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FOUR YEAR BACHELOR'S DEGREE COURSE
(CBCS in Accordance with NEP 2020)

SEMESTER- III

INTRODUCTION TO ETHICS

PHILOSOPHY

Surya Kumar Bhuyan School of Social Sciences

KRISHNA KANTA HANDIQUI STATE OPEN UNIVERSITY

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BLOCK-1
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COURSE INTRODUCTION:

This course introduces us to the subject of Ethics. Ethics can also be called moral philosophy, because it deals with the science with science of customs or habits of men. It is also called the science of rightness and wrongness, because human will is expressed in right or wrong conduct. Rightness or wrongness refers to the highest ideal of human life. Hence, ethics is the science of the highest Good of man that includes Truth, Good and Beauty.

BLOCK INTRODUCTION :

This course consists of two blocks.

The first block consists of eight units. The first unit starts with "The Nature and Scope of Ethics". After going through this unit, you will be able to know nature and scope of Ethics.

The second unit is 'The Concept of Morality'. After going through this unit you will be able to know that ethics is a branch of philosophy. It is moral philosophy or philosophical thinking about morality, moral problems and moral judgments.

The third unit is 'The Nature of Moral Judgment'. This unit deals with the issues like the concept of morality and its different senses of use- descriptive and normative, the concept of morality and its' nature as a social institution of life etc.

The fourth unit is 'Fact and Value'. After going through this unit you will be able to know the what is fact and what is value, different types of value and their importance in human life, distinction between fact and value etc.

The fifth unit is 'Moral Concepts: Good, Right, Duty& Virtue'. After going through this unit, one will be able to define what ethics is and will be able to know how identify the fundamental concepts of ethics and will be able to explain the concept of Good, right, duty &virtue.

The sixth unit is 'The Theories of Moral Standard: Hedonism'. This unit introduces to you that ethical theory which propounds that we always desire pleasure. Pleasure is the only object of desire, good or bad. You should remember that in Moral Philosophy or in Ethics actions are judged as good or bad by reference to the supreme end of life.

The seventh unit is 'Utilitarianism: Bentham and Mill'. This unit is going to deal with utilitarianism and explain Jeremy Bentham's idea of Utilitarianism and to explain Mill's idea of Utilitarianism and to describe the basic points of Mill's moral philosophy.

The eighth unit is 'Aristotle's Concept of Happiness'. After going through this unit, one will able to know what Aristotle's Concept of Happiness is, what is the highest end of life and the differences between voluntary and non-voluntary action and will also Know the relationship between happiness and the freedom of will

While going through this course you will come across some boxes which are put on the left side or right side of the text. These boxes will give us the meanings of some words and concepts within the text. Apart from this, there will be some broad and short questions included under Activ-

UNIT 1 : NATURE AND SCOPE OF ETHICS

UNIT STRUCTURE

1.1 Learning Objectives
1.2 Introduction
1.3 Definition of Ethics
1.4 Nature of Ethics
1.5 Scope of Ethics
1.6 Let Us Sum Up
1.7 Further Reading
1.8 Answers to Check Your Progress
1.9 Model Questions

1.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to :

- define 'What is Ethics'?
- explain the nature of Ethics,
- discuss the scope of ethics,
- define and differentiate pure ethics from applied ethics.

1.2 INTRODUCTION

What morality requires from us is often seen as the core question that ethics has to answer. However, there are other questions of similar importance, such as: Why be moral? How moral can we be in a non-ideal world? Are we moral by nature? Are moral judgments true? Such questions cannot be avoided when we confront the problems of life particularly in a non-moral world. But the questions themselves are relevant in our contemporary life style. This unit makes an attempt to analyse Ethics its definition, nature and scope.

1.3 DEFINITION OF ETHICS

The word "ethics" is derived from the Greek word ethos (character), and from the Latin word 'mores' (customs). Derived from the Greek word "ethos", which means "way of living", ethics is a branch of philosophy that is concerned with human conduct. It consists in a code of conduct of human

beings living in a society. Ethics examines the rational justification for our moral judgments; it studies what is morally right or wrong, just or unjust. Together, they combine to define how individuals choose to interact with one another. In philosophy, ethics defines what is good for the individual and for society and establishes the nature of duties that people owe to themselves and to one another. It aims at individual good as well as social good, the good of mankind as a whole.

Ethics is am attempt to guide human conduct and it is also an attempt to help man in leading good life by applying moral principles. Ethics refers to well based standards of right and wrong that prescribe what humans ought to do, usually in terms of rights, obligations, benefits to society, fairness, or specific virtues. Ethics is related to issues of propriety, rightness and wrongness. What is right is ethical and what is wrong is unethical. The words 'proper',' fare' and 'just' are also used in place of right 'and 'ethical'. If it is ethical, it is right, proper, fair and just. Ethics is a matter of practical concern. It tries to determine the good and right thing to do; choices regarding right and wrong, good and evil; questions of obligation and value. Ethics is to consider the practice of doing right actions or what we may call the art of living the good life.

It is also defined as the science of the highest good. Mackenzie defines ethics as "the study of what is right or good in human conduct" or the "science of the ideal involved in human life". So, it is clear that ethics is the study which determines rightness or wrongness of actions.

Applied ethics is the practice of ethics that aims to guide the moral judgment governing the decisions we make in all areas of our lives. Issues of right and wrong are related to one's values. In the context of ethics, values are our standards of right and wrong.

1.4 NATURE OF ETHICS

Ethics aims at systematic knowledge. So, ethics is a science. Every science is concerned with a particular sphere of nature. As a science ethics has its own particular sphere; it deals with certain judgments that we make about human conduct. It deals with systematic explanation of rightness or wrongness in the light of the highest Good of man.

Ethics is a normative science. It is concerned with what ought to be done rather than what is the case. It differs from positive science. A positive

science, natural science or descriptive science is concerned with what is. It deals with facts and explains them by their causes. In positive science there is no question of judging its objects in any way. But ethics does not deal with fact. Rather it deals with value. Therefore, it is clear that ethics is concerned with judgments of value, while positive science deals with judgments of facts. That is why ethics is not a positive science but a normative science. Normative ethics deals with standards or norms by which we can judge human actions to be right or wrong. For example, logic, aesthetics are also considered as normative sciences, because logic and aesthetics are concerned with truth and beauty. So, truth, beauty and value are the three ideals of logic, aesthetics and ethics respectively.

Ethics is not a practical science. Practical science deals with means for the realization of an end or ideal. It teaches us to know how to do. As for instance, medical science is a practical science. It concerns with the means in order to remove the causes of ailments or diseases. But ethics is not concerned with means in order to achieve moral ideal that is rightness or goodness. It does not teach us how to live a moral life. So, ethics can not be regarded as a practical science.

Ethics is not an art. Ethics does not teach us an art as to how to lead a moral life. Rather it helps us to justify rightness or goodness which can lead to the supreme goal of human life that is to realize the summum bonum of human life. So, ethics is not a means to the highest ideal of human life. But, like the practical science, art is also a means for obtaining a goal. So, ethics is neither a practical science nor an art. Again the question is, is there any art of conduct? The reply is, in case of morality this is not true. Art especially deals with acquisition of skill to produce objects, while morality deals with motive, intention, purpose and choice which are considered right or wrong in the light of goodness. Therefore, morality consists of goodness, which is really an intrinsic end.

A norm or ideal in the ethical sense is defined as any regulatory principle that controls or lays guidelines to thought and mode of acting. Ethics is a science of values as it discovers the forms of conduct or behaviour, which have the character of oughtness. Ethics deals with moral phenomena and it observes and classifies them and explains them by the moral ideal. It distinguishes moral judgments from logical judgments and aesthetic judgments and reduced them to a system. So we may define the

nature of ethics as scientific. However, from another perspective all sciences also lead to philosophical questions if we take philosophy to be quest for knowledge. That is way ethics is a branch of philosophy.

There is no clear-cut boundary between science and philosophy, between descriptive science and normative science and between ethics and philosophy. A norm is more than a description. While philosophies have become more scientific and sciences have become more philosophical, the distinction between science and philosophy and between value-science like ethics and general‘ philosophy is a matter of degree. That way ethics is both scientific and philosophical, both descriptive and normative science and both pure and applied, pure ethics and meta ethics. Ethics is an art as it sets guidelines for practical conduct and also for understanding the meaning of what it is to act in an ethical manner. Ethics is concerned with Goodness as an ultimate value while some other normative sciences like Aesthetics and Logic are oriented to the ideals of Beauty and Truth respectively.



LET US KNOW

- Normative science deals with judgments of value and positive science deals with judgments of facts.
- Normative science deals with what ought to be. While Positive science is concerned with what is.
- Ethics is a normative science. Its principal concern is with human conduct in respect of its relation to the conception of what is good and what is right.
- Ethics is the study of human conduct with respect to its rightness or wrongness in the light of a supreme standard.

If we enter into a discussion regarding what is the nature of Ethics it would be a meta-ethical question. Although the distinction between morality and ethics is not clear cut, it is not morality as such since its task is not to lay down rules or guidelines of “dos” and “Don’ts”. Ethics is a branch of philosophical discussion pertaining to morality or a philosophical critique of morality, which is far from laying down guidelines for behaviour.

A distinction must be made between ethics and morals or morality. Whereas ethics **is** the branch of philosophy concerned with moral values,

the ethics or morals of an individual or a group **are** the values according to which they act. Every people, even the most uncivilized and uncultured, has its own morality or sum of prescriptions which govern its moral conduct. Nature had so provided that each man establishes for himself a code of moral concepts and principles, which are applicable to the details of practical life, without the necessity of awaiting the conclusions of science. Ethics is the scientific or philosophical treatment of morality. The subject-matter of ethics proper is the deliberate, free actions of man; for these alone are in our power, and concerning these alone can rules be prescribed, not concerning those actions which are performed without deliberation, or through ignorance or coercion.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q.1. State whether the following statements are True or False :

a) Ethics is a science of value. (True/False)

b) Ethics is a Natural Science. (True/False)

c) Ethics is concerned with highest destiny of human life.(True/False)

d) Ethics is a branch of philosophy.(True/False)

Q.2. What is Ethics? (Answer in about 50 words)

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Q.3. What is Science? (Answer in about 20 words)

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Q.4. Is ethics a science? (Answer in about 40 words)

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Q.5. What is the difference between normative science and positive science? (Answer in about 60 words)

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ACTIVITY 1.1

1. Do you accept the viewpoint that "man is not only a rational being but also an ethical being"? Discuss.

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2. Do you find any distinction between philosophy and science? Discuss.

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1.5 SCOPE OF ETHICS

The scope of ethics indicates its subject matter. Ethics as normative science deals with moral ideal or the good in order to enquire the nature of our conduct. It enquires into the nature of the springs of actions, motives, intentions, voluntary actions and so on. It determines rightness or wrongness of human actions. It does not enquire into the origin and growth of human conduct. As a science of morality ethics discusses the contents of moral consciousness and the various problems of moral consciousness.

Ethics is concerned with the highest good or absolute good. It investigates the nature of its fundamental notions i.e. right, duty and good.

Moral judgments passed on our voluntary actions are also included within the scope of ethics. In discussing the moral judgment it has also to concern with the nature, object, faculty and standard of moral judgment. Moral sentiments and feelings are arising in our mind when we contemplate about the moral judgment and therefore ethics has to discuss the nature of moral sentiments to moral judgment.

The scope of ethics includes whatever has reference to free human acts, whether as principle or cause of action (law, conscience, virtue), or as effect or circumstance of action (merit, punishment, etc.) Ethics discusses the nature of human freedom. Ethics investigates what constitutes good or bad, just or unjust. It also inquires into-what is virtue, law, conscience and duty? What obligations are common to all? What is the good in all good acts? These questions lie within the scope of ethics. The sense of duty, oughtness or moral obligation and the responsibility for actions are also included within the range of ethics.

The particular aspect under which ethics considers free acts is that of their moral goodness or the rectitude of order involved in them as human acts. A man may be a good artist or orator and at the same time a morally bad man, or, conversely, a morally good man may be a poor artist or technician. Ethics has merely to do with the order which relates to man as man and which makes of him a good man. Thus we find that although Ethics is not a guidebook of moral rules as a branch of philosophy Ethics seeks clarification of terms used in moral language. The 'meta-ethical" problems fall within the scope of philosophical aspect of Ethics. There are other 'meta ethical discussions related to the nature of moral judgments, the logical basis of ethical evaluation etc.

The applied dimension of Ethics is known as "Applied Ethics' that falls within the broad field of Ethics. These comprise the areas of situational Ethics while Meta Ethics deals with logical and semantic questions like 'What do we mean by "freedom" and "determinism" etc. Ethics is essentially related to all other branches of knowledge like sociology, political science, jurisprudence, law and legal study, psychology, anthropology, culture study, ecology and environmental study, economics, religion, aesthetics and other similar areas. Ethics is concerned with political, sociological, cultural, psychical, economic, environmental, religious problems in pursuit of highest good. So these problems have an additional place in the scope of ethics. With the emergence of new technology there is scope for widening the scope of ethics to address new issues.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q.6. Does ethics enquire into the origin and growth of human conduct? (Answer in about 20 words)

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Q.7. Is ethics concerned with sentiments and feelings?(Answer in about 30 words)

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Q.8. What does ethics teach us? (Answer in about 10 words)

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ACTIVITY 1.2

1. Do you accept that ethics is an important subject for guiding human life? Discuss it with your viewpoint.

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1.6 LET US SUM UP

- The word “ethics” is derived from the Greek word ethos (character), and from the Latin word ‘mores’ (customs). Derived from the Greek word “ethos”, which means “way of living”, ethics is a branch of philosophy that is concerned with human conduct.
- Ethics is related to issues of propriety, rightness and wrongness. What is right is ethical and what is wrong is unethical.
- Applied ethics is the practice of ethics that aims to guide the moral judgment governing the decisions we make in all areas of our lives.
- It differs from positive science. A positive science, natural science or descriptive science is concerned with what is. It deals with facts and explains them by their causes
- Ethics is a normative science. It is concerned with what ought to be done rather than what is the case. It differs from positive science.
- Ethics is concerned with judgments of value, while positive science deals with judgments of facts.
- Normative ethics deals with standards or norms by which we can judge human actions to be right or wrong. For example, logic, aesthetics are also considered as normative sciences, because logic and aesthetics are concerned with truth and beauty.
- It enquires into the nature of the springs of actions, motives, intentions, voluntary actions and so on. It determines rightness or wrongness of human actions. It does not enquire into the origin and growth of human conduct.



1.7 FURTHER READING

1. Harold H. Titus & Keeton T. Morris (1957). *Ethics for Today.* Van Nostrand.
2. John, S. Mackenzie (2005). *A Manual of Ethics*. Cosimo Classics.
3. Lilly, William. (1964). *Introduction to Ethics. Methuen.*
4. Lamont, W. D.(1946). *The principles of Moral Judgment*, Oxford, the Claredon Press.
5. Maitra, S. K. (1925). *Hindu Ethics.* Calcutta University Press.
6. Piet, H. John and Prasad, Ayodhya. *An Introduction to Applied Ethics* (Ed.) Cosmo Publications.



1.8 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Ans. to Q. No. 1 : a) True b) False c) True d) True

Ans. to Q. No. 2 : Ethics is a science of morality dealing with what is right or good in human conduct. It is a normative science and it is the science of the Highest Good. It is the science of the moral good of man.

Ans. to Q. No. 3 : A science is systematic study corresponding to a particular department of nature.

Ans. to Q. No. 4 : Yes, Ethics is a science. Because it aims at systematic explanation of rightness and wrongness of our voluntary actions in the light of the Highest Good of man. It aims at systematic valuing.

Ans. to Q. No. 5 : Normative science deals with judgments of value and positive science deals with judgments of facts. Normative science deals with what ought to be. While Positive Science is concerned with what is. Normative science deals with norms which regulate human life. But positive science tries to know what a thing really is by discovering causal relation.

Ans. to Q. No. 6 : No, ethics does not enquire into the origin and growth of human conduct.

Ans. to Q. No. 7 : Yes, ethics is concerned with moral sentiments and feelings which are arising in our mind when we are contemplate about the moral judgment.

Ans. to Q. No. 8 : Ethics teaches us how to act rightly.



1.9 MODEL QUESTIONS

A) Very Short Questions

Q.1. What is applied ethics?

Q.2. What is metaethics?

Q.3. Define ethics

Q.4. What are the issues in which ethics deals with?

Q.5. What is normative science?

B) Short Questions (Answer in about 150 words)

Q.1. Why ethics is called normative science? Explain briefly.

