ABSTRACT: In this paper, we consider one of the ways in which shared valuing is normatively significant. More specifically, we analyze the processes that can reliably provide normative grounding for the standing to rebuke others for their failures to treat something as valuable. Yet problems with grounding this normative standing quickly arise, as it is not immediately clear why shared valuing binds group members together in ways that can sustain the collective pursuit of shared ends. Responding to this difficulty is no easy task, since doing so requires demonstrating that the standing to call on one's fellow participants because of shared forms of valuing is not merely a side effect of members authority to call on their fellow participants to do their fair share in a collective endeavor. This is, to the best of our knowledge, a problem that the sparse literature on shared valuing has yet to consider. We argue that the best way to address this difficulty is to consider the real-world complexity of how forms of valuing come to be shared within well-structured collectives and how members internalize the evaluative tendencies that sustain shared valuing. To accomplish those ends, we examine two different ways that shared valuing is cultivated within well-structured groups and the corresponding ways that members internalize forms of valuing; specifically, we examine differences between forms of valuing that are passed downward from the top of a group, as they are in the U.S. Military, and forms of valuing that bubble-up through local patterns of interaction, as they do among the Zapatistas of Chiapas.
Sharing Values

Dr. Marcus Hedahl, U.S. Naval Academy
Dr. Bryce Huebner, Georgetown University

Claims about sharing values are common in contemporary political discourse: Democratic societies value freedom and equality; Americans value freedom from state interference in religion; The Marines value loyalty, fidelity, and faithfulness; the Teamsters value craft seniority; and the Zapatistas of Chiapas value indigenous practices of walking together. In each of these cases, people treat particular activities, entities, or practices as worthwhile or essential to what they do together. And in each of these cases, group members have the standing to demand compliance with the values they share, and to criticize one another for failures to act in accordance with these values. Marines take themselves to have privileged standing to criticize other Marine’s for acts of disloyalty, for example, and Zapatistas take themselves to have privileged standing to criticize other Zapatistas who fail to cultivate practices of dignity and community.

In this paper, we consider the ways in which valuing is shared, and we examine the reasons why shared valuing is normatively significant. In Section 1, we provide a brief sketch of Margaret Gilbert’s claim that shared valuing provides individuals with a distinctive standing to criticize one another for failures to live up to the values they share, and to demand compliance with those values. We think she is right to identify this standing as integral to shared valuing. We contend that this feature is, in fact, an essential element to shared valuing that calls for further justification: What could ground this standing to rebuke others for this failure? That is the central question we consider in this paper. We argue that there are cases where shared identities provide a conditional form of normative standing, even where people have not made explicit joint commitments to shared forms of valuing with one another. In Section 2, we then turn to cases where shared valuing plays a role in the pursuit of collective actions within collectives. Yet even in these more structured groups, problems with grounding the normative standing arise as it is unclear how shared valuing is actively produced and maintained in well-organized groups, and why shared valuing binds group members together in ways that can sustain the collective pursuit of shared ends. To do so, one must be able to distinguish the normative standing members possess because they share values from the standing they possess merely from engaging in collective activity together.

Responding to this difficulty is no easy task. It is, to the best of our knowledge, a problem that the sparse literature on sharing values has yet to consider; and, in fact, the problem itself might help explain the paucity of literature on sharing values in the first place. We believe the best way to respond is to consider the real-world complexity of how values come to be shared within well-structured collectives and how members internalize such values. So, in Section 3, we consider two different ways shared valuing is cultivated within well-structured groups, and the corresponding ways that members internalize forms of valuing; specifically, we examine differences between forms of valuing that are passed downward from the top of a group, as they are in the U.S. Military, and forms of valuing that bubble-up through local patterns of interaction, as they do among the Zapatistas of Chiapas. Our primary aim is to clarify the differences in normative standing to demand and criticize, and to highlight the factors that allow people to adopt values that are crafted by others, or to create communities where people share
values that remain genuinely their own. In light of these discussions, we close by considering how shared valuing can ground the motivation to act together.

§1 Shared valuing

When someone values an activity, an entity, or a practice, they treat it as something that is worth pursuing. They will also be motivated to act on that value; and when they fall short of their values, they will often experience feelings of discomfort. For example, valuing clarity in writing typically leads an author not only to view clear writing a certain way, but also to strive for clarity, and to feel uncomfortable when they learn that their paper is unclear. Similarly, valuing equality usually drives activists to challenge instances of perceived injustice, and to feel uncomfortable when they can’t make the world a better place. Furthermore, many values seem to be held in common. Shared valuing often seems to unify people, bind them together, and provide “them with the standing to intervene in one another’s lives” (Gilbert 2005, 45). But on the assumption that valuing requires an agent who treats activities, entities, or practices as worth pursuing, it becomes difficult to specify precisely what must be shared in contexts of shared valuing.¹

Margaret Gilbert (2005) identifies three frameworks for understanding what makes values shared: an aggregative framework, where a value is shared because most members of a collectivity possess it; a common knowledge framework, where a value is shared because most members of a collectivity possess it and are aware of that fact; and a joint commitment framework, where a value is shared if and only if the members of a plural subject jointly commit to it (Gilbert 2005, 27-33). She argues that both the aggregate framework and the common knowledge framework fail to explain the standing to demand compliance with and criticize one another for failures to live up to values that are shared.² After all, merely valuing the same things does not give people the standing to meddle in one another’s affairs, nor can simply being aware of valuing the same things (Gilbert 2005, 29-33). Consequently, the aggregate framework and the common knowledge framework fail to explain the distinctive standing that members possess to demand compliance with values that are shared, and to criticize one another for failures to live up to them. And this suggests that shared valuing involves some kind of normative relationship that is stronger than one bound by mere epistemology.

We believe that Gilbert (2005) has isolated a necessary condition of sharing values: the distinctive normative standing that members possess to demand compliance with values that are shared, and to criticize one another for failures to live up to them. And in the remainder of this paper, we shall assume that shared valuing requires a number of individuals who (1) treat something as valuable, and (2) possess the standing to call upon one another to treat that thing as valuable. Like Gilbert, we believe these elements to be essential to the activity of sharing values. Rather than repeat or supplement her arguments, however, our primary aim is to investigate the

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¹ Throughout this paper, we focus on the activity of ‘valuing’ and on the nature of ‘shared valuing’. This reflects the fact that valuing has the potential to normatively influence behavior. However, we will not attempt to distinguish valuing something from appreciating it or enjoying it, nor do we take a stand on whether valuing requires explicit or merely implicit endorsement. And we will remain agnostic about who can possess values (e.g., individuals, plural agents, or groups).

