



Anthology Study Guide

Paper 2: Religion and Ethics

Update V1.1 27 September 2018

zigzageducation.co.uk

POD
7768

Follow us on Twitter **@ZigZagRS**

Publish your own work... Write to a brief...
Register at **publishmenow.co.uk**

Contents

Thank You for Choosing ZigZag Education.....	ii
Teacher Feedback Opportunity.....	iii
Terms and Conditions of Use	iv
Teacher’s Introduction.....	1
Notes for Using this Resource	1
‘Situation Ethics’ – William Barclay (1971).....	2
Taking it Further.....	16
Form and Justify an Argument	18
Activities.....	19
Practice Exam Questions	21
Mark Scheme	22
Glossary.....	25
Answers to Discussion Points	26
<i>Groundwork for the Metaphysics of Morals</i> – Immanuel Kant (1775).....	27
Taking It Further.....	40
Form and Justify an Argument	43
Activity	44
Practice Exam Questions	46
Mark Scheme	47
Glossary.....	50
Answers to Discussion Points	51
<i>Nicomachean Ethics Book II</i> – Aristotle (350 BCE)	52
Taking It Further.....	64
Form and Justify an Argument	66
Activities	67
Practice Exam Questions	69
Mark Scheme	70
Glossary.....	73
Answers to Discussion Points	74
‘Euthanasia and Doctors’ Ethics’ – Michael Wilcockson (1999).....	75
Taking It Further.....	86
Form and Justify an Argument	88
Activities.....	89
Practice Exam Questions	91
Mark Scheme	92
Glossary.....	95
Answers to Discussion Points	96

Teacher's Introduction

This anthology guide is a tool designed to help you deliver the A Level Edexcel Ethics specification, helping students not only understand the core ideas within each of the extracts, but also develop a broader understanding of their context and meaning within wider philosophical discussion. Each section covers one extract comprehensively, examining first a summary of its major concepts and arguments, before moving onto a critical analysis of its strengths and weaknesses.

Throughout there are also 'Discussion Points' boxes designed to invite students into deeper critical analysis as well as an extension section looking at the 'wider issues generated by the extract's ideas on religion, human experience and morality. The resource therefore can be adapted to focus purely on students' core understanding of the extracts or expanded to include wider philosophical knowledge that may be useful in an exam situation.

While this resource is primarily oriented around preparing students for Section B of their A-Level exam, the information contained within this anthology is also relevant to Section A and Section C, and in each section's introduction, the relevant areas of the specification are noted to help students draw on their previous studies and knowledge.

Contents:

- **What You Need to Know Before Starting...**
This section details some of the philosophical ideas students should know before beginning reading through the guide. While not essential, prior knowledge of the relevant sections of the specification may prove useful in understanding specific terminology and concepts.
- **Introduction**
This section introduces the extract and outlines its form and content, as well as connecting it with the relevant topic in the curriculum.
- **Summary of Ideas**
This section deconstructs the main ideas within the extract, pointing students to some of the key philosophical issues and providing a step-by-step breakdown of difficult concepts.
- **Philosophical Context**
This section details some of the important philosophers and their ideas within the context of the extract. It also gives some useful information on the time and background in which it was written, noting where historical events may have influenced the discussions within.
- **Detailed Analysis**
This section provides a full analysis of the extract, breaking down criticisms and exploring the various ways philosophers have responded to the challenges they present.
- **Taking it Further (Extension Material)**
This section gives an overview of the way that conclusions reached within the extract might impact wider philosophical arguments and draws out further nuances of the text and how it fits in with the author's wider philosophical position. Information contained within this section is not essential knowledge for end of course exams. However it illuminates subtleties in the anthology texts and may help students in developing top mark responses to exam questions.
- **Form and Justify an Argument**
This final section details some of the questions students should be able to answer having read through the guide, before they move on to essay practice and further study.
- **Activities and Practice Exam Questions**
A variety of exercises are presented at the end of the resources for students to complete and sample questions are given to assist with essay practice and technique.
- **Glossary**
This section gives a list of the key terms for the resource and their meanings.

Notes for Using this Resource

- Quotes given are taken from the Edexcel Anthology, unless otherwise specified.
- This resource is both tailored to students who have and have not covered the full A level course for Ethics. Where students have studied the relevant topic to the extract, they may be familiar with some of the content.
- Throughout the guides students are encouraged to extend their knowledge beyond the course where appropriate. Any such information is marked as a 'Discussion Point' or has a note to indicate it is not essential knowledge within the syllabus.

June 2017

Update v1.1 27 September 2018

We've made it clear that the 'Taking it further' sections are extension material, and that students are not required to consider the 'implications for understanding religion and the human experience' for their exams. However, these sections are useful for showing the subtleties in the anthology texts and may help students in developing top mark responses to exam questions.

Updates on pages, 1–2, 16–17, 27, 40–42, 52, 64–66, 75, 86–87

Free Updates!

Register your email address to receive any future free updates* made to this resource or other Religious Education resources your school has purchased, and details of any promotions for your subject.

* resulting from minor specification changes, suggestions from teachers and peer reviews, or occasional errors reported by customers

Go to [zzed.uk/freeupdates](https://www.zzed.uk/freeupdates)

'Situation Ethics' – William Barclay

What you need to know before starting...

1. The core concepts behind situation ethics and criticisms of it from both Christians and non-Christians.
2. The different ways one might interpret and apply situation ethics in ethical dilemmas to give people accurate moral guidance.
3. Some of the weaknesses behind a rule-based approach to ethics and how situation ethics or utilitarian or rule-based approaches compare.
4. The ways in which situation ethics has influenced modern Christian thought and particularly applied ethics.

1. Introduction

This extract draws on Section 2.2: Situation Ethics on the syllabus and you are advised to read the anthology alongside this topic. Additionally for owners of the ZigZag Coursebook for Ethics Year 1, the section on Situation Ethics can be found on pages 36–44.

William Barclay's essay is primarily a critical examination of situation ethics, drawing on Joseph Fletcher's books *Situation Ethics* and *Moral Responsibility*, before analysing the major weaknesses within this ethical theory. This guide will begin by detailing the criticisms of situation ethics before examining their possible wider issues generated by everyday experience.

2. Summary of Ideas

Barclay begins the essay by outlining the most important elements of Fletcher's philosophy. The basic idea he notes initially is that good and bad aren't universal rules, qualities or actions, but what is morally right or wrong is judged from the context or situation in which it occurs. The person applying situation ethics is not bound by any pre-existing moral principles. When evaluating a course of action, Barclay argues Fletcher:

... refuses to say that any principle is absolutely binding and always valid; right and wrong are determined by the situation.

However, an important nuance to note is that this doesn't necessarily stop the 'situationist' from developing principles beforehand by experience. Rather, it simply means that at any given time, the considerations they have made are liable to be altered by difficult moral circumstances.

Agape Love

So how does the situationist determine the correct moral decision in these circumstances? There is only one thing that is intrinsically good: agape or as Barclay defines 'unconditional love'. It is as important as it defines two important points about situation ethics. The first is that it is an intrinsic, not an instrumental good which means it is not used in the pursuit of other goals. It simply is the sole guiding purpose behind all actions a person makes.

The second point is that identifying this form of love as an end in itself allows the situationist to stand against their own ethical principles or sensibilities. Therefore when we dislike and even hate another person, they can still reserve agape love for them. This allows for choices in a morally difficult situation.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



To demonstrate this principle, Fletcher has developed many examples of ethically traditional forms of Christian ethics do not necessarily demonstrate the most loving in particular early on in the essay about families in the trail caverns losing their lives correct to sacrifice a baby's life for the welfare of the entire group. In particular he

Which action was love? The action of the mother who kept her baby and brought to all, or the action of the mother who killed the baby and saved the lives of the decision with which the situationist confronts us. Which action was love?

One important thing to note is that the principles given for situation ethics to contemplate inevitably come with a degree of relativity depending on the context. While the situationist asks for the most loving action, what exactly is the most loving action? Often loving itself, is not always transparent. Fletcher argues for 'four working principles' to govern moral actions, which will be examined later, but this has often been argued to be an issue with the approach of situation ethics, especially when compared to more traditional Christian concepts of right and wrong.

Discussion Point 1

Devise your own ethical dilemma and consider whether an agape-based and a rule-based approach to morality could provide an agreeable solution. Does either have any particular benefits, and how might their conclusions differ?

Justice as Love Distributed

The second of Fletcher's basic principles that Barclay defines is the idea that love and justice are fundamentally the same thing, with justice simply being love distributed. For some philosophers the two concepts have sometimes been seen as counterparts. For example, justice might encompass forms of retribution, dealing on what is seen as fair punishment yet many would not regard such actions as loving. For Fletcher however, the one intrinsic good, if applied situationally, has to be worked out case-to-case so that the greatest amount of love, or just the most loving action can be pursued. This then forms the basis for justice, as Barclay notes:

Justice, it's said, consists of giving each man his due; but the one thing that is due to all men is love and justice are the same.

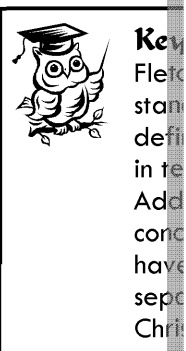
Fletcher's concept of justice not only grants him the means to apply the intrinsic good but arguably prevents it from becoming a generalised, vague feeling, unable to work. Barclay notes this later:

This means love has always got to be thinking; and love always got to be calculating.

Discussion Point 2

Does Fletcher's idea of justice misrepresent the concept within Christian thought? In the New Testament the idea of a just God is kept separate from the idea of a loving God and righteousness were two separate attributes of God himself.

Discuss some examples where a person or situation could be just but not loving or loving but not just. Demand retribution?



**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Barclay's Criticisms

After examining the basic principles of Fletcher's ethical theory, Barclay moves on to a number of criticisms which he believes present serious problems for theories of situation ethics. One important thing to note is that there are two aspects to his analysis. The first covers the internal problems with situation ethics which would suggest intuitively it is at odds with our ordinary moral thinking, or that it cannot be applied effectively enough to guide people's moral decisions. The second is that as a Christian theory of ethics, it might be argued it strays too far from the system of morality as set out within the Bible and the Church. This to some extent is a matter of interpretation and to what extent exegesis of the Bible and criticism are presented by Barclay and it is important to note that the success or failure in one area does not necessarily affect the other.



Key Term
Exegesis
Bible or other religious text is generally interpreted within Christianity to provide support, and is often used to easily be

Overall Barclay presents five areas of criticism. Numbers one, two and five, cover the internal inconsistencies of situation ethics that Barclay identifies, whereas number three is focused on its difficulties as a specifically Christian ethical theory.

1. Fletcher's examples are too focused on extraordinary moral deliberation

This criticism has long been noted about Fletcher's presentation of situation ethics. That nuanced moral decisions might be needed in extraordinary scenarios, moral dilemmas in ordinary situations, where there is less emphasis on careful deliberation of moral decisions. Some critics have focused on the overuse of these scenarios as an indication that situation ethics is not a system of moral decisions and while Barclay doesn't press this criticism, he does note:

It is much easier to agree that extraordinary situations need extraordinary measures than to agree that no laws for ordinary everyday life.

There are a number of nuances to dig out of this criticism and it is debatable whether Barclay can put himself in an objective enough position to define 'ordinary life', but there is a trend among Fletcher's examples to not demonstrate moral decision making processes at times of peace. For example, one of his most famous examples is of Mrs Bergmeier, the German prisoner who asked a Volga German camp guard to make her pregnant so she could be reunited with her family. Undoubtedly while this is a difficult moral situation worthy of discussion, it is hard to imagine people in the modern world undergoing similar struggles when they are not present within an ongoing war.



Discussion

Do moral situations always require extraordinary measures? Think of two possible dilemmas people might face: a law-based or situation-based one. How can we help provide the best outcome?

2. Situation ethics gives human beings an overwhelming amount of moral freedom

One of the virtues of situation ethics is its ability to allow for a light of difficult moral decisions. It suggests that there may be courses of action that may be arbitrarily restricted by rule- or other consequence-based ethics. This flexibility also has the possibly counterproductive result of granting humans such freedom that they either become overwhelmed by it or are given licence to always act from the moment of decision. If their perception of the situation is skewed or distorted. This issue arguably pervades all human decision making, even if there is no moral component. Barclay notes:

There is no such thing as a readymade decision. Of course, we know the things that are right and wrong, and we are left alone in complete freedom to apply them.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



There are two parts to this. One is possibly a psychological view, namely that human beings cannot act in life without the supervision of some authority, whether that be the law, religion, or a superior. Situation ethics therefore places a great mental demand on human beings in taking decisions without the aid of authority and asking that an understanding of love and how to distribute it takes the place of a possibly prescriptive view, that morality simply works better when we do apply law. The second is identifying what is love. In this view understanding, compromise and cooperation are essential. It is a mutual understanding of a modifiable ethical system in which we live. Barclay does not choose between these two positions, but it is worth noting in what way this criticism applies. He has explored whether Barclay's arguments are a form of criticism and more just dissatisfaction.

The situationists have a 'naïveté' about law, but the lesson of experience is that the law, being 'naïve' about the kind of people we are.

While this may be pertinent, it can equally be replied that Barclay may have a point. A decision is terrifying or difficult doesn't mean it shouldn't be made. John A T Roberts makes the case for situation ethics as 'the only ethic for the man come of age'. When we are in such a state is a point of contention between those who support situation ethics versus those who support a more traditional view.

Discussion Point 4

Existentialism shares some similarities with Fletcher's idea of ethical autonomy, with their freedom at the centre of their existence and choices. With this in mind, re-examine the concepts of authenticity and inauthenticity: do they present a way to understand Fletcher's idea of the moral agent?

3. There are things in the world which are intrinsically good and bad

This criticism takes aim at the situation ethics treating right and wrong as being wholly relative and contextual. Traditionally, Christianity has been held to regard certain things as intrinsically good, and elements of the Bible such as the Ten Commandments, the Sermon on the Mount or even the Golden Rule have been used to justify such as position on the basis that breaking the moral laws is equivalent to breaking God's word. More importantly, as Barclay notes, this traditional Christian interpretation of morality places a specific property of good and bad on our actions and arguably a significant amount of our language is built around this duality. When we see someone mugging another person in the street we might instinctively call that action bad without necessarily stopping to think about the wider circumstances in which it occurs. Yet at the same time, if we discovered that the victim had in fact previously swindled the mugger's relatives and not been caught, one might be more sympathetic.

The question of what good and bad actually signify or mean is a difficult one to come to a conclusion on. Barclay reserves his comments to simply describing situations where he identifies acts being good:

I think that there are things which can in no circumstances be right, to take but one person in the name of experience or to make experiments which can lead to drug addiction or to break up a family relationship. In the name of so-called love can never be right.

To clarify, in the example of Mrs Bergmeier, one might argue that adultery is bad and that she should have refrained from trying to get pregnant with the Volga German. However, the act of adultery has the property of badness. Irrespective of the situation, that adultery is committed.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



On the other hand, to describe good and bad as predicates is to say that they are complete an idea about the subject. In the sentence X (is red), (is red) is the predicate. If we assess Fletcher correctly, good and bad are attached to specific subjects or acts and not to them. Mrs Bergmeier's adultery is good expresses some idea about her acts and not to the sentence is determined by whether it was the most loving act.

One important thing to note is that properties are also predicated. What differs between the two is that properties can also be said to be 'exemplifiables', that is to say they are an example of the property in question. If I were to say apples (are red) where (are red) is a property of the apples, then I can in turn be able to point towards any apple as an example of a red apple. In a similar way, if I were to say adultery has the property of being morally bad, in any situation I could point to an adulterous act as being an example of a bad act.

Therefore, when Barclay makes this distinction, he is arguing there are some acts that have this property of being morally 'bad', such that if we ever needed to provide a concrete example of 'badness' we could point to certain acts, in his case breaking up a family or pushing a young person towards drug addiction.

Discussion Point 5

The examples Barclay gives to support objectively bad acts arguably are quite sympathetic. One can imagine a situation where to help children stuck between fighting parents break up a family, an act that some might class as good.

Are there any moral acts therefore, which irrespective of religious belief, could be considered objectively bad? Does Barclay need to provide a concrete, universal example of such an act to support his argument?

4. Situation ethics fails to account for the possibility of sublimation

Sublimation in psychology is a defence mechanism where unacceptable or bad impulses are transformed, often unconsciously, into ones that are socially acceptable or beneficial. Barclay discusses it in this way. He then expands it in a broader sense, encompassing the idea into a situation ethics. Situation ethics ignores the possibility of ethical transformation against simply indulging in one's predilections with loving acts.

The specific example he notes of Fletcher's is that of the Rainmaker deliberately seducing a farmer to save her from the life of a spinster. While this act may be loving in the context of the time, it ignores the possibility of the woman having a fulfilling life engaging in other pursuits. Similarly, the Rainmaker's seduction of the farmer's daughter is a loving act, but it prevents her from having a fulfilling life without the prospect of sex and instead have used their energy towards a fulfilling life. Barclay criticises Fletcher here, he is pointing out that a loving act may not necessarily be a moral act if it involves indulging someone in their desires when there may be an alternative that is better fitting with moral law.

One particularly important catalyst of sublimation Barclay identifies is the grace of God. If God argues, is to be a moral force, then it has to contain the possibility of creating ethical alternatives. If God simply permits acts that contradict conventional morality simply because they are loving, then God is not a moral force. If God is a moral force, then God's loving goes against the idea of the good, in that it prevents the person from God and prevents them from having a fulfilling life.

Overall there are two aspects to this criticism. The first is that situation ethics is not necessarily a moral force. It is simply a set of sensible solutions to ethical dilemmas. In the case of the farmer's daughter, the solution may be to dissolve both parties' obsession with the idea of marriage rather than having a fulfilling life. The second is that a loving act can be classified as a loving act in itself however is a more difficult to affirm.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



The second aspect is that there are many cases when permitting the breaking of moral rules is endorsing the most loving action in a situation goes against the idea of Christianity. It limits God's influence and grace to a mere afterthought and places a secular idea of love as the primary source of moral authority. For many Christians this is a point of contention with situation ethics, as despite Fletcher's exhortations that love is the basis of all moral actions, there is great scepticism about whether it can be a reliable and consistent standard. It is so open to human misinterpretation.

Discussion Point 6

Sublimation as a coping mechanism has to be directed towards a norm of human behaviour. What is the correct standard of behaviour and acting that everyone can agree on. For Barclay this is the problem with situation ethics as a standard but can this accurately be the standard against which human behaviour is judged?

In the modern world many attitudes have changed and arguably the norm has changed. What is an act that might have been sought to be sublimated fifty years ago but is accepted today? Is this an issue for Barclay's criticism?

5. Situation ethics creates tensions between private morality and law

Barclay's final words reject standard criticism in favour of highlighting some difficulties. He places the emphasis on individualism that situation ethics favours. In particular he raises the issue of how the law interacts with private and public morality. He notes initially that:

... these are many things which are immoral, but which are not illegal. Or, to put it another way, there is a wide difference between sin, with which the law is not concerned, and crime, with which the law is concerned.

He cites in particular the Wolfenden Report, a 1957 British publication recommending that homosexuality should be decriminalised at a time when it was still illegal. Part of this report states that the law should be concerned with private immorality, not with those acts which contravene public order. It argues that what goes on in a person's home, so long as it does not harm others, should be left alone.

Yet Barclay identifies a number of issues with such a position, especially when considering the tendency towards individualism as he perceives it.

Discussion Point 7

Research the history of the Wolfenden Report; do you believe the law should be based on the prevailing morality of a country? If so, does this stand in opposition to the central tenets of Christianity and how might it also present issues for Barclay's criticism?

i) Issues between law and freedom

Notably Barclay takes Fletcher to account for his heavy emphasis on the importance of private morality. Fletcher argues:

We must be free to decide what to do, for if many of our actions even begin to be controlled by the law, the law has no moral force.

Here, while Fletcher agrees with the sentiment, he also points out that hereditary factors can influence a person's freedom. Someone born into poverty and hardship will have their autonomy limited, while a richer person might not and vice versa. Barclay even states:

Most of us have made ourselves such that we are not free. The whole trouble about freedom is that it is an illusion.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



What does this mean for situation ethics? If humans generally are not free in a significant way when making choices, this would indicate that most human actions do not possess real moral significance, especially if people without realising are acting from preconceived laws built up by society or in their own minds. For example, if I refused to steal for fear of going to prison, is my action a coercion by the state or a significant moral choice? Many would regard the two as synonymous and here Barclay questions whether situation ethics, in emphasising pure human freedom in morality, can co-exist with legislation that is designed to take the agency out of human actions.

ii) Issues between morality and illegality

One of Barclay's main contentions is the complete distinction between public and private morality. He argues that if the law is the best prescription for life in any society then law should be the best guide for morality. In turn means suppressing vices whether or not such an act is the most loving thing to do.

The trouble is that once a thing is not forbidden, it may be felt not only to be permissible but also to be good. It could be argued that what the law permits, it approves...

As a side effect, therefore, promoting situation ethics and a degree of permissibility might make society more immoral, which stands in opposition to traditional Christian teaching. However, something the situation ethicist accepts is debatable, but it raises the question of how situation ethics can interact with a legal system effectively.

iii) Issues between the individual and the community

Barclay argues that when too much self-expression is emphasised in society and individualism is promoted, it results in the weakening of community and law as people choose to develop their own moral codes. This is perhaps the most contentious of Barclay's points as rather than being a problem, it is seen as a positive. Upon an interpretation of the effects of individualism, which might be argued to be a genuine freedom and perception than a genuine freedom. Many liberal thinkers have often contended that the freedom of humankind is greater when people are free to pursue their own choices and desires. However, it could be argued that a community develops through like-minded individuals expressing their values and feeling most comfortable.

Nevertheless, an interesting issue is raised here, in the sense that within situation ethics, the most loving act as being towards themselves rather than others? If we choose to skateboard as an act of love to ourselves rather than to the neighborhood, would this result in a breakdown of community? The question remains in whether situation ethics prioritises the freedom of others over the possible weakening of general order, community, or law.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



3. Philosophical Context

While many philosophers had previously stressed the importance of context and situation within ethical theories, Christian forms of situation ethics came into particular prominence in the 1950s and 1960s with Joseph Fletcher's 1966 publication *Situation Ethics: The New Morality*. Upon its release, his book was highly controversial, as Fletcher suggested, contrary to traditional Christian teaching, that acts of adultery, premarital sex and even murder could be morally right in certain situations. Many have traced the rise of situation ethics in the 1960s to the increasingly liberal values of the 1960s. At the same time, civil, sexual and cultural rights began to become increasingly debated and many people's moral views underwent radical change.



Key
It is important to understand the differences between the fields of ethics. While deontological ethics is based on opposing doctrinal principles, situation ethics is a flexible approach that takes into account the needs of the individual and the circumstances of the situation. It is a more practical approach to ethics that has been widely used in the field of business ethics.

In recent decades, however, situation ethics has fallen out of favour with most theologians, failing to provide a solid scriptural basis for its claims, but also for failing to create a coherent ethical system for Christianity as a whole.

Joseph Fletcher (1905–1991)

Fletcher was an American professor, who in addition to developing situation ethics, also developed approaches to bioethics, in many cases advocating the possible benefits or abortion. At the same time, issues such as nuclear war and capital punishment were contentious subjects.

In situation ethics, however, Fletcher was specifically trying to find a middle ground between the rigid laws of legalism and the inspirational ethics of Christianity. Hence situation ethics developed as a middle way and to provide context on guidance. He provided four presuppositions and six principles to guide moral discourse.

Four Presuppositions (Working Principles):

1. Pragmatism – Moral actions should be practical towards their intended loving ends.
2. Relativism – Rules should never be followed absolutely and each situation should be judged on its own merits to produce the most loving action that can be produced.
3. Positivism – Moral agents have to decide from faith in God, that love is the ultimate good.
4. Personalism – The notion that people have to come first before commitment to rules.

Six Fundamental Principles:

1. Only love is intrinsically good, nothing else.
2. In Christian decision making, love is the ruling norm.
3. Justice is love distributed.
4. Love should be shown, regardless of relationship or personal hostility.
5. Only the loving outcome matters (the end justifies the means).
6. Decisions based on love should be made situationally, not prescriptively. This means that pre-existing rules governing one's ethical decisions are not binding.

The four presuppositions were designed by Fletcher to guide initial discussion into the six fundamental principles governing moral action. A person should decide upon how to determine the right action. Whether these provide enough guidance to create a viable ethical system is a matter of debate. Fletcher himself criticised his attempt to lay a consequentialist framework on situation ethics as an inadequate concept.

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



J A T Robinson (1919–1983)

John Robinson was a Cambridge theologian who developed theories on situation ethics at a similar time to Fletcher. His 1963 book *Honest to God* in particular outlined an ethical system for what he termed 'man come of age', that is a person mature enough to begin making reasonable moral judgements that they in turn take responsibility for. Similar to Fletcher, he argued the right approach to any moral situation is to choose the approach that will best demonstrate agape love. Of particular interest is how he interpreted the Bible to support a depiction of Jesus as rejecting the legalistic approach towards morality endorsed by figures such as the High Priest, the Jews in John's Gospel and the Pharisees. Notably he draws out:

Mark 2:27 – 'The sabbath was made for humankind, and not humankind for the sabbath' (NRSV) as an opposition to the strict rules of the Sabbath.

John 8:7 – 'Let anyone among you who is without sin be the first to throw a stone' as a situationist approach to ethics, for although the woman sinned under law, it was an unloving action.

Such examples place Robinson's ideas in opposition to the traditional divine command theory of the church, which equates an action's moral worth based on whether it is equivalent to God's will.

William Barclay (1907–1978)

Barclay was a Scottish theologian who wrote numerous books on biblical study and ethics. His *Permissive Society*, first published in 1971, is a collection of Baird lectures first presented in 1968 and revised and expanded for print. In it, Barclay addresses many modern ethical theories and contrasts them with the traditional 'Christian ethic', discussing the best ways in which traditional theology can adapt to the needs and values of modern society.

