

Why is Cognitive Enhancement Deemed Unacceptable? The Role of Fairness, Deservingness, and Hollow Achievements

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N.F. and T.D. developed the models. N.F. analysed the data. N.F., J.S., and T.D. wrote the paper.

Keywords

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Abstract

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We ask why pharmacological cognitive enhancement (PCE) is generally deemed morally unacceptable by lay people. Our approach to this question has two core elements. First, we employ an interdisciplinary perspective, using philosophical rationales as base for generating psychological models. Second, by testing these models we investigate how different normative judgements on PCE are related to each other.

Based on an analysis of the relevant philosophical literature, we derive two psychological models that can potentially explain the judgement that PCE is unacceptable: the “Unfairness-Undeservingness Model” and the “Hollowness-Undeservingness Model”. The Unfairness-Undeservingness Model holds that people judge PCE to be unacceptable because they take it to produce unfairness and to undermine the degree to which PCE-users deserve rewards. The Hollowness-Undeservingness Model assumes that people judge PCE to be unacceptable because they find achievements realized while using PCE hollow and undeserved.

We empirically test both models against each other using a regression-based approach. When trying to predict judgements regarding the unacceptability of PCE using judgments regarding unfairness, hollowness, and undeservingness, we found that unfairness judgments were the only significant predictor of the perceived unacceptability of PCE, explaining about 36% of variance. As neither hollowness nor undeservingness had explanatory power above and beyond unfairness, the Unfairness-Undeservingness Model proved superior to the Hollowness-Undeservingness Model. This finding also has implications for the Unfairness-Undeservingness Model itself: either a more parsimonious single-factor “Fairness Model” should replace the Unfairness-Undeservingness-Model or fairness fully mediates the relationship between undeservingness and unacceptability. Both explanations imply that participants deemed PCE unacceptable because they judged it to be unfair.

We conclude that concerns about unfairness play a crucial role in the subjective unacceptability of PCE and discuss the implications of our approach for the further investigation of the psychology of PCE.

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Please detail the consent procedure used for human participants or for animal owners. If not applicable, please state this.

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Please detail any additional considerations of the study in cases where vulnerable populations were involved, for example minors, persons with disabilities or endangered animal species. If not applicable, please state this.

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In review

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Abstract

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Based on an analysis of the relevant philosophical literature, we derive two psychological models that can potentially explain the judgement that PCE is unacceptable: the “Unfairness-Undeservingness Model” and the “Hollowness-Undeservingness Model”. The Unfairness-Undeservingness Model holds that people judge PCE to be unacceptable because they take it to produce unfairness and to undermine the degree to which PCE-users deserve rewards. The Hollowness-Undeservingness Model assumes that people judge PCE to be unacceptable because they find achievements realized while using PCE hollow and undeserved.

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37 We conclude that concerns about unfairness play a crucial role in the subjective unacceptability of
38 PCE and discuss the implications of our approach for the further investigation of the psychology of
39 PCE.

40

41 1. Introduction

42 1.1. Pharmacological cognitive enhancement and its perceived unacceptability

43 There are a number of means to enhance cognitive capacities beyond what is usually seen as
44 compensation for an impairment. Nutrition and physical exercise improve cognitive functioning in
45 healthy people across different domains (e.g., Dresler et al., 2013), whilst commonplace stimulants
46 such as caffeine temporarily boost functions like alertness and concentration (e.g., Einöther and
47 Giesbrecht, 2013). Use of these techniques is uncontroversial. Far more controversial is so-called
48 “brain doping”, that is the use of “pharmacological interventions that are intended to improve certain
49 mental functions and that go beyond currently accepted medical indications” (Schermer, Bolt, De
50 Jongh, and Olivier, 2009, p.77).

51 Such pharmacological cognitive enhancement (PCE) may be achieved through the use of
52 psychostimulants like methylphenidate (e.g., Ritalin®) and wakefulness-promoting drugs like
53 modafinil (e.g., Provigil®). Research has demonstrated that these substances can have performance-
54 enhancing effects in healthy individuals, for example by improving memory or attention (for reviews,
55 see Battleday and Brem, 2015; Ilieva, Hook, and Farah, 2015; Repantis, Schlattmann, Laisney, and
56 Heuser, 2010). However, current PCE cannot enhance performance to more than modest degrees at
57 best, depending on individual baseline performance (Caviola & Faber, 2015; Husain and Mehta,
58 2011). Some societies have witnessed a rise in the use of PCE (Care Quality Commission, 2013).
59 Prevalence studies and informal polls suggest that at least some members of different groups use
60 pharmacological substances with the goal to enhance their performance, for instance researchers
61 (Maher, 2008), surgeons (Franke et al., 2013), and, across a range of countries, students (e.g., Maier,
62 Haug, and Schaub, 2015; Schelle et al., 2015; Singh, Bard, and Jackson, 2014).

63 PCE not only receives significant media attention, but is also intensively researched in a range of
64 academic disciplines. These disciplines share the aim of understanding PCE (and mind-altering
65 technologies in general) better, and helping society to deal with the challenges posed by increasing
66 PCE use (cf. Greely et al., 2008; Sahakian et al., 2015; Smith and Farah, 2011). PCE is a truly
67 interdisciplinary research topic, on which different disciplines can – and probably ought to –
68 collaborate (cf. Hildt and Franke, 2013; Maslen, Santoni de Sio, and Faber, 2015). Neuroscience and
69 the medical sciences investigate the pharmacological effects and potential side-effects of such
70 substances (e.g., Turner et al., 2003). The behavioral and social sciences deal with questions such as
71 what drives individuals to take PCE (e.g., Wolff and Brand, 2013), how members of the general
72 public perceive PCE (e.g., Sattler, Forlini, Racine, and Sauer, 2013), and which social consequences
73 these perceptions might entail for users (e.g., Faulmüller, Maslen, and Santoni de Sio, 2013).

74 Meanwhile researchers in philosophy and law examine the ethical and legal problems PCE use
75 entails, weigh these against possible benefits, and in some cases derive recommendations for public
76 policy (e.g., Maslen, Douglas, Kadosh, Levy, and Savulescu, 2014) and legal regulation (e.g., Goold
77 and Maslen, 2014). In doing so, they rely on empirical research, as both findings on the
78 pharmacological effects of PCE (e.g., Maslen, Faulmüller, and Savulescu, 2014), as well as the
79 public perception of PCE (e.g., Forlini, Racine, Vollmann, and Schildmann, 2013) are crucial inputs
80 into ethical, legal and policy debates regarding PCE.