² The normative significance of the standing to demand compliance of others and to criticize their failures is an important domain of inquiry in its own right. While we assume that such standings exist, we remain agnostic about the normative significance of second-personal exchanges, and about the differences between these standings and obligations to generic members of the moral community. If a reader has a preferred analysis of these standings, we encourage them to assume it. For readers interested in this debate, see Darwall (2006); Thomson (1990); Wallace (2007); Kukla & Lance (2009); Gilbert (2000); [redacted for blind review].
grounding for the distinctive standing members possess to demand compliance with values that they share, and to criticize one another for failures to live up to these values. We believe Gilbert has argued persuasively against aggregative and common knowledge frameworks, and we will not look to further those arguments here. However, we are less sanguine about the possibility of providing necessary and sufficient conditions for shared valuing. We suspect that focusing on joint commitments and plural subjects—or on questions of ontology more generally—is likely to obscure some interesting forms of shared valuing.

Even if this skepticism is misplaced, we think that a framework like Gilbert’s must be supplemented with an account of how people come to have the standing to demand compliance with the values the share, and to criticize one another for failures to live up to such values. Whereas collective intentions will influence collective action, forms of shared valuing can exist without having such effects. In fact, valuing need not be associated with a collective actor or plural subject at all in order for people to have some standing to make demands of one another and to criticize noncompliance with forms of valuing that are shared. For example, committed liberals can sometimes criticize one another for failures to take free speech seriously, and academics can sometimes criticize one another for engaging in sloppy scholarship. Moreover, liberals are more likely to acknowledge criticisms from other liberals, and academics are more likely to acknowledge the criticisms of other academics. In these cases, the standing to engage in normative practices appears to derive from the fact that forms of valuing are shared by the members of these unstructured groups, even though they have not explicitly committed to one another to do so. So, the question remains: Under what conditions would individuals correctly come to treat one another as possessing this kind of normative standing?

In answering this question, we can draw upon a rapidly expanding consensus in cognitive science that motivationally salient evaluations are produced by error-driven learning mechanisms, which evolved to provide us with an intuitive sense of what we should want, and what we should pursue (Crockett 2013; Cushman 2013; [redacted for blind review]; Railton 2014; Seligman et al 2016). But what does it take for a form of valuing to be shared? To begin with, the members of a collectivity must be aware that other members value the things that they do, and they must be aware that others treat these values as a reason for action. This seems like a rather high bar to clear. However, the evaluative learning mechanisms that allow us to attune to risks, rewards, and opportunities also allow us to learn about dominant social norms, by treating conformity with in-groups as rewarding, and deviance as an error to be corrected (Klucharev et al 2009, 2011; Milgram & Sabini 1978; Montague 2006). Consequently, people will come to see themselves, and to see one another, as possessing the standing to demand compliance with forms of shared valuing; and this will be true even where such expectations and assumptions are not grounded in the kinds of joint commitments that yield group-based rights and duties. Those people who inhabit similar environments will tend to develop similar evaluative tendencies, while people who inhabit different environments will tend to develop at least some tendencies to value different kinds of things. But just as importantly, since people treat conformity with in-groups as valuable, they will come to expect that others who belong to the same collectivity will have the similar kinds of evaluative responses, and will treat them as worth pursuing. This point should seem obvious, but keeping it in mind helps to clarify a minimal way of sharing values, which is obscured by Gilbert’s focus on joint commitments.

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1 Thanks to an anonymous referee for pushing us to clarify this claim.
Consider the divergent values that have recently evoked disputes over land-use in Yellowstone National Park and the surrounding areas (The Economist 2015). Cattle ranchers who want to protect the safety and stability of their herd have clashed with ecologists who want to restore the ecological stability through the reintroduction of gray wolves as apex predators. Snowmobilers who want unfettered access to public roads have clashed with animal activists who are concerned with the negative impacts of noise and exhaust pollution on wildlife. And cattle ranchers who want to prevent the spread of brucellosis through their herd have clashed with environmentalists over the preservation of the roaming rights of the remaining herds of American bison. Valuing has a different character within each of these demographics, and these disputes are driven by conflicts over values, or differences in the weighting of particular values. Environmentalists and ecologists tend to privilege the values of ecological diversity and stability, favoring these values even when they conflict with the economic interests of cattle ranchers, or with the snowmobilers’ interests in access to public space. Animal activists typically privilege the value of animal welfare and the preservation of natural habitats. And ranchers and snowmobilers tend to privilege the value of liberty, property rights, and access to public lands; as a result, they are often suspicious of interventions by the federal government and environmentalists, who are generally regarded as intruders imposing their own values from the outside of a closed community (Farrell 2015: 108-113).

Where valuing is shared in this way, background regularities play a critical role in its structure. Ranchers raise cattle under varying economic conditions, with varying levels of access to common resources, so they tend to converge on values that will sustain their livelihood. Likewise, snowmobilers are not drawn to the sport because they value access to public lands, but those values emerge because they need wide open spaces to enjoy their chosen hobby. This allows ways of valuing things to become pervasive within in a social group, while still leaving some room for individual differences in valuing. A rancher could abandon their resistance to gray wolves without ceasing to be a rancher, for example. And where this happens, others need not, and are not likely to follow their lead. Similarly, environmentalists and ranchers alike can dismiss an environmentalist rancher as a statistical anomaly, without altering their understanding of what it means to be a rancher.

These forms of shared valuing are not, however, merely epiphenomenal, nor are they simply matters of aggregating individual states. The locus of the valuing is the individual, but the content of their values is socially crafted. To begin with, anomalous forms of valuing can affect the distribution of values, as people begin to see new ways of valuing as available alternatives (compare Shotwell 2009; Bicchieri 2016). And through a process of social diffusion, this kind of process can eventually cause shifts in the prevalence and distribution of individual values. As cultural learners we tend to preferentially imitate in-group members whose beliefs are backed up by ‘credibility enhancing displays’; and, when the people who belong to the same groups or demographics as us dedicate time and effort to acting in accordance with particular values, we tend to see their behavior as an honest signal that we should value these things as well (Henrich 2009; Norenzayan & Gervais 2013). So, while one can engage in ranching without sharing values with other ranchers and while one can even repeatedly partake in the relevant activities without endorsing the values of other ranchers, when ranching becomes part of a person’s identity, it shapes the sharing of values with other ranchers. For someone who identifies as a rancher, it is possible to reject any particular value that is typically possessed by ranchers, but it is difficult—and perhaps impossible—to reject all ranching values while maintaining this identity.

