationality are two distinct 331 but equally genuine kinds of rationality."<sup>16</sup> And even though the language of 332 structural and substantive rationality may be fairly recent, the distinction itself 333 has historical precedent. In their book Evidentialism, Earl Conee and Richard 334 Feldman speak of both types of rationality, saying on the one hand that "it is 335 quite credible to suppose that rational belief formation at least partly consists in 336 adopting beliefs because they fit well with other things that the person thinks" 337 while also maintaining that "the epistemically rational thing to do at any mo-338 ment is to follow the evidence."<sup>17</sup> Audi argues that rationality is composed 339 of more than just coherence requirements,<sup>18</sup> while Scanlon acknowledges that 340 'rational' is often applied to both structural and substantive rationality before 341 arguing that its use should be limited to cases of structural rationality.<sup>19</sup> 342

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'Rational' is multidimensional in that substantive and structural rationality
both contribute to the overall rationality of a belief. One characteristic of multidimensional adjectives that we saw in Section 1 is that they permit sentences
that quantify over their different respects. The same is true of 'rational'. Take,
for example, the following case:

#### 349 Precipitation Prediction

<sup>350</sup> Mary is researching precipitation figures in the northwestern United States.

351 She learns that, over the past ten years, there has never been a year that

<sup>352</sup> Seattle has had less than 30 inches of rain. From this, she infers that

Seattle is very likely to get 30 or more inches of rain in the coming year.

So long as it does not conflict with any of her other beliefs, Mary's belief p, that Seattle is very likely to get 30 or more inches of rain next year, is both substantively and structurally rational. Not only is p supported by her evidence, but it is reasonable for Mary to infer p from her belief that Seattle has never had less than 30 inches of rain in the past ten years. Because Mary's belief is both substantively and structurally rational, that makes (23) a very natural assessment of her belief:

 $^{17}$ See Conee and Feldman (2004), p. 39 and 189.

 $^{18}$ See Audi (2004).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>14</sup>See Fogal (2020), p. 1033.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>15</sup>See Pryor (2018), p. 126.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>16</sup>See Worsnip (Forthcoming), p. 4. Others who acknowledge the distinction between structural and substative rationality include Broome (2013), ch. 5-6; Fogal (2018), pp. 22-27; Fogal and Worsnip (Forthcoming); Kiesewetter (2017); Neta (2015), pp. 284-285, and (2018), pp. 313-314; Wedwgood (2017), pp. 7-8; and Worsnip (2021), p. 1. Some of these authors ultimately argue that these two forms of rationality are ultimately reducible to a single notion of rationality. For a discussion of how metaphysical reducibility might interact with the thesis of this paper, see Section 4.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>19</sup>See Scanlon (1998), pp. 25-30. For a response to Scanlon's argument, see Section 4.

(23) Mary's belief that p is rational in every respect

Not only is (23) a natural evaluation of Mary's belief, but because there are multiple respects in which her belief is rational, (24) is also a sensible request:

<sup>364</sup> (24) In what ways is Mary's belief rational?

<sup>365</sup> Unlike with the unidimensional adjectives in (14)-(16), it seems like there are <sup>366</sup> sensible answers we could give to (24). We could say that she has strong evi-<sup>367</sup> dence that Seattle typically gets more than 30 inches of rain, or we could say <sup>368</sup> that this belief fits well with her other beliefs about Seattle rainfall. Thus, we <sup>369</sup> can see that 'rational' is like other multidimensional adjectives in that it allows <sup>370</sup> quantifying over multiple respects.

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Not only is 'rational' multidimensional, as it passes these tests of quantification,
but 'rational' is also additive or conjunctive, as serious failures of either substantive rationality or structural rationality are enough to prevent a belief from
being fully rational. Consider the following vignette:

#### 376 Southside Sluggers

Bill is a committed fan of his favorite baseball team, the Southside Slug-377 gers. This week, the Sluggers are playing their rival, the Hometown 378 Hitters, in a seven game series. Because he is biased in favor of the Slug-379 gers, Bill forms the belief that the Sluggers will win the series even though 380 there is strong evidence that they are less talented than the Hitters. Later 381 in the week, the Sluggers have lost three games and have only won once, making it very improbable that they will come back to win the seven 383 game series. Nevertheless, Bill stands by his belief that the Sluggers will 384 win the series, reasoning that, because they will win the series, that also 385 means that they will be victorious in each of the next three games. 386