81 Empirical studies on how members of the general public perceive PCE have already uncovered a
82 variety of concerns people have about PCE, for example regarding medical safety (e.g. Scheske and
83 Schnall, 2012) and societal inequality (e.g., Fitz, Nadler, Manogaran, Chong, and Reiner, 2013; for a
84 review, see Schelle, Faulmüller, Caviola, and Hewstone, 2014). The – although often implicit – goal
85 of many of these studies is to better understand one consistent finding, namely that PCE is deemed
86 *morally unacceptable* (cf. Schelle et al., 2014). The judgement that “PCE is morally unacceptable” –
87 henceforth abbreviated as “*Unacceptability*” – is also found in media reports and in much of the
88 normative debate. This article addresses the question: *why* do lay people endorse *Unacceptability*?
89 That is, why do they judge PCE to be morally unacceptable?

90 1.2 The present research: Combining philosophical rationales and psychological 91 explanations

92 The primary innovation of our contribution is to employ an interdisciplinary perspective that
93 combines normative philosophical and empirical psychological analyses. We propose that this
94 combination provides a fruitful way to deepen understanding of why people generally judge PCE to
95 be morally unacceptable. Philosophers who have explored moral responses to PCE have frequently,
96 amongst other things, been interested in normative rationales, less in psychological explanations.
97 That is, they have often not been asking why, as a matter of fact, people endorse a certain judgment,
98 but why it might be *rational* to endorse it. Thus, no psychological conclusions can be
99 straightforwardly drawn from philosophical work. However, we suggest that philosophical rationales
100 can be useful in generating psychological hypotheses. As shown in the review by Schelle et al.
101 (2014), lay attitudes on PCE tend to coincide with the attitudes of professional philosophers,
102 suggesting that lay attitudes may have partly the same bases as professional philosophical attitudes.
103 In other words, both philosophical rationalizations and lay attitudes might in part be expressions of a
104 common rational thinking process, which philosophers make more explicit than lay people. (It is
105 important to note, however, that intuitive lay judgements on PCE seem not always to be fully
106 rational, cf. Caviola, Mannino, Savulescu, and Faulmüller, 2014; Scheske and Schnall, 2012).
107 Philosophical rationales for attitudes on PCE could thus be thought of as making explicit the
108 psychological mechanisms that motivate acceptance of these attitudes in both philosophers and lay
109 people, insofar as both groups form these attitudes rationally. Hence, we explore how philosophical
110 rationales may aid psychology in identifying credible explanations for lay endorsement of
111 *Unacceptability*.

112 We test the role of three judgements in explaining *Unacceptability*: 1) “PCE produces unfair

113 outcomes”, henceforth “*Unfairness*”, 2) “achievements realized with the aid of PCE are “hollow
114 achievements” in the sense that they lack (some of their usual) value”, henceforth “*Hollowness*”, and
115 3) “users of PCE do not deserve their achievements or the material and non-material rewards
116 associated with them”, henceforth “*Undeservingness*”. Based on philosophical literature we generate
117 two explanatory psychological models which are based on *Unfairness*, *Hollowness*, and
118 *Undeservingness*, and test these against empirical data.

119 Philosophers have, implicitly or explicitly, **endorsed or at least considered** not only *Unacceptability*,
120 but also *Unfairness*, *Hollowness*, and *Undeservingness*. More importantly, recent applied
121 philosophical work on the ethics of cognitive enhancement has begun to explore the relationships
122 between these views, and related work in theoretical philosophy could be deployed to further develop
123 this understanding. Empirical work, in contrast, has consistently shown that lay people are concerned
124 about unfairness induced by PCE use (cf. Schelle et al., 2014), but has not tested whether
125 achievements realized with the help of PCE are seen as hollow or as undeserved or investigated the
126 relationships between these views. Hence, it remains unclear precisely which, if any, of the
127 judgments *Unfairness*, *Hollowness*, and *Undeservingness* contribute to lay endorsement of
128 *Unacceptability*. For instance, is the perceived unacceptability of PCE explained by the judgment
129 that it produces unfair outcomes, the judgment that users of cognitive enhancements do not deserve
130 the rewards they received, by both, or by neither? In addition, though it is possible that some or all of
131 these judgments *jointly* explain support for *Unacceptability*, it is not clear (I) what relative
132 contribution each judgment makes to this explanation; and (II) how, if at all, they interact. In this
133 paper, we complement existing empirical research on the question of why lay people endorse
134 *Unacceptability* by comparing three different factors (*Unfairness*, *Hollowness*, and *Undeservingness*)
135 with regard to their relative strength in explaining the overall judgement of *Unacceptability*. We
136 build on existing work by examining two judgements (*Hollowness* and *Undeservingness*) that have
137 not previously been empirically investigated and by examining how the three judgments we consider
138 interact with each other.

139 In sum, in this paper we combine philosophical rationales and psychological explanations to
140 investigate why PCE is judged as morally unacceptable. We first outline two possible rationales for
141 *Unacceptability*, drawing on both applied and theoretical philosophical work. We then offer two
142 psychological models grounded on these rationales—the Unfairness-Undeservingness Model and the
143 Hollowness-Undeservingness Model—and spell out our research questions regarding these models.
144 Next, we describe our methods for testing these two models against empirical psychological data
145 using a regression-based approach, before setting out the results of this testing. Finally, we discuss
146 the implications of our findings for the psychology and philosophy of PCE.

147

148 2. Philosophical rationales

149 The lay judgment we ultimately wish to explain—*Unacceptability*—holds that PCE is morally
150 unacceptable. This judgment **has been endorsed by a number of philosophers**, who have considered a

151 wide range of rationales for it. Broadly speaking, these can be divided into three categories:
152 rationales that focus on the *motives* for which PCE is pursued (e.g., Little, 2008; Sandel, 2007),
153 rationales that focus on the *means* by which it is pursued (e.g., President’s Council on Bioethics,
154 2003; Sandel, 2007), and rationales that focus on the *consequences* of pursuing it (e.g., Elliott, 2003;
155 Fukuyama, 2002). In this section, our aim is not to offer a comprehensive review of all these
156 rationales—this would be too ambitious a task (for a review, see Douglas, 2013). Rather, we limit
157 ourselves to outlining rationales that meet two conditions. First, they appeal to one or more of the
158 judgments *Undeservingness*, *Hollowness*, and *Unfairness* outlined above. Second, they are
159 consequence-based, rather than motive- or means- based rationales. Our reason for limiting our
160 discussion to consequence-based rationales is that adherents of a wide range of moral theories can
161 accept such rationales. Almost all moral theories allow that an act or practice can be morally
162 unacceptable because it has, or can be expected to have, bad consequences. By contrast, it is
163 controversial whether an act can be morally unacceptable purely because of the means that it involves
164 or the motives that produced it.¹

165 Two prominently discussed rationales meet our two conditions, namely what we call the “objection
166 from fairness” and the “objection from hollow achievements”. In what follows, we set out our
167 interpretations of these rationales.