This kind of shared valuing opens space for a minimal sort of normative authority: ranchers can call upon one another qua ranchers to be responsive to values that are shared by
fellow ranchers. The normative force of such calls will derive primarily from attempts to maintain one’s practical identity (Doris 2015). But this form of shared valuing can shape social practices, affect individual patterns of action and deliberation, and frame the way that members of particular demographics perceive salient features of the world. It does so by guiding the behavior of group members qua group members (cf., Phelan, Arico, & Nichols 2013; Ludwig 2017). And while such values are shared in the absence of a collective actor, individuals with similar identities possess some standing to demand compliance, and to criticize failures, because they give one another the normative power to hold one another in their identities. The standing to make demands and to criticize in this way is conditional. A rancher will only have this normative standing if other ranchers see them as members of their demographic. Put differently, where people see one another as sources of shared knowledge and shared understanding, they can confer standing on one another to shape a shared identity. Unlike more familiar cases where an agent’s identity exerts normative force on only their own actions, the normative force inherent in a social identity has an other-directing component. Fellow snowmobilers, ranchers, or environmentalists have authority over what the constitutive values are for snowmobilers, ranchers, or environmentalists. Together, the members of these loosely aggregated groups constitute these social identities, and together they can shape what they want this identity to be. The demand to comply with values will thereby misfire only if the value is not actually held by the target agent or if the values, while common between the agent demanding compliance and the target of that demand, are not a part of a identity they have in common. And this fact allows the sharing of values to take on a life of their own.

As a result, changes in background conditions can influence the values that individuals possess, and endorsing values as shared can reinforce one’s identity as a group member (cf., Bicchieri 2016). Once in place, such values can provide structure for future activities. So even values that are shared in this modest way can come to have a greater significance than analogous individual values. Assumptions about such values can play a significant role in the coordination of many kinds of individual behavior, as well as the allocation of common pool resources. And where values are likely to diverge, a better understanding of these values can sometimes foster increased empathy in political debates, as well as more successful concessions across divergent demographics. Finally, because we attune to the behaviors of people around us, these values can influence background regularities rather than merely being influenced by them. By acting in ways that converge with the actions of other group members, we therefore drive the entrenchment of these values and increase their pervasiveness; and this pattern of reinforcement can make it harder to diverge from the expression of such values. Recognizing this fact demonstrates a limitation of overly restrictive analysis of sharing values: they obscure the importance of values that can be shared in the absence of a collective agent.

Just as importantly, because such values arise in the absence of any structured collective action, and since the individual remains the sole and only possible locus of valuation, such values are difficult to revise. The only way to change them is by modifying the structural conditions that give rise to them, or by generating a large-scale shift among the individuals that happen to share them. Unfortunately, the patterns of reciprocal feedback between individual values and structural regularities make such changes exceedingly unlikely. This can be a problem when morally troubling values are inculcated in large groups that lack a central decision making procedure, and this problem can become exacerbated when such values become more ingrained within individuals because they are shared with others. This suggests that such values are more than mere aggregates of individual values, and they have a force that is more robust than would come about as a result of common knowledge.
§2 Shared valuing and acting together

As we have argued thus far, there are good reasons to expand the scope of sharing values beyond cases involving joint commitments and collective intentional actors. Nonetheless, as we argue in this section, the organizational structure of a group often generates further normative expectations through norms of constitutive membership. Members of a group decide to punish patterns of deviance from the values they share, either by engaging in forms of active social shaming, or by excluding those who fail to give uptake to those values. These factors allow the sharing of values to play a constitutive role in guiding the behavior of individuals qua group members. And as long as a group continues to view something as a constitutive value of group membership, sanctions are likely to play an important role in coordinating collective decision making, and sustaining the norms governing membership (Henrich & Boyd 2001). Yet, we argue that any analysis of sharing values must acknowledge that it is often unclear what people share when they are sharing values, and that this vagueness always threatens to undermine the standing to rebuke or to make demands of one another. Appeals to joint commitments by themselves thus tell us little about the distinctive standing to demand compliance with and criticize one another for failures to live up to values that are shared; and in many cases, this standing seems to arise in ways that don’t depend, in any significant way, on the presence of joint commitments.

To begin with, shared valuing can be tightly coupled to a group’s identity, and can thereby frame potential courses of collective action. For example, when a diversity committee is convened at a university, we should be able to predict with a high degree of certainty that the members of this committee will see the value of curricular diversity as essential to group membership. Such predictions should also be highly robust, as people who abandon this value should be unlikely to remain as members of this committee, and the centrality of this value to group membership should explain why new members will generally share it. Patterns of interpersonal feedback and criticism that are established by the orienting goals and values of this committee should make it difficult to modify this value without radically changing the nature of the group, or perhaps even dissolving it.

Shared valuing can also influence collective action more directly. Consider, for example, an academic department that values intellectual and ideological diversity (redacted for blind review). Each department member might research different cultural traditions, develop strategies for making their courses less colonialis, and discuss their discipline with people who have been trained outside of the Anglo-European tradition. These values may then ground individual practices of syllabus design and affect individual teaching strategies. But to be the values of the department, and not just the values of individual faculty members, these values must also influence, and be influenced by, department-relevant decisions that are not straightforwardly reducible to the decisions of individual group members (cf., List & Pettit 2011). This can occur either because department members expect one another to make particular kinds of decisions, or because people who deviate from shared practices are excluded from future decision making. But once these values are in place, they could underwrite hiring plans as well as course offerings, and their impact will play an ongoing role in shaping the department. For example, job candidates will have to evaluate their willingness to adopt this value, treat as a reason for acting, and perhaps even abandon antecedent conflicting values. And this will be because the collective’s valuing its intellectual and ideological diversity influences its collective actions.

Forms of value-shaping can also occur in ways that affect dynamic patterns of collective action. For example, a roller derby team might decide to value defensive fundamentals above all
else. The coaches on this team might influence the team’s behavior by taking these values into account as they create practice agendas, provide feedback to skaters, and create competitive lineups. As a result, individual skaters will internalize values that privilege defensive fundamentals. Once the prevalence of these new values became common knowledge, the members of the team would adjust their priorities in light of the values of their teammates. Through the endorsement of these values, group members will begin to play a more robust role in stabilizing the values that guide joint-activities. As a result, the psychological pressures to preserve interpersonal consistency will increase in ways that sustain forms of means-end coherence that are structured around group-relevant activities (Bratman 2014; Pacherie 2012). Valuing can thus become shared because of the role it takes in the guidance of team behavior. On a more individualized level, this might mean that team members reliably privilege shared forms of valuing when considering individual team-related behavior, such as whether to spend a free night devoted to their fitness, focusing on their skating skills, or watching footage of future opponents. But more robustly, such values can also influence how the team practices, what plays are called, and how team members play together in ways that are responsive to real-time variations on the track (This difference becomes particularly salient in this example, since roller derby is one of the only sports where both teams play offense and defense simultaneously). The upshot is that sharing values in this way can often provide normative standards against which individuals calibrate their own patterns of valuing and they can thereby influence both individual and collective action. And members thereby possess the ability to demand compliance with shared forms of valuing, and to criticize one another for failures to live up to them.

