

# MORAL ABSOLUTISM 1

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## MORAL ABSOLUTISM

**Primary Disciplinary Field(s):** Ethics, Moral Philosophy, Meta-Ethics

### 1. Core Definition and Distinction

**Moral Absolutism** is a meta-ethical theory asserting that there are universal, immutable moral standards that apply to all individuals, regardless of context, culture, or personal belief. This doctrine fundamentally implies that certain actions are intrinsically right or wrong, often termed **moral laws**, which hold true across all time periods and geographical locations. The core principle, as articulated in general ethical discourse, is that the morality of an action can be determined according to a fixed set of right and wrong standards against which the act can be objectively compared. Unlike theories that emphasize outcomes or situational nuance, Moral Absolutism insists upon the inherent moral character of the act itself, demanding strict adherence to prescriptive rules.

This perspective dictates that moral rules are non-overrideable; if an act is judged wrong--such as lying, theft, or murder--it is wrong in every conceivable scenario, without exception or qualification. For the absolutist, the consequences of the action, the intentions of the agent (though sometimes important), or the surrounding circumstances cannot transform a fundamentally wrong act into a right one. This rigidity provides a stable, objective foundation for ethical judgment, offering clarity and certainty in moral decision-making, which is highly appealing in foundational religious and philosophical systems seeking universal truth.

The concept stands in stark opposition to other major ethical frameworks, particularly Moral Relativism, which posits that moral truths are relative to cultures, historical periods, or individuals, and Situation Ethics, which demands that moral decisions be based solely on maximizing love or utility within a specific context. When viewed in the context of situation ethics, Moral Absolutism serves as the necessary counterpoint, where morality is determined not by flexible situational outcomes, but by pre-established, unyielding principles. This defining feature of universal applicability and unconditional necessity places Moral Absolutism as one of the most demanding and rigorous ethical stances.

### 2. Etymology and Philosophical Foundations

The roots of **Moral Absolutism** stretch back to classical antiquity, where thinkers sought objective, universal principles to govern human conduct. Plato's Theory of Forms provides an early philosophical basis, suggesting that moral goodness exists independently of the material world and human opinion, existing instead as a perfect, absolute Form accessible through reason. This established the idea that moral truths are objective and discoverable, rather than invented.

Similarly, various forms of Divine Command Theory in monotheistic traditions provide a foundational structure for absolutism, where moral laws are directly derived from the infallible will or nature of a deity, making these commands necessarily absolute, universal, and eternally binding upon all believers and, sometimes, all humanity.

The most influential modern development of **Moral Absolutism** is found in the Enlightenment philosophy of Immanuel Kant. Kant's deontological framework argued that moral action must be motivated purely by duty and adherence to rational moral law, encapsulated in the concept of the Categorical Imperative. For Kant, moral maxims must be capable of being universalized without contradiction, meaning that if an action (like telling the truth) is morally required, it is required absolutely, regardless of the consequences of adherence. Kant explicitly rejected consequentialism and situational adjustment, cementing a powerful rationalist argument for absolute moral duties that are binding on all rational agents simply because they are rational.

Historically, the appeal of absolutism lies in its ability to provide a consistent moral compass during times of social upheaval or moral decay. By anchoring morality in transcendental reason or divine mandate, it prevents human morality from becoming arbitrary, fleeting, or subservient to political convenience. This stability has made it a cornerstone of legal systems and major religious codes, where the goal is to establish enduring rules that define civilization and punish transgressions based on fixed criteria, rather than subjective evaluation of harm or benefit.

### 3. Key Characteristics of Absolute Morality

Absolute moral rules possess several defining characteristics that differentiate them from relative or provisional ethical guidelines. Firstly, they are characterized by **Universality**; they must apply equally to every person, in every society, and at every point in history. If lying is defined as absolutely wrong, then it is wrong for a peasant in ancient Rome and a CEO in modern Tokyo. This universality implies that moral disagreement between cultures stems from an incomplete understanding or flawed application of the true, absolute moral law, rather than a genuine difference in the law itself.

Secondly, **Non-overrideability** is paramount. Absolute moral principles cannot be overridden by situational factors or potential consequences, even if adhering to the rule leads to a manifestly disastrous outcome. For instance, if the rule is "Do not kill," an absolutist must maintain that killing is wrong even if it is the only way to save a thousand other lives. The moral status of the act is fixed prior to, and independent of, its outcome. The rule stands as a definitive boundary, a red line that must never be crossed, serving as a constraint on human action regardless of pragmatic concerns.

Thirdly, absolute moral truths are considered **Objective** and **Cognizable**. They exist independently of human emotion, preference, or social agreement. Moral truths are not created by human beings;

rather, they are discovered through reason, divine revelation, or intuition. This objectivity suggests that moral statements can be true or false in the same way that factual scientific statements can be true or false. Consequently, moral debate under absolutism is seen as an attempt to identify the correct, pre-existing standard, rather than negotiating a consensus or evaluating personal feelings about an issue.

#### 4. Absolutism in Relation to Deontological Ethics

**Moral Absolutism** is most frequently and powerfully realized within the structure of Deontological Ethics (or duty-based ethics). Deontology, derived from the Greek *deon* meaning "duty," focuses entirely on whether actions themselves conform to a set of moral duties or rules. In the strictest deontological systems, these duties are viewed as absolute moral laws. For example, a deontologist following an absolute rule against harming innocents would consider this duty binding regardless of the benefit derived from violating it. The morality resides in the adherence to the duty itself, not the resultant state of the world.