168 2.1. The objection from fairness

169 A number of authors have endorsed, or at least considered, the view that PCE (or enhancement more
170 generally) may be morally unacceptable because it is unfair or, perhaps equivalently, constitutes a
171 form of “cheating” (e.g., Fukuyama, 2002; President’s Council on Bioethics, 2003; Rose, 2006;
172 Schermer, 2008). We call this the “objection from fairness”. One variant of this objection holds that
173 PCE is *procedurally* unfair: that it involves unfair means. This is a means- rather than consequence-
174 based rationale for *Unacceptability*, and as such we do not discuss it further. A second variant of the
175 objection holds that PCE is *substantively* unfair: that it produces unfair outcomes, as *Unfairness*
176 holds. This variant of the objection is consequence-based, and will be our focus.

¹ Consequentialist moral theories hold that the moral status of an act is determined solely by its consequences (cf. Skorupski, 1995; Sinnott-Armstrong, 2001). On this view, the only reason that an act can be morally unacceptable (or “impermissible” or, simply, “wrong”) is that it has or can be expected to have bad consequences, or worse consequences than the alternatives. Deontological and virtue-ethical moral theories, such as those advanced by Immanuel Kant (e.g., 1786/2013) and Aristotle (e.g., trans. 2014) and their respective followers, hold that further considerations may be relevant. On most such theories, an act can be unacceptable even though it produces good (or the best possible) consequences. For instance, on a deontological theory, a good-maximizing act may be unacceptable because it violates someone’s rights or breaks the terms of a contract. On a virtue-ethical theory, it may be unacceptable because it is not what a virtuous agent would have done. However, deontological and virtue-ethical theories typically allow that the value of the consequences of an act remain relevant to the moral status of the act, and that an act can in some cases be morally unacceptable because it produces bad consequences which there is a duty not to produce, or which a fully virtuous agent would not produce (cf. Bennett, 1989; Hursthouse, 1991).

177 Two questions should be asked regarding this variant of the objection from fairness. First, why think
178 that *Unfairness* supports *Unacceptability*? Second, why accept *Unfairness* in the first place?

179 The answer to the first question is straightforward, though not normally made explicit in the literature
180 on PCE: unfairness is bad, and as noted above, proponents of a range of moral theories can agree
181 that, other things being equal, it is morally unacceptable to produce bad consequences. Why,
182 precisely, unfairness is bad is controversial. Some hold that it is bad *in itself* (e.g., Broome, 1991).
183 Others, would deny this and hold that fairness is only bad if and because it tends to produce further
184 bad consequences, such as reduced individual wellbeing (e.g., Bentham, 1789; Sidgwick, 1893).
185 However, despite this disagreement about *why* unfairness is bad, many agree *that* it is bad, or at least
186 typically so.

187 The second question—why should we accept *Unfairness*—has caused greater controversy in the
188 ethical debate regarding PCE. On the one hand, it seems “obvious” (President’s Council of Bioethics,
189 2003, p.280) or at least “intuitive” (Schermer, 2008, p.88) that some instances of enhancement,
190 including PCE, produce unfairness. On the other hand, doubts can be raised about whether *all*
191 enhancements, or all PCEs, do so (e.g., Savulescu, 2006; Douglas, 2007; Sandel, 2007; Santoni de
192 Sio, Faber, Savulescu, and Vincent, in press; Schermer, 2008; Buchanan 2011a, 2011b). Hence, the
193 scope of application of *Unfairness* is contested. There is also disagreement about how to rationalize
194 *Unfairness*, that is about *why* enhancement produces unfairness when it does. One rationale holds
195 that enhancement involves violating social rules or conventions, and it is unfair if individuals acquire
196 rewards through rule-violations (cf. Schermer, 2008). As has been noted, however, those who raise
197 fairness-based concerns regarding enhancement frequently take these concerns to apply regardless
198 whether the enhancement in question violates a rule (Schermer, 2008; Savulescu, 2009). For
199 instance, in the context of debate over enhancement in sport, concerns about production of unfairness
200 have often been presented as a *justification* for maintaining prohibitions on enhancement rather than
201 merely a consequence of such prohibitions (e.g., Lenk, 2007; Corlett, Brown, and Kirkland, 2013).
202 Similarly, philosophers concerned about fairness in relation to PCE have not generally restricted their
203 concerns to rule-violating PCE (Fukuyama, 2002; President’s Council on Bioethics, 2003). Hence, it
204 seems appropriate to seek a more general rationale for *Unfairness*—one that will apply even in cases
205 where PCE does not involve rule-violation. We suggest that *Undeservingness* might be able to
206 furnish such a rationale (cf. also Schermer, 2008).

207 As defined above, *Undeservingness* is the judgment that PCE-users do not deserve their
208 achievements or the material (e.g., money) and non-material (e.g., praise) rewards associated with
209 them. A number of authors in the debate on the ethics of enhancement have explicitly considered this
210 view (e.g., Forsberg, 2013; Mehlman, 2004; Schermer, 2008), and it has been suggested (Douglas,
211 2014) that a similar view may be implicit in the work of others (Harris, 2012; Sparrow, 2014).
212 Moreover, opponents of PCE frequently advance claims that can be understood to support
213 *Undeservingness*. For instance, although disputed elsewhere (Douglas, 2014), it is often said that
214 enhancement makes achievements “too easy” or is a way of avoiding effort (Cole-Turner, 2000;
215 Kass, 2003). If true, this might support *Undeservingness*, since exerting effort to overcome
216 difficulties is often thought to confer deservingness (Milne, 1986; Sadurski, 1985; Sorenson, 2010).

217 The relationship between *Undeservingness* and *Unfairness* has not been explored in detail in the
218 applied philosophical literature on PCE (although cf. Mehlman, 2004; Schermer, 2008); however, it
219 is plausible that the two judgments are normatively connected. One possibility is that *Unfairness*
220 rationalizes *Undeservingness*—that is, because users of PCE are the beneficiaries of unfairness, they
221 do not deserve their rewards. Intuitively, people do not deserve unfairly acquired benefits. For
222 instance, when an athlete breaks the rules of a sport and, as a result, wins a competition, we would
223 conclude that she has won unfairly, and this may seem to support the view that she does not *deserve*
224 the rewards that come with the victory. This sort of case might seem to suggest that *Unfairness* is
225 normatively more fundamental than *Undeservingness*.

