THE ETHICAL SIGNIFICANCE OF PLEASURE, FEELING, AND HAPPINESS IN MODERN NON-HEDONISTIC SYSTEMS

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WILLIAM KELLEY WRIGHT

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The University of Chicago POUNDED BY JOHN D. NOCKEPELLER

THE ETHICAL SIGNIFICANCE OF PLEASURE, FEELING, AND HAPPINESS IN MODERN NON-HEDONISTIC SYSTEMS

A DISSERTATION

Submitted to the faculty of the graduate school of arts and literature in candidacy for the degree of doctor of philosophy

(DEPARTMENT OF PHILOSOPHY)

BY
WILLIAM KELLEY WRIGHT



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TABLE OF CONTENTS

	70	1,95	522	30.77	20		200	9400		5								PAGE
I.	Introduction	•	¥		3 0	•0	•	(i)	(ii)	÷	٠		(1)	į.	٠	80	8	7
II.	THE PERFECTIONISTS	1	23	2		i i	i i	Ŷ	•	ं	35	٠	20				Ş	9
	A. Descartes .		***	*00			100		200		.55	80	**	÷.	:: <u>:</u> ::::	11.0	2.5	13
	B Malebranche		**	*::	•		ov. oveno			96	2.0	71	*0		137	147	32	17
	c. Spinoza			711				10		•			+	71		ŀ		20
	D. Leibniz							100		٠	÷					Ž.	7	23
	E. Wolff			2.	30		1	20	•	•	•			ì				26
III.	THE BRITISH NON-H	ED	ONI	STS	ĕ	e-s			æ		*:	90	**		90.00) i e	214	30
	A Attempts to Sav	e l	Mα	rali	tv	bv	W	ide	nir	U	the	C	on.	cet	otio	n	of	
	Pleasure																	33
	A. Shaftesbury	- 20	-80	200	200	19500		222	22	12	/90	250	200	40			55	33
	B. Hutcheson .	100	150	•00	10	9986		39		900	•	300	888	583		308	200	35
	c. Hartley	- 200	7.00	253	- 50		93	-63	335	88	223	33	335	88		e .	88	38
	D. Hume	33	(8)	- 5	000	10 G			22	8	99	8	-	*	120	9	48	40
	E. Adam Smith		- 88	10	쁶		ij.		12		8	ä	뱵	3			ä	42
	 B. Systems Revealing and Pleasure, and 	ľa	Gr	adı	иl	Re	pu	dia	tion	0	f P	ca	ur		8 E	xcl	u-	
	sive Motive	36	¥								(2)	4	*	•			•	43
	A. Butler		•			63			8	٠	$\langle \bullet \rangle$	٠	*:				•	43
	B. Price			•					0	•	•	٠	98	•	٠	0	ġ.	45
	c. Reid									e.	•	9	93		٠			47
	D. Dugald Stewa	ırt	*	100	*	•	9	335	ð.	*	35	*:	*3	٠	٠	1	85	48
	E. Thomas Brow			•			13	1	85	30	32	25	200	•	•	SI.		49
	r. Later Intuitio	nis	ts	•		i.	÷	8	S		•	80	* [•		į.	-5	51
IV.	MODIFIED PERFECTION	NIS	M	•		9			×	×	•	*	•33					53
	A. Mendelssohn	43	¥2			4	24		93	8	23	80	-00				32	53
	B. Tetens and S	chi	nic	lt			ŝ.	1	3			\$ 5	6	٠	٠	÷		55
V.	KANT				ä	95 0.4	1			į.			200 400	0			72	57
100	A The Fooler De	tio	nal	isti	c P	eri	od	٥.	000		-00		900			019	00	57
50	B. The Period	of 1	Eng	lish	ı	nfl	en	ce	28	*	**	30	50	100		OCT.	15	58
	c. From the In	auo	יתוווי	al I	Die	ser.	tati	op	to	+1	ъ	Cri	tio	ue	of	Pri	re	30
	Reason			71					়	਼ੌ			7					60
	D The Ethical	Syst	em	in	ite	F	na	F	om	,			8				100	64
	L LL LINGS	,,00		-	440	-				-		•						~4

TABLE OF CONTENTS

		L NINET																	
	٠.	Fichte a	ш	-	ER	CI.		3	*	.50	*						•	*	7.
	В.	Schopen	hsı	ær	60	et.	12	200	(2)	**	*0	410	100	 201	100	0.5	.00	90	79
	C.	Herbart		•								*1						9	81
	D.	Herbart Lotze												4		1			8
20	E.	Green			1		2								6		2	٠	8
	F.	Nietzsch	e																80

I. INTRODUCTION

During the Middle Ages such a question as what significance should be attributed to pleasure in a moral system could hardly have arisen. We may distinguish a kind of feeling and happiness in the ecstasy of the Mystics; but pleasure in the modern sense of the term could hardly have been regarded as of much moral value, even if it were not reprobated as indissolubly bound up with the world, the flesh, and the devil.

