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ARISTOTLE'S ETHICS

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THE ETHICS OF ARISTOTLE: WITH INTRODUCTORY ESSAY BY GEORGE HENRY LEWES.

(*THE NICOMACHEAN ETHICS.*)

CHASE'S TRANSLATION, NEWLY REVISED.

LONDON: WALTER SCOTT, LTD
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[THE basis of this version of the Ethics of Aristotle is the scholarly and readable translation of the Rev. D. P. Chase, M.A., Fellow of Oriel College, Oxford, which was published at Oxford in 1847. It has been carefully revised throughout, and corrected in certain points in which it seemed to conflict with the best scholarship of the present day. The editions of Jelf and Grant, and the translation of Mr. F. H. Peters (Kegan Paul & Co., 1881), are works to which the reviser wishes to acknowledge his special indebtedness.

T. W. R.]

CONTENTS.

INTRODUCTION . . . By George Henry Lewes.
TRANSLATOR'S PREFACE . . By D. P. Chase.

THE ETHICS.

BOOK I.

PAGE

CHAPTER I. Introductory. 1. The purpose of the treatise. 2. Cautions to the Student. 3. Requisites in the Student . 1

II. An enumeration of various opinions concerning the Chief Good—a digression on the mode of reasoning to be adopted, and the necessity of training for the perception of moral truths . 5

III. A short discussion of four theories as being most current, and a longer one of Plato's doctrine of Ideas . . . 7

IV. Happiness is shown to possess two characteristics of the Chief Good, Inclusiveness of all other Ends, and being in itself Sufficient 13

V. Happiness defined. Repetition of cautions as to the method of proceeding 15

VI. The definition of Happiness already attained tested, by a comparison with the commonly received opinions on the subject . 18

VII. What is the Source of Happiness? . . . 22

VIII. The real relation between Happiness and Fortune. Solon's dictum taken as a text 24

IX. On the relation of the Dead to the Living . . 28

X. Whether Happiness is to be reckoned among things praiseworthy or precious 29

XI. An analysis of the Soul of Man, and a division of Excellence accordingly 31

BOOK II.

PAGE

I. That Moral Virtue is produced by a succession of right actions 36

II. The Standard and Rule of right action. How the perfect formation of habits may be tested. Virtue is shown to have pleasure and pain for its object-matter 38

III. An objection to the foregoing account of the formation of Moral Virtue, with its answer 43

IV. What is the Genus of Virtue 45

V. What is the differentia of Virtue 47

VI. Notes on the definition of Virtue thus obtained . . 50

VII. The application of this definition to particular instances . 51

VIII. Of the various degrees of opposition between the faulty and the right states in each Virtue 56

IX. The practical application of the Book 58

BOOK III.

I. Of Involuntary Actions: first, of compulsory . . 61

II. Of the second kind of Involuntary Actions. By reason of Ignorance 64

III. Voluntary Action defined. Actions which are caused by Anger or Lust are not therefore involuntary . . . 67

IV. On Moral Choice 68

V. Of Deliberation 71

VI. Of Wish 75

VII. On the Free Agency of Man 77

VIII. Recapitulation of points settled respecting Moral Virtue 81

IX. The Moral Virtues described in detail. First, of Courage 82

X. Courage continued 84

XI. Of the Spurious or Imperfect forms of Courage . . 86

XII. Additional notes upon Courage 91

XIII. Of Perfected Self-Mastery 93

XIV. A comparison between Cowardice and absence of Self-Control, and some further notes upon the latter, and the kindred virtue 98

BOOK IV.

PAGE

I. Of Liberality 100
II. Of the Extremes 104
III. Of Magnificence 108
IV. Of Great-mindedness 112
V. Of the Extremes 118
VI. Of Love of Honour 119
VII. Of Gentleness 120
VIII. Of Friendliness 123
IX. Of Truthfulness 125
X. Of Jocularity 128
XI. Of Shame 131

BOOK V.

I. Prefatory remarks. The different senses of Justice ascertained from those of Injustice 133
II. Of Justice in that sense in which it is coextensive with Virtue 135
III. That there is particular Injustice, and therefore particular Justice 138
IV. The Justice coextensive with Virtue is dismissed from further consideration 139
V. The division of Particular Justice into two species . . 141
VI. That Distributive Justice implies four proportional terms . 142
VII. Of Corrective Justice 144
VIII. Of the way in which Reciprocation enters into Justice . 148
IX. On Justice and Injustice 153
X. On the Just in domestic Relations: a notice of the Sophists' notions respecting the Just 154
XI. Of the distinctions between Unjust facts, Unjust actions, and Injustice as a confirmed habit. 158
XII. Can a man be unjustly dealt with willingly? . . 162
XIII. In a case of unfair distribution is the receiver or distributor in fault? 164
XIV. Whether acting Justly and Unjustly is quite within our own power? 166

PAGE
XV. Of Equity 167
XVI. Can a man deal Unjustly by himself? . . . 169
XVII. Supplementary questions 171

BOOK VI.

I. Prefatory 173
II. Division of the Intellect into two distinct parts. The function of each determined 174
III. The Virtues of the Intellectual or Rational Part of the Soul enumerated. The first slightly discussed . . . 177
IV. Of Art 179
V. Of Good Sense 180
VI. Of Intuitive Apprehension 183
VII. Of Wisdom, in itself, and in relation to Good Sense . 183
VIII. Additional notes upon Good Sense . . . 185
IX. Of Good Counsel 189
X. Of Intelligence and Judgment 192
XI. Of the coincidence of the faculties of Good Sense, Intuitive Apprehension, Intelligence, and Judgment . . 193
XII. Objections to the usefulness of these Intellectual Virtues. The Answers. A fuller description and analysis of Good Sense 195

BOOK VII.

I. Prefatory 201
II. Questions raised, and slightly discussed . . . 203
III. Of the object-matter of Self-Control. Of the nature of the conviction against which the man of Imperfect Self-Control acts . 207
IV. Of the character designated simply by the term "Of Imperfect Self-Control." Of those so designated, with the addition of the particular Object-Matter 212
V. Of the Brutish states 216
VI. Imperfect Self-Control (simply), compared with Imperfect Self-Control in respect of Anger 218

PAGE

VII. An enumeration and description of the various characters (taking in the idea of pains as well as pleasures) . . . 221

VIII. Of the relation which Steadfastness in Opinion, and the contrary, bear to Self-Control and Imperfect Self-Control respectively 226

IX. Notes additional and supplementary . . . 228

BOOK VIII.

I. Introductory. Reasons for introducing a dissertation on Friendship into this Treatise 232

II. A statement of various opinions respecting Love or Friendship 234

III. Of the object-matter of Friendship . . . 235

IV. Of the Imperfection of the Friendships based on the motives of Expediency and Pleasure 237

V. On the perfections of the Friendship based on virtue, and the imperfections of the other two kinds 239

VI. On the method of sustaining Friendship . . 242

VII. Repetition of some remarks. Supplementary remarks on the same subject 244

VIII. Of Friendship between parties who are unequal . 247

IX. The Relation between Justice and Friendship . . 252

X. Of the various forms of Political Constitutions, and their types in Domestic life 254

XI. The Correlativeness of Friendship and Justice . . 256

XII. Of the Friendships whose basis is blood-relationship . 258

XIII. Of disputes arising in the Friendship because of advantage, with a solution of the questions raised . . . 261

XIV. Of the disputes arising in Friendships between unequal parties 264

BOOK IX.

I. Cases of complaint in Friendships between parties dissimilar. Who has the right of fixing the rate of the return to be made . 267

II. Cases of comparative obligations put, and partially solved . 270

III. What circumstances cause the breaking up of Friendships, allowably or otherwise. Cases put 273

PAGE

IV. The feelings of true Friendship are transferred from Self to others. The different feelings of the good and bad men respectively towards Self described 275
V. Of Kindly Feeling 279
VI. Of Unity of Sentiment 281
VII. The difference of feeling in Benefactors, and in the objects of their kindnesses, stated and accounted for . . . 282
VIII. Of Self-Love 285
IX. Whether the Happy man will need Friends? . . 289
X. Of the number of friends which it is possible and desirable to have 293
XI. In what circumstances of fortune are friends most needed 295
XII. Intimacy the chief object of Friendship. Its effect on the good and the bad respectively 297

BOOK X.

I. Introductory 299
II. The opinions of Eudoxus and others stated and discussed . 300
III. That Pleasure is a "whole," and so distinguished from any kind of Movement 306
IV. Aristotle's own account of Pleasure . . . 308
V. A recapitulation of former statements respecting Happiness 315
VI. That Happiness consists, primarily, in the Working of Pure Intellect; secondarily, in that of the other Excellences . 318
VII. External prosperity, how far necessary to Happiness . 324
VIII. Introductory to the Politics 326

INTRODUCTION.

I.

WHEN Plato was leaving Athens for the journey into Sicily, of which we have spoken, and which occupied him three years or more, Aristotle appeared in that busy city, then an active, restless youth of seventeen; rich both in money and in knowledge, eager, impetuous, truth-loving, and insatiable in his thirst for philosophy. Tidings of the wondrous men who made that city illustrious, and whose fame still sheds a halo round its ruins, had reached him in his native land; tidings of the great thinkers and the crowded schools had lured him, though so young, to Athens.

Aristotle was born at Stagira, a colony in Thrace, Olympiad 99 (B.C. 384). His father, Nicomachus, was an eminent physician, who had written several works on medicine and natural history; so that Aristotle's love of such subjects may be called hereditary. Losing his parents at an early age, he was consigned to the care of a certain Proxenus, who had him instructed in all the physical knowledge of the time. Proxenus died, and Aristotle then fulfilled his desire of seeing Athens.

During the three years of Plato's absence Aristotle was not idle. He prepared himself to be a worthy pupil. His wealth enabled him to purchase those costly luxuries, Books—for there was no cheap Literature in those days—and in them he studied the speculations of the early thinkers, with a zeal and intelligence of which his own writings bear ample evidence. There were also some friends and followers of Socrates and

Plato still at Athens; men who had listened to the entrancing conversation of the "old man eloquent," who could still remember with a smile his keen and playful irony; and others who were acquainted with some of the deep thoughts brooding in the melancholy soul of Plato. These Aristotle eagerly questioned, and from them prepared himself to receive the lessons of his future teacher.

Plato returned. His school was opened, and Aristotle joined the crowd of his disciples, amongst whom the penetrating glance of the master soon detected the immortal pupil. Plato saw that the impetuous youth needed the curb; but there was promise of greatness in that very need. His restless activity was characterised by Plato in his epithet: "Aristotle is the *Mind* of my school."

Aristotle continued to listen to Plato for twenty years; that is, till the death of the latter. But he did not confine himself to the Platonic philosophy; nor did he entirely agree with it. And from this disagreement has arisen the vulgar notion of a personal disagreement between Master and Pupil—a notion, to be sure, propped up with pretended anecdotes, and knocked down with others equally authentic. Much has been written on this quarrel, and on what people call Aristotle's ingratitude. We place no reliance on it; the same thing was said of Plato with respect to Socrates, and we have excellent reasons for treating that as a calumny. In his writings Aristotle doubtless combats the opinions of Plato; but he always mentions him with respect, sometimes with tenderness. If that be ingratitude, it is such as all pupils have manifested who have not been slavish followers.

It was a wise thought of Macedonian Philip to give his son Alexander such a preceptor as Aristotle. For four years was the illustrious pupil instructed by the illustrious master in poetry, rhetoric, and philosophy; and when Alexander departed on his Indian expedition, a scholar of Aristotle's, one Callisthenes, attended him. Both from Philip and from Alexander the Stagirite received munificent assistance in all his undertakings, especially in the collection of natural

curiosities, which were selected from captured provinces, to form the materials of the *History of Animals.*

After a long interval Aristotle returned to Athens and opened a school in the Lyceum—a school which eclipsed all the others both in numbers and importance. It is curiously illustrative of his restless, vivacious temperament that he could not stand still and lecture, but delivered his opinions whilst walking up and down the shady paths of the Lyceum, attended by his eager followers. Hence his disciples were called the Walking Philosophers—Peripatetics.

His lectures were of two kinds—scientific and popular: *acromatic* or *acroatic*, and *exoteric.* The former were for the more advanced students, and those who were capable of pursuing scientific subjects; he delivered these in the morning. The latter were afternoon lectures to a much larger class, and treated of popular subjects: rhetoric, politics, and sophistics. Much learning and ingenuity has been thrown away in the endeavour to determine the precise nature of these two kinds of instruction; but we cannot stop to notice it. Those who conclude that the distinction between the esoteric and exoteric was a distinction of doctrine seem to us in error; the distinction was, as above stated, purely that of subject-matter. Dialectics and Poetics are not addressed to the same hearers.

He spent a long, laborious life in the pursuit of knowledge, and wrote an incredible number of works, about a fourth of which it is calculated are extant; the division, arrangement, and authenticity of which has long been a pet subject of contention amongst scholars; but, as no agreement has yet been effected, we may leave the question as it stands.

II.

Plato and Aristotle may be said to contain all the speculative philosophy of Greece; whoso knows them knows all that Greece had to teach. It is not our plan to draw comparisons between the greatness of two great men, otherwise these two

would furnish a happy subject. We have endeavoured to point out in what way Plato advanced the science of his age. We have now to do the same for Aristotle.

Aristotle was the most learned man of antiquity, but this learning did not enervate the vigour of his mind. He studiously sought, both in books and in external nature, for materials wherewith to build a doctrine. Before laying down his own views he examines the views of his predecessors with tedious minuteness; and his own opinions often seem rather brought out in his criticisms than dogmatically affirmed. Hence some have declared his Method to be the historical Method; a misconception not to be wondered at when we consider the abundance of historical evidence, and the absence of any express definition of his Method in his writings.

Unlike Plato, Aristotle never mentions the nature of his Method; but he has one, and we must detect it. We may expect to find it somewhat resembling that of his master, with some modifications of his own. It is so. Plato, as Van Heusde remarks, stands as a middle point between Socrates and Aristotle. The Method of Socrates was one of Investigation; that of Aristotle was one of Demonstration. The Definition and Induction of Socrates were powerful but vague; the Syllogism of Aristotle rendered them powerful and precise. Plato, as it were, fills up the gap between these two thinkers; by the addition of Analysis and Classification he reduced the Socratic Method to a more scientific form, and gave it precision. Where Plato left it, Aristotle took it up; and, by still further modifications, all of which had but one aim—*i.e.*, greater precision - he gave it a solidity which enabled it to endure for centuries.

Wherein did Plato and Aristotle fundamentally differ?

Until the time of Hegel the universal explanation of this difference was briefly to this effect: Plato is an Idealist, Aristotle a Materialist; the one a Rationalist, the other an Empiric; one trusting solely to Reason, the other solely to Experience. This explanation Hegel crushed by showing that, although Aristotle laid more stress upon experience than

did Plato, yet he also expressly taught that Reason alone could form science.

Let us, then, try if we can penetrate the real difference. And to do so we must first ask: What was the fundamental position of the Platonic doctrine? That question our readers can readily answer: the theory of Ideas, whereby Dialectics became science. If here Aristotle be found to agree with his master, there can be no fundamental difference between them; if here he be found to differ, we shall be able to deduce from it all other differences.

In truth, Aristotle radically opposed the Ideal theory; and the greater part of his criticisms on Plato are criticisms of that theory. He does not deny to Ideas a *subjective* existence; on the contrary, he makes them the materials of science; he is completely opposed to their *objective* existence, and calls them empty and poetical metaphors. He says that, on the supposition of Ideas being Existences and Models, there would be several Models for the same Thing, since the same thing may be classed under several heads. Thus Socrates may be classed under the Ideas of Socrates, of Man, of Animal, and of Biped; or Philosopher, General, and Statesman. The "stout Stagirite" not only perceived the logical error of the Ideal theory, but also saw how the error originated. He profoundly remarked that Ideas are nothing but productions of the Reason, separating, by a logical abstraction, the particular objects from those relations which are common to them all. Aristotle saw that Plato had mistaken a relation which the understanding perceived between two objects for the evidence of a separate existence. The partisans of the theory of Ideas Aristotle likens to those who, having to enumerate the exact number of things, commence by increasing the number, as a way of simplifying the calculation.

In this caustic illustration we may read his whole criticism. What, indeed, was the Ideal theory but a multiplication of the number of Existences? Men had before imagined that things were great, and heavy, and black or brown. Plato separated the qualities of greatness, weight, and colour, and made these qualities new existences.

Having disproved the notion of Ideas being Existences—in other words, of General Terms being anything more than the expressions of the Relations of individual things—Aristotle was driven to maintain that the Individual Things alone *existed.* But if only individuals exist, only by sensation can they be known, and if we know them by sensation, how is the Universal[1] ever known—how do we get abstract ideas? This question was the more pertinent because Science could only be a Science of the Universal, or (to use the language of Positive Science) a science of general truths. Aristotle admitted with Plato that there could be no "science of sensation," no science which was not founded on ideas; and it was needful, therefore, for him to show how such ideas could be obtained.

Plato's solution of the problem we before exhibited; it was the ingenious doctrine of the soul's *reminiscence* of a former apprehension of truth, awakened by the traces of Ideas which sensation discovered in Things.

This solution, of course, did not satisfy Aristotle. He, too, was aware that reminiscence was indispensable; but reminiscence of a previous experience, not of an anterior state of existence in the world of Ideas. By sensation we perceive particular things; by *induction* we perceive the general in the particular. Sensation is the basis of all knowledge; but we have another faculty besides that of sensation; we have *Memory.* Having perceived many things, we remember our sensations, and by that remembrance we are enabled to discern wherein things resemble and wherein they differ; and this Memory then becomes an *Art* whereby a general conception is formed; this art is Induction. Man alone has this art. The distinction between Brutes and Men is, that the former, although they have Memory, have no Experience; that is to say, have not the art which converts Memory into Experience—the art of Induction. Man is a reasoning animal.

That Aristotle meant Induction by the art of which he speaks as furnished by experience may be proved by one luminous passage of the *Metaphysics:* "Art commences when,

[1] τὸ καθόλου.

from a great number of Experiences, one general conception is formed which will embrace all other similar cases."[1] And lest there should be any misunderstanding of his definition, he proceeds to illustrate it. "Thus: if you know that a certain remedy has cured Callias of a certain disease, and that the same remedy has produced the same effect on Socrates and on several other persons, that is *Experience;* but to know that a certain remedy will cure all persons attacked with that disease is *Art;* for Experience is the knowledge of individual things;[2] Art is that of Universals."[3]

"That strain I heard was of a higher mood!"

The commencement of Positive Science—the awakening to an appreciation of the nature and processes of science, lies in that passage. In the Socratic conception of Induction we saw little more than Analogical Reasoning; but in this Aristotelian conception we see the Collection of Instances, and the generalization from those Instances which Positive Science claims as its Method. Nor was this a random guess of the old Stagirite's: it was the logical deduction from his premisses respecting knowledge. Hear him again: "Experience furnishes the principles of every science. Thus Astronomy is grounded on observation; for, if we were *properly to observe* the celestial phenomena, we might *demonstrate the laws* which regulate them. The same applies to other sciences. *If we omit nothing that observation can afford us respecting phenomena,* we could easily furnish the demonstration of all that admits of being demonstrated, and illustrate that which is not susceptible of demonstration."[4]

And, in another place, when abandoned in his investigation by phenomena, he will not hazard an assertion. "We must wait," he says, "for further phenomena, since phenomena are more to be trusted than the conclusion of reason."

[1] *γίνεται δὲ τέχνη ὅταν ἐκ πολλῶν τῆς ἐμπειρίας ἐννοημάτων καθόλου μια γένηται περὶ τῶν ὁμοίων ὑπόληψις.—Met.* i. 1.

[2] *τῶν καθέκαστά.* [3] *τῶν καθόλου.*

[4] *Anal. Prior.*, i. chap. 30.

Had he always steadily held before his eyes this conception of Science, had he always been the Empiric which the Germans so contemptuously call him, he would have anticipated Bacon —he would have been the father of Positive Science.

But it was precisely because he did not—and indeed in that age *could* not—confine himself to Experience, and the generalization of Experience, that he could not effectually carry out his own scheme. His conception of Method was certainly a just one; but the application of such a Method could have led him only a short way, because there was not sufficient Experience then accumulated from which to generalise with any effect. Hence Aristotle's speculations are not always carried on upon the method which he himself laid down. Impatient at the insufficiency of facts, he jumps to a conclusion. Eager, as all men are, to solve the problems which present themselves, he solved them *à priori*. He applied his Syllogism before he had ascertained the exactitude of his premisses. But the radical defect in his Philosophy is the notion that science can penetrate the mystery of existence. This made him endeavour to create a metaphysical system; and this metaphysical system is a sufficient disproof of the vulgar notion of his being a mere Experimentalist, an Empiric.

The distinction between Aristotle and Plato is, that while both admitted science only could be formed from Universals,[1] Aristotle contended that such Universals had purely a subjective existence—*i.e.*, that they were nothing more than the *inductions* derived from particular facts. He therefore made Experience the basis of all Science, and Reason the Architect. Plato made Reason the basis. The tendency of the one was to direct man to the observation and interrogation of Nature; that of the other was to direct man to the contemplation of ideas.

The distinction between Aristotle and Bacon is that, while they both insist upon the observation and generalization of facts, as alone capable of furnishing correct ideas, Aristotle believed that he could observe those primary facts of Existence

[1] τὰ καθόλου.

and Cause, which Bacon wisely declared beyond the human ken. While both insisted on the necessity of experience, while both saw that the science of the "general" must be framed from the inductions of the particular, they differed profoundly as to the nature of that "general." Bacon endeavoured in particular facts to trace the general *laws;* Aristotle endeavoured in particular facts to trace the general *ideas.*

. . . . . .

III.

In spite of his Method, Aristotle was a Metaphysician, because of his Logic. We must rapidly set down the leading points of his system.

The problem which the early thinkers had set themselves to solve was that of the First Cause. Aristotle maintained that there were Four Causes, not one, and each of these must be taken into consideration. The four Causes were as follows:— I. The Material Cause, the Essence;[1] the Invariable Existence, which philosophers so variously sought. Perhaps "*Essence*" is the best translation of the phrase. II. The Substantial Cause,[2] the "*Substance*" of the Schoolmen. III. The Efficient Cause,[3] "the Principle of Motion." IV. The Final Cause,[4] "the Purpose and End." These Causes were all recognised separately by the early speculators, but no one had recognised them as connected, and as all necessary.

No doubt Aristotle is right in his criticism on his predecessors. But his own theory is extremely vicious; it makes all speculation subordinate to logical distinctions; it makes the Categories[5] the great instrument of investigation; and it creates that spirit of useless and quibbling distinctions which was the characteristic vice of the schoolmen, who were almost all fervent Aristotelians. In one word, the nearer Aristotle approached to systematic precision, the wider he wandered from sound principles of

[1] τὸ τί ἦν εἶναι.
[2] ὑποκείμενον.
[3] ἀρχὴ τῆς κινήσεως.
[4] τὸ οὗ ἕνεκα καὶ τἀγαθόν.
[5] Such as Quantity, Quality, Relation, Position, etc.—[Ed.]

inquiry. And this because of his fundamental error of supposing that Logic was an Organon—*i.e.*, that *subjective* distinctions must accord with *objective* distinctions. In consequence of which, instead of interrogating Nature, he interrogated his own mind.

This may seem at variance with his notion of the necessity of sense-experience, and at variance with his Method; but as we have before observed, the rigorous application of his Method was barely possible; and, however excellent as a precept, it was so vague as to be almost inevitably vitiated in practice. The process of vitiation was this. Experience was necessary, as affording the materials for Reason to work with. Any reasoning not founded on a knowledge of phenomena must be false; but it by no means follows that all reasoning founded on a knowledge of phenomena must be true. Here was Aristotle's mistake. He thought that Experience could not deceive. But, to make his Method perfect, he should have laid down the rules for testing that Experience—for "interrogating nature"—for the discrimination of what was pertinent to the question in hand—for establishing a proper "*experimentum crucis*." Thus "facts," as they are called, are notoriously valuable in proportion only to the value of the theory upon which they have been collected. People talk of "facts" as if facts were to produce irresistible convictions. The truth is they are susceptible of almost any explanation; and, in the history of science, we do not find the *facts*, but the *theories*, changing: that is to say, Nature has preserved one uniform course, her ordinary operations are open to all men's inspection; and men have endeavoured to explain these operations in an endless variety of ways.

Now, from a want of proper knowledge of the conditions of Scientific inquiry, Aristotle's Method became fruitless. The facts collected were vitiated by a false theory: his sense-experience was wrongly interpreted.

It is time, however, to give his solution of the great metaphysical problem of Existence.

Matter, he says, exists in a threefold form. It is—I. Substance, perceptible by the senses, which is finite and perishable.

This Substance is either the abstract substance, or the substance connected with form.[1] II. The higher Substance, which, though perceived by the senses, is imperishable; such as are the heavenly bodies. Here the active principle (*actus*[2]) steps in, which, in so far as it contains that which is to be produced, is understanding.[3] That which it contains is the *purpose*,[4] which purpose is realised in the act. Hence we have two extremes of potentiality and agency, matter and thought. The often-mentioned *entelechie* is the relation between these two extremes—it is the point of transition between potentiality and agency;[5] and is accordingly the Cause of Motion, or *Efficient* Cause, and represents the Soul. III. The third form of Substance is that in which the three forms of power, efficient cause, and effect are united: the Absolute Substance: eternal unmoved: God himself.

God, as the Absolute Unmoved Eternal Substance is Thought. The Universe is a thought in the mind of God. It is "God passing into activity, but not exhausted in the Act."

Existence, then, is Thought; it is the activity of the Divine Reason.

In Man the thought of the Divine Reason completes itself so as to become self-conscious. By it he recognises in the objective world his own nature again; for thought is the thinking of thought.[6]

Had we space, we would willingly have bestowed some chapters upon his Physical, Ethical, and Psychological speculations; but to treat them worthily would require a volume, and would also require a far abler hand; to treat them superficially would be useless. The object of our book fortunately enables us to pass them over. We have assigned him his position in the history of human development; we have exhibited his method. It only remains to add that his ethical and political works are distinguished by such sober sagacity, the very genius of good sense, that even in the present day they are studied with profit. And those Logical and Metaphysical doctrines

[1] εἶδος. [3] νοῦς. [5] δύναμις and ἐνέργεια.
[2] ἐνέργεια. [4] το οὗ ἕνεκα. [6] ἔστιν ἡ νόησις, νοήσεως νόησις.

which we regard as completely *beside* the truth were, as is well known, the great source of speculation during many centuries. The influence they exercised is beyond all appreciation; and, although much of that influence was evil, as leading to frivolous subtleties, as misdirecting the energy of the human mind; yet, on the other hand, the constant appeal to experience, and the wondrous acuteness and systematic reasoning which distinguished the Stagirite, did much to keep alive the activity of speculation, and in some respects to give it a proper tone.

Aristotle, as the second pillar of Greek Science, must always command attention and respect. His vast learning, his singular acuteness, the wide range of his investigations, and the astonishing number and excellence of his works, will always make him a formidable rival to his more fascinating master. "A student passing from the works of Plato," it has been well said, "to those of Aristotle, is struck first of all with the entire absence of that dramatic form and that dramatic feeling with which he has been familiar. The living human beings with whom he has conversed have passed away. Protagoras, and Prodicus, and Hippias are no longer lounging upon their couches in the midst of groups of admiring pupils; we have no walks along the walls of the city; no readings beside the Ilissus; no lively symposia, giving occasion to high discourses about love; no Critias recalling the stories he had heard in the days of his youth, before he became a tyrant of ancient and glorious republics; above all, no Socrates forming a centre to these various groups, while yet he stands out clear and distinct in his individual character, showing that the most subtle of dialecticians may be the most thoroughly humorous and humane of men. Some little sorrow for the loss of those clear and beautiful pictures will perhaps be felt by every one; but by far the greater portion of readers will believe that they have an ample compensation, in the precision and philosophical dignity of the treatise, for the richness and variety of the dialogue. To hear solemn disquisitions solemnly treated; to hear opinions calmly discussed without the interruptions of personalities; above all, to have a profound and

considerate judge, able and not unwilling to pronounce a positive decision upon the evidence before him ; this they think a great advantage, and this and far more than this they expect, not wrongly, to find in Aristotle."[1]

GEO. HENRY LEWES.

[1] *Ency. Metrop.*, article, "Moral and Metaphysical Philosophy."

PREFACE.

IT has been admirably said,[1] "that Translation in itself is a problem, how, two languages being given, the nearest approximation may be made in the second to the expression of ideas already conveyed through the medium of the first. The problem almost starts with the assumption that something must be sacrificed, and the chief question is, what is the least sacrifice?"

If this be accepted, it would seem that a Translator may fairly wish to direct, though not to deprecate, criticism, by stating what end he has borne in view.

My object then, in the present work, is to assist two classes of Students: those to whom the text itself of the Ethics presents difficulties, and those who may need an interpreter of its meaning. To effect the first of these purposes I have endeavoured to translate closely, without merely construing. With a view to the second, I have attempted so to translate that each passage should commit itself to some definite view of the meaning of the original.

For the sake of simplicity I have, as far as possible, rendered the Greek terms always by the same English ones, conceiving that what might be lost in elegance would be more than compensated by clearness and intelligibleness. I have assumed throughout that the original work is of a colloquial, and not stiff and formal, character.

The notes which are subjoined are intended to explain Aristotle's statements, but not to enter upon any discussion of

[1] Newman. Preface to *The Church of the Fathers.*

them. I have principally endeavoured to avoid encumbering with help. Should I be found to have erred occasionally in that direction, I am inclined rather to claim indulgence, on the ground of general self-denial, than to extenuate occasional excursiveness.