226 However, theoretical work on the nature of fairness suggests that *Undeservingness* may be the more
227 fundamental judgment: *Undeservingness* may be able to support *Unfairness*.² Some prominent
228 theoretical accounts of fairness can be interpreted as holding that fairness, or at least one component
229 of fairness, requires that (material or non-material) rewards are distributed across individuals in
230 proportion to the relative degree to which those individuals deserve those rewards (Broome, 1990;
231 Feldman 1995a; Kagan, 2012; Broome 1990). In support of this conception of the relationship
232 between fairness and deservingness, consider the following case: Two charity workers undertake
233 humanitarian projects in a poverty-stricken area without any expectation of reward. Their projects are
234 very different in difficulty and scope. One spends several years single-handedly building a hospital
235 that will save thousands of lives over the coming decades. The other spends one afternoon writing
236 letters to local politicians, with the effect that those politicians divert an additional \$500 to the
237 provision of affordable pain relief medications. This can be expected to slightly increase the quality
238 of life of each of 100 migraine sufferers for around a week. Intuitively, the first charity worker is
239 more deserving than the second, all else equal, but it would be difficult to rationalize this judgment
240 regarding deservingness by invoking the concept of fairness. On the other hand, the judgement
241 regarding deservingness does seem potentially capable of rationalizing a judgement regarding
242 fairness. Suppose both charity works receive similar levels of praise for their efforts. Intuitively, this
243 is unfair. The first charity working deserves more praise, and it seems unfair if he does not get it.

244 A similar line of reasoning suggests that *Unfairness* may be able to rationalize *Undeservingness*.
245 Imagine a case in which two scientists, *A* and *B*, make similar and highly significant scientific
246 discoveries. Suppose, however, that *A* made her discovery assisted by PCE which allowed her to
247 work longer hours and more productively, whereas *B* made the discovery without any such
248 pharmacological assistance. Although we do not ourselves endorse this view, according to
249 *Undeservingness*, *A* does not deserve her achievement or the praise, academic success, and other
250 rewards that accompany it, perhaps because her enhancement allows her to avoid effort, or made her
251 achievement “too easy”. On the other hand, it is plausible to assume that *B* does deserve her
252 achievement and associated rewards, at least to some extent. However, despite this difference in
253 deservingness, it is likely that these two scientists will receive a similar size of reward for these

² A third possibility is that *Unfairness* and *Undeservingness* are logically connected though neither is more fundamental than the other. For instance, it may be that to say that *X* enjoys an unfair advantage over *Y* is just to say that *A* does not deserve her advantage.

254 achievements, at least if A's PCE-use is secret (cf. Faulmüller et al., 2013). Thus, rewards are not
255 distributed in proportion to deservingness, and this, on the present conception of fairness, is unfair.
256 Hence, if 1) *Undeservingness* holds true, and 2) PCE users are rewarded to a similar degree as non-
257 users who achieve similar things, then use of PCE may disrupt fairness.

258 2.2. The objection from hollow achievements

259 A second candidate rationale for *Unacceptability* invokes *Hollowness*—the claim that achievements
260 realized with the aid of PCE are “hollow achievements” in the sense that they lack (some of their
261 normal) value. This claim, or variants thereof, have been endorsed by a number of authors in the
262 ethical debate on PCE, and enhancement more generally. Juengst (2000) raised the question whether
263 achievements realized via enhancement might be “hollow accomplishments” (p.39), and the
264 President's Council of Bioethics (2003) claimed that enhancements would undermine the “dignity”
265 (p. 140) of human performance and perhaps render that performance “false” (p. 131), thereby
266 highlighting two specific values (dignity and truth) that enhancements might threaten. In what
267 follows, we focus on the question whether PCE might deprive human achievements of *some* degree
268 of value without taking a stance on what particular kind of value that might be. Following Juengst's
269 terminology, we call this the “objection from hollowness”.

270 As with the objection from fairness, two questions should be asked regarding the objection from
271 hollowness. First, why think that *Hollowness* supports *Unacceptability*? Second, why accept
272 *Hollowness*?

273 On the first question, why *Hollowness* supports *Unacceptability*, little has been said. However, it is
274 possible to construct a straightforward argument from *Hollowness* to *Unacceptability*. According to
275 *Hollowness*, achievements realized with the aid of PCE lack (some of their normal) value, and this
276 means that pursuit of enhancement has at least one bad consequence: it diminishes at least some
277 forms of value that our achievements might otherwise have had.

278 More has been said on the second question: *why* accept *Hollowness*? That is, why judge
279 achievements gained with the help of PCE to be hollow achievements? On one view, PCE use can
280 devalue achievements because it corrupts the very purpose of the activity being pursued (e.g., Santoni
281 de Sio et al., 2015). In this regard, using an enhancement might – to take an often-cited example – be
282 like completing a marathon with the aid of roller skates (Whitehouse, Juengst, Mehlman, and
283 Murray, 1997). Some activities (including marathon running) fulfil their purpose only where pursued
284 in a certain kind of way, and in some cases enhancement is incompatible with the required manner of
285 execution. This may be because the activities in question only have value when they manifest a
286 certain kind of human contribution, and the use of enhancement somehow negates the need for any
287 such contribution (Savulescu, 2015). However, as many have noted, not all activities are such that
288 their purpose is undermined when they are pursued with the aid of enhancements (e.g., Bostrom and
289 Roache 2008; Douglas 2007; Goodman, 2010; Roache, 2008; Santoni de Sio et al., in press;
290 Schermer 2008). Consider landing an airplane or performing a surgical operation. The purpose of
291 these activities is to realize a certain outcome, and the realization of that outcome need not be

292 threatened, and may even be aided, by the use of even very extensive enhancements (cf. Santoni de
293 Sio, Faulmüller, and Vincent, 2014). Moreover, activities that would be rendered hollow by very
294 extensive enhancements may not be rendered hollow by more modest ones. For instance, climbing
295 Mount Everest with the aid of a jetpack might render it a hollow achievement, but it is far less clear
296 that climbing with the aid of compressed oxygen, or regular morning coffees, does so. Hence, we
297 think that the present argument cannot support the claim that, generally, achievements realized via
298 PCE are hollow, as some have suggested (e.g., President's Council on Bioethics, 2003). As with
299 *Unfairness*, then, it is desirable to seek a more general rationale for *Hollowness*. And as with
300 *Unfairness*, we suggest that it may be possible to provide such a rationale by using *Undeservingness*.

