

## Preferences: An Introduction and a Short Bibliography



# Preferences

Edited by  
Christoph Fehige and Ulla Wessels



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All I want is to sit on my arse and fart and think of Dante.

Samuel Beckett

Desires and wants, however intense, are not by themselves reasons in matters of justice. The fact that we have a compelling desire does not argue for the propriety of its satisfaction any more than the strength of a conviction argues for its truth.

John Rawls

Take any demand, however slight, which any creature, however weak, may make. Ought it not, for its own sole sake, to be satisfied? If not, prove why not. The only possible kind of proof you could adduce would be the exhibition of another creature who should make a demand that ran the other way. The only possible reason there can be why any phenomenon ought to exist is that such a phenomenon actually is desired.

William James



## Preface

*Preferences* is a collection of essays on the concept and the role of preferences (desires, and the like) in practical reasoning. Ground covered includes welfare, prudence, rational decision making, and all areas of moral philosophy: ethics (applied and not so applied), metaethics, and deontic logic. A special symposium looks at *possible* preferences and their significance in matters of life and death, including the notoriously thorny question how many people there should be. All the essays are published here for the first time.

The book is not just for specialists. We have given it an introduction that, though it may move swiftly, at least starts from scratch; a selected bibliography is also provided.

Most of the authors were able to meet in advance, and to present, discuss, and then revise their contributions. But the line has to be drawn somewhere, and authors who receive a reply in this volume were not permitted to adjust their papers in the light of the final version of the reply. The initial exchange took place in Saarbrücken and Saarlouis in June 1992.

\*

Everybody has been very kind to us. Georg Meggle – selfless and cheerful as usual – co-designed the project and supported it from beginning to end. When we proposed the meeting, we were backed up by Franz von Kutschera and Wolfgang Lenzen. Barbara Schumacher helped prepare and run it.

The editors of *Perspectives in Analytical Philosophy*, Georg Meggle and Julian Nida-Rümelin, have welcomed the book in precisely the form we suggested. The authors have been co-operative and patient throughout. Christopher Abbey and Seán Matthews have given valuable advice, linguistic and otherwise, to many of us. Kornelius Bamberger was able, and kind enough, to convert most of the data that the contributors sent us. Thomas Fehige gave these data a neat, uniform lay-out. Patrick Agsten, Monika Claßen, Franziska Muschiol, Ulf Schwarz, and Valentin Wagner have assisted us, efficiently and in numerous respects; the same holds true of Karin Thom. With this list in chronological order, one important acknowledgement comes last: de Gruyter publishers. Working with Hans-Robert Cram was a pleasure; ditto, at the technical end, with Grit Müller.

The conference that gave rise to this book was made possible by the financial assistance of: Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft (DFG), Fritz Thyssen Stiftung, Ministerium für Wissenschaft und Kultur des Saarlandes, Universität des Saarlandes, and Vereinigung der Freunde der Universität des Saarlandes. The DFG (research project “Was zählt?”) has also funded our own work on this volume.

We thank all these persons and institutions for their support.

\*

We share the belief, now regarded in some quarters as both unsound and old-fashioned, that, in essence, morality is all about welfare, and welfare all about preferences. Some of the contributors to this volume would agree, some would not. With luck, this collection will help advance matters a little.

Christoph Fehige and Ulla Wessels  
Leipzig, January 1998



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## Abstracts

These are abstracts of the papers that receive a reply, not of the replies themselves. The abstracts appear in the alphabetical order of the authors' names; for the contributions to the symposium on possible preferences, see the final abstract.

LENNART ÅQVIST

### Prima Facie Obligations in Deontic Logic: A Chisholmian Analysis Based on Normative Preference Structures

(page 135)

The paper argues for an analysis of the W. D. Ross notion of prima facie obligation which results from adding a certain Chisholm-style definition to the system *G* of Dyadic Deontic Logic, supplemented with so-called propositional quantifiers. In the semantics for that system a von-Kutschera-inspired conception of *normative preference structures* turns out to be of vital importance.

UWE BOMBOSCH's comment, "The Meaning of 'Ought, Prima Facie' and Decision Situations", begins on p. 156.

RICHARD B. BRANDT

### The Rational Criticism of Preferences

(page 63)

Preferences are rationally criticized if vivid representation of confirmed beliefs will result in a reversal or strengthening. It is universally agreed that plans can be so criticized but not basic preferences for types of events. Define "preference" as "desiring more". Psychologists agree that desire for an event-type is increased if an event-type has been associated with pleasant events in the past – conditioning by contiguity. (The status of bodily needs – like thirst and hunger – is different; such needs are fixed by chemical imbalances in the body.) But many events are pleasant for evolutionary reasons; if they weren't pleasant and hence the pleasant type of event wanted, the individuals would not survive. This connection – pleasant event, being wanted from classical conditioning, and hence preference – opens the way to rational criticism. For reflection on facts can alter preferences when the preference is seen to be a result (1) of inadequate representation of facts, or (2) of influence by temporary motivational states, or (3) of stimulus generalization from abnormal cases, or (4) of overlooking unpleasant facts about the object, or (5) of failure of making discriminations, or (6) as a result of suggestions by teachers, or (7) as a result of false or unjustified factual beliefs. The author suggests we

say a preference has been rationally criticized if reflection on these defects results in a modification of the preference.

ANNA KUSSER's comment, "Rational by Shock", begins on p. 78.

JOHN BROOME  
Extended Preferences

(page 271)

Ordinalism is generally taken to imply that interpersonal comparisons of good are impossible. But some ordinalists have argued that these comparisons can be made in a way that is consistent with ordinalism, on the basis of extended preferences. This paper shows that this argument is mistaken, and ordinalism is indeed incompatible with interpersonal comparisons of good.

RUDOLF SCHÜSSLER's comment, "Wish You Were Me: A Reply to Broome and a Comment on Harsanyi's Extended Preference Theory", begins on p. 288.

SVEN DANIELSSON  
Numerical Representations of Value-Orderings: Some Basic Problems

(page 114)

Measures of value or preference usually presuppose value or preference relations which are weak orders. Numerical representations of semiorders and of interval orders have to some extent also been considered. It is fairly obvious, however, that value- and preference-orderings often are not, and should not be expected to be, even interval orders. A way of representing partial orders is suggested.

ULRICH NORTMANN's comment, "Interval Orders Defended", begins on p. 123.

CHRISTOPH FEHIGE AND ULLA WESSELS  
Preferences – an Introduction

(page xx)

In theories of practical reasoning, we can encounter preferences (desires, and the like) in five places. Two of them are the form and the content of rationality; the other three are the form, the content, and the foundation of morality. This introduction presents the terrain and explains its overall structure; it also pays a brief visit to each of the locations and points out some of the disputes surrounding them. The doctrine of preferentialism and its problems will be a convenient leitmotiv, since it is widely held and employs preferences, and preferences only, on all the five levels. The tour is structured as follows. After a prologue that sketches preferentialism, we will consider the very

concept of a preference (section 1). We will then look at the possible roles of preferences in rationality (section 2), and at the triad of roles they might play in morality (section 3). Finally, there is a selected bibliography.

ALLAN GIBBARD

### Preference and Preferability

(page 239)

What does “good” mean? The paper starts with two vague truisms: That goodness is a matter of preferability, and that of two things, the preferable one is the one it is rational to prefer. In his book *Wise Choices, Apt Feelings* (1990), the author had proposed a theory of what “rational” means; this paper faces two questions: (1) What concept of preference, if any, fits the formula that the preferable of two things is the one it is rational to prefer? (2) How should this formula be filled out: Rational for whom to prefer, when? Classical decision theory treats preference as consisting in one’s disposition to choose. Such revealable preference will probably not serve as a good explanatory concept in a scientific psychology, it is suggested, but it may be much the concept that is needed for purposes of defining preferability. Roughly, the preferable of two things is the one it is rational to choose. This needs to be refined, though: Talk of what is preferable to what purports to be *neutral* among parties to the conversation. Indeed one use of the term “good”, prominent among philosophers, treats all humanity as our conversational group. If rational intrinsic preferences need not be impartial, then not all considerations that bear on rational choice need be matters of goodness so understood. Good-making considerations will be those considerations that bear on choices *consequentially* and *neutrally*, and goodness will be a matter of how these good-making considerations sum up.

JULIAN NIDA-RÜMELIN’s comment, “Goodness and Rational Preferability”, begins on p. 260.

RAINER HEGSELMANN

### Experimental Ethics:

### A Computer Simulation of Classes, Cliques, and Solidarity

(page 298)

The article deals with two questions: (a) Can relations and networks of solidarity emerge in a world exclusively inhabited by rational egoists, who are unequal and choose their partners opportunistically? (b) If networks of solidarity do emerge in such a world, what do they look like? By means of computer simulations it is shown that networks of solidarity can emerge in such a world. But the networks will show quite distinct features of some class segregation.

ULRICH KRAUSE’s comment, “Solidarity among Rational Egoists”, begins on p. 321.

FRANZ VON KUTSCHERA

## Values and Duties

(page 163)

It is argued that both deontological and consequentialist principles have their legitimate place in ethics, and that neither kind is reducible to the other. The problem, then, is how to integrate them into a unified system. A simple solution would be to have duties override value considerations, and the discussion centers on the merits and shortcomings of this proposal.

WILFRIED HINSCH's comment, "Beyond Duty", begins on p. 172.

CHRISTOPH LUMER

## Which Preferences Shall Be the Basis of Rational Decision?

(page 33)

Theories of rational decision normally distinguish basic and other preferences, using only the former for calculating an agent's utility function. The idea behind the distinction is that, on the one hand, a theory of *rational* decision must allow *criticism* of at least a part of the agent's actual preferences; on the other hand, so as not to lose touch with the agent's real interests, it must rely on his *factual* preferences. Different decision theories have declared as basic various sets of preferences, thereby arriving at very different utility functions. Therefore, the question of which preferences shall be basic is of large practical importance. Nonetheless, it has rarely been discussed.

The article criticises some standard approaches, but mainly develops criteria for the selection of basic preferences. One of the principles for the selection of basic preferences, for example, is epistemic rationalisation. From these principles, then, 12 conditions of adequacy for the selection of the preferential basis are derived, e.g. taking over only intrinsic preferences, and of these not the single preferences but their underlying criteria.

ANTONELLA CORRADINI's comment, "Intrinsic Desirabilities", begins on p. 57.

ELIJAH MILLGRAM

## Deciding to Desire

(page 3)

We do not, and cannot, normally come to have desires by simply deciding to have them. It is argued that this is not a contingent fact, and that the explanation for this fact shows a widely held view of practical reasoning to be false.

SYDNEY SHOEMAKER's comment, "Desiring at Will (and at Pill)", begins on p. 26.



RAINER WERNER TRAPP

The Potentialities and Limits of a Rational Justification of Ethical  
Norms, or: What Precisely is Minimal Morality?

(page 327)

Starting from the insight that, due to certain epistemological peculiarities of 'normative truth', normative statements cannot claim to be *objectively* (= *O*) true, the paper systematically works out the idea of basing the *O-validity* of general moral norms on their *O-utility* rather than on their *O-truth*. According to this idea any restriction of choice, in an *n*-person-conflict of interests *S*, qualifies as *O-valid* if it fulfills one of the two following criteria: Either compliance to it by at least a specifiable number *k* of the *n* individuals in *S* would make everybody already *in each instance of S* better off than norm-free anarchy (= *criterion (I)*, which establishes two classes of *unconditionally O-valid* norms each avoiding a corresponding type of *trap of prudence*), or it would, under certain assumptions of the interacting individuals on the probabilities of the roles taken in their respective lifetime-sequences of situations of type *S*, increase everybody's utility payoff *in the long run* (= *criterion (II)*, which establishes three classes of only *conditionally O-valid* norms). Thus even 'non-veiled' rational egoists refusing to initially concede any rationally ungroundable moral *protonorm* whatsoever, one that demands some (Harsanyian, Rawlsian, ...) *impartial standpoint* in considering an agreement on mutual restrictions of behaviour, will – so it is argued – have to contract on at least these norms in a fictitious original agreement. The latter's extension defines the system  $M_{\min}$  of *minimal morality*. Though being far more comprehensive than related approaches to 'morals by agreement' (notably Gauthier's),  $M_{\min}$  will finally be assessed as morally insufficient due to its not containing any *compensatory* norms. Since some of the latter, according to widespread convictions, are indispensable and since these, at the same time, are not justifiable as *O-valid* on the basis of whatever brand of *veil-free contractarianism*, any programme of founding a satisfactory moral system on mere *collective rationality* is considered as doomed to fail eventually.

ANTHONY SIMON LADEN's comment, "A Hobbesian Choice", begins on p. 361.

J. DAVID VELLEMAN

Is Motivation Internal to Value?

(page 88)

The view that something's being good for a person depends on his capacity to care about it – sometimes called internalism about a person's good – is here derived from the principle that 'ought' implies 'can'. In the course of this derivation, the limits of internalism are discussed, and a distinction is drawn between two senses of the phrase "a person's good".

GEORG MEGGLE's comment, "Motivation and Value", begins on p. 103.

DAVID WIGGINS

In a Subjectivist Framework, Categorical Requirements  
and Real Practical Reasons

(page 212)

In this paper, the author tries to show that Hume, interpreted as a genealogist of morals – not as empiricist, prescriptivist, projectivist, expressivist or error theorist –, can do justice to the moral phenomena that moral philosophers discuss under the heading of the categorical imperative. His position on this matter is compared and contrasted with that of Kant. It is claimed that Hume discusses the real reasons, such as they are, why, regardless of inclination, we should heed the categorical requirements of morality.