Bill's belief q, that the Sluggers will win the series, rationally commits him to 387 the belief r, that the Sluggers will win the next three games. Unless he gives 388 up q, it would be a violation of structural rationality for him to also believe 389 that the Sluggers will lose one of the next three games. However, unlike Mary's 390 belief p in **Precipitation Prediction**, Bill's belief r is not rational in every 391 respect. In particular, r is not supported by the evidence. Not only are the 392 Hitters more talented than the Sluggers, but the Hitters have already won three 393 of the required four games to win the series. Because Bill's belief r is substan-394 tively irrational, it seems like a mistake to dub it as rational, full stop. Instead, 395 because his belief does not appropriately respond to the evidence, this alone 396 seems sufficient for describing it as not fully rational. 397

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The same phenomenon occurs with failings of structural rationality. With Southside Sluggers, we had a situation where Bill's belief r was structurally rational but not substantively rational. Now consider a case that's reversed:

402 Timid Tester

Jane is skilled at math, routinely getting good marks on her tests at 403 school. Sadly, Jane's older brother routinely second-guesses her abilities, 404 saving that she is just getting lucky and that she will do poorly on the next 405 exam. Jane knows that he does not have any good reason to think this, 406 but he still regularly undermines Jane's confidence in her mathematical 407 abilities with his remarks. After Jane's next test, she immediately finds 408 herself believing that she got a high score - she breezed right through all of 409 the questions and finished before anyone else in the class. Then, however, 410 she experiences a moment of self-doubt. Even though she believes that 411 she scored highly on the exam, because of her brother's comments, she 412 cannot shake the belief that her belief is irrational. 413

Jane is in an epistemically akratic state. On the one hand, she believes s, that 414 she scored highly on her exam, the proposition that her evidence supports. On 415 the other other hand, she also believes that her belief s is irrational. Due to this 416 unjustified higher-order belief, s is substantively but not structurally rational.<sup>20</sup> 417 As before, even though Jane's belief succeeds along one dimension of rationality, 418 this is not enough to describe it as rational simpliciter. Despite the fact that 419 s is supported by the evidence, her higher-order belief creates rational pressure 420 for her to give up s. So long as Jane maintains the belief that her belief s is 421 irrational, her belief is not yet fully rational. 422

423

If all of this is correct, then 'rational' is either an additive or a conjunctive, 424 multidimensional adjective. Being rational by the lights of a single dimension, 425 whether that be substantive or structural rationality, is not enough to make a 426 belief rational overall, preventing 'rational' from being a disjunctive multidimen-427 sional adjective. Instead, a belief must be either rational on all dimensions of 428 rationality (conjunctive) or most of the dimensions of rationality while avoiding 429 serious irrationality along a single dimension (additive) in order to be rational. 430 Now, even if it is correct that 'rational' is either additive or conjunctive, this is 431 not to say that we have identified all of the dimensions of rationality, a possibil-432 ity that is left open in Figure 3. All that is necessary for our purposes is whether 433 structural and substantive rationality are dimensions of rational belief, which 434 it seems like there is good evidence to think that they are, but we will leave it 435 open whether there are more respects in which a belief can be rational.<sup>21</sup> 436

 $<sup>^{20}</sup>$ A number of belief combinations are thought to be epistemically akratic, including the beliefs that p and that it is irrational to believe that p and the beliefs that p and that my evidence does not support that p. For arguments that epistemically akratic states are irrational, see Feldman (2005) and Horowitz (2014), and for authors that use the irrationality of epistemic akrasia as a premise, see Greco (2014), Smithies (2012), and Titelbaum (2015). For a defense of the view that epistemic akrasia can sometimes be rational, see Coates (2012), Lasonen-Aarnio (2020), and Williamson (2011). Here, I will assume that akrasia is irrational, though it is also possible to create examples of beliefs that are substantively but not structurally irrational without making this assumption.