The division of Chapters will be found not to correspond exactly with that of Bekker's text; the reason it is hoped will appear in each case.

The references to the Greek text are made in accordance with the arrangement of it by Bekker.

D. P. C.

OXFORD, *June* 3, 1847.

ARISTOTLE'S ETHICS.

ARISTOTLE'S ETHICS.[1]

BOOK I.

CHAPTER I.—INTRODUCTORY.

1. THE PURPOSE OF THE TREATISE. 2. CAUTIONS TO THE STUDENT. 3. REQUISITES IN THE STUDENT.

(1) EVERY art and system, and in like manner every action and choice, aims, it is thought, at some good; for which reason a common and by no means a bad description of the Chief Good is, "that which all things aim at."

Now there plainly is a difference in the Ends proposed; for in some cases they are acts of exercise, and in others certain works or tangible results beyond and beside the exercise, and where there are certain Ends beyond and beside the actions, the works are in their nature better than the acts of exercise. Again, since actions and arts and sciences are many, the Ends likewise come to be many: of the healing art, for instance, health; of the shipbuilding

[1] Called "Nicomachean" because they were sometimes, in antiquity, attributed to Nicomachus, a son of Aristotle. There is no doubt of their genuineness, but the title Nicomachean has been retained to distinguish them from other ethical writings of Aristotle.—[ED.]

art, a vessel; of the military art, victory; and of domestic management, wealth—are respectively the Ends.

And whatever of such actions arts or sciences range under some one faculty (as under that of horsemanship the art of making bridles, and all that are connected with the manufacture of horse-furniture in general; this itself again, and every action connected with war, under the military art; and in the same way others under others), in all such, the Ends of the master-arts are more choiceworthy than those ranging under them, because it is with a view to the former that the latter are pursued.

(And in this comparison it makes no difference whether the acts of exercise are themselves the Ends of the actions, or something further beside them, as is the case in the arts and sciences we have been just speaking of.)

Since then of all things which may be done there is some one End which we desire for its own sake, and with a view to which we desire everything else, and since we do not choose in all instances with a further End in view (for then men would go on without limit, and so the desire would be unsatisfied and fruitless), this plainly must be the Chief Good, and the best thing of all.

Surely, then, even with reference to actual life and conduct, the knowledge of it must have great weight, and, like archers, with a mark in view, we shall be more likely to hit upon what is right; and if so, we ought to try to describe, in outline at least, what it is, and of which of the sciences or faculties it is the End.

Now one would naturally suppose it to be the End of that which is most commanding and most inclusive, and to this description Politics[1] plainly answers; for this it is that

[1] That is, for Aristotle, the whole science which relates to men as members of a *polis* or State.—[ED.]

determines which of the sciences should be in the communities, and which kind individuals are to learn, and what degree of proficiency is to be required. Again:—We see also ranging under this the most highly esteemed faculties, such as the art military, and that of domestic management, and Rhetoric. Well, then, since this uses all the other practical sciences, and moreover lays down rules as to what men are to do and from what to abstain, the End of this must include the Ends of the rest, and so must be *The Good* of Man. And grant that this is the same to the individual and to the community, yet surely that of the latter is plainly greater and more perfect to discover and preserve; for to do this even for a single individual were a matter for contentment, but to do it for a whole nation and for communities generally were more noble and godlike.

(2) Such, then, are the objects proposed by our treatise, which is of a Political nature; and I conceive I shall have spoken on them satisfactorily if they be made as distinctly clear as the nature of the subject-matter will admit; for exactness must not be looked for in all discussions alike, any more than in all works of handicraft. Now the notions of nobleness and justice, with the examination of which the science of Politics is concerned, admit of variation and error to such a degree that they are supposed by some to exist conventionally only, and not in the nature of things; but then again, the things which are allowed to be goods admit of a similar error, because harm comes to many from them, for before now some have perished through wealth, and others through valour.

We must be content, then, in speaking of such things and from such data, to set forth the truth roughly and in outline; in other words, since we are speaking of general

matter and from general data, to draw also conclusions merely general. And in the same spirit should each person receive what we say; for the man of education will seek exactness so far in each subject as the nature of the thing admits, it being plainly much the same absurdity to put up with a mathematician's talking of "probable" truths, and to demand strict demonstrative reasoning of a Rhetorician.

(3) Now each man judges well what he knows, and of these things he is a good judge; on each particular matter, then, he is a good judge who has been instructed in *it*, and in a general way the man of general mental cultivation.[1]

Hence the young man is not a fit student of Moral Philosophy, for he has no experience in the actions of life, while all that is said presupposes and is concerned with these; and in the next place, since he is apt to follow the impulses of his passions, he will hear as though he heard not, and to no profit, the end in view being practice and not mere knowledge.

And I draw no distinction between young in years and youthful in temper and disposition; the defect to which I allude being no direct result of the time, but of living at the beck and call of passion, and following each object as it rises.[2] For to them that are such the knowledge comes to

[1] Matters of which a man is to judge either belong to some definite art of science, or they do not. In the former case he is the best judge who has thorough acquaintance with that art or science; in the latter, the man whose powers have been developed and matured by education. A lame horse one would show to a farrier, not to the best and wisest man of one's acquaintance; to the latter one would apply in a difficult case of conduct.

Experience answers to the first, a state of self-control to the latter.

[2] In the last chapter of the third book of this treatise it is said of the fool that his desire of pleasure is not only insatiable, but indiscriminate in its objects, *παντα χόθεν*.

be unprofitable, as to those of imperfect self-control; but to those who form their desires and act in accordance with reason, to have knowledge on these points must be very profitable.

Let thus much suffice by way of preface on these three points—the student, the spirit in which our observations should be received, and the object which we propose.

CHAPTER II.

AN ENUMERATION OF VARIOUS OPINIONS CONCERNING THE CHIEF GOOD—A DIGRESSION ON THE MODE OF REASONING TO BE ADOPTED, AND THE NECESSITY OF TRAINING FOR THE PERCEPTION OF MORAL TRUTHS.

AND now, resuming the statement with which we commenced, since all knowledge and choice grasps at good of some kind or another, what good is that which we say Political Science aims at? or, in other words, what is the highest of all the goods which are the objects of action?

So far as Name goes, there is a pretty general agreement; for HAPPINESS both the multitude and the refined few call it, and "living well" and "doing well" they conceive to be the same with "being happy"; but about the Nature of this Happiness they dispute, and the multitude do not in their account of it agree with the wise. For some say it is some one of those things which are palpable and apparent, as pleasure or wealth or honour; in fact, some one thing, some another; nay, oftentimes the same man gives a different account of it; for when ill, he calls it health; when poor, wealth; and when conscious of their own ignorance, men admire those who talk grandly and above their

comprehension. Some, again, have thought it to be something by itself, other than and beside these many good things, which is in fact to all these the cause of their being good.

Now to sift all the opinions would be perhaps rather a fruitless task; so it shall suffice to sift those which are most generally current, or are thought to have some reason in them.

[[1] And here we must not forget the difference between reasoning from principles and reasoning to principles; for with good cause did Plato too doubt about this and inquire whether the right road is from principles or to principles, just as in the race-course from the judges to the further end, or *vice versâ*.

Of course we must begin with what is known; but then this is of two kinds—what *we* know, and what is known absolutely;[2] perhaps then we, as individuals, must begin with what *we* know. Hence the necessity that he should have been well trained in morals, who is to study, with any tolerable chance of profit, the principles of nobleness and justice and Politics generally. For the principle is a matter of fact, and if the fact is sufficiently clear to a man, there will be no need in addition of the reason for the fact. And he that has been thus trained either has principles already, or can receive them easily; as for him who neither has nor can receive them, let him hear his sentence from Hesiod—

" He is best of all who of himself conceiveth all things;
Good again is he too who can adopt a good suggestion;
But whoso neither of himself conceiving nor hearing from another
Layeth it to heart;—he is a useless man."]

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[1] I enclose this passage in brackets, as clearly interrupting the thread of the discourse.

[2] The distinction is between relative and absolute knowledge, or the things that we discover as individuals and those known by the Divine Reason.—[ED.]

CHAPTER III.

A SHORT DISCUSSION OF FOUR THEORIES AS BEING MOST CURRENT, AND A LONGER ONE OF PLATO'S DOCTRINE OF IDEAS.

BUT to return from this digression.

Now of the Chief Good and of Happiness men seem to form their notions from the different modes of life, as we might naturally expect: the many and most low conceive it to be pleasure, and hence they also like the life of sensual enjoyment. For there are three lines of life which stand out prominently to view: that just mentioned, and public life, and thirdly, the life of contemplation.

Now the many are plainly quite slavish, choosing a life like that of brute animals; yet they obtain some consideration, because many of the great share the tastes of Sardanapalus. The refined and active again conceive it to be honour; for this may be said to be the end of public life; yet it is plainly too superficial for the object of our search, because it is thought to depend on those who pay rather than on him who receives it, whereas the Chief Good we feel instinctively must be something which is our own, and not easily to be taken from us.

And besides, men seem to pursue honour, that they may believe themselves to be good; for instance, they seek to be honoured by the wise, and by those among whom they are known, and for virtue; clearly then, in the opinion at least of these men, virtue is higher than honour. In truth, one would be much more inclined to think this to be the end of public life; yet this itself is plainly too imperfect; for it is conceived possible that a man possessed of virtue might sleep, or be inactive all

through his life, or as a third case, suffer the greatest evils and misfortunes; and the man who should live thus no one would call happy, except for mere disputation's sake.

And for these let thus much suffice, for they have been treated of at sufficient length in my *Encyclia.*[1]

And a third line of life is that of contemplation, concerning which we shall make our examination further on.[2]

As for the life of money-making, it is one of constraint, and wealth manifestly is not the good we are seeking, because it is for use—that is, for the sake of something further; and hence one would rather conceive the forementioned ends to be the right ones, for they are desired for their own sakes. Yet, clearly, they are not the objects of our search either, though many words have been wasted on them.[3] So much then for these.

Again, the notion of one Universal Good (the same, that is, in all things) it is better perhaps we should examine, and discuss the meaning of it, though such an inquiry is unpleasant, because they are friends of ours who have introduced this doctrine of Ideas.[4] Still perhaps it

[1] A lost work, supposed to have been so called, because containing miscellaneous questions.

[2] It is only quite at the close of the treatise that Aristotle refers to this, and allows that *θεωρία* constitutes the highest happiness, because it is the exercise of the highest faculty in man: the reason of thus deferring the statement being that till the lower, that is, the moral nature has been reduced to perfect order, *θεωρία* cannot have place; though, had it been held out from the first, men would have been for making the experiment at once, without the trouble of self-discipline.

[3] Or, as some think, "many theories have been founded on them."

[4] According to Plato, besides the concrete objects which we perceive, there exist archetypal forms or "Ideas" of these objects, which are, in reality, the basis of their existence. The supreme good would be such an Idea, and it ought to cover all the concrete manifestations of goodness.—[ED.]

may appear better, nay, to be our duty where the safety of the truth is concerned, to upset, if need be, even our own theories, specially as we are lovers of wisdom; for since both are dear to us, we are bound to prefer the truth. Now they who invented this doctrine of Ideas did not apply a common Idea to those things in which they spoke of priority and posteriority, and so they never made any common Idea of numbers; but good is predicated in the categories of Substance, Quality, and Relation; now that which exists of itself, *i.e.* Substance, is prior in the nature of things to that which is relative, because this latter is an off-shoot, as it were, and result of that which is; on their own principle then there cannot be a common Idea in the case of these.

In the next place, since good is predicated in as many ways as there are modes of existence [for it is predicated in the category of Substance, as God, Intellect—and in that of Quality, as The Virtues—and in that of Quantity, as The Mean—and in that of Relation, as The Useful—and in that of Time, as Opportunity—and in that of Place, as Abode; and other such like things], it manifestly cannot be something common and universal and one in all: else it would not have been predicated in all the categories, but in one only.

Thirdly, since those things which range under one Idea are also under the cognisance of one science, there would have been, on their theory, only one science taking cognisance of all goods collectively: but in fact there are many even for those which range under one category; for instance, of Opportunity or Seasonableness (which I have before mentioned as being in the category of Time) the science is, in war, generalship; in disease, medical science; and of the Mean (which I quoted before as being in the

category of Quantity), in food, the medical science; and in labour or exercise, the gymnastic science. A person might fairly doubt also what in the world they mean by "the essential" this, that, or the other, since, as they would themselves allow, the account of the humanity is one and the same in the essential Man, and in any individual man: for so far as the individual and the essential Man are both Man, they will not differ at all; and if so, then the essential good and any particular good will not differ, in so far as both are good. Nor will it do to say that the eternity of the essential good makes it to be more good; for what has lasted white ever so long is no whiter than what lasts but for a day.

No. The Pythagoreans do seem to give a more credible account of the matter, who place "One" among the goods in their double list of goods and bads:[1] which philosophers, in fact, Speusippus, seem to have followed.

But of these matters let us speak at some other time. Now there is plainly a loophole to object to what has been advanced, on the plea that the theory I have attacked is not by its advocates applied to all good: but those goods

[1] The list ran thus:—

Good.	*Bad.*
The Limited.	The Unlimited.
The Sufficient.	The Superfluous.
The One.	The Many.
The Right.	The Left.
The Male.	The Female.
The Straight.	The Crooked.
Light.	Darkness.
The Square.	The Unequal-sided.
The Quiescent.	The Moved.
Good.	Evil.

Speusippus, a leader of the Platonic school, placed Unity among things that are good, instead of reducing Good to a unity.—[ED.]

only are spoken of as being under one Idea, which are pursued and desired simply for their own sakes; whereas those things which have a tendency to produce or preserve them in any way, or to hinder their contraries, are called good because of these circumstances, and after another fashion. It is manifest then that the goods may be so called in two senses, the one class for their own sakes, the other because of these.

Very well then, let us separate the independent goods from the instrumental, and see whether they are spoken of as under one Idea. But the question next arises, what kind of goods are we to call independent? All such as are pursued even when separated from other goods, as, for instance, being wise, seeing, and certain pleasures and honours? For these, though we do pursue them with some further end in view, one would still place among the independent goods; or does it come in fact to this, that we can call nothing independent good except the Idea, and so the concrete of it will be nought?

If, on the other hand, there are independent goods, then we shall require that the account of the goodness be the same clearly in all, just as that of the whiteness is in snow and white lead. But how stands the fact? Why of honour and wisdom and pleasure the accounts are distinct and different in so far as they are good. The Chief Good then is not something common, and after one Idea.

But then, how does the name come to be common (for it is not seemingly a case of fortuitous equivocation)? Are different individual things called good by virtue of being from one source, or all conducing to one end; or rather, by way of analogy, just as we say that intellect is to the soul as light to the body, and so on? However, perhaps we ought to leave these questions now, for an accurate investigation

of them is more properly the business of a different philosophy. And likewise respecting the Idea: for even if there is some one good predicated in common of all things that are good, or separable and capable of existing independently, manifestly it cannot be the object of human action or attainable by Man; but we are in search now of something that is so.[1]

It may readily occur to any one that it would be better to attain a knowledge of it with a view to such concrete goods as are attainable and practical, because, with this as a kind of model in our hands, we shall the better know what things are good for us individually; and when we know them, we shall attain them.

Some plausibility, it is true, this argument possesses, but it is contradicted by the facts of the Arts and Sciences; for all these, though aiming at some good, and seeking that which is deficient, yet pretermit the knowledge of it: now it is not exactly probable that all artisans without exception should be ignorant of so great a help as this would be, and not even look after it; neither is it easy to see wherein a weaver or a carpenter will be profited in respect of his craft by knowing the essential good, or how a man will be the more apt to effect cures, or to command an army, for having contemplated the Idea itself. For manifestly it is not health after this general and abstract fashion which is the subject of the physician's investigation, but the health of Man, or rather perhaps of this or that man; for he has to heal individuals.—Thus much on these points.

[1] This is the capital defect in Aristotle's eyes, who, being eminently practical, could not like a theory which not only did not necessarily lead to action, but had a tendency to discourage it by enabling unreal men to talk finely. If true, the theory is merely a way of stating facts, and leads to no action.

CHAPTER IV.

HAPPINESS IS SHOWN TO POSSESS TWO CHARACTERISTICS OF THE CHIEF GOOD, INCLUSIVENESS OF ALL OTHER ENDS, AND BEING IN ITSELF SUFFICIENT.

AND now let us revert to the Good of which we are in search: what can it be? for manifestly it is different in different actions and arts: for it is different in the healing art and in the art military, and similarly in the rest. What then is the Chief Good in each? Is it not "that for the sake of which the other things are done?" and this in the healing art is health, and in the art military victory, and in that of house-building a house, and in any other thing something else; in short, in every action and choice the End, because in all cases men do everything else with a view to this. So that if there is some one End of all things which are and may be done, this must be the Good proposed by doing, or if more than one, then these.

Thus our discussion after some traversing about has come to the same point which we reached before. And this we must try yet more to clear up.

Now since the ends are plainly many, and of these we choose some with a view to others (money, for instance, musical instruments, and, in general, all instruments), it is clear that all are not final: but the Chief Good is manifestly something final; and so, if there is some one only which is final, this must be the object of our search: but if several, then the most final of them will be it.

Now that which is an object of pursuit in itself we call more final than that which is so with a view to something else; that again which is never an object of choice with

a view to something else than those which are so both in themselves and with a view to this ulterior object: and so by the term "absolutely final," we denote that which is an object of choice always in itself, and never with a view to any other.

And of this nature Happiness is mostly thought to be, for this we choose always for its own sake, and never with a view to anything further: whereas honour, pleasure, intellect, in fact every excellence we choose for their own sakes, it is true (because we would choose each of these even if no result were to follow), but we choose them also with a view to happiness, conceiving that through their instrumentality we shall be happy. But no man chooses happiness with a view to them, nor in fact with a view to any other thing whatsoever.

The same result[1] is seen to follow also from the notion of self-sufficiency, a quality thought to belong to the final good. Now by sufficient for Self we mean not for a single individual living a solitary life, but for his parents also and children and wife, and, in general, friends and countrymen; for man is by nature adapted to a social existence. But of these, of course, some limit must be fixed: for if one extends it to parents and descendants and friends' friends, there is no end to it. This point, however, must be left for future investigation. For the present we define that to be self-sufficient "which taken alone makes life choiceworthy, and to be in want of nothing;" and of such kind we think Happiness to be: and further, to be most choiceworthy of all things not being reckoned with any other thing,[2] for if it were so reckoned, it is plain we must then allow it, with the addition of ever so small a good, to be more choiceworthy

[1] *I.e.*, the identification of Happiness with the Chief Good.

[2] *I.e.*, without the capability of addition.

than it was before;[1] because what is put to it becomes an addition of so much more good, and of goods the greater is ever the more choiceworthy.

So then Happiness is manifestly something final and self-sufficient, being the end of all things which are and may be done.

CHAPTER V.

HAPPINESS DEFINED. REPETITION OF CAUTIONS AS TO THE METHOD OF PROCEEDING.

BUT, it may be, to call Happiness the Chief Good is a mere truism, and what is wanted is some clearer account of its real nature. Now this object may be easily attained, when we have discovered what is the work of man; for as in the case of flute-player, statuary, or artisan of any kind, or, more generally, all who have any work or course of action, their Chief Good and Excellence is thought to reside in their work, so it would seem to be with man, if there is any work belonging to him.

Are we then to suppose, that while carpenter and cobbler have certain works and courses of action, Man as Man has none, but is left by Nature without a work? or would not one rather hold, that as eye, hand, and foot, and generally each of his members, has manifestly some special work; so too the whole Man, as distinct from all these, has some work of his own?[2]

[1] And then Happiness would at once be shown not to be the Chief Good. It is a contradiction in terms to speak of adding to the Chief Good.

[2] Compare Bishop Butler's account of "Human Nature as a System" in the Preface to his Sermons.

What then can this be? not mere life, because that plainly is shared with him even by vegetables, and we want what is peculiar to him. We must separate off then the life of mere nourishment and growth, and next will come the life of sensation: but this again manifestly is common to horses, oxen, and every animal. There remains then a kind of active life of the Rational Nature: and of this Nature there are two parts denominated Rational, the one as being obedient to Reason, the other as having and as exercising it. Again, as this other is also spoken of in two ways,[1] we must take that which is in the way of actual exercise, because this is thought to be most properly entitled to the name. If then the work of Man is an exercise of the soul in accordance with Reason, or at least not independently of Reason, and we say that the work of any given subject, and of that subject good of its kind, are the same in kind (as, for instance, of a harp-player and a good harp-player; and so on in every case, adding to the work eminence in the way of excellence; I mean, the work of a harp-player is to play the harp, and of a good harp-player to play it well); if, I say, this is so, and we assume the work of Man to be life of a certain kind, that is to say, an exercise of the soul and actions with reason, and of a good man to do these things well and nobly, and in fact everything is completed when done in the way of the excellence which peculiarly belongs to it: if all this is so, then the Good of Man comes to be an exercise of the Soul in the way of Excellence, or, if Excellence admits of degrees, in the way of the best and most perfect Excellence.

And we must add, under proper external conditions; for as it is not one swallow or one fine day that makes a spring,

[1] *I.e.*, as working or as quiescent.

so it is not one day or a short time that makes a man blessed and happy.

Let this then be taken for a rough sketch of the Chief Good; since it is probably the right way to give first the outline, and fill it in afterwards. And it would seem that any man may improve and connect what is good in the sketch, and that time is a good discoverer and co-operator in such matters; it is thus in fact that all improvements in the various arts have been brought about, for any man may fill up a deficiency.

You must remember also what has been already stated, and not seek for exactness in all matters alike, but in each according to the subject-matter, and so far as properly belongs to the system. The carpenter and geometrician, for instance, inquire into the straight line in different fashion: the former so far as he wants it for his work, the latter inquires into its nature and properties, because he is concerned with the truth.

So then should one do in other matters, that the incidental matters may not exceed the direct ones.

And again, you must not demand the reason either in all things alike; because in some it is sufficient that the fact has been clearly displayed, which is the case with first principles; for some fact is always the first step—*i.e.*, starting-point or principle.

And of these first principles some are obtained by induction, some by perception,[1] some by a course of moral training,[2] others in other different ways. And we must try

[1] Either that of the bodily senses, or that of the moral sense. "Fire burns," is an instance of the former; "Treason is odious," of the latter.

[2] Thus moral training will give us the principle assumed by Aristotle that the most excellent energy of the soul is a virtuous energy. He is partly led to this assumption by the fact that the terms Excellence and Virtue are denoted by the same Greek word, ἀρετή.—[ED.]

to trace up each in its own nature, and take pains to secure their being well defined, because they have great influence on what follows. It is thought, I mean, that the starting-point or principle is more than half the whole matter, and that many of the points of inquiry come simultaneously into view thereby.

CHAPTER VI.

THE DEFINITION OF HAPPINESS ALREADY ATTAINED TESTED, BY A COMPARISON WITH THE COMMONLY RECEIVED OPINIONS ON THE SUBJECT.

We must now inquire concerning Happiness, not only from our conclusion and the data on which our reasoning proceeds, but likewise from what is commonly said about it; because with what is true all things which really are are in harmony, but with that which is false the true very soon jars.

Now there is a common division of goods into three classes: one being called external, the other two those of the soul and body respectively, and those belonging to the soul are called most properly and specially good. Well, in our definition we assume that the actions and workings of the soul constitute Happiness, and these of course belong to the soul. And so our account is a good one, at least according to this opinion, which is of ancient date, and accepted by those who profess philosophy. Rightly too are certain actions and workings said to be an end in themselves, for thus they are brought into the number of the goods of the soul instead of the external. Agreeing also

with our definition is the common notion that the happy man lives well and does well, for Happiness has been stated by us to be pretty much a kind of living well and doing well.

And further, the points commonly required in Happiness are found in combination in our account of it.

For some think it is virtue, others practical wisdom, others a kind of scientific philosophy; others that it is these, or else some one of them, in combination with pleasure, or at least not independently of it; while others again take in external prosperity.

Of these opinions, some rest on the authority of numbers or antiquity, others on that of few, and those men of note; and it is not likely that either of these classes should be wrong in all points, but be right at least in some one, or even in most.

Now with those who assert it to be Virtue, or some kind of Virtue, our account agrees; for exercising our soul in the most excellent [virtuous] way surely belongs to Virtue.

And there is perhaps no unimportant difference between conceiving of the Chief Good as in possession or as in use; in other words, as a mere state or as an energy. For the state or habit may possibly exist in a subject without effecting any good, as, for instance, in him who is asleep, or in any other way inactive; but the energy cannot so, for it will of necessity act, and act well. And as at the Olympic games it is not the finest and strongest men who are crowned, but they who enter the lists, for among these are the conquerors; so too in life, of the honourable and the good, it is they who act who rightly win the prizes.

Their life too is in itself pleasant; for the feeling of pleasure is a sensation of the soul, and that is to each pleasant of which he is said to be fond: a horse, for

instance, to him who is fond of horses, and a sight to him who is fond of sights; and so in like manner just acts to him who is fond of justice, and more generally the things done in accordance with excellence to him who is fond of excellence. Now in the case of the multitude, the things which they individually esteem pleasant clash, because these things are not pleasant by nature, whereas to the lovers of nobleness[1] those things are pleasant which are such by nature; but the actions done in accordance with virtue are of this kind, so that they are pleasant both to the individuals and also in themselves.

So then their life has no need of pleasure as a kind of additional appendage, but involves pleasure in itself. For, besides what I have just mentioned, a man is not a good man at all who feels no pleasure in noble actions,[2] just as no man would call that man just who does not feel pleasure in acting justly, or liberal who does not in liberal actions, and similarly in the case of the other actions which might be enumerated; and if this be so, then actions done in accordance with virtue must be in themselves pleasurable. Then again they are certainly good and noble, and each of these in the highest degree; if we are to take as right the judgment of the good man, for he judges as we have said.

[1] Nobleness, τὸ καλόν. This word (which is connected etymologically with our "wholesome") is very hard to translate. It implied for the Greek everything that was high and generous in conduct or nobly beautiful in appearance.—[ED.]

[2] "Goodness always implies the love of itself, an affection to goodness" (Bp. Butler, Sermon xiii.). Aristotle describes pleasure in the 10th Book of this Treatise as the result of any faculty of perception meeting with the corresponding object, vicious pleasure being as truly pleasure as the most refined and exalted. If Goodness then implies the love of itself, the percipient will always have its object present, and pleasure continually result.

Thus then Happiness is best, noblest, and pleasantest, and these are not separated, as in the well-known Delian inscription—

> "Noblest is that which is most just, and Best is health,
> And Pleasantest is the obtaining one's desires."

For all these coexist in the best energies; and we say that Happiness is these, or one; that is, the best of them.

Still it is quite plain that it does require the addition of external goods,[1] as we have said, because without appliances it is impossible, or at all events not easy, to do noble actions; for friends, money, and political influence are in a manner instruments whereby many things are done. Some things there are again a deficiency in which mars blessedness; good birth, for instance, or fine offspring, or even personal beauty, for he is not altogether capable of Happiness who is very ugly, or is ill-born, or solitary and childless; and still less perhaps supposing him to have very bad children or friends, or to have lost good ones by death. As we have said already, the addition of prosperity of this kind does seem necessary to complete the idea of Happiness; hence some rank good fortune with Happiness, as others do virtue.

[1] In spite of theory, we know as a matter of fact that external circumstances are necessary to complete the idea of Happiness; not that Happiness is capable of addition, but that when we assert it to be identical with virtuous action, we must understand that it is to have a fair field; in fact, the other side of *βίος τέλειος*.

CHAPTER VII.

WHAT IS THE SOURCE OF HAPPINESS?

AND hence too a question is raised, whether it is a thing that can be learned, or acquired by habituation or discipline of some other kind, or whether it comes in the way of divine dispensation, or even in the way of chance.

Now to be sure, if anything else is a gift of the Gods to men, it is probable that Happiness is a gift of theirs too, and specially because of all human goods it is the highest. But this, it may be, is a question belonging more properly to an investigation different from ours;[1] and it is quite clear that on the supposition of its not being sent from the Gods direct, but coming to us by reason of virtue and learning and discipline of a certain kind, it is yet one of the most Godlike things, because the prize and End of virtue is manifestly somewhat most excellent, nay divine and blessed.

It will also on this supposition be widely participated, for it may through learning and diligence of a certain kind exist in all who have not been maimed[2] for virtue.

[1] It is remarkable how Aristotle here again shelves what he considers an unpractical question. If Happiness were really a direct gift from Heaven, independently of human conduct, all motive to self-discipline and moral improvement would vanish. He shows therefore that it is no depreciation of the value of Happiness to suppose it to come partly at least from ourselves, and he then goes on with other reasons why we should think with him.

[2] This term is important. What has been maimed was once perfect: he does not contemplate as possible the case of a man being born incapable of virtue, and so of happiness.

And if it is better we should be happy thus than as a result of chance, this is in itself an argument that the case is so, because those things which are in the way of nature, and in like manner of art, and every cause, and specially the best cause, are by nature in the best way possible. To leave then to chance what is greatest and most noble would be very much out of harmony with all these facts.

The question may be determined also by a reference to our definition of Happiness, which was that it is a certain exercise of the soul according to virtue. And of the other goods, some we must have to begin with, and those which are co-operative and useful are given by nature as instruments.[1]

These considerations will harmonise also with what we said at the commencement, for we assumed the End of Politics to be most excellent. Now this bestows most care on making the members of the community of a certain character; good that is and apt to do what is honourable.

With good reason then neither ox nor horse nor any other brute animal do we call happy, for none of them can partake in such activity; and for this same reason a child is not happy either, because by reason of his tender age he cannot yet perform such actions. If the term is applied, it is by way of anticipation.