DAVID GAUTHIER's comment, "Subjective Obligation", begins on p. 233.

MARCUS WILLASCHEK

Agency, Autonomy, and Moral Obligation

(page 176)

The paper proposes and, in part, defends an understanding of human agency, autonomy, and moral obligation as integral parts of our concept of a person. Specifically, the first part (sects. 1–12) argues for a causal theory of action in which the acting person plays a central role in the causal history of her actions. The person exercises her causal influence according to normative principles of rationality. That presupposes some independence from her own motivation including the ability to acknowledge or reject parts of it as a basis of her rational decisions. This ability is constitutive of the autonomy of the person. The second part (sects. 13–29) presents an argument to the effect that the concept of autonomy presupposes a general universalist principle of morality. Autonomy involves a distinction between motives that are 'authentic' and motives that are not. This distinction does not rest on a substantive idea of what autonomous action is, but rather on a formal or procedural notion. Nevertheless, it presupposes a normative standard which is different from and largely independent of the motives a person in fact has. This standard can be found in the ideas of impartial benevolence and universal rational consent which inform universalist conceptions of morality.

HILARY BOK's comment, "Autonomy and Morality", begins on p. 204.

CHRISTOPH FEHIGE, RICHARD M. HARE, WOLFGANG LENZEN,  
JEFF McMAHAN, PETER SINGER, THOMAS SPITZLEY, AND ULLA WESSELS

Symposium on Possible Preferences

(page 367)

Sometimes our actions make a difference not just to the frustration or satisfaction of preferences that exist (have existed, or will exist), but to the very question *which* preferences will exist; so they require us to look not only at actual, but also at *possible* pref-

erences. These actions, their morality and their rationality, are the topic of the present symposium.

Most choices concerning a preferer's life or death are dramatic and obvious examples of such actions (no life, no preference), and they have come to dominate the discussion of possible preferences, and this symposium as well. Thus, on the more applied level, this is a symposium about the morality of conception and contraception, abortion, population policy and killing, about the value of life and the badness of death.

For a guide to this web of issues, see the "Introduction to Possible Preferences" at the beginning of the symposium (p. 367); more information on the various contributions, and on how they relate to each other, is given in the last section (pp. 379–81) of that introduction.

CHRISTOPH FEHIGE AND ULLA WESSELS  
Preferences – an Introduction\*

*Abstract:* In theories of practical reasoning, we can encounter preferences (desires, and the like) in five places. Two of them are the form and the content of rationality; the other three are the form, the content, and the foundation of morality. This introduction presents the terrain and explains its overall structure; it also pays a brief visit to each of the locations and points out some of the disputes surrounding them. The doctrine of preferentialism and its problems will be a convenient leitmotiv, since it is widely held and employs preferences, and preferences only, on all the five levels. The tour is structured as follows. After a prologue that sketches preferentialism, we will consider the very concept of a preference (section 1). We will then look at the possible roles of preferences in rationality (section 2), and at the triad of roles they might play in morality (section 3). Finally, there is a selected bibliography.

1. The Concept of Preference
  - 1.1. General Problems
  - 1.2. The Taxonomy of Preferences
2. Preference and Rationality
  - 2.1. General Problems
  - 2.2. Rational Decision Theory
3. Preference and Morality
  - 3.1. Normative Preferences and the Format of Morality
    - 3.1.1. Consequentialism
    - 3.1.2. Deontic Logic
  - 3.2. Preference Satisfaction and the Content of Morality
    - 3.2.1. Welfare and Preference Satisfaction
    - 3.2.2. Distributing Preference Satisfaction
  - 3.3. Shared Preferences and the Foundations of Morality

Preferences, so the received opinion, are the alpha and omega of practical reasoning: people are *rational* if they do what they believe will best satisfy *their own* preferences (more on this in section 2 of this introduction); and people

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\* To find writings about issues raised in the introduction, consult the similarly structured bibliography that follows it. We are grateful to Christopher Abbey, Krister Bykvist, Georg Meggle, and Elijah Millgram for helpful comments. We thank the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft (DFG) for supporting the research project “Was zählt?”; work on this survey was part of the project.

are *moral* if they do what will best satisfy *everybody's* preferences (more on that in section 3). Call this type of position *preferentialism*.<sup>†</sup>

Typically, preferentialism is inspired by an enlightened respect for people's autonomy: prejudice aside, it is their own wishes that count. *Chacun à sa façon*.

Popeye, for example, likes eating spinach, and eating spinach conflicts with none of his other wishes. Surely this gives him a *reason* to do what he believes will provide him with spinach. It would be puzzling for a concept of rationality to deny this; reason would lack sensitivity, and nobody would want to apply it to their own affairs. Say that Mary, however, does *not* like spinach, and does not believe it to be conducive to any other end of hers. Then how could there be a reason for her to eat it? It would be puzzling if a concept of rationality required her to eat spinach no matter what she wanted; reason would be dictatorial, and again nobody would want to apply it to their own affairs.

Same thing with morals. Given that Popeye wants spinach, the world would, *ceteris paribus*, be a little *better* if we gave him some; so that is what we ought to do. And given that Mary does not want spinach, the world would, *ceteris paribus*, not be better if we gave her any; so we have no obligation to do so. This is how, if we believe preferentialism, both reason and morality correlate with preferences.

## 1. The Concept of Preference

### 1.1. General Problems

Precisely what it is that preferentialists say, and their opponents deny, will depend on what they mean by “preference”, or – for some versions of the theory – by words such as “aim”, “desire”, “end”, “project”, “want”, “wish”, or “liking” (all of which we will use interchangeably). Concepts of preference can vary in at least three basic dimensions: *logic*, *representation*, and *charge*.

- *Logic*. Does the verb “prefer” take two objects, as in “John prefers bananas to apples”? Though this is what its etymology suggests, it is now often used, like “wanting”, with just one object. And then what sort of object(s)? To get a logically well-behaved concept of preference, philosophers tend to

<sup>†</sup> Unable to spot an existing label, we used “preferentialism” when we wrote the drafts of our papers for this volume, which have been circulating widely since 1992. But the word is an obvious choice, and it's quite possible that other people had the same idea; information about earlier occurrences would be welcome.

restrict the choice essentially either to propositions (states of affairs, etc.) or to possible worlds (outcomes, scenarios, etc.).

What about axioms? Which of the following candidates, for instance, should qualify as conceptual truths?

- Asymmetry: if (at point of time  $t$ , all things told) you prefer world  $\alpha$  to world  $\beta$ , then you do not (at point of time  $t$ , all things told) prefer world  $\beta$  to world  $\alpha$ .

(Time indices and the like will be omitted in the following examples.)

- Connexity of weak preference: for every two outcomes  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ , either  $\alpha$  is weakly preferred to  $\beta$  or vice versa.

(“Weakly to prefer  $\alpha$  to  $\beta$ ” means preferring  $\alpha$  to  $\beta$  or being indifferent between the two.)

- Reflexivity of weak preference: every outcome is weakly preferred to itself.
- Transitivity: for every three outcomes  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ , and  $\gamma$ , it holds true that, if  $\alpha$  is (weakly) preferred to  $\beta$ , and  $\beta$  (weakly) preferred to  $\gamma$ , then  $\alpha$  is (weakly) preferred to  $\gamma$ .
- If you want it to be the case that  $p$ , you do not want it to be the case that non- $p$ .
- You want  $p$  &  $q$  if (and even only if?) you want  $p$  and you want  $q$ .
- You want  $p$  if and only if you prefer  $p$  to non- $p$ .
- If an agent prefers outcome  $\alpha$  to outcome  $\beta$ , then, for every  $p$  with  $1 \geq p \geq 0.5$ , a lottery that will give him outcome  $\alpha$  with probability  $p$  and outcome  $\beta$  with probability  $1 - p$  will also be preferred by him to outcome  $\beta$ .

A set of answers to formal questions like these will characterize a logic of preference – a prohairetic logic, as it is sometimes called. The *status* of its axioms, too, will require reflection: is compliance with them necessary for something to qualify as a system of preferences at all, or just to qualify as a respectable (for instance, consistent or rational) one?

- *Representation*. Desiring, it would seem, has something to do with grasping or representing the object(s) of desire. By itself, no reaction to the sentence “I shall drive a Rolls Royce” will qualify as a wish to drive a Rolls Royce. The preferrer must have got the semantics right, too. It has to be the case, say, that, *if she fully represented* to herself the possibility of driving a Rolls Royce, she would attempt to make it come true, or would feel good (or whatever). But precisely what does preferring have to do with representing? And what is it for somebody to represent, or grasp, something? Philosophers of mind have been wondering for a long time; no agreement is in

- sight, and some of them want to do without representation altogether.
- *Charge*. If a preference is, at a first approximation, a pro- or an anti-attitude towards something, then what do the “pro” and the “anti” consist in? What, as we can put it, is the charge of a preference? Some theories turn to feelings: you want it to be the case that  $p$  if, other things being equal, the thought of  $p$  would make you happy (or enthusiastic, or yearning); or if, other things being equal, you’d be more pleased believing that  $p$  than you would be believing that non- $p$ . Other theories turn to actions: you want something if, in appropriate circumstances, you would try to get it. Some people claim that a desire is a belief; for them, the task of explicating charge is not the task of saying what distinguishes desires from beliefs, but what distinguishes desires from *other* beliefs. Belief or not, once we know what to mean by “charge”, we will also want to define a measure for it (a little more about that on p. xxxi below). For, presumably, preferences can vary in strength.

The three dimensions – logic, representation, charge – characterize an array of conceptual options that we cannot explore here in any detail. Neither will we rehearse how the choice would affect every philosophical evergreen that it does affect – such as: is the will free? How do the mind in general and the will in particular relate to the body? What do we mean by “weakness of the will”?

One thing we *can* do, however, is glance at a question of *method*. When constructing a notion of preference, *how* would we decide which way to go? Here comes a simple but important part of the answer: there is nothing wrong in the preferentialist using her creed itself as a criterion. To a significant degree, she can tailor concepts of preference for the sole purpose of making the preferentialist doctrine true, or plausible. Suppose, for example, she believes hedonic happiness (feeling good, that is) to be of moral importance; to make sure that preferentialism respects this claim, she could, when defining “preference”, simply stipulate (or rig up her concepts of representation and charge to entail) that people prefer, other things being equal, to feel good.

It is therefore unfair of the anti-preferentialist to ‘refute’ preferentialism by pouring just any old concept of preferring into it, and pointing out that *that* combination has crazy implications. The manoeuvre is deplorable, and too common in moral philosophy. But it is equally unfair, and no less frequent, for a preferentialist not to tell us what is meant by “preference”. As long as she doesn’t, her creed says practically nothing; it could be free of errors by being free of content.

This sheds some light on the question whether it should not be the *philosophy of mind* that guides us through the conceptual maze. On the one hand,

it might be able to help, and today preferentialists are far from exhausting that possibility. When mongering, for the purposes of rational decision making and morals, their own concept of desire, they would be wise to exploit the extensive general debate on propositional attitudes, mental representation, and qualia.

On the other hand, the transfer will be limited. Suppose we ask philosophers of mind where *they* get their criteria of adequacy from. For many of them, the final touchstone for an explication of beliefs and desires is whether it helps *empirical psychology* meet the usual standards for a scientific theory: it should be elegant, have predictive success, dovetail nicely with the rest of science (say with biology or computer science), etc. Normative contexts, like rationality (in the not merely explanatory sense) and morality, make no explicit appearance on this list; and for them, some of the items that do appear on it are at best of minor importance. Thus, the concept of preference favoured by the scientific criteria might diverge radically from that favoured by normative criteria.

Take, for example, what we called the charge of a preference – i.e. the property in virtue of which an attitude towards something is an attitude for or against it. The dovetail requirement from the scientific list might well suggest a definition in terms of brain activity, neurons, and so forth (which fits in nicely with chemistry, which in turn fits in tolerably well with physics); but a normative requirement – for instance, that we are out to capture something that would make a *moral* difference – might well point towards a more phenomenal definition. (“Neurons or not,” we might want our preferentialism to say, “where the thought of *p* would arouse no *longing* or no *pleasure*, there is no moral reason to bring *p* about.”) What we cannot do is *first* say that preferences are what matters and *then* leave it to philosophy of mind to tell us what we mean by “preference”. Not, that is, if philosophy of mind is philosophy of science for empirical psychology.

Making up our mind about logic, representation, and charge respectively will be difficult enough. Even then, the *combination* of our favourite three answers could still be dissonant. Say, for example, that in order to get the nicest *logic* of preference we should work with preferences between possible worlds. This is a plea that experts from the department of mental representation might well want to oppose – for how could real-life people ever react towards an *entire* possible world (unless it happens to be a particularly small and dull one)? Our mind’s eye has a limited field of vision, and maybe most worlds are simply too large for it. If such clashes among the conceptual requirements were unavoidable, they would provide a very strong argument against preferentialists: they cannot find a coherent concept of preference at all, or at least none that fits their bill.