 $<sup>^{21}</sup>$ While Figure 3 depicts 'rational' as having a contextual threshold like 'tall' and 'healthy', the arguments of this paper are neutral on this point. Siscoe (2021) has argued that when 'rational' modifies belief, it is an absolute gradable adjective and lacks the relevant contextual threshold. Instead, in order for a belief to count as rational, it must be at the top of the scale



437

Figure 3: The Dimensions of Rational Belief

### 438 3 LINKING RATIONALITY AND JUSTIFICATION

<sup>439</sup> Now that we have seen that the rationality of belief is multidimensional, we are
<sup>440</sup> now in a position to propose a link between rationality and justification. In
<sup>441</sup> this section, I will outline the view that justification is a dimension of rational<sup>442</sup> ity, showing how this account can answer the Linking Question, Synonymy
<sup>443</sup> Question, and Coherence Question, as well as explain why justified belief
<sup>444</sup> and rational belief come apart in Small Town Election.

445

Not only is substantive rationality a dimension of the rationality of belief, but 446 some recent work has drawn close comparisons between substantive rationality 447 and justification.<sup>22</sup> Worsnip thinks that "substantive rationality is concerned 448 with being reasonable, or justified,"<sup>23</sup> while Fogal says that substantive ratio-449 nality generates justificatory pressure to adopt particular beliefs.<sup>24</sup> Fogal even 450 goes so far as to define substantive rationality in terms of justification: "For our 451 attitudes - i.e., our beliefs, intentions, preferences, and the like - to be rational 452 in this sense is for them to be justified or reasonable. Call this substantive 453

of rational belief. None of what I say requires that 'rational' either has or lacks a contextual threshold, but if rationality is absolute, then Figure 3 will need to be modified so that the relevant standard is the maximal point on the scale. Thank you to an anonymous reviewer for helping me to get clear on this point.

 $<sup>^{22}</sup>$ My intention here is not to give a fully determinate characterization of justification and substantive rationality. Instead, I aim to draw a connection between what might be described as a platitude about justification – that it involves the evidence that a person has for their beliefs – and the thought that substantive rationality is also a function of one's evidence. Even amongst those who do not explicitly differentiate between substantive and structural rationality, many take evidential reasons to be associated with justification. As we have seen, Pryor does not think that substantive rationality is a legitimate variety of rationality, but he still identifies justification with what Worsnip and Fogal take to be substantive rationality. When distinguishing between two types of normative pressure on beliefs – the pressure from the evidence you have and the pressure from the beliefs you hold – Pryor (2004) simply calls the first justification, saying that normative pressure is both exerted by "what you have justification to believe, and what you're rationally committed to believe by beliefs you already have" (p. 363).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>23</sup>See Worsnip (Forthcoming), p. 13. Fogal and Worsnip (Forthcoming) say the same. <sup>24</sup>See Fogal (2020), p. 1033-1035.

rationality."<sup>25</sup> This potential connection is not surprising. After all, we have already seen substantive rationality and justification described in much the same
ways, as both involve responding appropriately to the evidence/one's evidential
reasons.

458

This close relationship between justification and substantive rationality naturally gives way to the following proposal: Instead of taking it that justified belief and rational belief come to the same thing, maybe justified belief is actually the same thing as *substantively* rational belief. If, for the time being, we assume this proposal is correct, then we are in position to advance a link between full rationality and justification. 'Rational' is a multidimensional adjective, and one of its underlying dimensions is justification:

466 The Link

<sup>467</sup> Rational belief and justified belief are linked as follows:

(i) S's belief that p is fully rational only if S's belief that p is substantively rational, and

(ii) S's belief that p is substantively rational if and only if S's belief that p is justified

There are several things to point out here. To begin with, note that the first 472 conditional only holds from left to right. S's belief that p is fully rational only 473 insofar as it is substantively rational, but more is required for p to be completely 474 rational. At the very least, S's belief that p must also be structurally rational 475 before it can be considered perfectly rational, and perhaps more if there are fur-476 ther dimensions to rational belief. The second conditional, on the other hand, 477 holds in both directions. Being substantively rational in a belief requires being 478 justified in that belief and vice versa. 479

480

Another thing worth noting is that **The Link** stops short of saying that being 481 justified and being substantively rational are identical properties. Unlike the 482 view on which rational belief and justified belief are the same thing, **The Link** 483 is merely committed to the view that when speaking of substantive rationality, 484 'justified belief' and 'rational belief' are co-extensive, not that justified belief 485 and substantively rational belief are the same thing. My own view is that, once 486 a belief has enough justification to be considered justified, it is then substan-487 tively rational, but that further increases in justification do not make the belief 488 more substantively rational. 489