In modern times, however, the situation has been quite different. A considerable proportion of the leading ethical systems have frankly made pleasure the necessary motive to moral action, and many also have gone so far as to make it also the criterion of moral values, and to declare that no action is of moral significance except so far as it furnishes pleasure to a sentient being. In addition to the ethical writers who thus are to be classed as hedonists, there is another large class of writers who, while refusing to make pleasure the standard of morality, nevertheless seem aware that it is too prominent a feature of our conscious life, and too intimately connected with the springs to action, not to possess some significance.

It is with this second class of writers that we have to do here, and it will be the effort of this dissertation to show that pleasure—and, as arising out of pleasure and connected with it, feeling and happiness—do serve a position of some importance in their thought, to a much larger degree than perhaps is generally understood. While, naturally enough, most non-hedonistic writers discourse at greater length against pleasure and happiness in the way that they are employed by the hedonists, than they do in the positive employment of them in their own systems, nevertheless they do make use of them in a very explicit way, and to a considerable extent. In other cases one is able to detect a large implicit recognition of feeling and happiness as integral features of moral action.

The non-hedonistic writers here to be considered fall into three principal groups: (1) the rationalistic perfectionists; (2) the British moral sense writers, and their intuitionist successors; (3) Kant, and some of the idealists who have followed him.

The ethical conceptions of the perfectionist school were derived by its founder, Descartes, largely from ancient sources—Aristotle, the Stoics, and the Epicureans all furnishing contributions. These contributions were not simply stuck together into a crude eclecticism, but molded into an integral system. Self-realization, under the modified form of perfection, became the moral ideal, virtue was the practice of this morality, pleasure was the consciousness of successful progress in its attainment, and happiness was the final reward associated with its achievement. For a time this combination seemed to work with entire satisfaction; but later a growing sense of a larger moral content, upon the one hand, and the narrowing of the content which could be included within the conception of perfection, upon the other, forced a divergence that could not be overcome. Pleasure, perfection, and duty no longer could be regarded as coincident.

Among the British writers the development was similar, but more rapid. Their observation was not limited to the use of a formal conception and a mathematical method. Shaftesbury laid rather more emphasis upon the feeling side of perfection than Descartes had done; and the greater attention to the feeling side of morality which was given by his successors soon disclosed a serious divergence between its demands and those of duty. At first the attempt was made to overcome this by widening the conception of pleasure so as to include the pleasures of the moral sense, and of sympathy; but after Butler the coincidence was usually not regarded as immediate, and arguments were devised to minimize the divergence as much as possible, and postulate an ultimate reconciliation in a future life.

Kant inherited from his perfectionist predecessors the desire for a rational principle of morality, while at the same time his predecessors in England awakened him to the prominence of pleasure and feeling in action, and to their worth as moral content. After failing to find a rational principle in pleasure on account of its contingent and empirical nature. he was forced to abandon its employment as a moral criterion, but he continued to allot to it such a part of the ground which it had previously occupied in his thought as more important claims did not preclude. The successors of Kant occupied various attitudes. Fichte, Hegel, and T. H. Green continued to regard pleasure as contingent and empirical, but still as possessing certain functional significance in moral action. Schopenhauer derived pessimistic conclusions from the failure to find adequate rational principles in pleasure. Schopenhauer, Herbart, and Lotze discovered a significance for morals in the pleasures of æsthetic contemplation. Last of all, Nietzsche found a certain functional significance in pleasure, as representing a primitive form of moral judgment.

II. THE PERFECTIONISTS

PLEASURE, FEELING, AND HAPPINESS DEFINED IN TERMS OF PERFECTION

The men of the Renaissance were in search of a wider, fuller life. They wished to enjoy all of the good things of this world. Pleasure, of course, seemed to be one of these good things, and so it had to be related in some way to the highest good. They also wished to avail themselves of all the best things in ancient philosophy. Descartes accordingly snatched upon the Aristotelian conception of self-realization, combined with it the Stoic conception of virtue, and made the union of the two, which he called "perfection," coincident with Epicurean pleasure and happiness, rightly understood. Malebranche went on to develop more fully the religious side of the doctrine. Thus there was at the outset a tendency to comprehend as much as possible under the conceptions of perfection and happiness.

On the other hand, the new method introduced by Descartes finally tended to narrow the bounds of moral activity. Nothing could be moral, which could not be deduced from the concept of perfection. As the mathematical method became applied more rigidly, the contents of perfection became more limited, and only those pleasures could still be regarded as moral which could be included within these contents. As happiness continued to be identified with perfection, only certain classes of pleasures could be included within it. Furthermore, as the interests of the school were intellectual rather than practical, the cognitive aspects of pleasure received their attention, rather than its real nature as affection.

To the whole school, perfection is the summum bonum. Happiness is the reward which leads us to seek perfection, and so is extremely closely connected with it. The general tendency—and it is a strong one—is to define both happiness and pleasure in what seem to us purely cognitive terms. As their psychology did not know our modern tripartite and bipartite divisions, their happiness and pleasure had volitional characteristics, as well as the affective characteristics which we attribute to them; but their chief interest and attention were almost wholly devoted to ascertaining the function, and determining the value for moral action, of the cognitive elements which they attributed to pleasure.

Happiness is "the consciousness of all the perfection of which we are