## 1.2. The Taxonomy of Preferences

From the most general questions, we turn to taxonomical ones. Specific problems in the theory of practical reasoning will point us to specific types of preferences worth capturing and baptizing. Here are sketches of a few important examples:

- Wanting something for its own sake (an *intrinsic preference*) as opposed to wanting it for the sake of something else (an *extrinsic preference*). Typically, preferentialist moralities want to count intrinsic preferences only.
- Wanting something if all other things were equal (*ceteris paribus preference*, *pro tanto preference*) as opposed to wanting it even in view of the costs, or putative costs, of getting it (*preference all things told*, *final preference*). The distinction is closely related to the previous one.
- Preferences the preferrer is aware of (*explicit preferences*) as opposed to those that he isn't (*implicit preferences*).
- Preferences that are compatible with rationality (*rational preferences*) as opposed to those that aren't (*irrational preferences*). The rational preferences include those that are neither dictated nor ruled out by rationality (*arational preferences*); a preference for strawberries over blueberries seems to be, where all other things are equal, a safe example. Typically, "rationality" is meant to refer either to the full representation of the content of the preference or to certain requirements of consistency among a person's preferences (for both these aspects, see sect. 1.1 above); and typically, only rational preferences are supposed to count in morals.
- Preferences with a fishy history (*heteronomous preferences*) as opposed to others (*autonomous preferences*, *authentic preferences*). Standards of fishiness are of course debatable (and some would say fishy); preferences that would not survive psychotherapy and preferences caused by a drug, a brainwashing, a disease, or an unfair biography are standard examples. A fishy history is, as its name suggests, frequently taken to undermine a preference's moral, or rational, standing. Some people seem to call a preference heteronomous in so far as it merely happens to the preferrer, rather than being created, or at least bossed around, by his rational self (sometimes believed to be, *ipso facto*, his moral self). These distinctions and their point are not always clear (to us).
- Preferences that could exist (*possible preferences*), dividing up into those that could but don't exist (*merely possible preferences*) and those that have existed, exist, or will exist (*actual preferences*). Among preferentialists, the question whether there is any moral or prudential point in actualizing *and*

satisfying possible preferences (as opposed to just satisfying actual preferences) is controversial.

- Preferences somebody had (*past preferences*), has (*present preferences*), and will have (*future preferences*). Some people think that an agent may rationally discount, or even ignore, her own past preferences, and some think the same holds for her future preferences; it is also held sometimes that for moral purposes we can ignore all or some past preferences (for example those of the dead, or those revised by the preferrer).
- Preferences whose entire content would, if true, be simultaneous with the preferring itself (*synchronic preferences*) as opposed to others (*asynchronic preferences*, for example *now-for-then preferences*, *then-for-now preferences*, *ex-post preferences*).
- Preferences that concern just the preferrer's state of mind. If you restrict preferentialism to them, as some people suggest we should, then you get (one version of) hedonism.
- Preferences that concern a substantial part of one's own life (*global preferences*) as opposed to those that concern only a small part of one's life (*local preferences*).
- *Extended preferences*, i.e. preferences as to what should be the case were one in somebody else's shoes.
- *Metapreferences*, i.e. preferences whose content is, or entails, the existence or non-existence of certain of the preferrer's preferences.
- *External preferences*, i.e. preferences whose content entails the existence or non-existence, or the satisfaction or frustration, of other people's preferences; preferences that are not external are sometimes called *personal preferences*. External preferences can be *moral*, *benevolent*, *altruistic preferences*, or *immoral*, *malevolent*, *anti-social*, *evil*, *sadistic preferences*, or mixtures of these. Some preferentialists suggest we give no weight to external preferences, or at least not to evil preferences, in moral reasoning.

Both the types and the details of such distinctions vary from problem to problem and from author to author; one factor they will tend to correlate with are the author's favourite objections to, or versions of, preferentialism.

## 2. Preference and Rationality

### 2.1. General Problems

Having glanced at the conceptual tasks that preferences are likely to confront us with, we can now turn to their roles in practical reasoning. We start with

rationality (this section) and will move on to morality (section 3). Since some important issues concern, *mutatis mutandis*, both these areas, our decision to discuss a certain point in this rather than the next section, or vice versa, may be debatable.

Recall the first part of the preferentialist creed. Somebody is *rational*, it says, if he does what he expects will best satisfy his own preferences.

In a sense, this part of the creed contains two appeals to preferences. The first of them is rather structural. It is hiding behind the word “best”, and concerns the relation “at least as good as” that is presupposed by “best”. A relation, it is claimed, that has the *formal* properties typical of a preference relation is constitutive for, or induced by, rationality, and plays a central role for or in it. Such a relation is something very much like an ordering, or quasi-ordering, defined, say, over actions, lotteries, or outcomes. It can go by any name that conveys some impression of comparativity, for instance “at least as good as” (perhaps with the insert “for the agent”), or, for whatever *X*, “meeting criterion *X* at least as well as”, or “producing at least as much *X* as”. If the claim sounds terribly abstract, never mind – it *is* terribly abstract.

We come to the second claim about preference and rationality, which is less formal. Rationality, it says, has a lot to do with the agent’s preferences or desires in some not too far-fetched *psychological* sense of those terms.

The two options can diverge. Somebody could hold, for example, that the rationality of an action is, *ceteris paribus*, proportional to the amount of knowledge that it will help the agent to acquire, or that the agent believes it will help him to acquire. If we assume, for the sake of the argument, that knowledge can be measured, then this concept of rationality would involve a preference in the purely formal sense (*viz.* a quasi-ordering of actions), but none in any serious psychological sense (since maybe the agent doesn’t care tuppence for knowledge).

The difference – preferences in the form versus preferences in the content – is important. (It will be dealt with again in the sections on ethics, see pp. xxxi–xxxix.) Given a critique of preferentialist concepts of rationality or morality, one should ask whether it applies to every theory *of the same form* or just to the sub-class of theories that use *preferences-in-the psychological-sense as the substance to go into the form*. For reasons of space, we shan’t always be able to pursue the distinction in this introduction.

We return, then, to the preferentialist double bill of form and content: to the claim that it is rational for somebody to do what he expects will best fulfil his own wishes. If we ask *why* this is supposed to be so, we shall approach deep waters – how does one *argue* for a theory of rationality? Where reason itself is to be measured, what can serve as the yardstick?

Since every theory of rationality might lack a glorious response to this type of challenge (the ultimate challenge), perhaps the preferentialist, too, may restrict herself to non-fundamental forms of justification. She could point to our pre-theoretical beliefs, and claim that her theory accommodates them best. And indeed, choosing what looks like the best means to one's ends is at least one central part of our everyday notion of rationality, or even of sanity. If somebody told us that he wants to get rid of a headache; that he could take aspirin; that this, but nothing else, would help; that taking it wouldn't conflict with any other projects of his – and that he is *not* going to take it, then we would start wondering.

However, is means-ends rationality the only part of our pre-theoretical notion? What about the ends themselves? Can't *they* be irrational? Preferentialism, say some of its critics, doesn't take this possibility seriously enough; the doctrine, they say, is too *instrumentalist*.

Typically, the preferentialist, too, will accept *certain* requirements of rationality for the preferences themselves. She is, for instance, likely to demand some sort of consistency among them (for examples of such constraints, see pp. xxi f. above). And she is likely to insist that, for a preference to be a preference in the sense she's after, it has to be accompanied by, or would have to survive, a full representation – whatever that may be – of the desideratum (see pp. xxii f. above).

But do criteria like consistency and semantical competence go far enough? It seems that some preferences which, pre-theoretically, we would have considered as irrational (or, to use the pre-theoretical term, crazy) *could* meet the preferentialist standards: e.g. a preference for eating mud, or for exterminating a racial minority. If that is so, then maybe preferentialism does *not* accommodate our initial beliefs about rationality best; maybe it generalizes from too narrow a choice of examples, all misleadingly similar to the aspirin case.

The preferentialist will reply that, as so often in good theory making, her doctrine, though based on preconceptions, will also force us to revise some of them. For instance, we should indeed *stop* calling people irrational who really (i.e. consistently and competently) want to eat mud. Furthermore, she would ask what the stronger criteria that an opponent might suggest would look like, and why. Should preferences count as irrational just because they are rare, or 'unnatural'? Could, requirements of consistency and representation aside, a judgement on the rationality of ends fail to be anything but arbitrary?

One project for which the question of instrumentalism could make a drastic difference is the rational foundation of morals (see also pp. xxxix–xli below). If, say, the preference for exterminating a racial minority *can* be rational, but the racial minority *ought* to flourish, then we have a gap between

reason and morality; if such preferences can't be rational, we might be spared the gaps.

Preferentialist rationality has also been criticized for being *consequentialist* – it focuses, that is, on the possible consequences of an action. Since *looking* at a possible consequence is not always in the agent's own best interest (some unpleasant consequences, for example, can be caused by contemplating them), preferentialist rationality is a questionable *method*. Maybe, however, no other method is superior to it – and if it were, preferentialism might still offer the best *criterion* of rationality. (More about consequentialism when we come to ethics, see pp. xxxii–xxxiv.)

Sages warn us that preference satisfaction is a Sisyphean task. We are all like the fisherman's wife. Once a wish is granted, a new one pops up and takes its place; we shall have gained nothing. The preferentialist will reply that, firstly, this situation may not be inescapable; we can form our characters and try to develop a reasonably satisfiable amount and type of wishes. Preference satisfaction, and the sages' warning, could even be our rational guides for that enterprise itself. Secondly, suppose the situation were indeed inescapable. Our desires are a Hydra, and there is nothing we can do about it. It is not clear whether this would refute the preferentialist criterion. If it were part of the human condition that, by preferentialist standards, many actions just don't make a difference, then why should this argue against the standards, rather than against the human condition? (Compare rationality to a metal detector: if there is no metal we do not blame the detector for being silent.)

The sages also warn us that preference satisfaction and *hedonic happiness* might diverge. Suppose that you vehemently desire a job, but that soon after you get it your days are no brighter than before – you might even feel disappointed. Again, preferentialists would claim that their theory can do justice to this problem. They ask whether in such a case the relevant preference would really have survived their requirement of full representation (see pp. xxii f. above). And if the answer is yes, they could still point to people's preferences for spending their conscious time as pleasantly as possible (see p. xxiii above). Then your appointment has satisfied one preference (the one for the job), but not the other (the one for feeling good).

The objections to, and problems within, preferentialist rationality are too numerous for us even to list them here. To mention just a few more: does practical reason process beliefs and desires deductively or defeasibly? And instead of encouraging the agent to *maximize* something (say her preference satisfaction), should we perhaps advise her to *satisfice* (to get a certain, but not necessarily maximum, amount of goods or satisfaction)? And does an agent, in order to be rational at a certain time, have to take all her present *and future*

preferences equally seriously? And even her past ones? And what if her choice is also a choice *between preferences*? Would she, on pain of irrationality, have to choose to acquire the set of preferences that she expects to generate most satisfaction? If we answered in the affirmative, would we get into trouble? Would it follow that all the rational preferrer can ever prefer for its own sake is preference satisfaction itself? And that she would have to welcome the prospect of a brainwashing that would leave her in love with every single feature of the world as it is (murder and hamburgers included)?

## 2.2. Rational Decision Theory

Attempts to render preferentialist rationality more precise have led to a formal field of inquiry known as *rational decision theory*. Typically, the initial question is what the rational thing to do would be if you weren't certain which of your actions would have which consequences.

In the worst case, you have no idea even how *likely* your actions are to cause one outcome rather than another. Various general decision rules for this case have been discussed, but none has established itself as canonical. One famous candidate with obvious limitations is 'maximin': "Take an action whose worst possible outcome is not worse than the worst possible outcome of any alternative action."

If we decide to leave the most dramatic cases of ignorance aside, then, for every action and each of its possible outcomes, the agent can assign at least a *probability* to the claim that the action would have that outcome. For this case, the basic idea, known as *Bayesian decision theory*, is to go by the actions' *expected utility*. To each of an action's possible outcomes we assign a numerical value that represents (something like) 'how strongly' the outcome is preferred by the agent; for each outcome, we multiply its value by the probability of the proposition that the action would have that outcome; when we have all these products (one for every outcome the action might have), we sum them up, call the sum the action's expected utility, and advise the agent to choose the action (or one of the actions) with the highest expected utility.

What happens here is that we weight utility with probability. Given a possible outcome, the higher its value, the higher the expected utility of the respective action; if the value is positive, then the lower the probability of achieving the outcome, the lower the expected utility; etc. This is the type of reasoning we all use when, for the possibility of a gain, we would have to risk a loss. We run the risk if the probability for the gain is high and the loss small; we refuse when the probability is too small or the loss too dramatic.

One vital (or lethal) question for any such theory is where it gets the *numbers* from that are supposed to represent what the outcomes are worth. After all, numbers do not generally pop up in an agent's mind when he contemplates a possible outcome. Ideally, a decision theorist should be able to show that, if the agent is rational, then ipso facto the numbers would be sufficiently determined. Attempts to prove this sort of uniqueness have to spell out what they mean by "rational", and usually do so by requiring the agent's preferences to satisfy certain formal conditions of 'consistency' (see sect. 1.1 above). In most of these attempts, the bulk of the numerical work is performed by axioms that, like the last example from the list on p. xxii, involve probabilities. Roughly speaking, we watch the agent gamble. His willingness to *risk* a good is supposed to show how good the good is for him.