For to constitute Happiness there must be, as we have said, complete virtue and fit external conditions; for many changes and chances of all kinds arise during a life, and he who is most prosperous may become involved in great misfortunes in his old age, as in the heroic poems the tale is told of Priam; but the man who has experienced such fortune and died in wretchedness no man calls happy.

[1] But why give materials and instruments if there is no work to do?

CHAPTER VIII.

THE REAL RELATION BETWEEN HAPPINESS AND FORTUNE. SOLON'S DICTUM TAKEN AS A TEXT.

ARE we then to call no man happy while he lives, and, as Solon would have us, look to the end? And again, if we are to maintain this position, *is* a man then happy when he is dead? Or is not this a complete absurdity, specially in us who say Happiness is a working of a certain kind.

If, on the other hand, we do not assert that the dead man is happy, and Solon does not mean this, but only that one would then be safe in pronouncing a man happy, as being thenceforward out of the reach of evils and misfortunes, this too admits of some dispute, since it is thought that the dead has somewhat both of good and evil (if, as we must allow, a man may have when alive but not aware of his troubles), as honour and dishonour, and good and bad fortune of children and descendants generally.

Nor is this view again without its difficulties: for after a man has lived in blessedness to old age and died. accordingly, many changes may befall him in right of his descendants, and some of them may be good and obtain positions in life accordant to their merits, others again quite the contrary. It is plain too that the descendants may at different intervals or grades stand in all manner of relations to the ancestors.[1] Absurd indeed would be the position, that the dead man is to change about with them and become at one time happy and at another miserable. Absurd, however, it is on the other hand, that the affairs of

[1] The supposed pair of ancestors.

the descendants should in no degree and during no time affect the ancestors.

But we must revert to the point first raised,[1] since the present question will be easily determined from that.

If then we are to look to the end and then pronounce the man blessed, not as being so, but as having been so at some previous time, surely it is absurd that when he *is* happy the truth is not to be asserted of him, because we are unwilling to pronounce the living happy by reason of their liability to changes, and because whereas we have conceived of happiness as something stable and no way easily changeable, the fact is that good and bad fortune are constantly circling about the same people; for it is quite plain that if we are to depend upon the fortunes of men, we shall often have to call the same man happy, and a little while after miserable, thus representing our happy man,

"Chameleon-like, and based on rottenness."

Is not this the solution? that to make our sentence dependent on the changes of fortune is no way right; for not in them stands the well, or the ill, but though human life needs these as accessories (which we have allowed already), the exercise of his faculties in the way of virtue is what determines Happiness, and the contrary the contrary.

[1] Solon says, "Call no man happy till he is dead."
He must mean
either, The man when dead *is* happy (*a*),
or, The man when dead *may be said to have been* happy (*b*).
If the former, does he mean positive happiness (α)?
or only freedom from unhappiness (β)?
We cannot allow (α),
Men's opinions disallow (β),
We revert now to the consideration of (*b*).

And, by the way, the question which has been here discussed, testifies incidentally to the truth of our account of Happiness.[1] For to none of human works does stability attach so much as it does to the exercises in the way of virtue, since these are held to be more abiding even than the sciences; and of these exercises the most precious are the most abiding, because the happy perform them most, and most continuously, which seems to be the reason why they are not forgotten. So then this stability which is sought will be in the happy man, and he will be such through life, since always, or most of all, he will be doing and contemplating the things which are in the way of virtue; and the various chances of life he will bear most nobly, and at all times and in all ways harmoniously, since he is the truly good man, and in the terms of our proverb "a faultless cube."

And whereas the incidents of chance are many, and differ in greatness and smallness, the small pieces of good or ill fortune evidently do not affect the balance of life, but the great and numerous, if happening for good, will make life more blessed (for it is their nature to contribute to ornament, and the using of them comes to be noble and excellent), but if for ill, they bruise as it were and maim the blessedness; for they bring in positive pain, and hinder many exercises of faculty. But still, even in these, nobleness shines through when a man bears contentedly many and great mischances, not from insensibility to pain, but because he is noble and high-spirited.

[1] The difficulty was raised by the clashing of a notion commonly held, and a fact universally experienced. Most people conceive that Happiness should be abiding, every one knows that fortune is changeable. It is the notion which supports the definition, because we have therein based Happiness on the most abiding cause.

And if, as we have said, the exercises of faculty are what determine the character of the life, no one of the happy can ever become wretched, because he will never do those things which are hateful and mean. For the man who is truly good and sensible bears all fortunes, we presume, becomingly, and always does what is noblest under the circumstances, just as a good general employs to the best advantage the force he has with him; or a good shoemaker makes the handsomest shoe he can out of the leather which has been given him; and all other good artisans likewise. And if this be so, wretched never can the happy man come to be: I do not mean to say he will be blessedly happy should he fall into fortunes like those of Priam.

Nor, in truth, is he shifting and easily changeable, for on the one hand, from his happiness he will not be shaken easily nor by ordinary mischances, but, if at all, by those which are great and numerous; and, on the other, after such mischances he cannot regain his happiness in a little time; but, if at all, in a long and complete period, during which he has made himself master of great and noble faculties.

Why then should we not call happy the man who works in the way of perfect virtue, and is furnished with external goods sufficient for acting his part in the drama of life;[1]

[1] The term seems to be employed advisedly. The Choragus, of course, dressed his actors *for their parts;* not according to their fancies or his own.

Hooker has (*E. P.*, v. lxxvi. 5) a passage which seems to be an admirable paraphrase on this :—

"Again, that the measure of our outward prosperity be taken by proportion with that which every man's estate in this present life requireth. External abilities are instruments of action. It contenteth wise artificers to have their instruments proportionable to their work, rather fit for use than huge and goodly to please the eye. Seeing then

and this during no ordinary period, but such as constitutes a well-conditioned life as we have been describing it.

Or must we add that not only is he to live so, but his death must be in keeping with such life, since the future is dark to us, and Happiness we assume to be in every way an end and complete. And, if this be so, we shall call them among the living happy who have and will have the things specified, but happy *as Men.*[1]

On these points then let it suffice to have defined this much.

CHAPTER IX.

ON THE RELATION OF THE DEAD TO THE LIVING.

Now that the fortunes of their descendants, and friends generally, contribute nothing towards forming the condition of the dead, is plainly a very heartless notion, and contrary to the current opinions.

But since things which befall are many, and differ in all kinds of ways, and some touch more nearly, others less, to go into minute particular distinctions would evidently be a long and endless task; and so it may suffice to speak generally in outline.

If then, as of the misfortunes which happen to one's self, some have a certain weight, and turn the balance of

the actions of a servant do not need that which may be necessary for men of calling and place in the world, neither men of inferior condition many things which greater personages can hardly want; surely they are blessed in worldly respects who have wherewith to perform what their station and place asketh, though they have no more."

[1] Always bearing in mind that man "never continueth in one stay."

life, while others are, so to speak, lighter; so it is likewise with those which befall all our friends alike; if further, whether they whom each suffering befalls be alive or dead makes much more difference than in a tragedy the presupposing or actual perpetration of the various horrors, we must take into our account this difference also; and still more perhaps the doubt concerning the dead, whether they really partake of any good or evil; it seems to result from all these considerations, that if anything does pierce the veil and reach them, be the same good or bad, it must be something trivial and small, either in itself or to them; or at least of such a magnitude or such a kind as neither to make happy them that are not so otherwise, nor to deprive of their blessedness them that are.[1]

It is plain then that the good or ill fortunes of their friends do affect the dead somewhat; but in such kind and degree as neither to make the happy unhappy, nor produce any other such effect.

CHAPTER X.

WHETHER HAPPINESS IS TO BE RECKONED AMONG THINGS PRAISEWORTHY OR PRECIOUS.

HAVING determined these points, let us examine with respect to Happiness, whether it belongs to the class of

[1] The meaning is this: personal fortunes, we have said, must be in certain weight and number to affect our own happiness; this will be true, of course, of those which are reflected on us from our friends; and these are the only ones to which the dead are supposed to be liable; add then the difference of sensibility which it is fair to presume, and there is a very small residuum of joy or sorrow.

things praiseworthy or things precious; for to that of mere faculties[1] it evidently does not.

Now it is plain that everything which is a subject of praise is praised for being of a certain kind, and bearing a certain relation to something else; for instance, the just and the valiant, and generally the good man, and virtue itself, we praise, because of the actions and the results; and the strong man and the quick runner, and so forth, we praise for being of a certain nature, and bearing a certain relation to something good and excellent (and this is illustrated by attempts to praise the gods, for they are presented in a ludicrous aspect[2] by being referred to our standard, and this results from the fact that all praise does, as we have said, imply reference to a standard). Now if it is to such objects that praise belongs, it is evident that what is applicable to the best objects is not praise, but something higher and better, which is plain matter of fact; for not only do we call the gods blessed and happy, but of men also we pronounce those blessed who most nearly resemble the gods. And in like manner in respect of goods; for no man thinks of praising Happiness as he does the principle of justice, but calls it blessed, as being somewhat more godlike and more excellent.

[1] This is meant for an exhaustive division of goods, which are either so *in esse* or *in posse*.

If *in esse*, they are either above praise or subjects of praise. Those *in posse*, here called faculties, are good only when rightly used. Thus Rhetoric is a faculty which may be used to promote justice or abused to support villainy. Money in like way.

[2] The doubt is, whether ἔπαινοι or θεοί is the subject of the sentence It is translated as above, not merely with reference to the sense of this passage, but on a comparison with a similar one in Book X., chap. viii., ἢ γελοῖοι φανοῦνται συναλλάττοντες, κ.τ.λ.

Eudoxus[1] too is thought to have advanced a sound argument in support of the claim of pleasure to the highest prize, for the fact that, though it is one of the good things, it is not praised, he took for an indication of its superiority to those which are subjects of praise—a superiority he attributed also to God and the Chief Good, on the ground that they form the standard to which we refer everything besides. For we apply praise to excellence, because it makes men apt to do what is noble, and encomia to definite works of body or mind.[2]

However, it is perhaps more suitable to a regular treatise on encomia to pursue this topic with exactness; it is enough for our purpose that from what has been said it is evident that Happiness belongs to the class of things precious and perfect. And it seems to be so also because of its being a principle, which it is, in that with a view to it we all do everything else that is done; and the principle and cause of good things we assume to be something good and precious.

CHAPTER XI.

AN ANALYSIS OF THE SOUL OF MAN, AND A DIVISION OF EXCELLENCE ACCORDINGLY.

MOREOVER, since Happiness is a kind of exercise of the soul in the way of perfect Excellence, we must inquire con-

[1] Eudoxus, a philosopher holding the doctrine afterwards adopted by Epicurus respecting pleasure, but (as Aristotle testifies in the 10th Book) of irreproachable character.

[2] See the *Rhetoric*, Book I., chap. ix., where the same distinction is given—praise being referred to powers or qualities, encomia to actual achievements.—[ED.]

cerning Excellence, for so probably shall we have a clearer view concerning Happiness; and again, he who is really a Politician is generally thought to have spent most pains on this, for he wishes to make the citizens good and obedient to the laws (and for examples of this class we have the law-givers of the Cretans and Lacedæmonians, and whatever such there have been). But if this investigation belongs properly to Politics, then clearly the inquiry will be in accordance with our original design.

Well, we are to inquire concerning Excellence—*i.e.*, Human Excellence of course, because it was the Chief Good of Man, and the Happiness of Man that we were inquiring of just now.

And by Human Excellence we mean, not that of man's body, but that of his soul; for we call Happiness an exercise of the Soul.

And if this is so, it is plain that some knowledge of the nature of the Soul is necessary for the Politician, just as for the oculist a knowledge of the whole body, and the more so in proportion as Politics is more precious and higher than the healing art, and in fact physicians of the higher class do busy themselves much with the knowledge of the (whole) body.

So then the Politician is to consider the nature of the Soul;[1] but he must do so with these objects in view, and so

[1] The same word in Greek denotes both Life and Soul. He divides this internal principle into (1) the purely physical life, (2) the semi-rational, or appetitive, (3) the purely rational. In the second division, where Reason and Desire clash, is the sphere of Moral Virtue; in the third, that of Intellectual Virtue, which in its highest form is Contemplation. "This division," says Sir A. Grant, "regulates the methodical arrangement of the Ethics. Also, it may be said to have regulated almost all subsequent human thought on moral subjects." (*Ethics of Aristotle*, note *in loco.*)—[ED.]

far only as may suffice for the objects of his special inquiry: for to carry his speculations to a greater exactness is perhaps a task more laborious than falls within his province.

In fact, the few statements made on the subject in my popular treatises are quite enough, and accordingly we will adopt them here: as, that the Soul consists of two parts, the Irrational and the Rational (but as to whether these are actually divided, as are the parts of the body, and every thing that is capable of division; or are only metaphysically speaking two, being by nature inseparable, as are the convex and concave circumferences, matters not in respect of our present purpose). And of the Irrational, the one part seems common to other objects, and in fact vegetative; I mean the cause of nourishment and growth (for such a faculty of the Soul one would assume to exist in all things that receive nourishment, as in embryos, and this the same as in the perfect creatures; for this is more likely than that it should be a different one).

Now the Excellence of this manifestly is not peculiar to the human species, but common to others (for this part and this faculty is thought to work most in time of sleep,[1] and the good and bad man are least distinguishable while asleep; whence it is a common saying, that during one half of life there is no difference between the happy and the wretched; and this accords with our anticipations, for sleep is an inactivity of the soul, in so far as it is denominated good or bad, unless if in anywise some of its movements find their way through the veil, and so the good come to have better dreams than ordinary men. But enough of this: we must forego any further mention of the nutritive

[1] Thus it was thought that creatures grew most during sleep. See Arist. *De Somno*, i. 15.—[ED.]

part, since it is not naturally capable of the Excellence which is peculiarly human).

And there seems to be another Irrational Nature of the Soul, which yet in a way partakes of Reason. For in the man who controls his appetites, and him who resolves to do so and fails, we praise the Reason or Rational part of the Soul, because it exhorts aright and to the best course: but clearly there is in them, beside the Reason, some other natural principle which fights with and strains against the Reason. (For, in plain terms, just as paralysed limbs of the body, when their owners would move them to the right are borne aside in a contrary direction to the left, so it is in the case of the Soul, for the impulses of men who cannot control their appetites are to contrary points: the difference is, that in the case of the body we do see what is borne aside, but in the case of the soul we do not. But, it may be, not the less[1] on that account are we to suppose that there is in the Soul also somewhat besides the Reason, which is opposed to this and goes against it; as to *how* it is different, that is irrelevant.)

But of Reason this too does evidently partake, as we have said: for instance, in the man of self-control it obeys Reason; and perhaps in the man of perfected self-mastery,[2]

[1] The unseen is at least as real as the seen.

[2] The terms are borrowed from the 7th Book, and are here used in their strict philosophical meaning. The *ἐγκρατὴς* is he who has bad or unruly appetites, but whose reason is strong enough to keep them under. The *ἀκρατὴς* is he whose appetites constantly prevail over his reason and previous good resolutions.

By the law of habits the former is constantly approximating to a state in which the appetites are wholly quelled. This state is called *σωφροσύνη* (Temperance), and the man in it *σώφρων*. By the same law, the remonstrances of reason in the latter grow fainter and fainter till

or the brave man, it is yet more obedient, for in them it agrees entirely with the Reason.

So then the Irrational is plainly twofold: for the one part, the merely vegetative, has no share of Reason, but that of desire, or appetition generally, does partake of it in a sense, in so far as it is obedient to it and capable of submitting to its rule. So too in common phrase we say we "hear reason" from our father or friends, and this in a different sense from that in which we hear the demonstrations (*lit.* "reason") of mathematics.

Now that the Irrational is in some way persuaded by the Reason, admonition, and every act of rebuke and exhortation indicate. If then we are to say that this also has Reason, then the Rational, as well as the Irrational, will be twofold, the one supremely and in itself, the other paying it a kind of filial regard.

The Excellence of Man then is divided in accordance with this difference: for we make two classes, calling the one Intellectual, and the other Moral; pure science, intelligence, and practical wisdom—Intellectual: liberality, and perfected self-mastery—Moral: for in speaking of a man's Moral character, we do not say he is a scientific or intelligent, but a gentle man, or one of perfected self-mastery; and we praise the man of science in right of his intellectual state;[1] and of these states such as are praiseworthy we call Excellences.

they are silenced for ever. This state is called ἀκολασία (Dissoluteness), and the man in it ἀκόλαστος.

[1] ἕξιν (disposition) may be taken as opposed to ἐνέργειαν (energy, exercise), and the meaning will be, to show a difference between Moral and Intellectual Excellences, that men are commended for merely having the latter, but only for exerting and using the former.

BOOK II.

CHAPTER I.

THAT MORAL VIRTUE IS PRODUCED BY A SUCCESSION OF RIGHT ACTIONS.

WELL, human Excellence is of two kinds, Intellectual and Moral.[1] Now the Intellectual springs originally, and is increased subsequently from teaching (for the most part, that is[2]), and needs therefore experience and time; whereas the Moral comes from custom, and so the Greek term denoting it is but a slight deflection from the term denoting custom in that language (ethics).

From this fact it is plain that not one of the Moral Virtues comes to be in us merely by nature; because of such things as exist by nature, none can be changed by custom: a stone, for instance, by nature gravitating downwards, could never by custom be brought to ascend, not even if one were to try and accustom it by throwing it up ten thousand times; nor could fire again be brought to descend, nor in fact could anything, whose nature is in one way, be brought by custom to be in another. The Virtues then come to be in us neither by nature nor in despite of

[1] Which we call simply virtue.

[2] For nature must of course supply the capacity.

nature,[1] but we are furnished by nature with a capacity for receiving them, and are perfected in them through custom.

Again, in whatever cases we get things by nature, we get the faculties first, and perform the exercises afterwards; an illustration of which is afforded by the case of our bodily senses, for it was not from having often seen or heard that we got these senses, but just the reverse: we had them and so exercised them, but did not have them because we had exercised them. But the Virtues we get by first performing single acts, which again is the case of other things, as the arts, for instance; for what we have to do when we have learned how, these we learn how to do by doing. Men come to be builders, for instance, by building; harp-players, by playing on the harp: exactly so, by doing just actions, we come to be just; by doing the actions of self-mastery, we come to be perfected in self-mastery; and by doing brave actions, brave.

And to the truth of this testimony is borne by what takes place in communities; because the law-givers make the individual members good men by habituation, and this is the intention certainly of every law-giver, and all who do it not well fail of their intent; and herein consists the difference between a good Constitution and a bad.

Again, every Virtue is either produced or destroyed from and by the very same circumstances; art too in like manner. I mean it is by playing the harp that both the good and the bad harp-players are formed: and similarly builders and all the rest, for by building well men will become good builders; by doing it badly, bad ones. In fact, if this had not been so, there would have been no need of instructors, but all men would have been at once good or bad in their several arts without them.

[1] Or "as a simple result of nature."

So too then is it with the Virtues; for by acting in the various relations in which we are thrown with our fellow-men, we come to be, some just, some unjust; and by acting in dangerous positions and being habituated to feel fear or confidence, we come to be, some brave, others cowards.

Similarly is it also with respect to the occasions of lust and anger; for some men come to be perfected in self-mastery and mild, others destitute of all self-control and passionate; the one class by behaving in one way under them, the other by behaving in another. Or, in one word, the habits are produced from the exercises like to them: and so what we have to do is to give a certain character to these particular acts, because the habits formed correspond to the differences of these.

So, then, whether we are accustomed this way or that straight from childhood makes not a small but an important difference, or rather I would say it makes all the difference.

CHAPTER II.

THE STANDARD AND RULE OF RIGHT ACTION. HOW THE PERFECT FORMATION OF HABITS MAY BE TESTED. VIRTUE IS SHOWN TO HAVE PLEASURE AND PAIN FOR ITS OBJECT-MATTER.

SINCE, then, the object of the present treatise is not mere speculation, as it is of some others (for we are inquiring not merely that we may know what virtue is, but that we may become virtuous, else it would be useless), we must consider as to the particular actions how we are to do them,

because, as we have just said, the character of the habits that shall be formed depends on these.

Now that we are to act in accordance with Right Reason is a general maxim, and may for the present be taken for granted: we will speak of it hereafter, and say both what Right Reason is, and what are its relations to the other virtues.[1]

But let this point be first thoroughly understood between us, that all which can be said on moral action must be said in outline, as it were, and not exactly; for, as we remarked at the commencement, such reasoning only must be required as the nature of the subject-matter admits of, and matters of moral action and expediency have no fixedness any more than matters of health. And if the subject in its general maxims is such, still less in its application to particular cases is exactness attainable;[2] because these fall not under any art or system of rules, but it must be left in each instance to the individual agents to look to the exigencies of the particular case, as it is in the art of healing, or that of navigating a ship. Still, though the present subject is confessedly such, we must try and do what we can for it.

First, then, this must be noted—that it is the nature of such things to be spoiled by defect and excess; as we see in the case of health and strength (since for the illustration of things which cannot be seen we must use those that can), for excessive training impairs the strength as well as deficient: meat and drink, in like manner, in too great or too small quantities, impair the health; while in due proportion they cause, increase, and preserve it.

[1] This is done in the Sixth Book.

[2] It is, in truth, in the application of rules to particular details of practice that our moral Responsibility chiefly lies: no rule can be so framed that evasion shall be impossible. See Bishop Butler's Sermon on the character of Balaam, and that on Self-Deceit.

Thus it is therefore with the habits of perfected Self-Mastery and Courage, and the rest of the Virtues; for the man who flies from and fears all things, and never stands up against anything, comes to be a coward; and he who fears nothing, but goes at everything, comes to be rash. In like manner too, he that tastes of every pleasure and abstains from none comes to lose all self-control; while he who avoids all, as do the dull and clownish, comes as it were to lose his faculties of sensibility: that is to say, the habits of perfected Self-Mastery and Courage are spoiled by the excess and defect, but by the mean state are preserved.

Furthermore, not only do the origination, growth, and marring of the habits come from and by the same circumstances, but also the acts of exercise after the habits are formed will be exercised on the same; for so it is also with those other things which are more directly matters of sight, strength, for instance: for this comes by taking plenty of food and doing plenty of work, and the man who has attained strength is best able to do these. And so it is with the Virtues, for not only do we by abstaining from pleasures come to be perfected in Self-Mastery, but when we have come to be so, we can best abstain from them. Similarly too with Courage, for it is by accustoming ourselves to despise objects of fear, and stand up against them, that we come to be brave; and after we have come to be so, we shall be best able to stand up against such objects.

And for a test of the matured formation of the habits, we must take the pleasure which succeeds the acts; for he is perfected in Self-Mastery who not only abstains from the bodily pleasures, but is glad to do so; whereas he who abstains, but is sorry to do it, has not Self-Mastery. He again is brave who stands up against danger, either with

positive pleasure, or at least without any pain; whereas he who does it with pain is not brave.

For Moral Virtue has for its object-matter pleasures and pains, because by reason of pleasure we do what is bad, and by reason of pain decline doing what is right (for which cause, as Plato observes, men should have been trained straight from their childhood to receive pleasure and pain from proper objects, for this is the right education). Again, if Virtues have to do with actions and feelings, and on every feeling and every action pleasure and pain follow, here again is another proof that Virtue has for its object-matter pleasure and pain. The same is shown also by the fact that correction is effected through the instrumentality of these, because they are of the nature of remedies, and it is the nature of remedies to be the contraries of the ills they cure. Again, to quote what we said before, every habit of the Soul by its very nature has relation to and exerts itself upon things of the same kind as those by which it is naturally deteriorated or improved. Now such habits do come to be vicious by reason of pleasures and pains, that is, by men pursuing or avoiding respectively, either such as they ought not, or at wrong times or in wrong manner, and so forth (for which reason, by the way, some people define the Virtues as certain states of impassibility and utter quietude;[1] but they are wrong because they speak without modification, instead of adding "as they ought,"

[1] Virtue consists in the due regulation of *all* the parts of our nature: our passions are a real part of that nature, and as such have their proper office; it is an error then to aim at their extirpation. It is true that in a perfect moral state emotion will be rare, but then this will have been gained by regular process, being the legitimate result of the law that "passive impressions weaken as active habits are strengthened, by repetition." If musical instruments are making discord, I may silence or I may bring them into harmony. In either case I get rid of

"as they ought not," and "when," and so on). Now Virtue is supposed to be that habit which is such, in relation to pleasures and pains, as to effect the best results, and Vice the contrary.

The following considerations may also serve to set this in a clear light. There are principally three things moving us to choice and three to avoidance, the beautiful or noble (καλόν), the expedient, the pleasant; and their three contraries, the ugly or base, the hurtful, and the painful. Now the good man is apt to go right, and the bad man wrong, with respect to all these of course, but most specially with respect to pleasure, because not only is this common to him with all animals, but also it is a concomitant of all those things which move to choice, since both the beautiful or noble and the expedient give an impression of pleasure.

Again, it grows up with us all from infancy, and so it is a hard matter to remove from ourselves this feeling, engrained as it is into our very life.

Again, we adopt pleasure and pain (some of us more and some less) as the measure even of actions. For this cause then our whole business must be with them, since to receive right or wrong impressions of pleasure and pain is a thing of no little importance in respect of the actions. Once more, it is harder, as Heraclitus says, to fight against pleasure than against anger. Now it is about that which is

discord, but in the latter I have the positive enjoyment of music. The Stoics would have passions rooted out; Aristotle would have them cultivated. To use an apt figure (whose I know not), They would pluck the blossom off at once; he would leave it to fall in due course when the fruit was formed. Of them we might truly say, *Solitudinem faciunt, pacem appellant.* See on this point Bp. Butler's fifth Sermon, and sec. ii. of the chapter on Moral Discipline in the first part of his *Analogy*.

more than commonly difficult that art comes into being, and virtue too, because in that which is difficult the good is of a higher order; and so for this reason too both virtue and moral philosophy generally must wholly busy themselves respecting pleasures and pains, because he that uses these well will be good; he that does so ill will be a bad man.

Let us then be understood to have stated that Virtue has for its object-matter pleasures and pains, and that it is either increased or marred by the same circumstances (differently used) by which it is originally generated, and that it exerts itself on the same circumstances out of which it was generated.

CHAPTER III.

AN OBJECTION TO THE FOREGOING ACCOUNT OF THE FORMATION OF MORAL VIRTUE, WITH ITS ANSWER.

Now I can conceive a person perplexed as to the meaning of our statement, that men must do just actions to become just, and those of self-mastery to acquire the habit of self-mastery; "for," he would say, "if men are doing the actions, they have the respective virtues already, just as men are grammarians or musicians when they do the actions of either art." May we not reply by saying that it is not so even in the case of the arts referred to, because a man may produce something grammatical either by chance or the suggestion of another; but then only will he be a grammarian when he not only produces something grammatical, but does so grammarian-wise—*i.e.*, in virtue of the grammatical knowledge he himself possesses.

Again, the cases of the arts and the virtues are not

parallel, because those things which are produced by the arts have their excellence in themselves, and it is sufficient therefore that these, when produced, should be in a certain state; but those which are produced in the way of the virtues are, strictly speaking, actions of a certain kind (say of Justice or perfected Self-Mastery), not merely if in themselves they are in a certain state, but if also he who does them does them being himself in a certain state, first if knowingly, next if with deliberate preference, and with such preference for the things' own sake; and thirdly, if being himself stable and unapt to change. Now to constitute possession of the arts these requisites are not reckoned in, excepting the one point of knowledge: whereas for possession of the virtues knowledge avails little or nothing, but the other requisites avail not a little, but in fact are all in all, and these requisites, as a matter of fact, do come from oftentimes doing the actions of Justice and perfected Self-Mastery.

The facts,[1] it is true, are called by the names of these habits when they are such as the just or perfectly self-mastering man would do: but he is not in possession of the virtues who merely does these facts, but he who also so does them as the just and self-mastering do them.

[1] I have adopted this word from our old writers, because our word *act* is so commonly interchanged with *action*. Πράξις (action) properly denotes the whole process from the conception to the performance. Πράγμα (fact) only the result. The latter may be right when the former is wrong; if, for example, a murderer were killed by his accomplices. Again, the πράξις may be *good* though the πράγμα be wrong, as if a man under erroneous impressions does what would have been right if his impressions had been true (subject of course to the question how far he is guiltless of his original error), but in this case we could not call the πράξις *right*. No repetition of πράγματα goes to form a habit. See Bp. Butler on the Theory of Habits in the Chapter on Moral Discipline, quoted above, sec. ii. "And in like manner as habits belonging to the body," etc.

We are right then in saying that these virtues are formed in a man by his doing the actions; but no one, if he should leave them undone, would be even in the way to become a good man. Yet people in general do not perform these actions, but taking refuge in talk, they flatter themselves they are philosophising, and that they will so be good men; acting in truth very like those sick people who listen to the doctor with great attention, but do nothing that he tells them; just as these then cannot be well bodily under such a course of treatment, so neither can those be mentally by such philosophising.

CHAPTER IV.

WHAT IS THE GENUS OF VIRTUE.

NEXT, we must examine what Virtue is.[1] Well, since the things which come to be in the mind are, in all, of these kinds, Emotions, Faculties, Dispositions, Virtue of course must belong to one of the three classes.

By Emotions, I mean such as lust, anger, fear, confidence, envy, joy, friendship, hatred, longing, emulation, compassion—in short, all such as are followed by pleasure or pain: by Faculties, those in right of which we are said to be capable of these feelings; as by virtue of which we are able to have been made angry, or grieved, or to have compassionated: by Dispositions, those in right of which we are in a certain relation good or bad to the aforementioned feelings; as to having been made angry, for instance, we are in a wrong relation if in our anger we

[1] Being about to give a strict logical definition of Virtue, Aristotle ascertains first what is its genus τί ἐστιν.

were too violent or too slack, but if we were in the happy medium, we are in a right relation to the feeling. And so on of the rest.