His discussion on situation ethics therefore takes place from a more conservative perspective. He argues that the permissiveness given to practices such as abortion and euthanasia by Fletcher are excessive. Barclay largely attempts to show how permissiveness within a society exemplified by modern Britain has contributed to an overall moral decline, especially from a Christian perspective.

4. Detailed Analysis

It was noted in section two that there are two ways of criticising situation ethics: the first is that it presents moral outcomes or inconsistencies that make it difficult to advocate as a viable ethical system; the second that it doesn't accurately comply with the teachings of Christianity from the Bible. This section will focus on both, going through all of Barclay's criticisms before detailing the nuances to consider when discussing situation ethics as a whole.

1. Fletcher's examples are too focused on extraordinary moral deliberations

This criticism of Barclay's focuses on the methodological approach of Fletcher in developing his theory. One of the main issues that emerges from this is that Fletcher is possibly guilty of setting up a straw-man; defining situation ethics as a theory that only applies to extraordinary moral dilemmas. This is problematic as it suggests that theories of ethics fail by nature of being too complex, rather than setting up a fair comparison. As Barclay points out:

[It] is a criticism of much of situation ethics as it is of Fletcher's presentation of it.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Yet whether Fletcher is unfair in his framing of moral issues is up for debate. One can make the argument that the most important tests of one's moral character are times where there is an abnormal or extraordinary ethical decision to be made. When someone is forced between choosing to take a life or sparing it for the sake of another's, that is the time when they likely would prefer the clearest moral guidance. On an ordinary day, many people's moral character isn't radically tested, but a good proportion of people feel nervous about the day theirs will be.

Leading on from this, many common ethical dilemmas surrounding euthanasia, abortion and the death penalty, do revolve around more extreme circumstances and looking at Fletcher's work within bioethics, a strong case can be made that the examples he presents are reflective of a more complex and flexible ethical system within Christianity than divine command theory.

Yet it would be wrong to necessarily suggest that more complex ethical situations are the only ones that matter. One more modern Christian ethical theory that has been developed to deal with complex situations is graded absolutism. This theory places absolute laws into hierarchies such that depending on the circumstances, one law can override another, either as a third alternative, greater good or lesser evil. In Fletcher's complex situation of Mrs Bergmeier, therefore, one might argue that love for one's family takes priority over the moral law against adultery. So it is important to note that while Barclay rejects Barclay's criticism here, it isn't necessarily an argument in favour of Fletcher's situation ethics.



Discussion Point 8

Can graded absolutism be supported by scripture or the Christian tradition? If moral laws are absolute, then arguably to reject them on the basis of human interpretation is to reject the authority of God, unless one takes Fletcher's position that love is an intrinsically important principle.

For example if I have to choose between lying and causing unnecessary distress, which do I choose? Graded absolutism assumes there is a hierarchy, but how do we judge this principle of hierarchy? Is there a description similar to Fletcher's behind it?

Does graded absolutism therefore collapse into a form of situation ethics?

2. Situation ethics gives human beings an overwhelming amount of moral freedom

As noted in section two, Barclay's criticism can be seen to suggest two possible issues. The first that human beings do not want to or cannot handle the psychological or moral freedom, and the second that love is simply not capable of being the guiding principle that free human beings can understand.

The first criticism can arguably be seen as dubious. Simply because men do not want to take responsibility that comes with freedom does not mean that it is not correct that they should. In the first place. Even if there are laws to guide one's actions, people still face a temptation to disobey them whether to follow them or not in unusual moral circumstances. One also has to note that people argue people cannot rely on their past experiences to develop guidelines and laws. They cannot regard these as absolute in a free loving course of action is available. The only way people can handle their experience in ordinary situations, only reverting to wider ethical considerations in exceptional situations. Barclay's second form of criticism is perhaps more pertinent and insightful.

The right use of freedom in our relationships with others depends on love. If love is absent, freedom is a bad thing. But if there is no love, or if there is not enough love, then freedom can become selfishness and even cruelty.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



There are a number of points contained here. The main one is that love cannot be a human beings such that when they come to apply situation ethics to a difficult moral situation they have a sufficient understanding of love in the first place to even begin deliberating a course of action. They may even mistake what they believe love to be and perform actions that are wholly contrary to love. In many cases in history where misplaced ideas of love have caused human beings to act in ways that are far from loving.

While we can note Robinson's idea here, that situation ethics is for the 'man come to a decision', it raises questions about how one can judge the maturity of a person and whether or not they are capable of being truly morally responsible for their actions. When there are laws, however, they can provide a framework for being aware of moral guidelines outside of one's own sphere of understanding.

Charlotte and Peter Vardy also argue this criticism of situation ethics, noting that it is difficult to contain love within a system as such it is hard to believe that adopting a widespread situational ethic could eventually lead to forms of abuse in the name of morality. For example a family based on a belief it is more loving could be one example of denying a person agency and the concept of general love.

Discussion Point 9

Could situation ethics be compared to a form of rule-consequentialism rather than rule-deontologism? Or even somewhere in between? If this is the case, does Barclay's criticism miss the point?

The Situationist's Response

One important thing to note is that many consequentialist theories face similar criticisms. Some might argue, in utilitarian theories is no more fully comprehensible than maximizing happiness. It is a general human understanding about the kinds of actions that are more likely to create a better world as a whole. The fear of prescribing the wrong action in a particular situation is inevitably part of the same thing could apply in interpreting utilitarianism incorrectly in a complex moral dilemma. The critic can point out there are difficulties in interpretation or possibly undesirable consequences. It is argued that this exists in all theories of normative ethics (the study of how one should act).

What the critic of situation ethics has to demonstrate fully is that love is a particular ultimate intrinsic good by which to judge actions. Charlotte and Peter Vardy make the point that situation ethics ignores Jesus' commands to love God, and places love as the ultimate intrinsic good for secular audiences. Proponents of traditional Christian ethics may argue further that being loving within a legalistic system of ethics, or that an important part of being loving is to follow rules regardless of whether one feels love in a particular situation.

Nevertheless, when critically engaging with Fletcher's cases, it is still apparent that situation ethics doesn't truly engage with the core issue with legalistic ethics: their lack of flexibility. Situation ethics arguably push the Christian ethic away from its traditional moral core, inevitably requiring a radical reinterpretation of scripture. It is hard to admit that scripture is lacking insight on many modern ethical issues, such as abortion, which partially have their roots in present day technological developments. Unless one has a quantified method to establishing moral rules about an incredibly broad possible range of situations, they always have to rely on more abstract Biblical interpretation, or another basis for ethical reasoning than conscience.

Can love be quantified or measured?

However, the critics of situation ethics still don't take into account one major problem partially with situation ethics. As a consequentialist theory, it should only be concerned with maximizing happiness in a particular situation. But how can this work in practice? In the case of utilitarianism, Jeremy Bentham's hedonic calculus to attempt to determine how much pleasure was produced by any particular action is still an incredibly inaccurate and unwieldy way to try and determine how to maximize happiness. In situation ethics, love is even more of a generalised feeling and to demonstrate its value is difficult.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



We can take the example of a soldier on the battlefield disarming a foe and threatening one can imagine the soldier faces a decision, mercifully killing his foe or letting him return to his town and be shunned for being weak or a coward for the rest of his life. Is loving? The soldier has no ability to change the entire culture of his foe's society or condemn him to a poor quality of life, filled with regret and loneliness. One can imagine that the soldier would have killed him in that moment. It becomes a decision between the right to life versus respecting their desire for a higher quality of life. Which decision is better?

Discussion Point 10

Is an understanding of how within Christianity necessary to fully understand Fletcher's theology? The concept of agape is borne out of a relationship with God; the question for the atheist could be how to understand and apply situation ethics. Is this a problem for Fletcher?

The main issue with Fletcher's examples is that they show why Christian moral law is not absolute in some circumstances, but they do not show why love should be the ultimate guiding principle in all situations, especially when it cannot be quantified in such a way as to produce a clear answer. A situationist might respond that some moral dilemmas can never have a completely correct answer, and that a graded absolutism may almost certainly be a better response if it provides guidance. Others might naturally argue that God's guidance is even more important at these points, and that in the face of a blurry concept of agape love, one should look towards the grace of God for answers.

In the case of the soldier, how does maximising love provide a solution to the ethical dilemma he faces? One final issue that can be observed is that if, say, the soldier killed his foe and later walked through his foe's hometown where people were mourning his death, would that change the original loving intention of the act? In the case of utilitarianism, one could posit that in fact killing the foe did not produce the most happiness and despite the soldier's good intentions, the act was wrong. However, it is much harder to look back at actions and judge if they demonstrated the most love. An act could feasibly be motivated by love beyond belief yet cause great misery. In the soldier's case, therefore, one could argue both actions could be seen as equally loving, even if one was plainly worse in many other ways.

Therefore, Barclay's criticism that love cannot be accurately prescriptive as a moral theory arguably poses great difficulties to situation ethics. While he does not present it in as great a detail as featured, how situation ethics 'actually' works is a hurdle that it arguably never quite overcomes.

3. There are things in the world which are intrinsically good and bad

It was explored in section two, the difference between 'predicates' and 'properties'. Further, one could say Barclay is arguing for a form of moral absolutism, that certain acts are right or wrong and that no amount of context or situation can change this. On the other hand, one could argue for a form of moral universalism, that things are objectively morally good or bad but not independent of context or consequences.

Barclay doesn't provide a whole explanation of why moral absolutism has to be rejected. He argues that acts have the property of being good or bad other than stipulating some circumstances. He gives the example of badness, such as pushing a young person into drug addiction. Yet it is debatable whether these are intrinsically bad. Possibly more extreme acts could be given. Would genocide in a war be intrinsically bad?

One important thing to consider is that from a Christian perspective, it is not always clear what specific teachings about good or bad acts are given explicitly. In Matthew 19, Jesus talks about the Ten Commandments, which can easily be recognised as rules for moral conduct. In the Sermon on the Mount in Matthew 5, he declares how the Commandments have been interpreted.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Accepting the commandment 'You shall not murder', is to recognise for Barclay the badness. Justification therefore does not come from assigning values to actions, but indicating that within certain actions there is some deeper badness to them. Yet to show this definitive badness altogether simply from scriptural interpretation is very difficult. To show that simply following the Commandments could lead to undesirable consequences, that all moral acts have a greater purpose than their effects here on earth and judgement of outcomes than one's purity of intention. While scripture is a good source of ethical say conscience is also, and it might be a stretch to always place one over the other to be good or bad.

Discussion Point 11

Does the text support Barclay's idea that there are some objectively good and bad actions? Might Fletcher point towards to justify his position?

Discuss whether Barclay or Fletcher require more than scriptural justification for Christian ethic can be wholly based off Biblical interpretation.

4. Situation ethics fails to account for the possibility of sublimation

Barclay explores in some depth Fletcher's example of the Rainmaker, pointing out that a farmer's daughter, despite seeming loving, relied upon a possibly misguided idea of meaning in life. He raises the idea that sublimation, the changing of abnormal or unwholesome and beneficial ones, is an important consideration, especially if one views the Church's responsibility is turning sinners into good men.

Yet a lot still hinges on how one interprets the most loving action in the example. One could argue his actions are loving to a degree, another might argue it would be loving to a spinsterhood within the wider community. In the play, domestic violence on the farm during a drought are arguably more pressing issues.

This does expose, however, the flaw in situation ethics, that it at once concerns itself with the intrinsic good of an action, while at the same time acknowledging that this intrinsic good is wrapped up in our subjective values. As noted before, love is difficult to quantify and maximise as a good, but if the intrinsic good is further, it could be that what love is, is so culturally dependent, that it holds little value beyond the good passed down through Christ. What begins as an attempt to maximise love soon becomes an attempt to maximise the things we hold important at a particular point in time.

5. Tensions between law and situation ethics

In section two, the various tensions between situation ethics and establishing a society are explored. Here a more general set of criticisms will be examined.

One of the major contentions Barclay has is with the idea that law should not concern itself with the private morality of its citizens. Certainly under situation ethics, it can be argued that focusing on loving acts, it would be far more unloving to punish someone simply because of the things they do in their spare time, and so this is an issue that Barclay is fair to raise. What is more, to attempt to establish a law, however is Barclay's argument to legalise something is to in essence legitimise it, which in turn encourages it. Such a distinction between legalising something and decriminalising it, the latter favouring an approach of not aggressively punishing people based upon the mistakes they have made in their lives.



Key Point

The basic thought here is that, therefore, the content of the law is, however, whether or not there are faults in the actual law. Simply put, the work of the law means it

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



It is wrong to simply suggest that the law isn't concerned with morality. Laws in a designed to protect people wherever possible and ideally enforce a common good can live together safely and happily.

While this is an ideal often not met, especially in authoritarian or corrupt countries, law reflected 'loving' morality, these aims would not be far out of the question. Therefore, it seems enforcing law based upon Christian morality only is to possibly authoritarianism. Following a system based on the divine command theory of ethics of legal laws, both public and private, but it does not necessarily equal what the be that such a society, although morally good in the eyes of Barclay, may not be peaceful.

While there are moral difficulties with that approach, equally there can be establishing enforcing law if situation ethics is taken to be correct in its ethical Laws by and large are commands. While there may be exempting circumstances for sentencing depending on how far a person transgresses them, it would be unwieldy rules for every possible situation.

However, if one accepts this is the case, then there is accurately a tension between For if one subscribes to acting well within a situation then they may often find the The law, for example, might legislate against euthanasia to stop people taking advantage of others, but many people might find themselves in a situation where the most loving thing to do would be to help a relative die. In a more extreme example, they might believe the most loving thing to do would be to assassinate a high-ranking parliamentary member to ensure better welfare for the citizens of a country.

While Barclay might be wrong in suggesting legality requires approval, there is the strong possibility that situation ethics strongly leads towards civil disobedience over following the law. Many might argue here that if the law reflected situation ethics, this would not be an issue, but Barclay sagely notes this issue in several parts of his essay:

Too much individualism means the obliteration of the individual; too much individualism We may well come to the conclusion that one of the great problems of the present delicate balance between freedom and law, and between the individual and society

Therefore, while situation ethics might play an important role in illuminating difficult once more turns to how it is possible to apply it in real world society as a system of situationist does so, it becomes difficult to see in the eyes of many critics, how it can Christian morals as a whole, but provides an ethical groundwork for those who have

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Taking it Further (Extension material)

5. Wider Issues for Religious Belief

Situation ethics, when it first started becoming more prominent with Christian philosophy, was widely perceived to be controversial, often not because of its focus on the importance of the ethical principles that seemed to entail from Fletcher's depiction of it. For many of the changing times and moral practices of the 1950s and 1960s, where new technologies such as the sexual revolution posed a range of new and pressing moral issues. It was seen as too liberal and many critics argued that the church and religion should be seen as changing to fit the secular demands of society.

Discussion Point 12

Discuss how much situation ethics can be viewed as a reaction to the changing world. Should Christianity seek to adapt or learn from different secular attitudes or should it remain unchanged?

Thus if Fletcher's ideas are adopted, there are widespread consequences for religion focused on Jesus' rejection of legalism in the Gospels. For example in Matthew 6:16-18, who pray only as it is seen as a part of religion and don't focus on its true purpose. Fletcher's ideas around agape love guiding moral conduct, can be seen to be an improvement on the practices of organised religion. Therefore, orthodox laws built around the Church's opposition to abortion and other scientific practices from a belief in the sanctity of life may well be replaced by a broader, arguably more loving focus on the quality of life. Barclay may even be seen as a critique of Fletcher for promoting too much individualism in ethics. Many would argue that personal choice is open to error and that Church organisation is necessary as an example for the people. Yet it is important to note overall that Fletcher's critique of legalistic morality is undermining the Church's authority in moral matters and giving a greater response to the message of Christ for the modern world.

On the other hand, it is important to note the implications of Barclay's critiques. As the world has become more liberally minded regarding Christian ethics, Barclay is broadly seen as a more realistic approach. Throughout *Ethics in a Permissive Society*, he argues for the importance of the Old Testament and it can be posited that this is an aspect overlooked by Fletcher, who largely focused on the figure of Jesus. Charlotte and Peter Vardy note similarly the issue that Fletcher gives too much importance, playing down the equal stressing by Jesus of loving God. In the light of this, the importance of legalistic morality is more easily retained, for Jesus stresses God's judgement and one's relationship with him.

In fact, it is even possible to say that Fletcher's interpretation of Jesus' rejection of legalism is misguided. Viewed another way, many argue that instead it was a rejection of the hierarchy and practices of the Jewish authorities at the time and the loss of the sanctity from prayer and rituals altogether. Simply because one set of legalistic practices has been rejected doesn't mean the idea needs to be rejected as a whole and Jesus' calls for religious growth in the Great Commission as well as his setting out of various moral laws indicate that a morally legal ethical structure, supported by a Church, was envisioned.

An important point is that legalistic approaches don't necessarily reject ethical dilemmas in difficult situations, even if they appear more inflexible. A person still has to interpret what the law says in new ethical dilemmas and many still seek guidance from the Church in difficult situations. It is possible to say that despite the conclusions drawn by Fletcher's theory, there does not seem to be a widespread impact on religion as a whole, depending on how much importance is placed on agape love and personal moral responsibility.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



INSPECTION COPY



Key Idea

Another similarity that can be found between the two is that both advocate giving significant attention to the character of the person. In the case of utilitarianism, the focus is on the consequences of the action, whereas in virtue ethics a wider range of virtues is given attention, from courage to honesty. In the case of utilitarianism, the focus is on the consequences of the action, whereas in virtue ethics a wider range of virtues is given attention, from courage to honesty. In the case of utilitarianism, the focus is on the consequences of the action, whereas in virtue ethics a wider range of virtues is given attention, from courage to honesty.



**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



A Level Anthology Study Guide for Edexcel Paper 2: Religion and Ethics



Form and Justify an Argument

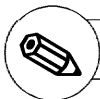
Throughout this section both Fletcher's original arguments for situation ethics are analysed and it is now up to you to decide whether you believe either side to be particularly convincing. Consider the following:

- Do Fletcher's examples reliably present a philosophical case for ethics being situationist?
- Can only agape love be the primary basis for all moral decisions?
- Does situation ethics offer an effective structure for ordinary life, or is it only for extraordinary circumstances?
- Does situation ethics present human beings with an overwhelming amount of choice?
- What difficulties might Fletcher face with the idea of quantifying and maximising love?
- Is it possible to fully abandon the idea of absolutely good and bad actions?
- Does the idea of sublimation present difficulties for advocating agape love?
- Is the possible necessity of law within society a problem for widespread acceptance of situation ethics as a moral theory?
- Does situation ethics provide effective moral guidance or it is not accurate for ordinary people?
- Is situation ethics too secular as a theory and does it ignore other important aspects of religion?
- Does situation ethics prove more attractive to non-religious people, than religious ones?

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**





Activities

Activity 1

Below is a table summarising Barclay's arguments within 'Situation Ethics'. Read through the table using your own interpretation of the anthology, the extract and any other ideas you have. Fill in the table.

'Situation Ethics' - William Barclay	
Barclay argues:	Argument
Fletcher's 'Situation Ethics' focus too much on extreme circumstances and present an imbalanced picture of ordinary moral decision making.	
Situation ethics presents an overwhelming amount of freedom for human beings. Laws are necessary in some way for morality to be practical.	
There are some things in the world that are intrinsically good and bad. Not everything is reducible to its context in situation.	
Fletcher fails to account for the possibility of sublimation. If Christianity is supposed to make morally bad men good then it must not simply seek to indulge people with love.	
Situation ethics has difficulties when applied to law and society. It could place too much emphasis on the individual and freedom and not enough on community and values.	
Conclusion: Situation ethics does not represent the Christian ethic effectively. It is too grudging. In reducing moral acts down to their context and situation, it fails to give practical and applicable moral guidance for people.	

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Activity 2

Working in pairs, choose one person to act as Fletcher and one person to act as Barclay. Discuss the situation below, given as an example in *Situation Ethics: The New Morality*.

I dropped in on a patient at the hospital who explained that he only had a set time to give him some pills (that would cost \$40 every three days) or it would keep him alive but if he didn't take the pills, he'd be dead within six hours. Now he was insured for indemnity and that was all the insurance he had. But if he took the pills and lived, his insurance was up for renewal and they were bound to refuse the renewal, and his insurance company told me that. He was taking that if he didn't take the pills, then his family would be asked to pay for the situation.

The person acting as Fletcher should draw up an argument to suggest which action is justified, justifying his action where possible. The person acting as Barclay should then provide a counter-argument, suggesting which laws might govern the patient's decision and suggest a course of action.

Then both should present their case to each other and see whether the two outcomes approach might have failed. If yes, note any inconsistencies or interesting parts of the discussion and determine how it could be possible to arrive at an alternative conclusion.

After the discussion, consider who had the stronger moral case and decide whether utilitarian or divine command ethics was more appropriate.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED





Practice Exam Questions

Answer the following questions giving reference to the passage below:

Second – and this is a much more serious matter – situational ethics presents us with a freedom. There we are in front of our situation and there is no prefabricated judgment to make the right decision. Brunner has said that there is nowhere you can go – not to Mount Sinai and say; ‘Now I know what to do’. There is no such thing as a ready-made answer. The things that exist are what we have discovered and teaches, but we are left alone in our choice.

The right use of freedom in our relationships with others depends on love. If love is missing, it is a bad thing. But if there is no love, or if there is not enough love, then freedom can become selfishness and even cruelty. If you leave a man without love to do as he pleases, the damage he can do is incalculable. It may well be that neither I nor any other person is at the end of the freedom from which the situationist offers us. The situationists have a kind of practical experience is that we need a certain amount of law, being the kind of people we are.

- Outline and clarify the different ideas presented in this passage about situational ethics.
- Analyse the different implications for Christian ethics in this passage.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED





Mark Scheme

Level	Descriptor
Level 1	There is limited knowledge, terminology and technical language inaccurately or inappropriately. Only surface level knowledge, beliefs and concepts is displayed and religious ideas and beliefs are of a limited variety and are always correct, or sufficiently connected to the extract.
Level 2	There is a moderate amount of knowledge, terminology and technical language, although with a few mistakes. A thorough knowledge of important religious beliefs is displayed but with room for further development. Religious ideas and beliefs addressed are of a limited variety, but are generally correct and sufficiently connected to the extract.
Level 3	There is a broad amount of knowledge, terminology and technical language accurately and rigorously presented throughout an appropriate response to the question. A thorough and fully developed knowledge and understanding of important religious beliefs and concepts is displayed. Religious ideas and beliefs addressed are of a wide variety, correct and pertinently connected to the extract.

Question No.	Indicative Content (10 marks AO1)
a)	<p>AO1 will be used by candidates to demonstrate knowledge and understanding of specialist language and terminology, when responding to the question.</p> <p>Candidates may refer to the following:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Situation ethics as outlined by Fletcher, argues that there is no absolute right or wrong, actions and rather what is right depends on the context of the situation. • What is good, for Fletcher, is what demonstrates the most love for others. • Barclay's criticism centres on the possible issue that situation ethics gives too much freedom for the ordinary individual. It has been described as the 'man come of age' but Barclay suggests that humans cannot reach the position where they can handle the freedom given to them. • Barclay's example is that while some people understand love, they can be mistaken or even use love to their advantage. The freedom given by situation ethics gives license for people to exploit it as misunderstandings and misuses. • Moreover it may even be that human beings require laws. If human beings needing such vast freedom, situation ethicists argue that human psychology is such that laws may well be necessary.

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



INSPECTION COPY



Level	Descriptor
Level 1	There is a very limited knowledge, terminology and technical language, often used inaccurately or inappropriately. Some topics and details are chosen with rudimentary links made between a small variety of aspects of the question. Any criticisms or judgements are only substantiated by general or non-specific evidence.
Level 2	There is a limited amount of knowledge, terminology and technical language, which is well presented, although with some mistakes. Relevant topics and details are chosen and links are made between a small variety of aspects of the question. Criticisms and judgements of a few aspects are made but with little substantiation by a reasoned evaluation of supporting evidence.
Level 3	There is a moderate amount of knowledge, terminology and technical language which is well presented, although with some mistakes. Relevant topics and details are chosen with a basic progression of reasoned arguments throughout the answer. Links are made between a lot of aspects of the question. Criticisms and judgements of a few aspects are made with some attempt at substantiation by a reasoned evaluation of supporting evidence.
Level 4	A broad amount of knowledge, terminology and technical language is well presented with few mistakes. Relevant topics and details are deconstructed with rational and logical progressions of reasoned arguments developed throughout the answer. Links are made between a broad variety of the aspects of the question. Criticisms and judgements are made of almost all of the aspects of the question and are substantiated by a reasoned evaluation of some supporting evidence.
Level 5	A broad amount of knowledge, terminology and technical language is well presented, correctly and rigorously, throughout a justified response. Relevant topics and details are critically deconstructed with rational and logical progressions of reasoned arguments strongly developed. Criticisms, judgements and links are made of/between all aspects of the question and completely substantiated by a thorough and reasoned evaluation of supporting evidence.