301 It is often thought that things that are normally valuable can lack this value when they are not
302 deserved. For instance, pleasure is normally valuable—it normally makes the world a better place
303 when a person experiences pleasure—but some argue that it lacks its normal value when it is not
304 deserved (e.g., Brentano, 1969; Feldman 1995b). Hence, on this view, pleasure is, other things being
305 equal, less valuable when it is enjoyed by a mass-murderer than when it is enjoyed by an innocent
306 person. Similar thoughts may apply to valuable achievements. It may be that, when achievements are
307 underserved, they lack value. If so, and if PCE undermines deservingness, then achievements realized
308 with the aid of PCE lack value—that is, *Hollowness* holds true.³

309 2.3. The Unfairness-Undeservingness Model and the Hollowness-Undeservingness Model

310 Based on philosophical literature on PCE and on relevant work in moral theory, we have outlined
311 two possible philosophical rationales for *Unacceptability*, that is the claim that PCE is morally
312 unacceptable. According to the first rationale, the objection from fairness, *Unacceptability* can be
313 rationalized by appeal to *Unfairness* and *Undeservingness*. According to the second rationale, the
314 objection from hollowness, *Unacceptability* can be rationalized by appeal to *Hollowness* and
315 *Undeservingness*.

316 We do not claim that these rationales constitute the only plausible ways of understanding the
317 normative relationships between these judgments. For one thing, we have limited ourselves to
318 rationales that can be understood as appealing to bad *consequences* of enhancement, yet we do not
319 rule out the possibility that there are plausible motive- or means-based rationales for *Unacceptability*.
320 For another, there may be consequence-based rationales for *Unacceptability* that we have not
321 considered. We also do not claim that these rationales are in the end successful; indeed, one of us has
322 previously argued against a view similar to *Undeservingness* (Douglas, 2014). However we do claim
323 the two rationales we have outlined are among the *prima facie* plausible rationales for
324 *Unacceptability*.

325 Based on the idea that philosophical justifications can form the basis for psychological models, we
326 derive two such models from our theoretical analyses above.

³ Again, however, other conceptions of the relationship between *Deservingness* and *Hollowness* are also plausible. For instance, it may be that when a person realizes an achievement without making the appropriate kind of human contribution, this independently renders both the achievement hollow and the achiever undeserving of rewards.

327 1) The **Unfairness-Undeservingness Model**: People judge PCE to be unacceptable because they
328 take it to produce unfairness and undermine the degree to which PCE-users deserve their
329 achievement and associated rewards. In other words, lay judgements of *Unacceptability* can
330 be jointly explained by *Unfairness* and *Undeservingness*.

331 2) The **Hollowness-Undeservingness Model**: People judge PCE to be unacceptable because
332 they find achievements while using PCE hollow and undeserved. In other words, lay
333 judgements of *Unacceptability* can be jointly explained by *Hollowness* and *Undeservingness*.

334 Note that in our philosophical analysis we discuss different possibilities for causal relationships
335 between *Unfairness* and *Undeservingness* and between *Hollowness* and *Undeservingness*,
336 respectively. For the sake of starting out with parsimonious models for empirical testing, we do not
337 specify causal relationships beyond causes for *Unacceptability* in the psychological part. However,
338 we return to the issue of a causal order of the explanatory variables in the discussion of our empirical
339 results.

340 2.4. Research questions

341 The purpose of this paper is to combine normative philosophical and empirical psychological
342 analyses to gain a deeper understanding of why people generally judge PCE to be morally
343 unacceptable. We have derived two philosophically informed models for possible psychological
344 explanations. Based on our theoretical analyses, we formulate the following two research questions.

345 I) How well can the judgments *Undeservingness*, *Unfairness*, and *Hollowness* explain
346 *Unacceptability*?

347 II) How do these judgements interact, that is, more specifically: which of the two models, the
348 Unfairness-Undeservingness Model or the Hollowness-Undeservingness Model, is better
349 supported by empirical data?

350 In what follows, we report a test of these philosophy-grounded research questions against empirical
351 data.

352

353 3. Psychological explanations

354 3.1. Methods

355 We tested our research questions by re-analyzing parts of a larger data set we had collected and
356 reported on previously (for details, see Faber, Douglas, Heise, and Hewstone, 2015a). For 94
357 participants, this data set contains information on the PCE-related judgments of interest, that is
358 answers on *Undeservingness*, *Unfairness*, *Hollowness*, and *Unacceptability*. (The other participants
359 in the complete data set did not answer questions in relation to cognitive enhancement but on

360 motivation enhancement, so their judgments are not relevant for the present study. Please see Faber et
361 al. (2015a) for further details on this data set.) Hence, our present sample contained 94 U.S.
362 American participants (48% female, mean age 36.9 years⁴), who indicated that they had not
363 previously used PCE. All respondents completed the study online. They gave informed consent to
364 participate and were compensated financially for their participation. This study had been reviewed
365 and approved by the University of Oxford's Medical Sciences Interdivisional Research Ethics
366 Committee.

367 After answering demographic questions, each participant read a hypothetical scenario about a male
368 student who uses PCE. The part of the scenario describing this use read as follows: "While preparing
369 for his exams, Alex takes medical substances to help him with his work. These pills normally are
370 available on prescription only to treat certain diseases, but Alex knows that they improve brain
371 performance in healthy people. They can make people think faster and more clearly. By taking these
372 "smart pills", he hopes to do better in his exams." After participants had read the scenario, they
373 answered several questions on 7-point Likert-scales (1="completely disagree"; 7="completely
374 agree"). There was one item each for *Undeservingness* ("If Alex does well in his exams, he deserves
375 praise", reversely coded) and for *Hollowness* ("If Alex does well in his exams, it will be a hollow
376 achievement"). To capture the frequent use of the more familiar concept of "cheating" to express
377 concerns about unfairness, we included two items for *Unfairness*, one referring explicitly to the
378 concept of unfairness ("It will be unfair if Alex does better in his exams than his classmates who
379 don't take the "smart pills") and one to "cheating" ("Taking "smart pills" is cheating").⁵ We used the
380 mean of both items, which were highly correlated ($r(92) = .842, p < .001$), in subsequent analyses.
381 (The pattern of results reported below remains unchanged when only the explicit unfairness item or
382 the "cheating" item is included.) Finally, we assessed participants' global judgment about
383 *Unacceptability* ("Taking medical substances that improve smartness is acceptable"; reversely
384 coded). (For further questions asked that are not relevant for this re-analysis and, hence, not reported
385 below, see Faber et al., 2015a.)

386 3.2. Results

387 To answer our research questions I) how well the factors *Undeservingness*, *Unfairness*, and
388 *Hollowness* can explain *Unacceptability*, and II) which of the two proposed models, the Unfairness-
389 *Undeservingness* Model and the *Hollowness-Undeservingness* Model, is better supported by our
390 data, we used a regression-based approach.⁶

391 3.2.1. Descriptive statistics

⁴ Our participants were of mixed gender, age, as well as educational and socioeconomic backgrounds. They all lived in the USA, however, and in this sense our sample is quite restricted. We cannot be sure that our results can be generalized to people from other cultural backgrounds.