Unfortunately, a problem emerges in these cases: In accounting for the distinctive kinds of normative standing that emerge through the sharing of values, one must be able to demonstrate that the standing to call on one’s fellow participants because of shared forms of valuing is not merely a side effect of members calling on their fellow participants to do their fair share. After all, acting within a well-structured collective generates robust duties to fellow participants, even in cases where group members do not share values (Gilbert 2000; Rawls 1999). Sometimes the standing to demand compliance with the values we share thereby takes on an instrumental character: Participants in a collective endeavor may call upon one another to live up to a shared value, but the sharing of values does not ground the normative standing to demand compliance and to criticize noncompliance. If participants in a collective endeavor are to possess the standing to make demands of one another and to criticize one another because of the values they share, there must be some further reason why it is inapt to reject or dismiss such a call.

That reason cannot merely be that participants have jointly committed to valuing something together, because it is often unclear precisely what people share when they share values, and this vagueness threatens to undermine the standing people possess to make demands of one another, and to criticize one another. This worry is most pronounced where values are shared in the absence of joint commitments. But even when there are explicit commitments to sharing values within a well-structured collective acting together, demands can often be met with replies that undercut the normative force of calls to act in accordance with shared forms of valuing. For example, it is almost always possible to say, “I am committed to our shared goal, and I value the same ends as you—but not in a way that requires that action.” The questions in these cases are about what precisely they have committed to valuing together, and what doing so requires. Gilbert’s framework grounded on joint commitments thus risks misidentifying the source of the normative standing to make demands and to criticize one another. It cannot just be the commitment, as calls to act in accordance with shared forms of valuing are often a way for members to specify precisely what they valuing. Whatever standing people possess with respect to
shared forms of valuing will depend upon the particular way in which a value has become internalized over time, and the means of internalizing that value must ensure that people share the same form of valuing, in the same way.

Responding to this difficulty is no easy task, but we believe the best way to do so is to consider the real-world complexity of how shared forms of valuing emerge within well-structured collectives, and how members come to internalize forms of valuing. It is in exploring those questions, we contend, that the theoretical and empirical complexities of sharing values begin to emerge, complexities that are generally ignored when the ontologically-laden shared values or collective values are treated as the theoretical equivalent of collective intentions or collective interests. Doing so highlights considerations of etiology that are under-explored in attempts to specify generic, theoretical conditions that must be met in order for a value to be held by a collective rather than by individuals. We thus turn to questions about the ways in which values can be internalized over time, and we argue that this provides insights about what is required for sharing—rather than shared—values.

§3 Etiology and normative status

To develop an understanding of a more robust kind of standing that group members have to make demands of one another, and to criticize on another for failing to abide by values that are shared, it will be useful to turn to a deeper examination of different strategies for producing and propagating ways of valuing within a group. Doing so demonstrates how the sharing of values grounds the distinctive standing that members possess to demand compliance with shared forms of valuing, and to criticize one another for failures to live up to them—in short, it’s because these values are the result of collectively significant interactions that are internalized over time, and not the outcome of a singular normatively significant action. This approach also sheds new light on the ways that values can become internalized and revised by the members of well-structured groups. So, in this section, we consider two paradigmatic ways for values to be shaped and shared. The first is exemplified by the U.S. Military, where values that are adopted by a leader or leaders (e.g., the department head, the college dean, or the provost) are passed down to group members through centrally organized patterns of training and criticism. The second is exemplified by the Zapatistas of Chiapas, who rely on forms of interpersonal communication, criticism, and mutual adjustment to entrench new values through forms of social learning. Obviously, these strategies are not mutually exclusive, and any real world group will use both strategies to greater or lesser extents. Nonetheless, to clarify how shared forms of valuing emerge and become stable, it is useful to consider a somewhat idealized version of each approach.

3.1 Top-down control over values: The U.S. military

There is perhaps no better example of how values are propagated in a hierarchically organized, top-down structure than the U.S. Military. In fact, there are very few institutions that talk about values as much as military organizations. To cite just a few examples, West Point preaches “Duty, Honor, Country” (Ambrose 1999); the U.S. Army has codified the values of “Loyalty, Duty, Respect, Selfless Service, Honor, Integrity, and Personal Courage” (Kusch 2011); the U.S. Navy proclaims core values of “Honor, Courage, and Commitment” (Core Values Charter 2007); the U.S. Air Force has instantiated the core values of “Integrity first, Service before self, and Excellence in all we do” (Little Blue Book 1997); and perhaps most
famously of all, the Marine motto “Semper Fidelis” [always faithful] expresses a shared value as well.

Service members share some forms of valuing only minimally, at least initially. For example, people in the military tend to value things like honesty and integrity. Perhaps unsurprisingly, the possession of these values is not entirely contingent. The military focuses recruitment efforts on individuals that antecedently possess these values, as military missions often require actions that align with these values. But more importantly, the military stresses the significance of these values in the forms of drilling, training, and explicit evaluative education in which service members take part. These forms of valuing are set out explicitly, and passed downward through forms of training and teaching, a fact that allows new recruits to rapidly and reliably acquire evaluative capacities that can play a role in coordinating behavior in situations that induce high levels of stress and enormous cognitive loads. Since we tend to act habitually in situations of high stress and high cognitive load, these deeply entrenched forms of evaluative cognition must be generated to sustain high-stress forms of coordination and cooperation (Crockett 2013; Schwabe & Wolf 2013). Furthermore, habits that would prove problematic in these situations must be overwritten, so training must occur in a way that prevents the trainees from backsliding into previously accepted forms of valuing. Whatever one thinks about the flaws of the training that one finds in the U.S. Military, it provides one of the few examples of a highly controlled environment where values can successfully be inculcated into group members in a rapid and reliable fashion.

Sharing values often displays another collective aspect when those values are contravened. In recent memory, for example, Army Brigadier General Jeffrey Sinclair was accused of sexual assaulting a subordinate and threatening to kill her (Zucchino 2014), a contractor in Southeast Asia bribed scores of Naval Officers in order to increase his own business interest (Whitlock 2016), and Air Force missiliers were caught texting each other answers to proficiency exams (Cooper 2014). After such incidents, individuals are held accountable for their misdeeds, and leadership typically promises a re-dedication to sharing values and ethics (Wong & Gerrus 2015). This re-dedication often takes the form of an increased focus on rectifying the deficiencies of individual moral values, through shifts in patterns of recruitment, retention, and training. In light of our arguments above, the reason for this should be clear: The military takes these failures to reveal problems with individually-held, but nonetheless shared forms of valuing.

Where the relevant values are lacking, this reveals either an individual failure, or a failure of the training regimen that should have cultivated the appropriate values. And with values like honesty, fidelity, and commitment, the U.S. military acts to manage the possession of these individual values from the top-down. Perhaps ironically, doing so makes sharing these values more collective, as values are further shaped by the collective practices in which they operate. While honesty and fidelity are values typically possessed by individual members of the military, they are nonetheless intentionally cultivated, shaped, and entrenched through a training program that is subject to group level pressures; and this is significant, as these training programs can be altered when empirical evidence indicates that members aren’t acting in accordance with those forms of valuing. As the military tries to assess training programs and alter them to properly inculcate the desired results, forms of valuing become integrated into ongoing collective efforts, and thereby become more actively shared.