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Question No.	Indicative Content (5 marks AO1, 15 marks AO2)
b)	<p>AO1 will be used by candidates to underpin their analysis and evaluation. They will be required to demonstrate knowledge and understanding using specific terminology when responding to the question, and in meeting the AO2 criteria described below.</p> <p>Candidates may refer to the following in relation to AO1.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Situation ethics is a form of Christian ethics as it specifically advocates demonstration of agape love in any given situation or ethical dilemma. • However, this also goes against a lot of traditional Christian divine command which puts forward that there are objectively good and bad acts as dictated by the word of God. An act is good or bad, despite situation ethicists arguing that it can never be good or bad solely on the basis of the outcome. • Barclay argues that there are various weaknesses of situation ethics, both on its own terms, as well as within the wider context of Christian ethics. <p>Candidates may refer to the following in relation to AO2.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Whether situation ethics is too focused on extreme ethical deliberation, whereas the traditional Christian ethic is better in ordinary situations than situation ethics. • Fletcher's arguments may grant humans an overwhelming amount of autonomy, which is incompatible with traditional Christian morality. Humans arguably follow or not God's word in different ethical situations, not interpreting it for themselves. • Difficulties within quantifying love in situation ethics. In contrast with love, which could be seen as the faculty by which we develop a relationship and where loving may be what is commanded by God, not what we interpret as loving. • There may be simply things that are objectively good and bad, regardless of whether these can be identified independent of God's word, it may well be that situation ethics does not interpret morality accurately. • Fletcher's account may well not take into account the possibility of situational factors that identifies. Christianity, if a moral authority, should arguably make humans interpret what is good for themselves. • The difficulties of situation ethics might have if applied to law and social norms, which is more than the licentiousness of situation ethics as a whole, which is not a Christian ethic. • Situation ethics rejects legalism, but there are cases in the Bible when laws are to be endorsed by Jesus and others. This may present an issue for Fletcher's supporters if they cannot interpret the Bible effectively to support situation ethics as truly Christian. • Consequentialist ethics may well be naturally opposed to Christianity as it sees a source of good somewhere other than God. While it can be argued that God's love as a whole, situation ethicists might be forced to accept human actions as the ultimate arbiters of morality, not God, if pushed far enough by critics.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Glossary



Situation Ethics	The moral theory that argues that what is good and bad is determined by the situation and its context.
Divine Command Ethics	The moral theory that argues that what is good and bad is determined by what is commanded by God.
Agape Love	All-encompassing and general love for humankind, based on personal beliefs or dislikes.
Justice	For Fletcher, justice is love distributed. Where love is, there is therefore justice.
Predicate	The part of a sentence that states something about the subject. For example, in the statement x (is red), (is red) is the predicate.
Property	A property is a characteristic of an object, generally based on its nature and exemplifiable.
Exemplifiable	Where a property can be assigned to an object as being a good example of it. For example, an apple could be exemplifiable of being green as long as all apples possessed the property of being green.
Sublimation	The process by which undesirable or unacceptable behaviour is transformed psychologically (and often unconsciously) into better behaviour.
Act-based Consequentialism	Where what is good is judged by the consequences of the individual's undertakes.
Rule-based Consequentialism	Where what is good is judged by the following of various rules that maximise the good consequence.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Answers to Discussion Points

1. **Rule/Act Based Consequentialism** – Students might point out that Fletcher seems to see consequentialism on occasion, allowing that we can follow our ordinary moral instincts in specific acts in extreme moral dilemmas. This has the advantage of putting less pressure on us to evaluate the right moral acts. However, it also means that in general, one might come to agree through moral shortcuts and thereby in the eyes of Fletcher failing Jesus' commandment to love.
2. **Justice and Love** – It is possible to point out that for some people justice can involve imprisoning a murderer rather than their rehabilitation, which many would argue is not being loving. However, one can point towards simpler examples. Imagine a priest and received equal ration. The priest was full halfway through but the other two were not. Many would say it would be loving for the priest to give away his food, but it is just to give it to the other two. Students might question whether such examples fit in with Fletcher's concepts of love.
3. **Activity** – Students can imagine smaller moral examples, such as if a student falls asleep for a test. Does he cheat knowing it will lead to his parents and teachers being happier despite possibly being perfectly able to have done well if he had managed to study properly?
4. **Extended Reading, Existentialism** – While they are different in many ways, existentialism talks about the terrifying freedom humans face and their differing reactions to it. Students might look at Sartre's concept of inauthenticity, judging whether Barclay's criticism is an inauthentic reaction to freedom instead enforcing arbitrary rules to make it easier to handle.
5. **Intrinsically Bad Acts** – Students might point towards extreme examples such as genocide. Others might posit situations that could justify these. It is possible Barclay can simply argue that the inability to determine succinctly what is right and wrong means that trust in a benevolent God. What is right and wrong might be essential within a Christian ethic.
6. **Sublimation** – It is alluded to in the text, but homosexuality is a good example of an act that used to be a mental illness (and still is in some parts of the world). While acceptable now, it has been sublimated in various ways, suggesting maybe that Christianity cannot necessarily govern this practice.
7. **Wolfenden Report** – Students may look at John Stuart Mill as reference here. Many would argue that of applied morality, but cannot be the subject of a general ethical interpretation. Students might look at the protection for whistle-blowers and the implications of this and cases of civil disobedience that bring about greater moral change.
8. **Graded Autonomy** – One of the key criticisms of this theory has been its arbitrary nature. For example, if a person was presented with the choice of robbing a bank or committing adultery, the theory would argue that the former is worse. Arguably, the theory does not provide much support, so it seems a third-party law has to be imposed. For situationists this just happens to be love.
9. **Rule/Act and Barclay** – Certainly at times Barclay seems to be guilty of overstressing the importance of rules. Fletcher states often one can revert to common sense morality in ordinary situations. One case that can be made that approaching difficult ethical circumstances without any fear of the terrifying prospect of human freedom.
10. **Agape Love** – The idea of a general love for humanity is often espoused but other ethical theories focus on agent-relative reasons for moral action. While general or agape love, therefore, might be difficult to comprehend this concept within secular ethical theories, other motivations as more important. In this sense, it may be hard for an atheist to understand the same way that Christians do as an all-encompassing love for humanity.
11. **Biblical Justification** – Students can note that one's approach to the Bible of either eisegesis (reading into from one's own experiences/beliefs/presuppositions) or exegesis (reading out from the text). Arguably in the Gospels especially there are both times. Jesus favours law-like commandments when teachings come in parables, or unexpected context-based acts of loving. If one uses exegesis, one might look for specific rules for ethical decision making while if one uses eisegesis, one might look for general principles. Examples of how love is put into practice can be found in the Gospels.
12. **Adaptation of Christianity** – Many people would argue that Christianity has changed over time and that it should continue to. Some might argue with greater scientific understanding that things do change in religion, but others might argue that such adaptation is a loss of the heart of existence and as such take focus away from the significance of the faith.

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Groundwork for the Metaphysics of Morals – Im

What you need to know before starting...

1. The core ideas behind deontological ethics and a number of different forms ph throughout history.
2. The different ways one might arrive at an understanding of moral rules and wh derive morality from reason alone
3. Some of the weaknesses of deontological ethics and the first formulation as proposed by Kant.
4. The way in which Kantian ethics has influenced present day philosophical tho fields of applied ethics which make use of the categorical imperative in one wa

1. Introduction

This extract draws on Section 5.1: Deontology on the syllabus and you are advised the anthology alongside this topic. Additionally for owners of the ZigZag Course C Ethics Year 2, the section on Deontology can be found on pp. 12–27, 34–35.

The essay is a series of extracts from the second section of the *Groundwork for the Metaphysics of Morals* designed to illuminate part of the philosophical process behind Kant's ethical theory. It covers the formulations of the categorical imperative. This guide will begin by outlining and explaining the categorical imperative before analysing its various weaknesses and noting the influence of religious belief, ethics and everyday experience.

2. Summary of Ideas

Kantian ethics is commonly understood as a deontological ethical theory, which classifies an action as morally right or wrong based on whether it follows a rule or set of rules. Essentially, therefore, an action is morally right if it is in accordance with a rule or set of rules, even when it leads to negative consequences so long as it follows an objective moral principle. This makes ethics a field separate to what is agreeable. While the results of a particular action may be something that is desired, that is not what makes it moral at heart. Kant identifies a moral law or something that commands beyond what individuals might find agreeable and a moral agent has a responsibility to act through duty. One's duty, therefore, can be characterised by 'ought' for Kant can be discovered through reason.

The journey towards illuminating moral law through reason alone motivates Kant's theory. This extract in particular provides an outline of how from Kant's original definitions of moral law one can arrive at a categorical imperative: a rule that is separate from all contingent circumstances and can guide human ethical action irrespective of context.

Groundwork to the Categorical Imperative

So how does Kant begin this task? At the beginning of the extract he makes a number of assumptions that illuminate his reasoning towards the categorical imperative:

Every thing in nature works in accordance with laws. Only a rational being has the power to make laws for himself. [...] Since for the derivation of actions from laws nothing is required but practical reason.

While this may initially seem as if he is making a number of assumptions, Kant's explanation of a number of his insights into metaphysics as a whole. One major distinction he makes is between the world we know through experience, and the **noumena**, or the world-in-itself which we cannot develop any knowledge of through experience. Within the phenomena, cause and effect are

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



We regularly observe causes and their effects and it is apparent that the world as a whole is contained within an order governed by certain laws. However, Kant speculates that the source of real free will that could give human moral actions significance, is possibly contained within the noumena. These concepts are not essential to know in detail, but they provide an important framework for understanding Kant's reasoning.



Key Idea

Kant's ethical project is epistemologically transcendent. His project of transcendent ethics is used to describe his work in ethics. The world appears to humans as a brute fact. Kant's work in particular as a bridge between beliefs in realism (reality is as it is) and idealism (reality is as we perceive it).

So if nature works in accordance with laws as Kant argues, then beings capable of rational thought (humans) have the ability to act in accordance with this understanding in mind. For example, playing billiards, I purposefully hit the ball with the belief they will move certain ways from my understanding of collisions and the laws of physics. Ultimately behind this understanding is reason, and so for Kant, my will is simply determined by the world. However, he goes further:

If reason determines the will without exception, then the actions of such a being are objectively necessary, are also subjectively necessary, i.e. the will is a faculty of reason. Reason, independently of inclination, recognises as practically necessary, i.e. as good.

This means that if reason is the mechanism which controls our actions, then what we do is what our reason regards as necessary. However, Kant does not argue that reason alone determines our actions. Further on he notes that human beings are constantly under pressure from subjective influences from the world based upon our current state of affairs. One might reason that if I make an object fly through the air one has to propel it, but if I am trapped in a headwind, any reasonable attempt to make the football fly through the air is restrained by these circumstances.

What he then draws out is that these objective principles that guide our actions, are called commands and they are all the formula of an imperative. An imperative in ethics is a statement that tells us what we ought to do. For example the sentence 'One ought not to litter' is an objective command. If we recognise as true by reason, we would follow in ideal circumstances (i.e. subjectively be no litter in the world). Kant notes this in particular:

They say that it would be good to do or refrain from something, but they say it is good to do something just because it is represented to it as good to do.

What this leads Kant to argue, is that whatever practical goods we do in the world are good because they are governed by reason, they have to come from objective principles, not from our subjective circumstances. There is an important difference between principles which are 'agreeable', which find favour simply via our natural desires, and principles which are 'good', which find favour by being derived from reason. What Kant does effectively is tie the idea of moral goodness to the idea of rationality. If anyone is a rational being, they can understand the valid reasoning behind any moral imperative.

Discussion Point 13

Can all moral statements be turned into 'ought' statements that universally apply to all rational beings? Discuss whether turning them into such a form loses any part of their meaning.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Good and Imperfect Wills

One important final point Kant makes is defining a 'good will'. He states:

A perfectly good will would thus stand just as much under objective laws, but it would not represent it as necessitated by them to lawful actions, because of itself, in accordance with its own constitution, it can be determined only through the representation of the good.

A good will therefore is unqualifiedly good; it cannot be conditioned by objective laws. Whatever anything it does is automatically good by its very constitution. Since it can never be determined by an immoral end, imperatives cannot put it under any constraint for a good will, rather its very nature, its 'divine will', is 'necessarily in conformity with the law'. Equally it should therefore be possible to only apply the categorical imperative to imperfect wills. In other words, an outcast or a criminal being with a good will will not automatically perform the command by their very constitution.

The Categorical Imperative

Kant divides between two forms of imperative: the hypothetical and the categorical. Hypothetical imperatives express a command for an action that is rooted in achieving or attaining a particular goal in the contingent world (the things that could be true or false depending on other circumstances). One example would be:

If one wants to make wine, one ought to grow grapes

While we might regard this as an important principle, it only applies when a certain set of hypothetical requirements are met, in this case, the receiver desiring to make wine. If the receiver has no interest in making wine, then the hypothetical command carries no weight; it ceases to be an imperative.

On the other hand, there are categorical imperatives, which apply without reference to any particular goal. It is 'objectively necessary for itself' and commands people irrespective of what they desire. It is possible to broadly differentiate hypothetical and categorical imperatives as follows:



Hypothetical	→	If, then ought
Categorical	→	Ought

Categorical imperatives for Kant form the basis of morality; ought statements that are not mitigated by any goals or contingent objects one might regard as important. They are commands that are realistically possible for all human beings. This means they cannot be impossible in any circumstances, unlike hypothetical imperatives. From this thought he states:

It has to do not with the matter of the action and what is to result from it, but with the principle which it results; and what is essentially good about it consists in the disposition, to do it from duty.

Investigating the Categorical Imperative

Since the categorical imperative is not linked to any particular goal or things people might regard as important, it is grounded in experience of the world. Therefore, the categorical imperative by nature is not entirely a priori.

It is from this that we can see the differences between hypothetical and categorical imperatives. Whereas with the hypothetical imperative, it cannot be known what the statement 'if' or 'if' is known, the categorical imperative is completely known from the start in being a command.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



But if I think of a categorical imperative, then I know directly what it contains. The categorical imperative contains only the necessity of the maxim, that it accord with this law, condition to which it is limited, there remains nothing left over with which the maxim can accord and this accordance alone is what the imperative really represents necessity.

This appears convoluted, but in short Kant argues that if the distinctive element of a categorical imperative is that it applies universally, then its universalisation of any maxim is what it represents. If a maxim is in accordance or agreement with any condition, but at the same time this accordance is not universal, then a categorical imperative is formed of.

To describe another way, the primary feature of a categorical imperative is that it applies to the entire universe, in that thing's features or state of being, then what the imperative requires is that anything a person does ought to equally be able to be willed across the entire universe at the same time, must be able to be performed by every person without contradiction or at least without conflict.

Therefore, he comes to the conclusion that there is only a single categorical imperative.

Act only in accordance with that maxim which you can at the same time will that it should become a universal law.

This is one of the central pillars of Kant's deontological ethics and forms the basis of his moral theory. It is the principle that can be formed. Kant was often critical for using examples as simple measures of a principle. For example, he does later in the *Groundwork*, of a person seeking to borrow money without paying it back, universalising this principle would provide a contradiction. If everyone would ever lend money anymore knowing it would never be paid back.

Discussion Point 14

There is another form of Kant's first formulation in the *Groundwork*:

So act as if the maxim of your action were to become through your will a universal law of nature.

Why does he make this distinction? Are there are particular benefits to stating it this way?

The Second Formulation of the Categorical Imperative

In the final section of the extract, Kant explores a second formulation of the categorical imperative, which focuses around human beings in particular. This is sometimes called the Formula of Humanity.

Act so that you use humanity, as much in your own person as in the person of every other, always at the same time as end and never merely as means.

A great deal of the attractiveness of Kant's moral theory lies in this principle, for it establishes the importance of respect between people and forms the basis of equality as an essential moral practice.

But how does Kant reach this formulation? The first part of the extract revolves around Kant's distinction between rational beings and ordinary objects of inclination. The latter only have a 'conditional worth' in Kant's view. If there was no need for them in pursuing different ends then they would have no value. For example, if this would be burning coal to generate electricity. But ever came to the day when electricity was not needed, the coal would have no value in and of itself. It only contains worth while it is instrumental towards other needs or ends. Kant states:

Thus the worth of all objects to be acquired through our action is always conditional. Their existence rests not on our will but on nature nevertheless have, if they are being used as means, and are called things...

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



On the other hand, as hinted in the last part of the sentence, things are set oppositely. The fact that possession of reason as part of their nature makes them ‘ends in themselves’, not as a means to any other goal. Thus our ‘humanity’, ‘personhood’ and ‘rational existence’ have value in themselves, conditional upon any other object or purpose. This idea extends to all human beings. Kant’s argument further as an objective principle:

... every other rational being also represents his existence in his way as consequent on his own, as is valid for; thus it is at the same time an objective principle, from which, as a principle, laws of the will must be able to be derived.

Simply put, because we are rational, we use our own rational existence as an end in itself, and everyone else’s as a means to an end. Some critics have noted initially that this formulation is intuitively unappealing, suggesting that having a purely a priori basis. There is not necessarily a need to state why reason is important, or why because one person holding their rational existence as an end, necessarily view everyone else’s the same. One could suppose for example that a person’s rational existence is a simulation of rationality compared to oneself. At the same time, however, such a claim is intuitively more appealing than simply recognising everyone else, similar to in rational existence, and treatment as an end in themselves.

Discussion Point 15

Is it necessarily true that acknowledging my own rational nature as an end means I must acknowledge everyone else’s as an end equally as ends? For example one might regard their love of music as an end in itself, while I regard people’s love of music as an end. Is Kant’s argument anything more than an agreement with moral intuition?

The Nuances of Means and Ends

It is, however, important to note before we move on a number of subtleties within Kant’s argument. One important is that the formula does not rule out using people to a certain degree as a means to an end. A person could suppose that using a taxi driver to take them home is using someone as a means to an end. However, what the humanity formula rules against is simply treating people as a mere means to an end. It suggests instead a strongly moral component to treating people as a means to an end. If we can suppose each person is morally equally respected through payment and that the taxi driver is a functional one. However, if the person puts a gun to the taxi driver’s head and forces them to take them home free of charge, they are treating the driver merely as a tool and so using them as a mere means. Where this distinction begins and ends is still a matter of debate. For example, if a person takes clothing from a department store in the knowledge that the store employs underpaid workers, is the person guilty of treating people as a mere means? Or is it just the worker?

The other thing to note is that beyond simply treating people as ends, it is specifically ‘rationality’ that we are focusing on. One criticism of Kant that will be explored later is that his formula provide no safeguards for the mentally ill or incapacitated. If a person seemingly lacks rationality, they no longer have any absolute worth and so seemingly can be treated as means to an end, which might find agreeable.

The Third Form and the Kingdom of Ends: Taking it Further (Additional to the First Two)

From the first two forms of the categorical imperative, Kant is sometimes seen to have a more positive view enshrines the autonomy and self-legislation necessary for human beings. In his third form of the categorical imperative, in short, he describes it as such:

Thus the practical principle follows [...] as the ultimate condition of their freedom, that the idea of the will of every rational being as a universally legislating will.

(Kant, Immanuel, *Grounding for the Metaphysics of Morals*)

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



This for Kant is necessary to establish how the categorical imperative does not simply mean that human beings follow as if machines, but a continuously active principle that people live by within their lives.

Another additional form of the categorical imperative is also given in the *Groundwork* through the thought experiment of the 'Kingdom of Ends', an ideal world in which all human beings are treated as ends and not mere means. Kant states:

Act according to maxims of a universal law, as if it were a law of a merely possible kingdom of ends.
(Kant, Immanuel, *Grounding for the Metaphysics of Morals*)

This form can be seen to bring a certain social dimension to the categorical imperative, as it is directed towards the whole of society Kant envisions, not just within the dimensions of one individual.

The Kingdom of Ends is mentioned briefly further on in this guide, however it is important to note that the forms of the categorical imperative are not essential to know, and for the purpose of this guide, the first two are required to understand and critique the first two. However, it is useful to know how Kant attempts to bring the categorical imperative into ordinary ethical life, as many issues within his doctrine arise from its perceived lack of usefulness or applicability to everyday ethical dilemmas.

3. Philosophical Context

The *Groundwork for the Metaphysics of Morals*, first published in 1785, was Kant's most influential work of philosophy and has greatly influenced ethical discourse in the years since. Kant wrote during the Enlightenment, when the primacy of reason in philosophical matters was becoming prominent as people turned away from traditional Church doctrine to seek the foundations of knowledge elsewhere. Within his ethical theory, especially with regards to the categorical imperative, it is easy to see this influence. Kant within the *Groundwork* sets out a largely a foundational approach to determining the core principles and ideas of morality and showing how they can be applied in practice, being to discover. This emphasis on morality as linked to rationality stood against the prevailing view of ethics that were popular at the time. These generally either put forward that morality was derived from people's emotions or that morality held a purpose to achieve a certain end, which was often perceived to be what was pleasurable or virtuous.

Immanuel Kant (1724–1804)

During Kant's life, philosophy was oriented around a number of disputes between empiricists, who believed all knowledge comes through experience, and rationalists, who asserted that people had innate ideas beyond experiential knowledge. Much of his work was dedicated to these issues and greatly shifted the emphasis and considerations of philosophical writing in the modern world. He maintained greatly that people should seek to think and act autonomously and while believing in God, he was sceptical of many traditional sources of authority. This bleeds greatly into his moral philosophy, where rational beings are treated as ends in themselves and pushed to recognise, through the categorical imperative, reason as the guiding force behind duty and morality.

Beyond the *Groundwork*, Kant explores his moral theories in later works such as *Critique of Practical Reason*, which develops the first formulation of the categorical imperative, and *The Metaphysics of Morals*, which focuses on Kant's vision for society and the ethical considerations attached to treating humans as ends, not merely as means.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



W D Ross (1877–1971)

Ross was a Scottish theologian, who similar to G E Moore, advocated an intuitionist ethics. This combines Kantian ideas of duty with the notion that these duties can be derived from ethical awareness. Overall he distinguished between seven different 'prima facie' duties: fidelity, gratitude, justice, beneficence, self-improvement and non-maleficence. However, to recognise these duties in an immediate way, it is how we implement them in difficult situations that requires further philosophical consideration. For example, in certain situations we may have to choose between non-maleficence in the case of an extremely violent criminal.

Ross' theory will be explored further later, but it is a useful example of how Kantian ethics can be applied differently and for many, it is closer to how we intuitively perceive morality than the importance of rationality in deriving moral laws.

Thomas Nagel (1937–present)

Nagel is another example of a modern deontologist and following from Kant, he has identified two forms of moral duties that differentiates between what he calls the 'agent-relative' and the 'agent-neutral' ones.

The former (agent-relative) are reasons for you to do something generally from special reasons in relation to the thing under ethical consideration. For example, a person may have special reasons for taking care of their children from the special amount of care, investment and love they have for their children. On the other hand, agent-neutral reasons are generalised and apply to all rational beings beyond human beings' personal attachments. This distinction will be explored further later. This addresses an issue with many previous utilitarian and deontological theories which require forcing people to take a neutral moral stance, contrary to how we live and value things. For example, strict utilitarianism struggles to identify why on a sinking cruise ship, a person would sacrifice their wife over a stranger. If there is a justification for preferring one's wife, it often comes from special reasons such as marriage providing a greater overall level of happiness, rather than simply the duty to hold greater moral weight in certain situations.

This criticism can be applied to Kant also, and will be explored in more depth in the next section.

4. Detailed Analysis

Kant's ethical theories have been highly influential but as such they have also attracted criticism. While the basic conceptual elements behind the categorical imperative were examined in the previous section, different areas of difficulty will be given a detailed analysis, looking at not only how Kant's theory addresses key issues within his ethical theory, but also how recently deontologists have sought to apply Kant's moral framework to illuminate modern ethical dilemmas.

1. The first formulation of the categorical imperative

The first formulation of the categorical imperative is one of Kant's most contentious. While its usefulness within political theory, arguably it hasn't provided a lasting framework for modern philosophy. One of the main issues that many critics have identified, is that in many cases it leads to unintuitive moral conclusions, or fails to capture all the dimensions of morality that we intuitively understand.

Before exploring these criticisms, however, it is important to consider the potential of the categorical imperative. As noted previously, Kant states the first form of the categorical imperative as:

Act only in that way which that maxim which you can at the same time will the universal law.

One can ask from this sentence, what are the grounds for an 'ought' statement to be considered universalised? In other words, what would make a universal law fail?

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



One of the main interpretations here is that one has to ask whether a maxim does conceivability. This means that it should be determined whether adopting a maxim in a particular way as to render the original maxim meaningless. For example, if it was conceivable that a world where everyone stole would render the idea of private property meaningless, for everyone would have an obligation to take any item and so the idea of ownership would in turn make the idea of stealing meaningless and so as a general moral principle it would not be truly conceivable.



Discussion Point 16

Is a contradiction in conceivability enough to determine whether a moral law fails? Philosophers have debated the first formulation of the categorical imperative and the nuances in which the contradiction is outlined affect what kind of moral laws might be possible.



Perfect and Imperfect Duties

What if we took the statement 'one ought to improve one's knowledge of the world' and would this have in human ethics? Imagining it to be a maxim, one could argue that one helps each other or contributes to the general well-being of society. Yet at the same time regard self-improvement to be a good thing. Advancing knowledge and understanding helps us to survive and flourish. Without it humanity might simply perish in its own ignorance.

Kant solves this difficulty by dividing between perfect and imperfect duties. The first test of conceivability but also the test of whether we would advocate them as maxims. We should act on consistently. In the case of self-improvement, it is possible to conceive of a governing law (albeit not a pleasant one), but at the same time we wouldn't necessarily present maxim. Doing so would obligate all human beings to only help themselves towards others.

So self-improvement cannot be a perfect duty, for every rational being cannot be expected to improve themselves. Instead it is an imperfect duty. For Kant these are duties which one is only sparingly and are based on the knowledge of the world itself. There may in turn be multiple maxims and they may be the same as perfect duties, be directed towards oneself or towards others. One is obliged to improve oneself at appropriate or even sparing times and while doing so help others. Failing to meet imperfect duties is not morally blameworthy.

Kant gave examples of a number of perfect and imperfect duties featured below.

	Perfect Duty	
Towards oneself	Not to commit suicide	Self-improvement
Towards others	Not to lie	Providing help

What is interesting to note, is that many of the perfect duties conceived of are negative, whereas imperfect duties are positive. For some critics this is a limitation of Kant's theory of moral theories, as they are limited by their conceivability as maxims, whereas for many positive moral principles are obligatory (beyond the call of duty) in nature.



Discussion Point 17

Examining Kant's idea of perfect and imperfect duties, come up with your own permutations of the table above. Is anything left out by Kant's definitions?