Q.2. Is ethics a branch of philosophy? Explain briefly

Q.3. Briefly comment on the nature of ethics.

Q.4. Briefly explain the distinction between normative science and positive science.

Q.5. Is ethics a practical science? Briefly explain

Q.6. Why ethics is not considered an art? Discuss briefly.

Q.7. Do you find any distinction between ethics and morality? Briefly explain

C) Long Questions (Answer in about 300-500 words)

Q.1. What is the nature of ethics? Discuss.

Q.2. Explain the scope of ethics.

Q.3. What is ethics? Do you find any distinction between normative science and positive science? Explain.

Q.4. Is ethics considered a practical science? Explain it with your argument.

Q.5. What is the difference between ethics and morality? Is ethics scientific in nature? Discuss.

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UNIT 2 : THE CONCEPT OF MORALITY

UNIT STRUCTURE

2.1. Learning Objectives
2.2. Introduction
2.3. Definition of Morality
2.4. The Nature of Morality
2.5. Different Moral Concepts
2.6. Moral theory
2.7. Let us Sum up
2.8. Further Reading
2.9. Model Questions

2.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After going through this chapter you will be able to explain that

- The concept of morality and its different senses of use- descriptive and normative.
- The concept of morality and its' nature as a social institution of life.
- Various moral concepts as well as the importance and needs of different moral theories.

2.2 INTRODUCTION

Ethics is a branch of philosophy. It is moral philosophy or philosophical thinking about morality, moral problems and moral judgments. Actually, moral philosophy arises when an individual pass beyond the stage in which we are directed by traditional rules and even beyond the stage in which these rules are so internalized that we can be said to be inner- directed to the stage in which we think ourselves in critical and general terms and achieve a kind of autonomy as moral agents. In other words, it can be said that morality inspires us to think critically through which we can realize our inner self and act ethically. However, we may distinguish three kinds of thinking that relate to morality in one way or another. Firstly, there is descriptive empirical enquiry, historical or scientific that describes or explains the phenomena of morality or to work out a theory of human nature which bears ethical questions. This type of enquiry is mainly done by anthropologists, historians, psychologists and sociologists. Secondly, there is normative

thinking which asks question about what is right, good or obligatory. Actually, it takes the form of asserting a normative judgment. For example, 'I ought not to try to escape from prison', 'Knowledge is good', or 'It is always wrong to harm someone'. Moreover, this kind of thinking is like debating with oneself or with someone else about what is good or right in a particular case or as a general principle. Thirdly, there is also analytical, critical or meta-ethical thinking which is different from empirical or historical inquiries and theories as well as it does not involve making or defending any normative or value judgment. Moreover, it does not try to answer either particular or a general question about what is good, right or obligatory. Actually, this type of thinking tries to answer logical, epistemological and semantic questions. For example, it asks questions like: 'what is the meaning or use of the expressions 'right' or 'good'?', 'how can ethical and value judgments be established or justified?', 'can they be justified at all?', 'what is the nature of morality?', 'what is the distinction between moral and non- moral?', 'what is the meaning of 'free' or 'responsible'?'.

Among these three types of thinking, many recent moral philosophers prefer thinking of the third or last kind which is different from the former two kinds of thinking. But, we shall take ethics to include meta-ethics as just described, but as also including normative ethics or thinking of the second kind because it deals with general questions about what is good or right.

As we have known that ethics is concerned with morality and its problems and judgments. Actually the word 'ethics' is not always used as a branch of philosophy, sometimes it is used as just another word for 'morality'. Moreover, sometimes it refers to the moral code or normative theory of an individual or group. The terms 'moral' and 'ethical' are often used as equivalent to 'right' or 'good' and as opposed to 'immoral' and 'unethical'. But, they do not mean 'morally right' or 'morally good'. Rather, they mean 'pertaining to morality' and are opposed to the 'non-moral' or non-ethical', not to the 'immoral' or 'unethical'. Sometimes, the term 'morality' is used as opposed to 'immorality' as when we say that the essence of morality is love or speaks of the morality of an action. But, we also use the word 'morality' to refer to something that is coordinate with but different from art, science, law, convention, or religion, though it may be related to them. Actually, this is the way we use the term when we ask, 'what is morality?', How does it differ from law?' and How is it related to religion?'. In this sense morality

means what Bishop Butler called 'the moral institution of life'. The words 'moral' and 'ethics' are often used interchangeably. Morality is the system through which we determine right and wrong conduct, i. e., the guide to good or right conduct. Ethics is the philosophical study of morality. Often, morality is understood as something that's personal and normative, where as ethics is standards of "good" and "bad" distinguished by certain community or social setting. So in this sense, there may be instances, when one's own morality may contradict the ethics of a community.

2.3 DEFINITION OF MORALITY

In Philosophy, the term 'morality' can be used either descriptively or normatively. In descriptive sense, it refers to certain codes of conduct put forward by society or a group, such as religion, or accepted by an individual for her/his own behavior. On the other hand, normatively it refers to a code of conduct that, given, specified conditions, would be put forward by all rational persons. The descriptive use of morality is the one used by anthropologists when they report on the morality of the societies that they study. Any definition of morality in the descriptive sense will need to specify which of the codes put forward by a society or group count as moral.

In the normative sense, morality refers to a code of conduct that would be accepted by anyone who meets certain intellectual and volitional conditions, almost always including the condition of being rational. The individual meets these conditions is typically expressed by saying that the person counts as a moral agent. However, merely showing that a certain code would be accepted by any moral agents would also accept a code of prudence or rationality. But this would not by itself show that prudence was part of morality.

As we have seen that not all codes that are put forward by societies or groups are moral codes in the descriptive sense of morality and not all codes that would be accepted by all moral agents are moral codes in the normative sense of morality. So, any definition of morality, either descriptive or normative sense, will require further criteria. Actually, descriptive and normative description of moral codes might be regarded as offering some features of morality that would be included in any adequate definition. In that way, they might be taken to be offering some definitional features of morality.

R. M. Hare has offered his view on morality by referring the nature of moral judgments. He regarded moral judgments as those judgments that override all non- moral judgments and that would be universalized by the person making the judgment. This account of moral judgments naturally leads to a view of morality as being concerned with behavior that a person regards as most important and as a guide to conduct that he wants everyone to adopt. On the other hand, Frankena states that guides to behavior that are regarded as moralities normally involve avoiding and preventing harm to others. Similarly, P. F. Strawson claims that morality involves avoiding and preventing perhaps some norm of honesty.It can be stated that in descriptive use of morality, a person's own morality cannot be guide to behavior that the person would prefer others not to follow. However, an individual adopts a moral code of conduct for his own use does not entail that the person requires it to be adopted by anyone else. It is her/ his choice/ decision to act or behave like that.

Morality in normative use of sense means the code that meets the conditions, such as, all rational persons, under certain specified conditions, would endorse it. Some Virtue theorist define morality as something like the code that such a person would implicitly endorse by acting in virtuous ways. On the other hand, Mill, one of the consequentialists defines morality as the rules and percepts for human conduct, by the observance of which (a happy existence) might be to the greatest extent possible, secured. Those who use morality normatively virtually holds that morality refers to a code of conduct that applies to all who can understand it and can govern their behavior by it. So, we have seen that any definition of morality, whether descriptive or normative, it is a code of conduct.

2.4 THE NATURE OF MORALITY

The term morality is used to refer to conventions in society about right and wrong human conduct. In its broadest and most familiar sense, morality is concerned with many forms of belief about right and wrong human conduct. These beliefs are expressed through terms such as 'good', 'bad', 'virtuous', 'praiseworthy', 'right', 'wrong', 'ought' and 'blameworthy'. But, several disciplines use these terms to evaluate human endeavors, and these disciplines sometimes involve morality. Religion, law, etiquette, economics and politics are examples, because they involve the evaluation of conduct

and use a similar vocabulary of action- directing terms. Morality of any person is generally seen to be created by the society in which he lives. Rarely, through the morality of a person is created by personal intuition choices etc.

In the most obvious sense, morality is a social institution with a code of learnable rules. It is a social enterprise, not just a discovery or invention of the individual for his own guidance. Like one's language, state or church, it exist before the individual who is inducted into it and becomes mere or less of a participant in it, and it goes on existing after him. Morality is an instrument of society as a whole for the guidance of individuals and smaller groups. Moreover, whether morality is thought of as an instrument of society or as a personal code, it must be contrasted with prudence. It can be said that morality and prudence dictate some of the same conduct, for example, honesty. Actually, prudence is a moral virtue; however, it is not the characteristic of the moral point of view to determine what is right or virtuous wholly in terms of what the individual desires or of what is to his interest. According to Sigmund Freud, morality and prudence are both attempts to regulate the 'id'. 'Id' stands for the Latin "it"- it is the disorganized part of the personality structure that contains a human basic, instinctual drives. 'id' is that component of the human personality which is present since birth. The 'Id' acts according to the "pleasure principle a psychic force, urging an individual to seek immediate gratification of any impulse." For him, prudence is simply a function of the reality-principle in the ego, but morality is the function of a superego which does not think merely in terms of getting what is desired by the individual id or even in terms of salvaging the greatest balance of satisfaction over frustration for it.

Moreover, morality, as a social institution of life, is thought of as aiming at rational self- guidance or self- determination in its members. In other words, it can be said that morality helps us to become self- governed. The moral philosophers have been distinguished the stages of morality which is traced both in the history of our culture and in the life of the individual. The stages are, namely, (i) 'pre- rational', 'customary', or 'group' morality and (ii) 'personal', 'rational', or 'reflective' morality. David Riesman in his book 'The Lonely Crowd', has portrayed four moral or social types at where the individual or society belongs, namely, (i) the tradition- directed individual and/ or society, (ii) the inner- directed individual and/or society, (iii) the other-directed individual and/or society, and (iv) the autonomous individual and/or

society. If we look at morality from this point of view as David Riesman has stated above which is based on much recent psychology, then it can be stated that morality starts as a set of culturally defined goals and of rules governing achievement of the goals which are more or less external to the individual and imposed on him or inculcated as habits. Generally, these rules may become internalized or interiorized that the individual takes them as her/his own and regulates his own conduct by them and develops a 'conscience' or 'superego'. But, this process of internalization is quite irrational. It is typical for morality to accompany its inculcations with at least a modicum of reason- giving. Therefore, we tend to give reasons with our moral instructions through which an individual can understand and lead him to feel that it is appropriate to ask for reasons.

The institution of morality contains certain forms of judgment in which particular objects are said to have or not to have a certain moral quality, obligation, or responsibility. It also contains some rules, principles, ideals and virtues that can be expressed in more general judgments and that form the background against which particular judgments are made and reasons given for them. Moreover, it contains certain sanctions or additional sources of motivation that are also often expressed in verbal judgments, namely, holding responsibility, praising and blaming. These are the factors that have central place in morality. Frankena specifically elaborates these factors into: (1) certain forms of judgments in which particular objects are said to have or not to have certain moral quality, obligation, or responsibility. (2) to imply that it is possible to give reasons for such judgments. (3) certain rules, principles, ideals and virtues are expressed as general judgments on the basis of which particular judgments are made and reasons given for them. (4) certain characteristics natural or acquired ways of feelings related to the judgments and helping us to act accordingly. (5) certain verbal sanctions sources of motivation expressed as verbal judgments like holding responsible, praising etc. (6) a point taken in judging, reasoning, feeling, which is different from those taken in prudence, art and the like.

2.5 DIFFERENT MORAL CONCEPTS

As we have known that ethics is the science of morality of conduct. It deals with the fundamental moral concepts involved in moral

consciousness. The notions of right and good are the most fundamental of all moral concepts. The most fundamental moral concepts are as follows-

2.5.1 Right and Wrong

Generally, the words right and wrong are applied to voluntary actions and habitual actions which are results of repeated voluntary actions. The word 'right' comes from the Latin word rectus. It means straight or according to rule. When an action conforms according to a moral rule or law of conduct, then it is said to be right. Otherwise it is wrong if it violates a law of conduct. But both the concepts 'right' and 'wrong' are inconceivable apart from the concepts of 'good'. Every law or rule presupposes an end which is realized by it and that is good. Actually, the notions of right and wrong are connected with the moral laws which are subservient to the Highest good.

2.5.2 Right and Good

Actually, the 'right' is a means to the realization of the good. An action is right if it tends to bring about what is good. An action is wrong if it tends to bring about what is evil. The conception of right is subordinate to the conception of good. Good is such an end that an individual ought to realize through which he will be able to realize his inner self. It is that end or goal of human being which satisfies her/his total self- the self that may be sentient as well as rational. It spreads within us what ought to do.

2.5.3 The Good and the Highest Good

We know that what fulfills or satisfies a desire is called good, such as, health, wealth, knowledge, culture etc. which are biological needs. They are bodily/economic/social/intellectual/aesthetic needs. They are Truth, Good and Beauty. Actually, there is a hierarchy of goods at the top of which there is the Highest good. It is good in itself. It is not a means to any other higher good. The highest good is the absolute good in which all other goods are subordinate.

2.5.4 Right and Duty

Man as a social being realizes his highest good only through society. Actually, society tries to make bonding by giving moral rights for the common good. Every individual enjoys these rights which are protected by society and cannot be infringed by others. These rights are respected by all and society punishes those who choose to violate the rights to others. Rights and duties are correlated to each other as well as meaningless apart from each other. They derive their being and authority from society as well as concede rights to individuals and enforce duties upon them. Moreover, it creates, sustains and enforces rights and duties. The words 'right' and 'duty' are used in another sense also. In a particular situation, if an action is right, then we ought to do it. That means it is our duty to do it. Here, the sense of 'ought' is the sense of duty.

2.5.5 Duty and Virtue

As we have seen that when we judge an action to be right, then we feel that it is our duty to do it. On the other hand, when we judge an action to be wrong then we feel that it is not our duty to do it. So, we ought to do what is right. In other words, it can be said that it is our duty to do what is right as well as it is also our duty to avoid what is wrong. The point is if we habitually perform our duties then we acquire virtue. Similarly, if we habitually commit wrong actions, we acquirevice. Actually, virtue is the excellence of character. Duties refer to external character, but virtues refer to inner character. Similarly, duties always refer to a particular action, but virtues refer to the permanent acquired disposition or character.

2.5.6 Desert, Merit, Demerit and Virtue

'Desert' is the genus of merit and demerit. 'Merit' is a positive desert and 'demerit' is a negative desert. Actually, merit implies the moral elevation of character due to the performance of right action. Whereas, demerit implies the moral degradation of character due to the commission of a wrong action. Actually, 'right' and 'wrong' are

applicable to actions, whereas 'merit' and 'demerit' are applicable to character. Merit is expressed in right actions and demerit is expressed in wrong actions. So right actions are said to be meritorious and wrong actions are said to be demeritorious. Moreover, the terms right and wrong belong to judgments of quality, while the terms merit and demerit belong to judgment of quantity.

2.5.7 Subjective and Objective Rightness

As we have known that an action, when it is chosen and performed by an individual, is to be declared as right if it brings what is really good. In judging whether an action is right, we always think primarily of the end or realization of the action rather than of the attitude of the individual in choosing it. Because at the time of choosing, the individual may not have any adequate knowledge about the action what he is going to perform really good or not. Generally, we regard those actions as rights which are known by persons at the time to be conductive to the realization of the good. Therefore, sometimes a distinction is drawn between what is subjectively right and what is objectively right.

Subjective rightness is determined by personal conviction whereas objective rightness is determined by actual moral consequences. Actually subjective rightness depends upon the knowledge and attitude of the person who chooses the right action. On the other hand, objective rightness depends upon the real good that is brought about by the right action. The individual may have an imperfect knowledge of what will bring about the good or of the content of good. So, he may not be sure whether what appears to him right is also objectively right. It is extremely difficult to him to decide whether the action which appears right to him is the best that could be chosen from the point of view of the universe. It is to be noteworthy that morality is not concerned with purely objective rightness apart from the motive of a person or a person's choice. Morality is concerned with rightness as chosen by a person with the conviction that it will really bring about the good. So, rightness is neither purely subjective nor purely objective.

2.6 MORAL THEORY

The heart of any moral investigation is believed to be the formation of moral theory. Moral or ethical theories guide us in philosophical investigation of morality. It is the process of rationalizing moral norms, values, practices and various moral codes and conducts that are available in our society. Put it simply, a moral or an ethical theory justifies or attempts to justify certain human actions which are permissible and at the same time which are encouragable in our everyday dealings. For instance, a problem of abortion is a problem of morality. Now, questions arises- whether abortion is justified or not, or in what extent it is justifiable, if the answer is 'yes' then why it is justifiable and if the answer is 'no' then why it is not. Such type of questions are answered only thorough certain ethical moral theories. Because ethical theories attempt to build certain arguments for or against any moral problem that confront in our everyday life. To understand and evaluate such arguments, an ethical theory takes up certain tasks, such as,

(i) There is a conceptual task of clarifying important concepts which are come across in dealing with any moral problem. For instance, when we take the problem of abortion, we need to have a proper understanding of what we actually mean by concepts like human life, dignity, death, suffering and living.