490

We now have a possible answer to our Linking Question, but what reasons do
we have to think that The Link is plausible? Along with the fact that a number
of epistemologists think that substantive rationality and justification both involve evidential reasons, there are a number of other grounds for thinking that
The Link correctly describes the relationship between rational and justified

 $<sup>^{25}</sup>$ See Fogal (2018), p. 22.

belief. To begin with, **The Link** can give a natural answer to the **Synonymy** 496 Question. We began by wondering why, if 'rational belief' and 'justified be-497 lief' are not synonymous, then why ever think that they are in the first place? 498 Because 'rational' can be used to pick out the dimension of justification, there 499 are certain contexts in which it looks like rational belief is identical to justified 500 belief. Suppose that I present someone with **Precipitation Prediction** and 501 ask the following question about Mary's belief p, that Seattle is very likely to 502 get 30 or more inches of rain in the next year: 503

 $_{504}$  (25) Given Mary's evidence, is her belief that p rational?

<sup>505</sup> In (25), I specify the dimension of rationality that I am interested in – whether <sup>506</sup> Mary's belief is rational given the evidence. This limits my question to consid-<sup>507</sup> erations of substantive rationality. And if substantive rationality is the same as <sup>508</sup> justification, then (25) ultimately asks the same thing as (26):

 $_{509}$  (26) Given Mary's evidence, is her belief that p justified?

<sup>510</sup> If **The Link** is correct and 'rational' is a multidimensional adjective, both (25) <sup>511</sup> and (26) ask whether Mary's belief is substantively rational, creating a context <sup>512</sup> in which 'rational' and 'justified' pick out the same thing and, thus, appear to <sup>513</sup> be synonymous.

514

We now have the beginning of an answer to the synonymy question. 'Rational' 515 and 'justified' can be used in such a way that they both pick out substantive 516 rationality, and if this sort of use is common within epistemology, then it is 517 unsurprising that a number of theorists have taken them to be the same thing. 518 As it turns out, 'rational' is regularly used in a way that limits it to only pick-519 ing out whether a belief is substantively rational. In *Evidentialism*, Conee and 520 Feldman say that "one traditional problem in epistemology concerns the rela-521 tion that must hold between a body of evidence and a proposition for it to be 522 rational."<sup>26</sup> Roger White's definition of uniqueness – "Given one's total evi-523 dence, there is a unique rational doxastic attitude that one can take to any 524 proposition" – centrally features substantive rationality.<sup>27</sup> Kevin Dorst invokes 525 substantive rationality while discussing evidential uncertainty: "if you should 526 be uncertain what your evidence warrants, then learning facts about your ev-527 idence can give you new evidence – and so can change what it's rational to 528 think."<sup>28</sup> Dealing with cases of deception, Cohen argues that "subjects in the 529 matrix can have such rational beliefs. These subjects clearly have lots of evi-530 dence for their beliefs."<sup>29</sup> In laying out common uses of 'rational', Jack Lyons 531 says "that was the rational thing to believe, based on the evidence you had at 532

 $<sup>^{26}</sup>$ See Conee and Feldman (2004), p. 111.

 $<sup>^{27}</sup>$ See White (2005), p. 445. White (2014) also primarily focuses on substantive rationality, saying that "common wisdom has it that examining the evidence and forming rational beliefs on the basis of this evidence is a good means, indeed the best means, to forming true beliefs and avoiding error" (p. 322).

 $<sup>^{28}</sup>$ See Dorst (2020), p. 591.

 $<sup>^{29}{\</sup>rm See}$  Cohen (2016), p. 846.

the time."<sup>30</sup> Lasonen-Aarnio points out that "a flourishing literature in epistemology is largely concerned with [...] what it is rational to believe given one's evidence."<sup>31</sup> All of these discussions of rationality focus on substantive rationality, the type of rationality that evaluates whether or not someone believes what their evidence supports. These types of uses of 'rational' occur regularly across the philosophical literature, making it unsurprising that so many philosophers treat 'rational' and 'justified' as synonymous.<sup>32</sup>

540

What about the **Coherence Question**? Why have so many philosophers theorized as if rationality is merely a matter of coherence? Here, we can also appeal to dimensional specification. Just like it is possible to create contexts where 'rational' only picks out substantive rationality, it is also possible to create contexts where 'rational' only refers to structural rationality. With (25), we asked whether Mary's belief is rational given her evidence, but we can also single out whether her believe is rational given her other beliefs:

 $_{548}$  (27) Given that Mary thinks Seattle gets over 30 inches of rain each year, is her belief that p rational?