**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



The Case of the Inquiring Murderer

There are still a number of issues with perfect duties, even if they are negative. One of the most famous criticisms comes originally from the French philosopher Benjamin Constant, who posited that under Kant's moral law to not lie, were a murderer to come to a person's door and ask for the address of their next victim, the person at the door would be obliged to tell them where it is. Yet this seems an unintuitive conclusion to reach and arguably contradicts our instinctive desire to protect and care for other human beings. In real life many people would be moved at this point to stop the murder from occurring. Therefore, in such cases, this is both an indication that the first formulation does not provide real guidance for difficult moral situations and that in at least some way, the consequences of our moral actions hold some value.

Kant's response to this issue is largely seen as unsatisfactory. He argues that in the case of the inquiring murderer it is still right to tell the truth, partly because we can't predict the consequences of our actions but also because the value lies within its commitment to duty and not in its implications or consequences. Furthermore, effectively treating him as a mere means to an end and so denying his rationality.

Another difficulty is that Kant did not believe in applying what is sometimes called 'reservation' in these scenarios. This distinguishes between forms of deception relative to the truth, and deception from an outright lie. Therefore, the person answering the murderer a misleading truth such as 'the victim was in place x three hours ago' is a basic form of deception. Instead Kant states the least one can do is remain silent.

However, many people would still see Kant's allowance to remain silent as indicating a categorical imperative, namely that ultimately he is concerned with the consequences. If one intentionally finds a way to subvert the then claim of one's own ethical theory, it indicates that one's ethical theory is not exhaustive of all the dimensions of ordinary morality.

Hegel's Critique

Is there any way to salvage the first formulation that can be salvaged to provide a more satisfactory moral law? Hegel argues that fundamentally it cannot, for all the categorical imperative prescribes is a duty of non-contradiction and no actual moral guidance when dealing with ethical dilemmas. How Kant divided between perfect and imperfect duties, with the former often being more specific, it is possible that even this division struggles to develop when positive action should be taken. The duty of self-improvement, is there any real content to suggest when this should be taken? One might argue it is important while at school, but not necessarily when performing one's duties. Perhaps imperfect duties providing some context, Hegel argues that Kant's ethical theory, being devoid of the human context of actions, it provides no guiding force for our moral decisions.

This means that in the case of the inquiring murderer there is nothing within Kant's moral law that obliges human beings to make a decision on whether or not to lie. There is no mention of attachment to one's neighbours unless one develops a moral law around them. The categorical imperative seems ill-equipped to deal with real life scenarios unless directly specified. Either way, Hegel contends that Kant's theory, existing in the realm of reason and not in the realm of reality, cannot provide real guidance in situations where our ethical intuition contradicts our categorical imperative.

Trivial and Moral Maxims

One possible response to all this is to simply narrow the moral laws created such that they only apply to specific scenarios. For example in response to the inquiring murderer, one could put forward the maxim 'to protect the life of someone else'. However, there are other issues with such an approach. That formulation is open to unintuitive conclusions. Say, for example, I lied to the genocidal dictator, would that action be regarded as morally correct?

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



The second issue with this approach is that if one is allowed to simply make moral law, one can come up with any law to fit any action desired. Alasdair MacIntyre makes the point that it is easy to create moral laws that are both trivial and immoral, such as 'Do not steal, for the question is regarded as worthless by its owner'. This can conceivably be a universal law, but it is still wrong. MacIntyre even argues that the first formulation can play against the second, but 'but me can be treated as a means' can be universalised. Although this is possibly a more defensible formulation, it can be criticised for separating moral action from a person's moral conclusions relating to a person's own life. In other words, the moral laws derived from this approach become simply rational abstractions that might work within a conceivable world, but are not both meaningful and relevant to ordinary life.

Discussion Point 18

A number of cases are examined above where the categorical imperative is seen to lead to problematic conclusions. Is there any way of utilising it more specifically to develop more applicable moral laws as Hegel describes, simply an exercise in logic devoid of any practical meaning at all?

Examine the case of the inquiring murderer in particular and draw out some weaknesses for Kant.

Can the Categorical Imperative Capture all the Dimensions of Morality?

So far numerous criticisms of Kant have been addressed and it can be argued that the heart of the first form of the categorical imperative. One philosopher in particular who criticised this theory was Arthur Schopenhauer, who argued that what Kant argues to be moral law is actually just a veiled form of egoism.

What does this mean? Schopenhauer argues that Kant makes a mistake in thinking that morality can be derived objectively from reason, especially when he tries to provide a grounding or foundation for morality. He should determine what is moral in the first place. Schopenhauer contends that utilitarianism is empirical, then ultimately it is a matter of fact. Kant, however, simply assumes that morality is a priori and connects these two. He fails to find validation for them from human nature or experience. In this way, Schopenhauer argues, Kant provides a theological account of morality, but not one that can authorise morality as true or real.

This lack of foundation means that the categorical imperative is not an appeal to oneself in both the present and the future. When one applies the categorical imperative, one is simply reiterating the law of 'Do unto others as you would have them do unto you'. In the case of lying, one is not imagining a world where everyone lies to each other, but only to themselves. Therefore, in the case of the inquiring murderer, one does not become one's neighbour but by the abstract imagining of a case whereby oneself and the murderer might solve certain cases in the short run, but Schopenhauer argues that it ignores the compassion which is contained within a human being's compassion for others, where the human being, but also a being within a wider world connected to other people and their feelings.

Schopenhauer's criticism is a contentious one and many have argued he places too much importance on compassion, which arguably leads to less moral guidance than Kant does. He does highlight that in cases such as the inquiring murderer, it may not simply be the categorical imperative wrong, but that there are important elements missing from it. Kant's failure in his commitment to reason as the ultimate source of all moral law.

W D Ross and Moral Laws

One response to the issues facing Kant's ethical theory comes from W D Ross, who argues that there are *prima facie* duties that are immediately intuitive. Where one might disagree is how they apply to different ethical situations. Throughout the argument between Constant and Kant, the issue of simply remaining silent when facing an inquiring murderer is never explored and it is not clear how they have to directly conflict when they are assigned differing priorities. In the case of

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



might simply say someone has a stronger duty to preserve the welfare of people than when the context of possible violence is unknown.

However, such a graded form of deontology does detract from the force of the categorical imperative, as its very aim of universalisability, naturally leads to absolutes. It can very well be correct about the nature of morality as a form of duty, his methodology towards it is inherently flawed.

2. The second formulation and rights

Kant's second formulation of the categorical imperative holds a great attractiveness as it provides a foundation to many modern conceptions of respect and equality, values which underpin an ethical society. Yet at the same time there are a number of issues with it. The categorical imperative maxim is to treat people as ends. They generally rest on the fact that Kant didn't think they are, but rather for the 'humanity' or 'rationality' behind them.

What is the issue with this? Well for one, it removes moral rights from any being that does not have a specific idea of rationality. Therefore, under the second formulation, one's behaviour towards animals can be viewed as immoral, which at first glance seems an unintuitive conclusion. While it might be true that humans might have more rights, violence or over-exploitation of animals is seen as laudable. It can be seen to indicate within our intuitive understanding of morality, rationality is not the only thing that has moral value.

In reply Kant argues that while directly one's behaviour towards animals cannot be morally bad, for our actions may influence the way we treat humans, which is. Nevertheless, while Kant's view of animals could be seen as antiquated, one can extend the second formulation towards those who are mentally ill, very young or are in comas. If rationality is the basis of moral worth, then it opens up the possibility of widespread abuse against anyone who is not rational. One reply is that it is the potential for rationality that should be measured and not the current state. Those temporarily incapacitated can be recognised as ends, but others argue a simpler measure of a person's capacity for rationality is not the only thing which is inherently morally valuable.

Is There Justification for Treating Human Beings as a Mere Means to an End?

This question is possibly the most difficult one facing the second formulation. Kant distinguishes between treating human beings as a 'mere means' and as a 'mere means' to an end. In the *Summa* he notes in the example of paying a taxi driver for his service, versus violently forcing him to do so. The former respects the taxi driver's autonomy, desires and interests, while the latter since it treats them as a tool or an object. Such a distinction is arguably useful as it allows Kant to distinguish between normal exchanges of services and those interactions which are immoral and exploitative, but allows him to develop a stronger moral argument as to how we should treat each other with respect and dignity in real world scenarios, and not just abstractly.

However, despite at first glance the second formulation of the categorical imperative as an agreeable principle, there are hypothetical instances, often given by proponents of utilitarianism, where a greater moral good would seem to be served by treating humans in ways Kant would consider as a mere means. For example, if faced with the choice to allow the death of one person that would kill thousands, there is a strong moral case that preserving that much larger number of people as a mere means.

Discussion Point 19

At what point does treating a person as a mere means turn into a mere means? For example, in an economically developed country where many services are based on exploitative contracts, is it acceptable to treat people as ends?

While this is a difficult question, it is worth considering when Kant's theory of ends entails treating people with respect and dignity. The problem in presenting no context or practical applicability to moral theory is that it is often seen as unrealistic.

While such a case is extreme, it illuminates an issue with practical morality in that it is difficult to make comparable moral judgements. If it is a case between choosing to save the lives of one person or nothing and both people die such an outcome is measurably worse, but the absolute moral value of the choice is not clear.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



generated by the categorical imperative present unwieldy and difficult to resolve easily explained by allowing the consequences of our actions to at least partially determine

3. Can Kant's ethics capture agent-relative aspects of morality?

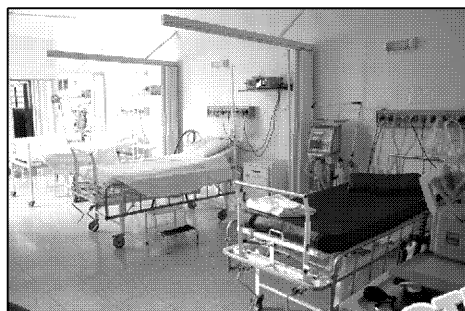
Kant states near the beginning of the extract:

Practical good, however, is that which determines the will by means of representational subjective causes, but objectively, i.e., from ground which is valid for every rational being.

Throughout his development of his moral theory, morality is tied strongly to duty and is knowable by reason alone. For many critics, this also has the effect of devaluing what it seem largely would be the personal.

This is illustrated by the philosopher Michael Stocker, who puts forward the example of a hospital out of duty rather than friendship. While this may fit the Kantian view of morality, it lacks moral value in that it ignores the relative value that exists between friends as individuals who should be respected. Within the *Groundwork* however, Kant argues that what is moral

... is distinguished from the agreeable, as that which has influence on the will on grounds of merely subjective causes.



Naturally every person in the world does not have one person's friend in hospital, but does have one person's friend in hospital only under this category of agreeability?

Looking towards Nagel, a modern deontologist, he offers a possible solution. He argues that in fact other than for the agent-relative reasons we perform actions, we can also appeal to universalised rules that allow us to act. For example, one could argue 'One ought to

'friendships' could be a component of a moral law similar to other agent-relative principles such as 'Parents ought to care for their children'. If one expands Kant's theories to include these aspects of morality, arguably these criticisms are diffused.

Yet for some critics there is still an element of duty that fails to capture how we live our lives. The duty 'One ought to cultivate and improve friendships', even as an imperfect duty, arguably still makes the idea of friendship into an obligation and not necessarily as something good in itself. One can imagine a situation of a friend being hurt from another telling them they are only visiting them in hospital so they can fulfil their duty of cultivating friendships. Whether or not there is something alien about duty depends at least partially on how much general laws can encompass the personal aspects of the morality within friendships and relationships.

Discussion

Is friendship simply based on a mutual benefit or does it require some extra moral understanding to be effective in ethics?

4. Is Kant justified in developing ethics from reason alone?

Within the last three criticisms there has been a prevalent issue in that Kant's conclusions from his a priori categorical imperative seems to create a number of counter-intuitive results that do not match what we normally consider to be morally good or worthwhile. It is possible to argue that Kant is simply mistaken sometimes in mixing up what we find agreeable with what is moral. It is equally possible that reason alone isn't enough to develop a moral system that people can reliably follow and learn from.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



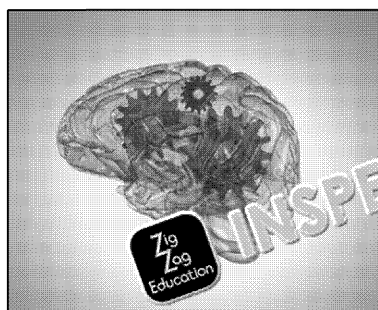


Key Idea

The lack of ability for Kant's categorical imperative to provide moral guidance for many philosophers. While his ideas of duty and obligation may be able to determine what these are in practice, there is little point in normative ethics if it is contended therefore morality has to be linked to how humans work in the world. As the mathematics may be useful as an applicable construct, it does not provide a guide to action by itself. Critics argue that the categorical imperative occupies a

Schopenhauer for example argues that Kant's morality from reason has no practical application. Kant nevertheless introduced the idea of duty, which is not tied to experience and is a concept that can be applied to all human beings. But to this one can ask: what incentive to act in accordance with moral law? Simply because it can be identified as a duty? Schopenhauer thus accuses Kant of lifting morality from a theological framework, that back traditional morality in this vein of thought. He notes particularly that for Kant, duty is to be linked to rewards or punishments. An 'ought' if motivational, has to be motivated by a desire. If Kant links duty in this way to a reward or punishment, his categorical imperative is undermined. Schopenhauer therefore effectively argues that Kant's ethics has no real bearing on human motivations.

Nietzsche can be seen to argue similarly but drawing a more extreme conclusion, that the moral law is an unsubstantiated metaphysical claim about human nature that one has to accept



force or relevance within people's lives. Nietzsche perceives as the assumptions behind Kant's morality that duty is the basis of morality and moral intuition can create a universal set of objective laws. Furthermore, identifying oneself as an end and viewing others as a means is unwarranted; rather it is possible to respect one's own duty and respecting others'. This is accompanied by his explanation of the origins of morality, and he perceives that the seemingly present in modern day humanity are based on personal desires and motivations.

If such a theory is true, then the idea of an objective, universal morality is put into question. It should be noted that Nietzsche struggles to provide an account of practical morality at all, or at least discerning agent in some way and it is possible to argue viewing human nature in any such endeavour. Similarly, noting how morality might have arisen does not necessarily mean that not also rational elements to ethics, simply that in the past they might not have been.

Yet such objections can be difficult to be rid of entirely, as separating what is rational from what is emotional is a conceptually and methodologically tricky process without making equal assumptions about what is rational in the first place. Overall many critics point out there is a failure of the categorical imperative to provide a real contextual account of morality in the first place. Critics can be linked to Kant's attempt to derive moral laws from abstract reason and conceptions of duty. For many people, descriptions of human situations are important as they form the basis for evaluation and greater still, it can be argued that a teleological end, such as human happiness or flourishing, rooted in even the most basic of human ends, Kant's ethics always ends up with a lack of practical applicability and

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Taking It Further (Extension Material)

5. Wider Issues for Religious Belief

The Enlightenment was a time of rapid change and advancement in philosophical thought. Philosophers were ground-breaking in their development of reason as its own particular source of knowledge. For many, believing in God, many theologians and religious philosophers opposed Kantian ethics.

The main issue is that under Kant's system of ethics, moral law is discoverable through reason alone, not through the grace of God. For Christians, God is traditionally seen as the legislator of all moral law. Such claims through sources such as the Ten Commandments or the Sermon on the Mount are argued to be methodologically simple tests of universalisability, are able to stand the test of time, and are not subject to the mood at the time of writing, when many thinkers were breaking away from the authority of the Church and there were visible tensions between religion and philosophy. It is important to note that any claim of humans having direct access to objective moral law, without the presence of God as a moral authority and so carries a strong implication that human moral faculties that are on a par with any divine being.

For many Christians, therefore, this cannot be the case and some theologians have argued that human beings could at once be the legislators of objective law but also also relies on an understanding of what objective morals are under a Christian theology. The commands that carry weight as instructing people towards salvation with God. For many, this tension might not exist if one accepts moral facts are no different to any other discovered through science. It is possible to determine that $2+2=4$, yet still be subject to what that means in the context of the world. One would argue though that morality is a priori in the same way God is and so cannot be subject to interpretation or determination. Whether Kantian ethics is ultimately compatible with Christianity is debatable and many theologians, in the vein of Aquinas's arguments, believe that Aquinas's moral system is a match to Kantian ethics despite Christianity itself containing a good number of absolute moral principles.

Discussion Point 21

Are there any arguments that Kant's ethics could be reconciled with Christianity? For many Christians, God is a God-given gift through which we discover what is good and right?

Discuss how laws from the categorical imperative might align with traditional Christian moral teachings.

However, it is also important to note that Kant had numerous positive arguments for the inclusion of God within a system of basic philosophical principles from which people could derive moral law. He also regarded religion in particular as important in the moral development of human beings. Religion was seen as a hindrance to a pure understanding of morality and metaphysics in the universe. It was seen as a distraction from their moral lives and provides a counterpoint to other human institutions that could be used to justify immoral actions. Therefore, there is both a lasting conception of God that can be understood within a secular framework and a position for the Church in his view of human development and growth.

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



6. Wider Issues for Ethics

Kant's ideas have had a widespread impact on ethics, such that even if many philosophical theories were replaced wholesale, they still carry a broad influence in a lot of modern ethical thought. The formulation of the categorical imperative has had a lasting impact, with many modern medical ethical theories using it as a starting point to develop applied ethics based on it. For example, Margaret Eaton uses the importance of autonomy to develop ethics around the right to engage in scientific testing on people, with the conclusion that in order for it to be sound, the patient must have full knowledge of what they are undergoing. Other people see a person as a mere means towards some other end.



Key Idea

Kant, in line with his philosophy, conceived of the categorical imperative as a hypothetical principle that treats each other as ends in themselves, not merely as means to an end. This is presented in the categorical imperative, which rational beings should follow for some philosophical starting point with the structures of an ideal society.

Beyond specific fields, there are numerous philosophers who have argued for a more distinctly Kantian view. Both Ross and Nagel were examined throughout the guide. Kant's theory is often seen as a more reliable way to give moral guidance, but although the first formulation of the categorical imperative is often used to give moral guidance, it has been adapted for use often within the philosophy of law. For example, Rawls uses a similar universalising process as a way to define an ideal society to live in.

How does Kant's theory however affect ordinary morality? This is a more difficult question to answer. Elements of Kant's theory have existed in morality before the *Groundwork of the Metaphysics of Morals*. The Golden Rule, 'do unto others as you would have them do unto you', is a universalising principle that is not dissimilar to the categorical imperative. Therefore, it is often argued that Kant's theory is present in our common sense moral intuition. Often people imagine the categorical imperative being adopted by the community or world as a whole.

Yet under Kant's ethics, it could be that we would be obliged as per our duty to distinguish what was moral from what was simply agreeable. This arguably would be a departure from ordinary morality and it is this conclusion that drives many philosophers to argue that Kant's theory does not fit in with the ordinary thought and patterns of our lives. While there may be difficulties in trying to fit in universalisation around the minute ethical dilemmas that accompany everyday life, that not everyone can easily undertake. The notion of duty implies that human beings are not at a level of obligatory perfection, but if a person's rational capacities aren't able to coordinate their actions when universalised, then arguably Kantian ethics is a structure too separate from ordinary morality. If adopted by everyone, Kant's theory would change the way we see the world morally, which is not if that could ever be a reality as he envisioned it.

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



7. Wider Issues for Perception and Experience

Kant's ethics contains a number of implicit consequences for human experience. In this section how Kant's ethical theory could shift how people view ethics on an ordinary basis, whether his project would shift human experience in a similar way. As part of his theory of transcendental idealism, Kant discusses the way humans experience the world in which a priori principles act on a subjective and contingent world. In a similar way, whether the use of reason purely to derive moral law would impact the way that things are around them.

As noted throughout this guide, Kant distinguishes between moral duty and mere inclination. He argues that human experience is filtered through how we interpret what we ought to do. His theory means that we are analysing the world and our actions through these duties, derived from reason.

Stocker criticises Kantian ethics for seemingly presenting the idea that one should act out of duty rather than friendship, and there arguably is the implication in Kant's ethics that the dimensions of one's own experience to guide one's actions through duty.

Naturally Kant would say that not all of life has to always be guided by duty, distinguishing between perfect and imperfect duties as an example of this, but at the very least, our existence as social beings, on a basic level, a large proportion of our actions have some moral significance attached to them. For example, would I insult my friends out of duty, or because I do not want to hurt their feelings? What can somehow be captured by reason and duty determines to what extent Kantian ethics can be applied to moral experience. It could even be that despite moral intuition pointing towards certain important values, it is the duty behind these values that ultimately contains ethical significance.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED





Form and Justify an Argument

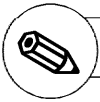
Throughout this section both Kant's original arguments for the categorical imperative have been analysed and it is now up to you to decide whether you believe either side to be particularly convincing. Consider the following and then particular consider:

- Is Kant's reasoning towards the categorical imperative valid? Are there any arguments that could reasonably be contested?
- Can an accurate distinction be made between imperfect and perfect duties?
- Does the case of the trolley-inquiring murderer demonstrate the lack of prescriptiveness of the categorical imperative can give?
- Is it possible for the categorical imperative to generate immoral maxims?
- Why might the permissibility of trivial maxims undermine the authority of the categorical imperative?
- Does a graded hierarchy of moral laws answer Kant's critics? Could this be demanded by the categorical imperative?
- Does the rational nature of all beings justify treating them as ends?
- Does Kant fail to give a convincing account of agent-relative morality? Can we develop more modern deontological ethics?
- Is it ever right to treat a human being as a mere means to an end?
- Is the categorical imperative simply a rational tool unable to capture the complexity of ordinary moral situations?
- Is Kant's ethics irreconcilable with traditional Christian theology and moral teaching?

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**





Activity

Activity 1

Below is a table summarising Kant's arguments within the *Groundwork for the Metaphysics of Morals*. Using the left-hand column and using your own interpretation of the anthology, the extracts, fill in the blank sections of the table.

Groundwork for the Metaphysics of Morals – Immanuel Kant	
Kant argues:	Argument
Reason is the only way we discover what is moral.	
Duty forms the basis of morality, and can be formulated as what one 'ought' to do.	
Oughts can be distinguished between the hypothetical, and the categorical, which apply universally.	
The categorical imperative, in having universality as its defining property, can be reduced to one command: <i>Act only in accordance with that maxim which you can at the same time will that it become a universal law.</i>	
This categorical imperative can be used, by analysing any moral statement for contradictions in rationality, to derive the moral laws that apply universally to all human beings.	
By noting the rational nature that allows us to determine the use of objects, we can identify rationality or personhood as an end in itself.	
Since every person views their rationality this way, rational nature objectively exists as an end in itself.	
It is possible to therefore make a second formulation of the categorical imperative: <i>Act so that you use humanity, as much in your own person as in the person of every other, always at the same time as end and never merely as means.</i>	
Conclusion: The categorical imperative, as derived from reason, is the way to determine universal moral laws.	

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Activity 2

Working in pairs, picture yourself in the House of Commons preparing to write key legislation. It has been agreed it will be based on a Christian ethic and so a number of the Ten Commandments have been agreed. However doubts have arisen as to the reasonability of these ethics and Kant has been asked to advise. He should give his reasons for supporting the moral law, while the legislator should aim to create laws that are not certain laws should be created.

One of you assume the role of Kant and the other the legislator and work through the list of commandments, examining whether each of them work when universalised under the categorical imperative. The legislator should give his reasons for supporting the moral law, while the legislator should aim to create laws that are not certain laws should be created.



- Thou shall not steal*
2. *Thou shall not commit murder*
 3. *Thou shall not commit adultery*
 4. *Thou shall not lie*
 5. *Thou shall respect thy father and mother.*
 6. *Thou shall not litter*
 7. *Thou shall pay thy taxes*

At the end, decide whether each of these is universalisable and come to a conclusion as to whether it should be made into a law.

After you've finished, note any interesting conclusions you were forced to draw and you might have been forced to either legalise or not legalise a commandment contrary to Kant's moral law.

N.B. Remember Kant distinguishes between perfect and imperfect duties. It might be that some duties always have to be constantly followed.



**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**





Practice Exam Questions

Answer the following questions giving reference to the passage below:

If, then, there is supposed to be a supreme practical principle, and in regard to the imperative, then it must be such from the representation of that which, being necessary because it is an end in itself, constitutes an objective principle of the will, hence practical law. The ground of this principle is: Rational nature exists as end in itself necessarily represents its own existence in this way; thus to that extent it is a law for all actions. Every other rational being also represents his existence in this way as a rational ground as is valid for me; thus it is at the same time an objective principle of practical ground, all laws of the will must be able to be derived.

The practical imperative will thus be the following: Act so that you use humanity always in the person of every other, always at the same time as end and never merely as a means; this can be accomplished.

- Outline and clarify the different ideas presented in this passage about the practical imperative.
- Analyse the different implications for ethics in treating all human beings as ends in themselves.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED





Mark Scheme

Level	Descriptor
Level 1	There is limited knowledge, terminology and technical language, often inappropriately. Only a surface level knowledge of important religious ideas and beliefs is displayed and religious ideas and beliefs addressed are of a limited variety, but generally correct and sufficiently connected to the extract.
Level 2	There is a moderate amount of knowledge, terminology and technical language presented, although with a few mistakes. A thorough knowledge and understanding of religious beliefs is displayed but with room for further development. Religious ideas and beliefs addressed are of a limited variety, but generally correct and connected to the extract.
Level 3	There is a broad amount of knowledge, terminology and technical language rigorously presented throughout an appropriate and justified response. Thorough and fully developed knowledge and comprehension of important religious ideas and concepts is displayed. Religious ideas and beliefs addressed are correct and pertinently connected to the extract.