(ii) A second major task in understanding moral problem is to formulate a guideline or a set of guidelines which helps us in evaluating various moral claims.

(iii) A third main task involves evaluating basic moral assumptions that are often unstated in the giving of such arguments. For instance, the claim that suicide is wrong because it would have bad consequences, the unstated assumption is that if an action would have bad consequences, then it is wrong.

According to the contemporary analysis of moral theory, a moral or ethical theory is believed to have at least two major aims-

(a) Practical aim and

(b) Theoretical aim

The main practical aim of a moral theory is to discover a decision procedure that can be used to guide correct moral reasoning about matters

of moral concern. A decision procedure is a methodological procedure which is used in the analysis of moral thinking and debate and which eventually helps us to resolve various moral conflicts.On the other hand, the theoretical aim of moral theory concerns with understanding the underlying nature of right and wrong, good and bad. When someone claims that an action is morally wrong, it makes sense to ask them why she/he thinks like that.

As we have seen that a moral theory has the practical aim of providing a decision procedure for making correct moral judgments as well as the theoretical aim of providing moral criteria that explain the underlying nature of morality. There is a list of six characteristics that it is ideally desirable for a moral theory to possess if it is to accomplish the practical and theoretical aims. They are as follows-

(i) Consistency: a moral theory should be consistent in the sense that its principles, together with relevant factual information, yield consistent, moral verdicts about the morality of actions, persons and other objects of moral evaluation.

(ii) Determinacy: A moral theory should have principles, together with factual information, yield determinate moral verdicts about the morality of actions, persons and other objects of evaluation in a wide range of cases.

(iii) Intuitive Appeal: A moral theory should develop and make sense of various intuitively appealing beliefs and ideas about morality.

(iv) Internal Support: A moral theory whose principles, together with relevant factual information, logically implies our considered moral beliefs and receives internal support from those beliefs. On the other hand, if the principles of a theory have implications that conflict with our considered moral beliefs, then this is evidence against the correctness of the theory.

(v) Explanatory Power: A moral theory should have principles that explain our more specific considered moral beliefs, thus helping us understand why actions, persons and other objects of moral evaluation are right or wrong, good or bad.

(vi) External Support: The fact that the principles of a moral theory are supported by non- moral beliefs and assumptions, including well established beliefs and assumptions from various areas of non- moral

enquiry, is some evidence in its favor. On the other hand, the fact that the principles conflict with established non- moral beliefs and assumptions is evidence against the theory.

However, inspite of these, there are other associated standards that philosophers invoke in evaluating moral theories. Satisfying these standards is a matter of degree. For instance, a theory can be more or less determinate in its implications about the morality of actions. Again, it is worth keeping in mind that in addition to determining how well any one theory does according to these standards, part of evaluating moral theories involves comparing them with one another to see how well they do in satisfying the relevant standards. Moreover, some of these standards are controversial. The standards of intuitive appeal and consistency are fairly uncontroversial, but others, such as the principles of internal support are questioned by some moral philosophers.

The structure of any moral theory involves constructing certain laws or principles or certain premises upon which we can draw different derivatives. Formation of principles or rules may not always be successful in dealing with a genuine moral problem. In that context, many theories argued for the irrelevant of any specific principle or rule. For instance, unlike Kant's deontology or consequentialistic utilitarianism, virtue theory does not endure any rules or principles. Alternatively, they try to protect certain virtual acts which are morally required for any human person.

So, we have seen that moral theories, whether it is cultural relativism, ethical egoism, divine command theory, virtue ethics, feminist ethics. utilitarianism, deontology theory, consequentialist theory, Kantian theory, right based theory, should have some certain objectives and principles through which certain actions can be judged as well as moral problems can be solved.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q. 1. What is Morality?

.....

Q. 2. Is there any difference between the words 'ethics' and 'morality'?

.....

Q. 3. Define the concept of morality and its different senses of use.

……

Q. 4. What are the different concepts of morality?

……

Q. 5. Do you think that moral theory can help to solve an ethical problem?

……



2.7 LET US SUM UP

- The terms 'ethics' and morality is closely related to each other.
- Ethics is concerned with morality and its problems and judgments. Morality is the system through which we determine right and wrong conduct and ethics is the philosophical study of morality.
- oMorality is a social institution with a code of learnable rules. It is not just an investigation of the individual for his own guidance. Rather, it is an instrument of society as a whole for the guidance of individuals or smaller groups.
- We know that morality is a system through which actions can be judged.
- Any moral investigation should have to lead through some moral theories which can guide us in philosophical investigation of morality.
- The most important thing is that every moral theory should have some objectives and principles through which we can deal with a genuine moral problem and can protect certain virtual acts which are morally required for the welfare of an individual or society.



2.8 FURTHER READING

1. Frankena, K. William, (2007), Ethics, New Delhi: Prentice Hall of India Private Ltd.
2. Sinha, Jadunath, (2003), A Manual of Ethics, Calcutta: New Central Book Agency Pvt. Ltd.

3. W. Lillie, (1955), An Introduction to Ethics, London: Methune& Co.
4. Atkinson, R.F., (1969), Conduct: An Introduction to Moral Philosophy, London: Macmillan.
5. Ewing, A.C., (1965), Ethics, New York: The Free Press.



2.9 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Answer to Q. No. 1: Morality is a social institution of life. It is thought of as aiming at rational self- guidance or self- determination in its members. In other words, it can be said that morality helps us to become self- governed.

Answer to Q. No. 2: Actually, the words 'moral' and 'ethics' are often used interchangeably. Morality is the system through which we determine right and wrong conduct, i. e., the guide to good or right conduct. Ethics is the philosophical study of morality.

Answer to Q. No. 3: The term 'morality' can be used either descriptively or normatively. In descriptive sense, it refers to certain codes of conduct put forward by society or a group, such as religion, or accepted by an individual for her/his own behavior. On the other hand, normatively it refers to a code of conduct that, given, specified conditions, would be put forward by all rational persons. Any definition of morality, whether descriptive or normative, it is a code of conduct.

Answer to Q. No. 4: The most fundamental moral concepts are- 'right and wrong', 'right and good', 'the good and the Highest Good', 'right and duty', 'duty and virtue', 'desert, merit and demerit and virtue', 'Subjective and Objective rightness'.

Answer to Q. No. 5: Yes, moral theory can help to solve a moral/ethical problem. To solve an ethical problem, we have to go through systematic theory. And systematic investigation is possible only through the help of moral theory.



2.10 MODEL QUESTIONS

A) Very Short Questions:

1) What are the equivalent terms of 'moral' and 'ethical'?
2) What P.F. Strawson claims about morality?
3) Who has written the book, 'The Lonely Crowd'?

B) Short Questions: Short question (Answer in about 150 words)

1) Write a short note on " right and Good"
2) What are the subjective and Objective Rightness?
3) What is Practical aim?
4) What is theoretical aim?

C) Long Questions (Answer in about 300- 500 words)

1) What is morality? Is there any difference between the terms 'ethics' and 'morality'? Discuss.
2) Define the concept of morality and critically explain the nature of the concept of morality.
3) What are the different stages of morality? Critically discuss.
4) Explicate the importance of Moral theory? Do you think that moral theory is necessary for the investigation of a moral problem? Critically discuss.
5) Discuss the descriptive and normative uses of the term 'morality'.

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UNIT 3 : FACT AND VALUE

UNIT STRUCTURE

3.1 Learning Objectives

3.2 Introduction

3.3 What is fact

3.4 What is value

3.5 Classification of values

3.6 Distinction between fact and value

3.7 Check your progress

3.8 Let us sum up

3.9 Further reading

3.10 Answer your Progress

3.11 Model Questions

3.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After going through this chapter you will be able to explain that

- What is fact and what is value
- Different types of value and their importance in human life
- Distinction between fact and value

3.2 INTRODUCTION

Fact and value are two most important concept of philosophy. The words 'fact' and 'value' are inter-related with each other that one cannot be understood without the other. Philosophers stated that facts are opposed to values. Facts are the objects of certain mental states and acts as they make truth- bearers true and correspond to truths. Actually, they are the part of the furniture of the world. On the other hand, value is commonly understood as the satisfaction of human desire. An object is said to have value if it satisfies a human want or desire. In other words, we can say that any things that satisfy human desires are good or have value. So, we can regard the outer existence of objects as facts and when these objects satisfy the human needs then it will call value.

3.3 WHAT IS FACT ?

Fact can literally be understood as "what is". Facts are the truths of the physical world, the material surroundings detected through our senses. Generally, fact is regarded to be states of affairs. The word 'fact' is used in different ways. It is used in the sense of 'matters of fact' where facts are taken to be what the case is contingently. In other words, we can say that we may have empirical or a posteriori knowledge. In this regard, David Hume in his book 'An Enquiry Concerning Human Understanding' writes that all the objects of human reason or inquiry may naturally be divided into two kinds- relations of ideas and matters of fact. For example,

It is a fact that Sam is sad

That Sam is sad is a fact

That 2+2=4 is a fact

Here, in the first case, the phrase 'It is a fact that' is used as a subject that takes a sentence to make a sentence. In the second case, the same phrase 'is a fact' is used as a predicate that takes a nominalised sentence to make a sentence. Actually, philosophers have often employed the word 'fact' as the part of inventory of what there is. It plays an important role in semantics, ontology, metaphysics, epistemology and the philosophy of mind.

We may distinguish between Humean (David Hume) facts and functional facts. With the help of this distinction, we can formulate two philosophical options. In one option, we may think that there are facts in the functional sense of the word which are contingent, for example- the fact that Sam is sad, as well as the facts which are not contingent, such as 2+2=4. In other option, we may think that all facts (in the functional sense are contingent) are Humean matters of fact. The latter option is expounded in the influential philosophy of facts to be found in Wittgenstein's book 'Tractatus'. According to Wittgenstein, the world is the totality of facts that every fact is contingent. Actually, the word 'fact' belongs to a family of related terms in the functorial sense, such as circumstances, situation, state of affairs etc. in the sentence, 'it is a fact that Sam is sad', here it is a circumstance or situation that Sam is sad.

Here, the question is- what might a fact be? There are three popular views about the nature of facts. These can be present as follows-

5 A fact is just a true- bearer

6 A fact is just an obtaining state of affairs

7 A fact is just a sui generis type of entity in which objects exemplify properties or stand in relations.

There is an internal link among these three popular views of the nature of facts. Facts can be expressed in propositions. Propositions are a popular candidate for the role of what is true or false. Propositions are composed of concepts, individual concepts, general concepts and formal concepts. Concepts are understood as things that we can understand. From this point of view, we can say that properties and relations are not concepts. Actually, the objects stand in relations but fall under relational concepts. Moreover, we may say that the object is an obtaining state of affairs to say that a state of affairs obtains if an object exemplifies a property or one or more objects stand in a relation. It also may be say that a fact is just a sui generis type of entity in which objects exemplify properties or stand in relations as replying on the way of understanding properties and relations just sketched.

3.3.1 Facts and Knowledge

Facts and knowledge is very closely related to each other. As we have known that knowledge means awareness about something. That something may be facts or states of affairs. So, when we use the word 'know', such as 'x knows p' it always refers to some facts. When it becomes confirm that 'if x knows that p, then p', then it will become true cognition that 'x knows p'. In other words, we can say that for getting knowledge we have to acquaint with the states of affairs or facts. Here, we can refer Bertrand Russell's view of knowledge by acquaintance according to which knowledge can get through sense contact with the objects or properties.

Knowledge that we have got through acquaintance through sense contact are only constant property. These properties are not concepts. Philosopher Kratzer's account of knowledge of facts is applied to Gettier problems. A landmark philosophical problem in epistemology, about our understanding of knowledge, attribute to American

philosopher Edmund Gettier who challenged the generally justified true belief (JTB) account of knowledge. Here, Kratzer has put forwarded a view according to which facts are particular which exemplify propositions, such as tables and persons exemplify properties. Kratzer proposes the following analysis of knowledge-

S knows p if and only if-

1. There is a fact f that exemplifies p,
2. S believes p de re of f, and
3. S can rule out relevant possible alternatives of f that do not exemplify p.

From above discussion, we have come to know that Kratzer accepts the Gettier cases. Here, the second case is discussed by Gettier where he has given example of Smith who is justified in believing the false proposition that Jones owns a Ford. Therefore, he is justified in believing the proposition that Jones owns a ford or Brown is in Bercelona. Now, Brown happens to be in Barcelona, but Smith has no idea about where Brown is. That means in particular, he is not justified in believing that Brown is in Barcelona. Actually, intuitively Smith does not know the disjunctive proposition he is justified in believing. But that proposition is true and so the standard analysis of knowledge as justified true belief fails. In this regard, Kratzer argues that the analysis in terms of beliefs de re of facts fares better and claims that the fact exemplified by the disjunctive proposition is the fact that Brown is in Barcelona. Here, Smith's belief is not a de re belief about that fact.

3.4 WHAT IS VALUE?

The literal meaning of value may be understand "what ought to be" values are products of our subjective reasoning of ethics and morality. They cannot be proved as true or false through scientific methods; rather values may be compared with one's own faith or ethical.

The term 'value' is slippery. It is not always used in the same way. There are many ways of using the word 'value' which brings conflict among

philosophers. Generally, value means the worth of a thing or an object. By the word 'value', we are referring to a kind of goodness, such as speaking of the economic value of gold, or the religious value of ritual, or the moral value of charity, or the aesthetic value of poem.

In general, satisfaction of human desire is called value. For example, food is good; it has value because it satisfies hunger. So, there is a relation between the satisfaction of desire and the preservation and furtherance of life. It signifies that value is anything that conserves or furthers life. The things that further and preserve our life have value, such as food, shelter etc. If we look at value in this sense then it becomes only survival value. Actually, it is an adequate definition for primitive forms of life. This type of definition is become inadequate in the present complex civilization. Because at present time, men's needs are much more complex and numerous as their goal of life is much more comprehensive that brings the distinction between 'mere life' and 'good life' or living as such and living well. So, we have to realize that life is not necessarily good in itself, but it gets its value from realization of living.

It is to be noteworthy that man is a person or self. So, what is conducive to self- realization is intrinsically valuable. Actually man is not a mere bundle of desires that what satisfies his/her desires makes valuable to him/her. Rather, what satisfies his/her personality to self- realization is ultimately valuable to him/her? Satisfaction of desires or pleasure is not intrinsically valuable. Man is not only body, mind and life; but a self or spirit. So, he must have to go beyond the satisfaction of desires to reach the concept of what is intrinsically valuable.

Values may be treated as positive and negative. Generally, we believe that what is desired by an individual is good for him. Anything that has positive value is said to be good. In other words, we can say that anything that has negative value is said to be evil. Moreover, in one hand anything that is conducive to satisfaction of desire, self- realization or self - development is good. On the other hand, anything that thwarts a desire hinders life or self-realization is evil. Actually, here the word 'good' etymologically means 'conducive to end'. That means what is useful as a means to an end is said to be good, otherwise it is evil. The end is the satisfaction of desire.

Satisfaction of some desires like, wealth, fame etc are the desires for the sake of something else which possess extrinsic value or instrumental value. But, desires like truth, beauty, culture, virtue etc are for own sake which possesses intrinsic value. As we have seen that satisfaction of desire is the only end of human life which demands a hierarchy of desires, so it refers to a highest good that must consists the element of having intrinsic value. The highest good is that which would give complete satisfaction to a rational being. It consists of all intrinsic values in their proper relation to one another. Virtue or moral excellence is the best intrinsic value to which knowledge and beauty should be duly subordinated. According to Mackenzie, the highest good is the moral good. And the highest moral good is a personal good. It is identical with the highest welfare of a person which satisfies all the spiritual cravings and leads to self- fulfilment, self- realization, self-development.