Now Emotions neither the virtues nor vices are, because in right of the Emotions we are not denominated either good or bad, but in right of the virtues and vices we are.

Again, in right of the Emotions we are neither praised nor blamed[1] (for a man is not commended for being afraid or being angry, nor blamed for being angry merely, but for being so in a particular way), but in right of the virtues and vices we are.

Again, both anger and fear we feel without choice, whereas the virtues are acts of choice, or at least certainly not independent of it.

Moreover, in right of the Emotions we are said to be moved, but in right of the virtues and vices not to be moved, but disposed, in a certain way.

And for these same reasons, they are not Faculties, for we are not called good or bad merely because we are able to feel, nor are we praised or blamed.

And again, Faculties we have by nature, but we do not come to be good or bad by nature, as we have said before.

Since then the virtues are neither Feelings nor Capacities, it remains that they must be Dispositions.

[1] That is, not for *merely having* them, because we did not make ourselves.

See Bp. Butler's account of our nature as containing "particular propensions," in sec. iv. of the chapter on Moral Discipline, and in the Preface to the Sermons.

CHAPTER V.

WHAT IS THE DIFFERENTIA OF VIRTUE.

Now what the genus of Virtue is has been said; but we must not merely speak of it thus, that it is a disposition, but say also what kind of a disposition it is.

We must observe, then, that all excellence makes that whereof it is the excellence, both to be itself in a good state, and to perform its work well. The excellence of the eye, for instance, makes both the eye good, and its work also; for by the excellence of the eye we see well. So too the excellence of the horse makes a horse good, and good in speed, and in carrying his rider, and standing up against the enemy. If then this is universally the case, the excellence of Man—*i.e.* Virtue—must be a state whereby Man comes to be good, and whereby he will perform well his proper work. Now how this shall be it is true we have said already, but still perhaps it may throw light on the subject to see what is its characteristic nature.

In all quantity, then, whether continuous or discrete,[1] one may take the greater part, the less, or the exactly equal, and these either with reference to the thing itself, or relatively to us; and the exactly equal is a mean between excess and defect. Now by the mean of the thing—*i.e.*, absolute mean—I denote that which is equidistant from

[1] This refers to the division of quantity (*πόσον*) in the Categories. Those Quantities are called by Aristotle continuous, whose parts have position relatively to one another, as a line, surface, or solid; those discrete, whose parts have no such relation, as numbers themselves, or any string of words grammatically unconnected.

either extreme (which of course is one and the same to all); and by the mean relatively to ourselves, that which is neither too much nor too little for the particular individual. This of course is not one nor the same to all; for instance, suppose ten is too much and two too little, people take six for the absolute mean, because it exceeds the smaller sum by exactly as much as it is itself exceeded by the larger, and this mean is according to arithmetical proportion.[1]

But the mean relatively to ourselves must not be so found, for it does not follow, supposing ten minæ[2] is too large a quantity to eat and two too small, that the trainer will order his man six; because for the person who is to take it this also may be too much or too little; for Milo it would be too little, but for a man just commencing his athletic exercises too much; similarly too of the exercises themselves, as running or wrestling.

So then it seems every one possessed of skill avoids excess and defect, but seeks for and chooses the mean, not the absolute, but the relative.

Now if all skill thus accomplishes well its work, by keeping an eye on the mean and bringing the works to this point (whence it is common enough to say of such works as are in a good state, "one cannot add to or take aught from them," under the notion of excess or defect destroying goodness, but the mean state preserving it), and good artisans as we say work with their eye on this, and

[1] Numbers are in arithmetical proportion (more usually called progression) when they increase or decrease by a common difference—thus, 2. 6. 10. are so, because $2+4=6$. $6+4=10$, or *vice versâ*, $10-4=6$. $6-4=2$.

[2] If the mina be taken at 15 oz. avoirdupois (*Dict. of G. and R. Antiquities*, article "Talentum"), we must be sadly degenerate in our gastric capacity.

excellence, like nature, is more exact and better than any art in the world, it must have an aptitude to aim at the mean.

It is moral excellence—*i.e.* Virtue—of course which I mean, because this it is which is concerned with emotions and actions, and in these there can be excess and defect, and the mean. It is possible, for instance, to feel the emotions of fear, confidence, lust, anger, compassion, and pleasure and pain generally, too much or too little, and in either case wrongly; but to feel them when we ought, on what occasions, towards whom, why and as we should do, is the mean, or in other words the best state, and this is the property of Virtue.

In like manner too with respect to the actions, there may be excess and defect, and the mean. Now Virtue is concerned with emotions and actions, in which the excess is wrong and the defect is blamed, but the mean is praised and goes right; and both these circumstances belong to Virtue. Virtue then is in a sense a mean state, since it certainly has an aptitude for aiming at the mean.

Again, one may go wrong in many different ways (because, as the Pythagoreans expressed it, evil is of the class of the infinite, good of the finite), but right only in one; and so the former is easy, the latter difficult; easy to miss the mark, but hard to hit it: and for these reasons, therefore, both the excess and defect belong to Vice, and the mean state to Virtue; for, as a poet has it,

> "Men may be bad in many ways,
> But good in one alone."

CHAPTER VI.

NOTES ON THE DEFINITION OF VIRTUE THUS OBTAINED.

VIRTUE then is "disposition involving deliberate purpose,[1] choice, being in the relative mean, determined by reason, and[2] as the man of practical wisdom would determine."

It is a middle state between two faulty ones, in the way of excess on one side, and defect on the other; and it is so, moreover, because the faulty states on one side fall short of, and those on the other exceed, what is right, both in the case of the emotions and the actions; but Virtue finds, and when found adopts, the mean.

And so viewing it in respect of its essence and definition, Virtue is a mean state; but in reference to what is best and right, it is the highest state possible.

But it must not be supposed that every action or every feeling is capable of subsisting in this mean state, because some there are which are so named as immediately to convey the notion of badness, as malevolence, shamelessness, envy; or, to instance in actions, adultery, theft, murder; for all these and such like are blamed, because they are in themselves bad, and not the having too much or too little of them.

In these then you never can go right, but must always be wrong; nor in such does the right or wrong depend

[1] We might perhaps translate "a disposition of the Will" (ἕξις προαιρετική).—[ED.]

[2] The two are necessary, because since the reason itself may be perverted, a man must have recourse to an external standard: we may suppose his λόγος originally to have been a sufficient guide, but when he has injured his moral perceptions in any degree, he must go out of himself for directions.

on the selection of a proper person, time, or manner (take adultery, for instance), but simply doing any one soever of those things is being wrong.

You might as well require that there should be determined a mean state, an excess, and a defect in respect of acting unjustly, being cowardly, or giving up all control of the passions; for at this rate there will be of excess and defect a mean state; and excess in excess; and defect in defect.

But just as of perfected self-mastery and courage there is no excess and defect, because the mean is in one point of view the highest possible state, so neither of those faulty states can you have a mean state, excess, or defect, but howsoever done they are wrong; for you cannot, in short, have of excess and defect a mean state, nor of a mean state excess and defect.

CHAPTER VII.

THE APPLICATION OF THIS DEFINITION TO PARTICULAR INSTANCES.

IT is not enough, however, to state this in general terms; we must also apply it to particular instances, because in treatises on moral conduct general statements have an air of vagueness, but those which go into detail, of greater reality; for the actions after all must be in detail, and the general statements, to be worth anything, must hold good here.

We must take these details then from the well-known scheme.[1]

[1] This is one of the many expressions which seem to imply that this treatise is rather a collection of notes of a *vivâ voce* lecture than a set formal treatise. "The table" of virtues and vices probably was sketched out and exhibited to the audience.

I. In respect of fears and confidence or boldness:

The mean state is Courage: men may exceed, of course, either in absence of fear or in positive confidence. The former has no name (which is a common case), the latter is called rash. Again, the man who has too much fear and too little confidence is called a coward.

II. In respect of pleasures and pains (but not all, and perhaps fewer pains than pleasures):

The mean state here is perfected Self-Mastery, the defect total absence of Self-Control. As for defect in respect of pleasure, there are really no people who are chargeable with it, so of course there is really no name for such characters, but as they are conceivable we will give them one, and call them insensible.

III. In respect of giving and taking wealth[1] (*a*):

The mean state is Liberality, the excess Prodigality, the defect Stinginess: here each of the extremes involves really an excess and defect contrary to those of the others. I mean the prodigal gives out too much and takes in too little, while the stingy man takes in too much and gives out too little. (It must be understood that we are now giving merely an outline and summary, intentionally; and we will, in a later part of the treatise, draw out the distinctions with greater exactness.)

IV. In respect of wealth (*b*):

There are other dispositions besides these just mentioned. A mean state called Magnificence (for the magnificent man differs from the liberal, the former having necessarily to do with great wealth, the latter with but small); the excess called by the names either of Want of Taste, or Vulgar Profusion, and the defect Paltriness (these also differ from

[1] Afterwards defined as

"All things whose value is measured by money."

the extremes connected with liberality, and the manner of their difference shall also be spoken of later).

V. In respect of honour and dishonour (*a*):

The mean state Greatness of Soul, the excess which may be called Pompousness, and the defect Littleness of Soul.

VI. In respect of honour and dishonour (*b*):

Now there is a state bearing the same relation to Greatness of Soul as we said just now Liberality does to Magnificence, with the difference that is of being about a small amount of the same thing; this state having reference to small honour, as Greatness of Soul to great honour; a man may of course grasp at honour either more than he should or less; now he that exceeds in his grasping at it is called ambitious, he that falls short unambitious, he that is just as he should be has no proper name: nor in fact have the states, except that the disposition of the ambitious man is called ambition. For this reason those who are in either extreme lay claim to the mean as a debatable land, and we call the virtuous character sometimes by the name ambitious,[1] sometimes by that of unambitious, and we commend sometimes the one and sometimes the other. Why we do it shall be said in the subsequent part of the treatise; but now we will go on with the rest of the virtues after the plan we have laid down.

VII. In respect of anger:

Here too there is excess, defect, and a mean state; but since they may be said to have really no proper names, as we call the mean character Gentle, we will call the mean state Gentleness, and of the extremes, let the man who is excessive be denominated Passionate, and the faulty state

[1] In like manner *we* talk of laudable ambition, implying of course there may be that which is not laudable.

Passionateness, and him who is deficient Angerless, and the defect Angerlessness.

There are also three other mean states, having some mutual resemblance, but still with differences: they are alike in that they all have for their object-matter intercourse by words and deeds, and they differ in that one has respect to truth herein, the other two to what is pleasant; and this in two ways, the one in relaxation and amusement, the other in all things which occur in daily life. We must say a word or two about these also, that we may the better see that in all matters the mean is praiseworthy, while the extremes are neither right nor worthy of praise but of blame.

Now of these, it is true, the majority have really no proper names; but still we must try, as in the other cases, to coin some for them for the sake of clearness and intelligibleness.

I. In respect of truth:

The man who is in the mean state we will call Truthful, and his state Truthfulness; and as to the disguise of truth, if it be on the side of exaggeration, Braggadocia, and him that has it a Braggadocio; if on that of diminution, Dissimulation[1] and Dissembler shall be the terms.

II. In respect of what is pleasant in the way of relaxation or amusement:

The mean state shall be called Liveliness or Jocularity, and the character accordingly a Lively or Jocular man; the excess Buffoonery, and the man a Buffoon; the man deficient herein a Clown, and his state Clownishness.

III. In respect of what is pleasant in daily life:

He that is as he should be may be called Friendly, and his mean state Friendliness: he that exceeds, if it be without

[1] *Lit.*, irony.

any interested motive, somewhat too Complaisant, if with such motive, a Flatterer: he that is deficient, and in all instances unpleasant, Quarrelsome and Cross.

There are mean states likewise in mere emotions and matters concerning them. Modesty, for instance, is no virtue, still a man is praised for being modest: for in these too one is denominated the man in the mean state, another in the excess; the Dumbfoundered, for instance, who is overwhelmed with shame on all and any occasions: the man who is in the defect—*i.e.*, who has no shame at all in his composition—is called Shameless: but the right character Modest.[1]

Indignation against successful vice,[2] again, is a state in the mean between Envy and Malevolence: they all three have respect to pleasure and pain produced by what happens to one's neighbour: for the man who has this right feeling is annoyed at undeserved success of others, while the envious man goes beyond him and is annoyed at all success of others, and the malevolent falls so far short of feeling annoyance, that he even rejoices [at misfortune of others].

But for the discussion of these also there will be another opportunity, as of Justice too, because the term is used in more senses than one. So after this we will go accurately into each and say how they are mean states: and in like manner also with respect to the Intellectual Virtues.

[1] Modesty (or Reverence, or Shame) and Righteous Indignation (or the Sense of Justice) were two qualities held in the highest possible esteem by the Greeks. Aristotle does not reckon them as Virtues, because they are purely emotional, in his opinion, while Virtue is essentially a disposition of the Will. See Book IV., chap. xi.—[ED.]

[2] An expression of Bp. Butler's, which corresponds exactly to the definition of *νέμεσις* in the Rhetoric.

CHAPTER VIII.

OF THE VARIOUS DEGREES OF OPPOSITION BETWEEN THE FAULTY AND THE RIGHT STATES IN EACH VIRTUE.

Now as there are three dispositions in each case, two faulty either in the way of excess or defect, and one right, which is the mean state, of course all are in a way opposed to one another; the extremes, for instance, not only to the mean, but also to one another, and the mean to the extremes: for just as the half is greater if compared with the less portion, and less if compared with the greater, so the mean states, compared with the defects, exceed, whether in feelings or actions, and *vice versâ*. The brave man, for instance, shows as rash when compared with the coward, and cowardly when compared with the rash; similarly too the man of perfected self-mastery, viewed in comparison with the man destitute of all perception, shows like a man of no self-control, but in comparison with the man who really has no self-control, he looks like one destitute of all perception: and the liberal man compared with the stingy seems prodigal, and by the side of the prodigal, stingy.

And so the extreme characters push away, so to speak, towards each other the man in the mean state; the brave man is called a rash man by the coward, and a coward by the rash man, and in the other cases accordingly. And there being this mutual opposition, the opposition between the extremes is greater than between either and the mean, because they are further from one another than from the mean, just as the greater or less portion differ more from each other than either from the exact half.

Again, in some cases an extreme will bear a resemblance to the mean—rashness, for instance, to courage, and prodigality to liberality; but between the extremes there is the greatest dissimilarity. Now things which are furthest from one another are defined to be contrary, and so the further off the more contrary will they be.[1]

Further, of the extremes in some cases the excess, and in others the defect, is most opposed to the mean; to courage, for instance, not rashness, which is the excess, but cowardice, which is the defect; whereas to be perfected self-mastery, not insensibility, which is the defect, but absence of all self-control, which is the excess.

And for this there are two reasons to be given; one from the nature of the thing itself, because from the one extreme being nearer and more like the mean, we do not put this against it, but the other; as, for instance, since rashness is thought to be nearer to courage than cowardice is, and to resemble it more, we put cowardice against courage rather than rashness, because those things which are further from the mean are thought to be more contrary to it. This, then, is one reason arising from the thing itself; there is another arising from our own constitution and make; for in each man's own case those things give the impression of being more contrary to the mean to which we individually have a natural bias. Thus we have a natural bias towards pleasures, for which reason we are much more inclined to the rejection of all self-control than to self-discipline.

These things then to which the bias is we call more contrary, and so total want of self-control (the excess) is more contrary than the defect is to perfected self-mastery.

[1] That is, in the same genus; to be contraries, things must be generically connected.

CHAPTER IX.

THE PRACTICAL APPLICATION OF THE BOOK.

Now that Moral Virtue is a mean state, and how it is so, and that it lies between two faulty states, one in the way of excess and another in the way of defect, and that it is so because it has an aptitude to aim at the mean both in emotions and actions, all this has been set forth fully and sufficiently.

And so it is hard to be good; for surely hard it is in each instance to find the mean, just as to find the mean point or centre of a circle is not what any man can do, but only he who knows how; just so to be angry, to give money, and be expensive is what any man can do, and easy; but to do these to the right person, in due proportion, at the right time, with a right object, and in the right manner, this is not as before what any man can do, nor is it easy; and for this cause goodness is rare, and praiseworthy, and noble.

Therefore he who aims at the mean should make it his first care to keep away from that extreme, which is more contrary than the other to the mean; just as Calypso in Homer advises Ulysses,

"Clear of this smoke and surge thy barque direct;"[1]

because of the two extremes, the one is always more, and the other less, erroneous; and, therefore, since to hit exactly on the mean is difficult, one must "on our second voyage" take the least of the evils;[2] and this a man will be doing if he follows this method.

[1] Circe (not Calypso) warned Odysseus to be more careful in avoiding Charybdis than Scylla.

[2] "Δεύτερος πλοῦς is a proverb," says the Scholiast on the Phædo,

We ought also to take into consideration our own natural bias, which varies in each man's case, and will be ascertained from the pleasure and pain arising in us. Furthermore, we should force ourselves off in the contrary direction, because we shall find ourselves in the mean after we have removed ourselves far from the wrong side, exactly as men do in straightening bent timber.[1]

But in all cases we must guard most carefully against what is pleasant, and pleasure itself, because we are not impartial judges of it.

We ought to feel in fact towards pleasure as did the old counsellors towards Helen, and in all cases pronounce a similar sentence; for so by sending it away from us we shall err the less.[2]

"used of those who do anything safely and cautiously, inasmuch as they who have miscarried in their first voyage, set about their preparations for the second cautiously;" and he then alludes to this passage.

[1] That is, you must allow for the *recoil.*

"Naturam expellas furca tamen usque recurret."

[2] This illustration sets in so clear a light the doctrines entertained respectively by Aristotle, Eudoxus, and the Stoics regarding pleasure, that it is worth while to go into it fully.

The reference is to *Iliad*, iii. 154-160. The old counsellors, as Helen comes upon the city wall, acknowledge her surpassing beauty, and have no difficulty in understanding how both nations should have incurred such suffering for her sake; still, fair as she is, home she must go, that she bring no ruin on themselves and their posterity.

This exactly represents Aristotle's relation to Pleasure; he does not, with Eudoxus and his followers, exalt it into the Summum Bonum, just as Paris would risk all for Helen, nor does he with the Stoics call it wholly evil, as Hector might have said, that the woes Helen had caused had "banished all the beauty from her cheek;" but, with the aged counsellors, admits its charms, but aware of their dangerousness resolves to deny himself; he "Feels her sweetness, yet defies her thrall."

Well, to speak very briefly, these are the precautions, by adopting which we shall be best able to attain the mean.

Still, perhaps, after all it is a matter of difficulty, and specially in the particular instances; it is not easy, for instance, to determine exactly in what manner, with what persons, for what causes, and for what length of time one ought to feel anger; for we ourselves sometimes praise those who are defective in this feeling, and we call them gentle; at another, we term the hot-tempered manly and spirited.

Then, again, he who makes a small deflection from what is right, be it on the side of too much or too little, is not blamed, only he who makes a considerable one; for he cannot escape observation. But to what point or degree a man must err in order to incur blame, it is not easy to determine exactly in words; nor in fact any of those points which are matter of perception by the Moral Sense; and such questions are matters of detail, and the decision of them rests with the Moral Sense.[1]

At all events thus much is plain, that the mean state is in all things praiseworthy, and that practically we must deflect sometimes towards excess, sometimes towards defect, because this will be the easiest method of hitting on the mean, that is on what is right.

[1] Αἴσθησις is here used as an analogous noun, to denote the faculty which, in respect of moral matters, discharges the same function that bodily sense does in respect of physical objects. It is worth while to notice how in our colloquial language we carry out the same analogy. We say of a transaction that it "looks ugly," "sounds oddly," is a "nasty job," "stinks in our nostrils," is a "hard dealing."

BOOK III.

CHAPTER I.

OF INVOLUNTARY ACTIONS; FIRST, OF COMPULSORY.

Now since Virtue is concerned with the regulation of feelings and actions, and praise and blame arise upon such as are voluntary, while for the involuntary allowance is made, and sometimes compassion is excited, it is perhaps a necessary task for those who are investigating the nature of Virtue to draw out the distinction between what is voluntary and what involuntary, and it is certainly useful for legislators with respect to the assigning of honours and punishments.

Involuntary actions then are thought to be of two kinds, being done either on compulsion or by reason of ignorance.

An action is, properly speaking, compulsory when the origination is external to the agent, being such, that in it the agent (perhaps we may more properly say the patient) contributes nothing; as if a wind were to convey you anywhere, or men having power over your person.

But when actions are done either from fear of greater evils or from some honourable motive, as, for instance if you were ordered to commit some base act by a despot who had your parents or children in his power, and they were to

be saved upon your compliance, or die upon your refusal, in such cases there is room for a question whether the actions are voluntary or involuntary.

A similar question arises with respect to cases of throwing goods overboard in a storm. Abstractedly no man throws away his property willingly, but with a view to his own and his shipmates' safety: any one would who had any sense.

The truth is, such actions are of a mixed kind, but are most like voluntary actions, for they are choiceworthy at the time when they are done, and the end or object of the action must be taken with reference to the actual occasion. Further, we must denominate an action voluntary or involuntary at the time of doing it. Now, in the given case the man acts voluntarily, because the originating of the motion of his limbs in such actions rests with himself; and where the origination is in himself, it rests with himself to do or not to do.

Such actions then are voluntary, though in the abstract perhaps involuntary, because no one would choose any of such things in and by itself.

But for such actions men sometimes are even praised, as when they endure any disgrace or pain to secure great and honourable equivalents: if *vice versâ*, then they are blamed, because it shows a base mind to endure things very disgraceful for no honourable object, or for a trifling one.

For some again no praise is given, but allowance is made, as where a man does what he should not by reason of such things as overstrain the powers of human nature, or pass the limits of human endurance.

Some acts perhaps there are for which compulsion cannot be pleaded; but a man should rather suffer the worst,

and die. How absurd, for instance, are the pleas of compulsion with which Alcmæon in Euripides's Play excuses his matricide.[1]

But it is difficult sometimes to decide what kind of thing should be chosen instead of what, or what endured in preference to what, and much more so to abide by one's decisions; for in general the alternatives are painful, and the actions required are base, and so praise and blame is awarded according as persons have been compelled or no.

What kind of actions then are to be called compulsory? May we say, simply and abstractedly, when the cause is external and the agent contributes nothing; and that where the acts are in themselves such as one would not wish, but choiceworthy at the present time and in preference to such and such things, and where the origination rests with the agent, the actions are in themselves involuntary, but at the given time and in preference to such and such things voluntary; and they are more like voluntary than involuntary, because the actions consist of little details, and these are voluntary.

But what kind of things one ought to choose instead of what, it is not easy to settle, for there are many differences in particular instances.

But suppose a person should say, actions pleasant and honourable are done upon compulsion (for that these objects, being external, compel); on that score every action we do is on compulsion, because these are universal motives of action.

[1] This play is lost. Alcmæon was son of Amphiarus, whom his wife Eriphyle, bribed by a necklace, sent against his judgment to fight against Thebes. Before his departure he enjoined upon his sons to kill their mother.—[ED.]

Again, they who act on compulsion and against their will do so with pain, but they who act by reason of what is pleasant or honourable act with pleasure.

It is truly absurd for a man to attribute his actions to external things, instead of to his own capacity for being easily caught by them; or, again, to ascribe the honourable to himself, and the base ones to the compulsion of pleasure.

So then that seems to be compulsory "whose origination is from without, the compellee contributing nothing."

CHAPTER II.

OF THE SECOND KIND OF INVOLUNTARY ACTIONS. BY REASON OF IGNORANCE.

Now every action of which ignorance is the cause is not voluntary, but that only is involuntary which is attended with pain and remorse; for clearly the man who has done anything by reason of ignorance, but is not annoyed at his own action, cannot be said to have done it *with* his will, because he did not know he was doing it, nor again *against* his will, because he is not sorry for it.

So then of the class "acting by reason of ignorance," he who feels regret afterwards is thought to be an involuntary agent, and him that has no such feeling, since he is certainly different from the other, we will call a not voluntary agent; for as there is a real difference, it is better to have a proper name.

Again, there seems to be a difference between acting *because of* ignorance and acting *with* ignorance; for instance, we do not usually assign ignorance as the cause of the actions of the drunken or angry man, but either the

drunkenness or the anger, yet they act not knowingly, but *with* ignorance.

Again, every bad man is ignorant what he ought to do and what to leave undone,[1] and by reason of such error men become unjust and wholly evil.

Again, we do not usually apply the term involuntary when a man is ignorant of his own true interest;[2] because ignorance which affects moral choice[3] constitutes depravity, but not involuntariness: nor does any ignorance of principle (because for this men are blamed), but ignorance in particular details, wherein consists the action, and wherewith it is concerned, for in these there is both compassion and allowance, because he who acts in ignorance of any of them acts in a proper sense involuntarily.

It may be as well, therefore, to define these particular details, what they are, and how many—viz., who acts, what he is doing, with respect to what or in what, sometimes with what, as with what instrument, and for the sake of what; as that of preservation, for instance, and how, as whether gently or violently.

All these particulars, in one and the same case, no man in his senses could be ignorant of; plainly not of the agent,

[1] That is to say, he entertains a wrong opinion, not on the moral question, but on his own practical advantage.—[ED.]

[2] Virtue is not only the duty, but (by the laws of the Moral Government of the World) also the interest of Man, or to express it in Bp. Butler's manner, Conscience and Reasonable Self-love are the two principles in our nature which of right have supremacy over the rest, and these two lead in point of fact to the same course of action. (Sermon II.)

[3] Any ignorance of particular facts affects the rightness not of the deed but of the "fact," but ignorance of—*i.e.*, incapacity to discern—Principles shows the Moral Constitution to have been depraved—*i.e.*, shows Conscience to be perverted, or the sight of Self-love to be impaired.

being himself. But of what he is doing a man may be ignorant, as men in speaking say a thing escaped them unawares; or as Æschylus did with respect to the Mysteries, that he was not aware that it was unlawful to speak of them;[1] or as in the case of that catapult accident the other day, the man said he discharged it merely to display its operation. Or a person might suppose a son to be an enemy, as Merope did; or that the spear really pointed was rounded off; or that the stone was a pumice; or in striking with a view to save might kill; or might strike when merely wishing to show another, as people do in sham-fighting.

Now since ignorance is possible in respect to all these details in which the action consists, he that acted in ignorance of any of them is thought to have acted involuntarily, and he most so who was in ignorance as regards the most important, which are thought to be those in which the action consists, and the result.

Further, not only must the ignorance be of this kind to constitute an action involuntary, but it must be also understood that the action is followed by pain and regret.

[1] Æschylus is said to have been brought before the Areopagus for divulging the Eleusinian Mysteries.—[ED.]

CHAPTER III.

VOLUNTARY ACTION DEFINED. ACTIONS WHICH ARE CAUSED BY ANGER OR LUST ARE NOT THEREFORE INVOLUNTARY.

Now since all involuntary action is either upon compulsion or by reason of ignorance, Voluntary Action would seem to be "that whose origination is in the agent, he being aware of the particular details in which the action consists."

For, it may be, men are not justified in calling those actions involuntary which are done by reason of Anger or Lust.

Because, in the first place, if this be so, no other animal but man, and not even children, can be said to act voluntarily. Next, is it meant that we never act voluntarily when we act from Lust or Anger, or that we act voluntarily in doing what is right, and involuntarily in doing what is discreditable? The latter supposition is absurd, since the cause is one and the same. Then as to the former, it is a strange thing to maintain actions to be involuntary which we are bound to grasp at: now there are occasions on which anger is a duty,[1] and there are things which we are bound to lust after,[2] health, for instance, and learning.

[1] Bp. Butler would agree to this. He says of settled, deliberate anger, "It seems *in us* plainly connected with a sense of virtue and vice, of moral good and evil." See the whole Sermon on Resentment.

[2] Aristotle has, I venture to think, rather quibbled here, by using ἐπιθυμία and its verb, equivocally. As there is no following his

Again, whereas actions strictly involuntary (unwilling) are thought to be attended with pain, those which are done to gratify lust are thought to be pleasant.

Again, how does the involuntariness make any difference between wrong actions done from deliberate calculation, and those done by reason of anger? for they both ought to be avoided, and the irrational emotions are thought to be just as natural to man as reason, and so of course must be such actions of the individual as are done from Anger and Lust. It is absurd then to class these actions among the involuntary.

CHAPTER IV.

ON MORAL CHOICE.

HAVING thus drawn out the distinction between voluntary and involuntary action, our next step is to examine into the nature of Moral Choice, because this seems most intimately connected with Virtue, and to be a more decisive test of moral character than a man's acts are.

Now Moral Choice is plainly voluntary, but the two are not coextensive, voluntary being the more comprehensive term: for first, children and all other animals share in voluntary action, but not in Moral Choice; and next, sudden actions we call voluntary, but do not ascribe them to Moral Choice.

Nor do they appear to be right who say it is lust or anger,

argument without condescending to the same device, I have used our word lust in its ancient signification. Psa. xxxiv. 12, "What man is he that lusteth to live?"

or wish, or opinion of a certain kind; because, in the first place, Moral Choice is not shared by the irrational animals, while Lust and Anger are. Next, the man who fails of self-control acts from Lust but not from Moral Choice; the man of self-control, on the contrary, from Moral Choice, not from Lust. Again, whereas Lust is frequently opposed to Moral Choice, Lust is not to Lust.