Question No.	Indicative Content (10 marks AO1)
a)	<p>AO1 will be used by candidates to demonstrate knowledge and understanding of religious language and terminology, when responding to the question.</p> <p>Candidates may refer to the following:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Kant's project to decipher morality through reason and the identification of moral principles taking the form of duty or categorical statements.• How the practical imperative emerges as the second form of the categorical imperative, how it should be interpreted in ordinary human moral actions.• The importance of rational natures, and how Kant establishes how this means recognising others with rational natures as ends.• The differences between treating someone as a means to an end, and as an end in themselves.• How the practical imperative establishes moral conduct and law, the categorical imperative, and how all 'laws of the will' in Kant's eyes are derived from the categorical imperative.• Kant's vision of the Kingdom of Ends, and how this relates to the practical imperative.• How the practical imperative establishes certain rights of the individual, and how these rights are connected to one's persistent rationality or rational nature.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



INSPECTION COPY



Level	Descriptor
Level 1	There is a very limited knowledge, terminology and technical language, often used inaccurately or inappropriately. Some topics and details are chosen with rudimentary links made between a small variety of aspects of the question. Any criticisms or judgements are only substantiated by general or non-specific evidence.
Level 2	There is a limited amount of knowledge, terminology and technical language, which is well presented, although with some mistakes. Relevant topics and details are chosen and links are made between a small variety of aspects of the question. Criticisms and judgements of a few aspects are made but with little substantiation by a reasoned evaluation of supporting evidence.
Level 3	There is a moderate amount of knowledge, terminology and technical language which is well presented, although with some mistakes. Relevant topics and details are chosen with a basic progression of reasoned arguments throughout the answer. Links are made between a lot of the aspects of the question. Criticisms and judgements of a few aspects are made with some attempt at substantiation by a reasoned evaluation of supporting evidence.
Level 4	A broad amount of knowledge, terminology and technical language is well presented with few mistakes. Relevant topics and details are deconstructed with rational and logical progressions of reasoned arguments developed throughout the answer. Links are made between a broad variety of the aspects of the question. Criticisms and judgements are made of almost all of the aspects of the question and are substantiated by a reasoned evaluation of some supporting evidence.
Level 5	A broad amount of knowledge, terminology and technical language is well presented, correctly and rigorously, throughout a justified response. Relevant topics and details are critically deconstructed with rational and logical progressions of reasoned arguments strongly developed. Criticisms, judgements and links are made of/between all aspects of the question and completely substantiated by a thorough and reasoned evaluation of supporting evidence.

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Question No.	Indicative Content (5 marks AO1, 15 marks AO2)
b)	<p>AO1 will be used by candidates to underpin their analysis and evaluation. They will be required to demonstrate knowledge and understanding using specific terminology when responding to the question, and in meeting the AO2 criteria described below.</p> <p>Candidates may refer to the following in relation to AO1.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Deontological ethics is the school of philosophical thought that puts morality as the most applicable and accurate form of ethics. This often involves 'ought' statements based off the ideas of rights and obligations. Kant believed these 'ought' statements could be derived from categorical imperative and the practical imperative. This results in the formulation: the rational nature or humanity is an end in itself. <p>Candidates may refer to the following in relation to AO2.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Discussion of the difficulties behind what is defined as a means to an end and mere means. Can question whether Kant accurately makes a distinction between ends and means and whether there are any moral dilemmas that expose the ambiguity of the categorical imperative. An analysis of whether treating humans as ends naturally excludes a means to an end, e.g. mentally ill, etc. from having rights or being given moral consideration. Can question whether rationality is the only important factor in morality. An analysis of whether the practical imperative provides real guidance in moral situations or whether it simply defines the abstract ways humans should respect each other's existence. Examination of whether it is ever right to treat someone as a mere means to a greater good. Can look at the advantages of consequentialism and ask whether it is right or wrong in completely removing moral consideration of consequences in ethical theory. Discussion about whether the practical imperative can ever capture the complexity of relative relationships, or whether it encourages human beings to analyse relationships from a purely rational perspective. Can focus on whether Kant is correct in making an intuitive jump from one's own rational nature as an end to the importance of everyone else's rational nature as an end. Can question whether categorical/practical imperative a veiled form of egoism? Do the guiding of morality from reason leave out important concepts such as emotions from moral consideration? Can discuss how Kantian ideas about human beings as ends can lead to modern applied ethics, particularly in fields such as medical or sexual ethics where people's autonomy and dignity are often valued. Can discuss whether there is a problem with motivation at the core of Kantian ethics. Simply knowing other people have rational natures motivate one to act in the same way one would treat oneself?

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Glossary



Transcendental Idealism	The term applied to Kant's epistemological project, from which his writings on morality are closely linked. It attempts to find a middle ground between rationalism and empiricism, arguing that human beings build on sense experience (phenomena) with the independent objects of our experiences (noumena) remaining beyond human perception.
Categorical Imperative	A moral duty that is universally binding across all circumstances and is not dependent upon any contingent requirements or people's desires.
Hypothetical Imperative	A moral duty that only arises or applies if one desires the consequences aimed towards.
Formula of Humanity	The second formulation of the categorical imperative, which states that human beings should be treated as ends in themselves, not merely as means to other ends.
Perfect Duties	Moral duties that a person is obliged to commit to at all times, regardless of the situation.
Imperfect Duties	Moral duties that a person is required to uphold but not in all circumstances or contexts.
Agent-Relative	Reasons for action that relate to a person's own desires, motivations, or relationships.
Agent-Neutral	Reasons for action that do not relate to a person's own desires or relationships and apply to all human beings equally.
Kingdom of Ends	Kant's hypothetical utopia, where each person treats everyone else as an end in themselves.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Answers to Discussion Points

13. **Ought Statements** – Students might examine a wide variety of ethical statements. A come from when a moral is contextualised or part of a particular culture, but it is imp arguably arise out of the statement not being formulated correctly.
14. **Laws of Nature** – For Kant laws of nature are universal, stating the categorical imp that moral laws are universal in the same way that any other natural law might be, ty metaphysical philosophy.
15. **Rationality and Ends** – Students might note Nietzsche, who argues against the jump principle' Others might quote MacIntyre who argues 'Everyone but myself can be tre thing to the end' The question is whether each person recognising themselves as an end necessi an end itself, or whether the end of Kant's "end" is just the amalgamation of each pe a rational being
16. **Contradictions** – Possible to argue that conceivability is too vague. Students might p and practical contradictions as has often been traditionally thought. Others might p contradiction in willing – even if conceivable they would not will the said law to be ur point towards later in the guide where Kant's ideas of perfect and imperfect duties a
17. **Examples of Duties** – Students should attempt to come up with their own, noting at problems with conceivability, or whether something should be classed as an imperfe
18. **Inquiring Murderer** – It is possible to specify laws further, for example 'One should li an innocent person', and yet even such a formulation can present difficult circumstan the existence of evil things so as not to cause distress? Others might state 'One shou people' but this in turn might fall under Kant's imperfect duties and so not be a conti
19. **Mere Means/Ends** – Many equivocate the second formulation with that of respect fo arguably even this definition doesn't precisely define what are the obligations of p towards others. In the case of the exploited worker, it is difficult to know how mean lens of contracts and laws of coercion by poverty count as exploitation or part of might argue that the definition was produced on ideals of humanity as ends, these pro might argue that the humanity formula only contains limited practical moral guidance moral dilemmas.
20. **Friendship** – Students should look at deontology surrounding agent-relative reasons, basic duty to care towards friends, attaching further responsibilities when needed. F their friends concerns'. Others might argue such definitions ignore the basis of frien between different forms of friendship and their accompanying responsibilities.
21. **Kant, Reason and Divine Command Theory** – One possible answer is that if reason is which God has allowed human beings to discover moral law, then laws derived from possibly be aligned with the divine commands present in the Bible. Certainly this fits Commandments or the Golden Rule in the Gospels, however equally, Christian conce corruption of man, place a much higher value on revelation rather than reason, perh Kant's ethical theory can apply within traditional Christian morality and epistemology

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Nicomachean Ethics Book II – Aristotle

What you need to know before starting...

1. The core ideas behind Aristotelian ethics and how virtues and vices relate to them.
2. The different ways one might arrive at a concept of virtue and how different virtues provide guidance in an ethical dilemma.
3. Some of the weaknesses behind Aristotle's ethics, in particular whether virtues are enough to be the basis for a fully virtuous morality.
4. The ways in which Aristotle's ethics has influenced both Christian ethics as well as modern theory, and what parts of Aristotle's thought have survived to the present.

1. Introduction

This extract draws on Section 5.1: Virtue Ethics on the syllabus and you are advised to read the anthology alongside this topic. Additionally for owners of the ZigZag Course C Ethics Year 2, the section on Virtue Ethics can be found on pp. 28–34.

The passages are taken from Book II of the *Nicomachean Ethics* and detail Aristotle's views on defining virtue and explaining how someone becomes a virtuous person. This guide covers each section of Book II, drawing out some of the nuances in Aristotle's thoughts and analysing them in light of modern virtue ethics and noting his philosophy's consequences for ethics and everyday experience.

2. Summary of Ideas

The *Nicomachean Ethics* is one of the first and most important ethical texts in the West, outlining the importance of virtue within morality. Throughout its ten books, Aristotle develops not only examples of virtues but also how a person can cultivate them and how they relate to the good life.

The basis of Aristotle's ethics lies in a teleological understanding of human life. For Aristotle, the goal and human purpose is no different. All of our activities aim at some good and the highest good in practical thinking is that of **Eudaimonia**. This can be loosely translated as 'happiness' or 'well-being'. For Aristotle it encompasses a much wider set of concepts. Rather than being fleeting or momentary, it is a dynamic, specifically linked to the human soul and its excellence.

Book I, preceding the passages from this extract, is largely concerned with defining the total aim of Aristotle's ethics. One important thing to note is that unlike other forms of ethics for Aristotle is an imprecise endeavour; all one can do is look towards those people who are virtuous, from a positive upbringing or set of experiences, and move from those observations to develop a theory of ethics as a whole. To develop a theory that allows humans to grow more effectively towards Eudaimonia, one needs to develop a theory about what makes a virtuous person, and so happiness, the road to Eudaimonia, and is worked through by *phronesis* (practical wisdom).

Human Beings and Function

What makes Aristotle able to make the claim that ethics is imprecise? It is important to note that ethics is not an exact science for Aristotle is simply aiming to begin his ethical project by stating some assumptions about what people all consider morality to be and the reasons why we value it. We presuppose that we have some experience of virtuous actions and their value, especially in relation to a happy life. For example, he divides between lives led of honour, contemplation and pleasure, three conceptions of a fulfilling life, but beyond these ideals he seeks to find the 'function' of the human good comes from performing well. Everything has a function or activity, from the function of a knife to the function of a human. For humans he identifies the function specifically as 'reason', for it is the thing that sets us apart from other forms of life and enables us to lead our lives the way we do.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Virtues from this understanding, are the ways that allow us to live in accordance with Eudaimonia. There are many people who carve out lives of excess but in doing so lack reason and never reach true happiness or flourishing.

A basic understanding of how Aristotle perceives the function and telos of human beings is why he develops his idea of virtue as he does. It is very possible (and easy) to see some of the idea of human beings having a purpose at all and is certainly a contentious part of his ethics. His ethics is based in essence off an agreement about certain sense elements of morality. It is important to note that disagreements about certain elements of *Nicomachean Ethics* and virtue and morality, do not necessarily affect the entirety of its arguments.

Discussion Point 22

Is it possible for Aristotle to observe ordinary aspects of morality and derive conclusions from the whole? Research moral epistemology and discuss some of the ways philosophers might achieve moral knowledge.

Book II and Virtue

After defining Eudaimonia, human function and the aim of his ethics, Aristotle moves to the structure and definition of virtue in Book II. This part of the section will go through and develop some of the key ideas within.

Chapter 1

This chapter is primarily concerned with how virtue is developed and the form it takes. Aristotle first identifies two kinds of virtue:

- **Intellectual Virtue** – formed through teaching and experience
- **Moral Virtue** – formed through habit

Specifically, it is moral virtue that Aristotle focuses on here, and he makes a couple of important points. The first is that moral virtues do not come from our nature. If they are formed through habit they cannot have been an essential part of our being previously. Aristotle notes:

Neither by nature, then, nor contrary to nature do the virtues arise in us; rather we are adapted by nature to receive them, and are made perfect by habit.



Key Idea

The distinction between intellectual and moral virtue becomes clear. Intellectual virtues are knowledge about the world, while moral virtues are important habits that shape our character.

Therefore, virtues are developed through practice. A person could know of every virtue but none if they did not apply them to their life. For example, a judge could know exactly what is just in a given situation in a court, but fail to be just unless he was committed to giving justice. Aristotle gives a number of examples:

... by doing the acts that we do in our transactions with one another men we become just; by doing the acts that we do in the presence of danger, and being habituated to feel fear or confidence, we become brave and cowardly.

Possessing virtue is a dynamic and dependent on one's interactions with the world. Education and training is vital. He notes at the end that forming a habit is essential. A young person raised wrongly will inevitably develop an un-virtuous character with wrong actions and practices.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Chapter 2

The main point Aristotle seeks to make in this chapter is that virtues as part of their nature are destroyed by excess or defect. For example, courage can be lost by losing all fear and behaving recklessly or by becoming fearful of everything and never standing up when necessary. Virtues are preserved by finding the mean, or point between the excess and deficiency of the virtue itself.

Whether this is a principle that can be applied to all virtues however is a matter of course. For example, honesty as a possible virtue be destroyed by someone being too honest?

Chapter 3

This chapter is based around a discussion of pleasures and pains. Simply put, Aristotle argues that such a natural part of why some people become good and others bad, pursuit and avoidance of pleasures and pains in our activities growing up and they often provide a basis for how we measure our progress. Aristotle's view of the good life, based around the human life fully, has to be concerned with pleasures and pains. Aristotle puts:

... virtue, then, is concerned with pleasures and pains, and that by the acts from which pleasures and pains are increased and, if they are done differently, destroyed.

An important detail to note is that Aristotle is not arguing, similar to utilitarianism, that the greatest good for the greatest number is the virtuous action. Some pleasures may come from virtuous activities, but they may also produce an excess or deficiency of a particular trait. For example, one might take pleasure in eating, but such an act would not be virtuous as normally understood. When developing the right attitude towards pleasure and pain such that it supports virtue.

Discussion Point 23

Is the person who is born with the capacity for receiving the correct amount of pleasure from the world as morally good as a person who becomes virtuous through perseverance? Respond to this question and discuss the role of virtue ethics in addressing such issues of moral luck?

Chapter 4

One very important point of Aristotle's thought is noted here:

... it is not the man who does these that is just and temperate, but the man who does them. For the temperate men do them.

This point at first seems strange, but what he seeks to show is that a virtuous action is only a virtuous action if it is done by a virtuous person. Someone might restrain themselves from gorging on food and drink, but this does not mean they have practised temperance. A virtuous action has to be done with the right attitude that a virtuous person would do, otherwise there is no possibility of moral growth.

Chapter 5

This chapter concerns itself with an investigation into what virtue is exactly. Aristotle argues that there are three different kinds of things – capacities, states of character. Virtues are not morally judged according to how we feel. A person might get sad watching the news, but this does not mean they are not really praising the good people for doing so. Virtue on the other hand is composed of states of character, not feelings. When enacted, it is a state of character.

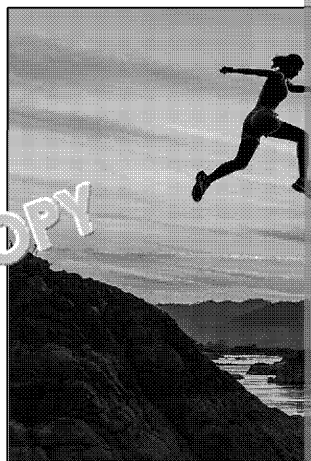
Similarly, for Aristotle virtues cannot be capacities, for people are equally not praised for feeling things, therefore virtues have to be states of character.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Chapter 6

Aristotle builds upon the last chapter here, defining further what sort of state of character virtue is. In short, it is that which brings about the excellence of something and makes all acts by that thing excellent. Courage as a virtue, therefore, is the state that both makes a man courageous and causes his actions to be courageous. A person without this state of character would equally both not be courageous and not produce courageous acts.



But Aristotle further argues, arguing that this state of character is based around choice, and lies in a mean between two vices, one of excess and one of deficiency. Virtue is therefore what is intermediate between these two extremes: the mean between recklessness and cowardice. In short, he defines a virtue as:

... a mean, with regard to what is best and right an extreme.

However, there are also many actions that do not possess a mean where virtue lies; they are already bad. If we took cowardice as an example, it would be counter-intuitive then it could be possible to have in Aristotle's eyes a deficiency of what is already bad: some actions or passions that are always wrong.

Chapter 8

The main point Aristotle develops here is that the mean where a virtue lies is not evenly between its excess and defectiveness. There is often one of these extremes contrary to the virtue from being furthest away from its true conceptual meaning: more fitting to argue that cowardice is more contrary to it rather than recklessness. Conceptually different. In the case of saving a child from a well, both recklessness and saving the child, even if performed for exactly the same motives, while cowardice is jumping in. It is not just because virtue is a mean, doesn't necessarily mean that as having opposite passions or passions directly opposed to them.

Chapter 9

Aristotle ties together his development of thought here. Starting with the idea of reiterates his conclusion that moral virtue is a mean between two vices and by its intermediate point between the two.

Notably, he also makes the point that cultivating this mean is a difficult task and to achieve it. While this may seem relatively trivial, since Aristotle's ethics is based on understanding, our acknowledgement of whether true virtue is something that is cannot simply be refuted by looking at immoral acts, especially when the context is naturally spurred on towards vice.

For example, if I looked at a war-torn country and argued that virtue is not common because of regular violence and conflict, it could equally be replied that this is simply an indication linked to external factors and a person's upbringing and surroundings are vital to a human being.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



What are the Virtues Aristotle Identifies?

While the full range of virtues are not listed in the extract, it is useful to note exactly what is identified as important. From this one can see what Aristotle exactly regards as a virtue and how it fits in with their respective vices.

Vice of Excess	Mean	
Rashness	Courage	
Boastfulness	Truthfulness	
Obsequiousness	Friendliness	
Indulgence	Temperance	
Reckless Spending	Generosity	
Shyness	Modesty	
Arrogance	Pride	
Irascibility	Patience	
Vanity	Greatness of Soul	
Buffoonery	Wittiness	

It is interesting to note a few things before moving on to the next section. The first is that the virtues are not necessarily correlated with how one might directly interpret the term. For example, 'greatness of soul' has more to do with the self and knowing the abilities or powers one possesses. In the case of being aware of this knowledge whereas bashfulness could be a deficiency and worth. The second is that there are certain virtues Aristotle identifies which elude language. For example, 'greatness of soul' is closest to magnanimity in English which is *megalopsuchia* but this translation also possibly has connotations not contained in the original. Magnanimity conjures up images of traditional nobility, but Aristotle identifies 'greatness of soul' as referring to the ability to accurately claim the honours they deserve.

It is useful to note these nuances when criticising Aristotle. There have been numerous interpretations of the *Nicomachean Ethics* throughout history and not all of them agree, but in particular, Aristotle's ethics purely on the virtues he identifies. As will be explored in the next section, virtues do not necessarily have to be universal or objective for virtue ethics to be relevant or important in the study of morality.

3. Philosophical Context

The *Nicomachean Ethics* is one of the most important philosophical works to survive. It has had a widespread influence through medieval theology to modern ethics. It is composed of ten books and is often presumed to refer either to Aristotle's own work or to a work of the same name. Some scholars maintain that it is possible that his son edited it, which would explain various textual discrepancies.

The book as a whole is dedicated to answering the question, posed by Socrates in the *Republic*, of what one should live, and Aristotle's answer is that this is not a theoretical question in itself but a practical one in contrast to the theoretical Socratic Philosophy.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Aristotle (384–322 BCE)

Aristotle was born in 384 BCE and spent many years studying in Plato's academy until Plato's death in 347 BCE. While the latter's influence can be seen in many of Aristotle's works, much of the *Nicomachean Ethics* is a departure from Plato's ideas of virtue which are strongly linked to knowledge and wisdom. On the other hand, Aristotle stresses the importance of habit within morality, arguing that anyone who does not practice virtue cannot possess it simply through knowledge.

The influence of the *Nicomachean Ethics* and Aristotle's ideas as a whole was perhaps greatest in the medieval era, when much of his work became synthesised with Christian theology, most notably in the writings of Thomas Aquinas. However, at the dawn of the modern era and with the rise in Enlightenment philosophy, his theories were increasingly seen as an affront to progress, with the idea that reason can determine moral law becoming more widespread.

Nevertheless, many modern philosophers have taken inspiration from Aristotle and again a renaissance of virtue ethics has sprung up.

Philippa Foot (1920–2010)

Foot was one of the main philosophers to bring virtue ethics back into philosophical time when among many of her colleagues, non-cognitivism was popular partially due to the Second World War. Central to these debates was the idea of 'thick' concepts, and 'thin' concepts such as good and bad. Non-cognitivists argue that all moral statements are evaluative, but difficulties occur when thick concepts are considered for they seem to have an evaluative element. Foot posits in particular that these terms have a significance from a simple description. For example, if one saw their friend insulting someone, a person would evaluate that situation and say that the friend is rude.

This is important for virtue ethics as thick concepts express a connection between concepts of the world, therefore, while virtue is a firm moral feature of the world we live in. In particular, Foot highlights the importance of phronesis (practical wisdom) in human goodness; virtues can only be good as such when they are employed towards good ends. This is an important point in the next section.

Alasdair MacIntyre (1929–present)

Aristotle argued that man is at heart a political animal, and as such politics should be the central concern of society where people can be free but also where they can and should aim to live well. MacIntyre builds upon this idea, arguing that within modern society, when people talk about what is good, they use a language that has lost its original meaning and context. Moreover when people in an argument they do so erroneously, for there is little-to-no shared or agreed upon assumptions. Therefore, where these terms have lost their original meaning (from which they carry little-to-no force). Anyone can call anything good or bad without the possibility of a common good being reached.

What does this mean? Effectively within modern society, politicians can exploit the public's interest using moral concepts, and people can be fundamentally alienated from what is good in a democracy. MacIntyre would advocate for a return to participatory democracy where values or the collective good are central. These ideas will prove important when the application of virtue ethics to human action is examined.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



4. Detailed Analysis

Analysis of Aristotle inevitably has to accommodate the stretch of philosophy that preceded the publication of *Nicomachean Ethics*. Naturally some parts of his thought can seem rooted in a more limited understanding of nature and science. For example, it was Aristotle who argued that human beings are geared towards some purpose, just like even plants and animals, which happens to be reason by virtue of only humans possessing it. Such an argument is philosophically not withstanding criticisms from scientific advancement, evolution or the identifying of animal intelligence and rationality. Robert Nozick and others have argued that if man turned out to be a monkey in having a sense of humor, would it follow that his energies could be better spent in telling jokes?

Nevertheless, although Aristotle's argument may be flawed, it does not mean his philosophy is invalid. Within religion, morality may have the purpose of following God's Word and there is no doubt that with him, other secular critics may argue that if general happiness and wellbeing are the purpose of morality, is it? While some posit that morality is an illusion and nothing more than the expression of human desire, it does not necessarily mean morality is devoid of use within a society. Human flourishing is a goal that many of people can agree on even though it may in certain instances stand in opposition to utilitarian or deontological ethics in interpreting ethical dilemmas. What is important to note is that virtue ethics can possibly still be held as important, regardless of the meta-ethics one chooses. Aristotle believes that moral statements are facts or not.

Why Virtue Ethics?

For a long while in modern philosophy, the main branches of ethical thought revolved around utilitarianism and deontology. Yet over time obvious flaws emerged in both, such that despite their initial popularity, they became important in a secondary way as reinforcing moral law and regulations, virtue ethics emerged as a way of answering some of the criticisms levelled against the other two.

One simple distinction (that some agree or don't agree with) is that virtue ethics is character-centred. A continuous tension between deontological and consequentialist theories of ethics seems to decontextualize and dehumanize morality until humans become little more than robots following a set of prescribed rules. Virtue ethics, on the other hand, gives humans the capacity for rationality and evaluative skills to morally judge situations, with experience feeding into this process. People are not simply machines that have made the correct moral choice in a situation. Stocker notes this in particular, giving the example of a person going to see their friend rather than friendship as a counter-intuitive implication of deontological ethics. Stocker argues that friendship should be able to encompass friendship as a personal and particular moral value.

Friendliness is one of the virtues Aristotle identified, so in Stocker's example, a moral action is granted as moral.

Beyond reinforcing the ideas of moral growth and autonomy, however, virtue ethics offers a degree of flexibility within moral choices. Whereas consequentialist and deontological theories prescribe a course of action, there may well be multiple courses of virtuous action in any given situation. Virtue ethics removes the strict moral requirements to always be calculating and obedient, allowing a person's life and situation to influence their moral decisions. However, some of the criticisms of virtue ethics can conversely be perceived as failings of virtue ethics and many philosophers have created hybrid theories to effectively guide people's lives.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Discussion Point 24

Before reading ahead, research and analyse some of the flaws within pure deontological ethics that virtue ethics could provide a solution to.

Can Virtue Ethics Provide Effective Moral Guidance?

One aspect that was noted about virtue ethics was its emphasis on agent-centred morality. While this may have some advantages in avoiding the charge of depersonalisation, philosophers have equally said that the existence of rules is a strength of consequentialism. Rather than it being a limitation, the possibility of there being a morality that can guide us in practical situations is a blessing. For example J L Mackie writes:

... though Aristotle's account is filled out with detailed descriptions of many of the virtues, the air of indeterminacy pervades it. We learn the names of the pairs of virtues, but very little about where or how to draw the dividing lines.