Rational decision theory has grown into a vast area of research. Practically all the 'rationality axioms' used for uniqueness proofs are open to doubt and continue to provoke heated discussion. By dropping, adding, or modifying an axiom here or an axiom there we can generate, and then study, different theories that more or less capture or vary the Bayesian idea. Situations in which several rational decision makers interact raise numerous special problems, and their study has become known as *game theory*. The theories are widely applied, too – in biology, for instance, as well as in economics, moral philosophy, action-theoretic semantics, military strategy, and technology assessment.

The spirit of Bayesian decision theory and some of the usual 'rationality axioms' give rise to a number of *paradoxes* that have received considerable attention: paradoxes of transitivity, Allais's paradox, Newcomb's paradox, and others. Best known, and perhaps most important, is the *Prisoner's Dilemma* – a case in which preferentialist rationality seems to require each of two agents to do what he knows will, if they both do it, leave each of them worse off than if they had both performed an alternative action. Whether preferentialist rationality does indeed require this, and to what extent it would thereby discredit itself, are matters of contention.

### 3. *Preference and Morality*

We can now turn to the role of preferences in ethics. If preferentialism is right, there are even three such roles: the form, the content, and the foundation of morality. The *form*, since a morality is supposed to be a normative preference relation – see section 3.1 below; the *content*, since what counts in morals are the preferences of the affected parties – see section 3.2; and the *foundation*, since to tie morality to rationality we would have to show that people want to

do what they ought to do – see section 3.3. Let us have a brief look at each of these roles in turn.

### 3.1. *Normative Preferences and the Format of Morality*

Recall the second part of the preferentialist creed: people are moral if they do what will best satisfy everybody's preferences. Just like its rational cousin (see p. xxvii above), this moral claim has a structural in addition to a substantial aspect. Apart from its moral content, that is, it implies a certain conception of the *format* of morality: a morality ranks possible worlds (or outcomes or scenarios), saying, for any two of them, which is at least as good as the other; and what you ought to do is bring about what is, according to the ranking, the best world you can.

Such a ranking of outcomes – “morally at least as good as” – is sometimes called a *normative preference relation*. Its middle name is no coincidence. The formal requirements one might want the relation to obey are the same as those for the (weak) preferences of a decently rational individual: connexity, reflexivity, transitivity (to quote just some of the examples from p. xxii). And the debates surrounding these requirements involve the same type of considerations (similar ‘counterexamples’ etc.) for the normative as for the individual case.

The picture of morality as a normative preference relation should hardly surprise us. Betterness looms large in pre-theoretical moral discourse anyway. Just think of questions like “Wouldn't it be better to let the woman decide by herself?”; and of the fact that “You ought to do what's best” is unlikely to count as a helpful piece of moral advice – it's just too close to a deontic tautology. Furthermore, given that morality ought to play a role in our rational decision making, the two of them had better speak the same language: if what a rational moral person goes by is her (or has the form of) *preferences*, then these must be *moral preferences*, and morality should specify them.

**3.1.1. *Consequentialism.*** The view that we ought to bring about the best world we can, frequently called (moral) consequentialism, has met with several objections. Many of them resemble objections to the type of rational consequentialism that we met in section 2.1 (especially on pp. xxix f.).

One complaint is that moral consequentialism, by declaring the *optimum* to be obligatory, makes morality too demanding. (This is a moral analogue of the claim that rational agents would satisfice rather than maximize.) Surely, the consequentialist will reply, morality can be demanding – but in what sense could it be *too* demanding? If a ‘morality’ were too demanding by *moral* standards (say, it requires me to give up my life for a goldfish), then we have got the



normative preference relation *wrong*, and all we have to do is work with the right one. And if it is too demanding just by *the agent's* standards, should we not call the agent immoral rather than withdraw the moral judgement?

To those who, nevertheless, uphold the complaint against demandingness, several remedies have been suggested. If you want to go on using normative preference relations, you could buffer their demands with some sort of threshold. You could, for instance, pick out one outcome and say that all the agent ought to do is realize an outcome at least as good as that one; it would be better of him, but not obligatory for him, to bring about one that is even better than that. Thus, the obligatory might fall short of the optimum. The difference, the good that is not obligatory, is the *supererogatory*. Concepts of supererogation can be quite sophisticated. One could, for example, ask how much is at issue for the agent and how much for morals, and then define the decisive threshold in terms of these two factors: what personal sacrifice can be demanded for what moral achievement?

Consequentialism has also been criticized for being self-defeating as a moral *method*. Having your goals in mind may put them out of reach. (How good, for instance, would a world be in which lovers were nice to each other *because, and just as long as*, they thought morality required it? And would “lovers” still be the right word?) More specifically, the fact that consequentialism requires us all to maximize according to the *same* normative preference relation has been suggested to cause at least part of the trouble. Such a universal preference relation would seem to hang like a sword of Damocles over our personal relationships. Support for your friend (or spouse, or child) would always be conditional upon the fact that you cannot, by redirecting your resources, do more good to somebody else.

Just like rational consequentialists, moral consequentialists will reply that in the end they know of no better method, and certainly of no better *criterion*. And what, they will ask, if we *had* a morality in which normative preference relations differed from agent to agent? Then sometimes people's correct *moral* preferences would clash – there would have to be fist fights even between saints. But a major point of having a morality is to render battles, at least among its followers, unnecessary.

Among the candidates for the formal constraints on a normative preference relation, connexity (or, as some people call it, completeness, or linearity) has received special attention: why should it be the case that every two possible worlds are comparable by moral standards?

Another important question is whether consequentialism might not be *empty*: is there any moral theory at all that could *not* be couched in consequentialist jargon? Take, as a simple example, a ‘rule-oriented’ theory consisting of

the one and only rule that you ought not to tell lies. Wouldn't it be *equivalent* to saying that the world in which you don't tell a lie is better than that in which you do, or that the more lies are told in a world the worse the world (or something along these lines)? It is true of every rule and every action that in the possible world which the action will bring about the rule is either broken or not; so why cannot whatever is important about rules be captured in comparing possible worlds? Not all consequentialists would have to regret the emptiness of consequentialism; some of them would welcome the moral neutrality of a claim they had always intended to be no real claim at all, but a formal framework that could accommodate all sorts of claims.

*3.1.2. Deontic Logic.* Having presented normative preference relations, we should add that they have come to dominate the semantics of deontic logic. (Deontic logic is the logic of moral judgements.) The basic idea is that a model of deontic logic is a set of possible worlds (to be looked at as the feasible set, i.e. as the set of worlds that can be brought about in a given situation) with an at-least-as-good-as relation  $\geq_\heartsuit$  over it; for any sentence  $A$ , "It ought to be the case that  $A$ " is defined to be true in the model if, and only if,  $A$  is true in all the  $\geq_\heartsuit$ -maximal worlds (in the best feasible worlds, that is).

This said, it should not surprise us that many authors conceive of deontic logic as identical with the logic of preference, viz. as the logic of *normative* preference. What is different is not the logic as such, but, firstly, the intended interpretation of its central operator: "It ought to be the case that" in the one case, "Individual  $a$  wants it to be the case that" in the other. Secondly and accordingly, the choice of preference relations in particular models: normative relations in the one case, individual or subjective ones in the other.

Preference-based deontic logic generates the usual amount of real or alleged paradoxes, accompanied by a debate as to what modifications, if any, they suggest. (Moral relatives of the so-called paradox of material implication, for instance, have given rise to dyadic systems of deontic logic.) The formal properties that the relation  $\geq_\heartsuit$  should be required to meet are controversial. There is also the problem what the semantics should say if there are no  $\geq_\heartsuit$ -maximal worlds in a model because it is infinite and the worlds keep getting better and better. The paradigm is still struggling to capture notions like that of a *prima facie* (or *ceteris paribus*, or intrinsic) obligation. Multi-modality is another challenge; modal logics (e.g. of time, action, causation, or necessity) have begun to interact on a large scale, and there is general consensus that deontic logic, too, should be made to tie in with most of them.

### 3.2. *Preference Satisfaction and the Content of Morality*

From the format of morality, we will now turn to its content: what is it that makes actions right or wrong, or some worlds better than others? It is the welfare of the affected parties, many theories answer, and welfare (well-being, utility, and the like) should be spelled out in terms of preference satisfaction.

Not everybody believes in this answer. Some people would even deny its first half – the position, called *welfarism*, that welfare is all that counts. A beautiful landscape, some of them think, would make the world a better place even if no sentient being ever set eyes on it or were any better off for it. The value of life falls, according to some, in the same category; a life, they would say, ought to be continued even if nobody, not even the person who lives it, could be made to enjoy or prefer it. Immanuel Kant thought that criminals ought to be punished even if this didn't help anybody. Some theories tell us that while looking at people's welfare we should also ask whether they deserve it. Et cetera.

As usual with taxonomies, some theories will be borderline cases. What counts, it is sometimes held, is meeting people's *needs*, or respecting their *rights*. These positions can be seen either as versions of or as alternatives to welfarism; the question will depend, obviously, both on one's concept of welfare and on the explication of needs and rights one has in mind. A proponent of the latter two will be a special brand of welfarist, if, as has been suggested, they can be explicated in terms that are themselves components of the notion of welfare – for example, in terms of preference satisfaction.

**3.2.1. *Welfare and Preference Satisfaction.*** Suppose that we are indeed welfarists. We shall then have to explicate the somewhat hazy concept of welfare a little further. (In fact, this is something we'd have to do even if we thought that welfare was just one of several things that matter.) Either the concept is tied to people's states of mind, or it isn't. Since states of mind are difficult to define and to detect, let alone to measure, it is sometimes suggested that we leave them out of the definition. The idea is to work with 'objective' lists instead, lists of things that, if we are very lucky, can be characterized without direct reference to mental states; your welfare is a matter, say, of having a car, a house, a job, the right to vote, and so on.

It seems, however, that such a list is an adequate moral guide only since, and if, people *enjoy* or *want* the things, or the effects of the things, that are on it. (Why should we say that a job, for instance, would benefit somebody who, even if he fully represented to himself the option and its consequences, were indifferent to it?) But then all the real work is done by states of mind after all,

and we can as well say so. Only they can *turn* things into goods. The moral currency, then, is not jobs, but what people, in some sense of the expression, “get out of them”. There is no point in objective lists making measurement easier by measuring the wrong thing.

Suppose next, therefore, that we do want to link welfare to states of mind. The two big options are *pleasure* and *preferences*. A welfarist who limits welfare to pleasure – a moral hedonist, that is – must subscribe to some types of moral conclusions that many of us find embarrassing. According to hedonism, we would be doing people a favour if, without telling them in advance, we connected them to a pleasure machine for the rest of their lives. And somebody’s wishes would matter only to the extent that their satisfaction would make him feel good; his preferences, e.g., for what should happen after his death would have no moral weight whatsoever.

Those are among the reasons why many welfarists turn from pleasure to preferences. So is the idea (sometimes purely intuitive, sometimes grounded in further arguments) that rational decision making and morals should be concerned with the *same* substance. After all, prudence is about what is good *for* somebody, and what is good *tout court* is made up from what is good *for* people. If we believe in this sort of correspondence, then hedonism in morality would mean hedonism in rationality; we would have to say that it is, *ceteris paribus*, *irrational* to invest effort in the satisfaction of a desire if it is known that the desideratum will not be experienced. This sounds implausible. If you *want* the un-experienced desideratum to be the case, then why should rationality force you to ignore your preference?

Yet another argument for preferences is that from *comparability and measurability*. A welfarist will, in some sense or other, want to compare or quantify welfare. “Causing people great pain is worse than causing them mild pain”, is one of the things she will want to say. The most promising road to comparability seems to lead, even in the case of pleasures and pains, via the agent’s preferences: “Your possible headache *X* is milder than your possible toothache *Y*”, we could say, “if, other things being equal, you would *prefer* having *X* to having *Y*.” And remember from section 2.2 that rational decision theory might even allow us to proceed from somebody’s *preferences* between outcomes to *numerical values* representing how good the various outcomes are for him.

But the argument from comparability and measurability is problematic. Could not a person’s preference between certain pleasures or pains drastically fail to mirror what, by any reasonable standard, we would be prepared to call their comparative value? If this is so, then the value should *not* be defined in terms of the preferences. And as to the numbers that preference-based decision theory gives us, the ‘rationality axioms’ needed to generate them are disputable

(see p. xxxi above). Even if they weren't – we are still miles away from showing how these numbers could have any interpersonal significance. (How do we get numbers such that, if the value of outcome  $\alpha$  for you is 5, for me 3, we can be sure that we have captured a morally relevant sense in which you would get more out of  $\alpha$  than I would?) And since we want to be able to comment on choices between, say, giving the only coconut there is either to John or to Jim, interpersonal significance is crucial.

Now suppose that for an account of what welfare *is* the welfarist does indeed employ preferences. Should it be preferences *only*, or should she say that both pleasure and preferences count? Looking at the moral substance, she might lean towards the dual conception. Even then she could be well advised to unify her terminology. When the time for theory-making and comparing and measuring comes, monist accounts are easier to handle. So she could define pleasure into preference, saying that people *want*, other things being equal, their conscious lifetime to be as pleasant an experience as possible (see p. xxiii above). One thing this stipulation would entail is that genuine masochism is impossible; a “masochistic preference” (if we want to go on using this expression at all) could at best be a preference for a certain type of pleasure, but not for the opposite of pleasure.

