Unfortunately this

Consequentialism is a class of moral theories which basically hold that an morally right if the consequences of that action are more favourable than unfavourable. This means that correct moral behaviour is solely determined by a kind of 'costbenefit' analysis of consequence. That is a very general view, and individual consequentialist theories are more precisely formed than this vague principle. The three main divisions of theory are as follows : ethical egoism, where an action is morally right if the consequences of the action are more favourable than unfavourable only to the agent performing the action; ethical altruism, where an action is morally right if the consequences of the action are more favourable than unfavourable to everyone except the agent; finally utilitarianism, where an action is morally right if the consequences of the action are more favourable than unfavourable to everyone. Though this is a brief summary of both ethical egoism and altruism, we are mainly concerned with utilitarianism here and the other forms of consequentialism shall rest at this point, apart from recognising that utilitarianism seems to hold the middle ground between these two theories. As fundamental flaws have been found in both egoism and altruism, it would be hoped that utilitarianism, as a

The case for utilitarianism is stated by Mill in his Utilitarianism, and he gives the highest

may not indeed be the case, as utilitarianism appears to have its own flaws.

normative principle as 'actions are right in proportion as they tend to promote happiness; wrong

as they tend to produce the reverse of happiness.' He refers to this as the principle of utility, as $\parbox{\ensuremath{\square}}$

compromise between the two, will make some sense of morality and action.

 did his predecessors Hume and Bentham. Many proponents of utilitarianism call upon human

benevolence against the seeming hard-heartedness of those who reject it. They claim that the

theory offers benefit to all, as the object is to promote happiness, with such an aim it seems that

utilitarianism must be good for mankind. Smart $\,$ speaks of act-utilitarianism and $\,$ rule-

utilitarianism, and defines these as follows : 'act-utilitarianism is the view that the rightness or

wrongness of an action is to be judged by the consequences, good or bad, of the action itself.

Rule-utilitarianism is the view that the rightness or wrongness of an action is to be judged by the

goodness and badness of the consequences of a rule that everyone should perform the action in

like circumstances.' Other commentators have noted that rule-utilitarianism can be incorporated

into act-utilitarianism when the latter has been properly considered, and the differences between

the two do not overtly affect utilitarian theory. Smart also notes the idea of negative

utilitarianism, the theory that instead of maximising general happiness, one ought to minimise

suffering. He suggests that this is interesting in that the theory can be seen as a 'subordinate rule

of thumb', but otherwise it makes utilitarian theory unclear as it would be harder to see which ills

to lessen than it would be merely to promote general happiness.

Utilitarianism is an attractive theory, mainly due to its promotion of happiness, to which

no caring human would object. There are, however, a number of problems to be considered

before a final judgement can be made, and the first of these concerns the definition of

utilitarianism itself. The question of happiness has not escaped the notice of utilitarians, the

definition above does not adequately explain what it is we ought to be striving for when we try

to maximise human 'happiness'. Smart gives three positions, as represented by Bentham, Mill

and Moore. Bentham follows the hedonistic theory that happiness is pleasure, and that the $\ensuremath{\mathsf{I}}$

pleasures of all activities are more or less equal, while Mill believes that there are higher and

lower pleasures, and Moore suggests that some things, such as academic research, have

intrinsic value apart from pleasure. Smart is right in thinking that humans have an interest in

intellectual as well as sensual pursuits, and a purely hedonistic view is surely too simplistic.

Though it is true that humans enjoy pleasurable pursuits, this does not suggest that that is all

humans wish for in their lives. Smart suggests that we were made 'for higher things', and that

had it not been for our eagerness to pursue subjects on their intellectual merit alone, the human

race would not be as it is today.

The concept of happiness is still not clear, however, as it must be shown to be different

from enjoyment. The main difference must be that happiness is a long term concept, whereas $\$

enjoyment is momentary, but it is still hard to define what true happiness really is. This was the

problem which King Croesus of Lydia presented to Solon, the legendary Athenian law-giver.

Croesus expected that Solon when asked would name the king as the happiest man in

accordance with his immense wealth and good fortune, and was most disappointed when Solon

did not name him as the most, or even the second most happy individual. In Solon's opinion

Croesus had been lucky so far in his life, and the happiness of a man could only be judged when

he is dead, 'until he is dead, keep the word 'happy' in reserve. Till then, he is not happy, but

only lucky...look to the end, no matter what it is you are considering. Often enough God gives

man a glimpse of happiness, and then utterly ruins him. $^{\prime}$ Since is so difficult to decide what

happiness is, utilitarianism suffers the problem of only having a vague guiding force, we are told

to maximise happiness, but we are unclear as to what this exactly means. As shown above,

happiness means more than physical well-being or pleasure, so it is hard to know what to do for the best.

The reliance on analysis of consequence may also prove to be a handicap for the $% \left(1\right) =\left(1\right) +\left(1\right) +\left($

utilitarian. No one can predict the future, and it is not clear how much the utilitarian is expected

to worry about consequences hereafter, or whether only the direct consequences of an agent's $\frac{1}{2} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac$

action are important. It is also unclear whether an agent can be responsible for a further agent's

action who has been influenced by the first. Quite often in real life the consequences of an action

cannot be seen, or the agent may have made a mistake leading to a disastrous final outcome.