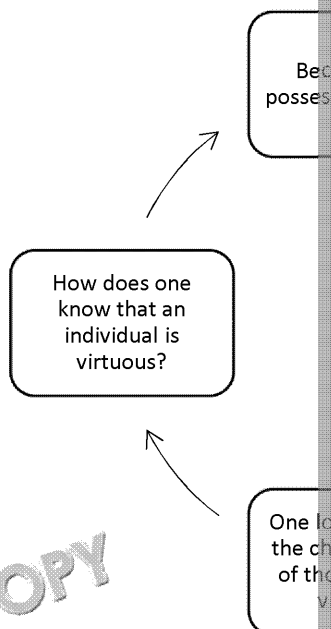
Certainly this is a problem identified in much of Aristotle's thought. For example, if I am looking out onto a person drowning in stormy weather, is jumping in an act of courageousness or recklessness? Even when people die in such situations, we are reluctant to say they acted morally badly or uncourageously, yet at the same time it's difficult to know at what point courage becomes a form of recklessness. The idea of there being a mean in between two forms of vice is an attractive one, but it doesn't necessarily allow us to form effective moral practice throughout our lives, especially if the boundaries are ill-defined. Arguably Aristotle doesn't provide great indications of the methodology of determining virtue from vice; at a push some might even say his philosophy is circular. One could even boil it down to his own statement here:

Thus, in one word, strikingly good character arise out of like activities.

If we take this to mean that we learn virtues from our experience of virtuous people, how do we know what virtues are? The basic reply Aristotle seems to suggest is that they are the virtues of virtuous, flourishing people; but if we ask how we can determine whether they are virtuous, the answer resolves down to pointing out the virtues they have. While it was noted before that this is based on a common-sense understanding of morality, if it could be shown that there is no such understanding, it could be argued he is making a circular argument, or at least one that is very close to it. Robert Louden argues a similar point:

... we do not seem to be able to know with any degree of certainty who really is virtuous. This means that moral scepticism is a serious problem for a virtue-based ethical system.

Yet a similar thing can be said of other ethical theories. The question of whether happiness is what is good and what is bad is arguably partially answered by the history of ethics. Consequentialism constantly faces the issue of how to quantify and measure happiness or pleasure, with many dilemmas over how to interpret moral values. It is equally possible to make the mistake of identifying basic virtue as that we can see in the basic forms of good or bad. To disparage the meaning of a large number of evaluative moral concepts in our language.



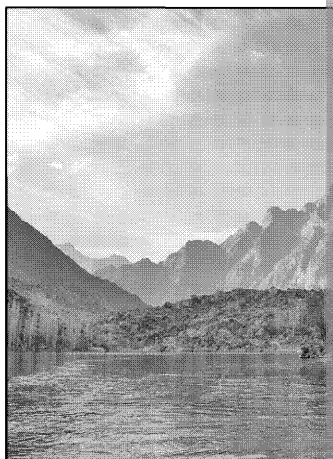
**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



MacIntyre and Tradition

One suggestion to partially resolve this comes from Alasdair MacIntyre, who argues that good or bad coming from a vacuum and applying universally to everybody, moral traditions and values of a community that has grown and developed over time. What is it with the understanding of its goals or aims and it is not an abstract exercise in logic of facts. However, this doesn't rule out morality involving rationality or real evaluation. It is universalisable in a way that direct prescriptive commands can be made for all people. There can be some direct moral rule for everyone as a guiding idea in the first place. The purpose of morality in 'knowing how' to live is rooted in the history of how it arises.

How does this apply? What if I grew up in a community where there were regular stories of how a code of morality arose as to how to deal with drowning people, I can correctly measure the courageousness of my actions against this history. Whereas if I lived in the desert, only visiting the sea once, on seeing a person drown I would have no historical or communal reference for my virtuous actions. In that situation, it is possible I may even look towards people within the seaside community for moral guidance.



This is a simple example, but one which illustrates the contextual grounding of virtue. Without this background, it is arguably more difficult to point out the flaw in virtue ethics of no clear guidance. What operates and points towards moral action is rooted in more than simple laws or commands. At the beginning of Book II, where Aristotle notes:

Again, of all the things that come to us in nature we first acquire the potentiality for virtue.

By this, we are moral beings. Morality is a process of growth within a certain context. In a society guided by laws, people still require knowledge of what is good and how to apply them.

Discussion Point 25

Is it necessary to provide an account for the origin of virtue? Research different theories and discuss whether virtue could be seen as a simple extension of our understanding of what is good. It is rooted in tradition as MacIntyre suggests.

Virtue Ethics as a Supplement

It is important to be aware that MacIntyre never views virtue ethics as a free-standing theory. He rather sees virtue as a supplement to moral rules. At times he even says his work is about 'virtue ethics' because of this.

Under this sort of approach, one can easily see how ideas of virtue with rule-based theories place upon the individual. There will still be a lot of difficulties with this approach. What is virtuous could stand against the idea of proving difficult to implement in any system of act-based morality. However, if MacIntyre is forming from the traditions and beliefs of a community, it may well be that any form of morality has an internal set of values, such that not only virtue but also deontological and consequentialist theories and traditions of communities.

However, other virtue ethicists, including Aristotle himself, do put forward that virtue is enough to establish moral guidance, although of a different kind.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



V-Rules and Virtue Centred Moral Action

The issue to resolve, therefore, is how virtue can effectively guide action. Some philosophers, such as Hursthouse, have developed arguments around the idea that virtues don't just need to be identified, rather can be developed to illuminate more complex moral issues. These can come in the form of rules (such as 'do what is courageous' which can equally warn against vice. In particular, one can identify, means many virtue ethicists regard a morality based on virtue as more expansive. In any case the rules 'don't be lazy' or 'don't be dishonest' provide effective guidance.

But what about more complex issues, such as euthanasia or abortion? Critics have argued that it is difficult to directly relate to these deeper issues. While at first glance that may be the case, given accounts of virtue ethics and discussions around modern ethical problems. Hursthouse's idea of virtue ethics is an extension to not only the ethics of human virtue towards the world, but also the related concept of Eudaimonia, and whether abortion can be justified as progress towards flourishing in certain circumstances.

Discussion Point 26

By yourself or in pairs, develop an analysis of how virtue ethics could provide ethical guidance in dilemmas surrounding the legalisation of voluntary euthanasia. Is this possible and if so, how?

Nevertheless, while this may be a step in the right direction, many critics would still argue that virtue ethics is not 'effectively' action-guiding. For the less morally educated person, a widespread difficulty is that it can prove difficult when making a decision about a bigger issue such as abortion or euthanasia. On the other hand, 'do what is the moral law' or 'do what leads to the greatest happiness' are simpler moral concepts and while they may be complex in application, they can do lead towards a more direct conclusion. Especially in Aristotle's framework, there is this difficulty:

... so too we become just by doing just acts, temperate by doing temperate acts...

Yet there is an assumption that everyone who not only has knowledge and the potential for virtue, but also knows what an act is temperate in relation to a large number of circumstances. This may well be the case, but it can provide some action-guiding context with more development. No matter what, virtue's natural agent-centred basis means it will always struggle to provide a universal reference for morality that everyone can understand.

Is Virtue Ethics Open to the Charge of Moral Relativism or Scepticism?

It has been noted previously that under Aristotle, it is difficult to determine exactly what the Mean is. Equally, many have contended that the idea of virtue being the basis for ethics is problematic. Different cultures across history have had different conceptions of what is a virtue. Some philosophers to argue that virtue is not an objective phenomenon and even that it is impossible to identify moral facts in a meaningful manner.

The idea that moral facts simply express emotion or sentiment is described as non-cognitivism, and a debate explored in Section 3 is still ongoing about whether or not moral concepts such as the virtues express objective moral facts or simply states of emotion. This leads on from David Hume's argument that we cannot derive an 'ought' from an 'is'. So for example, I can't, on observing a tree, make the judgement that the tree is bad. Similarly, there is a logical gap between me seeing a person stealing, and making the case that people ought not to steal.



Key Point

It is important to note that while virtue ethics can challenge moral relativism, it does not reject moral relativism. It could still be argued that it is a pragmatic approach to morality, but it does not lack of objectivity.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



This issue has greatly pervaded and influenced modern ethical debate, even towards justice or courage. The difficulty with these kinds of concepts, however, is that they are not simple goodness or badness. When I say someone is being selfish, it may be from more than one perspective, for example, but it evaluates parts of their behaviour and imposes a condemnation. In the case of Foot, this particular evaluative aspect is vital to understand. The gap Hume identifies is bridged. It is the mechanism by which we morally evaluate conclusions and facts that are more than simply states of nature.

Another argument present by MacIntyre is that because morality is developed in traditions such as Eudaimonia in virtue ethics, no statements are evaluative facts in relation to the end point to which moral actions are guided, they can be understood as more than facts. For example, one might say that I should act in leaving behind my friend in a burning building. The evaluation of this action is in light of its negative impact towards overall human well-being.

Can Virtues be Anything More than Relative?

Nevertheless, despite these responses providing an answer to arguments for generalism, it is often posited that whatever one considers virtue to be is culturally relative. This would mean no applicability beyond whatever tradition it is located in, and for many people it is difficult to judge whether something is objectively right or wrong. This has a number of problems. First, there are no universal truth conditions for morality; there is nothing we can directly apply to all people. The second is that it can affect the way we interact with other cultures. Philosophers argue that because we cannot determine universal truth conditions, we should not attempt to impose our morality on those from other cultures.

There are a number of important things to point out, however, with this criticism. The first is that a logical jump has been made from observing that people disagree to assuming that this disagreement means there is no overall truth. For example, two mathematicians might disagree about whether a sum adds up to a particular number but this does not mean there is necessarily not a right answer. Many advocates for forms of objective morality often argue that there is no strong argument to suggest why disagreement between competing ideas of morality mean there are no objective moral facts.

The second is that all forms of normative ethics can be objected to in a similar fashion. Just as there are competing sets of virtues, there are also competing moral laws, or moral ends. While one society might value human happiness as the goal to maximise, another might view justice or love as the most important goal of morality. In fact, some proponents of virtue ethics have even argued that virtue ethics is better positioned to provide an account of universal morality. For example, Martha Nussbaum argues that there are a number of virtues universal across all cultures; where people disagree, it is their local or community's interpretation of them.

Therefore, while some might press arguments against virtue ethics for leading to relativism, it is important to note that these arguments are not unique to virtue ethics. Moreover, it is the equal burden of proof to show that disagreement is permanently unresolvable and that there are no objective moral facts.

Virtue and Right Action

A final problem for virtue ethics will be raised here; namely that if as Aristotle claims, a good action is one that is virtuous, then is there really a relationship between good actions and virtues? Similarly, one could argue that it is equally possible for a virtuous person to perform a bad action. Aristotle reinforces this issue in Chapter 4:

Actions, then, are called just and temperate when they are such as the just or temperate man would do; not the man who does these that is just and temperate, but the man who also does them.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



For critics, if this is true then there seems to be some discrepancy between what is. Under Aristotle's definition, it could well be that a person could do the right things conceiving themselves as acting as a virtuous person, they are never actually virtuous and for some critics is an indication that virtue cannot be the whole picture of how

However, some proponents of virtue ethics equally argue that this view of morality is right action based around duty or law. In this way, the person is only doing the right action endorsed by the relevant law as being moral, and so the criticism of virtue ethics is an assumption about what is a right action. In response to critics, philosophers have come up with an account of morality which is not defining actions as being 'right' or 'wrong' but as being 'good' or 'bad' for a good person, and encourage actions from virtuous states without recourse to duty or duty.

Others, however, argue that virtue ethics does not have to reduce every moral action to a single principle. It was explored previously how virtue ethics does not have to replace other moral theories but can complement them and along these philosophical lines there may very well be actions justified from duty or their consequences which designates them as 'right'. Therefore, depicting virtue ethics as the only ethical theory, or whether it complements other theories, is a question with numerous ways to answer this objection.

Discussion Point 27

One issue within virtue ethics is that seemingly an action could be virtuous but not good. For example, an invading soldier might be courageous on the battlefield but only to commit further violence. Does virtue require some other moral component in order to be 'good'?

Aristotle Versus Modern Virtue Ethics

Many of the objections presented to Aristotle's theory are not directly answered by Aristotle himself. We note how philosophers have not only criticised his theory, but the possible answers they have developed from his original starting point. For example, while the Golden Mean is a central component of Aristotle's thought, it is not entirely necessary for one to advocate the Golden Mean in one's ethical philosophy, especially considering the difficulty of identifying where the mean lies. Therefore, it is useful to note in your own views, where you might agree or disagree with Aristotle from this thinking.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Taking It Further (Extension Material)

5. Wider Issues for Religion

Aristotle arguably has had a huge effect on religion in the past, especially through many of his ideas on natural law and virtue into a Christian context. For Aquinas, which is expressed in turn by virtue. To this end, our aim is happiness in this world, reconciliation with God and entry into heaven. These ideas have filtered down to influence much of Christian moral thinking.

For example, with the Catholic Church, there are seven virtues (three borrowed from Aristotle and ancient Greek philosophy (prudence, justice, temperance and courage) and three Christian virtues (faith, hope and charity/love). Whereas the Greek virtues are available to humans naturally, many theologians identify the others as only available by building a relationship with God. Therefore, it is very possible for virtue ethics both to be its own ethical theory as well as a subset of Christian morality. Both aim towards a particular goal of human flourishing, Christianity simply extends this idea to the afterlife.



Where there may be difficulties however is in whether virtue ethics can ever be a system of ethics that identifies what is right in the form of moral laws. In the case of virtue ethics, one could act virtuously without becoming a virtuous person. It is thus important to ask whether a person could act according to God's word without becoming virtuous.

In other words, does virtue ethics present a greater scope for Christian morality than absolute moral laws? Certainly Aristotle in suggesting Eudaimonia as the end goal is fitting with Christianity, but there is a tension as to whether his idea of virtue can be placed within an absolutist ethical structure. For example, the idea of a virtuous lie might well oppose various virtues depending on how a person judged the Golden Rule. A virtuous lie to have greater significance for human flourishing than an absolute law.

6. Wider Issues for Ethics

The *Nicomachean Ethics* has had a long-lasting effect on morality and ethics through falling out of favour during the Enlightenment era, various issues with consequentialist theories have meant that in the past fifty years it has started receiving considerable attention. A broadly seen influencing ethics as a whole is through a shifting of emphasis from an agent-centred morality; that is, rather than prescribing people a set of rules based on what is right, people are educated in the importance of 'thick' evaluative concepts which they try to live by.

How is this important? Well one of the important points Aristotle makes through his theory of virtue is a fine balancing act which is only developed through education. This means a specific idea of moral growth. If someone simply follows rules without understanding the meaning then their moral actions are not significant to their moral development. It is the understanding of how virtuous people act in any given situation, not just performing the right action.

Discussion Point 28

Does Aristotle's emphasis on a person's own sufficient understanding of virtue mean that we view virtue in a more personal way? For example one might be inspired by a virtuous person but does that mean one should take the immediate step of abstracting the idea of a virtuous person to fulfil that within one's own life?

Discuss whether Aristotle's development of virtue is too impersonal or whether models of virtue could build up within communities and societies.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Where this may have significant consequences is on how morality is instilled and taught. Rather than simply informing people of rules, which neglects their own perspective on understanding morality, it is almost a requirement that examples of virtuous people are used to truly grasp an understanding of morality. Arguably for many, therefore, following virtue ethics has a much different emphasis on moral education than other ethical theories.

Similarly, this also presents virtue ethics as a much less readily codifiable form of morality, as it is not formulated into rules or obligations and its focus on "moral" ethical concepts that have a complex component, rather than the simpler ideas of what is good and bad, means that if it is applied as a moral theory, it may be much less strict and narrower than forms of deontological and utilitarianism. Both these latter theories, though, are generally seen to be right and wrong actions, and therefore, responsibility if they are seen as a bad action, even unknowingly. Yet within virtue ethics, actions are seen as springing from a character that could have multiple outcomes. Some see this as a flaw, for if a person should be a virtuous person, they should not be wrong at any point in time. However, it is also possible that virtue ethics contains a different idea of moral responsibility, one less dependent on outcomes and more on a person's intentions and virtue as a whole.

What's important to note throughout all of this, is that for many philosophers, virtue ethics is a way of understanding how humans morally develop and grow. In this line of thought, rather than virtue ethics being a more radical idea of how morality functions in human beings, our intuition suggests that consequence theories only present a partial picture of how morality operates. For some, virtue ethics is a moral theory by itself, while for others, it supplements the gaps in other theories. The different views on how ordinary morality might function are numerous and, depending on human psychology as well as the state of Eudaimonia humans might achieve, different approaches might be implemented within various ethical dilemmas and issues.

7. Wider Issues for Perception and Experience

While virtue ethics potentially does not have huge consequences on how people experience the world, as noted from the discussions earlier within the module about thick ethical concepts, however, a greater part within virtue ethics than in other moral theories. It was noted how there is an evaluative aspect to the way we judge if someone is selfish for example depends on the context. Someone at first might be seen to be hoarding things for themselves, only at a later point then raises a different nuance within virtue ethics. While in deontological and utilitarianism, the idea of good and bad can be quite easily translated across different cultures or perspectives, in virtue ethics it is difficult. They are often rooted in various practices and social behaviours and moral beings interpret those behaviours.

For some philosophers, this has led to the conclusion that virtues are relative to a culture, while pleasures are not. Yet there are others, such as Nussbaum, who have argued that the virtues are not relative.

Setting aside for the moment whether this debate can be resolved, there can argue that these ideas about how people might experience the world if they are taught to look at things from a virtue perspective. Aristotle and other virtue ethicists have stressed moral education and spending time on perceiving what is both a virtue and a vice in equal measure. Moreover, within such a framework, conforming one's pleasures and pains to align with what is virtuous and unvirtuous, perhaps more than any other moral theory, contains within it the implication that there is an important shift in the way one perceives and experiences the world. An unvirtuous person, like a kleptomaniac, may in the process of becoming virtuous, develop an entirely different way of seeing the world.

Some might argue that this is a feature for any moral theory, especially within Christianity, where the importance of the sublimation of unacceptable desires. But there are situations where a person could follow rules or pleasure-maximising principles as a form of self-discipline, but in character. Where it is possible to see the difference is that virtue ethics requires a change in character for it to apply and relate to human beings, whereas deontological and utilitarianism allow for the possibility of a person doing what is good by set rules, without a change in character. Whether that one is able to cleanly make is a matter of debate, but it is important to note the consequences virtue ethics might have beyond other ethical theories.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**





Form and Justify an Argument

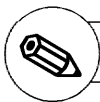
Throughout this section both Aristotle's original arguments within the *Nicomachean Ethics* have been analysed, and it is now up to you to decide whether you believe them. Particulars to consider:

- Should all morality be viewed as aiming towards eudaimonia? Is it important to be teleological in this sense?
- Is moral virtue developed by habit? Can it be possible to be a moral person without virtue?
- Is virtue the mean between two vices? Are there any virtues in particular that are more important than others?
- What advantages might virtue ethics have over other ethical theories? Can it stand as a moral theory by itself, or should it be understood within the framework of other theories like consequentialist ethics?
- Can virtue ethics provide effective moral guidance, or does it simply describe what character consists of?
- Is Aristotle, in forming his arguments from ordinary moral intuition, culture, or tradition, being virtuous? Does this open virtue ethics to the charge of moral scepticism or relativism?
- Is there really a relationship between virtue and right action? Could a person be virtuous without reference to virtue at all?
- What are the possible consequences in adopting a virtue ethics perspective compared to other theories better with our natural moral intuitions and practicality than other ethical theories?

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**





Activities

Activity 1

Below is a table summarising Aristotle's arguments within *Nicomachean Ethics*. Read and using your own interpretation of the anthology, the extract and any other ideas sections of the table.

Nicomachean Ethics – Aristotle	
Aristotle argues:	Argument
It is possible to distinguish between intellectual and moral virtues, as only being developed through habit.	
Virtues are destroyed by excess or defect. Every virtue lies in a (golden) mean between two vices.	
Becoming virtuous is not simply about performing virtuous acts, but performing them as virtuous people would do.	
There are some actions that are simply bad and do not fall between two vices.	
Virtue is not always weighted completely evenly between two vices. Often there is a vice, that by its being further away from the original virtue, can be identified as a virtue's counterpart or opposite.	
Virtue is concerned with pleasures and pains, in so much that a virtuous person will cultivate their pleasures and pains to align with what is virtuous and what is unvirtuous.	
Virtue is concerned with choice and as such cannot be a passion or capacity, but rather a state of character.	
Conclusion: Virtue is a state of character, in a mean between two vices.	

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Activity 2

In pairs or groups, consider the recent political discussion around Edward Snowden, a whistleblower on a large number of unlawful data-collection practices that the NSA was carrying out. His revelations on the surveillance state caused a great deal of uproar, yet there are people who defend Snowden that have emerged.

The first is one of Snowden as a hero, who courageously exposed the corruption and surveillance of ordinary people, something which many people are wishing for a degree of reform that is greatly disturbing.

The second is that of Snowden as a traitor, who in exposing a lot of classified information potentially put security agencies for the USA at material risk in their operations. This has gone so far as to suggest that he contributed to global destabilisation.

The first task for your group is to discuss from an Aristotelian perspective, whether Snowden has performed a virtuous or unvirtuous action. Consider especially what the grounds for this are, and whether these shift depending on the context and environment of a particular action.

Next consider whether even if Snowden was courageous or reckless, was his action virtuous? If you say he was courageous but overall his action was bad, does this mean something is wrong with your appreciation of the situation? Similarly if he was reckless, but the action was good, does this mean sometimes be good?

Lastly consider whether virtue in deeper situations such as the one above might be better understood in a deontological or consequentialist framework. Is what matters most here the moral rules governing Snowden's actions, and how might virtue fit into both of these pictures?



**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**





Practice Exam Questions

Answer the following questions giving reference to the passage below:

We must, however, not only describe virtue as a state of character, but also say, as Aristotle remarks, then, that every virtue or excellence brings into good condition the part of the soul in which it resides and makes the work of that part well done well; e.g. the excellence of the eye makes the work of the eye good; for it is by the excellence of the eye that we see well.

Virtue, then, is a state of character concerned with choice, lying in a mean, i.e. the mean relative to us, being determined by reason, and by that reason by which the man of practical wisdom would determine it. It is a mean between two vices, that which depends on excess and that which depends on deficiency, mean because the vices respectively fall short of or exceed what is right in both particulars. Virtue both finds and chooses that which is intermediate. Hence in respect of its object, virtue states its essence, virtue is a mean, with regard to what is best and right an extreme.

- Outline and clarify the different ideas presented in this passage about virtue.
- Analyse the different implications for virtue ethics as a foundation for moral education.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED





Mark Scheme

Level	Descriptor
Level 1	There is limited knowledge, terminology and technical language, often inappropriately. Only a surface level knowledge of important religious ideas and beliefs is displayed and religious ideas and beliefs addressed are of a limited variety, always correct, or sufficiently connected to the extract.
Level 2	There is a moderate amount of knowledge, terminology and technical language presented, although with a few mistakes. A thorough knowledge and understanding of religious beliefs is displayed but with room for further development. Religious ideas and beliefs addressed are of a limited variety, but generally correct and connected to the extract.
Level 3	There is a broad amount of knowledge, terminology and technical language rigorously presented throughout an appropriate and justified response. Thorough and fully developed knowledge and comprehension of important ideas and concepts is displayed. Religious ideas and beliefs addressed are correct and pertinently connected to the extract.

Question No.	Indicative Content (10 marks AO1)
a)	<p>AO1 will be used by candidates to demonstrate knowledge and understanding of religious ideas and terminology when responding to the question.</p> <p>Candidates may refer to the following.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Virtue is for Aristotle a state of character rather than a passion or feeling, and is achieved with choice. • Virtues are means between two vices of excess and defect. The virtue of courage is neither reckless nor a coward. The virtue of courage in turn brings about the good of a person as well as the acts they perform. • The mean of virtue is destroyed by excess or defect. What is a virtue is the mean of a particular state of character. • The Golden Mean applies to all virtues, but not to all vices; there are some vices that are wholly bad and do not fit into a scale of virtue and vice. • The Golden Mean does not always lie in the middle, often there is a point far away in character from the virtue that can effectively be classed as its opposite, such as cowardice and courage.

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



INSPECTION COPY



Level	Descriptor
Level 1	There is a very limited knowledge, terminology and technical language, often used inaccurately or inappropriately. Some topics and details are chosen with rudimentary links made between a small variety of aspects of the question. Any criticisms or judgements are only substantiated by general or non-specific evidence.
Level 2	There is a limited amount of knowledge, terminology and technical language, so far as it is well presented, although with some mistakes. Relevant topics and details are deconstructed and links are made between a small variety of aspects of the question. Criticisms and judgements of a few aspects are made but with little substantiation or a limited reasoned evaluation of supporting evidence.
Level 3	There is a moderate amount of knowledge, terminology and technical language, so far as it is well presented, although with some mistakes. Relevant topics and details are deconstructed with a basic progression of reasoned arguments throughout the answer. Links are made between a few aspects of the question. Criticisms and judgements of a few aspects are made with an attempt at substantiation by a reasoned evaluation of supporting evidence.
Level 4	A broad amount of knowledge, terminology and technical language is well presented with a few mistakes. Relevant topics and details are deconstructed with rational and logical progressions of reasoned arguments developed throughout the answer. Links are made between a broad variety of the aspects of the question. Criticisms and judgements are made of almost all of the aspects of the question and are substantiated by a reasoned evaluation of some supporting evidence.
Level 5	A broad amount of knowledge, terminology and technical language is well presented, correctly and rigorously, throughout a justified response. Relevant topics and details are critically deconstructed with rational and logical progressions of reasoned arguments strongly developed. Criticisms, judgements and links are made of/between all or most aspects of the question and completely substantiated by a thorough and reasoned evaluation of supporting evidence.