Suppose, finally, that we emerge from all these controversies believing that what counts is preference satisfaction, and preference satisfaction only. This makes us moral preferentialists, or, as we could also put it, preference-welfarists. We still have to face the difficult questions raised in section 1: for precisely *what concept* of a preference do we claim that, *ceteris paribus*, the frustration of a preference would be a bad thing? And do we really want to claim it for all *types* of preferences, including, for example, the preferences of the dead, and malevolent preferences?

Furthermore, if we want to talk about *quantities* of preference satisfaction, what measure do we have in mind? And do we think that a satisfied preference is better than one that doesn't exist in the first place? (The answer will inform our position on advertising, procreating, and the like.)

**3.2.2. Distributing Preference Satisfaction.** There is also the question *what* we ought to do with preference satisfaction: just *maximize* the amount of it? That is what *preference utilitarianism* bids us to do. On the one hand, there are good reasons for being a utilitarian. One of them is the idea (widely held, in different versions and for different reasons) that morality is rational empathy: qua being empathic, the moral person will acquire *everybody's* preferences; qua being rational, she will try to maximize the satisfaction of *her* preferences, in-

cluding the acquired ones; therefore, the rational moral person will end up trying to maximize the satisfaction of everybody's preferences.

On the other hand, it is well known that utilitarianism can be cruel. Increasing the overall amount of satisfaction may require us to impose vast frustrations on each member of a minority (say by torturing them), because it might be the only way of making everybody from the majority a little better off. This may even be required if the minority is much worse off to begin with than the majority; keeping up a 'decent' minimum level of welfare for everybody is of no concern for the utilitarian. For him, the *distribution* of welfare is simply irrelevant.

Today, many welfarist alternatives to utilitarianism are trying to avoid these 'counter-intuitive' implications. Raising the total amount of welfare, they say, is at best one goal among others: providing minimum levels of welfare for everybody, helping those who are worst off, or distributing welfare equally.

At the same time, utilitarians continue to defend their doctrine. They claim, on various grounds, that the right social choice should resemble the rational individual choice, and that, since the latter is a matter of maximizing, so is the former. They also point out that there are infinitely many non-utilitarian welfarist formulae and that it is hard to see how we can make a non-arbitrary choice between them. Furthermore, quite a few of these formulae have their own share of counter-intuitiveness in that they violate certain attractive moral principles; it is very hard, for example, to reconcile egalitarian constraints with Pareto's principle (the claim that, if something is worse for nobody and better for at least one, then it is better). Since the rejection of utilitarianism is frequently based on moral intuitions, we are faced with the general question, too, how much moral authority we are willing to grant them. It is sometimes argued that we should not trust their verdict on science-fiction cases; and that for realistic cases a careful study (that takes into account all the risks, consequences, and alternatives) would show that utilitarianism simply fails to entail the counter-intuitive judgements it is usually accused of.

If we have a doctrine both about what welfare is and what should be done about it in principle, then *applying* it to real-life issues – such as starting wars, telling lies, or eating animals – is another piece of hard work. Omitting this step, as academic philosophy seems sometimes inclined to, would render the whole enterprise of ethics pointless. Furthermore, applications can shape theories just as much as vice versa. They can do so in one of two ways. If we take moral intuitions seriously, then a particular intuition about a real-life problem will have at least some say in the choice of our general moral principles.

And even if we take intuitions less seriously, applications can reveal blindspots in our theories. Recently, for example, debates on death, abortion, and procreation have sent moral philosophers back to the drawing board; discussion of these issues had revealed that the concept of welfare or of justice, or both, needed a major rethink.

### 3.3. *Shared Preferences and the Foundations of Morality*

So much for the form and the content of morality. Even if *they* had nothing to do with preferences, preferentialist rationality would still post preferences at the *foundations* of morals. This is so because a foundation for a morality is an argument to the effect that it is *rational* to do what the morality says one *ought* to do; thus, if rationality is a matter of preferences, so will be the foundations of morals: founding morals is showing that agents *want* to do what they *ought* to do (see also pp. xxviii f. above).

The task can be specified further if we also buy the preferentialist story as to *what* it is that agents ought to do: satisfy, as best as they can, everybody's preferences. Then to show of an agent that she wants to do what she ought to do is to show that she wants to satisfy everybody's preferences. So if we are preferentialists *all* the way, then *to found morality is to show that an agent wants what others want*.

Here is a selection of prominent approaches to the task:

- A few philosophers seem to believe that preferences are *essentially* universal. It is supposed to be true in virtue of the *meaning* of “preference” or “rational preference” that, if somebody (rationally) prefers something, you share his preference – at least if you know about it and are rational yourself.
- Others focus their attention on the type of agent who already knows that she wants to make moral judgements; the very meaning of these judgements, they say, links her preferences to those of others. One problem with this approach is why an agent should be ready to make moral judgements at all, and, more specifically, moral judgements in precisely the sense of the metaethical premisses that the argument leans on. If the answer needs to adduce empirical claims (like the one that, in the world as it is, the agent would be better off if she did), then we are left with a considerable loss of generality, and the approach collapses into a version of minimal morals (see the final item on this list).
- It is also common to point to what are called people's *moral intuitions*, or *moral sentiments*. If, for example, you ‘perceive’, or feel, starvation to be unjust, then this will coincide (perhaps by definition, perhaps just in the world as it is) with a wish of yours (at least a *ceteris paribus* wish) that

there be no starvation; and this wish of yours is one for the satisfaction of other people's wishes, viz. their wishes to survive. Assume that we can find a moral theory that embodies all such intuitions or sentiments of yours, and that we are sufficiently careful to use only data that are backed up by your desires. Then you will indeed want to do what the theory says you ought to do. Unfortunately, intuitions or sentiments differ from one person to the next. What we are likely to end up doing this way is to found myriads of moralities, incompatible with each other.

- Next, there is *minimal morals*. In essence, it asks to what extent even egoists have reasons for being moral. Though an egoist has no *intrinsic* preference for satisfying other people's preferences, doing so will sometimes be the most promising means to her ends. (For instance, when people whom she would frustrate could get back at her. Game theory is of great help in analysing motivational structures of this type.) Since minimal moralists marshal *empirical* facts to buffer the effects of egoism, their results will be limited to cases in which the relevant facts obtain.

These were examples of attempts to provide morality with a foundation. It is worth pointing out two standard mistakes in the discussion. One is to look at such attempts as competitors. The tacit assumption that, if one of them is right, the others have to be wrong, pervades large parts of the debate. It is, however, unwarranted, just like the claim that, of any two tools, one is better than the other. They needn't be. For some jobs, a hammer is better than a screwdriver, for others vice versa; this is why we have *toolboxes*. Ditto for the foundations of morals. Our task is to show for as many combinations as possible of agent, others, and desiderata that the agent wants what the others want. Maybe different arguments work for different combinations. Founding morals is like a collection: every contribution is welcome.

The second mistake is to blame an approach to the foundations of morals for the gaps it leaves: "Mary ought to do *F*, but system *X* gives her no reason to do so; *hence*, system *X* is inadequate." This is a frequent move, and there are two reasons why it is too rash. One is that, while system *X* might leave parts of the task unperformed, it might perform *other* parts of it, and that perhaps better than anybody else; it might be incomplete rather than mistaken. The other reason is that perhaps some gaps cannot be overcome by *any* argument. Maybe there are situations in which agents have no reasons to take other people's preferences seriously. This could be the sad truth.

Suppose it is. Suppose that some alleged obligation will be left dangling in the air; say, we cannot find a *reason* for Mary to do something she ought to do. What then?



We might still want to tie morality to preferences, or reasons, in a weaker sense. We might want to say, just like our second example of attempts to found morality did, that at least *the person who acknowledges an obligation* (subscribes to a moral judgement) must want, or have reasons, to meet it. Theories that say something along these lines are called *internalist* (as opposed to externalist) or *prescriptivist* (as opposed to descriptivist).

The question of internalism looms particularly large in the discussion of *moral realism*. Moral realists say that we *perceive* value, roughly in the same sense as we perceive colours; therefore, the question what ought to be done is cognitive just as much as the question whether tomatoes are red. Answers to it can be true or false, and somebody is handicapped (blind) if he doesn't experience the relevant data, and epistemically irrational if he does not process them 'properly'. However, if *internalism* is true – if, that is, accepting a moral judgement *entails* having reasons, or preferences, to act in accordance with it –, then it is very difficult to see how moral realism could be the whole story. Preferences, it would seem, can hardly be true or false.

But internalism is just one of many possibilities. More generally, there are, if we discover a dissonance between an alleged reason and an alleged obligation, three basic types of options. Either we take the lack of reasons to refute the alleged *obligation*: if somebody has no reason for doing something, then a morality saying that he ought to do it is inadequate. Or – vice versa, and less commonly – we take the alleged lack of reasons to refute the underlying idea of *rationality*: if somebody ought to do something, then a conception of rationality saying that he has no reason to do it is inadequate. Or we let the obligation dangle, and parts of our morality will be unfounded, parts of our rationality immoral: some people have obligations they have no reason to meet. (Even then, we can still require *some* connections, for example the internalist ones.)

The choice among the basic options and their combinations is controversial. In essence, it concerns the pecking order between rationality and morality. Where the two of them don't match, should the latter yield to the former, or vice versa, or should they stay out of each other's way?

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Here our tour ends. We concentrated on the example of preferentialism. It should be obvious, however, that most of the questions we touched upon arise for most theories of rationality or morality. They certainly arise for every the-

ory that assigns any role at all to preference or welfare (even if – unlike preferentialism and welfarism – it assigns roles to other players as well). Though we mentioned dozens of problems and debates, there are at least as many that we did not mention. Still, the structure of the field is perhaps tolerably clear.

Let us recall some of the distinctions and some of the connections. Preferences can come up on different levels of practical reasoning. It is, for example, one thing to say that the *format* of morality is that of a normative preference relation; it is another thing to say that preference satisfaction is what the normative relation is all *about* (in other words, that preference satisfaction makes one world better than another); it is yet another thing to say that *rationality* is a matter of preference satisfaction; and so on. Bayesian decision theory, instrumentalism, consequentialism, (preference-)utilitarianism, welfarism, and the standard approach to deontic logic are all distinct from each other; it is quite possible that some of them are true, or acceptable, and others not.

Furthermore, the claim that, on any given level, preferences are not the whole story is distinct from the claim that they are not an important part of the whole story. And theories that employ the word “preference” may each define it as they please and can then require a critic to base his objections on their usage rather than on his.

From the differences to the connections. Take, for instance, the idea of intrapersonalization (mentioned on pp. xxxvii f.). That was the idea – intimately related to the well-known maxim to do to others as we wish others to do to us – that morality equals rational choice minus identity. In one version of it, the moral evaluation of outcomes is based on the question which of them a rational agent would choose if she knew how people live in them, but had no idea which of these lives she herself would have to live. If you endorse this type of criterion, then your theory of rational choice will determine the content of your morality, or vice versa, or both. Ditto if you think (following a claim we met in section 3.3) that people only have obligations that it would be rational for them to meet.

Other connections are harder to put into words. It seems that some *combinations* of answers are particularly concordant, in a rather aesthetical sense of the term. Consider the preferentialist standard package: Bayesian decision theory, consequentialism, preference-utilitarianism, deontic logic based on normative preference relations. The overall picture of practical reason that this package offers us is, this much has to be admitted, breathtakingly unified. It bristles with structural and substantial analogies between its components, and each part of it looks like the ‘natural’ or ‘obvious’ complement to all the others.

Is this an argument? Other packages, with radically different components, might look equally unified. And the sheer amount of unity could raise the

question whether the preferentialist system has simply bewitched us: maybe the vision has been *too* coherent to permit a clear judgement of its components. And maybe not.

CHRISTOPH FEHIGE AND ULLA WESSELS  
Preferences – a Short Bibliography\*

This bibliography – not quite as short as we had once intended it to be – focuses on preferences (desires, etc.) in rationality and morals.

*Nota bene:* Important articles are usually not listed separately if they are contained in a collection that is listed. Contributions to this volume have not been listed. Comments that will enable us to correct or to update this bibliography are welcome.

*History:* By and large, we concentrate on contemporary writings. To spot earlier ones, consult the two encyclopaedias mentioned in the next paragraph as well as, *s.v.* “Begehren”, “Begehrungsvermögen”, “Streben”, “Wille”, and the like, Rudolf Eisler’s phenomenal *Wörterbuch der philosophischen Begriffe*, 3 vols., fourth (and last) ed., Berlin 1927–30, and its successor, Joachim Ritter (ed.): *Historisches Wörterbuch der Philosophie*, 10 vols., Basel 1971 ff. Both the latter contain a plethora of relevant dicta from all sorts of centuries, complete with references. Furthermore, Seebaß’s book (mentioned below, in sect. 1.3) will be of great help. As to the ancients in particular, see, for example, Albrecht Dihle: *The Theory of Will in Classical Antiquity*, Berkeley 1982; J. C. B. Gosling and C. C. W. Taylor: *The Greeks on Pleasure*, Oxford 1982; T. H. Irwin: “Who Discovered the Will?”, *Philosophical Perspectives* 6 (1992); id.: *Plato’s Ethics*, New York 1995; Charles H. Kahn: “Plato’s Theory of Desire”, *Review of Metaphysics* 41 (1987); A. A. Long and D. N. Sedley: *The Hellenistic Philosophers*, 2 vols., Cambridge 1987; Amélie Oksenberg Rorty (ed.): *Essays on Aristotle’s Ethics*, Berkeley 1980; and the monographs by Annas and Nussbaum (both below, in sect. 3.2.1).