3.5 CLASSIFICATION OF VALUES

There are various types of values. Many philosophers have put forwarded their views regarding the classification of values among which W.M. Urban's classification of values is famous and acceptable, because his classification of values includes all possible value that is universally recognized and acceptable. He classifies values into eight types- bodily values, economic values, values of recreation, values of association, character values, aesthetic values, intellectual values and religious values. Here, the bodily, economic and recreation values are absolutely necessary for life. They are basic and fundamental and presupposed by other values. These values satisfy the wants of what is called the bodily self. So, they are not as significant as other values. We may call them lower values. The values of association satisfy the wants what is called the social self. Actually, they arise in relations of the self to others. On the other hand, aesthetic, intellectual and religious values satisfy the cravings of the spiritual self for impersonal ideals, such as, Beauty, Truth and the Holy.

Urban divides all values into two kinds- one is organic values and other is hyper- organic values. He states that bodily, economic and recreation values are organic values. Again, he has divided the hyper- organic values into two kinds- values of sociality and spiritual values. Values of association

and character are the social values. On the other hand, intellectual, aesthetic and religious values are spiritual values. Here, a hierarchy of values has been seen among all the values. Values of sociality are higher than organic values; while spiritual values are higher than social values.

These values can also be categorized as intrinsic and extrinsic. The bodily and economic values are primarily instrumental rather than intrinsic. For example- economic values such as wealth is not an end in itself, but merely a means to the attainment of other goods. Wealth is an extrinsic or instrumental value, not an intrinsic value. Economic values are valuable only as a means or realizing bodily values, social values and spiritual values. Moreover, bodily values are also instrumental value to the realization of personal values. It can be stated that a well- developed body with health and vigour enables a person to use it in the pursuit of the other values of the good life. For example- play is valuable in itself, but it is mainly instrumental. It is a means to recreation of body and spiritual functions that keep us fit for the pursuit of higher values. Therefore, bodily, economic and recreation values are primarily instrumental rather than intrinsic.

On the other hand, values of association are both instrumental and intrinsic. Values of association include friendship and love, comradeship that are good in itself as well as instrumental to self- realization. They are good in themselves and also means of self - realization. For example, courage, temperance, justice, love, wisdom etc are good in themselves as well as means to self- realization.

But values of aesthetic, intellectual and religious are generally regarded as intrinsic values because their value lies entirely in themselves. Intellectual values, like learning is intrinsic value. The religious values, like prayer and divine communion are intrinsically valuable. They are the highest form of devotion and blessedness. These three types of values, namely- aesthetic, intellectual and religious, satisfy the deeper cravings of the spiritual self for abstract and impersonal ideals.

3.6 DISTINCTION BETWEEN FACT AND VALUE

Fact and value are the most important two concepts which are very intimately connected to each other. Fact means matters of facts or states of affairs. Fact and value are separate that facts are solid and provable,

where values are matters of personal taste. Values play no role in the realm of facts that is in science. Actually, values are not involved in scientific descriptions of fact as well as they are not intermixed in the statement of scientific theories or facts. Moreover, values cannot be reasoned about and are completely subjective and have no objective qualities. But, facts have objective qualities. Moreover, values informed the process and methodology of fact discovery. Facts are based on or dependent at some level on the values of those presenting arguments for the ontological status of a given fact. We may refer to G. E. M



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q. 1. What is fact?

Q. 2. What is value?

Q. 3. Can we regard value either as negative or positive? Yes/ No.

Q. 4. Find out the right statement-

1. Values are intrinsic.
2. Values are extrinsic.
3. Values are both extrinsic and intrinsic.



3.7 LET US SUM UP

- Facts can be regarded as 'matters of fact' through which we can have empirical or a posteriori knowledge.
- Value means the worth of a thing or an object that refer to a kind of goodness. Generally, satisfaction of human desire is called value that signifies a relation between the satisfaction of desire and the preservation and furtherance of life.
- W.M. Urban classifies values into various types- bodily values, economic values, values of recreation, values of association, character values, aesthetic values, intellectual values and religious values.

- The bodily, economic and recreation values are absolutely necessary for life that satisfies the bodily self.
- Aesthetic, intellectual and religious values satisfy the cravings of the spiritual self for impersonal ideals, such as, Beauty, Truth and the Holy.
- We have found that fact and value are often entangled and inseparable instead of being utterly separate. Values, far from being matters of taste, are integral to the process of knowing.
- Values are essential to the realm of facts. On the other hand, facts are always concerned with evaluation of reality.
- The evaluation is often an essential part of description and therefore values are necessary part of an accurate description of reality. Both facts and values can be discussed and handles rationally.



3.8 FURTHER READING

1. Frankena, William, (1973), Ethics, New Delhi: Prentice Hall.
2. Schlick, Moritz, (1939), Problems of Ethics, New York: Prentice Hall Inc.
3. Sinha, Jadunath, (2003), A Manuel of Ethics, Calcutta: New Central Book Agency Pvt. Ltd.
4. Urban, Marshall, (2007), Fundamentals of Ethics, New York: Fisher Press.



3.9 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Answer to the Q. 1. Facts are the objects of certain mental states and acts as they make truth- bearers true and correspond to truths. Actually, they are the part of the furniture of the world.

Answer to the Q. 2. Value is commonly understood as the satisfaction of human desire. An object is said to have value if it satisfies a human want or desire.

Answer to the Q. 3. Yes , we can regard value as positive or negative, such as good or evil.

Answer to the Q. 4. Values are both intrinsic and extrinsic.



3.10 MODEL QUESTIONS

A) Very short questions:

1) Name the writer of the book entitled, "An Enquiry Concerning Human Understanding".
2) Who has the written the book "Tractatus".
3) Whose account of knowledge of facts is applied to Gettier problems?
4) What are the term 'value' means?

B) Short questions: (Answer in about 150 words)

1) Make a distinction between fact and value?
2) Distinguish between Humean fact and functional facts.

C) Long Questions (Answer in about 300- 500 words)

1) What is fact? Discuss the relationship between fact and knowledge.
2) What is value? Discuss the various types of values.
3) Discuss the classification of values according to Urban's point of view.
4) Discuss the distinction between intrinsic values and extrinsic values.

* * * * *

UNIT 4 : MORAL CONCEPTS

UNIT STRUCTURE

4.1 Learning objectives

4.2 Introduction

4.3 Good

4.4 Right

4.5 Duty

4.6 Virtue

4.7 Let us sum up

4.8 Further reading

4.9 Answers to check your progress.

4.10 Model questions

4.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit you will be able to:

- Define what ethics is.
- Identify the fundamental concepts of ethics.
- Explain the concept of Good, right, duty &virtue.

4.2 INTRODUCTION

For a systematic study of any subject, it is necessary to know the fundamental concepts of the subject. Ethics is the science of morality of conduct. Ethics is concerned with rightness and wrongness, merit and demerit, good and evil of human actions. It deals with rights and duties of man in society. These concepts of right & wrong, good &evil, merit and demerit etc. are the fundamental moral concepts which are involved in moral consciousness and which are very important in ethics. Among these moral concepts Good, Right, Duty &Virtue are more fundamental.

4.3 GOOD

The word 'good' is derived from the German word "Gut". In German language "gut" means that which is valuable for some end or that which fulfils our desires and aspirations or that which is generally useful. So, 'good' is that which is useful in achieving some goal. Good things always fulfil

some need or always lead us to a beneficial or a favourable consequence. When we speak of an object as good, we mean that it is serviceable for the end we have in view. In the words of Mackenzie, "a thing is generally said to be good when it is valuable for some end".

G.E. Moore in his book Principia Ethica said that the word 'good' is really difficult to define because it is a simple term which has no constituent part. But it is the fundamental concept with the help of which other concepts in ethics can be understood. In ethics 'good' is considered as an ideal. It implies perfection. Moore speaks of three types of good. Among these three the first type resides in love for beautiful objects. The second type resides in our love for bad or evil things. And the third type resides in love for those things which are both good and evil.

In common speech, however, the term 'good' is used ambiguously. Sometimes 'good' is used to mean the objects of our desire like money, material gain etc. Sometimes 'good' is used in the sense of a means to an end. For example, if strong health is good, then those things that contribute for a strong health such as vitaminous food & physical exercise etc. are also good. However, in Ethics, the word 'good' is also used to signify not something which is a means to an end, but something which is itself taken as an end. When 'good' is a means to an end it is called relative well. Things which are generally sought by people are all relative goods. Again, when 'good' is used as an end in itself it is called absolute good. Absolute good are sought for its own sake. It is not a means to some other higher good. The 'highest good' is the absolute good. It is the ultimate objective or the final aim. 'Highest good' is the summum bonum of our life, after attaining which there remains nothing else to be attained. To know this 'highest good' or summum bonum of life is not an easy task. Ethics tries to find out the nature of this highest good of human life.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q.1: Fill in the blanks:

a) The word 'Good' is derived from the German word ---------.

b)The writer of the book Principia Ethica is ---------

c) When good is a means to an end it is called a ---------- good.
d)The ---------good is the absolute good.

4.4 RIGHT

The word 'right' is derived from the Latin word 'Rectus' which means straight or according to rural law. Here 'law' means moral law. Moral law is the statement of an ideal. It states that something ought to be. When an action conforms to a moral rule or law, it is said to be right. And when it fails to conform, it is said to be wrong. Thus wrong includes all those actions which violate ethical laws. The word 'wrong' comes from the word 'wring' which means twisted or not according to law. Moral law or rule is the general principle for determining the rightness of actions. Right and wrong apply to voluntary actions and habitual actions which are results of repeated voluntary actions.

There is a close relation between right and good. Right is considered to be a means to the realization of the good. Actions are right if they bring about what is good. And actions are wrong if they tend to bring about what is evil. Thus the conception of right is subordinate to the conception of good. All moral laws help in the attainment of highest good. So, all actions that help in the attainment of the highest good are right actions. Highest good is the goal and right is a path to the attainment of this goal. According to Mackenzie 'when we speak of actions as right, we must be understood to mean that they are calculated to bring about the good so far as we know'.

Sometimes a distinction is made between objective right and subjective right. When an action is considered to be right by the agent himself this is subjective right. Subjective rightness is determined by personal conviction. Objective rightness is determined by actual moral consequences. Subjective rightness depends upon the knowledge and attitude of the agent who chooses the right action. On the other hand, objective rightness depends upon the real good that is brought about by the right action. Thus rightness is neither purely subjective nor purely objective. Ethics is concerned with both subjective and objective rightness.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q.2. What is moral law?

.....

Q.3. When an action is judged to be right?

.....

Q.4. What is the general principle for determining the rightness of actions?

.....

4.5 DUTY

Duty refers to the actions which ought to be done. In other words, whatever man ought to do for the ultimate good is man's moral duty. These duties may include one's duties towards oneself as well as towards the society. Duties are those actions which ought to be done under the moral laws. Duty consists in obeying the moral laws. 'Duty' is also to be understood as what we ought not to do, that which goes against the moral laws.

Moral duty is attached to the feeling of moral obligation. This obligation is not an external imposition upon us. Being a moral person man imposes this obligation upon himself. Man's internal self, his moral intuition, inspires man to do his duty. Moral obligations give birth to the sense of duty. We are obliged to do moral duty. Human beings have the ability to do their duties. German philosopher Immanuel Kant said that 'ought to imply can'. For example, we cannot hold our breath for a long time. So holding of breath for a long time is not our duty. On the other hand, we have the ability to speak the truth. So, speaking the truth is our duty.

The term duty is correlated with the term 'right' understood in the sense of a justifiable claim on legal or moral grounds .Man is a social animal that lives in society. Society concedes to its members certain moral rights for common good. It is the duty of everyone to respect these rights of others. Duties are moral obligations of individuals recognized by society. The individual's rights are protected by the society. Society punishes those who seek to violate the rights of others. In other words, society concedes rights to the individuals and at the same time enforces the duty to respect other's

right upon them. So society creates and maintains rights and duties. Right implies duties and duties imply rights. Right and duty both have a reference to society.

The words right and duty may be used in another sense. If in a particular situation, an action is right, then we ought to do it, i.e. it is our duty to do it. If on the other hand, an action is wrong, we ought not to do it. When an action is judged to be right, we feel it is our duty to do what is right. And it is our duty to avoid what is wrong. Right and duty are thus correlated. We ought to do what is right. It is our duty to do what is right. Thus duty is associated with right actions.

Some philosophers make a distinction between determinate duty and indeterminate duty. Determinate duties are clearly stated and well -defined. Failure to do these duties is liable to be punished by law. On the other hand, indeterminate duties are not well -defined. Failure to do these duties is not liable to be punished by law .We are not obliged to carry out indeterminate duties. For example, repayment of loan, doing one's assigned job etc are examples of determinate duty. On the other hand, helping the poor and needy, to serve a sick man etc. are examples of indeterminate duty. However, such a classification cannot be considered as ethical because determinate duties are imposed by external authority and are done under pressure .What is done under pressure cannot be called moral obligation.

We have various duties to perform which may include our duty towards ourselves, our family, society, country etc. But in some complex situations perplexity of conscience arises when one set of duties conflicts with another set of duties. In such situations it becomes difficult to choose the right duty. For example, I have some duty towards my family as well towards my country. My duty towards the family may be in conflict with my duty towards my country. But both family and country have a right to my service. Which duty is to be done by me? Such situations regarding duties are called conflict of duties.

But actually the expression conflict of duties is not reasonable. There is no real conflict of duties. From the moral point of view we have only one act before us under every circumstance. It is due to the complex situations we are unable to decide our right duty. It is a type of mental hesitation. The so called conflict of duties arises because of our ignorance about the

character of a situation. Sometimes our emotions and passions also hamper us in choosing our right duty. Again sometimes our false believes and superstitions also forbid us in choosing our duty. A clear knowledge of the moral ideal and a rational consideration of the event from all aspects remove from the mind all perplexity of conscience and resolve the conflict.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q.5. What is moral duty?

.....

Q.6. Give two examples of determinate duty.

.....

Q.7. What gives birth to a sense of duty?

.....

4.6 VIRTUE

The word virtue is derived from the Latin word "Vir" which means valiant or strong. Virtue signifies the good habits of conduct. The general inclinations or dispositions of the self to adopt its actions to moral laws can be called virtue. It is an acquired type of character in harmony with moral law. Virtue is that quality of character which expresses itself in our actions. Every person is morally bound to perform our duties when duties are performed habitually, we acquire vice. Virtue reveals excellence of character of character. William Lillie in his book "An introduction to Ethics" says that the word virtue may be used in two different senses. In the first sense, virtue is a quality of character. And in the second sense virtue is a habit of action corresponding to the quality of character or disposition. Mackenzie in the book "A manual of Ethics" says that a virtue is both a kind of knowledge and a kind of habit. For him a virtuous man will always do right actions. According to Socrates 'virtue is knowledge'. When a person fully understands the nature of the good, he cannot fail to pursue it. Because he believes that man cannot commit any wrong after knowing it to be wrong. Virtues may be classified into three classes:

i. Self-regarding virtues: It refers to those virtues which are conducive to the agent's own good. In self regarding virtues we think only of our own good and not the good of others. Courage, temperance, perseverance etc are some examples.

ii. Other-regarding virtues: It refers to the tendencies of the self to regulate its conduct to promote the good of other persons. These virtues are conducive to the well -being of others. Justice, benevolence etc are such virtues.

iii. Ideal-regarding virtues: Ideal -regarding virtues refer to those virtues which are conducive to the realization of the impersonal ideal of Truth, Good or Beauty. Aspirations towards the aesthetic ideal or the ideal of beauty , aspirations towards the ideal perfect self etc are some such virtues.

However, such classification of virtue is not satisfactory. Because we cannot draw any such hard and fast distinction between self regarding and other regarding virtues .In fact, self regarding virtues are not only conducive to our own good, they are conducive to the goods of others as well.

There is a close relation between duty and virtue. Habitual performance of duties leads us to virtue. So, virtuous men are habituated of doing their duty. Virtue refers to inner character but duty refers to external actions of expression of character in conduct. For example, to obey our elders is our duty. But the feeling of reverence that we have in our mind for the elders is virtue. Virtue expresses itself in duty. In other words duty is virtue in action.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q.8. What is Virtue?

.....

Q.9. Who wrote the book "An introduction to Ethics"?

.....

Q.10. What is Self -regarding virtues?

.....