We have already seen that a number of philosophers often use 'rational' in a way 550 that isolates whether a belief coheres with other beliefs. Dimensional specifica-551 tion explains why this is possible – just like, in certain contexts, philosophers can 552 use 'rational' to pick out whether a belief is supported by the evidence, in other 553 cases, they can use 'rational' to pick out whether a beliefs fits appropriately 554 with other beliefs. Thus, it is not a surprise that some philosophers theorize as 555 if rationality is primarily focused on coherence constraints, because it is possible 556 to use 'rational' in such a way that it only applies to whether beliefs fit together 557 in the right way. 558

559

Beyond answering the Linking Question, the Synonymy Question, and the
Coherence Question, the thought that 'rational' is a multidimensional adjective can also explain the behavior of 'rational' and 'justified' in Small Town
Election. Recall that, in Small Town Election, both Warren and Greg were
rational and justified in their belief that Naomi won, but, even though Warren's
belief was more justified than Greg's, their beliefs were equally rational. According to the multidimensional view of 'rational,' once a belief is substantively

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>30</sup>See Lyons (2016), p. 871.

 $<sup>^{31}\</sup>mathrm{See}$  Lasonen-Aarnio (2020), p. 598.

 $<sup>^{32}</sup>$ This view is also plausible in that it can vindicate some of what epistemologists have said when comparing 'rational belief' and 'justified belief'. Wedgwood (2017), for example, says that "it seems that there is a way of using the terms 'rational' and 'justified' so that phrases like 'rational belief' mean exactly the same thing as 'justified belief''' (p. 26). This observation is insightful in that, in contexts where 'rational belief' is used to pick out substantively rational belief, then 'rational belief' and 'justified belief' are co-extensive. Of course, he then goes on to say that "this is the sense of the terms 'rational belief' and 'justified belief' that is of particular interest to epistemologists" (pp. 26-27), which is not correct given that epistemologists also theorize about structural rationality, but this oversight should not overshadow the aspects of Wedgwood's view that are on the right track.

rational and the other dimensions of rationality are satisfied, that belief is fully 567 rational. Just like two boxes that are identical in all respects are completely 568 identical, a belief that is rational in all respects is completely rational. This is 569 what we see in **Small Town Election**. Warren and Greg are both justified 570 (and thus substantively rational) in their belief that Naomi won the election, as 571 they both have sufficient evidence that she did. So long as they do not fail along 572 any other dimensions of rationality, and Small Town Election does not indi-573 cate that they do, their beliefs are also fully rational. It is true that Warren's 574 belief is more justified than Greg's given that Warren has stronger evidence that 575 Naomi won, but this does not make Warren's belief more rational than Greg's. 576 Because they are both justified in their belief, Warren and Greg both have a 577 fully rational belief, making their beliefs that Naomi won the election equally 578 rational. 579

## 580 4 MONISTIC VIEWS OF RATIONALITY

This concludes my argument for The Link. Not only do a number of authors de-581 scribe justification and substantive rationality as involving evidence/evidential 582 reasons, but taking justification to be a dimension of rationality can provide 583 answers to the Linking Question, the Synonymy Question, and the Co-584 herence Question as well as explain why rational belief and justified belief 585 behave differently at the tops of their scales. One worry worth addressing is 586 whether monistic views of rationality, accounts that explain structural ratio-587 nality in terms of substantive rationality or vice versa, are a challenge to the 588 thesis of this paper.<sup>33</sup> Do views like these threaten our argument for The Link, 589 specifically the thought that 'rational' has multiple dimensions? 590

591

The first thing to say is that, on their own, monistic views of rationality need not conflict with the thesis that 'rational' is multidimensional. This is for a couple reasons. To begin with, we have already seen linguistic evidence that 'rational' behaves like a multidimensional adjective when it modifies belief. Any theory that says that the rationality of belief actually only has one dimension conflicts with this evidence, making multidimensionality a desideratum of an account of rational belief. If these monistic accounts do not allow that 'rational' is multidimensional, then so much the worse for those theories.