Lastly, the object-matter of Lust is the pleasant and the painful, but of Moral Choice neither the one nor the other. Still less can it be Anger, because actions done from Anger are thought generally to be least of all consequent on Moral Choice.

Nor is it Wish either, though appearing closely connected with it; because, in the first place, Moral Choice has not for its objects impossibilities, and if a man were to say he chose them, he would be thought to be a fool; but Wish may have impossible things for its objects—for instance, not to die.

Wish again may be exercised on things in the accomplishment of which one's self could have nothing to do, as the success of any particular actor or athlete; but no man chooses things of this nature, only such as he believes he may himself be instrumental in procuring.

Further, Wish has for its object the End rather, but Moral Choice the means to the End; for instance, we wish to be healthy, but we choose the means which will make us so; or happiness again we wish for, and commonly say so, but to say we choose is not an appropriate term, because, in short, the province of Moral Choice seems to be those things which are in our own power.

Neither can it be Opinion, for Opinion is thought to be unlimited in its range of objects, and to be exercised as well upon things eternal and impossible, as on those which are

in our own power. Again, Opinion is logically divided into true and false, not into good and bad, as Moral Choice is.

However, nobody perhaps maintains its identity with Opinion simply; but neither is it identical with any particular opinion, because by choosing good and bad things we are constituted of a certain character, but by having opinions on them we are not.

Again, we choose to take or avoid, and so on, but we opine what a thing is, or for what it is serviceable, or how; but we do not opine to take or avoid.

Further, Moral Choice is commended rather for having a right object than for being judicious, but Opinion for being formed in accordance with truth.

Again, we choose such things as we pretty well know to be good, but we form opinions respecting such as we do not know at all.

And it is not thought that choosing and opining best always go together, but that some opine the better course, but by reason of viciousness choose not the things which they should.

It may be urged that Opinion always precedes or accompanies Moral Choice. Be it so, this makes no difference, for this is not the point in question, but whether Moral Choice is the same as Opinion of a certain kind.

Since then it is none of the afore-mentioned things, what is it, or how is it characterised? Voluntary it plainly is, but not all voluntary action is an object of Moral Choice. May we not say then, it is that voluntary which has passed through a stage of previous deliberation? because Moral Choice is attended with reasoning and intellectual process The etymology of its Greek name seems to give a hint of it, being when analysed "chosen in preference to somewhat else."

CHAPTER V.

OF DELIBERATION.

WELL then, do men deliberate about everything, and is anything soever the object of Deliberation, or are there some matters with respect to which there is none. (It may be as well perhaps to say, that by "object of Deliberation" is meant such matter as a sensible man would deliberate upon, not what any fool or madman might.)

Well, about things eternally fixed no one deliberates; as, for instance, the universe, or the incommensurability of the diameter and side of a square.

Nor again about things which change, but which always happen in the same way either necessarily, or naturally, or from some other cause, as the solstices or the sunrise.

Nor about those which are variable, as drought and rains; nor fortuitous matters, as finding of treasure.

Nor in fact even about all human affairs; no Lacedæmonian, for instance, deliberates as to the best course for the Scythian government to adopt; because in such cases we have no power over the result.

But we do deliberate respecting such practical matters as are in our own power (which are what are left after all our exclusions).

I have adopted this division, because causes seem to be divisible into nature, necessity, chance, and, in addition, intellect, and all human powers.

And as man in general deliberates about what man in general can effect, so individuals do about such practical things as can be effected through their own instrumentality.

Again, we do not deliberate respecting such arts or sciences as are exact and independent; as, for instance, about written characters, because we have no doubt how they should be formed: but we do deliberate on all such things as are usually done through our own instrumentality, not invariably in the same way; as, for instance, about matters connected with the healing art, or with money-making; and again more about piloting ships than gymnastic exercises, because the former has been less exactly determined, and so forth; and more about arts than sciences, because we more frequently doubt respecting the former.

So then Deliberation takes place in such matters as are under general laws, but still uncertain how in any given case they will issue, and in which there is some indefiniteness; and for great matters we associate coadjutors in counsel, distrusting our own ability to settle them alone.

Further, we deliberate not about Ends, but Means to Ends. No physician, for instance, deliberates whether he will cure, nor orator whether he will persuade, nor statesman whether he will produce a good constitution, nor in fact any man in any other function about his particular End; but having set before them a certain End, they look how and through what means it may be accomplished. If there is a choice of means, they examine further which are easiest and most creditable; or if there is but one means of accomplishing the object, then how it may be through this, this again through what, till they come to the first cause. And this will be the last found; for a man engaged in a process of deliberation seems to seek and analyse, as a man, to solve a geometrical problem, analyses the figure given him. And plainly not every search is Deliberation,

those in mathematics to wit, but every Deliberation is a search, and the last step in the analysis is the first in the constructive process. And if in the course of their search men come upon an impossibility, they give it up; if a man wants money, for instance, and cannot get it; but if the thing appears possible, they then attempt to do it

And, by possible, I mean what may be done through our own instrumentality (of course what may be done through our friends is through our own instrumentality in a certain sense, because the origination in such cases rests with us). And the object of search is sometimes the necessary instruments, sometimes the method of using them; and similarly in the rest sometimes through what, and sometimes how or through what.[1]

So it seems, as has been said, that Man is the originator of his actions; and Deliberation has for its object whatever may be done through one's own instrumentality, and the actions are with a view to other things; and so it is not the End, but the Means to Ends, on which Deliberation is employed.

Nor, again, is it employed on matters of detail, as whether the substance before me is bread, or has been properly cooked; for these come under the province of sense, and if a man is to be always deliberating, he may go on *ad infinitum*.

Further, exactly the same matter is the object both of Deliberation and Moral Choice; but that which is the object of Moral Choice is thenceforward separated off and

[1] The introduction of the words διὰ τίνος seem a mere useless repetition, as in the second chapter ἐν τίνι added to περὶ τί. These are among the many indications that the treatise is a collection of notes for lectures, and not a finished or systematic one.

definite,[1] because by object of Moral Choice is denoted that which after Deliberation has been preferred to some thing else; for each man leaves off searching how he shall do a thing when he has brought the origination up to himself—*i.e.*, to the governing principle in himself,[2] because it is this which makes the choice. A good illustration of this is furnished by the old regal constitutions which Homer depicted, in which the Kings would announce to the commonalty what they had determined before.

Now, since the object of Moral Choice is something which is in our own power, and which is an object of deliberation and the grasping of the Will, Moral Choice must be "a grasping after something in our own power consequent upon Deliberation;" because after having deliberated we decide, and then grasp by our Will in accordance with the result of our deliberation.[3]

[1] Suppose that three alternatives lay before a man, each of the three is of course an object of Deliberation; when he has made his choice, the alternative chosen does not cease to be in its nature an object of Deliberation, but superadds the character of being chosen, and so distinguished. Three men are admitted candidates for an office: the one chosen is the successful candidate; so of the three *βουλευτὰ*, the one chosen is the *βουλευτὸν προαιρετόν*.

[2] Compare Bp. Butler's "System of Human Nature" in the Preface to the Sermons.

[3] These words, *ἐκ τοῦ βουλεύσασθαι—βούλευσιν*, contain the account of the whole mental machinery of any action. The first step is a Wish, implied in the first here mentioned—viz., Deliberation, for it has been already laid down that Deliberation has for its object matter means to Ends supposed to be set before the mind; the next step is Deliberation, the next Decision, the last the definite extending of the mental hand towards the object thus selected; the two last constitute *προαίρεσις* in its full meaning. The word *ὄρεξις* means literally "a grasping at or after." Now as this physically may be either vague or definite, so too may the mental act; consequently the term as transferred to the mind has two uses, and denotes either the first wish, *βούλησις*, or the last

Let this be accepted as a sketch of the nature and object of Moral Choice, that object being "Means to Ends."

CHAPTER VI.

OF WISH.

THAT Wish has for its object-matter the End has been already stated; but there are two opinions respecting it, some thinking that its object is real good, and others whatever impresses the mind with a notion of good.

Now those who maintain that the object of Wish is properly real good are beset by this difficulty, that what is wished for by him who chooses wrongly is not really an object of Wish (because, on their theory, if it is an object

definite movement, Will in its strict and proper sense. These two uses are recognised in the *Rhetoric* (I. 10), where ὄρεξις is divided into ἄλογος and λογιστική.

The illustration then afforded by the polities alluded to is this: as the Kings first decided, and then announced their decision for acceptance and execution by their subjects, so Reason, having decided on the course to be taken, communicates its decision to the Will, which then proceeds to move τὰ ὀργανικὰ μέρη. To instance in an action of the mixed kind mentioned in the first chapter: safe arrival at land is naturally desired; two means are suggested, either a certain loss of goods, or trying to save both lives and goods. The question being debated, the former is chosen; this decision is communicated to the Will, which causes the owner's hands to throw overboard his goods; the act is denominated voluntary, because the Will is consenting; but in so denominating it, we leave out of sight how that consent was obtained. In a purely compulsory case the agent never gets beyond the stage of Wish, for no means are in his power, and deliberation therefore is useless; consequently there is neither Decision nor Will, in other words, no Choice.

of Wish, it must be good, but it is, in the case supposed, evil). Those who maintain, on the contrary, that that which impresses the mind with a notion of good is properly the object of Wish, have to meet this difficulty, that there is nothing naturally an object of Wish, but to each individual whatever seems good to him; now different people have different notions, and it may chance contrary ones.[1]

But, if these opinions do not satisfy us, may we say that abstractedly, and as a matter of objective truth, the really good is the object of Wish, but to each individual whatever impresses his mind with the notion of good. And so to the good man that is an object of Wish which is really and truly so, and to the bad man anything may be, just as physically those things are wholesome to the healthy which are really so, but other things to the sick. And so too of bitter and sweet, and hot and heavy, and so on. For the good man judges in every instance correctly, and in every instance the notion conveyed to his mind is the true one.

For there are fair and pleasant things peculiar to, and so varying with each state; and perhaps the most distinguishing characteristic of the good man is his seeing the truth in every instance, he being, as it were, the rule and measure of these matters.

The multitude of men seem to be deceived by reason of pleasure, because even when it is not really a good, it impresses their minds with the notion of goodness, so they choose what is pleasant as good, and avoid pain as an evil.

[1] Here, as often in Greek philosophy, a confusion arises from not distinguishing different senses in the same word. The word *βουλητόν* means either wished-for, or that which *ought* to be wished for. Taking it in the latter sense, Aristotle sees a difficulty in asserting that there can be no common aspiration towards which men's minds should be directed.—[Ed.]

CHAPTER VII.

ON THE FREE AGENCY OF MAN.

Now since the End is the object of Wish, and the means to the End, of Deliberation and Moral Choice, the actions regarding these matters must be in the way of Moral Choice—*i.e.*, voluntary; but the acts of working out the virtues are such actions, and therefore Virtue is in our power.

And so too is Vice, because wherever it is in our power to do, it is also in our power to forbear doing, and *vice versâ;* therefore if the doing (being in a given case creditable) is in our power, so too is the forbearing (which is in the same case discreditable), and *vice versâ.*

But if it is in our power to do and to forbear doing what is creditable or the contrary, and these respectively constitute the being good or bad, then the being good or vicious characters is in our power.

As for the well-known saying, "No man voluntarily is wicked or involuntarily happy," it is partly true, partly false; for no man is happy against his will, of course, but wickedness is voluntary. Or must we dispute the statements lately made, and not say that Man is the originator or generator of his actions as much as of his children?

But if this is matter of plain manifest fact, and we cannot refer our actions to any other originations beside those in our own power, those things must be in our own power and so voluntary, the originations of which are in ourselves.

Moreover, testimony seems to be borne to these positions, both privately by individuals, and by law-givers too,

in that they chastise and punish those who do wrong (unless they do so on compulsion, or by reason of ignorance which is not self-caused), while they honour those who act rightly, under the notion of being likely to encourage the latter and restrain the former. But such things as are not in our own power—*i.e.*, not voluntary—no one thinks of encouraging us to do, knowing it to be of no avail for one to have been persuaded not to suffer heat or pain or hunger, and so forth, because we shall have those sensations all the same.

And what makes the case stronger is this: that they chastise for the very fact of ignorance, when it is thought to be self-caused; to the drunken, for instance, penalties are double, because the origination in such case lies in a man's own self; for he might have helped getting drunk, and this is the cause of his ignorance.

Again, those also who are ignorant of legal regulations which they are bound to know, and which are not hard to know, they chastise; and similarly in all other cases where neglect is thought to be the cause of the ignorance, under the notion that it was in their power to prevent their ignorance, because they might have paid attention.

But perhaps a man is of such a character that he cannot attend to such things; still men are themselves the causes of having become such characters by living carelessly, and also of being unjust or destitute of self-control, the former by doing evil actions, the latter by spending their time in drinking and such like, because the particular acts of exercise form corresponding characters, as is shown by those who are practising for any contest or particular course of action, for such men persevere in the acts of exercise.

As for the plea that a man did not know that habits are

produced from separate acts of exercise, we reply such ignorance is a mark of excessive stupidity.

Furthermore, it is wholly irrelevant to say that the man who acts unjustly or dissolutely does not *wish* to attain the habits of these vices; for if a man wittingly does those things whereby he must become unjust, he is to all intents and purposes unjust voluntarily; but he cannot with a wish cease to be unjust and become just. For to take the analogous case, the sick man cannot with a wish be well again, yet in a supposable case he is voluntarily ill, because he has produced his sickness by living intemperately and disregarding his physicians. There was a time then when he might have helped being ill, but now he has let himself go he cannot any longer; just as he who has let a stone out of his hand cannot recall it,[1] and yet it rested with him to throw it, because the origination was in his power. Just so the unjust man, and he who has lost all self-control, might originally have helped being what they are, and so they are voluntarily what they are; and now that they are become so, they no longer have the power of being otherwise.

And not only are mental diseases voluntary, but the bodily are so in some men, whom we accordingly blame; for such as are naturally deformed no one blames, only such as are so by reason of want of exercise, and neglect. And so too of weakness and maiming: no one would think of upbraiding, but would rather compassionate, a man who is blind by nature, or from disease, or from an

[1] A stone once set in motion cannot be recalled, because it is then placed under the operation of natural laws, which cannot be controlled or altered; so too in Moral declension, there is a point at which gravitation operates irretrievably, "there is a certain bound to imprudence and misbehaviour, which being transgressed, there remains no place for repentance in the natural course of things." Bp. Butler's *Analogy*, First Part, chap. ii.

accident; but every one would blame him who was so from excess of wine, or any other kind of intemperance. It seems, then, that in respect of bodily diseases, those which depend on ourselves are censured, those which do not are not censured; and if so, then in the case of the mental disorders, those which are censured must depend upon ourselves.

But suppose a man to say, "that (by our own admission) all men aim at that which conveys to their minds an impression of good, and that men have no control over this impression, but that the End impresses each with a notion correspondent to his own individual character.

"If, indeed, each man is in a way the cause of his own moral state, so he will be also of the kind of impression he receives.

"But if this is not so, no one is the cause to himself of doing evil actions, but he does them by reason of ignorance of the true End, supposing that through their means he will secure the chief good. And then this aiming at the End will be no matter of one's own choice, but one must be born with a power of mental vision, so to speak, whereby to judge fairly, and choose that which is really good; and he is blessed by nature who has this naturally well, because it is the most important thing and the fairest, and what a man cannot get or learn from another, but will have such as nature has given it; and for this to be so given well and fairly, would be excellence of nature in the highest and truest sense."

If all this be true, how will Virtue be a whit more voluntary than Vice? because alike to the good man and the bad the End gives its impression, and is fixed by nature or howsoever you like to say, and they act so and so, referring everything else to this End.

Whether, then, we suppose the End to impress each man's mind with certain notions not merely by nature, but there is somewhat also dependent on himself, or that the End is given by nature, and yet Virtue is voluntary, because the good man does all the rest voluntarily, Vice must be equally so; because his own agency equally attaches to the bad man in the actions, even if not in the selection of the End.

If, then, as is commonly said, the Virtues are voluntary (because we at least co operate[1] in producing our moral dispositions, and we assume the End to be of a certain kind according as we are ourselves of certain characters), the Vices must be voluntary also, because the cases are exactly similar.

CHAPTER VIII.

RECAPITULATION OF POINTS SETTLED RESPECTING MORAL VIRTUE.

WELL now, we have stated generally respecting the Moral Virtues, the genus (in outline), that they are (1) mean states, and that they are (2) habits, and how they (3) are formed, and that they are of themselves calculated to act (4) upon the circumstances out of which they were formed, and that they are (5) in our own power and voluntary, and are to be done so (6) as right Reason may direct.

But the particular actions and the habits are not voluntary in the same sense—for of the actions we are masters

[1] Habits being formed by acting in a certain way under certain circumstances, we can only choose how we will act, not what circumstances we will have to act under.

from beginning to end, knowing the particular details—but only of the origination of the habits, the addition by small particular accessions not being cognisable, as is the case with sicknesses; still they are voluntary, because it rested with us to use our circumstances this way or that.

CHAPTER IX.

THE MORAL VIRTUES DESCRIBED IN DETAIL. FIRST, OF COURAGE.

HERE we will resume the particular discussion of the Moral Virtues, and say what they are, what is their object-matter, and how they stand respectively related to it; and of course their number will be thereby shown.

First, then, of Courage. Now that it is a mean state, in respect of fear and boldness, has been already said; further, the objects of our fears are obviously things fearful, or in a general way of statement, evils, which accounts for the common definition of fear—viz., expectation of evil.

Of course we fear evils of all kinds—disgrace, for instance, poverty, disease, desolateness, death; but not all these seem to be the object-matter of the Brave man, because there are things which to fear is right and noble, and not to fear is base; disgrace, for example, since he who fears this is a good man and has a sense of honour, and he who does not fear it is shameless (though there are those who call him Brave by analogy, because he somewhat resembles the Brave man who agrees with him in being free from fear); but poverty, perhaps, or disease, and in fact whatever does not proceed from viciousness, nor is attributable

to his own fault, a man ought not to fear: still, being fearless in respect of these would not constitute a man Brave in the proper sense of the term.

Yet we do apply the term[1] in right of the similarity of the cases; for there are men who, though timid in the dangers of war, are liberal men, and are stout enough to face loss of wealth.

And again, a man is not a coward for fearing insult to his wife or children, or envy, or any such thing; nor is he a Brave man for being bold when going to be scourged.

What kind of fearful things then do constitute the object-matter[2] of the Brave man? First of all, must they not be the greatest, since no man is more apt to withstand what is dreadful. Now the object of the greatest dread is death, because it is the end of all things, and for the dead man there is thought to be neither good nor evil. Still it would seem that the Brave man has not for his object-matter even death in every circumstance; on the sea, for example, or in sickness. In what circumstances then? must it not be in the most honourable? Now such is death in war, because it is death in the greatest and most honourable danger; and this is confirmed by the honours awarded in communities and by monarchs.

He then may be most properly denominated Brave who is fearless in respect of honourable death, and such sudden emergencies as threaten death; now such specially are those which arise in the course of war.

It is not meant but that the Brave Man will be fearless also on the sea (and in sickness), but not in the same way

[1] "*Moral* Courage" is our phrase.

[2] Object-matter—*i.e.*, the circumstances in which he is to display his quality of Bravery.—[ED.]

as sea-faring men; for these are light-hearted and hopeful by reason of their experience, while landsmen, though Brave, are apt to give themselves up for lost, and shudder at the notion of such a death; to which it should be added, that Courage is exerted in circumstances which admit of doing something to help one's self, or in which death would be honourable. Now neither of these requisites attach to destruction by drowning or sickness.

CHAPTER X.

COURAGE CONTINUED.

AGAIN, fearful is a term of relation, the same thing not being so to all, and there is according to common parlance somewhat so fearful as to be beyond human endurance. This of course would be fearful to every man of sense, but those objects of fear which are not beyond the capacity of man to face differ in magnitude and admit of degrees; so too the objects of confidence or boldness.

Now the Brave man cannot be frighted from his propriety (but of course only so far as he is man); fear such things indeed he will, but he will stand up against them as he ought, and as right reason may direct, with a view to what is noble (καλόν), because this is the end of virtue.

Now it is possible to fear these things too much or too little, or again to fear what is not really fearful as if it were such. So the errors come to be either that a man fears when he ought not to fear at all, or that he fears in an improper way, or at a wrong time, and so forth; and so too in respect of things inspiring confidence. He is Brave then

who withstands, and fears, and is bold, in respect of right objects, from a right motive, in right manner, and at right times; since the Brave man suffers or acts as he ought, and as right reason may direct.

Now the end of every separate act of the exercise of a disposition is that which accords with the disposition. In the Brave man courage is a noble thing, so then must the end of courage be, for each thing has the character of its end.

So nobleness is the motive from which the Brave man withstands things fearful, and performs the acts which accord with Courage.

Of the characters on the side of Excess, he who exceeds in utter absence of fear has no appropriate name (I observed before that many dispositions have none), but he would be a madman or inaccessible to pain if he feared nothing, neither earthquake, nor the billows, as they tell of the Celts.

He again who exceeds in confidence in respect of things fearful is rash. He is thought moreover to be a braggart, and to advance unfounded claims to the character of Brave. The relation which the Brave man really bears to objects of fear this man wishes to appear to bear, and so imitates him in whatever points he can. For this reason most of them exhibit a curious mixture of rashness and cowardice, because affecting rashness in these circumstances they do not withstand what is truly fearful.

The man moreover who exceeds in feeling fear is a coward, since there attach to him the circumstances of fearing wrong objects in wrong ways, and so forth. He is deficient also in feeling confidence, but he is most clearly seen as exceeding in the case of pains. He is a faint-hearted kind of man, for he fears all things; the Brave man

is just the contrary, for boldness is the property of the light-hearted and hopeful.

So the coward, the rash, and the Brave man have exactly the same object-matter, but stand differently related to it; the two first-mentioned respectively exceed, and are deficient, the last is in a mean state, and as he ought to be. The rash again are precipitate, and being eager before danger, when actually in it fall away, while the Brave are quick and sharp in action, but before are quiet and composed.

Well then, as has been said, Courage is a mean state in respect of objects inspiring boldness or fear, in the circumstances which have been stated, and the Brave man chooses his line, and withstands danger, either because to do so is noble, or because not to do so is base. But dying to escape from poverty, or the pangs of love, or anything that is simply painful, is the act, not of a Brave man, but of a coward, because it is mere softness to fly from what is toilsome, and the suicide braves the terrors of death, not because it is noble to do so, but to get out of the reach of evil.

CHAPTER XI.

OF THE SPURIOUS OR IMPERFECT FORMS OF COURAGE.

COURAGE proper is somewhat of the kind I have described, but there are dispositions differing in five ways,[1] which also bear in common parlance the name of Courage.

[1] For true courage is required, (1) Exact appreciation of danger; (2) A Proper motive for resisting fear. Each of the Spurious kinds will be found to fail in one or other, or both.

We will take first that which bears most resemblance to the true, the Courage of Citizenship, so named, because the motives which are thought to actuate the members of a community in braving danger are the penalties and disgrace held out by the laws to cowardice, and the dignities conferred on the Brave; which is thought to be the reason why those are the bravest people among whom cowards are visited with disgrace, and the Brave held in honour.

Such is the kind of Courage Homer exhibits in his characters—Diomed and Hector, for example. The latter says,

> "Polydamas will be the first to fix
> Disgrace upon me."—*Iliad* xxii. 200.

Diomed again,

> "For Hector surely will hereafter say,
> Speaking in Troy, Tydides by my hand."—*Ib.* viii. 148, 149.

This, I say, most nearly resembles the Courage before spoken of, because it arises from virtue, from a feeling of shame, that is, and a desire of what is noble (that is, of honour), and avoidance of disgrace, which is base.

In the same rank one would be inclined to place those also who act under compulsion from their commanders; yet are they really lower, because not a sense of honour, but fear, is the motive from which they act, and what they seek to avoid is not that which is base, but that which is simply painful. Commanders do, in fact, compel their men sometimes, as Hector says (to quote Homer again),

> "But whomsoever I shall find cowering afar from the fight,
> The teeth of the dogs he shall by no means escape."—*Ib.* xv. 348.

Those commanders who station staunch troops by doubtful ones,[1] or who beat their men if they flinch, or who draw their troops up in line with the trenches, or other similar obstacles, in their rear, do in effect the same as Hector, for they all use compulsion.

But a man is to be Brave, not on compulsion, but from a sense of what is noble.

In the next place, Experience and Skill in the various particulars is thought to be a species of Courage; whence Socrates also thought that Courage was knowledge.[2]

This quality is exhibited of course by different men under different circumstances, but in warlike matters, with which we are now concerned, it is exhibited by the soldiers; for there are, it would seem, many things in war of no real importance,[3] which these have been constantly used to see; so they have a show of Courage, because other people are not aware of the real nature of these things. Then again by reason of their skill they are better able than any others to inflict without suffering themselves, because they are able to use their arms, and have such as are most serviceable both with a view to offence and defence; so that their case is parallel to that of armed men fighting with unarmed, or trained athletes with amateurs, since in contests of this kind those are the best fighters, not who are the bravest men, but who are the strongest, and are in the best condition.

In fact, the regular troops come to be cowards, whenever

[1] This may merely mean, "who give strict orders" not to flinch, which would imply the necessity of compulsion. The word is capable of the sense given above, which seems more forcible.

[2] See Book VI., chap. xviii., near the end.

[3] Such as the noise, the rapid movements, and apparent confusion which to an inexperienced eye and ear would be alarming. So Livy says of the Gauls, v. 37. Nata in *vanos* tumultus gens.

the danger is greater than their means of meeting it, supposing, for example, that they are inferior in numbers and resources; for then they are the first to fly, but the mere militia stand and fall on the ground (which, as you know, really happened at the Hermæum[1]), for in the eyes of these flight was disgraceful, and death preferable to safety bought at such a price; while the regulars originally went into the danger under a notion of their own superiority, but on discovering their error they took to flight,[2] having greater fear of death than of disgrace; but this is not the feeling of the Brave man.

Thirdly, mere Animal Spirit is sometimes brought under the term Courage. They are thought to be Brave who are carried on by mere Animal Spirit, as are wild beasts against those who have wounded them, because in fact the really Brave have much Spirit, there being nothing like it for going at danger of any kind; whence those frequent expressions in Homer, "infused strength into his spirit," "roused his strength and spirit," or again, "and keen strength in his nostrils," "his blood boiled;" for all these seem to denote the arousing and impetuosity of the Animal Spirit.

Now they that are truly Brave act from a sense of what is noble, and this Animal Spirit co-operates with them; but wild beasts from pain, that is, because they have been wounded, or are frightened, since if they are quietly in their own haunts, forest or marsh, they do not attack men. Surely they are not Brave, because they rush into danger

[1] In Coronea in Bœotia, on the occasion of the citadel being betrayed to some Phocians. The regulars were Bœotian troops, the πολιτικὰ Coroneans.

[2] By the difference of tense it seems Aristotle has mixed up two things, beginning to speak of the particular instance, and then carried into the general statement again. This it is scarce worth while to imitate.

when goaded on by pain and mere Spirit, without any view of the danger; else would asses be Brave when they are hungry, for though beaten they will not then leave their pasture; profligate men besides do many bold actions by reason of their lust. We may conclude then that they are not Brave who are goaded on to meet danger by pain and mere Spirit, but still this temper which arises from Animal Spirit appears to be most natural, and would be Courage of the true kind if it could have added to it moral choice and the proper motive.

So men also are pained by a feeling of anger, and take pleasure in revenge; but they who fight from those causes may be good fighters, but they are not truly Brave (in that they do not act from a sense of honour nor as reason directs, but merely from the present feeling), still they bear some resemblance to that character.

Nor, again, are the Sanguine and Hopeful therefore Brave; since their boldness in danger arises from their frequent victories over numerous foes. The two characters are alike, however, in that both are confident, but then the Brave are so from the afore-mentioned causes, whereas these are so from a settled conviction of their being superior, and not likely to suffer anything in return (they who are intoxicated do much the same, for they become hopeful when in that state); but when the event disappoints their expectations they run away. Now it was said to be the character of a Brave man to withstand things which are fearful to man, and present that appearance, because it is noble so to do, and the contrary is base.

For this reason it is thought to be a proof of greater Courage to be fearless and undisturbed under the pressure of sudden fear than under that which may be anticipated beforehand, because Courage then comes rather from a

fixed habit, or less from preparation, since a man might take his line as to foreseen dangers even from calculation and reasoning, but in those which are sudden he will do so according to his fixed habit of mind.

Fifthly and lastly, those who are acting under Ignorance have a show of Courage, and are not very far from the Hopeful; but still they are inferior, inasmuch as they have no opinion of themselves, which the others have, and therefore stay and contest a field for some little time; but they who have been deceived fly the moment they know things to be otherwise than they supposed, which the Argives experienced when they fell on the Lacedæmonians, taking them for the men of Sicyon.

CHAPTER XII.

ADDITIONAL NOTES UPON COURAGE.

We have described, then, what kind of men the Brave are, and what they who are thought to be, but are not really Brave.

It must be remarked, however, that though Courage has for its object-matter boldness and fear, it has not both equally so, but objects of fear much more than the former; for he that under pressure of these is undisturbed and stands related to them as he ought, is better entitled to the name of Brave than he who is properly affected towards objects of confidence. So then men are termed Brave for withstanding painful things.

It follows that Courage involves pain, and is justly praised, since it is a harder matter to withstand things that are painful than to abstain from such as are pleasant.

It must not be thought but that the End and object of Courage is pleasant, but it is obscured by the surrounding circumstances, which happens also in the gymnastic games: to the boxers the End is pleasant with a view to which they act—I mean the crown and the honours; but the receiving the blows they do is painful and annoying to flesh and blood, and so is all the labour they have to undergo, and as these drawbacks are many, the object in view being small appears to have no pleasantness in it.