4.7 LET US SUM UP

- Ethics is the science of morality of conduct. Ethics is concerned with rightness and wrongness, merit and demerit, good and evil of human actions

- The concepts of right & wrong, good &evil, merit and demerit etc. are the fundamental moral concepts.
- Good means that which is valuable for some end or that which fulfils our desires and aspirations or that which is generally useful.
- When an action conforms to a moral rule or law, it is said to be right action. And when it fails to conform, it is said to be wrong.
- There is a close relation between right and good. Actions are right if they bring about what is good .And actions are wrong if they tend to bring about what is evil.
- Duty refers to the actions which ought to be done. Whatever man ought to do for the ultimate good is man's moral duty.
- Moral duty is attached to the feeling of moral obligation.
- Duty is classified into determinate duty and indeterminate duty. Determinate duties are clearly stated and well -defined. On the other hand, indeterminate duties are not clearly stated.
- We have various duties to perform .But in some complex situations one set of duties may conflicts with another set of duties. In such situations it becomes difficult to choose the right duty. Such situations regarding duties are called conflict of duties.
- The general inclinations or dispositions of the self to adopt its actions to moral laws can be called virtue.
- Virtues may be classified into three classes: Self -regarding virtues, other -regarding virtues: and Ideal -regarding virtues.
- There is a close relation between duty and virtue. Habitual performance of duties leads us to virtue.



4.8 FURTHER READING

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2) Sharma R.N. (2006) Introduction to Ethics, Surjeet Publications,Delhi.
3) Mackenzie John .S, (2010) A Manual of Ethics, Surjeet Publications, Delhi.
4) Sanyal Jagadiswar (1984) Guide to Ethics, Sribhumi Publication Co, Calcutta -9



4.9 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Ans to Q No 1:

a) Gut.

b) G.E. Moore.

c) Relative good

d) The highest good

Ans to Q No 2: Moral law is the statement of an ideal. Moral law states that something ought to be.

Ans to Q No 3: When an action conforms to a moral rule or law, it is judged as right.

Ans to Q No 4: Moral law or rule.

Ans to Q No 5: Whatever man ought to do for the ultimate good is man's moral duty.

Ans to Q No 6: Repayment of loan, doing one's assigned job.

Ans to Q No 7: Moral obligation

Ans to Q No 8: The general inclinations or dispositions of the self to adopt its actions to moral laws can be called virtue.

Ans to Q No 9: William Lillie.

Ans to Q No 10: Self -regarding virtues refers to those virtues which are conducive to the agent's own good.



4.10 MODEL QUESTIONS

A. Very Short question

Q 1: What are the fundamental concepts of ethics?

Q 2: What does the German word 'Gut' mean?

Q 3: What does the word 'wring' mean?

Q 4: Give two examples of other -regarding virtue.

Q 5: What does the Latin word 'Rectus' mean?

Q 6: What inspires man to do his duty?

Q 7: Who said 'ought to imply can'?

Q 8: Give two examples of Ideal -regarding virtues:

Q 9: What is indeterminate duty?

Q10: Why the classification of duty between determinate and indeterminate is considered as non- ethical?

B. Short question (Answer in about 150 words)

Q 1: Write a note on Good.

Q 2: What did G.E.Moore said on Good?

Q 3: Distinguish between objective right and subjective right

Q 4: Explain the relation between duty and virtue.

C. Long Questions (Answer in about 300- 500 words)

Q 1: Explain the fundamental moral concepts.

Q 2: Write a note on Conflict of Duties:

Q 3: Right implies duties and duties imply rights- Explain

* * * * *

UNIT 5 : THE THEORIES OF MORAL STANDARDS: HEDONISM

UNIT STRUCTURE

5.1 Learning Objectives
5.2 Introduction
5.3 Hedonism in Moral Philosophy
5.4 Classification of Hedonistic Theories
5.5 Psychological Hedonism
5.5.1 Critical Comments on Psychological Hedonism
5.6 Ethical Hedonism
5.6.1 Critical Comments on Ethical Hedonism
5.7 Egoistic Ethical Hedonism
5.7.1 Gross Egoistic Ethical Hedonism
5.7.2 Refined Egoistic Ethical Hedonism
5.7.3 Criticism
5.8 Altruistic or Universalistic Gross Hedonism: Bentham
5.8.1 Criticism
5.9 Altruistic or Universalistic Refined Hedonism : J. S. Mill
6.9.1 Criticism
5.10 Let Us Sum Up
5.11 Further Reading
5.12 Answers to Check Your Progress
5.13 Model Questions

5.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit you will be able to

- define Hedonism,
- discuss different types of Hedonistic Theories,
- explain Psychological Hedonism,
- discuss Ethical Hedonism,
- elaborate Bentham's Gross or Quantitative Utilitarianism,
- make critical comments on Gross Utilitarianism.
- elaborate J. S. Mill's Refined or Qualitative Utilitarianism,
- make critical comments on Refined Utilitarianism.

5.2 INTRODUCTION

This unit introduces to you that ethical theory which propounds that we always desire pleasure. Pleasure is the only object of desire, good or bad. You should remember that in Moral Philosophy or in Ethics actions are judged as good or bad by reference to the supreme end of life. Do you know how actions are judged as good or bad? Any action which is conducive to consistent with the supreme end of life is judged as good. Again, any action which is not conducive to or inconsistent with the supreme end of life is judged as bad. There are many ethical thinkers like Bentham. Mill etc., who have propounded that 'Pleasure is the supreme end of life or Summum Bonum of man'

5.3 HEDONISM IN MORAL PHILOSOPHY

The word Hedonism is derived from the Greek word 'Hedone' which means pleasure. The Moral philosophy which advocates that 'Pleasure is the supreme end of life' is known as Hedonism. The thinkers of this theory are known as Hedonists. Aristippus, ***Epicurus***, Bentham and Mill are the important philosophers of the Hedonistic school. All these thinkers have accepted the importance of feeling in human life. Feeling is the highest function of mind. Hedonist thinkers have accepted that those feelings are good which give pleasure in human life. Therefore, Hedonistic Ethics is called the 'Ethics of Sensibility'.

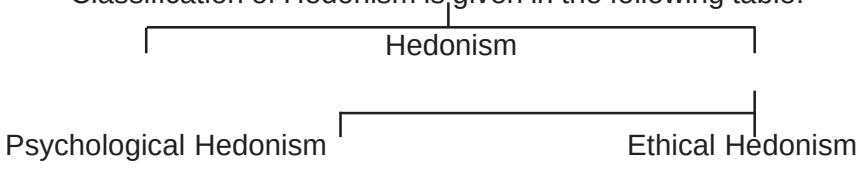


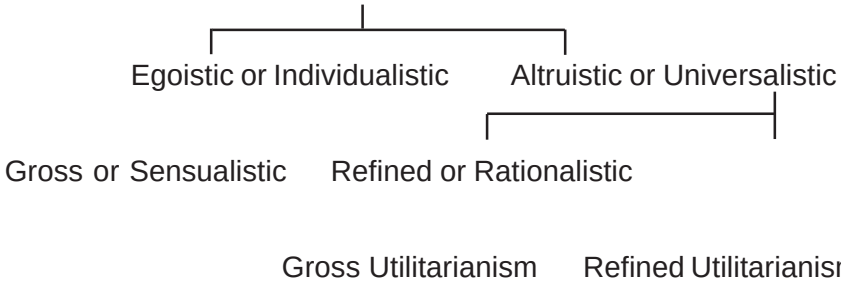
Epicurus (341-270 BC) recognizes that reason is most fundamental in the conduct of life.

5.4 CLASSIFICATION OF HEDONISTIC THEORIES

Hedonism is broadly classified into two categories. They are Psychological Hedonism and Ethical Hedonism. Again, Ethical Hedonism is broadly classified into two categories. They are: Egoistic or Individualistic, and Altruistic or Universalistic. Egoistic Hedonism is further classified into Gross or Sensualistic Hedonism and Refined or Rationalistic Hedonism. While Altruistic is further classified into Gross Utilitarianism and Refined Utilitarianism.

Classification of Hedonism is given in the following table:





5.5 PSYCHOLOGICAL HEDONISM

Psychological Hedonism advocates that 'Pleasure is the natural object of desire'. We always seek pleasure and avoid pain. Pleasure is defined as the natural end and motive of human action. According to this theory individuals desire things only for the purpose of seeking pleasure. Therefore, things are not desired for their own purpose.

The chief exponents of this theory in ancient time were Cyrenaics. They are the followers of Aristappus of Cyrene. According to the Cyrenaics we always seek pleasure and avoid pain because 'Pleasure is the natural object of desire.' Their main concern was to live a good life. It was an ethical concern. They advocated that a life of pleasure led rationally should be the ideal.

Again, the modern exponents of this theory are Bain, Jeremy Bentham and J.S.Mill. Bentham upholds that the fundamental motives of our actions are both pleasure and pain. In life we always aim at attaining this fundamental motive. But, for J.S.Mill we, only desire pleasure. Things are desired only for the attainment of pleasure.

5.5.1 Critical Comments on Psychological Hedonism

Psychological Hedonism is criticized because of its two fundamental doctrines. They are :

1. Pleasure is the ultimate object of every desire.
2. Humane choice is always determined by the idea of pleasure.

Criticism on Psychological Hedonism is elaborated below:

a) Critics here are of the opinion that Psychological Hedonism is based on un-psychological mental process. So it is un-psychological in nature. You know that there is a

psychological mental order when we seek for any desired object. It follows as, (i) want (ii) desire of an object (iii) desire to attain the object (iv) the feeling of pleasure. But in Psychological Hedonism this mental order is not followed. When we desire pleasure and not things for their own sake then it contradicts the theory that we normally desire an object and pleasure follows as a result. Psychological Hedonism fails to explain that how pleasure is desired beforehand (i.e. before the object is desired.) Critics hold that pleasure is the result of the satisfaction of a desire which is directed to an object. Happiness is the result of the attainment of an object. For example, we may desire for wealth, good health, name and fame. Here we primarily desire for the object and pleasure follows as a consequence of its fulfillment.

b) Again, if pleasure is the only motive of human action as Psychological Hedonism advocates, then Critics point out that more we try to attain happiness or pleasure, the less we achieve it. Critics hereby comment that when we are more disinterested for pleasure we obtain pleasure more easily. Hence, ordinarily speaking, any conditional or selfish human action can never give pleasure or happiness. It is only unconditional or self-less human action that can give ample pleasure or happiness in life. Even Mill observes that those are happy who have not fixed their mind on some object other than their own happiness.

Critics like Sidgwick and Rashdall comment that this is the paradox of Hedonism. Do you know what paradox means? Paradox means 'self contradictory statement'. So the Hedonistic conclusion 'Pleasure is the supreme end of life' is self-contradicted if we accept the above explanation that pleasure is possible if we do not run after it. Sidwick adds his comment in this regard that the complexity in Psychological Hedonism arises because 'predominating impulse towards pleasure actually defeats its own aim.'

Rashdall justifies his own opinion on the complexity of Psychological Hedonism by saying that it involves a 'hysteron proteron'. This means 'the cart before the horse'. Rashdall puts that in Psychological Hedonism pleasure is put before the object … … the 'hysteron proteron' The effect is put before the cause. It is true that the satisfaction of a desire brings pleasure but it is always not the fact that the object is desired because it is thought to be pleasurable.

c) The word pleasure itself is ambiguous because of two reasons. They are as follows:

   i) the word pleasure is usually used to mean the feeling of satisfaction arising from the attainment of some object

   ii) the word pleasure is sometimes used to mean an object that gives pleasure.

   In the second condition we refer to a concrete object that gives us pleasure. This view is not objected to because whenever we desire an object and the attainment of it gives us pleasure. The problem is when we speak of pleasure in reference to an object because we mean here the feeling of pleasure or satisfaction which the object brings with it after its attainment. This shows that we always desire some object and the attainment of it is accompanied by a feeling of pleasure or happiness. Therefore, we desire the object and do not desire the pleasure.

d) Psychological Hedonists cannot distinguish between 'pleasure in idea' and 'the idea of pleasure '. Parents take pleasure in self-sacrifice for their children's good. But self-sacrifice is the basic motive of their action.They are prepared to sacrifice their own self-interest for the betterment of their children which is their motive. So you can understand why pleasure cannot be the natural object of desire and as such Psychological Hedonism is not accepted as a satisfactory Ethical Theory.



ACTIVITY : 6.1

1. What do you mean by hedonism? Discuss.

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CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q.1. Name the thinkers who have supported Psychological Hedonism in modern times.

.....

Q.2. Define Psychological Hedonism. (Answer in about 20 words)

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Q.3. State whether the following statements are True or False

a) In Psychological Hedonism pleasure is accepted as the natural end and motive of human action (True/False).

b) Psychological Hedonism is not related simply with a statement of fact. (True/False).

c) The Greek word 'hedone' means pleasure. (True/False)

d) Hedonism advocates that pleasure is the supreme end of life. (True/False)

Q.4. What are the two main forms of hedonism?

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.....

5.6 ETHICAL HEDONISM

After going through the table of the classification of Hedonism you can understand that Ethical Hedonism is another type of Hedonism.

Ethical Hedonism advocates that we ought to seek pleasure. These thinkers hold that 'Pleasure is the proper object of our desire'. The Hedonist thinkers like Bentham and J. S. Mill have developed their Ethical thinking on Psychological Hedonism. We find an element of difference in Sidgwick's thinking. He has not developed his Ethical Hedonism on Psychological Hedonism. Why, do you know? The reply is, for Sidgwick, pleasure is the reasonable subject of our desire.

5.6.1 Critical Comments on Ethical Hedonism

Let us now discuss the critical comments on ethical Hedonism :

The fundamental principle in the doctrine of Ethical Hedonism is in identifying value with pleasure. This identification is strongly criticized. We can never say that pleasure is the only value of an object. We can never identify value with pleasure. Let us consider, for example, virtue, beauty, knowledge etc. When these are attained we feel pleasure and when we fail to attain them we feel pain. So you can see that here pleasure is not identified with value.

Actually value depends on the object of desire. Pleasure and pain need to be defined. Pleasure is the feeling of positive value; on the other hand pain is the sense of negative value. Pleasure, therefore, is the sign of value. It is not the value itself. You can understand why we cannot identify pleasure with value. Pleasure is ***sentient*** and ***transient*** while happiness is rational and abiding.



Sentient : Capable of being perceived or felt.
Transient : Lasting only for a short time.

Moreover pleasure cannot be considered as the ultimate value of any object. Here Rashdall, holds that pleasure is one of the values of any object. Pleasure according to Rashdall is inferior to knowledge, beauty and virtue. Virtue is the highest value when compared with happiness, knowledge and beauty.



ACTIVITY : 5.2

1. What do you mean by hedonism? Discuss.

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2. Is psychological hedonism satisfactory? What do you think? Discuss.

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CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q.5. Does Sidwick develop Ethical Hedonism on Psychological Hedonism?

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Q.6. What are the different types of Ethical Hedonism?

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Q.7. State whether the following statements are True or False:

a) Ethical Hedonism identifies value with pleasure. (T/F)

b) Sidwick advocates that pleasure is not the reasonable object our desire. (T/F).

5.7 EGOISTIC ETHICAL HEDONISM

According to Egoistic Ethical Hedonism, 'Pleasure of the individual is the moral standard'. This theory advocates that every person ought to seek his own greatest pleasure. The doctrine of this theory is that when an action promotes the agent's own greatest happiness, that action is good. Again, when an action does not promote the agent's own greatest happiness, that action is bad. Two factors are taken into consideration while justifying the quality of pleasure. They are: intensity and duration. Egoistic Ethical Hedonism are sub-divided into Gross Egoistic Ethical Hedonism and Refined Egoistic Ethical Hedonism.

5.7.1 Gross Egoistic Ethical Hedonism

Gross or Sensualistic Egoism is found in the teachings of ***Aristippus***. Aristippus advocates that 'the only good of life is the individual's own pleasure'. All pleasures are alike in kind. Pleasures differ only in intensity or degree and duration. So he recognizes no qualitative differences among pleasures. The dictum of this Sensualistic Egoism is 'Let us eat, drink and be merry, for tomorrow

we may die'. According to ***Thomas Hobbes*** man thinks only for himself. He naturally seeks his own pleasure and avoids pain.

In modern time Sensualistic Egoism has been propounded by ***Mandeville*** and ***Helvetius***. Both of these thinkers share the same philosophy. They state that 'self-love is the only virtue for man'.



Bentham, Jeremy : (Feb15,1748-June 6, 1832) British Philosopher, Jurist, Social reformer and the founder of modern utilitarianism.

5.7.2 Refined Egoistic Ethical Hedonism

Refined Egoistic Ethical Hedonism is found in the teaching of Epicurus. He advocates that reason is the proper guide for the attainment of true happiness. Epicurus prefers mental pleasure than physical pleasures. The reason is that mental pleasure is more pure and un-mixed with pain. The dictum of his ethical thinking is: 'happiness is possible not in cultivating our capacities of enjoyment but by reducing our wants and desires'.