600

The other reason is that, even if it there is a deeper explanation of what links structural and substantive rationality, this is compatible with the thought that 'rational' is multidimensional. Take, for instance, the multidimensional adjective 'healthy.' There is likely a deeper explanation for why all of the different dimensions of health that we have mentioned – cardiovascular health, immune health, mental health, etc. – are all relevant to being healthy. Such an account

 $<sup>^{33}</sup>$ For views of this sort, see Broome (2013), Kiesewetter (2017), Lord (2018), and Wedgwood (2017), and for a view that does not attempt to explain one dimension of rationality in terms of the other, see Worsnip (Forthcoming).

would be consistent with the fact that we can use 'healthy' to pick out different 607 dimensions of health, and likely explains why all of those factors contribute to 608 being healthy overall. There would be strong reason to think that this so-called 609 deeper explanation is incorrect if it reached the verdict that blood pressure and 610 cholesterol levels are not relevant to health after all. The same is true for 'ratio-611 nal'. Even if there is a deeper, monistic account of what makes a belief rational, 612 this should itself explain why 'rational' is multidimensional, not reveal that ra-613 tionality only has one dimension.<sup>34</sup> 614

615

Even though monistic views of rationality, in and of themselves, are compatible 616 with a multidimensional account of 'rational,' they can make trouble for the 617 multidimensional proposal when they explicitly deny that we use 'rational' and 618 'irrational' to refer to both substantive and structural rationality. On one way 619 of interpreting T.M. Scanlon, for example, failing to be responsive to evidence 620 does not actually affect whether or not a belief is irrational Rather, talk of ir-621 rationality should be limited to just the ways in which a person's judgments 622 hang together. According to Scanlon, "irrationality in the clearest sense occurs 623 when a person's attitudes fail to conform to his or her own judgments," and 624 that ordinary usage of the term 'irrational' does not suggest that disregarding 625 one's evidential reasons, or failing "to accept certain considerations as reasons" 626 is enough to make a belief irrational.<sup>35</sup> Now it is not entirely clear if Scanlon's 627 claim can be understood using our terminology of structural and substantive ra-628 tionality. Scanlon was writing before these categories were explicitly introduced, 629 though he later describes this distinction using the structural/substantive ter-630 minology.<sup>36</sup> If Scanlon has a different distinction in mind, then it may not 631 undermine the arguments of this paper. 632

633

But for the sake of argument, if it is true that failures of substantive rationality 634 cannot result in irrational beliefs, then this comes as a challenge to the thought 635 that both failures of structural and substantive rationality can render a belief 636 irrational. In order to argue his point, Scanlon considers two cases of a person 637 who believes, despite the scientific evidence to the contrary, in the reality of ex-638 trasensory perception. In the first case, the person does not accept the scientific 639 evidence, while in the second case, they judge that the scientific experiments 640 may undermine their belief in extrasensory perception: 641

642 Let us stipulate that the person who believes in extrasensory perception

is clearly mistaken; his conclusions violate the relevant standards of sta-

tistical reasoning and good scientific procedure. This alone does not seem

- to me to make these conclusions instances of irrationality. We might call
  - them irrational if certain further things were true: if, for example, the per-

 $<sup>^{34}</sup>$  Another, related objection is the worry that rationality is not normative (Kolodny, 2005). I do not consider this objection here because the **The Link** simply lays out what it would take to describe a belief as rational, leaving it open whether or not rationality is ultimately normative.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>35</sup>See Scanlon (1998), p. 25.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>36</sup>See Scanlon (2007), pp. 84-85.

son admitted that the established scientists' experiments would, if valid,

- count against [extrasensory perception], and admitted that he could see
- no flaw in the methods used, but still kept insisting that there must be
- some flaw, without being able to cite any reason for this conclusion.<sup>37</sup>