The utilitarian does not seem to allow for this eventuality. Also it is not clear whether one ought

to consider whether an apparently benevolent action may aversely affect universal happiness -

Smart gives the example of a man saving Hitler from drowning in 1938, obviously had he been

left to die many of the atrocities of the twentieth century would not have been committed. It

does not seem fair, however, to blame the heroic rescuer for not being able to see such future

consequences of his action. This is why utilitarianism usually speaks of 'direct' consequences,

but still this is not entirely convincing, as there are times when decisions must be made which

affect more than the immediate future.

The most unacceptable facet of utilitarianism has always been the rigid insistence on the $\,$

happiness of the majority over that of the minority. While in principle this does not seem to be

such a terrible thing, when more closely examined utilitarianism in practice becomes impossible

for many people to countenance. Examples have been given - 'Jim and the Indians' for instance

- which show that utilitarian principles may sometimes call upon an agent to commit horrific

deeds in the name of benefit to the majority. Utilitarianism demands that, if faced with a situation

where one must choose between personally murdering one man to free others or watching a

group be killed, the utilitarian choice would be to kill one man. This is utterly untenable for the

majority of people, though the example given may, in certain situations, be an option to be

considered, but utilitarian principles go yet further. Utilitarianism is a theory concerned with

consequence, but following this to its legitimate end, to maximise the general happiness, one

ought to act now to prevent future disaster. There seems to be no problem with this, but after $\ensuremath{\mathcal{C}}$

consideration this principle allows for the murder of the innocent now if that would be in the

general majority interest in the future. This is utterly unacceptable for most, and refusal to act in

such a way can only be answered by accusations of 'self-indulgence' from utilitarians.

Appeals to integrity do not seem to have much effect on utilitarians either, and the $\$

theory does not appear to follow generally held ideas of justice. Mill saw the concept of justice

as the strongest attack on utilitarianism, and felt that if he could explain the concept of justice in

terms of utility, then that would answer the main non-consequentialist argument against

utilitarianism. He presents two arguments concerning justice, firstly that all moral elements in the $\$

notion of justice are dependent on social utility. He points out that the two main components of

justice are punishment and the idea of rights violations, and so argues that punishment is

composed of vengeance and social sympathy, and that rights are claims we have on society to

protect us. In both cases Mill argues that such components reduce down to social utility. Mill's

second argument suggests that as justice is rather ambiguous, then it cannot be as foundational

as his opponents would contend. He points to the existence of dispute in matters of justice $\ \ \,$

which can only be resolved with appeal to utility. Mill then concludes that though justice is a

genuine concept, it must be based on utility. This is still not convincing enough in cases where

the happiness of the majority depends on the extermination or maltreatment of a minority group.

Most people would not regard such an action as just, but it is in accordance with utilitarian principle.

The insistence of utilitarianism that the happiness of the majority must be considered to

be the ultimate aim of action ignores the 'rights' of the minority, and indeed could be seen as

denying them rights altogether. This way of behaving to minority groups is not generally

accepted in our 'civilised' modern world, but this has not always been so, and even now, within

living memory, theories of majority right over minority have resulted in mass murder, torture and

oppression. As such actions are condemned by those who live in liberal societies, it is not clear

who is right, or whether those who condemn can do so without fear of reprisal. Fear of

punishment for one's views by the current regime has not always prevented people from

speaking out in opposition to such practices though, so it would appear that, in general, actions

which result in the suffering of the minority for the sake of the majority are not right by human instinct.

The necessity to adopt policies of extreme action for the greater good may seem to be

something which would only happen on rare occasions, utilitarianism taken to its logical end

would appear to be a dangerous principle to adopt, setting worrying precedent for the future. If

utilitarianism is correct, then human instincts of equality and justice must be wrong, despite Mill's

efforts to associate justice with utility. The theory, though immediately attractive, can be seen to

have a number of flaws which apart from being problematic present mankind with situations

which most would not accept as right, and in extreme cases would horrify most people. The

accusation of utilitarians of 'hard-heartedness' does not ring true when it is considered that

utilitarianism allows for atrocities to be committed with the only justification needed as the agent $\ensuremath{\mathsf{S}}$

believes that it is for the promotion of majority happiness. Utilitarianism does not give adequate

guidance in individual cases and tends towards a 'tyranny of the majority', failing to protect

minorities. The whole concept of happiness is difficult to gauge, and as this is the only aim of the

utilitarian, this must present terrible difficulties for the agent, leaving plenty of room for error.

Lastly, the idea of utilitarianism as a universal principle is personally repellent, and as it has never

been accepted by all, it can only be hoped that it never will be.

Smart in JJC Smart and B Williams Utilitarianism : For and Against (1973) Herodotus Historiae 1.32

Williams in JJC Smart and B Williams Utilitarianism : For and Against, and M Hollis' answer Jim and the

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