The classic example is the prohibition against lying. An absolutist deontologist, particularly one influenced by Kant, would argue that lying is always morally impermissible because the maxim "It is permissible to lie" cannot be universalized without contradiction (it would undermine the very institution of trust necessary for communication). This adherence to the rule is absolute. Even in the famous "murderer at the door" dilemma--where a murderer asks for the location of an intended victim--the strict absolutist maintains the duty to tell the truth, even if it results in catastrophic consequences, because the moral culpability for the murder lies with the murderer, not the person who told the truth.

However, it is important to note the nuance between strict absolutism and broader deontology. While all strict absolutist systems are deontological, not all deontological theories are strictly absolutist. Some modern deontological views allow for duties to be weighted or allow for prima facie duties (duties that are binding unless overridden by a more significant duty), thus introducing an element of non-absolutism or flexibility. True **Moral Absolutism**, however, insists that the foundational moral laws are singular, unyielding, and inviolable.

#### 5. Contrast with Moral Relativism and Situation Ethics

The philosophical conflict between **Moral Absolutism** and Moral Relativism defines a core cleavage in meta-ethics. Relativism argues that moral judgments are only true or false relative to the standards of a particular framework (e.g., a culture or society). What is right in one society may be wrong in another, and there is no universal mechanism to judge one framework superior to the other. Absolutism rejects this outright, insisting that the standard of judgment is external and objective, ensuring that two conflicting moral beliefs cannot both be fundamentally correct. For the

absolutist, if a society sanctions slavery, that society is simply mistaken and morally deficient, regardless of its internal consensus, because the absolute moral law prohibits the enslavement of others.

Furthermore, Absolutism strongly contrasts with Situation Ethics, a consequentialist theory often associated with Christian theology, popularized by Joseph Fletcher. Situation Ethics posits that the ultimate moral law is the principle of love (agape), and therefore the morality of any action depends entirely on whether it maximizes love in that specific situation. This means that any rule--such as "do not lie" or "do not steal"--is provisional and can be broken if doing so serves the greater good (love) in a unique context. Absolutism views this approach as fundamentally flawed, arguing that it undermines the consistency and predictability necessary for a just society, transforming morality into subjective expediency rather than principled adherence.

The defining boundary remains the role of context. Relativism elevates context to the source of moral truth, while Situation Ethics elevates context to the determinant of the right action. Conversely, **Moral Absolutism** radically subordinates context; while context may explain why a transgression occurred, it can never justify or transform a fundamentally wrong action into a right one. The fixed list of principles or standards remains the sole criterion for moral evaluation.

## 6. The Problem of Conflicting Duties (Moral Dilemmas)

One of the most persistent and significant challenges facing **Moral Absolutism** is the dilemma of conflicting duties, often referred to as a genuine moral tragedy. These occur when two or more absolute moral duties clash in a specific scenario, making it logically and practically impossible to adhere to all of them. For example, if one has an absolute duty to "Never lie" and an absolute duty to "Never cause harm," what happens when telling the truth directly and inevitably causes catastrophic harm (e.g., revealing a location to a killer)?

In such scenarios, a strict absolutist is left without a clear framework for resolution, as the theory provides no mechanism for prioritizing one absolute duty over another. Critics argue that this failure to navigate real-world moral complexity renders absolute systems practically useless or even cruel, as adhering rigidly to one rule (like not lying) might violate a far more intuitive or pressing moral imperative (like saving a life). This inability to provide guidance in crisis situations is often cited as the primary reason why many philosophers have migrated toward modified deontological systems or consequentialist ethics.

Some traditional absolutists attempt to circumvent this issue by arguing that true absolute duties are formulated so precisely that they cannot logically conflict (e.g., refining the duty from "Do not kill" to "Do not commit unjust murder"), or by asserting that the agent is responsible only for fulfilling their duty, not for the unintended consequences that follow from the actions of others. However, critics maintain that even highly refined absolute rules invariably lead to irreconcilable

conflicts in rare but crucial cases, demonstrating the limits of a purely unyielding ethical framework.

## 7. Debates and Fundamental Criticisms

Critics raise several fundamental objections against **Moral Absolutism**. The first major criticism is its perceived **Inflexibility and Impracticality**. As demonstrated by the conflicts of duty, rigid rules often lead to absurd or morally reprehensible outcomes in extreme circumstances. If a moral system dictates that one must allow mass suffering simply to avoid violating a technical rule (e.g., never steal, even if stealing a loaf of bread saves a starving family), it appears to violate the very humanitarian impulses morality is meant to serve.

A second criticism concerns the difficulty of **Identifying Absolute Rules**. Even if one accepts that absolute rules exist, philosophers struggle to agree on precisely what those rules are and how they should be formulated. If moral authority is derived from God, which interpretation of religious law is authoritative? If derived from reason (as Kant suggests), why do rational people disagree so vehemently on the specific formulation of universal moral duties? The lack of consensus on the content of these absolute standards undermines the claim of objective, fixed moral knowledge.

Finally, critics from the consequentialist camp (like utilitarianism) argue that **Moral Absolutism** is morally deficient because it ignores outcomes. If the goal of morality is to maximize well-being and minimize suffering, a system that prohibits an action even when that action would clearly produce the greatest good is fundamentally irrational. Utilitarians argue that the ultimate moral test is results, whereas the absolutist is content merely with the purity of the action, regardless of the ethical cost incurred by adhering strictly to the rule.

### Further Reading

[Moral Absolutism \(Wikipedia\)](#)

[Deontology \(Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy\)](#)

[Categorical Imperative \(Wikipedia\)](#)

[Divine Command Theory \(Wikipedia\)](#)