If then we may say the same of Courage, of course death and wounds must be painful to the Brave man and against his will; still he endures these, because it is noble so to do, or because it is base not to do so. And the more complete his virtue and his happiness, so much the more will he be pained at the notion of death; since to such a man as he is it is best worth while to live, and he with full consciousness is deprived of the greatest goods by death, and this is a painful idea. But he is not the less Brave for feeling it to be so, nay, rather it may be he is shown to be more so, because he chooses the honour that may be reaped in war in preference to retaining safe possession of these other goods. The fact is that to act with pleasure does not belong to all the virtues, except so far as a man realises the End of his actions.

But there is perhaps no reason why not such men should make the best soldiers, but those who are less truly Brave but have no other good to care for, these being ready to meet danger, and bartering their lives against small gain.

Let thus much be accepted as sufficient on the subject of Courage, the true nature of which it is not difficult to gather, in outline at least, from what has been said.

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CHAPTER XIII.

OF PERFECTED SELF-MASTERY.

NEXT let us speak of Perfected Self-Mastery,[1] which seems to claim the next place to Courage, since these two are the Virtues of the Irrational part of the Soul.

That it is a mean state, having for its object-matter Pleasures, we have already said (Pains being in fact its object-matter in a less degree and dissimilar manner), the state of utter absence of self-control has plainly the same object-matter; the next thing then is to determine what kind of Pleasures.

Let Pleasures then be understood to be divided into mental and bodily; instances of the former being love of honour or of learning; it being plain that each man takes pleasure in that of these two objects which he has a tendency to like, his body being no way affected, but rather his intellect. Now men are not called perfectly self-mastering or wholly destitute of self-control in respect of pleasures of this class; nor in fact in respect of any which are not bodily; those for example who love to tell long stories, and are prosy, and spend their days about mere chance matters, we call gossips, but not wholly destitute of self-control, nor again those who are pained at the loss of money or friends.

It is bodily Pleasures then which are the object-matter of Perfected Self-Mastery, but not all these indifferently; I mean that they who take pleasure in objects perceived by the Sight, as colours, and forms, and painting, are not

[1] Temperance, *σωφροσύνη*. It belongs to the division where irrational appetites clash with Reason. See Book I., chap. xi.—[ED.]

denominated men of Perfected Self-Mastery, or wholly destitute of self-control; and yet it would seem that one may take pleasure even in such objects, as one ought to do, or excessively, or too little.

So too of objects perceived by the sense of Hearing; no one applies the terms before quoted respectively to those who are excessively pleased with musical tunes or acting, or to those who take such pleasure as they ought.

Nor, again, to those persons whose pleasure arises from the sense of Smell, except incidentally; I mean we do not say men have no self-control because they take pleasure in the scent of fruit, or flowers, or incense, but rather when they do so in the smells of unguents and sauces; since men destitute of self-control take pleasure herein, because hereby the objects of their lusts are recalled to their imagination. You may also see other men take pleasure in the smell of food when they are hungry; but to take pleasure in such is a mark of the character before named, since these are objects of desire to him.

Now not even brutes receive pleasure in right of these senses, except incidentally. I mean, it is not the scent of hares' flesh, but the eating it, which dogs take pleasure in, perception of which pleasure is caused by the sense of Smell. Or again, it is not the lowing of the ox, but eating him, which the lion likes; but of the fact of his nearness the lion is made sensible by the lowing, and so he appears to take pleasure in this. In like manner, he has no pleasure in merely seeing or finding a stag or wild goat, but in the prospect of a meal.

The habits of Perfected Self-Mastery and entire absence of self-control have then for their object-matter such pleasures as brutes also share in, for which reason they are plainly servile and brutish: they are Touch and Taste.

But even Taste men seem to make little or no use of; for to the sense of Taste belongs the distinguishing of flavours; what men do, in fact, who are testing the quality of wines, or seasoning-made dishes.

But men scarcely take pleasure at all in these things, at least those whom we call destitute of self-control do not, but only in the actual enjoyment, which arises entirely from the sense of Touch, whether in eating or in drinking, or in grosser lusts. This accounts for the wish said to have been expressed once by a great glutton, "that his throat had been formed longer than a crane's neck," as though his pleasure was derived from the Touch.

The sense then to which is attached the habit of absence of self-control is the most common of all the senses, and this habit would seem to be justly a matter of reproach, since it attaches to us not in so far as we are men, but in so far as we are animals. Indeed, it is brutish to take pleasure in such things, and to like them best of all; for the most respectable of the pleasures arising from the touch have been set aside; those, for instance, which occur in the course of gymnastic training, from the rubbing and the warm bath; because the touch of the man destitute of self-control is not of the whole body, but only of particular parts.

Now of lusts or desires some are thought to be universal, others peculiar and acquired; thus desire for food is natural, since every one who really needs, desires also food, whether solid or liquid, or both (and, as Homer says, the man in the prime of youth needs and desires intercourse with the other sex); but when we come to this or that particular kind, then neither is the desire universal, nor in all men is it directed to the same objects. And therefore the conceiving of such desires plainly attaches to us as

individuals. It must be admitted, however, that there is something natural in it; because different things are pleasant to different men, and all men have their preferences.[1] Well then, in the case of the desires which are strictly and properly natural, few men go wrong, and all in one direction, that is, on the side of too much; I mean, to eat and drink of such food as happens to be on table till one is overfilled is exceeding in quantity the natural limit, since the natural desire is simply a supply of a real deficiency.

For this reason these men are called belly-mad, as filling it beyond what they ought, and it is the slavish who become of this character.

But in respect of the peculiar pleasures, many men go wrong and in many different ways; for whereas the term "fond of so and so" implies either taking pleasure in wrong objects, or taking pleasure excessively, or as the mass of men do, or in a wrong way, they who are destitute of all self-control exceed in all these ways; that is to say, they take pleasure in some things in which they ought not to do so (because they are properly objects of detestation), and in such as it is right to take pleasure in, they do so more than they ought, and as the mass of men do.

Well then, that excess with respect to pleasures is absence of self-control, and blameworthy, is plain. But viewing these habits on the side of pains, we find that a man is not said to have the virtue for withstanding them (as in the case of Courage), nor the vice for not withstanding them; but the man destitute of self-control is so, because he is pained more than he ought to be at not obtaining things which are pleasant (and thus his pleasure produces

[1] It is a wise law of Nature that men should like different things; hence this very individualism is a kind of universality.—[ED.]

pain to him), and the man of Perfected Self-Mastery is such in virtue of not being pained by their absence, that is, by having to abstain from what is pleasant.

Now the man destitute of self-control desires either all pleasant things indiscriminately, or those which are specially pleasant, and he is impelled by his desire to choose these things in preference to all others; and this involves pain, not only when he misses the attainment of his objects, but in the very desiring them, since all desire is accompanied by pain. Surely it is a strange case this, being pained by reason of pleasure.

As for men who are defective on the side of pleasure, who take less pleasure in things than they ought, they are almost imaginary characters, because such absence of sensual perception is not natural to man; for even the other animals distinguish between different kinds of food, and like some kinds and dislike others. In fact, could a man be found who takes no pleasure in anything, and to whom all things are alike, he would be far from being human at all; and there is no name for such a character, because it is simply imaginary.

But the man of Perfected Self-Mastery is in the mean with respect to these objects; that is to say, he neither takes pleasure in the things which delight the vicious man, and in fact rather dislikes them, nor at all in improper objects; nor to any great degree in any object of the class; nor is he pained at their absence; nor does he desire them; or, if he does, only in moderation, and neither more than he ought, nor at improper times, and so forth; but such things as are conducive to health and good condition of body, being also pleasant, these he will grasp at in moderation and as he ought to do, and also such other pleasant things as do not hinder these objects, and are not unseemly, or disproportionate

tionate to his means, because he that should grasp at such would be liking such pleasures more than is proper; but the man of Perfected Self-Mastery is not of this character, but regulates his desires by the dictates of right reason.

CHAPTER XIV.

A COMPARISON BETWEEN COWARDICE AND ABSENCE OF SELF-CONTROL, AND SOME FURTHER NOTES UPON THE LATTER, AND THE KINDRED VIRTUE.

Now the vice of being destitute of all Self-Control seems to be more truly voluntary than Cowardice, because pleasure is the cause of the former, and pain of the latter, and pleasure is an object of choice, pain of avoidance. And again, pain deranges and spoils the natural disposition of its victim, whereas pleasure has no such effect, and is more voluntary and therefore more justly open to reproach.

It is so also for the following reason: that it is easier to be inured by habit to resist the objects of pleasure, there being many things of this kind in life, and the process of habituation being unaccompanied by danger; whereas the case is the reverse as regards the objects of fear.

Again, Cowardice as a confirmed habit would seem to be more voluntary than the particular instances which form the habit, because it is painless; but these derange the man by fear of pain, so that he throws away his arms, and otherwise behaves himself unseemly, for which reason they are even thought by some to exercise a power of compulsion.

But to the man destitute of Self-Control, the particular instances are on the contrary quite voluntary, being done with desire and direct exertion of the will, but the general

result is less voluntary, since no man desires to form the habit.

The name of this vice (which signifies etymologically unchastenedness) we apply also to the faults of children, there being a certain resemblance between the cases; to which the name is primarily applied, and to which secondarily or derivatively is not relevant to the present subject, but it is evident that the later in point of time must get the name from the earlier. And the metaphor seems to be a very good one; for whatever grasps after base things, and is liable to great increase, ought to be chastened; and to this description desire and the child answer most truly, in that children also live under the direction of desire, and the grasping after what is pleasant is most prominently seen in these.

Unless then the appetite be obedient and subjected to the governing principle, it will become very great; for in the fool the grasping after what is pleasant is insatiable and indiscriminating; and every acting out of the desire increases the kindred habit, and if the desires are great and violent in degree they even expel Reason entirely; therefore they ought to be moderate and few, and in no respect to be opposed to Reason. Now, when the appetite is in such a state, we denominate it obedient and chastened.

In short, as the child ought to live with constant regard to the orders of its educator, so should the appetitive principle with regard to those of Reason.

So then in the man of Perfected Self-Mastery the appetitive principle must be accordant with Reason; for what is right is the mark at which both principles aim; that is to say, the man of perfected self-mastery desires what he ought in right manner and at right times, which is exactly what Reason directs. Let this be taken for our account of Perfected Self-Mastery.

BOOK IV.

CHAPTER I.

OF LIBERALITY.

We will next speak of Liberality. Now this is thought to be the mean state, having for its object-matter Wealth; I mean, the Liberal man is praised not in the circumstances of war, nor in those which constitute the character of perfected self-mastery, nor again in judicial decisions, but in respect of giving and receiving Wealth, chiefly the former. By the term Wealth I mean all those things whose worth is measured by money.

Now the states of excess and defect in regard of Wealth are respectively Prodigality and Stinginess; the latter of these terms we attach invariably to those who are over careful about Wealth, but the former we apply sometimes with a complex notion; that is to say, we give the name to those who fail of self-control, and spend money on the unrestrained gratification of their passions; and this is why they are thought to be most base, because they have many vices at once.

It must be noted, however, that this is not a strict and proper use of the term, since its natural etymological meaning is to denote him who has one particular evil—viz., the

wasting his substance: he is unsaved (as the term literally denotes) who is wasting away by his own fault; and this he really may be said to be; the destruction of his substance is thought to be a kind of wasting of himself, since these things are the means of living. Well, this is our acceptation of the term Prodigality.

Again. Whatever things are for use may be used well or ill, and Wealth belongs to this class. He uses each particular thing best who has the virtue to whose province it belongs; so that he will use Wealth best who has the virtue respecting Wealth—that is to say, the Liberal man.

Expenditure and giving are thought to be the using of money, but receiving and keeping one would rather call the possession of it. And so the giving to proper persons is more characteristic of the Liberal man, than the receiving from proper quarters, and forbearing to receive from the contrary. In fact generally, doing well by others is more characteristic of virtue than being done well by, and doing things positively honourable than forbearing to do things dishonourable; and any one may see that the doing well by others and doing things positively honourable attaches to the act of giving, but to that of receiving only the being done well by, or forbearing to do what is dishonourable.

Besides, thanks are given to him who gives, not to him who merely forbears to receive, and praise even more. Again, forbearing to receive is easier than giving, the case of being lavish of one's own being rarer than the forbearing to receive what belongs to others.

And, again, it is they who give that are denominated Liberal, while they who forbear to receive are commended, not on the score of Liberality, but of just dealing, while for receiving men are not, in fact, praised at all.

And the Liberal are liked almost best of all virtuous

characters, because they are profitable to others, and this their profitableness consists in their giving.

Furthermore, all the actions done in accordance with virtue are noble, and done from noble motives; and the Liberal man, therefore, will give from a noble motive, and will give rightly; I mean, to proper persons, in right proportion, at right times, and whatever is included in the term "right giving;" and this too with positive pleasure, or at least without pain, since whatever is done in accordance with virtue is pleasant, or at least not unpleasant, most certainly not attended with positive pain.

But the man who gives to improper people, or not from a motive of honour, but from some other cause, shall be called not Liberal, but something else. Neither shall he be so denominated who does it with pain; this being a sign that he would prefer his wealth to the honourable action, and this is no part of the Liberal man's character; neither will such an one receive from improper sources, because the so receiving is not characteristic of one who values not wealth; nor again will he be apt to ask, because one who does kindnesses to others does not usually receive them willingly; but from proper sources, his own property, for instance, he will receive, doing this not as noble, but as necessary, that he may have somewhat to give; neither will he be careless of his own, since it is his wish through these to help others in need; nor will he give to chance people that he may have wherewith to give to those to whom he ought, at right times, and on occasions when it is honourable so to do.

Again, it is a trait in the Liberal man's character even to exceed very much in giving, so as to leave too little for himself, it being characteristic of such an one not to have a thought of self.

Now Liberality is a term of relation to a man's means, for the Liberalness depends not on the amount of what is given, but the moral state of the giver which gives in proportion to his means. There is then no reason why he should not be the more Liberal man who gives the less amount, if he has less to give out of.

Again, those who have inherited their means are thought to be more liberal than those who have acquired them; for, in the first place, they have never experienced want, and next, all people love most their own works, just as parents do, and poets.

It is not easy for the Liberal man to be rich, since he is neither apt to receive nor to keep, but to spend, and values not wealth for its own sake, but with a view to giving it away. Hence it is commonly charged upon fortune that they who most deserve to be rich are least so. Yet this happens reasonably enough; it is impossible he should have wealth who does not take any care to have it, just as in any similar case.

Yet he will not give to improper people, nor at wrong times, and so on; because he would not then be acting in accordance with Liberality, and if he spent upon such objects, would have nothing to spend on those on which he ought; for, as I have said before, he is Liberal who spends in proportion to his means, and on proper objects, while he who does so in excess is prodigal (this is the reason why we never call despots prodigal, because it does not seem to be easy for them by their gifts and expenditure to go beyond their immense possessions).

To sum up then. Since Liberality is a mean state in respect of the giving and receiving of wealth, the Liberal man will give and spend on proper objects, and in proper proportion, in great things and in small alike, and all this

with pleasure to himself; also he will receive from right sources, and in right proportion: because, as the virtue is a mean state in respect of both, he will do both as he ought, and, in fact, upon proper giving follows the correspondent receiving, while that which is not such is contrary to it. (Now those givings and receivings which naturally follow one another come to coexist in the same person; those which are contraries plainly do not.)

Again, should it happen to him to spend money beyond what is needful, or otherwise than is well, he will be vexed, but only moderately, and as he ought; for feeling pleasure and pain at right objects, and in right manner, is a property of Virtue.

The Liberal man is also an easy man to deal with in respect of wealth; for he can easily be wronged, since he values not wealth, and is more vexed at not spending where he ought to have done so, than at spending where he ought not, and he relishes not the maxim of Simonides.[1]

CHAPTER II.

OF THE EXTREMES.

But the Prodigal man goes wrong also in these points, for he is neither pleased nor pained at proper objects or in proper manner, which will become more plain as we proceed.

We have said already that Prodigality and Stinginess are

[1] Simonides said, according to Plutarch, that "avarice was the proper pleasure of old age." Several sayings in praise of wealth are attributed to him.—[Ed.]

respectively states of excess and defect, and this in two things, giving and receiving (expenditure of course we class under giving). Well now, Prodigality exceeds in giving and forbearing to receive, and is deficient in receiving; while Stinginess is deficient in giving, and exceeds in receiving, but it is in small things.

The two parts of Prodigality, to be sure, do not commonly go together; it is not easy, I mean, to give to all if you receive from none, because private individuals thus giving will soon find their means run short, and such are in fact thought to be prodigal. For he that should combine both would seem to be no little superior to the Stingy man; for he may be easily cured, both by advancing in years, and also by the want of means, and he may come thus to the mean. He has, you see, already the *facts* of the Liberal man; he gives and forbears to receive, only he does neither in right manner or well. So if he could be wrought upon by habituation in this respect, or change in any other way, he would be a real Liberal man, for he will give to those to whom he should, and will forbear to receive when he ought not. This is the reason too why he is thought not to be low in moral character, because to exceed in giving and in forbearing to receive is no sign of badness or meanness, but only of folly.

Well, then, he who is Prodigal in this fashion is thought far superior to the Stingy man for the afore-mentioned reasons, and also because he does good to many; but the Stingy man to no one, not even to himself. But most Prodigals, as has been said, combine with their other faults that of receiving from improper sources, and on this point are Stingy. And they become grasping, because they wish to spend, and cannot do this easily, since their means soon run short. and they are then necessitated to get from some

other quarter. And then again, because they care not for what is honourable, they receive contemptibly, and from all sources indifferently, because they desire to give, and care not how or whence.

And for this reason their givings are not Liberal, inasmuch as they are not noble, nor purely disinterested, nor done in right fashion; but they oftentimes make those rich who should be poor, and to those who are quiet, respectable kind of people they will give nothing, but to flatterers, or those who subserve their pleasures in any way, they will give much. And therefore most of them are utterly devoid of self-restraint; for as they are open-handed they are liberal in expenditure upon the unrestrained gratification of their passions, and turn off to their pleasures because they do not live with reference to what is noble.

Thus then the Prodigal, if unguided, slides into these faults; but if he could get care bestowed on him he might come to the mean and to what is right.

Stinginess, on the contrary, is incurable. Old age, for instance, and incapacity of any kind, is thought to make people Stingy; and it is more congenial to human nature than Prodigality, the mass of men being fond of money rather than apt to give. Moreover, it extends far and has many phases, the modes of stinginess being thought to be many. For as it consists of two things, defect of giving and excess of receiving, everybody does not have it entire, but it is sometimes divided, and one class of persons exceed in receiving, the other are deficient in giving. I mean those who are designated by such appellations as sparing, close-fisted, niggards, are all deficient in giving, but other men's property they neither desire nor are willing to receive, in some instances from a real moderation and shrinking from what is base.

There are some people whose motive, either supposed or alleged, for keeping their property is this—that they may never be driven to do anything dishonourable. To this class belongs the skinflint, and every one of similar character, so named from the excess of not giving. Others again decline to receive their neighbour's goods from a motive of fear, their notion being that it is not easy to take other people's things yourself without their taking yours; so they are content neither to receive nor give.

The other class again, who are Stingy in respect of receiving, exceed in that they receive anything from any source; such as they who work at illiberal employments, brothel keepers, and such like, and usurers who lend small sums at large interest; for all these receive from improper sources and improper amounts. Their common characteristic is base-gaining, since they all submit to disgrace for the sake of gain, and that small; because those who receive great things neither whence they ought, nor what they ought (as, for instance, despots who sack cities and plunder temples), we denominate wicked, impious, and unjust, but not Stingy.

Now the dice-sharper and bath-plunderer[1] and the robber belong to the class of the Stingy, for they are given to base gain. Both busy themselves and submit to disgrace for the sake of gain, and the one class incur the greatest dangers for the sake of their booty, while the others make gain of their friends to whom they ought to be giving.

So both classes, as wishing to make gain from improper sources, are given to base gain, and all such receivings are Stingy. And with good reason is Stinginess called the contrary of Liberality; both because it is a greater evil

[1] The bath-plunderer, who haunted the public baths to steal the clothes of those who were bathing, was a well-established pest of antique society.—[ED.]

than Prodigality, and men err rather in this direction than in that of the Prodigality which we have spoken of as properly and completely such.

Let this be considered as what we have to say respecting Liberality and the contrary vices.

CHAPTER III.

OF MAGNIFICENCE.

NEXT in order would seem to come a dissertation on Magnificence, this being thought to be, like liberality, a virtue having for its object-matter Wealth; but it does not, like that, extend to all transactions in respect of Wealth, but only applies to such as are expensive; and in these circumstances it exceeds liberality in respect of magnitude, because it is (what the very name in Greek hints at) fitting expense on a large scale. This term is of course relative. I mean the expenditure of furnishing a trireme is not the same as that of equipping a sacred embassy.[1] "Fitting" of course also is relative to the individual, and the matter wherein and upon which he has to spend. And a man is not denominated Magnificent for spending as he should do in small or ordinary things, as, for instance,

"Oft to the wandering beggar did I give,"

but for doing so in great matters: that is to say, the Magnificent man is liberal, but the liberal is not thereby

[1] An embassy to inquire of some oracle, to represent the State at the Olympic games, etc. Many public services of this kind were always performed by private citizens in Athens.—[ED.]

Magnificent. The falling short of such a state is called Meanness; the exceeding it, Vulgar Profusion, Want of Taste, and so on, which are faulty, not because they are on an excessive scale in respect of right objects, but because they show off in improper objects and in improper manner. Of these we will speak presently. The Magnificent man is like a man of skill, because he can see what is fitting, and can spend largely in good taste; for, as we said at the commencement, the confirmed habit is determined by the separate acts of working and its object-matter.

Well, the expenses of the Magnificent man are great and fitting; such also are his works (because this secures the expenditure being not great merely, but befitting the work). So then the work is to be proportionate to the expense, and this again to the work, or even above it; and the Magnificent man will incur such expenses from the motive of honour, this being common to all the virtues; and besides, he will do it with pleasure and lavishly, excessive accuracy in calculation being Mean. He will consider also how a thing may be done most beautifully and fittingly, rather than for how much it may be done, and how at the least expense.

So the Magnificent man must be also a liberal man, because the liberal man will also spend what he ought, and in right manner; but it is the Great—that is to say, the large—scale which is distinctive of the Magnificent man, the object-matter of liberality being the same; and without spending more money than another man, he will make the work more magnificent. I mean, the excellence of a possession and of a work of art is not the same; as a piece of property, that thing is most valuable which is worth most—gold, for instance; but as a work, that which is great and beautiful, because the contemplation of such an object is

admirable, and so is that which is Magnificent. So excellence of work on a large scale is Magnificence. There are cases of expenditure which we call honourable—such as are dedicatory offerings to the Gods, and the furnishing their temples, and sacrifices, and in like manner everything that has reference to the Deity, and all such public matters as are objects of honourable ambition, as when men think in any case that it is their duty to furnish a chorus for the stage splendidly, or fit out and maintain a trireme, or give a general public feast.

Now in all these, as has been already stated, respect is had to the rank, and the means of the man who is doing them; because they should be proportionate to these, and befit not the work only, but also the doer of the work. For this reason a poor man cannot be a Magnificent man, since he has not means wherewith to spend largely, and yet becomingly; and if he attempts it he is a fool, inasmuch as it is out of proportion, and contrary to propriety, whereas to be in accordance with virtue a thing must be done rightly.

Such expenditure is fitting moreover for those to whom such things previously belong, either through themselves or through their ancestors, or people with whom they are connected, and to the high-born, or people of high repute, and so on, because all these things imply greatness and reputation.

So then the Magnificent man is pretty much as I have described him, and Magnificence consists in such expenditures, because they are the greatest and most honourable; and of private ones, such as come but once for all—marriage, to wit, and things of that kind—and any occasion which engages the interest of the community in general, or of those who are in power; and what concerns receiving

and despatching strangers, and gifts and repaying gifts; because the Magnificent man is not apt to spend upon himself, but on the public good, and gifts are pretty much in the same case as dedicatory offerings.

It is characteristic also of the Magnificent man to build his house suitably to his wealth, for this also is in a way a public ornament. And again, to spend rather upon such things as are of long duration, these being most honourable. And again, propriety in each case, because the same things are not suitable to gods and men, nor in a temple and a tomb. And again, in the case of expenditures, each must be great of its kind, and great expense on a great object is most magnificent, and in each case, what is great for these particular things.

There is a difference too between greatness of a work and greatness of expenditure. For instance, a very beautiful ball or cup is magnificent as a present to a child, while the price of it is small and almost mean. Therefore it is characteristic of the Magnificent man to do magnificently whatever he is about; for whatever is of this kind cannot be easily surpassed, and bears a proper proportion to the expenditure.

Such then is the Magnificent man.

The man who is in the state of excess, called one of Vulgar Profusion, is in excess, because he spends improperly, as has been said. I mean in cases requiring small expenditure he lavishes much and shows off out of taste; giving his club a feast fit for a wedding-party, or if he has to furnish a chorus for a comedy, giving the actors purple to wear, as did the Megarians. And all such things he will do, not with a view to that which is really noble, but to display his wealth, and because he thinks he shall be admired for these things; and he will spend little where

he ought to spend much, and much where he should spend little.

The Mean man will be deficient in every case, and even where he has spent the most he will spoil the whole effect for want of some trifle; he is procrastinating in all he does, and contrives how he may spend the least, and does even that with lamentations about the expense, and thinking that he does all things on a greater scale than he ought.

Of course, both these states are faulty, but they do not involve disgrace, because they are neither hurtful to others, nor very unseemly.

CHAPTER IV.

OF GREAT-MINDEDNESS.

THE very name of Great-mindedness implies that great things are its object-matter; and we will first settle what kind of things. It makes no difference, of course, whether we regard the moral state in the abstract, or as exemplified in an individual.

Well then, he is thought to be Great-minded who values himself highly and at the same time justly, because he that does so without grounds is foolish, and no virtuous character is foolish or senseless. Well, the character I have described is Great-minded. The man who estimates himself lowly, and at the same time justly, is modest, but not Great-minded; since this latter quality implies greatness, just as beauty implies a large bodily conformation, while small people are neat and well-made, but not beautiful.

Again, he who values himself highly without just grounds

is a Vain man; though the name must not be applied to every case of unduly high self-estimation. He that values himself below his real worth is Small-minded, and whether that worth is great, moderate, or small, his own estimate falls below it. And he is the strongest case of this error who is really a man of great worth, for what would he have done had he not been worth so much?

The Great-minded man is then, as far as greatness is concerned, at the summit, but in respect of propriety he is in the mean, because he estimates himself at his real value (the other characters respectively are in excess and defect). Since then he justly estimates himself at a high, or rather at the highest possible rate, his character will have respect specially to one thing. This term "rate" has reference of course to external goods, and of these we should assume that to be the greatest which we attribute to the gods, and which is the special object of desire to those who are in power, and which is the prize proposed to the noblest actions; and Honour answers to these descriptions, being the greatest of external goods. So the Great-minded man bears himself as he ought in respect of honour and dishonour. In fact, without need of words, the Great-minded plainly have honour for their object-matter; since honour is what the great consider themselves specially worthy of and according to a certain rate.

The Small-minded man is deficient, both as regards himself, and also as regards the estimation of the Great-minded; while the Vain man is in excess as regards himself, but does not get beyond the Great-minded man. Now the Great-minded man, being by the hypothesis worthy of the great things, must be of the highest excellence, since the better a man is the more is he worth, and he who is best is worth the most. It follows then, that to be truly Great-

minded a man must be good, and whatever is great in each virtue would seem to belong to the Great-minded. It would no way correspond with the character of the Great-minded to flee spreading his hands all abroad; nor to injure any one; for with what object in view will he do what is base who holds all things lightly? In short, if one were to go into particulars, the Great-minded man would show quite ludicrously, unless he were a good man; he would not be in fact deserving of honour if he were a bad man, honour being the prize of virtue, and given to the good.

This virtue, then, of Great-mindedness seems to be a kind of ornament of all the other virtues, in that it makes them better, and cannot be without them, and for this reason it is a hard matter to be really and truly Great-minded; for it cannot be without thorough goodness and nobleness of character.

Honour then, and dishonour, are specially the object-matter of the Great-minded man; and at such as is great, and given by good men, he will be pleased moderately, as getting his own or perhaps somewhat less, for no honour can be quite adequate to perfect virtue; but still he will accept this, because they have nothing higher to give him. But such as is given by ordinary people and on trifling grounds he will entirely despise, because these do not come up to his deserts; and dishonour likewise, because in his case there cannot be just ground for it.

Now though, as I have said, honour is specially the object-matter of the Great-minded man, I do not mean but that likewise in respect of wealth and power, and good or bad fortune of every kind, he will bear himself with moderation, fall out how they may, and neither in prosperity will he be overjoyed, nor in adversity will he be

unduly pained. For not even in respect of honour does he so bear himself; and yet it is the greatest of all such objects, since it is the cause of power and wealth being choiceworthy, for certainly they who have them desire to receive honour through them. So to whom honour even is a small thing, to him will all other things also be so; and this is why such men are thought to be supercilious.

It seems too, that pieces of good fortune contribute to form this character of Great-mindedness; I mean, the nobly born, or men of influence, or the wealthy, are considered to be entitled to honour, for they are in a position of eminence, and whatever is eminent in anything good is held in greater honour; and this is why such circumstances dispose men rather to Great-mindedness, because they receive honour at the hands of some men.