5.7.3 Criticism

Let us now turn to the criticism of Gross Refined Ethical Hedonism

a) Both Gross and Refined Ethical Hedonism have been criticized because critics opine that these theories actually depend on Psychological Hedonism. The fundamental paradox of Hedonism: 'impulse towards pleasure, if too predominant, defeats its own aim' is present in these two Hedonistic theories.

b) You know that human nature involves ***egoistic*** element but he has in him ***altruistic*** elements also. Hence pleasure is always relative and can never be universalized. In Egoistic Hedonism morality itself is in question because it has failed to provide us with an uniform standard of morality. There is no criterion to judge our action as right or wrong because for the Gross Ethical Hedonists, 'Happiness or bliss means the highest possible amount of physical pleasure.'

c) Refined Egoism is undoubtedly more reflective than sensualistic egoism. Refined Egoism Recognizes the function of reason in moral life because it does not regard momentary pleasure as the highest good of life.

5.8 ALTRUISTIC ETHICAL HEDONISM– BENTHAM

Bentham's Ethical Theory is known as Altruistic Ethical Hedonism or Universalistic Hedonism. But it is Gross or Quantitative Utilitarianism in nature. According to Bentham, universal pleasure is the supreme end in moral life. You know that Utilitarianism means that the ultimate standard of morality is 'the greatest happiness of the greatest number'. This dictum is present in Bentham's theory of Utilitarianism. But it is Gross in nature because of two fundamental principles. They are as follows:

1. Bentham justifies that 'the only standard of value is quantity'.
2. For Bentham, man is naturally egoistic

Bentham does not admit any qualitative differences among pleasure. For e.g. purity is not any superior quality. Bentham defines pleasure as pure when it is unmixed with pain. Again, he defines pain as pure when it is unmixed with pleasure. Hence, this view of Bentham makes his Utilitarianism as Gross in nature. Moreover Bentham's Hedonism is 'Altruistic' only because he considers 'extent of pleasure'. By 'extent of pleasure' he means dimension of pleasure i.e. we ought to aim at universal happiness. Do you know what Hedonistic Calculus is? Hedonistic Calculus means that we have to calculate pleasure and pain equally. Bentham advices us to: "Weigh pleasures, weigh pains and as the balance stands, will stand the question of right and wrong".



Aristippus : (c.435-c.355 BC) Greek Philosopher, a follower of Socrates

Thomas Hobbes : Thomas (1588-1679) English political philosopher.

Mandeville : Bernard(1670-1733) Main Book, The Feeble of the Bees

Helvitius: Claude-Adrien(1715-71)French Enlightenment philosopher.



Egoistic : One who believes that our actions are caused by a Wish to benefit ourselves.

Altruistic : Believing in welfare and happiness of others rather than one's own.

5.8.1 Criticism

The basic criticism is that Bentham's Gross Utilitarianism is criticized by many thinkers. His theory of Egoistic Hedonism or Individualistic can never be Altruistic or Universalistic in nature.

- According to the critics Bentham's Gross Utilitarianism is based on psychological postulate… 'an individual is bound by his very nature', In this case the desire for 'general happiness' becomes a burden on the theory itself. How can a self-interested individual think for the welfare of the society?
- The critics also point out that the Gross nature arises because he did not recognize the qualitative difference of pleasures.
- Bentham's emphasis on the extent of pleasure makes the hedonistic calculus very difficult. It is just next to impossibile to

calculate the pleasures of others. If we do so then we have to provide a new standard of value which can justify our own pleasure as well as other's pleasure. Hedonism never supports to calculate the pleasure of all mankind.

5.9 ALTRUISTIC OR UNIVERASLISTIC REFINED HEDONISM– J. S. MILL

J. S. Mill advocates Altruistic Hedonism. His theory is refined or qualitative in nature. Mill's theory of Altruistic Hedonism is also called Utilitarianism. The dictum of his ethical theory is that 'the standard is not the individual's happiness but happiness for all.' This is the qualitative value and the ethics of utility. J. S. Mill admits that 'The happiness which forms the utilitarian standard of what is right in conduct, is not the agent's own happiness, but that of all concerned. In the golden rule of Jesus of Nazareth, we read the complete spirit of the ethics of utility. To do as one would be done by, and to love one's neighbor as oneself constitute the ideal perfection of utilitarian morality. (Utilitarianism, Ch.II, pp.24, 25)

You can raise two questions:

A. How can we prove that 'general happiness is desirable'?

B. What makes us to promote 'the general happiness'?

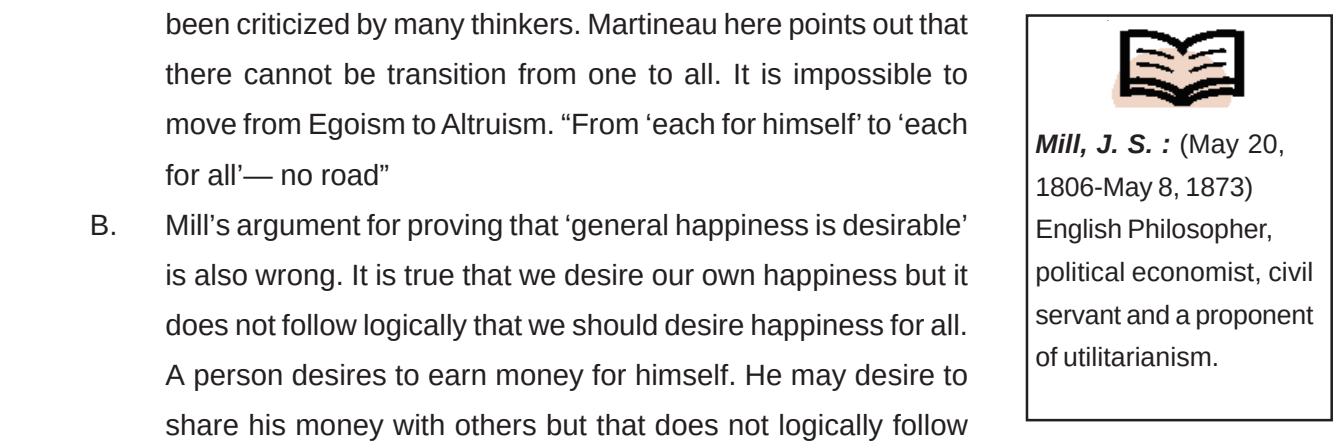
- In reply to the first question (A) Mill says that happiness is good. One's happiness is good to that individual and therefore general happiness is good to all mankind.
- Again, in reply to the second question (B) Mill says that the agent's happiness lies not in one's own but in general happiness. So every individual must promote 'the general happiness'. Mill holds that in Utilitarianism an individual must do self-less, i.e. desireless, activities because, according to him, an individual must be an impartial and benevolent spectator in selecting his own happiness and that of others.

5.9.1 Criticism

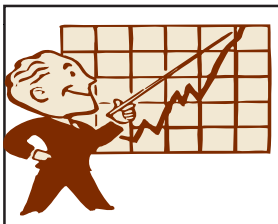
Mill's theory of Altruistic hedonism has been subject to following criticisms.

A. Altruistic or Universalistic Refined hedonism of J. S. Mill has been criticized by many thinkers. Martineau here points out that there cannot be transition from one to all. It is impossible to move from Egoism to Altruism. "From 'each for himself' to 'each for all'— no road"

B. Mill's argument for proving that 'general happiness is desirable' is also wrong. It is true that we desire our own happiness but it does not follow logically that we should desire happiness for all. A person desires to earn money for himself. He may desire to share his money with others but that does not logically follow that he must make all happy while sharing his money with all. Utilitarianism, therefore, fails to give us sufficient ground of moral obligation.



Mill, J. S. : (May 20, 1806-May 8, 1873) English Philosopher, political economist, civil servant and a proponent of utilitarianism.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q.8. Who is the main advocate of Altruistic or universalistic refined hedonism?

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Q.9. Define altruistic ethical hedonism? (Answer in about 70 words)

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Q.10. What is altruistic or universalistic refined hedonism? (Answer in about 60 words)

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Q.11. Fill in the blanks :

a) For Banthum man is naturally .....

b) According to Benthum and Mill ..... is the ..... in morals.

c) Banthum advocates ..... utilitarianism.

d) J. S. Mill advocates ..... utilitarianism.



5.10 LET US SUM UP

The following discussion has dealt with hedonism in all its aspect. The following points stand out as central to our discussion.

- Hedonism advocates that pleasure is the end of life.
- Hedonism is divided into Psychological Hedonism and Ethical Hedonism.
- Psychological hedonism advocates that pleasure is the natural object of desire.
- Psychological Hedonism has been criticized by many thinkers because according to this theory pleasure pre-supposes the desired object. But according to the critics the attainment of any desired object gives us pleasure.
- Sidgwick has not developed his Ethical Hedonism on Psychological Hedonism. According to him, pleasure is the reasonable subject of our desire.
- Rashdall, while criticizing Ethical Hedonism, holds that pleasure or happiness can be considered as one of the values of an individual. Pleasure cannot be the only value of our life. He considers virtue as the highest value in comparison to happiness, knowledge and beauty. Pleasure and value are not identical.
- Ethical Hedonism holds that pleasure is the proper object of our desire.
- Egoistic Hedonism which is a type of Ethical Hedonism advocates that pleasure of the individual is the end of life. It is thus the standard of morality.
- According to Gross Egoistic Ethical Hedonism all pleasures are alike in kind. The pleasures of the body are more important than that of the soul. Only the present is certain. Future is uncertain.
- Sensualistic Egoism is criticized by those thinkers who have never supported the maxim: 'Happiness means the highest possible amount of physical pleasure.'

- Epicurus propounds that individual's mind should be free from those thoughts which give him pain and anxiety. Every man should seek permanent pleasures in life easily. The happiest life is that in which there is no conflict and no failures. It is 'one of simple ease, good will, serene leisure' .
- The standard of morality, according to Altruistic Hedonism, is the greatest happiness of the greatest number.
- Bentham advocates Gross Utilitarianism because he considers that the only standard of value is quantity.
- In Bentham's Gross Altruistic Hedonism there is no place for reason because according to him man is basically egoistic in nature
- Mill advocates Refined Utilitarianism. He gives priority to self-less activity in the attainment of pleasure or happiness. The standard of morality in Mill's Refined Altruistic Hedonism is the quality. of pleasure.
- In Mill's Utilitarianism actions are to de judged according to their utility. It is thus pragmatic in nature. Here utility has been considered as a means for the promotion of general pleasure and prevention of general pain.



5.11 FURTHER READING

1. Chatterji, Phanibhushan. (1952). *Principles Of Ethics*. Beadon Street Calcutta.
2. Lillie, William. (1964) *An Introduction to Ethics*: Methuen.
3. Sinha, Jadunath. (1973) *A Manual Of Ethics*. New Central Book Agency, Calcutta 9.
4. William K. Frankena: *Ethics*. Prentice-Hall, 1973.



5.12 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Ans. to Q. No. 1 : Bain, Hume, Bentham and Mill.

Ans. to Q. No. 2 : Psychological Hedonism advocates that pleasure is the natural and normal object of desire.

Ans. to Q. No. 3 : a) True b) False c) True d) True

Ans. to Q. No. 4 : Psychological hedonism and ethical hedonism

Ans. to Q. No. 5 : No

Ans. to Q. No. 6 : Egoistic Hedonism and Altruistic Hedonism

Ans. to Q. No. 7 : a) True b) False

Ans. to Q. No. 8 : J. S. Mill

Ans. to Q. No. 9 : Bentham's Ethical Theory is known as Altruistic Ethical Hedonism or Universalistic Hedonism. This theory is Gross or Quantitative Utilitarianism in nature, because it has two reasons: 1) Bentham justifies that 'the only standard of value is quantity'. 2) For Bentham, man is naturally egoistic. Bentham holds that universal pleasure is the supreme end in moral life. But, he does not advocate any qualitative difference among pleasures. So, his theory is known as Quantitative Utilitarianism.

Ans. to Q. No. 10 : J. S. Mill's ethical theory is known as Altruistic Hedonism. It is refined or qualitative in nature. He gives priority to self-less activity in the attainment of pleasure or happiness. The standard of morality in Mill's Refined Altruistic Hedonism is the quality of pleasure. The dictum of his ethical theory is that 'the standard is not the individual's happiness but happiness for all.'

Ans. to Q. No. 11 : a) Egoistic; b) Universalistic pleasure is the supreme end; c) Gross; d) Refined.



5.13 MODEL QUESTIONS

A) Very Short Questions :

Q.1. According to hedonism, What is the supreme end of life?

Q.2. Who are the main advocates of hedonistic school?

Q.3. Mention the other name of the hedonistic school.

Q.4. State the main objective of hedonism.

Q.5. Write the names of the chief exponents of psychological hedonism.

Q.6. What is the motto of psychological hedonism?

Q.7. What do you mean by 'hysteron proteron?

Q.8. Who are the advocates of Gross Egoistic Ethical Hedonism?

Q.9. Define altruistic ethical hedonism.

Q.10. Write the definition of altruistic or universalistic refined hedonism.

B) Short Questions (Answer in about 150 words)

Q.1. Briefly comment on psychological hedonism.

Q.2. What is ethical hedonism? Discuss briefly.

Q.3. Do you find any distinction between Gross egoistic ethical hedonism and refined egoistic ethical hedonism? Explain briefly.

Q.4. Distinguish between altruistic ethical hedonism and altruistic or universalistic refined hedonism.

Q.5. What is altruistic ethical hedonism? Briefly discuss.

C) Long Questions (Answer in about 300-500 words)

Q.1. Explain critically Psychological Hedonism.

Q.2. Explain and examine Ethical Hedonism.

Q.3. Explain the different types of Hedonism.

Q.4. How does Bentham explain Gross Ethical Hedonism? Discuss.

Q.5. How does J. S. Mill explain Refined Ethical Hedonism? Explain.

Q.6. What are the basic differences between Gross Ethical Hedonism and Refined Ethical Hedonism? Discuss in detail.

Q.7. Why is J. S. Mill's Refined Ethical Hedonism called utilitarianism? Discuss.

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UNIT 6 : UTILITARIANISM: BENTHAM AND MILL

UNIT STRUCTURE

6.1 Learning Objectives
6.2 Introduction
6.3 Utilitarianism
6.4 Historical Background of Utilitarianism
6.5 Bentham and his Philosophy
6.6 Universalistic Hedonism
6.7 Bentham's View of Utilitarianism
6.8 Principle of Utility is the Basis of Legal and Social reforms
6.9 Criticism
6.10 Mill's Life and Works
6.11 Mill and Hedonism
6.12 Mill's Utilitarianism
6.13 Bentham and Mil
6.14 Let us sum up
6.15 Further reading
6.16 Answers to Check Your Progress

6.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- discuss Utilitarianism as a standard of morality.
- explain Jeremy Bentham's idea of Utilitarianism
- describe the basic points of Bentham's moral philosophy
- explain the critical comments on Bentham's moral philosophy.
- explain Mill's idea of Utilitarianism
- describe the basic points of Mill's moral philosophy
- explain how Mill's Utilitarianism differ from that of Bentham's Utilitarianism.

6.2 INTRODUCTION

This unit introduces to you Bentham's theory of morality. Ethics is primarily concerned with moral judgements. But it is evident that moral judgement presupposes a standard or norm or ideal with reference to which

an action is judged to be right or wrong. The actions which are conductive to proposed moral ideal are good or right, and those that do not conform to the moral ideal are wrong or bad. There are different theories regarding the nature of the ultimate moral standard. The two prominent moral theories are: teleological theories and deontological theories. Teleological theories are concerned with the consequences of an action that is rightness or wrongness of our action depends on the good or evil generated. On the other hand deontological theories emphasises on the relationship between duty and the morality of human action.

Utilitarianism is a powerful approach to normative ethics. This theory holds that the consequences of any action are considered as the standard of morality and as such it belongs to the teleological theory of obligation. According to this theory of morality, the ultimate end is the greatest general good. Utilitarianism holds that an action is right or obligatory if and only if it produces a greater balance of good over evil in the universe as a whole. Thus, Utilitarianism appeals to the 'principle of utility' for passing moral judgement.

This unit also introduces to you John Stuart Mill's Utilitarianism. Mill developed and refined Bentham's quantitative utilitarianism. Like Bentham, Mill accepts hedonism and states pleasure is the proper 'end' of all actions. But unlike Bentham, Mill says that pleasures differ in quality as well as in quantity. The highest good, according to Mill, lies in the enjoyment of noble, dignified, and elevated pleasures, even though these are of small intensity and duration. Hence, his doctrine is called Refined Utilitarianism as contrasted with Bentham's Gross Utilitarianism. Mill utilitarianism explicitly states that the standard of morality is not the agent's own happiness but happiness in general.