Here, Scanlon points out a crucial difference in the way that the believer in ex-651 trasensory perception processes counterevidence. In the first case, even though 652 they are aware of it, they might not judge that the scientific evidence under-653 mines their belief in extrasensory perception - a failure of what we have called 654 substantive rationality. In the second case, they might judge that the experi-655 mental evidence does count against their belief in extrasensory perception, but 656 neglect to change their belief structure because of this -a failure of structural 657 rationality. Scanlon thinks that only the second case is a clear instance of ir-658 rational belief, while the first "does not seem to me to make these conclusions 659 instances of irrationality." So let's consider the possibility that only structural 660 rationality can make one's belief irrational. 661

662

One way to respond to this view is to argue that it need not undermine the 663 position that we have staked out in this paper. Scanlon makes it clear that he 664 does not think that beliefs which fail to respect the evidence are fully rational. 665 It is just that, on Scanlon's view, we should "draw a distinction between an 666 attitude's being irrational and its being [...] open to rational criticism."<sup>38</sup> It 667 may be possible to accept all of this and leave **The Link** intact. After all, 668 the first conditional of **The Link** just says that, in order for a belief to be 669 fully rational, it must also be substantively rational. Based on what Scanlon 670 has said, it seems like he may be open to the possibility that beliefs that are 671 not substantively rational are also not fully rational, given that they still may 672 be open to rational criticism. This would allow that substantive rationality is 673 a dimension of rationality and that failures of substantive rationality can still 674 undermine the full rationality of one's beliefs. 675

676

Even though this may be enough to preserve **The Link** in the face of Scanlon's 677 views on irrationality, it seems to me that we can also go a step further. After 678 all, Scanlon says that his view "fits better with ordinary usage."<sup>39</sup> In order to 679 test if this account fits best with ordinary usage, a study was conducted with 680 50 participants via Amazon Mechanical Turk. All subjects were located in the 681 United States and had graduated from high school. Study participants were 682 first presented with the control case **Precipitation Prediction**, an example 683 where the belief in question was both structurally and substantively rational, 684 and asked whether Mary's belief p was rational. As displayed in Figure 4, 88% 685 of participants responded that her belief was rational, 10% responded that her 686 belief was irrational, and 2% responded that her belief was neither rational nor 687 irrational. Participants were then presented with **Southside Sluggers**, a case 688

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>37</sup>See Scanlon (1998), p. 26.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>38</sup>Ibid, p. 27.

 $<sup>^{39}</sup>$ Ibid, p. 25.

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of structural rationality but serious substantive irrationality, and asked whether Bill's belief r was rational. As seen in Figure 5, 78% of participants responded that his belief was irrational, 18% responded that his belief was neither rational nor irrational, and 4% responded that his belief was rational.





From the results of this study, we can see that our interpretation of Scanlon's 696 account, that only failures of structural rationality can make a belief irrational, 697 is not an accurate description of ordinary usage. On this view, because Bill's 698 belief r is structurally but not substantively rational, it is best described as 699 neither rational nor irrational. It is open to rational criticism, though not bad 700 enough to be dubbed 'irrational'. The majority of study participants, however, 701 were willing to call the belief irrational due to its serious lack of substantive 702 rationality, undermining the thought that failures of substantive rationality are 703 not enough to make a belief irrational. We, thus, have two ways of responding 704 to the challenge. On the one hand, we could incorporate our interpretation 705 of Scanlon's views in a way that is compatible with The Link, characterizing 706 beliefs that are not substantively rational as less than fully rational even though 707 they might not be positively irrational. On the other hand, we could also reject 708 the view altogether, appealing to the survey data here to argue that ordinary 709 usage suggests that glaring failures of substantive rationality is enough to make 710

711 a belief irrational.

### 712 5 RATIONAL BUT NOT JUSTIFIED?

Another concern someone might have about **The Link** is that it predicts that 713 some sentences should be contradictions when they are clearly not. Consider, 714 for example, a common claim by externalists about victims of global decep-715 tion. In cases where subjects might be trapped in the matrix or deceived by 716 an evil demon, internalists about justification tend to say that such victims are 717 nevertheless justified in their beliefs.<sup>40</sup> One route to answering this worry for 718 externalists is to concede that, though these victims may be rational in their 719 beliefs, they are nevertheless not justified.<sup>41</sup> Here, I am not concerned with 720 taking either the internalist or externalist side. Instead, I am concerned with 721 the externalist claim captured in (28): 722

(28) The beliefs of victims of global deception are rational but not justified

If The Link is correct, wouldn't we expect (28) to be a contradiction? After all, according to The Link, in order for a belief to be fully rational, it must also be justified, suggesting that there should be some tension in saying that a belief is both rational but not justified. So why does (28) not sound contradictory?