*Moral philosophy:* For moral philosophy in general, we recommend Lawrence C. and Charlotte B. Becker (eds.): *Encyclopaedia of Ethics*, 2 vols., Chicago 1992; C. D. Broad: *Five Types of Ethical Theory*, London 1930; Richard M. Hare: *Moral Thinking: Its Levels, Method and Point*, Oxford 1981; John Hospers: *Human Conduct: An Introduction to the Problems of Ethics*, New York 1961; W. D. Hudson (ed.): *New Studies in Ethics*, 2 vols., London 1974; Friedrich Jodl: *Geschichte der Ethik als philosophischer Wissenschaft*, 2 vols., Stuttgart 1923 (vol. 1, third ed.) and 1930 (vol. 2, fourth ed.; first ed. of vol. 1 first publ. in 1882, first ed. of vol. 2 first publ. in 1889); Franz von Kutschera: *Grundlagen der Ethik*, Berlin 1982; Annemarie Pieper (ed.): *Geschichte der neueren Ethik*, 2 vols., Tübingen 1992; Peter Schaber and Jean-Claude Wolf (eds.):

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*Handbuch Philosophie: Ethik*, Freiburg 1997; Peter Singer (ed.): *A Companion to Ethics*, Oxford 1991; Peter Singer (ed.): *Ethics*, Oxford 1994. Since dipping into the Beckers' *Encyclopaedia*, into Schaber's and Wolf's *Handbuch*, into Singer's *Companion*, and into *The Encyclopaedia of Philosophy* (ed. by Paul Edwards, London 1967) is always a good idea (e.g., *s.v.* "pleasure", "desire", "happiness", "motive", "practical reason", "welfare"), contributions to these works have not been listed.

*Other bibliographies:* Some other bibliographies are listed at the appropriate places in this one. At least two more deserve special mention: volumes 9 and 10 in the series *Study Aids*, published by the Oxford Sub-faculty of Philosophy, are excellent and cover among other issues most of those that we do. Vol. 9 is James Baker: *A Select Bibliography of Moral Philosophy* (1977); vol. 10 is Susan L. Hurley, Jeff McMahan, and Madison Powers: *A Select Bibliography of Moral and Political Philosophy* (1987). The overlap between these two, as well as between them and this bibliography, is considerable in some areas, but so are the differences.

The bibliography is structured as follows:

1. The Concept of Preference
  - 1.1 The Logic of Preference
  - 1.2 Attitudes in General
  - 1.3 Preference in Particular: Representation and Charge
  - 1.4 The Taxonomy of Preferences
2. Preference and Rationality
  - 2.1 General Problems
  - 2.2 Rational Decision Theory
3. Preference and Morality
  - 3.1 Normative Preferences and the Format of Morality
    - 3.1.1 Consequentialism
    - 3.1.2 Deontic Logic
  - 3.2 Preference Satisfaction and the Content of Morality
    - 3.2.1 Preference Satisfaction and the Concept of Welfare
    - 3.2.2 Distributing Preference Satisfaction
  - 3.3 Shared Preferences and the Foundations of Morality
    - 3.3.1 General: Wanting What's Good (Internalism, Prescriptivity, "Why be Moral?")
    - 3.3.2 Special: Wanting What Others Want

1. *The Concept of Preference*1.1. *The Logic of Preference*

Since the boundary between decision theory and the logic of preference is blurry, section 2.2 is also of interest. And since many authors regard the logics of “want” and “ought” as identical, section 3.1.2 should be consulted as well.

Aristotle: *Prior Analytics*, 68<sup>a</sup>25–<sup>b</sup>7; this reference follows the standard system based on Bekker’s edition and indicated in most modern editions.

——: *Rhetoric*, book I.

——: *Topics*, book III.

Cresswell, M. J.: “A Semantics for a Logic of ‘Better’”, *Logique et Analyse* 14 (1971).

Danielsson, Sven: *Preference and Obligation*, Uppsala 1968.

Halldén, Sören: *On the Logic of “Better”*, Uppsala 1957.

Hansson, Bengt: “Fundamental Axioms for Preference Relations”, *Synthese* 18 (1968).

Hansson, Sven Ove: “What Is Ceteris Paribus Preference?”, *Journal of Philosophical Logic* 25 (1996).

von Kutschera, Franz: *Einführung in die intensionale Semantik*, Berlin 1976, sect. 5.3.

Moutafakis, Nicholas J.: *The Logics of Preference*, Dordrecht 1987. (Useful for finding further literature.)

Rescher, Nicholas: *Introduction to Value Theory*, Lanham, Md., 1982; first publ. in 1962.

—— (ed.): *The Logic of Decision and Action*, Pittsburgh 1966.

Sen, Amartya K.: *Collective Choice and Social Welfare*, San Francisco 1970, ch. 1\*.

Trapp, Rainer Werner: “Utility Theory and Preference Logic”, *Erkenntnis* 22 (1985).

von Wright, Georg Henrik: *The Logic of Preference: An Essay*, Edinburgh 1963.

1.2. *Attitudes in General*

Block, Ned (ed.): *Readings in Philosophy of Psychology*, 2 vols., Cambridge, Mass., 1980 (vol. 1) and 1981 (vol. 2). (On mental representation, see vol. 2, part I.)

Cummins, Robert: *Meaning and Mental Representation*, Cambridge, Mass., 1989.

Dennett, Daniel C.: *The Intentional Stance*, Cambridge, Mass., 1987.

Kemmerling, Andreas: “Mentale Repräsentationen”, *Kognitionswissenschaft* 1 (1990/91). (See also the exchange between the author and Ansgar Beckermann in vol. 2 (1991) of the same journal.)

Loewer, Barry, and Georges Rey (eds.): *Meaning in Mind: Fodor and His Critics*, Oxford 1991.

Lycan, William G. (ed.): *Mind and Cognition: A Reader*, Oxford 1990.

Schumacher, Ralph: “Philosophische Theorien mentaler Repräsentation”, *Deutsche Zeitschrift für Philosophie* 45 (1997).

Sterelny, Kim: *The Representational Theory of Mind: An Introduction*, Oxford 1990.

Stich, Steven, and Ted A. Warfield: *Mental Representation: A Reader*, Oxford 1994. (See esp. “Fodor’s Guide to Mental Representation”.)

### 1.3. Preference in Particular: Representation and Charge

*Psychological literature with few or no explicit references to philosophical problems:* This literature is not listed; for a philosopher’s guide to some of it, see Brandt (1979). See also Heinz Heckhausen: *Motivation und Handeln*, second ed., Berlin 1988 (first ed. first publ. in 1980), and the following: Charles N. Cofer: *Motivation and Emotion*, Glenview, Ill., 1972; id. and M. H. Appleby: *Motivation: Theory and Research*, New York 1964; Antonio R. Damasio: *Descartes’ Error: Emotion, Reason, and the Human Brain*, New York 1994, chs. 7–9; Frank Halisch and Julius Kuhl (eds.): *Motivation, Intention, and Volition*, Berlin 1987; Heinz Heckhausen, Peter M. Gollwitzer, and Franz E. Weinert (eds.): *Jenseits des Rubikon: Der Wille in den Humanwissenschaften*, Berlin 1987; Abraham H. Maslow: *Motivation and Personality*, second ed., London 1960 (first ed. first publ. in 1958); Leonard Thompson Troland: *Fundamentals of Human Motivation*, New York 1967 (first publ. in 1928). Werner Fischel: *Der Wille in psychologischer und philosophischer Betrachtung*, Berlin 1971, points out numerous writings.

*Determinism, free will, and the mind-body problem:* These issues, too, receive hardly any deliberate coverage. More on them in, for example, Dretske (1988), Gosling (1969), Seebaß (1993), and in: Frithjof Bergman: *On Being Free*, Notre Dame 1977; Keith Campbell: *Body and Mind*, second ed., Indiana 1984 (first ed. first publ. in 1970); Daniel C. Dennett: *Elbow Room: The Varieties of Free Will Worth Wanting*, Oxford 1984; Ted Hondrich: *How Free Are You? The Determinism Problem*, Oxford 1993; Peter van Inwagen: *An Essay on Free Will*, Oxford 1983; Brian O’Shaughnessy: *The Will: A Dual Aspect Theory*, 2 vols., Cambridge 1980; Ulrich Poohast: *Seminar: Freies Handeln und Determinismus*, Frankfurt/Main 1978; id.: *Die Unzulänglichkeit der Freiheitsbeweise: Zu einigen Lehrstücken aus der neueren Geschichte von Philosophie und Recht*, Frankfurt/Main 1980; Gary Watson (ed.): *Free Will*, Oxford 1982; Susan Wolf: *Freedom Within Reason*, Oxford 1990.

*Theory of action:* Large parts of this have not been included because they turn to preferences, if at all, for the sake of actions, rather than vice versa. For more on this, see, for instance, Binkley et al. (1971), Brandt/Kim (1963), Dretske (1988), Mele (1992), Schueler (1995), chs. 4–6, Waismann (1983), White (1979), Whiteley (1973), von Wright (1971; listed below, in sect. 2.1) as well as: Donald Davidson: *Essays on Actions and Events*, Oxford 1980; Jennifer Hornsby: *Actions*, London 1980; Carl Ginet: *On Action*, Cambridge 1990; Christoph Lumer: “Handlung”, in Hans Jörg Sandkühler (ed.): *Europäische Enzyklopädie zur Philosophie und Wissenschaft*, Hamburg 1990; Alfred R. Mele (ed.): *The Philosophy of Action*, Oxford 1997; Georg Meggle and Ansgar Beckermann (eds.): *Analytische Handlungstheorie*, 2 vols., Frankfurt/Main 1985; Carlos J. Moya: *The Philosophy of Action: An Introduction*, Cambridge 1990; Wolfgang Stegmüller: *Erklärung, Begründung, Kausalität*, second ed., Berlin 1983, ch. VI (first ed.

first publ. in 1969). The volumes by Beckermann, Binkley et al., and Meggle all include splendid bibliographies.

- Ach, Narziß: *Analyse des Willens*, Berlin 1935.
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- Dewey, John: *Theory of Valuation*, Chicago 1939.
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- Duncker, Karl: "On Pleasure, Emotion, and Striving", *Philosophy and Phenomenological Research* 1 (1940).
- Egonsson, Dan: *Interests, Utilitarianism and Moral Standing*, Lund 1990. (Contains extensive and lucid discussions of the major options for explicating the concept of preference; mentions and considers many of the canonical writings.)
- Gibbard, Allan: *Wise Choices, Apt Feelings: A Theory of Normative Judgement*, Oxford 1990.
- Goldman, Alvin: *A Theory of Human Action*, Princeton 1970, esp. chs. 3 f.
- : "The Volitional Theory Revisited", in Myles Brand and Douglas Walton (eds.): *Action Theory*, Dordrecht 1976.
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- Green, Thomas Hill: *Prolegomena to Ethics*, third ed., Oxford 1890, book II; first ed. of *Prolegomena* first publ. in 1883.
- Heckhausen, Heinz, Peter M. Gollwitzer, and Franz E. Weinert (eds.): *Jenseits des Rubikon: Der Wille in den Humanwissenschaften*, Berlin 1987.
- Humberstone, I. L.: "Wanting, Getting, Having", *Philosophical Papers* 19 (1990).
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- Kusser, Anna: *Dimensionen der Kritik von Wünschen*, Frankfurt/Main 1989.



- Lewis, David: "Desire as Belief", *Mind* 97 (1988). (More papers on the same topic can be found in the same, the preceding and the subsequent volumes of *Mind*.)
- MacIntyre, Alisdair: "Pleasure as a Reason for Action", *The Monist* 49 (1965).
- Marks, Joel (ed.): *The Ways of Desire: New Essays in Philosophical Psychology on the Concept of Wanting*, Chicago 1986. (With a large bibliography.)
- McGuinness, Brian F.: "I Know What I Want", *Proceedings of the Aristotelian Society* 57 (1956/57).
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- Ohlsson, Ragnar: *Morals Based on Needs*, Lanham, Md., 1995, esp. ch. 4.
- Pears, David: *Questions in the Philosophy of Mind*, London 1975, chs. 1–3, 5, and 10.
- Perry, Ralph Barton: *General Theory of Value: Its Meaning and Basic Principles Construed in Terms of Interest*, Cambridge, Mass., 1926.
- : *Realms of Value: A Critique of Human Civilization*, Cambridge, Mass., 1954, chs. I–V.
- Pfänder, Alexander: *Phänomenologie des Wollens: Eine psychologische Analyse*, together with *Motive und Motivation*, third ed., Munich 1963; first ed. of *Phänomenologie* first publ. in 1900, first ed. of *Motive* first publ. in 1911.
- Plato: *Republic*, book IV.
- Platts, Mark de Bretton: *Moral Realities: An Essay in Philosophical Psychology*, London 1911, part I.
- Prichard, H. A.: *Moral Obligation: Essays and Lectures*, Oxford 1949. (Contains several pieces on desires, the will, etc.)
- Putnam, Hilary: "The Mental Life of Some Machines", in Hector-Neri Castañeda (ed.): *Intentionality, Minds, and Perception: Discussions on Contemporary Philosophy: A Symposium*, Detroit 1967. (With a comment by Alvin Plantinga and a rejoinder.)
- Rashdall, Hastings: *The Theory of Good and Evil*, 2 vols., Oxford 1907, vol. I, ch. II.
- Ricœur, Paul: *Philosophie de la Volonté*, vol. 1 (*Le Volontaire et l'Involontaire*), Paris 1950.
- Russell, Bertrand: *The Analysis of Mind*, London 1921, ch. 3.
- Ryle, Gilbert: *The Concept of Mind*, London 1949, ch. III.
- Schueler, G. F.: *Desire: Its Role in Practical Reason and the Explanation of Action*, Cambridge, Mass., 1995, ch. 1.
- Seebaß, Gottfried: *Wollen*, Frankfurt/Main 1993. (With, among other qualities, notes that contain a splendid number of references to, and discussions of, earlier sources, like Brentano, Gomperz, Lotze, Nietzsche, Reid, to name but a few.)
- Sellars, Wilfrid: "Volitions Re-affirmed", in Myles Brand and Douglas Walton (eds.): *Action Theory*, Dordrecht 1976.
- Sen, Amartya K.: *Choice, Welfare, and Measurement*, Oxford 1982, part I.