Now really and truly the good man alone is entitled to honour; only if a man unites in himself goodness with these external advantages, he is thought to be more entitled to honour; but they who have them, without also having virtue, are not justified in their high estimate of themselves, nor are they rightly denominated Great-minded; since perfect virtue is one of the indispensable conditions to such a character.

Further, such men become supercilious and insolent, it not being easy to bear prosperity well without goodness; and not being able to bear it, and possessed with an idea of their own superiority to others, they despise them, and do just whatever their fancy prompts; for they mimic the Great-minded man, though they are not like him, and they do this in such points as they can, so without doing the actions which can only flow from real goodness, they despise others. Whereas the Great-minded man despises

on good grounds (for he forms his opinions truly), but the mass of men do it at random.

Moreover, he is not a man to incur little risks, nor does he court danger, because there are but few things he has a value for; but he will incur great dangers, and when he does venture, he is prodigal of his life, as knowing that there are terms on which it is not worth his while to live. He is the kind of man to do kindnesses, but he is ashamed to receive them; the former putting a man in the position of superiority, the latter in that of inferiority; accordingly he will greatly overpay any kindness done to him, because the original actor will thus be laid under obligation, and be in the position of the party benefited. Such men seem likewise to remember those they have done kindnesses to, but not those from whom they have received them; because he who has received is inferior to him who has done the kindness, and our friend wishes to be superior; accordingly he is pleased to hear of his own kind acts, but not of those done to himself (and this is why, in Homer, Thetis does not mention to Jupiter the kindnesses she had done him, nor did the Lacedæmonians to the Athenians, but only the benefits they had received).

Further, it is characteristic of the Great-minded man to ask favours not at all, or very reluctantly, but to do a service very readily; and to bear himself loftily towards the great or fortunate, but towards people of middle station affably; because to be above the former is difficult, and so a grand thing, but to be above the latter is easy; and to be high and mighty towards the former is not ignoble, but to do it towards those of humble station would be low and vulgar; it would be like showing strength against the weak.

And again, not to put himself in the way of honour, nor

to go where others are the chief men; and to be remiss and dilatory, except in the case of some great honour or work; and to be concerned in few things, and those great and famous. It is a property of him also to be open, both in his dislikes and his likings, because concealment is a consequent of fear. Likewise to be careful for reality rather than appearance, and talk and act openly (for his contempt for others makes him a bold man, for which same reason he is apt to speak the truth, except where the principle of Dissimulation (reserve) comes in), but to be reserved towards the generality of men.

And to be unable to live with reference to any other but a friend; because doing so is servile, as may be seen, in that all flatterers are low, and the low are flatterers. Neither is his admiration easily excited, because nothing is great in his eyes; nor does he bear malice, since remembering anything, and specially wrongs, is no part of Great-mindedness, but rather overlooking them; nor does he talk of other men, in fact, he will not speak either of himself or of any other; he neither cares to be praised himself, nor to have others blamed; nor again does he praise freely, and for this reason he is not apt to speak ill even of his enemies, except he means to give offence.

And he is by no means apt to make laments or requests about things which are inevitable or trivial; because to be thus disposed with respect to these things is consequent only upon real anxiety about them. Again, he is the kind of man to acquire what is beautiful and unproductive, rather than what is productive and profitable; this being rather the part of a man who is sufficient to himself.

Also slow motion, deep-toned voice, and deliberate style of speech are thought to be characteristic of the Great-minded man; for he who is excited about few things is not

likely to be in a hurry, nor he who esteems nothing great to be very intent; and high tones and quickness are the result of these.[1]

CHAPTER V.

OF THE EXTREMES.

THIS, then, is my idea of the Great-minded man; and he who is in the defect is a Small-minded man, he who is in the excess a Vain man. However, as we observed in respect of the last character we discussed, these extremes are not thought to be vicious exactly, but only mistaken, for they do no harm.

The Small-minded man, for instance, being really worthy of good, deprives himself of his deserts, and seems to have somewhat faulty, from not having a sufficiently high estimate of his own desert—in fact, from self-ignorance, because but for this he would have grasped after what he really is entitled to, and that is good. Still such characters are not thought to be foolish, but rather laggards. But the having such an opinion of themselves seems to have a deteriorating effect on the character, because in all cases men's aims are regulated by their supposed desert, and thus these men, under a notion of their own want of desert, stand aloof from honourable actions and courses, and similarly from external goods.

But the Vain are foolish and self-ignorant, and that palpably; because they attempt honourable things as though they were worthy, and then they are detected. They also

[1] The minute insight shown in this fine picture of the Great-minded Man has led to the conjecture that it was a study from the life. Doubtless it was, but probably not from one individual.—[ED.]

set themselves off by dress, and carriage, and such like things, and desire that their good circumstances may be seen, and they talk of them, under the notion of receiving honour thereby. Small-mindedness is opposed to Great-mindedness rather than Vanity, because it is more commonly met with, and is worse.[1]

CHAPTER VI.

OF LOVE OF HONOUR.

WELL, the virtue of Great-mindedness has for its object great Honour, as we have said, and there seems to be a virtue having Honour also for its object (as we stated in the former book), which may seem to bear to Great-mindedness the same relation that Liberality does to Magnificence—that is, both these virtues stand aloof from what is great, but dispose us as we ought to be disposed towards moderate and small matters. Further, as in giving and receiving of wealth there is a mean state, an excess, and a defect, so likewise in grasping after Honour there is the more or less than is right, and also the doing so from right sources and in right manner.

For we blame the lover of Honour as aiming at Honour more than he ought, and from wrong sources, and him who is destitute of a love of Honour, as not choosing to be honoured even for what is noble. Sometimes again we praise the love of Honour as manly, and having a love for what is noble, and him who has no love for it as being

[1] It is not easy to reconcile this remark with the conclusions of Chap. ix.; or to doubt that Vanity was a much more prominent vice among the Greeks than Small-mindedness.—[ED.]

moderate and modest (as we noticed also in the former discussion of these virtues).

It is clear then that since Lover of so and so is a term capable of several meanings, we do not always denote the same quality by the term "Lover of Honour"; but when we use it as a term of commendation, we denote more than the mass of men are; when for blame, more than a man should be.

And the mean state having no proper name, the extremes seem to dispute for it as unoccupied ground; but of course where there is excess and defect there must be also the mean. And in point of fact men do grasp at Honour more than they should, and less, and sometimes just as they ought. For instance, this state is praised, being a mean state in regard of Honour, but without any appropriate name. Compared with what is called Ambition, it shows like a want of love for Honour; and compared with this it shows like Ambition; or compared with both, like both faults. Nor is this a singular case among the virtues. Here the extreme characters appear to be opposed, because the mean one has no name appropriated to it.

CHAPTER VII.

OF GENTLENESS.

GENTLENESS is a mean state, having for its object-matter Anger; and as the character in the mean has no name, and we may almost say the same of the extremes, we give the name of Gentleness (leaning rather to the defect, which has no name either) to the character in the mean.

The excess may be called an over-aptness to anger; for

the passion is Anger, and the producing causes many and various. Now he who is angry at what, and with whom, he ought, and further, in right manner and time, and for proper length of time, is praised, so this man will be Gentle, since Gentleness is praised. For the notion represented by the term Gentle is the being imperturbable, and not being led away by passion, but being angry in that manner, and at those things, and for that length of time, which Reason may direct. This character, however, is thought to err rather on the side of defect, inasmuch as he is not apt to take revenge, but rather to make allowances and forgive. And the defect, call it Angerlessness or what you will, is blamed; I mean they who are not angry at things at which they ought to be angry are thought to be foolish, and they who are angry not in right manner, nor in right time, nor with those with whom they ought; for a man who labours under this defect is thought to have no sensibility, nor to be pained, and to have no tendency to avenge himself, inasmuch as he feels no anger. Now to bear with scurrility in one's own person, and patiently see one's own friends suffer it, is a slavish thing.

As for the excess, it occurs in all forms; men are angry with those with whom, and at things with which, they ought not to be, and too hastily, and for too great a length of time. I do not mean, however, that these are combined in any one person; that would in fact be impossible, because the evil destroys itself, and if it is developed in its full force, it becomes unbearable.

Now those whom we term the Passionate are soon angry, and with people, and at things with and at which they ought not, and in an excessive degree, but they soon cool again, which is the best point about them. And this results from their not repressing their anger, but repaying

their enemies (in that they show their feelings by reason of their vehemence), and then they have done with it.

The Choleric again are excessively vehement, and are angry at everything, and on every occasion, whence comes their Greek name, signifying that their choler lies near the surface.

The Bitter-tempered are hard to reconcile, and keep their anger for a long while, because they repress the feeling; but when they have revenged themselves, then comes a lull, for the vengeance destroys their anger by producing pleasure in lieu of pain. But if this does not happen, they keep the weight on their minds, because, as it does not show itself, no one attempts to reason it away, and digesting anger in one's self takes time. Such men are very great nuisances to themselves and to their best friends.

Again, we call those Cross-grained who are angry at wrong objects, and in excessive degree, and for too long a time, and who are not appeased without vengeance, or at least punishing the offender.

To Gentleness we oppose the excess rather than the defect, because it is of more common occurrence, for human nature is more disposed to take than to forego revenge. And the Cross-grained are worse to live with [than they who are too phlegmatic].

Now from what has been here said, that is also plain which was said before. I mean it is no easy matter to define how, and with what persons, and at what kind of things, and how long one ought to be angry, and up to what point a person is right or is wrong. For he that transgresses the strict rule only a little, whether on the side of too much or too little, is not blamed. Sometimes we praise those who are deficient in the feeling, and call them Gentle; sometimes we call the irritable Spirited, as being

well qualified for government. So it is not easy to lay down, in so many words, for what degree or kind of transgression a man is blamable, because the decision is in particulars, and rests therefore with the Moral Sense. Thus much, however, is plain, that the mean state is praiseworthy, in virtue of which we are angry with those with whom, and at those things with which, we ought to be angry, and in right manner, and so on; while the excesses and defects are blamable, slightly so if only slight, more so if greater, and when considerable very blamable.

It is clear, therefore, that the mean state is what we are to hold to.

This then is to be taken as our account of the various moral states which have Anger for their object-matter.

CHAPTER VIII.

OF FRIENDLINESS.

NEXT, as regards social intercourse, and interchange of words and acts, some men are thought to be Over-Complaisant who, with a view solely to giving pleasure, agree to everything, and never oppose, but think their line is to give no pain to those they are thrown amongst. They, on the other hand, are called Cross and Contentious who take exactly the contrary line to these, and oppose in everything, and have no care at all whether they give pain or not.

Now it is quite clear of course that the states I have named are blamable, and that the mean between them is praiseworthy, in virtue of which a man will let pass what he ought as he ought, and also will object in like manner. However, this state has no name appropriated, but it is

most like Friendship, since the man who exhibits it is just the kind of man whom we would call the amiable friend, with the addition of strong, earnest affection; but then this is the very point in which it differs from Friendship, that it is quite independent of any feeling or strong affection for those among whom the man mixes. I mean that he takes everything as he ought, not from any feeling of love or hatred, but simply because his natural disposition leads him to do so. He will do it alike to those whom he does know, and those whom he does not, and those with whom he is intimate, and those with whom he is not; only in each case as propriety requires, because it is not fitting to care alike for intimates and strangers, nor again to pain them alike.

It has been stated in a general way that his social intercourse will be regulated by propriety, and his aim will be to avoid giving pain and to contribute to pleasure, but with a constant reference to what is noble and expedient.

His proper object-matter seems to be the pleasures and pains which arise out of social intercourse; but whenever it is not honourable, or even hurtful to him to contribute to pleasure, in these instances he will run counter and prefer to give pain.

Or if the things in question involve unseemliness to the doer, and this not inconsiderable, or any harm, whereas his opposition will cause some little pain, here he will not agree, but will run counter.

Again, he will regulate differently his intercourse with great men and with ordinary men, and with all people according to the knowledge he has of them; and in like manner, taking in any other differences which may exist, giving to each his due, and in itself preferring to give pleasure, and cautious not to give pain, but still guided by

the results, I mean, what is noble and expedient, according as they preponderate.

Again, he will inflict trifling pain with a view to consequent pleasure.

Well, the man bearing the mean character is pretty well such as I have described him, but he has no name appropriated to him. Of those who try to give pleasure the man who simply and disinterestedly tries to be agreeable is called Over-Complaisant; he who does it with a view to secure some profit in the way of wealth, or those things which wealth may procure, is a Flatterer. I have said before that the man who is "always non-content" is Cross and Contentious. Here the extremes have the appearance of being opposed to one another, because the mean has no appropriated name.

CHAPTER IX.

OF TRUTHFULNESS.

THE mean state which steers clear of Exaggeration has pretty much the same object-matter as the last we described, and likewise has no name appropriated to it. Still it may be as well to go over these states, because, in the first place, by a particular discussion of each, we shall be better acquainted with the general subject of moral character, and next we shall be the more convinced that the virtues are mean states, by seeing that this is universally the case.

In respect then of living in society, those who carry on this intercourse with a view to pleasure and pain have been

already spoken of. We will now go on to speak of those who are True and False alike in their words and deeds, and in the claims which they advance.

Now the Exaggerator is thought to have a tendency to lay claim to things reflecting credit on him, both when they do not belong to him at all, and also in greater degree than that in which they really do; whereas the Dissembler,[1] on the contrary, denies those which really belong to him, or else depreciates them, while the mean character, being a Plain matter-of-fact person, is Truthful in life and word, admitting the existence of what does really belong to him, and making it neither greater nor less than the truth.

It is possible of course to take any of these lines either with or without some further view; but in general men speak, and act, and live, each according to his particular character and disposition, unless indeed a man is acting from any special motive.

Now since falsehood is in itself low and blamable, while truth is noble and praiseworthy, it follows that the Truthful man (who is also in the mean) is praiseworthy, and the two who depart from strict truth are both blamable, but especially the Exaggerator.

We will now speak of each, and first of the Truthful man. I call him Truthful because we are not now meaning the man who is true in his agreements, nor in such matters as amount to justice or injustice (this would come within the province of a different virtue); but in such as do not involve any such serious difference as this, the man we are describing is true in life and word, simply because he is in a certain moral state.

And he that is such must be judged to be a good man, for he that has a love for Truth as such, and is guided by it

[1] *Lit.*, ironical man.

in matters indifferent, will be so likewise even more in such as are not indifferent, for surely he will have a dread of falsehood as base, since he shunned it even in itself; and he that is of such a character is praiseworthy, yet he leans rather to that which is below the truth, this having an appearance of being in better taste, because exaggerations are so hateful.

As for the man who lays claim to things above what really belongs to him *without* any special motive, he is like a base man, because he would not otherwise have taken pleasure in falsehood; but he shows as a fool rather than as a knave. But if a man does this *with* a special motive, suppose for honour or glory, as the Braggart does, then he is not so very blameworthy; but if, directly or indirectly, for pecuniary considerations, he is more unseemly.

Now the Braggart is such, not by his power but by his purpose—that is to say, in virtue of his moral state, and because he is a man of a certain kind, just as there are liars who take pleasure in falsehood for its own sake, while others lie from a desire of glory or gain. They who exaggerate with a view to glory pretend to such qualities as are followed by praise or highest congratulation; they who do it with a view to gain assume those which their neighbours can avail themselves of, and the absence of which can be concealed, as a man's being a skilful soothsayer or physician; and accordingly most men pretend to such things, and exaggerate in this direction, because the faults I have mentioned are in them.

The Dissemblers, who depreciate their own qualities, have the appearance of being more refined in their characters, because they are not thought to speak with a view to gain, but to avoid grandeur. One very common trait in such characters is their disclaiming qualities currently admired,

as Socrates used to do. There are people who lay claim falsely to small things, and things the falsity of their pretensions to which is obvious: these are called Shams, and are very despicable.

This very Dissimulation sometimes shows like Exaggeration. Take, for instance, the excessive plainness of dress affected by the Lacedæmonians; in fact, both excess and the extreme of deficiency partake of the nature of Exaggeration. But they who practise Dissimulation in moderation, and in cases in which the truth is not very obvious and plain, give an impression of refinement. Here it is the Exaggerator (as being the worse character) who appears to be opposed to the Truthful Man.

CHAPTER X.

OF JOCULARITY.

NEXT, as life has its pauses, and in them admits of pastime combined with Liveliness or Jocularity, it is thought that in this respect also there is a kind of fitting intercourse, and that rules may be prescribed as to the kind of things one should say, and the manner of saying them; and in respect of hearing likewise (and there will be a difference between the saying and hearing such and such things). It is plain that in regard to these things also there will be an excess and defect, and a mean.

Now they who exceed in the ridiculous are judged to be Buffoons and Vulgar, catching at it in any and every way, and at any cost, and aiming rather at raising laughter than at saying what is seemly, or at avoiding to pain the

object of their wit. They, on the other hand, who would not for the world make a joke themselves, and are displeased with such as do, are thought to be Clownish and Morose. But they who are Jocular in good taste are denominated by a Greek term expressing properly ease of movement, because such are thought to be, as one may say, motions of the moral character; and as bodies are judged of by their motions, so too are moral characters.

Now as the ridiculous lies on the surface, and the majority of men take more pleasure than they ought in Jocularity and Jesting, the Buffoons too get this name of Easy Pleasantry, as if refined and gentlemanlike; but that they differ from these, and considerably too, is plain from what has been said.

One quality which belongs to the mean state is Tact. It is characteristic of a man of Tact to say and listen to such things as are fit for a good man and a gentleman to say and listen to; for there are things which are becoming for such a one to say and listen to in the way of Jocularity, and there is a difference between the Jocularity of the gentleman and that of the Vulgarian; and again, between that of the educated and uneducated man. This you may see from a comparison of the Old and New Comedy: in the former, obscene talk made the fun; in the latter, it is rather innuendo: and this is no slight difference *as regards decency.*

Well, then, are we to characterise him who jests well by his saying what is becoming a gentleman, or by his avoiding to pain the object of his wit, or even by his giving him pleasure? or will not such a definition be vague, since different things are hateful and pleasant to different men.

Be this as it may, whatever he says, such things will he also listen to, since it is commonly held that a man will do

what he will bear to hear. This must, however, be limited; a man will not do quite all that he will hear; because jesting is a species of scurrility, and there are some points of scurrility forbidden by law; it may be, certain points of jesting should have been also so forbidden. So then the refined and gentlemanlike man will bear himself thus, as being a law to himself. Such is the mean character, whether denominated the man of Tact, or of Easy Pleasantry.

But the buffoon cannot resist the ridiculous, sparing neither himself nor any one else, so that he can but raise his laugh, saying things of such kind as no man of refinement would say, and some which he would not even tolerate if said by others in his hearing.

The Clownish man is for such intercourse wholly useless, inasmuch as contributing nothing jocose of his own, he is savage with all who do.

Yet some pause and amusement in life are generally judged to be indispensable.

The three mean states which have been described do occur in life, and the object-matter of all is interchange of words and deeds. They differ, in that one of them is concerned with truth, and the other two with the pleasurable; and of these two again, the one is conversant with the jocosities of life, the other with all other points of social intercourse.

CHAPTER XI.

OF SHAME.

To speak of Shame as a Virtue is incorrect, because it is much more like a feeling than a moral state. It is defined, we know, to be a kind of fear of disgrace, and its effects are similar to those of the fear of danger, for they who feel Shame grow red, and they who fear death turn pale. So both are evidently in a way physical, which is thought to be the mark of a feeling, rather than a moral disposition.

Moreover, it is a feeling not suitable to every age, but only to youth. We do think that the young should be Shame-faced, because since they live at the beck and call of passion, they do much that is wrong, and Shame acts on them as a check. In fact, we praise such young men as are Shame-faced, but no one would ever praise an old man for being given to it, inasmuch as we hold that he ought not to do things which cause Shame; for Shame, since it arises at low, bad actions, does not at all belong to the good man, because such ought not to be done at all. Nor does it make any difference to allege that some things are disgraceful really, others only because they are thought so, for neither should be done, so that a man ought not to be in the position of feeling Shame. In truth, to be such a man as to do anything disgraceful is the part of a faulty character. And for a man to be such that he would feel Shame if he should do anything disgraceful, and to think that this constitutes him a good man, is absurd, because Shame is felt at voluntary actions only, and a good man will never voluntarily do what is base.

True it is that Shame may be good on a certain supposition, as "if a man should do such things, he would feel Shame;" but then the Virtues are good in themselves, and not merely in supposed cases. And granted that impudence and the not being ashamed to do what is disgraceful is base, it does not the more follow that it is good for a man to do such things and feel Shame.

Nor is Self-Control properly a Virtue, but a kind of mixed state. However, all about this shall be set forth in a future Book.

BOOK V.

CHAPTER I.

PREFATORY REMARKS. THE DIFFERENT SENSES OF JUSTICE ASCERTAINED FROM THOSE OF INJUSTICE.

Now the points for our inquiry in respect of Justice and Injustice are, what kind of actions are their object-matter, and what kind of a mean state Justice is, and between what points the abstract principle of it—*i.e.*, the Just—is a mean. And our inquiry shall be, if you please, conducted in the same method as we have observed in the foregoing parts of this Treatise.

We see then that all men mean, by the term Justice, a moral disposition such that in consequence of it men have the capacity of doing what is just, and actually do it, and wish it.[1] Similarly also with respect to Injustice, a moral disposition such that in consequence of it men do unjustly, and wish what is unjust. Let us also be content then with these as a ground-work sketched out.

I mention the two because the same does not hold with regard to dispositions whether of mind or body, as with regard to Sciences or Faculties. I mean that whereas it is thought that the same Faculty or Science embraces

[1] Each term is important. To make up the character of Justice men must have the capacity, do the acts, and do them from moral choice.

contraries, a disposition will not. From health, for instance, not the contrary acts are done, but the healthy ones only; for we say a man walks healthily when he walks as the healthy man would.

However, of the two contrary dispositions the one may be frequently known from the other, and oftentimes the dispositions from their subject-matter. If it be seen clearly what a good disposition of body is, then is it also seen what a bad disposition is, and from the things which belong to a good disposition of body the good disposition itself is seen, and *vice versâ*. If, for instance, the good disposition is firmness of flesh, it follows that the bad disposition is flabbiness of flesh; and whatever causes firmness of flesh is connected with the good disposition.

It follows moreover in general[1] that if of two contrary terms the one is used in many senses, so also will the other be; as, for instance, if "the Just," then also "the Unjust." Now Justice and Injustice do seem to be used respectively in many senses, but because the line of demarcation between these is very fine and minute,[2] it commonly escapes notice that they are thus used, and it is not plain and manifest, as where the various significations of terms are widely different; for in these last the difference is really great, as, for instance, the word κλεὶς is used equivocally to denote the bone which is under the neck of animals, and the instrument with which people close doors.

[1] But not always. φιλεῖν, for instance, has two senses, "to love" and "to kiss," μισεῖν (to hate) but one. *Topics*, I., chap. xiii. 5.

[2] *Things* are ὁμώνυμα which have only their name in common, being in themselves different. The ὁμωνυμία is *close* therefore when the difference though real is but slight. There is no English expression for ὁμωνυμία, "equivocal" being applied to a term, and not to its various significates.

Let it be ascertained then in how many senses the term 'Unjust man" is used. Well, he who violates the law, and he who is a grasping man, and the unequal man, are all thought to be Unjust; and so manifestly the Just man will be the man who acts according to law and the equal man. "The Just" then will be the lawful and the equal, and "the Unjust" the unlawful and the unequal.

Well, since the Unjust man is also a grasping man, he will be so of course with respect to good things, but not of every kind, only those which are the subject-matter of good and bad fortune, and which are in themselves always good, but not always to the individual. Yet men pray for and pursue these things. This they should not do, but pray that things which are in the abstract good may be so also to them, and choose what is good for themselves.

But the Unjust man does not always choose actually the greater share for himself, but even sometimes the lesser; as in the case of things which are simply evil. Still, since the less evil is thought to be in a manner a good, and the grasping is after good, therefore even in this case he is thought to be a grasping man—*i.e.*, one who strives for more good than fairly falls to his share. Of course he is also an unequal man, this being an inclusive and common term.

CHAPTER II.

OF JUSTICE IN THAT SENSE IN WHICH IT IS COEXTENSIVE WITH VIRTUE.

We said that the violator of Law is Unjust, and the keeper of the Law Just. Further, it is plain that all Lawful things

are in a manner Just, because by Lawful we understand what have been defined by the legislative power, and each of these we say is Just. The Laws too give directions on all points, aiming either at the common good of all, or that of the best, or that of those in power (determining power in the State by real goodness, or adopting some other such estimate); in one way we mean by Just those things which are apt to produce and preserve happiness and its ingredients for the social community.

Further, the Law commands the doing the deeds not only of the brave man, as not leaving the ranks, nor flying, nor throwing away one's arms; but those also of the perfectly self-mastering man, as abstinence from adultery and wantonness; and those of the gentle man, as refraining from striking others or using abusive language; and in like manner in respect of the other virtues and vices, commanding some things and forbidding others, rightly if it is a good law, in a way somewhat inferior if it is one hastily extemporised.

Now this Justice is in fact perfect Virtue, yet not simply so, but as exercised towards one's neighbour; and for this reason Justice is thought oftentimes to be the best of the Virtues, and

> "neither Hesper nor the Morning-star
> So worthy of our admiration;"

and in a proverbial saying we express the same:

> "All virtue is in Justice comprehended."

And it is in a special sense perfect Virtue, because it is the practice of perfect Virtue. And perfect it is, because he that has it is able to practise his virtue towards his neighbour, and not merely on himself; I mean, there are many

who can practise virtue in the regulation of their own personal conduct who are wholly unable to do it in transactions with their neighbour. And for this reason that saying of Bias is thought to be a good one—

"Rule will show what a man is;"

for he who bears Rule is necessarily in contact with others, and in a community. And for this same reason Justice alone of all the Virtues is thought to be a good to others, because it has immediate relation to some other person, inasmuch as the Just man does what is advantageous either to his ruler or fellow-subject. Now he is the basest of men who practises vice not only in his own person,[1] but towards his friends also; but he the best who practises virtue not merely in his own person, but towards his neighbour, for this is a matter of some difficulty.

However, Justice in this sense is not a part of Virtue, but is coextensive with Virtue; nor is the Injustice which answers to it a part of Vice, but coextensive with Vice. But wherein Justice in this sense differs from Virtue appears from what has been said; it is the same really, but the point of view is not the same—in so far as it has respect to one's neighbour it is Justice, in so far as it is such and such a moral state it is simply Virtue.

[1] A man habitually drunk in private is viewed by our law as confining his vice to himself, and the law therefore does not attempt to touch him; a religious hermit may be viewed as one who confines his virtue to his own person.

CHAPTER III.

THAT THERE IS PARTICULAR INJUSTICE, AND THEREFORE PARTICULAR JUSTICE.

BUT the object of our inquiry is Justice, in the sense in which it is a part of Virtue (for there is such a thing, as we commonly say), and likewise with respect to particular Injustice. And of the existence of this last the following consideration is a proof. There are many vices by practising which a man acts unjustly of course, but does not grasp at more than his share of good; if, for instance, by reason of cowardice he throws away his shield, or by reason of ill-temper he uses abusive language, or by reason of stinginess does not give a friend pecuniary assistance; but whenever he does a grasping action, it is often in the way of none of these vices, certainly not in all of them, still in the way of some vice or other (for we blame him), and in the way of Injustice. There is then some kind of Injustice distinct from that coextensive with Vice, and related to it as a part to a whole, and some "Unjust," related to that which is coextensive with violation of the law, as a part to a whole.

Again, suppose one man seduces a man's wife with a view to gain, and actually gets some advantage by it,[1] and another does the same from impulse of lust, at an expense of money and damage; this latter will be thought to be rather destitute of self-mastery than a grasping man, and the former Unjust, but not destitute of self-mastery; now why? plainly because of his gaining.

Again, all other acts of Injustice we refer to some

[1] See the account of Sejanus and Livia. Tac., *Annal.* iv. 3.

particular depravity—as if a man commits adultery, to abandonment to his passions; if he deserts his comrade, to cowardice; if he strikes another, to anger; but if he gains by the act, to no other vice than to Injustice.

Thus it is clear that there is a kind of Injustice different from and besides that which includes all Vice, having the same name because the definition is in the same genus; for both have their force in dealings with others, but the one acts upon honour, or wealth, or safety, or by whatever name we can include all these things, and is actuated by pleasure attendant on gain, while the other acts upon all things which constitute the sphere of the good man's action.

CHAPTER IV.

THE JUSTICE COEXTENSIVE WITH VIRTUE IS DISMISSED FROM FURTHER CONSIDERATION.

Now that there is more than one kind of Justice, and that there is one which is distinct from, and besides that which is coextensive with, Virtue, is plain: we must next ascertain what it is, and what are its characteristics.

Well, the Unjust has been divided into the unlawful and the unequal, and the Just accordingly into the lawful and the equal; the afore-mentioned Injustice is in the way of the unlawful. And as the unequal and the more[1] are not

[1] Cardwell's text, which here gives *παράνομον* (unlawful), yields a much easier and more natural sense. All Injustice violates law, but only the particular kinds violate equality; and therefore

the unlawful : the unequal : : universal Injustice : the particular—*i.e.*, as whole to part.

There is a reading which also alters the words within the parenthesis, but this hardly affects the gist of the passage.

the same, but differing as part to whole (because all more is unequal, but not all unequal more), so the Unjust and the Injustice we are now in search of are not the same with, but other than, those before-mentioned, the one being the parts, the other the whole; for this particular Injustice is a part of the Injustice coextensive with Vice, and likewise this Justice, of the Justice coextensive with Virtue. So that what we have now to speak of is the particular Justice and Injustice, and likewise the particular Just and Unjust.