⁵ We assumed that participants deemed Alex's success, if he succeeded, at least in part to his use of PCE. It is possible that they did not.

⁶ Using regression analyses seemed most appropriate to us given our specific research questions, but also in light of the ongoing debate on the statistical (in)appropriateness of dichotomizing continuous variables via median splits to use ANOVAs (e.g., Rucker, McShane, and Preacher, 2015).

392 To begin with, to get a sense of the general view of *Unacceptability* in our sample, we performed a
393 descriptive analysis. This analysis showed that the mean level of agreement that PCE is unacceptable
394 was 4.70 ($SD = 1.72$); the median agreement was scale point 5 (“somewhat agree”). 58.6% of
395 participants agreed (between strongly and somewhat) to *Unacceptability*, while 30.9% disagreed
396 (between strongly and somewhat). The remaining 10.6% were undecided. Hence, in line with
397 previous findings on non-users, participants in our sample on average exhibited support for
398 *Unacceptability*, although there was a considerable variance in this view.

399 Similarly, we looked at the descriptive statistics for *Unfairness*, *Hollowness*, and *Undeservingness*.
400 The mean level of agreement for *Unfairness* was 4.70 ($SD = 1.76$), and the median 5. The percentage
401 of participants agreeing to *Unfairness* was 59.6%, and 27.7% disagreed. For *Hollowness*, the mean
402 was 4.15 ($SD = 1.79$), and the median was 4. 45.7% of participants agreed to *Hollowness*, and 41.5%
403 disagreed. For *Undeservingness*, the mean was 3.76 ($SD = 1.61$), the median 3. 33.1% agreed with
404 *Undeservingness*, 51.1% disagreed. Hence, while the participants in our sample judged PCE as unfair
405 on average, they were divided on the view whether its use makes achievements hollow, and overall
406 did not agree with the claim that achievements gained with PCE are generally undeserved.

407 3.2.2. The Unfairness-Undeservingness Model

408 We tested the degree to which variations in agreement to *Unfairness* and *Undeservingness* could
409 explain variations in agreement to *Unacceptability*, thereby evaluating the ability of the Unfairness-
410 Undeservingness Model to explain the perceived unacceptability of PCE.

411 We conducted a linear regression analysis with *Unacceptability* as dependent variable and *Unfairness*
412 and *Undeservingness* as predictors. Our two predictors explained a significant amount of the variance
413 in the dependent variable ($F(2, 91) = 27.80, p < .001, R^2 = .379, R^2_{adjusted} = .366$). However, in this
414 regression only *Unfairness* was a significant predictor of *Unacceptability* ($\beta = .48, t(91) = 3.72, p <$
415 $.001$), while *Undeservingness* had no significant explanatory power beyond *Unacceptability* ($\beta = .16,$
416 $t(91) = 1.27, p = .208$). (*Unfairness* and *Undeservingness* were significantly correlated ($r(92) = .769,$
417 $p < .001$), but multi-collinearity statistics showed no reason for concern in our data for this regression
418 analysis (*Unfairness*: Tolerance = .409, VIF = 2.446; *Undeservingness*: Tolerance = .409, VIF =
419 2.446).)

420 In sum, while the Unfairness-Undeservingness Model can account for about 38% of the variance in
421 *Unacceptability* judgments, its explanatory power is mainly driven by *Unfairness*.

422 3.2.3. The Hollowness-Undeservingness Model

423 Analogously to the calculations for the Unfairness-Undeservingness Model, we tested the plausibility
424 of the Hollowness-Undeservingness Model in explaining *Unacceptability*.

425 A linear regression analysis with *Unacceptability* as dependent variable and *Hollowness* and
426 *Undeservingness* as predictors showed that the two predictors significantly explained the dependent

427 variable ($F(2, 91) = 22.72, p < .001, R^2 = .333, R^2_{adjusted} = .318$). In this regression, *Hollowness* was a
428 significant predictor of *Unacceptability* ($\beta = .35, t(91) = 2.57, p = .012$), and *Undeservingness* had
429 marginally significant explanatory power ($\beta = .26, t(91) = 1.89, p = .062$). (*Hollowness* and
430 *Undeservingness* were significantly correlated ($r(92) = .781, p < .001$), but multi-collinearity
431 statistics showed no reason for concern regarding the reliability of our data (*Hollowness*: Tolerance =
432 $.390, VIF = 2.564$; *Undeservingness*: Tolerance = $.390, VIF = 2.564$).

433 In sum, when regarded on its own (i.e. not in comparison to the Unfairness-Undeservingness Model),
434 the Hollowness-Undeservingness Model explains about 33% of *Unacceptability*, with the influence
435 of *Undeservingness* being only marginally significant.

436 3.2.4. Comparing the Unfairness-Undeservingness Model and the Hollowness- 437 Undeservingness Model

438 In a further step, we compared the Hollowness-Undeservingness Model to the Unfairness-
439 Undeservingness Model, looking at whether the former has any power in explaining *Unacceptability*
440 beyond the Unfairness-Undeservingness Model.

441 We used all three factors *Unfairness*, *Hollowness*, and *Undeservingness*, as predictors in a linear
442 regression with *Unacceptability* as dependent variable. We found that *Hollowness* as an additional
443 predictor only added 1.2% to the explanatory power of the Unfairness-Undeservingness Model,
444 which is a non-significant change ($F(1, 90) = 1.73, p = .193, R^2 = .391, R^2_{adjusted} = .371$).
445 Correspondingly, with all three predictors in the regression analysis, only *Unfairness* had a
446 significant influence on *Unacceptability* ($\beta = .41, t(90) = 2.93, p = .004$), while both *Undeservingness*
447 ($\beta = .07, t(90) = .50, p = .662$) and *Hollowness* ($\beta = .19, t(91) = 1.31, p = .193$) had none. Again,
448 *Hollowness* was significantly correlated with both *Undeservingness* ($r(92) = .781, p < .001$) and
449 *Unfairness* ($r(92) = .757, p < .001$), but collinearity statistics seemed unproblematic (*Unfairness*:
450 Tolerance = $.346, VIF = 2.888$; *Hollowness*: Tolerance = $.330, VIF = 3.027$; *Undeservingness*:
451 Tolerance = $.316, VIF = 3.164$).

452 This model comparison reveals the importance of *Unfairness* in explaining *Unacceptability*. Both
453 *Hollowness* ($\beta = .55, t(92) = 6.38, p = .001$) and *Undeservingness* ($\beta = .53, t(92) = 6.05, p < .001$) are
454 significantly associated with *Unacceptability* when considered on their own, that is, as sole
455 predictors. As soon as *Unfairness* is taken into account, however, they do not show any additional
456 power in explaining *Unacceptability*. Put differently, while all three factors *Unfairness*, *Hollowness*,
457 and *Undeservingness* jointly can explain about 39% of *Unacceptability*, *Unfairness* alone already
458 explains about 36% ($F(1, 92) = 53.64, p < .001, R^2 = .361, R^2_{adjusted} = .361$). This 2.3% improvement
459 in explanation *Hollowness* and *Undeservingness* can bring is statistically insignificant ($p = .193$, as
460 reported above).