- Shope, Robert K.: "Rawls, Brandt, and the Definition of Rational Desires", *Canadian Journal of Philosophy* 8 (1978).
- Smythe, Thomas W.: "Unconscious Desires and the Meaning of 'Desire'", *The Monist* 56 (1972).
- Strawson, Galen: *Mental Reality*, Cambridge, Mass., 1994, ch. 9.
- Swinburne, Richard: "Desire", *Philosophy* 60 (1985).
- Waismann, Friedrich: "Wille und Motiv", in id.: *Wille und Motiv: Zwei Abhandlungen über Ethik und Handlungstheorie*, Stuttgart 1983; "Wille und Motiv" probably written in the mid-1940s.
- White, Alan R. (ed.): *The Philosophy of Action*, Oxford 1979; first ed. first publ. in 1968.
- Whiteley, C. H.: *Mind in Action: An Essay in Philosophical Psychology*, London 1973, ch. 4.

#### 1.4. The Taxonomy of Preferences

Distinctions of types of preferences are usually motivated by specific problems, and are therefore scattered all over the literature. Most of the writings mentioned in section 3.2.1, for instance, contain some of them. The subject index of *Zum moralischen Denken* (ed. by Christoph Fehige and Georg Meggle, 2 vols., Frankfurt/Main 1995) lists types of preferences in abundance (s.v. "Präferenzen"); numerous debates, definitions, and writings can be spotted with its help. Many major distinctions are discussed at some point in the following works:

- Baron, Jonathan: *Morality and Rational Choice*, Dordrecht 1993, ch. 3.
- Bentham, Jeremy: *A Table of the Springs of Action*, Oxford 1983; first printed in 1815; first publ. in 1817.
- Egonsson, Dan: *Interests, Utilitarianism and Moral Standing*, Lund 1990.
- Elster, Jon: *Sour Grapes: Studies in the Subversion of Rationality*, Cambridge 1983.
- Goldman, Alvin: *A Theory of Human Action*, Princeton 1970, esp. chs. 3 f.
- Hare, Richard M.: *Moral Thinking: Its Levels, Method and Point*, Oxford 1981.
- Heil, John (ed.): *Rationality, Morality, and Self-Interest: Essays Honouring Mark Carl Overvold*, Lanham, Md., 1993. (See esp. the contributions by Brad Hooker and Alan E. Fuchs.)
- Kusser, Anna: *Dimensionen der Kritik von Wünschen*, Frankfurt/Main 1989.
- von Kutschera, Franz: "Semantic Analyses of Normative Concepts", *Erkenntnis* 9 (1975).
- Parfit, Derek: *Reasons and Persons*, ed. with revisions from 1985 and 1987, Oxford 1987; first ed. first publ. in 1984.
- Platts, Mark de Bretton: *Moral Realities: An Essay in Philosophical Psychology*, London 1911, part I.
- Schueler, G. F.: *Desire: Its Role in Practical Reason and the Explanation of Action*, Cambridge, Mass., 1995, ch. 1.

## 2. Preference and Rationality

### 2.1. General Problems

*Consequentialism:* See section 3.1.1.

*Psychology, free will, and the theory of action:* See the beginning of section 1.3; ditto (paragraph on the theory of action) if you're looking for material on the role of preferences in the rational *explanation*, rather than justification, of actions.

*Weakness of the will:* This gets hardly any coverage in this list; good discussions and further references can be found in, for example, William Charlton: *Weakness of Will: A Philosophical Introduction*, Oxford 1988; J. C. B. Gosling: *Weakness of the Will*, London 1980; Richard M. Hare's entry "Weakness of the Will" for the Beckers' encyclopaedia (see introduction to this bibliography); Alfred R. Mele: *Irrationality: An Essay on Akrasia, Self-Deception, and Self-Control*, New York 1987; Geoffrey W. Mortimore (ed.): *Weakness of Will*, London 1971; Thomas Spitzley: *Handeln wider besseres Wissen: Eine Diskussion klassischer Positionen*, Berlin 1992; Arthur F. Walker: "Critical Survey: The Problem of Weakness of Will", *Noûs* 23 (1989).

Aristotle: *The Nicomachean Ethics*.

Audi, Robert: *Practical Reasoning*, London 1989.

—: *Action, Intention, and Reason*, Ithaca 1993.

Baier, Kurt: "Good Reasons", *Philosophical Studies* 4 (1953).

—: *The Rational and the Moral Order: The Social Roots of Reason and Morality*, Chicago 1995.

Bain, Alexander: *The Emotions and the Will*, Washington 1977; first publ. in 1859.

Black, Oliver: "Ends, Desires, and Rationality", *International Philosophical Quarterly* 34 (1994).

Brandt, Richard B.: "Rational Desires", in id.: *Morality, Utilitarianism, and Rights*, Cambridge 1992; "Rational Desires" first publ. in 1970.

—: *A Theory of the Good and the Right*, Oxford 1979.

Bratman, Michael E.: *Intention, Plans and Practical Reason*, Cambridge, Mass., 1987.

Bricker, Phillip: "Prudence", *Journal of Philosophy* 77 (1980).

Cullity, Garrett, and Berys Gaut (eds.): *Ethics and Practical Reason*, Oxford 1997.

Elster, Jon: *Ulysses and the Sirens: Studies in Rationality and Irrationality*, second, revised ed., Cambridge 1984; first ed. first publ. in 1979.

—: *Sour Grapes: Studies in the Subversion of Rationality*, Cambridge 1983.

— (ed.): *Rational Choice*, Oxford 1986.

Frankfurt, Harry G.: *The Importance of What We Care About*, Cambridge 1989.

Frey, R. G., and Christopher W. Morris (eds.): *Value, Welfare, and Morality*, Cambridge 1993.

Fuchs, Alan E.: "Rationality and Future Desires", *Australasian Journal of Philosophy* 63 (1985).

- Gauthier, David: *Practical Reasoning: The Structure and Foundations of Prudential and Moral Arguments and Their Exemplification in Moral Discourse*, Oxford 1963.
- Gibbard, Allan: *Wise Choices, Apt Feelings: A Theory of Normative Judgement*, Oxford 1990.
- Grice, Geoffrey Russell: *The Grounds of Moral Judgement*, Cambridge 1967, ch. 1.
- Hare, Richard M.: *Practical Inferences*, London 1971.
- : “What Makes Choices Rational?”, *Review of Metaphysics* 32 (1979).
- Harman, Gilbert: “Practical Reasoning”, *Review of Metaphysics* 29 (1976).
- : *Change of View: Principles of Reasoning*, Cambridge, Mass., 1986, ch. 8.
- Harrison, Ross (ed.): *Rational Action: Studies in Philosophy and Social Sciences*, Cambridge 1980. (See esp. the papers by Williams, i.e. the much-quoted “Internal and External Reasons”, and by Wollheim.)
- Hempel, Carl G.: “Rational Action”, *Proceedings and Addresses of the American Philosophical Association* 35 (1961/62).
- Hooker, Brad: “Theories of Welfare, Theories of Good Reasons for Action, and Ontological Naturalism”, *Philosophical Papers* 20 (1991).
- Hubin, Donald C.: “Irrational Desires”, *Philosophical Studies* 62 (1991).
- Hume, David: *A Treatise of Human Nature: Being an Attempt to Introduce the Experimental Method of Reasoning into Moral Subjects*, Oxford 1978, book II; *Treatise* first publ. in 1739.
- Kagan, Shelly: “The Present-Aim Theory of Rationality”, *Ethics* 96 (1985/86).
- Körner, Stephan (ed.): *Practical Reason*, Oxford 1974.
- Kolnai, Aurel: “Deliberation Is of Ends”, in F. Dunlop and B. Klug (eds.): *Ethics, Value and Reality: Selected Papers of Aurel Kolnai*, Indianapolis 1978; “Deliberation” first publ. in 1962.
- Korsgaard, Christine M.: “Scepticism about Practical Reason”, *Journal of Philosophy* 83 (1986).
- Kusser, Anna: *Dimensionen der Kritik von Wünschen*, Frankfurt/Main 1989.
- Macintosh, Duncan: “Persons and the Satisfaction of Preferences: Problems in the Rational Kinematics of Values”, *Journal of Philosophy* 90 (1993).
- Millgram, Elijah: “Pleasure in Practical Reasoning”, *The Monist* 76 (1993).
- Moser, Paul K. (ed.): *Rationality in Action: Contemporary Approaches*, Cambridge 1990.
- Nagel, Thomas: *The Possibility of Altruism*, Oxford 1970, part two.
- Ng, Yew-Kwang: “Individual Irrationality and Social Welfare”, *Social Choice and Welfare* 6 (1989).
- Nielsen, Kai: “Rationality and Preference”, *Second Order* 6 (1977).
- Norman, Richard: *Reasons for Actions: A Critique of Utilitarian Rationality*, Oxford 1971, chs. 1–3.
- Nozick, Robert: *The Nature of Rationality*, Princeton 1993, ch. V.
- Parfit, Derek: *Reasons and Persons*, ed. with revisions from 1985 and 1987, Oxford 1987; first ed. first publ. in 1984.
- : “Reasons and Motivation”, *Proceedings of the Aristotelian Society*, Supp. Vol. 71 (1997). (With a reply by John Broome.)

- Paul, Ellen Frankel (ed.): *Self-Interest*, issue no. 1 of *Social Philosophy and Policy* 14 (1997).
- Persson, Ingmar: "Rationality and Maximization of Satisfaction", *Noûs* 22 (1988).
- Pettit, Philip, and Michael Smith: "Backgrounding Desire", *The Philosophical Review* 99 (1990).
- : "Practical Unreason", *Mind* 102 (1993).
- Raz, Joseph (ed.): *Practical Reasoning*, Oxford 1978. (With a good selected bibliography.)
- Richards, D. A. J.: *A Theory of Reasons for Actions*, Oxford 1971.
- Richardson, Henry S.: *Practical Reasoning about Final Ends*, Cambridge 1994.
- Schiffer, Stephen: "A Paradox of Desire", *American Philosophical Quarterly* 13 (1976).
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- Searle, John R.: "Desire, Deliberation, and Action", unpublished typescript.
- Smith, Michael: "Reason and Desire", *Proceedings of the Aristotelian Society* 88 (1987/88).
- Snare, Frank: "Wants and Reasons", *The Personalist* 53 (1972).
- Spitzley, Thomas: "Is There a Rational Will?", in Hans-Friedrich Fulda and Rolf-Peter Horstmann (eds.): *Vernunftbegriffe in der Moderne: Stuttgarter Hegel-Kongress 1993*, Stuttgart 1994.
- Stampe, Dennis W.: "The Authority of Desire", *Philosophical Review* 96 (1987).
- Velleman, J. David: *Practical Reflection*, Princeton 1989.
- : "The Guise of the Good", *Noûs* 26 (1992).
- Wallace, R. Jay: "How to Argue about Practical Reason", *Mind* 99 (1990).
- Wiggins, David: *Needs, Values, Truth*, second ed., Oxford 1991; first ed. first publ. in 1987.
- von Wright, Georg Henrik: *Explanation and Understanding*, London 1971.
- Ziff, Paul: "Time Preference", *Dialectica* 44 (1990).

## 2.2. Rational Decision Theory

Since the boundary between decision theory and the logic of preference is blurry, section 1.1 should be consulted as well. As to "utility" and its measurement, see also section 3.2.1. Game-theoretical writings with an immediate bearing on the rational foundation of morals are mostly listed in section 3.3.

- Anand, Paul: *Foundations of Rational Choice under Risk*, Oxford 1993.
- Bacharach, Michael, and Susan Hurley (eds.): *Foundations of Decision Theory*, Oxford 1991.
- Bell, David E., Ralph L. Keeney, and Howard Raiffa (eds.): *Conflicting Objectives in Decisions*, Chichester 1977.
- , Howard Raiffa, and Amos Tversky (eds.): *Decision Making: Descriptive, Normative, and Prescriptive Interactions*, Cambridge 1988.
- Broome, John: *Weighing Goods: Equality, Uncertainty and Time*, Oxford 1991.