For three mutually reinforcing reasons, the response to the contravening of these values also demonstrates a more robust form of shared valuing. First, the fact that an agent can feel the force of correction for deviation from a shared value demonstrates that they possess it. But this is not a matter of sheer conformity; where people are working together to cultivate values that are
shared, reminders of how actions undercut these values can be a powerful and productive force; so long as we see each other as cooperative partners, this form of ‘calling in’ can help us to adjust our behavior in light of shared goals or values (cf., Tràń 2016). Second, actions that pull an agent away from sharing a value are typically experienced first personally as a wrong to be corrected by shifting one’s own behavior, rather than by changing the structure of the group. Finally, more actively sharing values is generally tied to the group’s larger aims; so where revision does occur, it is because the members of a group are trying to shape their actions in accordance with the values and interests that they share qua group member.

In the case of the U.S. military, these forms of valuing become even more robustly shared when leadership takes an interest in shaping background conditions so that individual actions are more likely to be aligned with the values they share. Consider, for example, difficulties with Iraqi Security Forces as U.S. forces have tried to transition out of that country. While the exact number of desertions, defections, and outright refusals to fight remains unclear, there are several documented cases where thousands of Iraqi Security Personnel either refused to fight or abandoned their post (e.g., in the Battle for Bashra in 2008 (Cordsmen & Mausner 2009, 24) and fights with Daesh forces in Mosul in 2014 (Fahim and Al-Salhy 2014)). Regardless of whether the problem involves some deficiency of individual virtue, it would be incredibly shortsighted of leaders not to seek out the systemic conditions that made such displays more likely. In fact, in the wake of these incidents, military leaders concluded that it is almost impossible to separate questions about individual courage and fidelity from questions about planning, training, leadership, and the background conditions in which courage and fidelity must be displayed (Cordsmen and Mausner 2009, 25-26). The valuing of courage is thereby more robustly shared because failures lead not only to a change in training and recruitment, but also a change in collective behavior in an attempt to make such failures less frequent.

Finally, the sharing of values can become fully collective when top-down structural mechanisms make collective action in alignment with values more likely. The structural mechanisms that guide and sustain the valuing of strategic thinking serve as a great example on this score. Individuals are responsible for knowledge of doctrine and for valuing strategy; and individual service members are routinely reminded of the importance of the knowing doctrine and precepts of strategy. In the United States, for instance, both are stressed heavily as part of the education at Senior Service Schools (Joint Pub 1 2013). In addition, however, there are structural requirements that ensure that the organization itself will possess these values. In large military bureaucracies, the ability to align individual actions with the overarching strategy and doctrine is paramount. Military doctrine thereby explicitly requires strategic thinking that is integrated with, and unified across, individual actors as well as across different subgroups within the larger collective endeavor (JP 3-0 1-8).

3.2 Bottom-up control over values: El Movimiento Zapatista

While there is a military presence among the Zapatistas of Chiapas, their theoretical and practical orientation towards values couldn’t be more different from what we find in the US Military. There is perhaps no better example of how values are propagated upward in a decentralized system than we find among the Zapatistas. They rely upon radically democratic processes to cultivate and entrench a robust sharing of values that is continually reinforced through patterns of mutual aid and mutual support (Starr et al 2011, 103). Generally, the Zapatistas see themselves as participants in a shared struggle to entrench the sharing of values through democratic practices that require consulting everyone who is affected by a decision or a
policy (Marcos 1996a/2001, 118). And over the past twenty years, they have developed a relational understanding of autonomy, grounded in the expression of dignity (Holloway 1998; Lynd & Grubacic 2008; Mora 2003).

Among the Zapatistas, valuing dignity is something that is learned through practices of democratic engagement, and through forms of prefigurative practice designed to decolonialize individual psychologies, and to entrench novel forms of self-respect that help them (individually and collectively) to see one another as normative equals (Harvey 2016; Marcos 1995/2001, 269). The key thing to notice, here, is the bi-directional flow of information between democratic practices and the valuing of dignity: neither can exist without the other, and each sustains the possibility of the other. While individuals value dignity, this sustains collective practices, and the resulting collective practices are grounded on the pursuit of social equality and the cultivation of deep ways of sharing goals and values. As with the case of honesty and integrity among members of the US military, the valuing of dignity is able to be internalized because it is grounded in shared background assumptions, as well as locally prevalent normative practices. But valuing dignity is not something that can be studied abstractly, “you live it or it dies, it aches inside you and teaches you how to walk” (Marcos 1995/2001, 269). This happens through a process of social learning and internalization. In attempting to characterize this process, Subcomandante Marcos (1996b/2001, 11) asks us to imagine a woman who “struggles for democracy, liberty and justice, the same as the Zapatistas” but who is not yet recognized—by herself or by anyone else—as a Zapatista; day after day, she struggles for equality and dignity within her family and her culture. Her struggle is her own. But as she struggles, she eventually sees that the Zapatista’s value the things that she does, and she begins to see the significance of sharing values with them (Marcos 1996b/2001, 11). Importantly, sharing values in this way does not require the emergence of new values—by recognizing the sharing of values, and by recognizing that she is part of a shared struggle against structural exclusion and marginalization, she comes to see the Zapatista movement as a “mirror of her rebellion, of her hope” (Marcos 1996b/2001, 11).

The sharing of Zapatista values is, however, typically managed by communal forms of social control, mutual support, and mutual aid. The core mechanism for the cultivation of sharing values derives from the sense that other Zapatistas are to be trusted, as they share similar values and commitments (Starr et al 2011, 114). And within these groups where members trust one another and listen to one another, backward-looking forms of punishment have been replaced with forward-looking forms of sanction that serve to deepen, rather than compromise group membership. Put differently, they retain the communicative and exhortative function of blame as constitutive of forward-looking practices of behavior-shaping and value-shaping; but they set aside the appraisal functions of blame that tend to dominate contemporary liberal approaches to responsibility (cf. Zheng 2016). Consequently, even the most robust forms of punishment are designed to highlight the shared valuing of equality and dignity. ‘Punishment’ typically takes the form of increased contributions to the community (e.g., by planting trees, building schools, or working on material infrastructure that is necessary for community flourishing); and these forms of ‘punishment’ are temporary and followed by a full return to community membership without a criminal record (though in extreme cases, permanent expulsion from the community can occur; see Starr et al 2011, 106).