INSPECTION COPY



INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



INSPECTION COPY



Question No.	Indicative Content (5 marks AO1, 15 marks AO2)
b)	<p>AO1 will be used by candidates to underpin their analysis and evaluation. They will be required to demonstrate knowledge and understanding using specific terminology when responding to the question, and in meeting the AO2 criteria described below.</p> <p>Candidates may refer to the following in relation to AO1.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Aristotle saw virtue, being moderated by practical wisdom as the foundation of morality. This can be called virtue ethics and has seen a resurgence in modern philosophical thought. Virtue ethics is not always the only foundation of moral philosophy, but it has been incorporated into deontological or consequentialist systems of morality to address flaws in those theories. <p>Candidates may refer to the following in relation to AO2.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Golden Mean may well be inaccurate for it is entirely relative to the situation. The mean may lie or even if one exists. Can look at whether a person could be truthful. Aristotle argues the mean is where a man of practical wisdom would determine it but equally how does one judge what is wisdom? Moral relativism possibly poses a threat to virtue ethics as a foundation of virtue is dependent on cultural outlooks then it is possible to question whether there ever be objective knowledge of virtue transferrable between different cultures. Virtues as thick ethical concepts contain an evaluative component and are more than the simple good or bad present in deontological and consequentialist theories. Aristotle based his idea of virtue from common-sense observations. It is a question whether the aim of morality is human flourishing or perhaps happiness. Virtue ethics may not be accurately action-guiding as it is difficult to apply to complex situations. Can think of v-rules but it is possible to criticise it for not providing clear standpoints on complex, modern day ethical dilemmas. It is arguably possible to identify good and bad actions without reference to virtues. This possibly indicates it is not a complete foundation for morality. Virtue ethics can be seen as a supplement to consequentialist theories. It is an ethical theory similar to how Aquinas incorporated it into Christianity. Virtue ethics may be too demanding and dependent on moral luck. If virtue is rare under Aristotle, this seems against common-sense morality for ordinary lives many people live.

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Glossary



Phronesis	Practical wisdom that guides how we discern virtue and virtuous acts and apply them to our own lives.
Eudaimonia	Human flourishing or happiness, and the central aim of all virtue and morality.
The Golden Mean	The theoretical, desirable point between two vices of excess and defect where id virtue is supposed to lie.
Is-Ought Problem	A problem developed by David Hume; it poses how one can derive a moral law as 'ought' from other forms of descriptive knowledge when there is no logical basis to do so.
Thick Ethical Concepts	Concepts such as 'selfish' or 'untrustworthy' that both have a descriptive and an evaluative moral element.
Moral Relativism	The idea that there are no objective moral truths and any moral statements are only true in so far as they align or are consistent with prevailing social or cultural standards.
Moral Scepticism	The idea that it is impossible for anyone to possess moral knowledge or that such knowledge is not possible.



INSPECTION COPY



INSPECTION COPY



Answers to Discussion Points

22. **Moral Knowledge** – Students can explore a number of different positions, including whether moral facts are natural or non-natural. Can examine also how Aristotle derives his idea of capacity for virtue as part of our nature but not virtue itself.
23. **Moral Luck** – Students can question whether virtue ethics places less of a burden on environment. Similarly, does it condemn those who are unlucky to be unvirtuous all the time? Can question whether this affects our view of moral responsibility. If virtue is governed by nature, is it ever right to blame someone for their actions?
24. **Activity** – Students can look at the high burdens on people placed by certain ethical theories, such as deontology, utilitarianism, etc.
25. **Origins of Virtue** – Can argue that providing an account on how a person gets objectivity is important in all forms of ethics. Where virtue ethics might differ is its evaluative component which is based on an individual's perception as rooted in cultural traditions. However it may also be that virtue ethics is an extension of 'ought' morality which moves on from simply defining rules for what is good.
26. **Virtue Ethics and Euthanasia** – Students can look at how courage, compassion, benevolence, etc. can lead into an encounter with a person wishing to die. There is no strict rule against killing, but a virtuous ending of life. However at the same time, some might argue respect, empathy, etc. can create reasons to favour things like palliative care.
27. **Virtue and Right Action** – Some philosophers have identified a virtue as only being a good in a good context. The person courageously doing evil deeds then is acting primarily out of a bad context. To question this, for it is difficult to always judge what might be good and virtuous. Is it a sensitive time displaying virtue or ignorance?
28. **Virtue Ethics and Impersonality** – Aristotle regards friendship as important within his ethics. It can be open to the same alienation and detachment as deontological and consequentialist ethics. However it is important because it is not about the other person but rather because we morally value friends themselves. Can ask whether we do as a friend would do, or can they simply do as their moral idols do?

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



INSPECTION COPY



'Euthanasia and Doctors' Ethics' – Michael Wilcockson

What you need to know before starting...

1. The concepts of sanctity of life and quality of life and how they apply to ethical considerations around euthanasia.
2. The different ways one might approach moral considerations around the legalisation of euthanasia.
3. Some of the weaknesses behind the 'slippery slope' or 'wedge' argument for the legalisation of voluntary euthanasia.
4. The way in which religious and virtue-based ethical arguments have been made and why. In recent years these are becoming more prominent than religious views.

1. Introduction

This extract draws on Section 6.1: Medical Ethics on the syllabus and you are advised to read the anthology alongside this topic. Additionally for owners of the ZigZag Coursebook Ethics Year 2, the section on Medical Ethics can be found on pp. 36-47.

The extract is taken from contemporary philosopher Michael Wilcockson's book *Issues in Bioethics* as an illumination of the various different philosophical arguments for and against legalising euthanasia. It looks at the competing ideas of 'Sanctity of Life' (SOL) and 'Quality of Life' (QOL) and how these ideas give rise to various perspectives on whether there is a difference between passive and active euthanasia, whether it is the right of someone to choose their own death. This guide will begin to explore the concepts involved in the discussion around euthanasia, before analysing them in light of the arguments, noting the consequences that legalising euthanasia would have for religious belief, ethics and society.

2. Summary of Ideas

While suicide has been discussed throughout history, modern medical advances have led to more attention being paid in recent years towards euthanasia and whether it is in the interests of those suffering from terminal illness and those in wider society who are affected by the consequences of legalisation might bring.

What is euthanasia?

Wilcockson's essay begins by noting specifically what is under investigation when we talk about euthanasia. Simply defining it as mercy-killing leaves a lot of room for interpretation and he notes that in a moral society where killing is not indiscriminately allowed, it has to be part of a carefully regulated means euthanasia has to be practised by a doctor and regulated to only be allowed in certain circumstances.

The consideration of 'euthanasia' at present, is rightly a medical issue. Put simply, it is about how to treat his patients in some circumstances?

Sanctity of Life

The concept of the sanctity of life has been prominent in a lot of religious thought and has often formed the basis for a general opposition to euthanasia. If every life is a gift from God, then only God has the right to take it, allowing humans to end life as they see fit for that person and therefore similar to God. This is often accompanied by the idea that some parts of life are more important than others, and if they are obstacles to a happy life or death, they should be removed. Growing closer to God and one's own faith.

Discussion Point 29

Sanctity of life is generally seen as a religious principle, but are there any possible secular understandings of life as sacred or intrinsically important? Discuss and note down your thoughts and support such a belief.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Quality of Life

Another concept that many people argue is more important than the sanctity of life is the general happiness and welfare one experiences over the course of one's life and the greater significance than the sanctity of life, argue that it forms the basis for a strong case for passive but also active euthanasia. Wilcockson notes the views of Peter Singer in the following:

Singer suggests that the SOL belongs to an older more absolute value view of life. In Christianity the philosophical basis which establishes life as a gift from God or which can no longer be sensibly sustained.

While there are secular people who believe in forms of the sanctity of life, Singer argues that ethical theories based on religious beliefs have often been more acceptable to the public. However, ethical theories which encompass a greater variety of moral considerations and are more inclined to adapt to changing practices and advances in medicine. Wilcockson is pointing out that with ever greater technological complexity come new issues with which quality of life arguments equally have to contend.

Active and Passive Euthanasia

Every doctor is considered to have a duty to save and preserve life wherever possible. This forms a big part of the Hippocratic Oath which states:

I will give no deadly medicines to anyone if asked, nor suggest any such course.

This has often formed the basis for the British Medical Association's (BMA) opposition to euthanasia. However, the BMA also state that there is a large difference between active euthanasia (direct killing) and passive euthanasia (indirect killing), even if they do not speak of the latter as cases of euthanasia, but rather withholding or withdrawing treatment.

How is this justification made? Wilcockson explores the moral principles which underpin a greater degree of moral culpability in actively ending someone's life than simply withholding or saving it in all circumstances. These can be seen to form the basis for the UK's current law which explicitly forbid active but not passive forms of it. Altogether they uphold the sanctity of life which doctors, in the name of patient autonomy or wellbeing, may act in ways that

Discussion Point 30

The imperative to give no deadly medicines to anyone if asked is part of the original Hippocratic Oath. However, there are other modern formulations which present similar but different versions to doctors. Could any of these modern formulations give a different perspective on the issue?

1. Acts versus omissions

This distinguishes between different forms of acts that we might regard as blameable. Acts that are intended are morally equivalent to intended actions. Wilcockson

If A chooses to shoot B then we classify this as an intended act; if C sees A and does nothing, this is an intended omission.

Many people would argue that C is still responsible in failing to stop A, and that acts and omissions are at least partly as bad as intentional actions. However within medical ethics, there may be that not attempting to save a patient in certain circumstances may be regarded as acceptable. It was to be feared that the quality of life would be too low or that saving them would be too costly. Wilcockson examines issues around premature babies in this respect:

If a baby is born very prematurely a doctor might have to consider whether they should attempt to save the baby. Some argue that morally they may withhold treatment either as a form of passive euthanasia or simply 'letting nature take its course'.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Note this does mean doctors have an automatic right to withhold treatment from a patient in acknowledgement that in extreme circumstances there is a significant moral difference between killing a patient and simply omitting to treat them. Similarly, it can be presented that if a doctor omits to treat a patient before considering to withdraw treatment on the basis they might not have a long life, what was once passive euthanasia could be argued to become active euthanasia.

2. The doctrine of double effect

This has had a long history of discussion, especially within Natural Law ethics. It allows a doctor to perform a morally good action that has a foreseen side-effect, so long as the side-effect is not the intended purpose. This can even include the side-effect being foreseen. Wilcockson gives the example of a doctor treating a patient with a terminal illness.

For instance, A doctor treats themselves against an attack from B using reasonable force. The result is that B dies, but it is not their intention that this should happen. If B then dies, the DDE does not hold A to be blameworthy for an act they did not intend.

This principle is often used to justify the use of high amounts of pain-relieving drugs for terminal patients, even though the doctor knows the drugs may also have the side-effect of hastening death. The hastening of death can be foreseen but it is not the intended purpose of the treatment.

However, it is difficult to say whether the principle isn't open to abuse as Wilcockson notes. The doctrine of double effect relies on someone's correct intentions and there may be cases where a doctor intends the hastening of a patient's death despite indicating otherwise. Similarly, the distinction between intention and foresight is enough to justify certain cases of passive euthanasia. A doctor ideally should know the effects of the medicines he is providing and if administered correctly, normally bad medicine, then giving explicit overdoses to patients may well count as a justified action for the patient properly.

Discussion Point 31

How might the examples Wilcockson gives of self-defence and the doctor's application of the doctrine of double effect morally differ? Is there anything contained in the doctor's practice that might render the doctrine of double effect acceptable?

3. Ordinary and extraordinary means

This principle concerns the lengths that one is obliged to go to when preserving life. It distinguishes between proportionate and disproportionate means. While suicide has been traditionally considered a sin, the sanctity of life, equally some have recognised that people do have a limited autonomy over their lives to be.

The most standard case of this as Wilcockson notes, is the BMA allowing competent patients to refuse treatment, including that which will prolong their life. This can in effect be seen as a doctor respecting the patient's autonomy to save a patient. If a doctor, for example, withholds treatment from a patient against their wishes, they may well be guilty of negligence or at worst wilful omission. To this end some argue that it is a doctor's duty to treat their patients to the best of their ability, regardless of the circumstances. This can encompass the possibility, so that the doctor isn't obliged to provide the most extreme possible measures, but instead to find what could be considered a reasonable approach towards the good of both the patient and doctor. Wilcockson gives the example of a doctor treating a severely handicapped baby...

For instance, a severely handicapped baby... might be considered so ill that no amount of medical treatment would significantly improve their condition. In this case a doctor might then prescribe 'nursing care' to meet the baby's needs, knowing that the baby will die shortly.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



The question overall is whether to accept that allowing the end of life in some circumstances is good and proportionate medicine. While there are great difficulties in determining what would form a basis for a minimally good quality of life, there can often be a general consensus as to when a life requires too much to save for too little. Wilcockson mentions John Finnis' 'basic goods' argument, which attempts to provide a list of what is valuable in life, such as aesthetic experience, social ability and more, yet it is also important to note that those sticking strictly to sanctity of life arguments may regard such ideas as irrelevant to the core sanctity of human life itself.

The Case for Legalising Euthanasia

Wilcockson gives two main reasons why people argue for the legalisation of voluntary autonomy and quality of life. The debate is largely focused on voluntary forms as various forms of passive euthanasia are regarded as acceptable, and therefore issues in severe pain and/or terminally ill wanting assistance to end their lives.

Personal Autonomy

In Britain it is noted that the 1961 Suicide Act permits people to choose to die with but forbids others from helping them. This has led many critics to argue that this creates a distinction between those who have the means to end their lives and those who don't. For why should a person have the personal right to suicide but a person physically incapable of committing suicide be unable to have help performing the same act? If the law was consistent, then everyone should be able to die, with help or not, without recrimination from the law.

While some may argue that a third-party involvement unfairly shifts the responsibility to another, perhaps unwilling or reluctant participant, there is good grounds for this perspective of equal rights. In the eyes of proponents of euthanasia, despite it being a professional's duty to help someone to die, there is still an equal burden for families as their loved ones suffer.

Discussion Point 32

Should one have a person has the right to take their own life? Or do we simply physically stop it in many cases? Discuss whether the right to die is one we should grant or whether we should simply grant the right to self-ownership over one's body.

Quality of Life

The other case made for euthanasia is based on the argument that it is acceptable if the quality of life is unbearable and no medical advancement can save them. In this case, it is argued that it is better to die than to make them keep on living. Wilcockson cites the model of practice in the Netherlands and how this could be enacted in another country. There are a number of stipulations that must be explicit, persistent and without coercion as well as the patient must be facing no future improvement. Furthermore, two doctors have to give advice and approval to the patient, with doctors then submitting their proposal to a public prosecutor who accordingly decides whether or not to allow euthanasia.

For many proponents of euthanasia, this ruling model reflects a caring society where the welfare of the individual is still observed without just reference to the sanctity of life. While it is allowed, many argue that there are extreme cases that don't meet the requirements of the sanctity of life, as in these cases is fundamentally inhumane.

Objections to Legalising Euthanasia

On the other hand there are a number of arguments, oriented around the idea of personal autonomy, that demonstrate that legalising euthanasia possibly devalues the inherent sacredness of human life and autonomy and can lead to a series of negative consequences that outweigh any value that euthanasia might have.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



The Wedge Argument

This argument is given the greatest treatment by Wilcockson as often it is the main reason why people are still fearful to legalise voluntary euthanasia. The reasoning goes that were assisted suicide or euthanasia to be allowed, it would lead in practice to widespread abuse and numbers far beyond the original intentions of the law. As Wilcockson notes this can be seen to follow from premises which argues that something '*permitted initially as an exception becomes the rule*'.

- There are always those who exploit a weaker rule.
- What begins with the best of intentions results in undesirable ends

Yet the great difficulty with this argument is that it seems beyond simply being a warning. It makes an empirical, inductive claim, that because this has gone badly in the past with some laws, things will on probability go badly in the future. This logical jump for many people is unwarranted, especially when there is little evidence of widespread abuse of modern euthanasia practices where it is legal.

Some supporters of the wedge argument have used the Nazi euthanasia and eugenics programme as an example against legalisation, but as Helga Kuhse points out the issues with this were less to do with euthanasia itself and rather the racial prejudices behind it. What the wedge argument seems to warn against really is the slipping of morality, which arguably is not beholden to any law. An equal argument could be made that we should not imprison people because people with power might abuse it and imprison whomever they desire. Naturally this happens to a great extent throughout the world. The argument against prison but rather the understanding of its correct moral use and limits can be made of the wedge argument regarding euthanasia.

Another argument closer to current practices, however, comes from abortion law. Abortion being legal for extreme cases, the large number performed every day is seen as a form of birth control rather than an illegal but occasionally necessary practice. Yet again this is a separate issue with its own set of moral principles under discussion and many critics see such analogies as lacking and not addressing the core arguments in favour of legalisation.

Patient Autonomy

Earlier it was explored that many advocates for the legalisation of voluntary euthanasia see it as infringing upon the choice and autonomy of those suffering in constant pain. Arguments on the other side that equally put forward that legalisation would reduce suffering overall. How does this work?

The BMA in particular is very resistant to legalisation due to their belief that it would damage the relationships between doctors and patients and destroy the trust that is required to administer care effectively. This argument effectively puts forward that maintaining the status quo is more morally important than the case-by-case issues of pain and disability that people face, and while legalisation might help some, it presents a greater danger to vulnerable individuals such as the elderly who may no longer trust doctors to have their hearts.

Moreover, the legalisation of euthanasia might bring about a change in society's overall attitude towards disability, illness and old age such that people who are disabled and healthy might be labelled differently. From this, rather than being drawn into the legalisation point out that the ideal society is one that cares, and allowing voluntary euthanasia risks undermining this dedication to care, especially for those unable to

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



What are the Responsibilities of a Fair Society?

So far arguments have been outlined for and against legalisation of voluntary euthanasia. We now consider the best form of society and the responsibilities that accompany it. Put simply, what are the responsibilities of the individual and the community?

Wilcockson cites John Stuart Mill's *On Liberty*, which outlines the function of law to protect the individual and to in turn protect the rights and existence of individuals, in order that the majority does not exploit minority sections. Law in this way is minimal and non-interfering. Looking at the issue from personal autonomy, it can be seen that legalising something is inherently a difficult enterprise. In one way it is important that the law does not affect those suffering and wishing to die. At the same time, if legalising something threatens the autonomy of those most vulnerable, the law must prioritise the protection of minorities and legislate against it.

There is also the question of law in practice which often has to accompany how the law is written about a particular issue. Some point towards a shift in popular support, as Wilcockson points towards legalising voluntary euthanasia; but as Bernard Williams notes, in what he describes as the 'slippery slope' argument, legalisation for something can be seen to give tacit approval towards certain behaviours. If something were decriminalised or legalised, despite many people possibly urging others to refrain, those who would feel vindicated in throwing their rubbish on the streets. Therefore, in arguments in favour of legalising voluntary euthanasia, there may well be pragmatic reasons at times, to refrain from permitting it in medical practice.

Discussion Point 33

Does legalising something effectively psychologically or socially permit it? Give your own view for and against this belief.

3. Philosophical Context

There have been numerous and intense discussions over euthanasia in the UK as to whether any form of actively helping a person in their suicide is counted as illegal and punishable by imprisonment. The debate is further muddled by other European countries having legalised it, and British people travelling abroad for these services, an act which no one has been able to write off as of writing.

At various times bills have been introduced to parliament but none have passed. The issue is often seen as one of vulnerable people, and medical organisations such as the BMA strongly opposing legalisation of euthanasia and pushing for better palliative care for those suffering. Nevertheless, the *Journal* in an editorial urged organisations such as the BMA to refrain from partisan arguments, arguing it was obstructing real debate within Parliament on the issue.

The possible negative consequences of euthanasia are often linked to atrocities of the past world when euthanasia has been adopted by a state. The Nazi party is a particular example of this, and many people fear what legalisation could lead to. Studies on attitudes towards euthanasia vary greatly between different sections of the population. Dying, a charity involved in campaigning for legalisation of assisted dying, states that 86% of people with a disability support the current laws on euthanasia. However, a Medical Ethics questionnaire, 49% of doctors support the current laws on euthanasia. It creates a difficult set of circumstances over whose authority and for whom universal support may be needed before an effective change can be made.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Peter Singer (1946–present)

Singer is an Australian philosopher who has written extensively in applied ethics, particularly from a utilitarian perspective. He argues that many of the traditional sanctity of life arguments against abortion, euthanasia and other modern medical practices are slowly giving way to quality of life arguments, which focus more on what brings the greatest pleasure or happiness within a given situation. As such, he has argued for voluntary euthanasia to be legalised, along with some form of non-voluntary euthanasia. He has particularly drawn criticism at times for suggesting that it could be acceptable in some circumstances to euthanise some severely disabled babies.

Jonathan Glover (1941–present)

Glover is a moral philosopher who has written about euthanasia in his 1977 book *Causing Death and Saving Lives*. He particularly focuses on the concept of autonomy, arguing that when the rational reasons a person might have and judged sound, then if that person has a right to end their life, society equally has that if the person is incapable of doing it themselves. Furthermore, he criticises these circumstances from a consequentialist position. Whether or not one intends predicted and allowed to occur, the results are still the same regardless of whether they happen. In the case of euthanasia, therefore, a doctor engaging in passive euthanasia as if it were active, with double effect simply being a guilt-avoiding rationalisation.

4. Detailed Analysis

As part of the Summary of Ideas, a number of different arguments both for and against euthanasia will be examined. Within this section, a number of the key issues and concepts will be explored philosophically at both the moral grounds for legislating voluntary euthanasia and the practical issues that any legislation might face.

Personal Autonomy and Rights

One of the strongest arguments for euthanasia can be perceived to be from an individual's right to die. The UK does not legislate against people attempting to commit suicide, but many would argue that it would be inhumane. Naturally, it is expected that proper support and health would dissuade people from committing suicide, but sometimes it is accepted that they might have had valid reasons for committing suicide, even if their family preferred them not to.

In a similar fashion, if a person has a right to die, then many people argue this corner of society and others to respect the wishes of people who exert this right. In the presence of extraordinary means, Wilcockson notes the position of the BMA and others that:

... a person is within their rights to refuse surgery on grounds that it is over and above what is ordinarily for bare existence.

Yet on the other hand, if we examined in natural law a person who kills themselves under traditional Christian theology this would not be allowed. It is possible to ask the question of the real life between a person exerting their right to let nature take its course and a person who is not allowed to do so.

For the utilitarian, there is none. If the only moral end is a person's welfare, pleasure and the course of action that promotes that most is the right one. For someone who holds life as a sacred value, there is a difference if one accepts any sort of active human intervention in these matters and if one has to define what is natural and what is unnatural, such that standard medical practices and technology such as pacemakers aren't also outlawed. For many it seems a strange contrast between artificial preservation of a life as natural but the artificial ending of a life as unnatural.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Discussion Point 34

Would a Kantian system of ethics treating humans as ends effectively rule out a person dying? Arguably this would be simply treating another person as a mere means. Is there any way to avoid such an objection?

More difficult to determine still is a place in between where a person might regard death as a good end, in the vein of Kantian ethics, yet still place importance in the consequences of their actions where many people ethically find it difficult. Glover who makes a case for euthanasia

... voluntary euthanasia is justified in those cases where we know that the person would, and we believe that the conditions that would make it right to allow

Why is this the case? We can consider three parts to this conclusion. The first is that a person would want to commit suicide, which is realising for some people that death is preferable to life. That we can realise that for them living is worse than dying.

The second is that the individual's will must be persistent. In cases of depression, for example, a person's mind will change and they will re-examine their reasons for wanting to die. A mental illness may not meet the psychological criteria. Rather, a person has to be sound in their mind, not just in the present but in the total possible future of their life. If they are not then they will commit suicide if able and if they are stopped then it is denying them their autonomy.

The third is considering when it would be right to assist suicide. For someone who has no physical criteria, if they have a rational wish to die and their autonomy is respected, it should be respected in turn. For a right to be a right, there has to be a responsibility on behalf of everyone's autonomy in light of their rights is being fulfilled. For example, if people have a right to die, a person couldn't physically bring it to the individual, it would be regarded as inadequate. If someone has a right to die of dehydration, in the same way, if a right to life means states must provide health care for people, then an actual right to die means states are required to provide means for that.

Therefore, since as one accepts that people have a right to autonomy and so a choice to die, there is a strong case to be made that a society should in principle legalise assisted suicide. Yet it is possible to criticise Glover in places. For example, one could say that a person is not being in sound enough mind to determine that they want to die. While someone is not sound, to see possible future medical advances helping them, or picture a time when their pain ends through habituation. Similarly it ignores familial rights. What if a person's family wants them to live, or knows a person well enough to determine they are not completely sound? This presupposes that the only person in question is the individual and the right to die to be respected.

The Wedge Argument

A number of forms of this argument were presented in Section 2 from a historical perspective, from euthanasia practised in the past, and from a value-based perspective, from organ donation. People are more anxious about the overall effect on doctor-patient relationships. But as the Nazi's is not an effective comparison, especially when the discussion is around voluntary euthanasia in liberal Western democracies, the involuntary euthanasia in a historical context. Such worries are generated on the basis of a slide in moral values rather than the individual's right to die.

Philosophically, the wedge argument more specifically states in these cases, is that the right to die is being used to justify widespread non-voluntary or even involuntary active euthanasia.

There are a number of ways to address such a fear. The first is to ask why, when someone supports it, this link should be made in the first place. While there are some ethical objections, if someone voiced their support for non-voluntary euthanasia, there is nothing inconsistent with their support for the rights in individuals to suggest a society can adopt voluntary euthanasia and not non-voluntary.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



people can criticise the argument from examining euthanasia by the Nazi party, it is the differences in opinion between legalising forms of euthanasia are simply different. The fear of non-voluntary euthanasia as not fitting into a country's prevalent value system. Legislation can occur that allows one form but forbids the other. This could occur if requirements for consent and making sure any patient is fully aware of the consequences of their decision. Therefore, while there may be a fear of a slippery slope towards involuntary euthanasia, this is more an argument for careful legislation and not simply avoiding a practice. People have the potential to end their unnecessary and debilitating suffering.

The second argument is to simply argue that in some cases non-voluntary euthanasia is justified. There have been controversial cases made by Singer for euthanising severely disabled children, while living, and people with brain injury are unable to express that wish when needed. In many cases, the UK have in the past eventually switched off life-sustaining medical equipment, and this is passive euthanasia. One key example is Tony Bland, who in 1993 was the first ever to die in this way after suffering severe brain damage that left him in a persistent vegetative state.