461 In sum, this analysis showed that the Unfairness-Undeservingness Model is superior to the
462 Hollowness-Undeservingness Model in explaining *Unacceptability*, and that this superiority is driven
463 by *Unfairness*. Amongst the three predictors *Unfairness*, *Hollowness*, and *Undeservingness*,

464 *Unfairness* is the only one making a contribution in explaining *Unacceptability* beyond the two
465 others.

466

467 **4. Discussion**

468 In this paper, we aimed to gain a deeper understanding of why people generally endorse
469 *Unacceptability*, that is judge pharmacological cognitive enhancement (PCE) as morally
470 unacceptable. For that, we combined normative philosophical and empirical psychological analyses.

471 **4.1. The central role of unfairness in explaining the unacceptability of PCE**

472 Based on philosophical literature, we argued that three judgements could be deployed to normatively
473 rationalize *Unacceptability*, namely *Unfairness* (the idea that PCE produces unfair outcomes),
474 *Hollowness* (the idea that achievements gained with PCE are hollow achievements), and
475 *Undeservingness* (the idea that users of PCE are less deserving of rewards). We developed
476 philosophical rationales that combined these three judgements in different ways and, based on these
477 rationales, proposed two psychological models that could potentially explain why **lay people**⁴
478 endorse *Unacceptability*. The Unfairness-Undeservingness Model holds that judgements of
479 *Unacceptability* can be jointly explained by *Unfairness* and *Undeservingness*, and the Hollowness-
480 Undeservingness Model holds that judgements of *Unacceptability* can be jointly explained by
481 *Hollowness* and *Undeservingness*. We formulated two research questions: I) How well can
482 *Undeservingness*, *Unfairness*, and *Hollowness* can explain *Unacceptability*? And II) is the
483 Unfairness-Undeservingness Model or the Hollowness-Undeservingness Model better supported by
484 empirical data?

485 We then tested these two research questions in a sample of lay people who indicated that they had not
486 previously used PCE, using a regression-based approach. Descriptively, while participants tended to
487 agree with the overall statements that PCE is unacceptable (*Unacceptability*) and with the claim that
488 it is unfair (*Unfairness*), they were divided on the question whether it leads to achievements being
489 hollow (*Hollowness*), and, on average, they tended to disagree with the idea that achievements gained
490 with PCE are undeserved (*Undeservingness*).

491 With regards to our first research question, we found that *Unfairness* was clearly the strongest
492 predictor of *Unacceptability*, explaining about 36% of the variance in *Unacceptability* judgements.
493 While the two remaining judgements, *Hollowness* and *Undeservingness*, were also able to
494 significantly predict *Unacceptability* when considered as sole predictors, they had no significant
495 influence over and above *Unfairness*. All three predictors combined explained about 39% of
496 variance. In other words, although people who judge PCE to be unacceptable also judge
497 accomplishments gained with help of PCE to be undeserved and these achievements to be hollow, the
498 two latter factors seem not to be necessary to explain why people endorse *Unacceptability*. All they
499 can contribute to the explanation is just as well explained by *Unfairness* alone. Concerns about
500 unfairness, on the other hand, seem to be central in understanding why PCE is judged as

501 unacceptable.

502 With regards to our second research question, we consequently found that the Unfairness-
503 Undeservingness Model was superior to the Hollowness-Undeservingness Model in explaining
504 *Unacceptability*. While, again, the Hollowness-Undeservingness Model appeared to well explain
505 *Unacceptability* when regarded on its own, a direct comparison to the Unfairness-Undeservingness
506 Model showed that it did not make any contribution to understanding why PCE is judged as
507 unacceptable beyond what we gain from the Unfairness-Undeservingness Model. Hence, if we are to
508 accept one of these models, we should accept the Unfairness-Undeservingness Model.

509 Importantly, however, in the Undeservingness-Unfairness Model, *Unfairness* was the only predictor
510 to make a significant contribution in explaining *Unacceptability*, while *Undeservingness* was not.
511 What implications does this fact have for the Unfairness-Undeservingness Model?

512 4.2. An “Unfairness Model” or *Unfairness* as mediating variable?

513 When we proposed the Unfairness-Undeservingness Model, we hypothesized that “people find PCE
514 unacceptable because they take it to produce unfairness and undermine the degree to which the PCE-
515 user deserves her achievement and associated rewards. In other words, lay judgements of
516 *Unacceptability* can be jointly explained by *Unfairness* and *Undeservingness*.” We found, however,
517 that when we have knowledge about *Unfairness*, we do not need *Undeservingness* to explain
518 *Unacceptability*. There seem to be two plausible possibilities of how this can be interpreted. It could
519 be taken to support either a single-factor “Unfairness Model”, or the view that *Unfairness* acts as the
520 mediating variable within the Unfairness-Undeservingness Model.

521 The straight-forward conclusion from our findings would be to propose a model we could call the
522 “Unfairness Model”. An ideal model is one that offers a good trade-off between parsimoniousness
523 and explanatory power. As *Unfairness* alone explains *Unacceptability* just as well as the Unfairness-
524 Undeservingness Model, it seems appropriate to just reject *Undeservingness* and to propose a model
525 that is based solely on *Unfairness*. This Unfairness Model could, of course, not fully explain why
526 people judge PCE as morally unacceptable, but it could explain around 36% of variance in
527 *Unacceptability* judgements, which is a considerable amount. Proposing such an Unfairness Model
528 would imply that *Undeservingness* (and also *Hollowness*) are purely epiphenomenal. That is, people
529 find PCE morally unacceptable because they find it unfair. And, when they find it unfair, then they
530 judge achievements realized with it to also be undeserved (and hollow). This would be consistent
531 with the view that *Unfairness* may rationalize *Undeservingness*, rather than the reverse (cf. section
532 2.1 above).