Like the top-down control over values by the military, this form of bottom-up control can yield highly robust ways of sharing values. Moreover, the democratic cultivation of these values appears to foster a deep feeling of ownership over the values that are shared (Cuninghame & Corona 1998; Esteva 1999). The reason for this is simple. The Zapatistas engage in practices that are designed to shift the relevant background regularities in ways that inculcate the valuing of
equality and democracy. A process of social learning, based on patterns of feedback between individual values and collective practices, then allows individual Zapatistas to recognize that they have a right to create a better world together with other Zapatistas, by struggling to entrench shared ideals of democracy, liberty, and justice. Across a variety of interactions, ranging from escuelita to public communiques, from local deliberations to interactions with the Mexican government, the Zapatistas strive to cultivate the values of dignity and equality, as well as a corresponding willingness to listen to others, all of which makes this kind of social learning possible (Lynd & Grubacic 2008). In fact, they frequently argue that these values are the only plausible foundation upon which democratic practices can be built (Cuninghame & Corona 1998). Sharing values helps to undergird these practices, and it is explicitly understood as constitutive of group membership, even though the specification of values—i.e. what it means to respect dignity and equality—always emerges from the bottom and percolates up through patterns of mutual engagement to yield patterns of ongoing and coordinated activity. In each case, the sharing of values emerges from a desire to maintain local control over available resources, and to do so in ways that unseat neoliberal ideology (Esteva 1999).

3.3 Changing values

Despite numerous differences in the kinds of valuing that we find in the U.S. Military and the kinds of valuing that arise among the Zapatistas, we contend that the conditions under which novel values emerge are similar in these groups. As we argued earlier the groups to which we belong often provide us with reasons to value particular things; and the groups to which we belong often provide an environment where we can cultivate novel ways to share values. In each of these cases, shared valuing builds upon a foundation of existing patterns of evaluative reasoning. And in each case, a form of social learning operates through feedback relations. In light of the considerations we have raised thus far, we suggest that changing values generally requires: 1) a foundation to build upon (e.g., antecedently shared goals, interests, or activities), 2) a way of discovering points where new values should be cultivated, and 3) a method for integrating new values into ongoing group behavior. Unsurprisingly, differently structured groups tend to satisfy these constraints in different ways.

As the Zapatista movement has evolved, for instance, it has had to adapt to changes in the economic and political landscape of Mexico that would have been unpredictable when the movement went public in 1994. The Zapatistas have constantly worked to find novel ways of sustaining local forms of power and challenging the psychological and social forces that entrench neoliberal attitudes (Harvey 2016). We see this most explicitly in the ongoing attempts to foster robust forms of democratic control over shared practices. Attendance at community consultations is compulsory, and participation in community governance rotates through the community (Starr et al 2011, 113). Since everyone plays a role in shared decision-making at every level, community members come to understand precisely what is at stake in ongoing self-governance. Consequently, the bottom-up strategies for evaluative learning that we find among the Zapatistas allow for enhanced feelings of ownership over new values that are adopted, and it increases sensitivity to local patterns of variation. Everyone feels like group decisions are their own; and by cultivating deeply democratic values, the Zapatistas have opened up space for a process of social learning through emergent consensus.

Through processes of mutual deliberation, the Zapatistas continually enhance values in light of the specific needs and interests of particular community members (this is why it is hard to pin down specific Zapatista values beyond dignity and equality: their more specific values are
constantly changing). This is possible in part because Zapatistas value listening to one another, and they work to cultivate observable tendencies to listen to one another in public deliberations (Starr et al 2011, 108). Where disagreements arise, most of us try to call attention to the mistakes others have made, or to the errors in their assumptions. Familiarly, this practice often backfires, generating forms of gridlock that become insuperable because of divergent values (the cases we discuss in Section 1 are paradigmatic examples of this phenomenon). The Zapatistas provide an alternative practice for navigating evaluative disagreements, yielding a form of value-shaping that allows group members to move past initial disagreements, and toward shared commitments that can underwrite the guidance of shared actions. Drawing on resources from liberation theology (Freire 1970), and from practices of walking together in struggle (Lynd 2012), they suggest that evaluative learning should always proceed by 1) listening, 2) getting clear about why others value the things that they do, and 3) coming to a shared understanding of why others have the concerns that matter to them. This process requires treating others as normative equals, with equal power, and with their own experiences that can shed light on shared problems and shared commitments. And significantly, discussions made in this context can often open up possibilities that were not previously acknowledged (redacted for blind review). The reason for this is simple: This context provides a firm foundation for constructing and maintaining values that are consistent with the needs and interests of everyone involved. Where this process is successful, it can create shared forms of valuing that are novel and sensitive to the diversity of previously operative values.

Top-down hierarchical structures like those found in the US Military, by contrast, allow for more rapid and targeted forms of control over the revision, interpretation, and specification of shared forms of valuing. Since each decision about sharing values is made by a person (or a small group of people) in a position of power, there is substantially less variation regarding the values that are to be pursued, as well as less variation in judgments about how to implement the cultivation of these values. Moreover, since revisions are guided by centralized decisions, they can be made without recourse to local patterns of variation that might otherwise stand in the way of instituting new values. Consequently, in this context, shared valuing can, and often does, change quickly when that becomes necessary.

Consider the policy transition that took place after two decades of ‘Don’t ask, don’t tell’ (DADT). DADT was the official U.S. military policy from 1994 to 2011 regarding service by gay, lesbian, and bisexual personal. The policy ended the military’s previous practice of requiring (on penalty of perjury) incoming service members to affirm they were not gay, lesbian, or bisexual, but did not allow them to do anything that would affirm the fact that they were, in fact, gay, lesbian, or bisexual. The repeal of DADT involved a large-scale change in valuing, an acceptance of behavior that had been banned, and a move away from the temporary—and at the time novel—value that DADT had put in place: that a military member’s personal life was not the concern of her fellow service members. Despite significant concerns—Senator John McCain famously worried about the grave damage to the morale and readiness of U.S. forces—the repeal of this policy is now viewed by many, including many who were opposed to the decision, as a near non-event with no impact on readiness or overall morale (Belkin et al 2012, 10-14). Indeed, many officers report that removing DADT has helped them to better ensure troop readiness because Commanders had felt reticent to ask personal questions, lest they learn something they would have to report (Belkin et al 2012, 14-15).

The reason the change (once it was finally implemented) was so seamless lies partly with the fact that these new values were revised from the top-down, and integrated with existing, and widely-accepted forms of shared valuing. In the Marine Corps, for example, the policy change
was accompanied by a message from the Commandant General Amos, which placed these values within a larger framework antecedently embraced by Marines: “As we implement repeal, I want all leaders at all levels to reemphasize the importance of maintaining dignity and respect for one another throughout our force. We are Marines. We care for and respect all those who wear this uniform” (emphasis original) (O’Keefe 2011). Importantly, this was not merely an assertion made from the top, the change was immediately coordinated into training and education, which were designed to entrench the change of shared valuing within the membership. Indeed, there is no way that such a change in shared valuing could be so broad in scope and so immediate were it not driven from the top-down, placed within a larger set of previously accepted values, and incorporated into training and education. As a Navy SEAL who personally opposed repeal put it: “We’re professionals; we’ll do what we’ve done in the past” (Belkin et al 2012, 12). While many expected the change to be massively divisive, it was, for all intents and purposes, a non-event. By placing this change in values within the broader existing structure of shared valuing, leaders were successful more often than not in ensuring that even if members rejected the reasoning of the change in values qua individual, they accepted it as it was presented to them: qua Marine, qua soldier, etc.