- Campbell, Richmond, and Lanning Sowden (eds.): *Paradoxes of Rationality and Cooperation: Prisoner's Dilemma and Newcomb's Problem*, Vancouver 1985.
- Davidson, Donald, J. McKinsey, and Patrick Suppes: "Outline of a Formal Theory of Value", *Philosophy of Science* 22 (1955).
- Edwards, Ward: "The Theory of Decision Making", *Psychological Bulletin* 51 (1954). (An interdisciplinary overview with a large bibliography.)
- Eells, Ellery: *Rational Decision and Causality*, Cambridge 1982.
- Fishburn, Peter C.: *Decision and Value Theory*, New York 1964.
- : *Utility Theory for Decision Making*, New York 1970.
- Gärdenfors, Peter, and Nils-Eric Sahlin (eds.): *Decision, Probability, and Utility: Selected Readings*, Cambridge 1988.
- Halldén, Sören: *The Foundations of Decision Logic*, Lund 1980.
- Harsanyi, John C.: *Rational Behavior and Bargaining Equilibrium in Games and Social Situations*, Cambridge 1977.
- Hollis, Martin, and Robert Sugden: "Rationality in Action", *Mind* 102 (1993).
- Jeffrey, Richard C.: *The Logic of Decision*, second ed., Chicago 1983; first ed. first publ. in 1965.
- Kahneman, Daniel, and Amos Tversky: "Prospect Theory", *Econometrica* 47 (1979).
- , Paul Slovic, and Amos Tversky (eds.): *Judgement under Uncertainty: Heuristics and Biases*, Cambridge 1982.
- Kaplan, Mark: *Decision Theory as Philosophy*, Cambridge 1996.
- Keeney, Ralph L.: *Value-Focused Thinking: A Path to Creative Decisionmaking*, Cambridge, Mass., 1992.
- , and Howard Raiffa: *Decisions with Multiple Objectives: Preferences and Value Tradeoffs*, Cambridge 1993.
- Kern, Lucian, and Julian Nida-Rümelin: *Logik kollektiver Entscheidungen*, Munich 1994.
- Kohler, Eckehart, and Michael Stoltzner: *Game Theory, Experience, Rationality*, Dordrecht forthcoming.
- Kusser, Anna, and Wolfgang Spohn: "The Utility of Pleasure is a Pain for Decision Theory", *Journal of Philosophy* 89 (1992).
- Luce, R. Duncan, and Howard Raiffa: *Games and Decisions: Introduction and Critical Survey*, New York 1957.
- McClennen, Edward F.: *Rationality and Dynamic Choice: Foundational Explorations*, Cambridge 1990.
- Millgram, Elijah, and Paul Thagard: "Deliberative Coherence", *Synthese* 108 (1996).
- Morton, Adam: *Disasters and Dilemmas: Strategies for Real-Life Decision Making*, Oxford 1991.
- Moser, Paul K. (ed.): *Rationality in Action: Contemporary Approaches*, Cambridge 1990.
- Myerson, Roger B.: *Game Theory: Analysis of Conflict*, Cambridge, Mass., 1991.
- von Neumann, John, and Oskar Morgenstern: *Theory of Games and Economic Behavior*, third ed., Princeton 1953; first ed. first publ. in 1944. (The appendix with

the axiomatic derivation of numerical utility appears first in the second ed., of 1947).

- Nida-Rümelin, Julian (ed.): *Praktische Rationalität: Grundlagenprobleme und ethische Anwendungen des rational choice-Paradigmas*, Berlin 1993.
- Page, Alfred N. (ed.): *Utility Theory: A Book of Readings*, New York 1968.
- Rasmusen, Eric: *Games and Information: An Introduction to Game Theory*, Oxford 1991; first publ. in 1989.
- Resnik, Michael D.: *Choices: An Introduction to Decision Theory*, Minneapolis 1987.
- Savage, Leonard J.: *The Foundations of Statistics*, second ed., New York 1972; first ed. first publ. in 1954.
- Schelling, Thomas C.: *The Strategy of Conflict*, second ed., Cambridge, Mass., 1980; first ed. first publ. in 1960.
- Schick, Frederic: *Making Choices: A Recasting of Decision Theory*, Cambridge 1997.
- Sen, Amartya K.: "Is the Idea of Purely Internal Consistency of Choice Bizarre?", in J. E. J. Altham and Ross Harrison (eds.): *World, Mind, and Ethics: Essays in the Ethical Philosophy of Bernard Williams*, Cambridge 1995.
- Skyrms, Brian: *The Dynamics of Rational Deliberation*, Cambridge, Mass., 1990.
- Spohn, Wolfgang: *Grundlagen der Entscheidungstheorie*, D-Kronberg/Taunus 1978.
- Sugden, Robert: "Rational Choice: A Survey of Contributions from Economics and Philosophy", *The Economic Journal* 101 (1991).
- Suppes, Patrick, and Muriel Winet: "An Axiomatization of Utility Based on the Notion of Utility Differences", *Management Science* 1 (1955).
- Thagard, Paul, and Elijah Millgram: "Inference to the Best Plan: A Coherence Theory of Decision", in Ashwin Ram and David B. Leake (eds.): *Goal-Driven Learning*, Cambridge, Mass., 1995.

### 3. Preference and Morality

#### 3.1. Normative Preferences and the Format of Morality

##### 3.1.1. Consequentialism

- Bergström, Lars: *The Alternatives and Consequences of Actions*, Stockholm 1966.
- Broome, John: *Weighing Goods: Equality, Uncertainty and Time*, Oxford 1991, ch. 1.
- Carlson, Erik: *Consequentialism Reconsidered*, Dordrecht 1995.
- Feldman, Fred: *Doing the Best We Can: An Essay in Informal Deontic Logic*, Dordrecht 1986.
- Heyd, David: *Supererogation*, Cambridge 1982.
- Hare, Richard M.: *Moral Thinking: Its Levels, Method and Point*, Oxford 1981, chs. 2 f., and 8.
- Hodgson, D. H.: *Consequences of Utilitarianism: A Study in Normative Ethics and Legal Theory*, Oxford 1967.
- Kagan, Shelly: *The Limits of Morality*, Oxford 1989.

- Lyons, David B.: *Forms and Limits of Utilitarianism*, Oxford 1965.
- McNamara, Paul: "Making Room for Going Beyond the Call", *Mind* 105 (1996).
- Moore, G. E.: *Ethics*, London 1912.
- Nida-Rümelin, Julian: *Kritik des Konsequentialismus*, Munich 1993.
- Nozick, Robert: "Moral Complications and Moral Structures", *Natural Law Forum* 13 (1968).
- Parfit, Derek: *Reasons and Persons*, ed. with revisions from 1985 and 1987, Oxford 1987, part I; first ed. of *Reasons and Persons* first publ. in 1984.
- Pettit, Philip (ed.): *Consequentialism*, UK-Aldershot 1993.
- Piper, Adrian M. S.: "A Distinction Without a Difference", *Midwest Studies in Philosophy* 7 (1982).
- Rashdall, Hastings: *The Theory of Good and Evil*, 2 vols., Oxford 1907, vol. II, ch. II.
- Scheffler, Samuel: *The Rejection of Consequentialism: A Philosophical Investigation of the Considerations Underlying Rival Moral Conceptions*, second and revised ed., Oxford 1994; first ed. first publ. in 1982.
- (ed.): *Consequentialism and Its Critics*, Oxford 1988.
- Sidgwick, Henry: *The Methods of Ethics*, Indianapolis 1981, book II, ch. III; text of the seventh ed., from 1907; first ed. first publ. in 1874.
- Slote, Michael: *Common-Sense Morality and Consequentialism*, London 1985.
- : *Beyond Optimizing*, Cambridge, Mass., 1989.
- Smart, J. J. C., and Bernard Williams: *Utilitarianism: For and Against*, Cambridge 1973.
- Urmson, J. O.: "Saints and Heroes", in A. I. Melden (ed.): *Essays in Moral Philosophy*, Washington 1958.
- Vallentyne, Peter: "The Teleological/Deontological Distinction", *Journal of Value Inquiry* 21 (1987).

### 3.1.2. Deontic Logic

Since many authors regard the logics of "ought" and "want" as identical (for example, because they base their deontic logic on a normative preference relation), works on the logic of preference (cf. sect. 1.1) should be consulted as well. Much of the current work in deontic logic is presented at the biannual *Workshop on Deontic Logic in Computer Science*, and is documented in the corresponding proceedings; so far these are Meyer/Wieringa (1993), Jones/Sergot (1993), and Brown/Carmo (1996).

- Åqvist, Lennart: *Introduction to Deontic Logic and the Theory of Normative Systems*, Naples 1987.
- di Bernardo, Giuliano (ed.): *Logica deontica e semantica*, Bologna 1977. (With an enormous bibliography.)
- Brown, Mark A., and Jose M. Carmo (eds.): *Deontic Logic, Agency and Normative Systems: Deon '96: Third International Workshop on Deontic Logic in Computer Science, 1996, Sesimbra, Portugal*, Berlin 1996.



- Chisholm, Roderick M.: "Contrary-to-Duty Imperatives and Deontic Logic", *Analysis* 24 (1963).
- , and Ernest Sosa: "On the Logic of 'Intrinsically Better'", *American Philosophical Quarterly* 3 (1966).
- Corradini, Antonella: *Semantica della Preferenza e Decisione Etica*, Milano 1989.
- Danielsson, Sven: *Preference and Obligation*, Uppsala 1968.
- van Fraassen, Bas C.: "The Logic of Conditional Obligation", *Journal of Philosophical Logic* 1 (1972).
- Harman, Gilbert: "Toward a Theory of Intrinsic Value", *Journal of Philosophy* 64 (1967).
- al-Hibri, Azizah: *Deontic Logic: A Comprehensive Appraisal and a New Proposal*, Washington 1978.
- Hilpinen, Risto (ed.): *Deontic Logic: Introductory and Systematic Readings*, Dordrecht 1971.
- (ed.): *New Studies in Deontic Logic*, Dordrecht 1981.
- Horty, John F., and Nuel D. Belnap: "The Deliberative Stit: A Study of Action, Omission, Ability, and Obligation", *Journal of Philosophical Logic* 24 (1995).
- Jones, Andrew J. I., and Marek Sergot (eds.): *Deon '94: Second International Workshop on Deontic Logic in Computer Science, 1994, Oslo*, Oslo 1993. (A subset of these papers is also published in *Studia Logica* 57 (1996).)
- von Kutschera, Franz: *Einführung in die Logik der Normen, Werte und Entscheidungen*, Freiburg 1973.
- : *Einführung in die intensionale Semantik*, Berlin 1976, ch. 5.
- Lenk, Hans (ed.): *Normenlogik: Grundprobleme der Deontischen Logik*, D-Pullach 1974. (With, among other interesting items, an important article by von Kutschera, and a large bibliography.)
- Lewis, David: "Semantic Analyses for Dyadic Deontic Logic", in Sören Stenlund (ed.): *Logical Theory and Semantic Analysis*, Dordrecht 1974.
- Meyer, J.-J. Ch., and R. J. Wieringa (eds.): *Deontic Logic in Computer Science: Normative System Specification*, Chichester 1993.
- Nortmann, Ulrich: *Deontische Logik ohne Paradoxien: Semantik und Logik des Normativen*, Munich 1989.
- Oldfield, Edward: "An Approach to a Theory of Intrinsic Value", *Philosophical Studies* 32 (1977).
- von Wright, Georg Henrik: "Deontic Logic", *Mind* 60 (1951). (Some others of von Wright's many important contributions to the field can be found in Hilpinen 1971.)

### 3.2. Preference Satisfaction and the Content of Morality

#### 3.2.1. Preference Satisfaction and the Concept of Welfare

Since the discussions of what welfare is and how it should be distributed are often intimately connected, section 3.2.2 is also of interest. So is section 2, since an agent's

rationality is frequently taken to be accountable to her welfare (utility, preference satisfaction, or the like).

*Psychologists and social scientists:* They, too, grapple with the concept and the measurement of welfare. To pick up the thread in psychology, see, for instance, Argyle (1987), Beebe-Center (1932), and Veenhoven (1984) and (1994). In sociology, the pertinent area is “social indicators research”; for problems, approaches, and literature, see Baldwin et al. (1990), Noll/Zapf (1994), and Zapf (1984).

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### 3.2.2. Distributing Preference Satisfaction

Problems of aggregation are closely connected, firstly, to problems of comparability and measurement (therefore, section 3.2.1 should be consulted as well); secondly, via the foundation of morals, to sharing, or acquiring, other people’s preferences (therefore, section 3.3.2 should be consulted as well).

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### 3.3. Shared Preferences and the Foundations of Morality

#### 3.3.1. General: Wanting What's Good (Internalism, Prescriptivity, "Why Be Moral?")

Does an agent have to *want* to do what (she thinks) she *ought* to do? (Or, similarly, want the things to be the case that (she thinks) ought to be the case?) This is the general type of question, often discussed under headings like "internalism", "prescriptivity", "Why be moral?", or "the rational foundation of morality". Since the title of section 3.3.2 can be seen as a special version of it (one that arises if we equate what ought to be the case with the satisfaction of everybody's preferences), the items mentioned there should be consulted as well.

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### 3.3.2. Specific: Wanting What Others Want

If it is good to satisfy everybody's preferences, then the general question from section 3.3.1 (viz., Does the agent want what is good?) gives rise to a more specific one: Does the agent want what others want (or, similarly, others to get what they want)? Thus, the literature on the more general question from 3.3.1 should be consulted as well.

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