Therefore, critics of the wedge argument can point out that if such forms of non-voluntary euthanasia are permitted, the idea of active non-voluntary euthanasia in cases where patient autonomy is not present at the present moment is less threatening so long as there is legal protection. In the Netherlands, where euthanasia has been legalised for over twenty years, there have been a number of reviews conducted in 1995, 2001, 2005 and 2010. The findings have been greatly poured over but the conclusion has been that no slippery slope has occurred. A 2009 study by Judith A C Rietjens found that the majority of physicians thought the euthanasia act improved legal certainty and reduced the number of terminating acts. One important thing to note however is that around sixty per cent of cases of euthanasia, with the remainder generally being cases where patient autonomy was not present, were decided by doctors and family members in turn making judgements. Many people would argue from this that the moral distinction between voluntary and non-voluntary euthanasia isn't always just a technical one. In medical circumstances, the latter may be permitted. The important thing, is that it is carefully regulated and monitored to prevent abuses of power.



When considering the wedge arguments, it is important to consider how evidence provided by examining from a strict idea of an intrinsic value of human life, then the legalisation of euthanasia might be a disagreeable enough result to justify if the quality of life is the main priority, small outlying cases of abuse of the law are outweighed by the greater benefits it provides. Therefore when taking into account past experience, how and to what extent they refute the wedge arguments in principle or in practice.

The Active/Passive Distinction

An interesting aspect of medical practice was noted in the previous section, specifically that it may be okay to turn off a comatose patient's life support in certain circumstances but not to actively cause that patient's death. This distinction was examined in the idea of acts versus omissions, where being a doctor simply respecting a patient's or family's wishes against taking the action of turning off life support directly. However, is this distinction really helpful?

In both cases the same result occurs and one can imagine a situation with a comatose patient where doctors judged they would no longer want to be alive, what plausible difference is there between turning off life support and giving them a cocktail of drugs? While some might feel the doctor in the first case, it is the doctor's duty to determine exactly where there is a difference in moral significance. In the second case, the doctor purposely takes steps they know will result in the death of another person. In the first case, a patient on morphine knowing it may kill them but that it will relieve their pain, it is the doctor's duty to ensure the doctor would not be fully aware of what they were doing. Therefore, in many cases the active/passive distinction within euthanasia is misleading. Good medical practice often involves times with passive euthanasia, but there arguably is still a large active component to it.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Euthanasia and Doctor-Patient Relationships

Considering the empirical evidence from the Netherlands, it is also possible to question whether euthanasia would irreparably harm doctor-patient relationships. Critics of voluntary euthanasia have concerns here, arguably it would be worse if vulnerable people felt as if their doctor's interests at heart and social attitudes changed such that illness or old age were viewed as a burden to be removed. Yet at the same time the argument can be made that such fears can be allayed by education. Outlawing voluntary euthanasia on grounds of protecting the doctor-patient relationship is one option and leaving it open for the possibility is another. As it is, currently over ninety people have travelled to the Netherlands seeking life-ending treatment and it is equally arguable that doctor-patient relationships in the UK cannot express their right to life within a particular medical system.

One trickier argument is that it is not necessarily about the legal barriers, but about the trust between doctor and patient. Patients might not be able to place their trust in doctors who they feel have a vested interest in their survival. Yet in a regulated system, it is possible to ask whether medical professionals are people with irrational interests. This can already be seen in other areas, where doctors refuse operations or blood transfusions, so what is the difference between an irrational doctor preserving life versus them helping someone end it? The latter might be open to question, certainly, but no doctor is perfect and beyond moral fears or trust in a doctor's intentions, it is more important to set up medical practice to best reinforce this trust. Some might object to certain practices, but equally others will simply argue that this is a fault in education. This is especially apparent in the previous criticism of the active/passive distinction. If passive euthanasia is known to be prevalent, why would active euthanasia harm doctor-patient relationships? Is there a difference in moral significance?

Can a Person Ever Make a Fully Competent Decision to End Their Own Life?

One further argument that can be made for legislating against voluntary euthanasia is that people are not fit to make an informed decision about their own death. If a person is wracked with pain, they may be unable to think rationally about alternatives or further treatment for their condition. If it can be agreed that a person can make a fully competent, voluntary and clear decision to die, it may very well be an immoral act to allow them to take their own life.

However, there are still difficulties with this thought. Some might argue that people should form an opinion prior to any form of terminal illness or extreme incapacitation, but it can equally be argued no one could reliably form an idea of their wish to die prior to these conditions occurring. 'Living wills' often do exist as legal instruments and so long as they can be regarded as authoritative in a court of law, they can be seen as evidence of people's true beliefs to a certain extent.

Discussion Point 35

Part of the difficulty in deciding on cases of euthanasia is whether someone is rational enough to make a decision to end their own life. If there can be no objective criteria to decide what counts as a rational decision, how can the emotive context play an important role? Discuss whether the potential emotion should influence decisions on euthanasia.

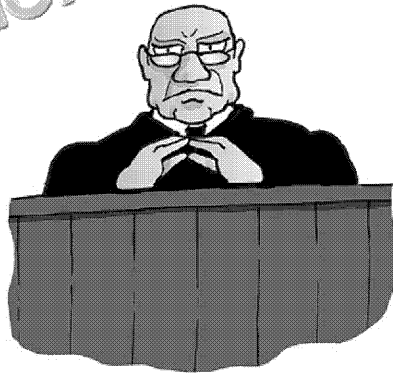
There are, however, good reasons for denying the autonomy of a suffering patient. It is not always happy to let someone make unhealthy or dangerous decisions, believing that to grant the same privilege to someone dying or in pain. To question the mental capacity of someone in such situations may be condescending in the minimum and may actively deny the patient's autonomy. Many critics of euthanasia argue could be lost if it were legalised. So even if critics of euthanasia are denied the rights from the consequences of legalised euthanasia, they arguably can appeal to their rights through their opposition to its practice.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Utilitarian Considerations

If the arguments from rights or potentialities are inconclusive, how can one weigh around euthanasia? One prominent way of examining the issue is to simply look at how effectively maximise happiness, or at least minimise suffering. While some may argue that utilitarianism is not the basis of morality, they are often at least the basis for law. A government that neglects the population receiving positive benefits is often seen as bad or neglectful in the least. If the legalisation of voluntary euthanasia should occur, it is then important to consider the responsibilities that a government may have versus its individual citizens.



The particularly forceful argument from utilitarian supporters of euthanasia's legalisation is the ending widespread suffering among those who are terminally ill or in severe pain, or peace of mind that might result from preventing it from occurring. This is far from impossible to accurately quantify or weigh up each side, but from the basic consideration on the whole is something that should be actively minimised to ensure happiness. While it is possible to identify a response to suffering in some cases, in religious considerations, then arguably when a person is on the brink of death, the brought by suffering is greatly outweighed by the negative impact on the person's

If we consider Glover's argument that a person in such a condition wishes suicide to suffering, then a value judgement about their own life. If we accept the validity of then despite lack of precision, the utilitarian argument for minimising suffering and happiness of a general population is considered to be important. There are critics that the rights of a patient or populace trump such concerns, but arguing that keeping voluntary euthanasia illegal becomes a difficult position to uphold. There is not only to consider the wedge argument in terms of negative consequences, but also equally a vital argument for proponents of euthanasia to point out the benefits of against the possible negative implications of it.



**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



Taking It Further (Extension Material)

5. Wider Issues for Religious Belief

Most Christian denominations have long been opposed to the legalisation of voluntary euthanasia or assisted suicide. For example, a general synod for the Church of England (CoE) voted in July 2005 292 in favour against the bill by human rights lawyer Lord Joffe to legalise assisted suicide. While in statements the CoE has acknowledged the compassionate reasons behind people seeking to legalise euthanasia, they largely argue the aims of euthanasia are better achieved by other forms of palliative care. Other denominations such as the Catholic Church have also spoken out against the legalisation of euthanasia, both from a religious perspective and also from worries about the possible risk of overwhelming negative consequences should legalisation occur. But does religion still hold an important role within the arguments around voluntary euthanasia and assisted suicide?

It was noted previously that Singer points towards a change in emphasis in society from sanctity of life arguments to quality of life arguments and it can be argued that Christianity is a major factor behind the belief in the sacredness of all life in the Western World. If life is a gift from God and ultimately also part of God's plan and should not be artificially ended before its natural conclusion, such ideas of artificiality and naturalness are complicated by the arrival of modern medicine. Until not so long ago many people died from ordinary infections that are now treatable, yet such deaths were considered natural. Many have argued that such distinctions, unless one advocates the possibility of a life after death, are meaningless with modern technological advances.

Yet if voluntary euthanasia was legalised in a widespread fashion across the Western world, it would hold great consequences for society, even if as just a marker for the increased secularisation of the West. At the very least, it would be a fulfilment of Singer's prediction that the traditional sanctity of life argument is becoming irrelevant when considering the moral functioning of modern society.

6. Wider Issues for Ethics

Within the discussion around the legalisation of voluntary euthanasia there are many ethical dilemmas and conundrums. For example, the legalisation of euthanasia in medical ethics might blur the active/passive distinction which is not a strong one and that the doctrine of double effect is often used to justify much of the modern medical practice around those who are terminally ill. Current acceptance of passive euthanasia in the UK means that doctors can effectively avoid moral responsibility when allowing a patient to die. However, if active euthanasia were legalised, it would argue this gives plausibility to the view that doctors have been actively euthanising patients for years and are even simply guilty of bad medicine.

While it may not be necessary entirely to place that moral responsibility upon the doctor, the current pre-existing legal system that values a certain form of medical care, the legalisation of euthanasia would place an even greater moral burden on doctors such that the ethical dilemma of how to accommodate such a responsibility. While the BMA has warned against such a move, it is simply the duty of doctors to care for people if voluntary euthanasia is legalised will have to be considered. What are the surrounding ethical issues? What is the value of life, suffering and to what extent a person's rights trump a person's wishes? If a person wants to die but their doctor doesn't think the grounds are strong enough, should the doctor morally defer to? Unless there is a clear moral understanding of each person's rights, the answer might not be a perfect answer.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Similarly ideas about the importance of life and suffering will have to be weighed against the duty of care we have to people in advanced illness or old age. There are a host of issues that naturally need to be clarified if voluntary euthanasia were legalised, just as the moral implications are established upon its legalisation. While it is possible to craft the argument from a utilitarian perspective that legalising voluntary euthanasia would bring more happiness, the grounds for such a claim need to be established beyond simply giving people the informed ability to choose their circumstances. For example, would the happiness a family gains from spending time with a loved one until their death outweigh the individual suffering a person must face?

One particular example is whether to allow passive euthanasia for the 'incurably ill' as opposed to the former, the individual claims that there is a longer time to live and the greater the suffering. If a person did request to die as incurably ill but then a cure was found, it would certainly be a net loss of happiness. Whilst this might be a prediction beyond what is certain, it certainly is a possibility to be aware of and gives rise to the question of the moral responsibility to be aware of the possible moral outcomes of each case of euthanasia. Rights or decisions are taken into account.

Lastly, such philosophical issues may result in a certain calming of people's worries, which is briefly looked at in the next section, but how human beings morally approach death may change with legalisation of voluntary euthanasia. For example, in the case where a person is given an extra six months of life if they had not requested euthanasia, there may be a suspension of the moral distinction between right and wrong from those parts of our moral outlook that intrinsically view death as a moral issue. In certain situations and as such a more neutral moral outlook might be developed. While this may be part of viewing life in terms of quality, the moral status of death will possibly lead to a suspension, if not outright removal of sanctity of life attitudes that currently effectively work in modern society.

7. Wider Issues for Perception and Experience

While debate of the legalisation of euthanasia is often focused around the moral implications, the experiences suffering a person has leading up to death form an important part of the discussion. Within existing philosophy there is often a discussion on authentic and inauthentic death, that is how our experience of others dying constrains our free attitude towards death. Philosophers such as Martin Heidegger have pointed out that death itself cannot be viewed as a natural event, in nature it is the extinguishing of all possibilities and experience and as such what is often perceived as death is actually just one's perception of others dying and the anxieties attached to this, not the reality of death itself.

However, in cases of euthanasia, where a person wishes to die, this fear or perception of death is not the same. The BMA would argue that legalisation of voluntary euthanasia would lead to a shift in attitudes towards healthcare as primarily an institution to preserve life, it is equally possible that allowing on some grounds for voluntary euthanasia to occur would allow more authentic experiences of death to be part of our ordinary lives. Recognising that death, in the context of assisted suicide or more, is something that is not always a potential loss may reduce the fear and perceptions of death and suffering into a more nuanced understanding of the value of life.

This can be seen to be speculation, but it is important to note that the debate around euthanasia is not just because of the individual rights of patients but because of the collective effect of people's perceptions of death on human life. For many the immediate reaction to the seeming intention to make death more or sacred is that any expectation of death is inherently tied to a sense of loss. Legalisation of voluntary euthanasia would only help to shed inauthenticity from death, thereby allowing consideration about improving the quality of life for those facing death.

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**





Form and Justify an Argument

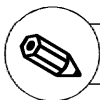
Throughout this section arguments presented by Wilcockson both for and against euthanasia have been presented, and their various flaws have been analysed. It is whether you believe them to be persuasive or accurate. In particular consider:

- Why do traditional proponents of the concept of the sanctity of life oppose euthanasia?
- Has there been a shift towards greater emphasis on the quality of life over sanctity?
- Can a effective distinction be made between active and passive euthanasia? medical knowledge and care in doctors' ethics make this distinction meaningful?
- Can the doctrine of double effect ever be justified in cases of euthanasia?
- To what means should a doctor seek to preserve a patient's life? Where do extraordinary means?
- Can a patient ever make a truly informed decision about dying? Is this a voluntary euthanasia should be legalised?
- Is there evidence that legalising euthanasia could lead to a slippery slope? or simply speculation based upon fears about human nature and historical abuse?
- To what extent is it important to ensure healthy doctor-patient relationships? individual's potential right to die?
- Can a utilitarian consideration of the issues surrounding euthanasia ever be regarding legalisation?

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**





Activities

Activity 1

Below is a table summarising the major points of Wilcockson's discussion within 'Euthanasia and Doctor's Dilemmas'. Read through the left-hand column and using your own interpretation of the anthology ideas you have, fill in the blank sections of the table.

'Euthanasia and Doctor's Dilemmas' – Michael Wilcockson	
Wilcockson notes:	Arguments
Traditional sanctity of life arguments that opposed euthanasia as a way to arguments focused more on a patient's quality of life.	
<p>Passive euthanasia is often thought of as morally acceptable from a number of philosophical principles.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. There is a difference between an act and omission in passive euthanasia. 2. The doctrine of double effect allows euthanasia as an unintended bad effect of a greater moral good. 3. There is a difference between killing someone and not taking extraordinary means to save their life. 	
Some people identify in the idea of patient autonomy that if one has the right-to-die then voluntary euthanasia should be legalised.	
Others argue that legalising euthanasia would have irreversible effects on the way hospitals conduct their care and will overall reduce patient autonomy.	
Some critics of euthanasia cite the wedge argument and that legalisation would or potentially could bring about severely unwanted consequences.	
Others argue that pre-existing models of legalised voluntary euthanasia in countries such as the Netherlands demonstrate that the wedge argument is based on little evidence and not a strong argument when patient happiness and welfare is at stake.	
<p>Conclusion: There are numerous points looking at the arguments for and against euthanasia that are greatly influenced by whether one believes the quality or sanctity of life as important.</p>	

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Activity 2

Research and discuss the case of Terri Schiavo, an important right-to-die legal case between 1998 and 2005. For fifteen years she was in an irreversible persistent vegetative state. Michael Schiavo argued that her feeding tube should be taken out in 1998, contrary to her husband's wishes for her to be kept alive.

In particular, in the absence of a living will, her husband and numerous witnesses testified that she wished to be kept alive artificially, while her parents insisted that their Catholic faith meant any attempt at what could be seen as euthanasia. Over fifteen years her feeding tube was only to be reinserted when appeals and court orders for her interventions overturned any decision to remove it.

In 2007, two years after her feeding tube had been removed, the head of the United States Conference of Catholic Bishops posed a number of challenging questions to the Congregation of the Doctrine of the Church responsible for defending and communicating church doctrine.

The first question was about whether artificially giving food to a patient in a persistent vegetative state was an obligatory act. The Congregation argued yes and regarded it as still a proportionate means of preserving a person's life.

The second was whether it was morally acceptable to discontinue feeding a person in a persistent vegetative state and to this the Congregation argued no as it was infringing on a person's human dignity. The Church argued that due proportionate care, which includes artificial feeding, must be provided.

In groups or pairs, one side take the position of Michael Schiavo in court, building a case for her right to die and why continuing to feed her does not fit into wider utilitarian and autonomy arguments.

The other side take the position of Terri's family and the Catholic Church, arguing why human dignity, rights and faith should take priority over other considerations.

Allow three rounds of presenting arguments and evidence, one side attempting to win the case and the other well as putting forward their own before deciding as a group which side had the stronger case.



**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**





Practice Exam Questions

Answer the following questions giving reference to the passage below:

In practice, though, the law has to take into account a general moral feeling and once legislation takes place, in the mind of many, it has been to give tacit approval. Bernard Williams has described this as the 'slippery slope' effect. Others more fearful of the slope or the thin end of the wedge, for instance, voluntary euthanasia were to be legalised would inevitably encourage other forms of illicit killing. The British Medical Association considers euthanasia illegal and would not become law:

Doctors have a duty to try to provide patients with a peaceful and dignified death. The BMA considers it contrary to the doctor's role deliberately to kill patients, even in the view, liberalising the law on euthanasia would herald a serious and incalculable decline in the standards of medical ethics.

- Outline and clarify the different ideas presented in this passage about the argument.
- Analyse the different implications of this passage for quality of life arguments about voluntary euthanasia.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED





Mark Scheme

Level	Descriptor
Level 1	There is limited knowledge, terminology and technical language, often or inappropriately. Only a surface level knowledge of important religious concepts is displayed and religious ideas and beliefs addressed are often not always correct, or sufficiently connected to the extract.
Level 2	There is a moderate amount of knowledge, terminology and technical language presented, although with a few mistakes. A thorough knowledge and understanding of religious beliefs is displayed but with room for further development. Religious ideas and beliefs addressed are of a limited variety, but generally correct and connected to the extract.
Level 3	There is a broad amount of knowledge, terminology and technical language and rigorously presented throughout an appropriate and justified response to the question. A thorough and fully developed knowledge and comprehensive understanding of religious beliefs and concepts is displayed. Religious ideas and beliefs are of a wide variety, correct and pertinently connected to the extract.

Question No.	Indicative Content (10 marks AO1)
a)	<p>AO1 will be used by candidates to demonstrate knowledge and understanding of specialist language and terminology, when responding to the question.</p> <p>Candidates may refer to the following:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• The wedge argument stipulates that legalising (generally viewed as a series of unintended and anticipated consequences that may lead to the legalisation of abortion to show how permitting such practice could lead to widespread abuse.• Others such as the BMA argue it will lead to erosion of trust in the medical profession and belief in many patients that doctors are there to care for the patient.• This could also lead to the marginalisation of the sick and disabled, and pressure on them to justify their use of resources in society.• This is supported by the idea that if something is legalised, it becomes normalised, and that its practice may be encouraged, which opponents of abortion would oppose.

INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



INSPECTION COPY



Level	Descriptor
Level 1	There is a very limited knowledge, terminology and technical language, often used inaccurately or inappropriately. Some topics and details are chosen with rudimentary links made between a small variety of aspects of the question. Any criticisms or judgements are only substantiated by general or non-specific evidence.
Level 2	There is a limited amount of knowledge, terminology and technical language, which is well presented, although with some mistakes. Relevant topics and details are deconstructed and links are made between a small variety of aspects of the question. Criticisms and judgements of a few aspects are made but with little substantiated or reasoned evaluation of supporting evidence.
Level 3	There is a moderate amount of knowledge, terminology and technical language, which is generally well presented, although with some mistakes. Relevant topics and details are deconstructed with a basic progression of reasoned arguments throughout the answer. Links are made between a lot of the aspects of the question. Criticisms and judgements of a few aspects are made with an attempt at substantiation by a reasoned evaluation of supporting evidence.
Level 4	A broad amount of knowledge, terminology and technical language is well presented with few mistakes. Relevant topics and details are deconstructed with rational and logical progressions of reasoned arguments developed throughout the answer. Links are made between a broad variety of the aspects of the question. Criticisms and judgements are made of almost all of the aspects of the question and are substantiated by a reasoned evaluation of some supporting evidence.
Level 5	A broad amount of knowledge, terminology and technical language is well presented, correctly and rigorously, throughout a justified response. Relevant topics and details are critically deconstructed with rational and logical progressions of reasoned arguments strongly developed. Criticisms, judgements and links are made of/between all aspects of the question and completely substantiated by a thorough and reasoned evaluation of supporting evidence.

INSPECTION COPY



INSPECTION COPY

**COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED**



INSPECTION COPY



Question No.	Indicative Content (5 marks AO1, 15 marks AO2)
b)	<p>AO1 will be used by candidates to underpin their analysis and evaluation. They will be required to demonstrate knowledge and understanding using specific terminology when responding to the question, and in the meeting AO2 described below.</p> <p>Candidates may refer to the following in relation to AO1.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • More secular perspectives on euthanasia often tend to emphasise the quality of life over sanctity of life, such that voluntary euthanasia is acceptable for those who are in great suffering with no chance of recovery. • Often quality of life can be measured by external factors such that ultimate pleasure or happiness is the important good, can argue that there would be greater happiness if voluntary euthanasia were legalised. <p>Candidates may refer to the following in relation to AO2.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The slippery slope argument is a common rebuttal to utilitarian arguments. It is argued forward that there is such a risk, or likelihood, of great harm from legalising euthanasia that it should remain forbidden. • Medical institutions such as the BMA argue that legalising voluntary euthanasia would lead to harm to ordinary people's quality of life through the erosion of trust between doctors and patients. One can argue this harm is greater than the benefit of allowing terminally ill individuals to end their lives. • Can point to the models of legal euthanasia in places such as the Netherlands to show how quality of life can remain the same or improve with legalising euthanasia. • It can be argued that there is an argument that maintaining individual autonomy and the right to die are more important than basic discussions of the quality of life. Some critics might contend euthanasia should be legalised regardless of whether people are comfortable with it being part of the fabric of modern day medicine. • Legalising euthanasia for some might set a legal precedent for its extension to marginalisation of the sick and the elderly, and a reduction in their quality of life. One can argue that they are forced to consider their lives as a burden. • Can question whether quality of life will be improved by allowing active euthanasia. The distinction between active/passive is false when both involve the same end goal. • The slippery slope argument may prevent abuse. A society where people can control their own bodies or lives is one that may be repressive for some. • Responsibilities of law and society may override individual cases of euthanasia. If a greater good is lost by allowing rights to the few, many would argue the consequence simply to improve a few people's lives. • Difficulty of seeing into the future. As hospice care improves, it is in question whether quality of life would increase compared to allowing a person to die.

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Glossary



Active Euthanasia	The ending of someone's life through a direct, physical act or overdose of drugs/painkillers.
Passive Euthanasia	The ending of someone's life through omission, for example withholding treatment.
Involuntary Euthanasia	Where a person is euthanised without informed consent from the patient.
Non-voluntary Euthanasia	Where a person unable to give explicit consent, from illness or mental development, is euthanised.
Voluntary Euthanasia	Where a person is euthanised with their informed consent.
Sanctity of Life	The belief that all life has an inherent value or sacredness that should not be taken away by other human beings.
Quality of Life	The comfort and welfare experienced by people living their lives.
Doctrine of Double Effect	The philosophical idea that it is permissible to allow a serious side effect so long as one intends a greater good effect.
Autonomy	The ability for humans to act freely of their own will and knowledge.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



Answers to Discussion Points

29. **Secular Sanctity of Life Arguments** – Some might present a Kantian-type argument. If their life is intrinsically valuable then a common agreement might be made in favour of it. Students can look up Consistent Life Ethic movements and the supporting secular groups.
30. **Modern Hippocratic Oath** – Students can look up the modern Hippocratic Oath, often not include the famous line 'Neither will I administer a poison to anybody when asked to do so'. Rather it affirms only a commitment to care for the sick. It may be possible to argue that 'benefits' the sick the more in the given situation.
31. **Pain Relief and the Double Effect** – It can well be argued that the person acting in self-defence will kill their attacker, whereas the doctor would be in the knowledge that they are indeed killing a patient. However, in the self-defence case there are nuances to explore, if someone attacks you with their fists and in defence you shoot them through the head, that may be immoral to some.
32. **Legalisation of Suicide** – This depends perhaps on the distinction between decriminalisation and legalisation. The former tacitly argues something is forbidden whereas the latter might endorse it in some circumstances. Regarding the right to one's own body, if measured by consequences alone, this divides opinion on the prosecution of the dead either way.
33. **Legalisation and Permission** – Some would see abortion in the UK as an example of the latter being routinely exploited. However this may simply be due to the growing acknowledgement of the need for health in pregnant women and a greater emphasis on quality of life. An example of the former is the legalisation of cannabis in some US states, with studies showing that overall consumption has decreased.
34. **Kant and Euthanasia** – Kant thought suicide was strictly wrong, if one is supposed to be using a human being as a means to a more agreeable end, then Kant's categorical imperative does not necessarily rule out euthanasia if, say, in the case of the categorical imperative, everyone's practice of euthanasia in conditions of extreme suffering is correct. Furthermore, if one accepts that suicide/euthanasia is a means to an end, then it is a mere means as Kant argues.
35. **Emotional State and Euthanasia** – Discussion of this issue hinges on to what extent one can rely on the ability to give consent in the midst of such experiences people might argue the ability to give consent can be difficult. One might argue there can be rational assent towards anything separate from one's emotional state. It may be necessary to find some philosophical and psychological method to determine objective criteria. One might argue that an emotional state may be ignoring the possibility of future happiness or welfare in their current conditions could be reliably set out, others might argue it is impossible to ever guarantee the outcomes of these decisions.

INSPECTION COPY

COPYRIGHT
PROTECTED



INSPECTION COPY