While the differences between these groups are significant, the similarities in how values are modified is even more striking. Perhaps most importantly, in both cases, particular values are modified against a background of consistent, accepted values. Both groups thereby found a way to carry out forms of creative adaptation, which allowed them to move forward and to develop new ways of being Zapatistas and new ways of being Marines. The results involve shifts in which normative expectations are perceived as legitimate by the members of the groups themselves (cf., Andrichetto et al 2015). Direct forms of sanction by peers may sometimes play a role in evoking such changes, but direct punishment is surprisingly rare in real-world groups (Guala, 2012). It is more likely that changes like these arise as group members form evaluative expectations about what other group members value, or what the group itself believes to be worth pursuing. The Zapatistas strive to cultivate a situation where the evaluative expectations of other Zapatistas are immediately perceived as legitimate, and as worth attending to. As a result, points of evaluative consensus become sources of new values. Members of the military tend to perceive military policy, as well as the evaluative expectations of commanding officers, as legitimate. As a result, they find it easier to accept top-down commands as grounds for evaluative revision. In both cases, these changes are placed within the context of shared valuing, and the changes are advanced as useful—perhaps, in some cases, even necessary—for the continued success of the collective endeavors in which members are engaged together.

§4 The normative significance of shared valuing

Both of the strategies for cultivating and sharing values also have distinctive limitations. While the analogy is far from perfect, the structure of these limitations can be clarified by examining parallels to research on team-reasoning and cooperation, as some critics of standard decision-theory have argued that the most plausible solutions to such coordination problems is to be found in team-based forms of reasoning. The basic idea is simple: When individuals reason as team members, they consider the coordinated set of actions that would bring about a team’s goal, and they see themselves as making a contribution against this frame (Gold 2012). There are many ways of specifying the details of this hypothesis, but in each case, the assumption is that coordination arises because participants see themselves as participants in a shared project; they see the group’s ends in some way driving each individual’s ends (c.f., Bacharach 2006; Sugden
2003). We believe that something similar often drives the sharing of values. Considering questions about sharing values from this perspective is significant in its own right, as it helps to shift the discussion from questions about what shared forms of valuing are to questions about what they ought to be, given our collective ends. But we believe that doing so also leads to further insights about the nature and status of sharing values, questions that we pursue in this final section.

This analogy to team-reasoning will be more limited, however, when values are passed down from the top of a group. After all, what is valued is, almost by definition, decided by a few people. These people are often separated from the larger set of a group’s membership, and this yields several related concerns about the content of novel values. To begin with, we cannot assume that a leader will always choose the appropriate values, in whatever way one might want to disambiguate the term ‘appropriate’. In some cases, the values may be objectively questionable or suboptimal; but more likely, they may simply be inappropriate given the group’s larger aims and interests (compare Hayek 1945; Kropotkin 1995; Trotsky 1935). Often, a group’s leaders will be unaware of how its membership will respond to a particular change in values; and often their information will be out of date by the time they make their decisions about what should be done. This ignorance could, in extreme cases, lead to leaders choosing values that are not appropriately situated for members within the set of existing shared forms of valuing, thereby leading to shirking of collective associative responsibilities by those lower in the hierarchical structure, a state of affairs that can ironically lead to a breakdown in the very structures that changes in values were meant to protect (Feaver 2005).

Top-down sharing of values also requires robust patterns of drilling and training to ensure that group-relevant values will continue to be sufficiently central that they are not overridden by contrasting individual values. But we cannot assume that the patterns of drilling and training will generate the precise tendencies to value that are required. This drawback is perhaps less pronounced in well-structured, hierarchical groups. Even here, however, resource limitations quickly place limits on the ability for values to be altered from the top-down. There are current cases in the Navy, for instance, where individual sailors may be required to fulfill as many as 1500 hours of mandatory training per year (Commander 2012). Unsurprisingly, in such an environment, training is often marked as “completed” without actually inculcating any new patterns of behavior (Wong & Gerras 2015). (To cite one particularly striking example, one of the authors of this article may or may not have written this sentence while undergoing required Operational Security training). Top-down sharing of values also faces difficulties when it comes to ensuring that patterns of interpersonal correction will generate tendencies to value that accord with the needs and interests of the group. This limitation derives, in part, from the fact that individuals who share evaluative commitments are likely to make similar mistakes and to correct one another in ways that push them back toward values that they were trying to overcome. But just as significantly, group membership is rarely pervasive in the lives of group members, and conflicting forms of evaluative learning will often lead to forms of evaluative backsliding, with no stable mechanism to push members back toward the value they are aiming to cultivate. In short, it is difficult to guarantee that top-down signals for valuing will be taken up and internalized deeply enough to prevent I-framed valuing from dominating decision-making.

These points of failure are precisely the points where bottom-up cultivations of sharing values tend to succeed. By carefully tracking, and dynamically updating in light of the values and interests of other group members, it is possible to develop and sustain patterns of coordination without a top-down signal. As we noted in the previous section, the bottom-up cultivation of shared valuing occurs as individuals change their own values and preferences in light of their
interactions with other group members. This fact implies that the cultivation of valuing together doesn’t necessarily require a we-framing; instead it can occur as individual-frames shift in ways that are context dependent, local, and situation relevant, a situation that yields an alternative form of social learning resulting from a convergence of ongoing cycles of reciprocal updating. Importantly, this feature aligns well with recent models of cooperation that recognize that coordination can arise through these dynamic patterns of updating, even without we-framing (Tummolini & Stirling in prep).

Unfortunately, valuing that is constructed from the bottom-up is often difficult to transfer to similarly situated collective enterprises. For instance, in spite of the normative salience of shared valuing to other similar organizations (e.g., the other groups throughout Mexico that were targeted by La otra campaña and the Movimento dos Trabalhadores Rurais Sem Terra in Brazil), it has proven difficult to export Zapatista values to others. We contend that part of the reason for this difficulty stems from the etiology of sharing values. As we argued above, evaluative updating occurs through changes in individual values. In cases where these changes bubble up from the bottom of a group, they do so as a result of interactions with others who share values. This is not simply a matter of identity, although group identification does arise among the Zapatistas. One of the key benefits of bottom-up structures of value-propagation is that valuing remains context dependent, local, and changeable; and it does so because social learning allows individual values to converge while continuing to ‘ache inside each individual and teach each individual to walk’ (Marcos 1995/2001, 269). Simplifying somewhat, we might say that it is through ongoing cycles of reciprocal evaluative updating that stable patterns of valuing emerge (Tummolini & Stirling in prep). Once we recognize this, however, it becomes clear why such patterns of valuing are nearly impossible to export. Since they depend on individual patterns of local updating, which flow upward through a group, any attempt to adjust values must begin with the existing patterns of valuing that we find in individuals. Where there are shared struggles, minimal forms of sharing values can emerge, and this provide a foundation for cultivating more robust ways of sharing values. However, unless there are other group members who share those ways of valuing, who are willing to foster their cultivation, and who are willing to sanction deviation from those ways of valuing, they are unlikely to stabilize. Because of the dependence of Zapatista values on Zapatista democracy, and visa-versa, the emergence of converging values in a non-Zapatista space becomes increasingly unlikely.