Mill advocated rule-utilitarianism. Rule-Utilitarianism emphasises the centrality of rules in morality and insists that rightness or wrongness of an act depends upon its conformity to a rule. He tried to meet up the criticisms against utilitarianism raised by the opponent particularly the criticism like utilitarianism is 'a doctrine worthy only of swine'.

6.3 UTILITARIANISM

Utilitarianism is a theory about what we ought to do. It states that the best action is the one that maximizes utility. "Utility" is defined in various

ways, usually in terms of the well-being of sentient entities, such as human beings. Though there are many varieties of Utilitarianism, generally it asserts the view that morally right actions are those that provide greatest possible balance of good over evil for the majority of people. That means right action is one that produces the most good. Thus, it appeals to the 'principle of utility' to tell what is right or obligatory.

Utilitarianism is a certain kind of teleological theory of obligation. So, it is a powerful approach to normative ethics. Utilitarianism is mainly concerned with the question, "What ought a person to do?" The answer is that a person ought to act so as to produce the best consequences possible. As such it maintains that the rightness or wrongness of an action depends upon the consequences. In assessing the consequences utilitarianism relies upon some theory of intrinsic value i.e. Something is held to be good in itself, apart from further consequences.

Utilitarianism is distinguished from egoism with regard to the scope of the relevant consequences produced by an act. On the utilitarian view one ought to maximize the overall good - that is, consider the good of others as well as one's own good but egoism does not take other people seriously. Unlike egoism, utilitarianism considers all interests equally.

Utilitarianism eliminates the possible conflicts of the basic principles of ethical egoism and deontological theories. Deontological theories take other people seriously but do not take the promotion of good seriously. On the other hand egoism takes the promotion of good seriously but does not take other people seriously. But utilitarianism remedies both of these defects at once.

Utilitarianism also differs from ethical theories that make the rightness or wrongness of an act dependent upon the motive of the agent, for, according to the utilitarian, it is possible for the right thing to be done from a bad motive.

Some utilitarians are hedonists. They equate good with pleasure. For example, Jeremy Bentham and John Stuart Mill have usually been hedonists in their view about what is good. They identify good with pleasure and asserts the view that moral end is the greatest balance of pleasure over pain. But some utilitarian are not hedonists, for example, G.E. Moore and Hasting Rashdall. They have been called 'Ideal' utilitarian.

6.4 HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF UTILITARIANISM

Utilitarianism has its origin in the ancient Greek Philosophy. But the tradition of utilitarianism properly begins with Bentham, and has included John Stuart Mill, Henry Sidgwick, R. M. Hare and Peter Singer.

A hedonistic theory of the value of life is found in the early 5th century B.C. in the ethical teachings of Aristippus of Cyrene, founder of the Cyrenaic school and a century later in that of Epicurus and their followers in ancient Greece. Aristippus and Epicurus advocated Egoistic Hedonism. According to them, the only good of life is the individual's own pleasure i.e. every person ought to seek his own greatest pleasure.

The seeds of ethical universalism are found in the doctrines of the rival ethical school of Stoicism and in Christianity. Other significant dimensions of the theory can be traced to the 17th century writings of Hobbes, Locke and Richard Cumberland. Some historians have identified Bishop Richard Cumberland, as the first to have a utilitarian philosophy. A generation later, however, Francis Hutcheson, a British "moral sense" theorist, more clearly held a utilitarian view. Hutcheson first spoke of 'the greatest happiness of the greatest numbers' as a principle of moral conduct in An Inquiry Concerning the Original of our Ideas of Virtue or Moral Good (1725). Bentham read David Hume's Treatise of Human Nature and from him Bentham learnt that moral philosophy, like natural science, must begin with empirical observation and the techniques of the one were equally applicable in other and he also learnt from Hume to equate virtue with utility. Of course, Bentham was not entirely satisfied with Hume's moral philosophy because Hume explained moral judgement in terms of 'moral sentiments'.

Bentham in his first product A Fragment on Government critically analysed English law and set the new foundation of the principle of utility. In this book, Bentham first stated the 'fundamental axiom' that 'it is the greatest happiness of the greatest number that is the measure of right or wrong'.

Bentham's major work of his early period is An Introduction to the Principles of Morals and Legislation (1789). In this work he clarifies the basic concepts of his utilitarian philosophy. The early chapters make it clear that utility is the operative principle upon which all else is based. Subsequent

chapters explain the incricacies of human motivation, consequences of actions, classification of offences and elements of appropriate laws and punishments. Later on, Sidgwick gives the definition of Utilitarianism in his The Methods of Ethics in a precise way. He says, "By utilitarianism is here meant the ethical theory that the conduct which, under any given circumstances, is objectively right, is that which will produce the greatest amount of happiness on the whole; that is, taking into account all whose happiness is affected by the conduct. "

Let us discuss Bentham's utilitarianism in the subsequent paragraphs.

6.5 BENTHAM AND HIS PHILOSOPHY

Jeremy Bentham was an English philosopher. He was born on 15 February 1748 and died on 6 June 1832. He was the elder son of an attorney, Jeremiah Bentham and his wife, Alicia Whitehorn. He entered Queen's College, Oxford, at the age 12 and after graduation entered Lincoln's Inn to study law. He was admitted to the bar in 1767 but never practiced. He spent his life writing, advocating changes along utilitarian lines of the whole legal system.

From Bentham's early writings, it is known that he was from the first an empiricist. He held that all knowledge is derived from sensation. In the seventeenth century empiricism had been appropriated to serve the needs of physical science. Bentham also claimed that the science of legislation ought to be built on the same immovable basis of sensation and experience as that of medicine. The basis of both sciences is observation of the human nature.

Bentham rejected all forms of idealism in philosophy, and he held that there were no rational grounds which compelled belief in a God. He insisted that existence is a purely material phenomenon. As matter is quantifiable in mathematical terms, this principle is extended to the pleasures and pains that we experience.

The focus on human action and the pleasures and pains that motivate action constituted the psychological foundation of Bentham's utilitarianism. As a psychological hedonist, he holds that pleasures and pains determine what we do. The questions of utility, according to him lie at the heart of all that an individual seeks to do.

6.6 UNIVERSALISTIC HEDONISM

Universalistic hedonism or Altruism is the theory that what we ought to aim at is the greatest possible amount of pleasure of all human beings. According to this theory 'the greatest happiness of thegreatest number' is the ultimate moral standard. This theory encompasses two essential elements: (1) the rightness or wrongness of an action is determined by the goodness of its consequences; (2) the only thing that is good in itself is pleasure and the only thing bad in itself is pain, and happiness is the aggregate of pleasures over pains. The chief exponents of this theory are Jeremy Bentham, J.S. Mill and Henry Sidgwick. According to this theory, whatever the good and the bad are, they are capable of being measured. Bentham has recognised this most explicitly and thus he believes in hedonic calculus of pleasures and pains using seven dimensions of value: intensity, duration, proximity, certainty, purity, fecundity and extent. But Mill has introduced quality as well quantity into the evaluation of pleasures.

6.7 BENTHAM'S VIEW OF UTILITARIANISM

Bentham, in his major work An Introduction to the Principles of Morals and Legislation (IPML) introduced the notion of utility as a 'principle' and argued that as a first principle used to establish everything else. The principle of utility simply means usefulness, coming from the Latin word utilis meaning 'useful'. Bentham says that 'by utility is meant that property in any object, whereby it tends to produce benefit, advantage, pleasure, good or happiness or to prevent the happening of mischief, pain, evil or unhappiness'. The key point is that there is a single source of value which can be called utility, and it is to be maximized. Bentham considered that moral actions were to be justified on the basis of utilitarian principle.

Bentham in the first chapter of his major works 'An Introduction to the Principle of Morals and Legislation' states that only pleasure (or happiness) is intrinsically good, and its opposite, pain (or unhappiness),is intrinsically bad. The desire to increase pleasure and avoid pain not only determines how we do act, but how we ought to act. This forms the basis of his 'principle of utility', which he later called 'the greatest happiness principle'.

Now question is,whose happiness or unhappiness should we consider? Bentham makes it clear thatit is the entire 'community', not just

certain individuals. The community is composed by the individual persons. So, the interest of the community is the sum of the interests of the several members who compose the community.Bentham therefore associated 'utility' with the aim of **'greatest happiness of the greatest number'**. The underlying notion of utilitarianism is that the end of human conduct is happiness. This theory, therefore judges all actions according to their utility as means for the promotion of general happiness or prevention of general pain. An action that conforms to the principle is an action that 'ought' to be done.Therefore, Bentham's utility principle involves two important features. First, by this foundational principle Bentham meant to refer to a feeling that approved the utility of an action. Second, the principle of utility generally meant 'public' utility, and the utility of the individual was that part of public utility in which the individual shared.

According to Bentham, the moral worthiness of an action depends upon the consequences of that action.An action is right if it produces most good i.e. best action is the one that maximizes utility. Thus, Utilitarianism is a form of consequentialism, meaning that the rightness or wrongness of an action is determined by its outcome.

Bentham's utilitarianism as it based on consequence holds that right action is justified by future states of affairs rather than by past event. For example, Bentham's account of the justification of punishment is a deterrent account. Punishment is justified if it deters people from committing undesirable actions. More precisely, for Bentham, the proper aim of punishment is to produce pleasure and to prevent pain.

Bentham's Utilitarianism reflects psychological hedonism that pleasure and pain defines the motives of human behaviour. Bentham, in the first chapter of An Introduction to the Principles of Morals and Legislation writes, "Nature has placed mankind under the governance of two sovereign matters, pain and pleasure. It is for them alone to point out what ought to do, as well to determine what we shall do. On the one hand the standard of right and wrong, on the other the chain of causes and effects are fastened to their throne. They govern us in all we do, in all we say,in all we think: every effort we can make to throw off our subjection, will serve but to demonstrate and confirm it." (IPML 11). Bentham views pleasure and pain as the primary motives by reference to which all human activities can be explained. They are the 'real entities' of individual experience, acting both

as the final cause of individual action, and as the efficient causes and means to individual happiness. For Bentham, the relationship between happiness and pleasure and pain is straightforward; pleasure contributes to happiness, while pain detracts from it.

In chapter three of Bentham's work An Introduction to the Principles of Morals and Legislation, he discusses four 'sanctions' to explain how an essentially self-interested individual directed to perform actions which enhance the general happiness of both himself and others. The four external sanctions are: the physical, the moral, the political and the religious. Bentham explains the transition from egoism to altruism by means of these sanctions.

In Bentham's utilitarianism, any law or action is considered as good if it can produces 'the greatest happiness for the greatest number'. In chapter Four of his work An Introduction to the Principles of Morals and Legislation, Bentham raises the important question of how one is to measure pleasure and pain. In this regard, Bentham developed a 'hedonisticcalculus' of pleasure and pains using seven dimensions:intensity, duration, proximity, certainty, purity, fecundity and extent. Thus, Bentham describes that pleasure and pain can be evaluated in terms of quantity. It follows that Bentham's utilitarianism is quantitative in nature. He justifies that only standard of value is quantity.As he said, "quantity of pleasure being equal, pushpin is as good as poetry". That is, 'pushpin is as good as poetry' if they are equal in the quantity of pleasure they produce. Of course, John Stuart Mill introduced quality as well as quantity into the evaluation of pleasures.

6.8 PRINCIPLE OF UTILITY IS THE BASIS OF LEGAL AND SOCIAL REFORMS

Bentham based the legal system on his utilitarian principle. He understood the legal system in the same way of his moral thought. Bentham announced that the principle of utility is the foundation of his system and the business of government is 'promote the happiness of the society by punishing and rewarding'.

Bentham did not acknowledge any necessity for the intercession of religion in moral life. Bentham's theory of utilitarianism evaluates actions considering their consequences. Bentham in his work A Fragment on Governmentattacked the legal theory of Sir William Blackstone vehemently, who was advocating tradition, and Bentham holds that the justification of

obedience to Government depends upon the calculation of consequences.He wrote, "The principle of utility' neither requires nor admits of any other regulator than itself'. Bentham holds that pleasure is itself a 'good' and pain is itself an 'evil'.

Bentham was particularly indebted to Hume and Helvetitus. From Hume he learnt that moral philosophy; like natural science must begin with empirical observation and that the techniques of the one were equally applicable in the other. Also, in Hume's moral philosophy Bentham found that the source of the rules of justice were located in general utility and he learnt to equate virtue with utility.

Bentham was conscious that to achieve its objectives the science of legislation had to combine a study of what the law is and of what the law ought to be. What ought to be the end of legislation is the greatest happiness. Thus, any action or law is could be considered good if it can produce 'the greatest happiness for the greatest number'.

Bentham considered utility principle as the foundation of social science. In the same way, he viewed pleasures and pains as the ultimate matter to which all social constructs and human activity could be reduced and thereby explained. They were the 'real entities' of individual experience, acting both as the final cause of individual action and as the efficient causes and means to individual happiness.

6.9 CRITICISM

Bentham's utilitarianism may be criticised on many accounts. Since Bentham's own day there has been continuous criticism. Both J. S. Mill and Sidgwick, although they continued the utilitarian tradition, were also critics of Bentham. Bentham's utilitarianism is open to the following objections:

- Bentham has been much criticised because he thought that two pleasures are equal in value, if they are equally intense, enduring etc. As he said, "Push pin is as good as poetry" if they are equal in the quantity of pleasure they produce. But it has been thought that some pleasures, especially intellectual ones, are higher and deserve to count more. Thus, Bentham does not seem to recognise any qualitative difference among pleasures. Therefore, Mill thought that Bentham's philosophy did not acknowledge some of 'the deeper feelings of human

nature', when he calculated the consequences of actions. Mill therefore introduced differences in quality between pleasures.

- One of the serious criticisms against Bentham's Utilitarianism is that this theory is thought to be "a doctrine worthy only of swine."
- Mill thought that in addition to the moral aspect of actions, there is also the aesthetic aspect of action. But Bentham treated only the moral view of actions.
- As feeling of pleasure and pain are subjective and variable so the hedonistic calculus, mentioned by Bentham is impractical.
- Bentham fails to explain satisfactorily the transition from egoism to universalism. Bentham mentioned four external sanctions to explain the social feelings in men but these external sanctions can create a physical compulsion not of moral obligation.

6.10 MILL'S LIFE AND WORKS

John Stuart Mill was one of the most influential English-speaking philosophers of the nineteenth century. He was a British empiricist, economist, administrator, moral and political theorist and utilitarian social reformer. Mill was born in London on May 20th, 1806. He was the eldest son of James and Harriet Burrow Mill. His fatherJames Mill was a Scottish philosopher, historian, economist, and psychologist. He was the most influential person in Mill's life during his formative years. James Mill was a proponent of Bentham's utilitarianism. He met Bentham in 1808. He soon became Bentham's 'lieutenant' and Bentham did what he could to help the family. Mill's father thus, educated him with the help of Bentham. Mill concluded in his Autobiography, that as result of the formal instruction which he received from his father, he started life "with an advantage of a quarter of a century over my contemporaries."

The similar political thought of James Mill and Bentham prompted them to start and led the movement of 'philosophic radicals'. This group adhered Bentham's utilitarian political philosophy which was culminated in the doctrine of John Stuart Mill in 19th century. Utilitarianism as moral philosophy argues that maximizing happiness should be measured. Philosophical Radicalism tried to apply the implications of the utilitarian principles to legal and other social institutions. Mill was working in East India Company for almost thirty

years. The year he began working for the East India Company, Mill began writing for newspapers, starting with letters to the editor.

Mill's works include books and essays covering logic, epistemology, ethics, religion, and social and political philosophy. Among them System of Logic, Deductive and Inductive, Political Economy, On Liberty, Utilitarianism, The Subjection, of Women are his major works.

6.11 MILL AND HEDONISM

Some utilitarian are hedonists equating the good with happiness and happiness with pleasure. Mill advocates Altruistic Hedonism. His theory is refined or qualitative in nature. He explicitly says that the standard is not the agent's own happiness, but happiness in general. Now question arises, how can we prove that general happiness is desirable? Mill answers that each person's happiness is a good to that person and general happiness is, therefore, a good to the aggregate of all person.

6.12 MILL'S UTILITARIANISM

Mill urges, with his father and Bentham, that the basic moral norm is the principle of utility, that an action is right provided it maximizes human welfare. But he wanted to be a utilitarian with a difference. He himself was one of Bentham's critics and as such tries to improve upon Bentham's utilitarianism. Mill, in his book 'Utilitarianism' offers a philosophical defence of his utilitarian principle in ethics. In this work, Mill makes an attempt to defend utilitarian position against its opponents-intuitionists, and makes an attempt to refine Bentham's utilitarianism and also tries to take utilitarianism as the principle of justice.