533 There is, however, a second possibility that is consistent with our data. The Unfairness-
534 Undeservingness Model could still be a plausible model, with the relationship between
535 *Undeservingness* and *Unacceptability* being mediated by *Unfairness*. As described above, our
536 original version of the Unfairness-Undeservingness Model proposed that “judgements of
537 *Unacceptability* can be jointly explained by *Unfairness* and *Undeservingness*.” While it seems that

538 “jointly” is not correct (as Undeservingness doesn’t add anything to this joint explanation), it might
539 be that *Undeservingness* influences *Unacceptability* via *Unfairness*. This would imply that people
540 find PCE unacceptable *because* they find it unfair, and they find it unfair *because* they find
541 achievements realized with it undeserved. Such a causal chain would be in line both with our data
542 and with philosophical considerations. While we find *Undeservingness* to be a significant predictor
543 of *Unacceptability*, this relationship breaks down as soon as we add *Unfairness* as a second predictor.
544 If, statistically, *Unfairness* were a full mediator of the relationship between *Undeservingness* and
545 *Unacceptability*, we would expect such a result. Moreover, while no causal order between the
546 variables *Unfairness* and *Undeservingness* has been assumed in our psychological model, it has been
547 implicit in our philosophical rationales: in the section on “the objection from fairness”, we suggested
548 that *Undeservingness* may rationalize *Unfairness* which in turn may rationalize *Unacceptability*.
549 Hence, our philosophical analysis suggests a causal chain leading from *Undeservingness* over
550 *Unfairness* to *Unacceptability*.

551 Unfortunately, based on our analyses we cannot assess which of the above possibilities (a single-
552 factor Unfairness Model or *Unfairness* as the mediating variable in the Unfairness-Undeservingness
553 Model) is true. Path analyses could give a good indication in larger samples, and controlled
554 experiments could provide strong conclusions. We hope that future research will shed further light on
555 the relationship between *Undeservingness* and *Unfairness*.

556 Importantly, however, both possibilities have at their core the same conclusion, namely that
557 *Unfairness* plays a central role in explaining *Unacceptability*, and that we would need to understand
558 why people find PCE unfair if we want to understand why they find it morally unacceptable. Or, put
559 differently, it might well be that a lot of support for the view that PCE is unacceptable would dissolve
560 if PCE was seen as fair. And indeed, concerns about the unfairness of PCE loom large in both the
561 normative debate (e.g., Fukuyama, 2002; Gazzaniga, 2006; President’s Council on Bioethics, 2003;
562 Rose, 2006) and lay people’s concerns (e.g., Bossaer et al., 2013; Dubljevic et al., 2014; Forlini and
563 Racine, 2012; Scheske and Schnall, 2012; Santoni de Sio et al., in press; for a review, see Schelle et
564 al., 2014 p.8-11). However, again, to date we cannot be certain what the *causal* relationship between
565 *Unfairness* and *Unacceptability* is. **So while PCE could be seen as unacceptable *because* it is seen as
566 unfair, it might also be the other way around (PCE may be seen as unfair *because* seen as
567 unacceptable), or bi-directional.**

568 4.3. Understanding the psychology of PCE

569 The approach followed in this paper had two core elements. First, we took an interdisciplinary stance
570 by combining normative philosophical and empirical psychological analyses. Second, we tried to
571 shed light on how different normative judgements on PCE are related to each other psychologically.
572 We hope that our approach has not only helped to advance research on the specific question why
573 PCE is generally found unacceptable, but also to illustrate how philosophical analyses can be helpful
574 in understanding the psychology of PCE.

575 With regards to interdisciplinarity, we hope to have shown how hypotheses derived from

576 philosophical reasoning can serve as guideline about which psychological relationships are fruitful
577 for testing. It would also be interesting, we think, to explore the reverse strategy, that is to use
578 psychological findings to generate philosophical “hypotheses” than can be tested by normative or
579 conceptual analyses. It might, for example, be worthwhile for philosophers to consider whether
580 *Undeservingness* and *Hollowness* could be normatively epiphenomenal, in the sense that they are
581 implications of *Unfairness* but play no role in the rationalization of *Unacceptability* by *Unfairness*.

582 With regards to our aim to test relations between different judgements on PCE, we think that this is
583 not only worthwhile, but necessary both from an academic and a practical perspective. When we
584 want to understand the psychology of cognitive enhancement, that is how human beings react to PCE
585 and other mind-altering technologies, we need to gain more than a list of reactions these technologies
586 evoke. Rather, we need to know which reactions are cause, and which are consequence; which are
587 central and which are epiphenomenal.

588 Understanding the psychology of PCE, in turn, is necessary to estimate the non-pharmacological
589 consequences of PCE use. Psychological reactions based on subjective judgements about PCE can be
590 powerful. For instance, people tend to subjectively judge PCE as more effective than it actually is
591 (Ilieva, Boland, and Farah, 2013) and some employ it to cope with elevated stress (e.g., Wiegel,
592 Sattler, Göritz, and Diewald, 2015). However, consuming PCE seems to be detrimental to reducing
593 stress, but on the contrary weakens the protective effect of internal personal resources against burnout
594 (Wolff, Brand, Baumgarten, Lösel, and Ziegler, 2014). Moreover, it has been argued that the
595 prevalent negative judgements of others regarding PCE can cause considerable psychological costs
596 for users (for example reduced self-esteem; Faulmüller et al., 2013).

597 Increased understanding of psychological processes is also crucial for assessing the consequences
598 PCE has beyond individual users. Current pharmacological research on the effectiveness of PCE
599 substances measures how they influence participants' individual performance. Based on such
600 research, it has been argued that the use of PCE would also be beneficial on a societal level, for
601 example, because enhancements will increase human productivity, resulting in general economic
602 benefits through either greater availability of goods or lower prices (Buchanan, 2008, 2011; Bostrom
603 and Ord, 2006). However, a psychological understanding of normative attitudes to enhancement
604 could complicate this picture. Employing a psychological perspective, it has been illustrated that the
605 effect of PCE on an individual's performance can be increased, but also be reduced, completely
606 eliminated or even reversed at a group level (Faber, Häusser, and Kerr, 2015b): The effectiveness of
607 PCE in improving group performance depends on the psychological processes within the group,
608 which, in turn, is guided by the subjective judgements the group members make about PCE. If, for
609 example, group members who do not use PCE form negative attitudes to PCE-users, this can lead to
610 these two parties not interacting efficiently and not functioning well as a performance group. In such
611 a case, even though a PCE substance is an enhancement of individual performance (for
612 pharmacological reasons), it could even act as an impairment for a group (for psychological reasons).
613 Therefore, subjective judgements about PCE can determine the performance benefits groups can – or
614 cannot - draw from PCE.

615 Hence, if we want to know how PCE affects us as a society, we need to understand not only the
616 pharmacology, but also the psychology associated with such technologies. We think that both
617 employing an interdisciplinary perspective and investigating the relationships between judgements on
618 PCE is fruitful to understand this psychology. At present, research on the public perception of PCE
619 and its consequences is still in its infancy. We hope that in the near future we will have a more
620 comprehensive and coherent picture of the psychology of PCE – both for our academic
621 understanding of human enhancement and to help policy making.

622

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627

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