This limitation also suggests that attempts to entrench equality and dignity in social practice, even among the Zapatistas, cannot be successful unless there are ongoing patterns of reciprocal updating to sustain their stability and robustness. And even where changes in values do emerge, it is often slow. In part, this is why the Zapatistas sometimes fail to live up to their expressed ideals. For example, “only a quarter to (rarely) half of the junta representatives are women, short of the intended gender equity” (Starr et al 2011, 106). There is an ongoing recognition that this is a failing, and many Zapatistas recognize that they need to work harder to confront the structural issues that make it harder for women to play a robust role in the juntas (Olivera 2005); but there is reason to believe that shared valuing, and corresponding commitments to addressing gender-based inequalities, have had a significant impact on health inequalities in Chiapas (Gallegos & Quinn 2017). But modifying family values from the bottom-up is no easy task. And conflicting values persist between family organization and concerns with social justice. Since all evaluative decisions are made from the bottom, the only forms of pressure that can be used to overcome these conflicts are forms of lateral social pressure. But when almost everyone shares male-centered family values, the kinds of social pressures that could be used to disrupt those values become much less likely. These difficulties of changing deeply entrenched
values by using bottom-up forms of social pressure constitute the second major difficulty for shared valuing that percolates up through the structure of a group.

Given these limitations, we contend that shared valuing could be more stable, context relevant, and experienced as one’s own if top-down structures of control were integrated with bottom-up flows of evaluative learning. In other words, valuing would be more stable and effective if it were more reciprocal. In small groups, reciprocal feedback may be relatively easy to generate and maintain. Groups can agree to set out shared goals and values that can serve as top-down signals for evaluative learning, and structures of mutual accountability and mutual identification are often readily available and sufficient to sustain the kinds of interactions necessary for reciprocally reinforced shared valuing (Bohm 2012; Norenzayan 2013; Slingerland 2014). Larger groups, on the other hand, need to cultivate strategies for maintaining and sharing values without constant intervention, in order to avoid the difficulties regarding the precise content of shared forms of valuing highlighted in Section 2 (cf., Norenzayan et al 2016, redacted for blind review). However, those strategies would come with a large cost, as robust integration efforts regarding values would be required up, down, and across the hierarchal structures. Perhaps unsurprisingly, larger groups therefore generally tend to privilege either valuing that flows from top or valuing that flows from the bottom. This means, perhaps tragically, that in our currently fragmented and fractured world, robustly sharing values, in ways that are both stable and truly our own, may prove to be quite rare. If one believes that not merely sharing values, but having some sway over the precise content of those values is an important part of being the author and editor of one’s own life—that it is only in those cases, to steal a phrase from Rawls that we “cease to be mere fragments”—then that could a very troubling possibility indeed (1999:52).

There may be hints of a way forward, however, a possibility of fusing the benefits of shared valuing inculcated from the top-down with those from the bottom-up—even in the largest of organizations. Consider, for example, the U.N.’s well-known Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) to “spare no effort to free our fellow men, women and children from the abject and dehumanizing conditions of extreme poverty.” (United Nations 2000:4) The MDGs represent a specification of values. They were put forward and vigorously pursued with the United Nations acting as a responsible, coordinating, and regulative mechanism. In other words, the U.N. provided a framework and a number of “wide-ranging practical steps” to further develop these shared goals together (Millennium Development Goals Report 2015). In effect, the U.N. acted as a hub, providing a novel specification of an existing value, an irredulously collective goal, an explicit plan for acting together, and an explicit agreement as to the normative standards for evaluating the behavior of group members (cf., Ostrom 2010). Yet these shared forms of valuing were not merely driven from the top-down: They also motivated individuals to do their part not only to meet shared goals, but also to further shape ways of valuing (McClean 2015). The MDGs thereby allowed opportunities for all affected parties to participate in the revision process as more information became available, giving members the authority to monitor and correct each other, the ability to use various forms of sanctions (e.g., calling in; gentle nudges; explicit criticism; expulsion), and an accessible low-cost means of dispute resolution that can allow for the further shaping of these values—from both the bottom and the top (Ostrom 1990; 2005). In effect, the U.N. put forward values that enabled people to modify the values they share at a more local level, thereby allowing for the local generation of new and innovative partnerships required to live together in light of those values. The result was “the most successful anti-poverty movement in history…[lifting] more than one billion people out of extreme poverty” (United Nations 2015:3). Perhaps another result is that they can serve as a template for
creating ways of valuing that our fully ours—even in a world that too often favors atomization, separation, and mere aggregation.

While it remains an open question to what extent a fully reciprocal practice of sharing values can be maintained in the modern world, over time, this kind of valuing defensibly creates a greater motivation to act: greater than mere interests because valuing is a conative state, one that carries with it some motivation to see that what is valued be realized or maintained; greater than similar individual values because sharing values inherently involves an other-directing element, an element that brings with it other-regarding reasons for action; greater than values that are inculcated from the top-down, because more reciprocal practices of shared valuing are more likely to be regarded as one’s own; and greater than values that are inculcated from the bottom-up, because robustly sharing values creates values that are more stable. So while shared valuing always depends on the beliefs or attitudes of group members, it also imposes normative constraints on group-relevant forms of practical activity. As Edward Singerland notes:

the key to getting lots of strangers to work together is not to create an endless stream of new laws or institutions but to create a set of shared values. Laws are something you merely obey. Values are something you feel. Once internalized, values function just like other forms of hot cognition—fast, automatic, unconscious (2014: 176).

This insight seems to us to be an important one about the role shared valuing plays in collective activity. While valuing is not the mere product of a will (either individual or collective) it is nonetheless cultivated, sculpted, and crafted. This is particularly true of shared valuing. When we act together, we are faced with the question of what values if any we should develop, given our ends, and how ought we do so. But we have, perhaps ironically, wound up with the opposite insight of the one that motivated the considerations of specific cases in which values are shared: Sometimes it is collective intentions (rather than values) that take on an instrumental character, and participants in a collective endeavor do their part in order to live up to a shared value. In those cases, the presence of collective intentions does not justify the sharing of values; it is instead the sharing of values that grounds the motivation to act together.
References