Mill argues against the intuitionists' principles of morality claiming that the intuitionists' principles are abstract, and there are no external standards to pass judgement in case of different moral claims. Mill claims that by the utility principle, we can evaluate different moral claims on the basis of an external standard of pleasure and pain.

In Chapter Two of Utilitarianism, Mill tries to describe "What utilitarianism Is"? Like Bentham, Mill accepts Hedonism stating the proper 'end' of all actions and so it forms the basis for the theory. Mill's principle of utilitarianism becomes clearer from the criticisms which he considers and which force him to provide more details as he responds to them.

The first criticism Mill considers finds fault with the hedonistic basis of the theory:

To suppose that life has no higher end than pleasure - no better and nobler object of desire and pursuit-they designate as utterly mean and grovelling; as a doctrine worthy only of swine…" (Utilitarianism, p.257-8)

Mill's response to this objection is not only a reply to the critics, but a reaction to the narrowness of Bentham's hedonistic utilitarianism as well. Unlike Bentham and others utilitarians, who take quantity for measuring pleasures, Mill says that some pleasures are qualitatively superior to others. Mill often preferred a life as a human being dissatisfied against the life of a pig that is satisfied. Mill gives the famous line: "it is better to be a human being dissatisfied than a pig satisfied; better to be Socrates dissatisfied than a fool satisfied." Bentham recognises only quantitative difference among pleasures, but Mill has admitted the qualitative as well. Pleasures differ in quality as well as in quantity. The highest good, according to Mill, lies not in intense or durable enjoyment of noble, dignified and elevated pleasure. Hence Mill doctrine is called Refined Utilitarianism as contrasted with Bentham's Gross Utilitarianism. In the matter of measuring quality against quantity, Mill appeals to the 'verdict of competent judges'. Mill insists that those who are 'equally capable of appreciating and enjoying both' prefer mental pleasures to physical ones. If, however, there is a conflict of opinion among the competent judges, we should abide by the verdict of the majority of them. And it is on account of the sense of dignity that competent judges prefer noble pleasures to physical pleasures.

Mill now turns to a second type of critic of the hedonistic aspect of utilitarianism, one who maintains either that happiness is unattainable or that we have no right to be happy. To those who maintain that happiness is unattainable, Mill replies that even "if no happiness is to be had at all by human beings" still "something might be still said for the utilitarian theory; since utility includes not solely the pursuit of happiness, but the prevention or mitigation of happiness". (Utilitarianism, p.263) According to Mill,' want of mental cultivation' and 'a sincere interest in the public good', are the two principal obstacles for not having such an existence. For Mill, both of which can be corrected through education.

Then, the answer Mill gives to those who ask 'what right thou hast to be happy' is that the goal of action is not your own happiness, but the

happiness of all. We should try to bring about the greatest net happiness, taking everyone into account. Mill states that "The utilitarian morality does recognise in human beings the power of sacrificing their own greatest good for the good of others. It only refuses to admit that the sacrifice is itself a good. A sacrifice which does not increase, or tend to increase, the sum total of happiness, it considers as wasted….The happiness which forms the utilitarian standard of what is right in conduct, is not the agent's own happiness, but that of all concerned." (Utilitarianism, p.268)

At this point, a third objection arises to utilitarianism. Some critics, thinking that we will on many occasions have to sacrifice our own welfare for the good of all, 'find fault with its standard as being too high for humanity.' But Mill points out that a good ethical theory is supposed to give us an ideal towards which to aspire. He also notes that the utilitarian theory does not require us to have a benevolent motive for our action. Mill claims, "The motive has nothing to do with the morality of the action." (Utilitarianism,p-270) We might have a self-interested motive, but as long as we do the action which is likely to result in the best consequences for all, we are acting correctly. Mill responses the objections arise to utilitarianism and try to explain his view on utilitarianism.

Mill, in Chapter Two of his work Utilitarianism claims, "The creed which accepts as the foundation of morals, "Utility", or the Greatest Happiness Principle, holds that actions are right as they tend to promote happiness, wrong as they tend to produce the reverse of happiness. By happiness is intended pleasure, and the absence of pain; by unhappiness, pain, and the privation of pleasure"(p.257). This principle of utility is the core of Mill's utilitarianism.

Mill, in Chapter Three of his work Utilitarianism considers the sanctions to influence individual to follow the principle of utility. Mill asks, why am I bound to promote the general happiness? In this regard, Mill has added to the external sanctions recognised by Bentham, the internal sanction of conscience or a 'feeling of duty'. This internal sanction refers to 'a feeling for the happiness of mankind', 'a desire to be in unity with our fellow beings', and 'a feeling of pain attendant on the violation of duty'. Mill believes that the moral feelings are not innate, but acquired. Education is the key to making sure that we have the right feelings. But Mill argues that even without a proper education, there is a strong natural basis for accepting the utilitarian

morality. Mill has given a psychological explanation of the transition from egoism to altruism. Sympathy grows out of self-love according to the laws of association and transference of interest. At first we egoist, and relieved the sufferings of others in order to relieve our own miseries. Then by repetition, our own interest became transferred from the end to the means. Thus, sympathy is acquired in the life-time of the individual.

Chapter Four of Utilitarianism is titled 'Of What Sort of Proof the Principle of Utility is Susceptible. 'It actually contains a defense of the hedonistic part of his theory of Utilitarianism. The chapter intends to provide a proof of the utility principle. Mill starts by suggesting an analogy with proving that something is visible. The only proof capable of being given that an object is visible, Mill writes 'is that people actually see it'. Similarly, for something being audible, the proof is that people hear it. In a like manner, he continues, 'the sole evidence that it is possible to produce that anything is desirable, is that people do actually desire it. It generally acknowledged that this argument derives an 'ought' statement from 'is' statement. He here derives the desirable from the desired. He is saying that because people do desire happiness, they ought to be desirable. In the terminology of G.E. Moore, he commits the naturalistic fallacy.

But how can we prove that general happiness is desirable? Mill answers that each person's happiness is a good to that person and the 'general happiness' therefore, is a good to the aggregate all persons. Here he seems to move from egoism to altruism. But this argument involves two fallacies which are known in logic as 'the fallacy of composition' and 'the fallacy of division'.

Mill gives argument for the hedonistic view, that 'all pleasure is intrinsically good'. Here Mill addresses the issue of psychological hedonism. He accepts that the psychological account of human being of liking pleasure and detesting pain are the prime motivators in any course of action. Other things are sought, at least initially, as means to pleasure or the avoidance of pain. But he argues that by the process of associative mechanism, they can be transformed and be associated with the ends for which they were means at an earlier point of time. Mill says that other things which we value, like health or money, are initially thought of as valuable because they lead to pleasure. After a while, we may think of them as desirable in and of themselves i.e. these things later on be sought as ends in themselves. He

says through the process of association, it is possible that extrinsic values can over a period of time be treated as intrinsic value. Thus, though according to psychological hedonists, pleasure alone could be treated as intrinsic value and all others as extrinsic values, that is, ways of attaining pleasure, Mill argues that over a period of time that which was extrinsic value can be taking place of intrinsic value. Mill's theory in that sense goes beyond Bentham's conception of utilitarianism. Mill says,

"From being a means to happiness, it comes to be itself a principal ingredient of the individual's conception of happiness…What was once desired as an instrument for the attainment of happiness, has come to be desired for its own sake…." (Utilitarianism, pp-291)

Mill, once again tries to prove the hedonistic claim. He attempts to equate 'desiring a thing' with 'finding it pleasant'.

Mill says, "I believe that----desiring a thing and finding it pleasant,…are phenomena entirely inseparable, …in strictness of language, two different modes of naming the same psychological fact….that to desire anything, except in proportion as the idea of it is pleasant, is a physical and metaphysical impossibility. (Utilitarianism, pp-292-3) He says that we always desire pleasure, therefore pleasure is desirable.

Mill has advocated Rule-Utilitarianism as he is trying to judge the act on the basis of rule. But for utilitarians, rules by themselves are not something indispensable, because rules are selected on the basis of the principle of utility, that which can promote greatest amount of happiness. That is, the rule by itself is in a sense derived from the consequences of the act repeated over and over again and thus to be followed as a rule for similar circumstances.

Mill has used this utility principle to come up with the principle of justice in social and political realm. He contends that whatever satisfies the principle of utility also satisfies the requirements of justice.

6.13 BENTHAM AND MILL

Mill Shared the utilitarianism of Bentham and James to a certain extent, and views that actions are right in proportion as they tend to produce happiness, wrong as they tend to produce the reverse of happiness. But Mill had different conception about the nature of happiness and justification

of utilitarianism. We may focus on the following points and try to understand how Mill improves upon Bentham's utilitarianism.

- Bentham and James Mill understood happiness in terms of pleasure and they believed that the aim of each person is mainly the promotion of agent's own happiness, which is pleasure. Mill altered their hedonistic assumptions by introducing his idea of higher pleasure and thereby changing the notion of happiness.
- Bentham belonged to psychological egoist school and he proclaimed that persons act only to satisfy his or her self-interest. But he could not justify how and why one should concern with the happiness of others? He could not satisfactorily explain the transition from egoism to altruism. Mill rejects the traditional substantive doctrines of psychological egoism and hedonism that Bentham and Mill's father sometimes defended or suggested. Mill elaborates his criticism against Bentham in his essays 'On Bentham' and 'Remarks on Bentham's Philosophy'. Mill thought that because of Bentham's narrow concept of his philosophy, he could not accommodate many of the things within his domain of philosophy.
- Like Bentham's hedonism, Mill says that pleasure is the end of morality. Bentham's hedonism views that mental state of pleasure has intrinsic good and similarly, the mental state of pain has intrinsic evil. All other things have value, either good or bad as far as they bring pleasure or pain. Mill, to a great extent, accepted this principle and argued that over a period of time that which was extrinsic value can be taking the place of intrinsic value.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q 1: Name one book authored by Bentham.

Q 2: What is the meaning of the 'principle of utility'?

Q 3: What is utilitarianism?

Q 4: What is the principle of Bentham's utilitariam?

Q 5: Write two points of Bentham's utilitarianism.

Q 6: Fill in the blanks:

a) Utilitarianism has its origin in the ancient ……. Philosophy.

b) According to Bentham, the moral worthiness of an action depends upon the ……. of that action.

c) Bentham advocates…….hedonism.

d) Utilitarianism holds that the best action is the one that maximizes .....

Q 7: Who advocates qualitative difference in pleasure?

.....

.....

Q2: Name one book authored by Mill.

.....

.....

Q 3: What are the types of utilitarianism?

.....

Q 4: What is Rule Utilitarianism?

.....

Q 5: Fill in the blanks

a) It is better to be a human being dissatisfied than a … satisfied.

b) Mill's utilitarianism is called…. Utilitarianism

Q 6: What is altruistic hedonism?.

.....

.....

Q 7: How does Mill argue against the Intuitionists' principle of morality?

.....



6.14 LET US SUM UP

- Utilitarianism is a teleological theory of obligation as it considers the consequences of an action for passing moral judgement. This theory holds that an action is right or obligatory if and only if it produces a greater balance of good over evil in the universe as a whole. Thus, Utilitarianism appeals to the 'principle of utility' for passing moral judgement.Jeremy Bentham, John Stuart Mill and Henry Sidgwick are the leading representative thinkers of the British utilitarian tradition. Bentham declared that we aim at'the greatest happiness for the greatest number of the people'. Happiness is hence taken as the unique measure of value.

- Bentham's Utilitarianism reflects psychological hedonism that pleasure and pain defines the motives of human behaviour. Bentham brings hedonistic calculus in his moral theory. His utilitarianism may be called gross or sensualistic because it does not recognise any qualitative differences among pleasures.
- Mill is consistently a utilitarian, which is a collectivist philosophy. Mill believes that individuals have an ethical obligation to perform those actions which are likely to result in the greatest net good consequences, taking everyone into account. As a hedonistic utilitarian, Mill believes that it is the pleasure or happiness that is likely to result should be considered as good consequences, and displeasure or unhappiness that is likely to result should be considered as bad consequences.
- Mill believes that quality as well as quantity must be taken into account in deciding which action is right. Thus, though Mill belongs to the school of utilitarianism, yet he differs from Bentham's utilitarianism on some key issues. Mill has used this utility principle to come up with the principle of justice in social and political realm.



6.15 FURTHER READING

1) Frankena, k. W., Ethics, Prentice Hall of India, pvt.Lmtd., New Delhi 2007
2) Bunnin.N., and Tsui-James. E.P., The Blackwell Companion to philosophy, Blackwell publishing, Oxford, 2003
3) Mackenzie.John.M., A Manual of Ethics,Surjeet Publications, Delhi,1997
4) Sinha. J.N., A Manual to Ethics, New Central Agency, Calcutta, 1986
5) Lillie. W., An Introduction to Ethics, Surjeet Publications, Delhi, 2007.
6) Crimmins. James E., On Bentham, Cengage learning Pvt. Ltd., Delhi, 2004



6.16 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Ans to Q No 1: An Introduction to the Principles of Morals and Legislation.

Ans to Q No 2: Usefulness

Ans to Q No 3: Utilitarianism is a moral theory which appeals to the 'principle of utility' to tell what is right or obligatory. It states thatthe best action is the one that maximizes utility.

Ans to Q No 4: 'The Greatest happiness of the greatest number'.

Ans to Q No 5: According to Bentham's Utilitarianism, we ought to aim at the greatest happiness for the greatest number of people. Bentham recognises only quantitative distinction among pleasures.

Ans to Q No 6: a. Greek b. Consequence c. Altruistic gross d. d. Utility

Ans to Q No 7: Mill

Ans to Q No 8: Utilitarianism

Ans to Q No 9: Act-Utilitarianism, Rule- Utilitarianism, General Utilitarianism.

Ans to Q No 10: According to Rule Utilitarianism, the rightness of the act depends upon its conformity to a rule i.e. Law.

Ans to Q No 11: a) Pig b) Refined

Ans to Q No 12: According to altruistic hedonism, the standard is not the agent's own happiness, but happiness in general

Ans to Q No 13: Mill argues that the intuitionists' principles are abstract, and there are no external standards to pass judgement in case of different moral claims. Mill asserts that by the utility principle, we can evaluate different moral claims on the basis of an external standard of pleasure and pain.



6.17 MODEL QUESTIONS

A. Very Short questions:

Q 1: Mention the different theories regarding the nature of the ultimate moral standard.

Q 2: What is teleological theory?

Q 3: What is de-ontological theory?

Q 4: Mention the names of two hedonists.

Q 5: Who says: "Greatest happiness of the Greatest number"?

Q 6: Define 'utilitarianism'.

Q 7: Mention two utilitarians' who are also considered as hedonists.

Q 8: Write the ultimate moral standard of universalistic hedonism.

Q 9: Mention the essential elements of universalistic hedonism.

Q 10: Who is the author of An Enquiry concerning the origin of our Ideas of Virtues of Moral Good?

Q 11: What is hedonism?

Q 12: Name three famous works of Mill

Q 13: What is altruistic hedonism?

Q 14: Who says "It is better to be a human being dissatisfied than a pig satisfied; better to be Socrates dissatisfied than a fool satisfied'"

Q 15: What is extrinsic and intrinsic value? According to Mill

Q 16: What is rule utilitarianism?

B. Short questions (Answer in about 100-150 words)

Q 1: Write a short note on utilitarianism.

Q 2: Is there any difference between utilitarianism and egoism? Briefly explain

Q 3: What is universalistic hedonism? Briefly explain

Q 4: What is altruistic hedonism? Briefly explain

Q 5: How does Mill reject Bantham's hedonistic principle? Briefly explain

Q 6: How does Mill argue against the Intuitionists' principle of morality? Briefly explain

Q 7: How does Mill argue against the Hedonistic aspect of Utilitarianism? Briefly explain

C. Long questions (Answer in about 300-500 words)

Q 1: Explain critically Bentham's utilitarianism.

Q 2: Discuss the historical background of utilitarianism.

Q 3: Explain the theory of utilitarianism.

Q 4: Discuss the criticisms raised on Bentham's utilitarianism.

Q 5: State two points of differences between Mill's Utilitarianism and Bentham's Utilitarianism.

Q 6: Describe critically Mill's Utilitarianism.

Q 7: How does Mill improve Banthama's utilitarianism? Explain

Q 7: How does Mill argue against the Hedonistic aspect of Utilitarianism? Discuss

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