One way to avoid this worry would be told hold that 'rational' is an additive 729 rather than a conjunctive multidimensional adjective. When a multidimen-730 sional adjective is additive like our example 'healthy', then it can still be 731 possible to be healthy overall despite a failure along a particular dimension. 732 Even if my blood pressure is technically in the unhealthy range, I can still 733 qualify as healthy simpliciter if I am healthy along a sufficient number of other 734 dimensions. Likewise, it may be possible for a belief to be unjustified but for 735 it still to be rational overall if it is rational enough in a number of other ways, 736 preventing (28) from being contradictory. 737

738

A potential concern for this approach is that, even with additive multidimen-739 sional adjectives, a serious failing along any one dimension typically prevents 740 the application of the multidimensional adjective. If my cholesterol is extremely 741 high, putting me at imminent risk of heart attack, then I do not qualify as 742 healthy simpliciter even if I am healthy in a number of other ways. And if 743 we take externalism about justification to be correct, then the victims of the 744 matrix or the evil demon are seriously unjustified. Their beliefs about the 745 world are wildly inaccurate, making their failure of rationality a significant 746 one. In this case, even if 'rational' is an additive rather than a conjunctive 747 multidimensional adjective, then we would expect a conflict to arise from (28). 748 749

 $<sup>^{40}\</sup>mathrm{For}$  the original version of the new evil demon critique of process reliabilism, see Cohen (1984).

 $<sup>^{41}</sup>$  This sort of response to the new evil demon is endorsed by Bach (1985) and Lyons (2013), amongst others.

Nevertheless, even if 'rational' is a conjunctive multidimensional adjective, there
is still a strategy for making sense of sentences like (28) by appealing to dimensional specification. Thus far, we have picked out particular dimensions of multidimensional adjectives by using phrases such as "with respect to" or "in terms
of", but this is not the only way to limit the dimensions under consideration.
Consider, for instance, the following sentence:

#### <sup>756</sup> (29) The boxes are identical, but they are different colors

Because 'identical' is a conjunctive, multidimensional adjective, (29) falls under 757 the same criticism as (28). Shouldn't it be contradictory to say that two boxes 758 are identical but are different colors, since color is one of the dimensions of 759 being identical? Even though this might be a reasonable expectation, it turns 760 out that sentences like (28) and (29) can be used for dimensional specification. 761 If someone says (29), they communicate that, even though they are different 762 colors, the boxes are identical in terms of their other dimensions. The same 763 can be said to account for the non-contradictory nature of (28). Even though 764 being justified is part of what it is to be rational, we can nevertheless use (28) 765 to describe beliefs that satisfy only some of the dimensions of rationality. Now, 766 perhaps the externalist hypothesis is mistaken and victims of global deception 767 are both structurally and substantively rational, but regardless of whether ex-768 ternalists are right about justification, dimensional specification can explain why 769 a sentence like (28) can be used without contradiction. The important lesson 770 is that, when used with conjunctive, multidimensional adjectives, sentences like 771 (28) and (29) can be used to limit the dimensions under consideration, making 772 sentences acceptable that would otherwise appear to be contradictory. 773

#### 774 CONCLUSION

We started this essay with a couple of theories about the relationship between 775 rational and justified belief. The central question was whether rational belief 776 and justified belief are connected, and if they are, how exactly they are linked. 777 On one popular theory, rational and justified belief are identical, making it pos-778 sible to talk of rational belief and justified belief interchangeably. On a rival 779 view, rationality is only concerned with whether beliefs fit together in the right 780 way, while justification is focused on whether beliefs are supported by the evi-781 dence. In this paper, I have tried to shed light on what each of these theories 782 has going for it while also arguing that neither fully captures the relationship 783 between justification and rationality. Justification is a dimension of rationality. 784 explaining why rational belief involves more than just coherence, but fully ra-785 tional belief must be both substantively and structurally rational, showing why 786 'rational belief' and 'justified belief' are ultimately not synonymous. 787

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