Here then let us dismiss any further consideration of the Justice and Injustice ranking as coextensive with Virtue, the one being the practice towards others of Virtue in all its bearings, the latter of Vice. It is clear too that we must separate off the Just and the Unjust involved in these; because one may pretty well say that most lawful things are those which naturally result in action from Virtue in its fullest sense, because the law enjoins the living in accordance with each Virtue, and forbids living in accordance with each Vice. And the producing causes of Virtue in all its bearings are those enactments which have been made respecting education for society.

By the way, as to individual education, in respect of which a man is simply good, without reference to others, whether it is the province of Politics or some other science, we must determine at a future time; for it may be, it is not the same thing to be a good man and a good citizen in every case.[1]

[1] There are two reasons why the characters are not necessarily coincident. He is a good citizen who does his best to carry out the πολιτεία under which he lives, but this may be faulty, so therefore *pro tanto* is he.

Again, it is sufficient, so far as the Community is concerned, that he does the *facts* of a good man; but for the perfection of his own

CHAPTER V.

THE DIVISION OF PARTICULAR JUSTICE INTO TWO SPECIES.

Now of the Particular Justice, and the Just involved in it, one species is that which is concerned in the distributions of honour or wealth, or such other things as are to be shared among the members of the social community (because in these one man as compared with another may have either an equal or an unequal share), and the other is that which is Corrective in the various transactions between man and man.

And of this latter there are two parts; because of transactions, some are voluntary, and some involuntary; voluntary, such as follow: selling, buying, use, bail, borrowing, deposit, hiring; and this class is called voluntary because the origination of these transactions is voluntary.

The involuntary again are either such as affect secrecy, as theft, adultery, poisoning, pimping, kidnapping of slaves, assassination, false witness; or accompanied with open violence, as insult, bonds, death, plundering, maiming, foul language, slanderous abuse.

individual character he must do them virtuously. A man may move rightly in his social orbit, without revolving rightly on his own axis.

The question is debated in the *Politics*, iii. 2. Compare also the distinction between the brave man and good soldier (*supra*, Book III. chap. xii.), and also Bp. Butler's first Sermon.

CHAPTER VI.

THAT DISTRIBUTIVE JUSTICE IMPLIES FOUR PROPORTIONAL TERMS.

WELL, the unjust man we have said is unequal, and the abstract "Unjust" unequal; further, it is plain that there is some mean of the unequal—that is to say, the equal or exact half (because in whatever action there is the greater and the less there is also the equal, *i.e.*, the exact half). If then the Unjust is unequal, the Just is equal, which all must allow without further proof; and as the equal is a mean, the Just must be also a mean. Now the equal implies two terms at least; it follows then that the Just is both a mean and equal, and these to certain persons; and in so far as it is a mean, between certain things (that is, the greater and the less), and so far as it is equal between two, and in so far as it is just, it is so to certain persons. The Just then must imply four terms at least, for those[1] to which it is just are two, and the terms representing the things are two.

And there will be the same equality between the terms representing the persons, as between those representing the things; because as the latter are to one another, so are the former. For if the persons are not equal, they must not have equal shares; in fact, this is the very source of all the quarrelling and wrangling in the world, when either they who are equal have and get awarded to them things not equal, or being not equal, those things which are equal. Again, the necessity of this equality of ratios is shown by the common phrase "according to rate," for all agree that the Just in distributions

[1] Terms used for persons.

ought to be according to some rate; but what that is to be, all do not agree, but the democrats are for freedom,[1] oligarchs for wealth, others for nobleness of birth, and the aristocratic party for virtue.

The Just, then, is a certain proportionable thing. For proportion does not apply merely to number in the abstract,[2] but to number generally, since it is equality of ratios, and implies four terms at least (that this is the case in what may be called discrete proportion is plain and obvious, but it is true also in continual proportion, for this uses the one term as two, and mentions it twice; thus A : B : C may be expressed A : B : : B : C. In the first, B is named twice; and so if, as in the second, B is actually written twice, the proportionals will be four); and the Just likewise implies four terms at the least, and the ratio between the two pair of terms is the same, because the persons and the things are divided similarly. It will stand then thus, A : B : : C : D, and then alternando A : C : : B : D, and then (supposing C and D to represent the things) A + C : B + D : : A : B. The distribution in fact consisting in putting together these terms thus; and if they are put together so as to preserve this same ratio, the distribution puts them together justly.[3]

[1] *I.e.*, free *birth*—all persons not born in slavery to have an equal share in power.—[ED.]

[2] By *μοναδικὸς ἀριθμὸς* is meant numbers themselves, 4, 20, 50, etc., by *ὅλως ἀριθμὸς* these numbers exemplified, 4 horses, 20 sheep, etc.

[3] The profits of a mercantile transaction (say £1000) are to be divided between A and B in the ratio of 2 to 3 (which is the real point to be settled); then,

A : B : : 400 : 600.

A : 400 : : B : 600 (alternando, and assuming a value for A and B, so as to make them commensurable with the respective sums).

A + 400 : B + 600 : : A : B. This represents the actual distribution, its fairness depending entirely on that of the first proportion.

So then the joining together of the first and third and second and fourth proportionals is the Just in the distribution, and this Just is the mean relatively to that which violates the proportionate, for the proportionate is a mean, and the Just is proportionate. Now mathematicians call this kind of proportion geometrical; for in geometrical proportion the whole is to the whole as each part to each part Furthermore, this proportion is not continual, because the person and thing do not make up one term.

The Just then is this proportionate, and the Unjust that which violates the proportionate; and so there comes to be the greater and the less, which in fact is the case in actual transactions, because he who acts unjustly has the greater share, and he who is treated unjustly has the less of what is good; but in the case of what is bad this is reversed, for the less evil compared with the greater comes to be reckoned for good, because the less evil is more choiceworthy than the greater, and what is choiceworthy is good, and the more so the greater good.

This then is the one species of the Just.

CHAPTER VII.

OF CORRECTIVE JUSTICE.

AND the remaining one is the Corrective, which arises in voluntary as well as involuntary transactions. Now this Just has a different form from the aforementioned, for that which is concerned in distribution of common property is always according to the aforementioned proportion; I mean that if the division is made out of common property, the

shares will bear the same proportion to one another as the original contributions did, and the Unjust, which is opposite to this Just, is that which violates the proportionate.

But the Just which arises in transactions between men is an equal in a certain sense, and the Unjust an unequal, only not in the way of that proportion, but of arithmetical.[1] Because it makes no difference whether a robbery, for instance, is committed by a good man on a bad, or by a bad man on a good, nor whether a good or a bad man has committed adultery, the law looks only to the difference created by the injury, and treats the men as previously equal, where the one does and the other suffers injury, or the one has done and the other suffered harm. And so this Unjust, being unequal, the judge endeavours to reduce to equality again, because really when the one party has been wounded and the other has struck him, or the one kills and the other dies, the suffering and the doing are divided into unequal shares; well, the judge tries to restore equality by penalty, thereby taking from the gain.

For these terms gain and loss are applied to these cases, though perhaps the term in some particular instance may not be strictly proper, as gain, for instance, to the man who has given a blow, and loss to him who has received it; still, when the suffering has been estimated, the one is called loss and the other gain.

And so the equal is a mean between the more and the less, which represent gain and loss in contrary ways (I mean that the more of good and the less of evil is gain, the less of good and the more of evil is loss); between which the equal was stated to be a mean, which equal we say is Just: and so the Corrective Just must be the mean between loss

[1] *I.e.*, where the ratio is that of equality, thus 2 : 2 :: 40 : 40.

and gain. And this is the reason why, upon a dispute arising, men have recourse to the judge. Going to the judge is in fact going to the Just, for the judge is meant to be the personification of the Just.[1] And men seek a judge as one in the mean, which is expressed in a name given by some to judges, μεσίδιοι, or middle-men, under the notion that if they can hit on the mean they shall hit on the Just. The Just is then surely a mean, since the judge is also.

So it is the office of a judge to make things equal, and the line, as it were, having been unequally divided, he takes from the greater part that by which it exceeds the half, and adds this on to the less. And when the whole is divided into two exactly equal portions, then men say they have their own, when they have gotten the equal; and the equal is a mean between the greater and the less, according to arithmetical equality.

This, by the way, accounts for the etymology of the term by which we in Greek express the ideas of Just and Judge: δίκαιον (justice) quasi δίχαιον, that is, "in two parts," and δικάστης (judge) quasi διχάστης, he who divides into two parts.[2] For when from one of two equal magnitudes somewhat has been taken and added to the other, this latter exceeds the former by twice that portion. If it had been merely taken from the former, and not added to the latter, then the latter would have exceeded the former only by that one portion; but in the other case, the greater exceeds the mean by one, and the mean exceeds also by one that magnitude from which the portion was taken. By this illustration, then, we obtain a rule to determine what one

[1] Her Majesty's "Justices."

[2] The etymology is wrong. The word δίκη, justice, comes from the same root as in*dic*ate, and refers to *showing* or *declaring*, not dividing. Our "judge" comes through ju*dex* from the same root.—[ED.]

ought to take from him who has the greater, and what to add to him who has the less. The excess of the mean over the less must be added to the less, and the excess of the greater over the mean be taken from the greater.

Thus let there be three straight lines equal to one another. From one of them cut off a portion, and add as much to another of them. The whole line thus made will exceed the remainder of the first-named line by twice the portion added, and will exceed the untouched line by that portion.[1] And these terms loss and gain are derived from voluntary exchange; that is to say, the having more than what was one's own is called gaining, and the having less than one's original stock is called losing. For instance, in buying or selling, or any other transactions which are guaranteed by law; but when the result is neither more nor less, but exactly the same as there was originally,[2] people say they have their own, and neither lose nor gain.

So then the Just we have been speaking of is a mean between loss and gain arising in voluntary transactions that is, it is the having the same after the transaction as one had before it took place.

[1] I have omitted the next three lines, as they seem to be out of place here, and to occur much more naturally afterwards. It not being likely that they were originally twice written, one is perhaps at liberty to give Aristotle the benefit of the doubt, and conclude that he put them where they made the best sense.

[2] This I believe to be the meaning of the passage, but do not pretend to be able to get it out of the words.

CHAPTER VIII.

OF THE WAY IN WHICH RECIPROCATION ENTERS INTO JUSTICE.

THERE are people who have a notion that Reciprocation is simply just, as the Pythagoreans said, for they defined the Just simply and without qualification as "That which reciprocates with another." But this simple Reciprocation will not fit on either to the Distributive Just or the Corrective (and yet this is the interpretation they put on the Rhadamanthian rule of Just—

> "If a man should suffer what he hath done, then there would be straightforward justice"),

for in many cases differences arise; as, for instance, suppose one in authority has struck a man, he is not to be struck in turn; or if a man has struck one in authority, he must not only be struck, but punished also.[1] And again, the voluntariness or involuntariness of actions makes a great difference.

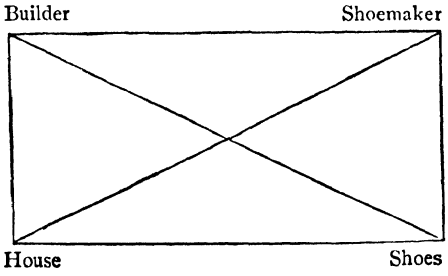
But in dealings of exchange such a principle of Justice as this Reciprocation forms the bond of union; but then it must be Reciprocation according to proportion, and not exact equality, because by proportionate reciprocity of

[1] This is apparently contrary to what was said before, but not really so. Aristotle does not mean that the man in authority struck wrongfully, but he takes the extreme case of simple Reciprocation; and in the second case, the man who strikes one in authority commits two offences, one against the person (and so far they are equal), and another against the office.

action the social community is held together. For either Reciprocation of evil is meant, and where this be not allowed, it is thought to be a mark of the servile condition; or else Reciprocation of good, and if this be not effected, then there is no admission to participation, which is the very bond of their union.

And this is the moral of placing the shrine of the Graces (χάριτες) in the public streets, to impress the notion that there may be requital, this being peculiar to grace, because a man ought to requite with a good turn the man who has done him a grace, and then to become himself the originator of another grace[1] by doing him a favour.

Now the acts of mutual giving in due proportion may be represented by the diameters of a parallelogram, at the four angles of which the parties and their wares are so placed that the side connecting the parties be opposite to that connecting the wares, and each party be connected by one side with his own ware, as in the accompanying diagram.



[1] χάρις denotes, first, a kindly feeling issuing in a gratuitous act of kindness; secondly, the effect of this act of kindness on a generous mind; thirdly, this effect issuing in a requital of the kindness.

So Chase; according to Jelf, however, "the number of the Graces represents the threefold sense of χάρις—the feeling of kindness, the kind action, the kind feeling in return; while their being interwoven

The builder is to receive from the shoemaker of his ware, and to give him of his own. If then there be first proportionate equality, and *then* the Reciprocation takes place, there will be the just result which we are speaking of. If not, there is not the equal, nor will the connection stand, for there is no reason why the ware of the one may not be better than that of the other, and therefore before the exchange is made they must have been equalised. And this is so also in the other arts, for they would have been destroyed entirely if there were not a correspondence in point of quantity and quality between the producer and the consumer. For, we must remember, no dealing arises between two of the same kind—two physicians, for instance; but say between a physician and agriculturist, or, to state it generally, between those who are different and not equal, but these of course must have been equalised before the exchange can take place.

It is therefore indispensable that all things which can be exchanged should be capable of comparison, and for this purpose money has come in, and comes to be a kind of medium, for it measures all things, and so likewise the excess and defect. For instance, how many shoes are equal to a house or a given quantity of food. As then the builder to the shoemaker, so many shoes must be to the house (or food, if instead of a builder an agriculturist be the exchanging party), for unless there is this proportion, there cannot be exchange or dealing, and this proportion cannot be unless the terms are in some way equal; hence the need, as was stated above, of some one measure of all things.

represents the inseparable connection which does, or at least ought to, exist between the three." With Aristotle the division certainly appears to be (1) a Favour done by A to B; (2) Requital of this by B; (3) Origination of a new Favour by B.—[ED.]

Now this is really and truly the Demand for them, which is the common bond of all such dealings. For if the parties were not in want at all, or not similarly of one another's wares, there would either not be any exchange, or at least not the same.

And money has come to be, by general agreement, a representative of Demand, and the account of its Greek name (*νόμισμα*) is this, that it is what it is not naturally, but by custom or law (*νόμος*), and it rests with us to change its value or make it wholly useless.

Very well then, there will be Reciprocation when the terms have been equalised, so as to stand in this proportion—Agriculturist : Shoemaker : : wares of Shoemaker : wares of Agriculturist; but you must not bring them to this form of proportion at the time of exchange, otherwise the one extremity will combine both advantages; but when they have exactly their own, then they are equal and have dealings, because the same equality can come to be in their case.[1] Let A represent an agriculturist, C food, B a shoemaker, D his wares equalised with A's. Now Reciprocation will be practicable, which if it were not there would have been no dealing.[2]

Now that what connects men in such transactions is Demand, as being one thing, is shown by the fact that when either one does not want the other, or neither want one another, they do not exchange at all. Whereas they do

[1] "At the time of exchange"—*i.e.*, *after* the money price of the articles has been fixed and equality thus established. For due advantage has thus been given to the superior wares. Both have been computed in terms of money, and to establish the parallelogram of reciprocity *in these terms*, substituting "money" for "wares" would give the Agriculturist a double advantage.—[ED.]

[2] Reciprocation is practicable when A gets for C what B gets for an amount of his wares equal in value to C.—[ED.]

when one wants what the other man has, wine for instance, giving in return corn for exportation.

And further, money is a kind of security to us in respect of exchange at some future time (supposing that one wants nothing now, that we shall have it when we do), the theory of money being that whenever one brings it one can receive commodities in exchange. Of course this too is liable to depreciation, for it is not always worth the same; but still it is of a more permanent nature than the commodities it represents. And this is the reason why all things should have a price set upon them, because thus there may be exchange at any time, and if exchange, then dealing. So money, like a measure, making all things commensurable, equalises them; for if there was not exchange there would not have been dealing, nor exchange if there were not equality, nor equality if there were not the capacity of being commensurate. It is impossible that things so greatly different should be really commensurate, but we can approximate sufficiently for all practical purposes in reference to Demand. The common measure must be some one thing, and also from agreement (for which reason it is called *νόμισμα*), for this makes all things commensurable; in fact, all things are measured by money. Let B represent ten minæ, A a house worth five minæ, or in other words half B, C a bed worth $\frac{1}{10}$ of B. It is clear then how many beds are equal to one house—namely, five.

It is obvious also that exchange was thus conducted before the existence of money, for it makes no difference whether you give for a house five beds or the price of five beds.

CHAPTER IX.

ON JUSTICE AND INJUSTICE.

WE have now said then what the abstract Just and Unjust are, and these having been defined, it is plain that just acting is a mean between acting unjustly and being acted unjustly towards—the former being equivalent to having more and the latter less.

But Justice, it must be observed, is a mean state not after the same manner as the afore-mentioned virtues, but because it aims at producing the mean, while Injustice occupies *both* the extremes.

And Justice is the moral state in virtue of which the just man is said to have the aptitude for practising the Just in the way of moral choice, and for making division between himself and another, or between two other men, not so as to give to himself the greater and to his neighbour the less share of what is choiceworthy, and contrariwise of what is hurtful, but what is proportionably equal, and in like manner when adjudging the rights of two other men.

Injustice is all this with respect to the Unjust, and since the Unjust is excess or defect of what is good or hurtful respectively, in violation of the proportionate, therefore Injustice is both excess and defect, because it aims at producing excess and defect; excess, that is, in a man's own case of what is simply advantageous, and defect of what is hurtful; and in the case of other men in like manner generally speaking, only that the proportionate is violated, not always in one direction as before, but whichever way it happens in the given case. And of the Unjust

act the less is being acted unjustly towards, and the greater the acting unjustly towards others.

Let this way of describing the nature of Justice and Injustice, and likewise the Just and the Unjust generally, be accepted as sufficient.

CHAPTER X.

ON THE JUST IN DOMESTIC RELATIONS: A NOTICE OF THE SOPHISTS' NOTIONS RESPECTING THE JUST.

[AGAIN, since a man may do unjust acts, and not yet have formed a character of injustice, the question arises whether a man is unjust in each particular form of injustice—say a thief, or adulterer, or robber, by doing acts of a given character.

We may say, I think, that this will not of itself make any difference. A man may, for instance, have had connection with another's wife, knowing well with whom he was sinning, but he may have done it not of deliberate choice, but from the impulse of passion. Of course he acts unjustly, but he has not necessarily formed an unjust character—that is, he may have stolen, yet not be a thief; or committed an act of adultery, but still not be an adulterer; and so on in other cases which might be enumerated.[1]]

[1] This passage certainly occurs awkwardly here. If attached to the close of the preceding chapter it would leave that chapter incomplete, for the question is not gone into, but only stated. As the commencement of this chapter it is yet more out of place: I should propose to insert it at the commencement of the following chapter, to which it forms an appropriate introduction.

Of the relation which Reciprocation bears to the Just we have already spoken; and here it should be noticed that the Just which we are investigating is both the Just in the abstract and also as exhibited in Social Relations, which latter arises in the case of those who live in communion with a view to supplying each other's deficiencies, and who are free and equal either proportionately or numerically.[1]

It follows then that those who are not in this position have not among themselves the Social Just, but still Just of some kind, and resembling that other. For Just implies mutually acknowledged law, and law the possibility of injustice, for adjudication is the act of distinguishing between the Just and the Unjust.

And among whomsoever there is the possibility of injustice, among these there is that of acting unjustly; but it does not hold conversely that injustice attaches to all among whom there is the possibility of acting unjustly, since by the former we mean giving one's self the larger share of what is abstractedly good, and the less of what is abstractedly evil.

This, by the way, is the reason why we do not allow a man to govern, but Principle, because a man governs for himself, and comes to be a despot; but the office of a ruler is to be guardian of the Just, and therefore of the equal. Well then, since he seems to have no peculiar personal advantage supposing him a Just man, for in this case he does not allot to himself the larger share of what is abstractedly good, unless it falls to his share proportionately (for which reason he really governs for others, and so Justice,

[1] In a pure democracy men are absolutely—*i.e.*, numerically—equal, in other forms only proportionately equal. Thus the meanest British subject is proportionately equal to the Sovereign; that is to say, is as fully secured in his rights as the Sovereign in hers.

men say, is a good not to one's self so much as to others, as was mentioned before), therefore some compensation must be given him, as there actually is in the shape of honour and privilege; and wherever these are not adequate, there rulers turn to despots.[1]

But the Just which arises in the relations of Master and Father is not identical with but similar to these, because there is no possibility of injustice towards those things which are absolutely one's own; and a slave or child (so long as this last is of a certain age, and not separated into an independent being) are, as it were, part of a man's self, and no man chooses to hurt himself, for which reason there cannot be injustice towards one's own self; therefore neither is there the social Unjust or Just, which was stated to be in accordance with law, and to exist between those among whom law naturally exists, and these were said to be they to whom belongs equality of ruling and being ruled.

Hence also there is Just rather between a man and his wife than between a man and his children or slaves; this is in fact the Just arising in domestic relations, and this too is different from the Social Just.

Further, this last-mentioned Just is of two kinds, natural and conventional; the former being that which has everywhere the same force, and does not depend upon being received or not; the latter being that which originally may be this way or that indifferently, but not after enactment: for instance, the price of ransom being fixed at a mina, or the sacrificing a goat instead of two sheep; and again, all cases of special enactment, as the sacrificing to Brasidas as a hero; in short, all matters of special decree.

But there are some men who think that all the Justs are of this latter kind, and on this ground: whatever exists by

[1] Or, "when he is not content with these."—[ED.]

nature, they say, is unchangeable, and has everywhere the same force. Fire, for instance, burns not here only, but in Persia as well, but the Justs they see changed in various places.

Now this is not really so, and yet it is in a way (though among the Gods perhaps by no means); still even amongst ourselves there is somewhat existing by nature. Allowing that everything is subject to change, still there is that which does exist by nature, and that which does not.

Nay, we may go further, and say that it is practically plain what among things which can be otherwise does exist by nature, and what does not, but is dependent upon enactment and conventional, even granting that both are alike subject to be changed. And the same distinctive illustration will apply to this and other cases; the right hand is naturally the stronger, still some men may become equally strong in both.

A parallel may be drawn between the Justs which depend upon convention and expedience and measures; for wine and corn measures are not equal in all places, but where men buy, they are large, and where these same sell again, they are smaller. Well, in like manner the Justs which are not natural, but of human invention, are not everywhere the same, for not even the forms of government are, and yet there is one only which by nature would be best in all places.

CHAPTER XI.

OF THE DISTINCTIONS BETWEEN UNJUST FACTS, UNJUST ACTIONS, AND INJUSTICE AS A CONFIRMED HABIT.

Now of Justs and Lawfuls, each bear to the acts which embody and exemplify them the relation of an universal to a particular; the acts being many, but each of the principles only singular, because each is an universal. And so there is a difference between an unjust act and the abstract Unjust, and the just act, and the abstract Just. I mean a thing is unjust in itself, by nature or by ordinance; well, when this has been embodied in act, there is an unjust act, but not till then, only Injustice. And similarly of a just act. Perhaps δικαιοπράγημα is more correctly the common or generic term for just act, the word δικαίωμα, which I have here used, meaning generally and properly the act corrective of an unjust act. Now as to each of them, what kinds there are, and how many, and what is their object-matter, we must examine afterwards.

For the present we proceed to say that the Justs and the Unjusts being what have been mentioned, a man is said to act unjustly or justly when he embodies these abstracts in voluntary actions, but when in involuntary, then he neither acts unjustly or justly except accidentally. I mean that the being just or unjust is really only accidental to the agents in such cases.

So both unjust and just actions are limited by the being voluntary, or the contrary; for when an embodying of the Unjust is voluntary, then it is blamed, and is at the same

time also an unjust action; but if voluntariness does not attach, there will be a thing which is in itself unjust, but not yet an unjust action.

By voluntary I mean, as was stated before, whatsoever of things in his own power a man does with knowledge, and the absence of ignorance, as to the person to whom, or the instrument with which, or the result with which he does; as, for instance, whom he strikes, what he strikes him with, and with what probable result; and each of these points again, not accidentally, nor by compulsion; as supposing another man were to seize his hand and strike a third person with it, here of course the owner of the hand acts not voluntarily, because it did not rest with him to do or leave undone. Or again, it is conceivable that the person struck may be his father, and he may know that it is a man, or even one of the present company, whom he is striking, but not know that it is his father. And let these same distinctions be supposed to be carried into the case of the result, and in fact the whole of any given action. In fine then, that is involuntary which is done through ignorance, or which not resulting from ignorance is not in the agent's control, or is done on compulsion.

I mention these cases because there are many natural things which we do and suffer knowingly, but still no one of which is either voluntary or involuntary, growing old, or dying, for instance.

Again, accidentality may attach to the unjust in like manner as to the just acts. For instance, a man may have restored what was deposited with him, but against his will, and from fear of the consequences of a refusal. We must not say that he either does what is just, or does justly, except accidentally; and in like manner the man who through compulsion and against his will fails to restore a

deposit, must be said to do unjustly, or to do what is unjust, accidentally only.

Again, voluntary actions we do either from deliberate choice, or without it; from it, when we act from previous deliberation; without it, when without any previous deliberation. Since then hurts which may be done in transactions between man and man are threefold, those mistakes which are attended with ignorance are, when a man either does a thing not to the man to whom he meant to do it, or not the thing he meant to do, or not with the instrument, or not with the result which he intended; either he did not think he should hit him at all, or not with this, or this is not the man he thought he should hit, or he did not think this would be the result of the blow, but a result has followed which he did not anticipate—as, for instance, he did it not to wound, but merely to prick him, or it is not the man whom or the way in which he meant.

Now when the hurt has come about contrary to all reasonable expectation, it is a Misadventure; when though not contrary to expectation, yet without any viciousness, it is a Mistake; for a man makes a mistake when the origina tion of the cause rests with himself, he has a misadventure when it is external to himself. When again he acts with knowledge, but not from previous deliberation, it is an unjust action; for instance, whatever happens to men from anger or other passions which are necessary or natural; for when doing these hurts or making these mistakes they act unjustly of course, and their actions are unjust, still they are not yet confirmed unjust or wicked persons by reason of these, because the hurt did not arise from depravity in the doer of it; but when it does arise from deliberate choice, then the doer is a confirmed unjust and depraved man.

And on this principle acts done from anger are fairly judged not to be from malice prepense, because it is not the man who acts in wrath who is the originator really, but he who caused his wrath. And again, the question at issue in such cases is not respecting the fact, but respecting the justice of the case, the occasion of anger being a notion of injury.[1] I mean that the parties do not dispute about the fact, as in questions of contract (where one of the two must be a rogue, unless real forgetfulness can be pleaded), but admitting the fact, they dispute on which side the justice of the case lies (though of course a deliberate plotter cannot be ignorant), so that the one thinks there is injustice committed, while the other does not.

Well, then, a man acts unjustly if he has hurt another of deliberate purpose, and he who commits such acts of injustice is *ipso facto* an unjust character, when they are in violation of the proportionate or the equal; and in like manner also a man is a just character when he acts justly of deliberate purpose, and he does act justly if he acts voluntarily.

Then as for involuntary acts of harm, they are either such as are excusable or such as are not. Under the former head come all errors done not merely in ignorance, but from ignorance; under the latter, all that are done not from ignorance, but in ignorance caused by some passion which is neither natural nor fairly attributable to human infirmity.

1 "As distinct from pain or loss." Bp. Butler's Sermon on Resentment. See also *Rhet.* II. 2, Def. of ὀργή.

CHAPTER XII.

CAN A MAN BE UNJUSTLY DEALT WITH WILLINGLY?

Now a question may be raised whether we have spoken with sufficient distinctness as to being unjustly dealt with, and dealing unjustly towards others.

First, whether the case is possible which Euripides has put, saying somewhat strangely—

> "My mother I have slain; the tale is short,
> Either I willingly did slay her willing,
> Or else with her will but against mine own."[1]

I mean, then, is it really possible for a person to be unjustly dealt with with his own consent, or must every case of being unjustly dealt with be against the will of the sufferer, as every act of unjust dealing is voluntary?

And next, are cases of being unjustly dealt with to be ruled all one way, as every act of unjust dealing is voluntary, or may we say that some cases are voluntary and some involuntary?

Similarly also as regards being justly dealt with; for all just acting is voluntary, so that it is fair to suppose that the being dealt with unjustly or justly must be similarly opposed, as to being either voluntary or involuntary.

Now as for being justly dealt with, the position that every case of this is voluntary is a strange one, for some are certainly justly dealt with without their will.[2] The fact is, a man may also fairly raise this question, whether in every

[1] Probably from the lost *Alcmæon*.

[2] As when a man is "justified at the Grass Market"—*i.e.*, hung.

case he who has suffered what is unjust is therefore unjustly dealt with, or rather that the case is the same with suffering as it is with acting—namely, that in both it is possible to participate in what is just, but only accidentally. Clearly the case of what is unjust is similar, for doing things in themselves unjust is not identical with acting unjustly, nor is suffering them the same as being unjustly dealt with. So too of acting justly and being justly dealt with, since it is impossible to be unjustly dealt with unless some one else acts unjustly, or to be justly dealt with unless some one else acts justly.

Now if acting unjustly is simply "hurting another voluntarily" (by which I mean, knowing whom you are hurting, and wherewith, and how you are hurting him), and the man who fails of self-control voluntarily hurts himself, then this will be a case of being voluntarily dealt unjustly with, and it will be possible for a man to deal unjustly with himself. (This, by the way, is one of the questions raised, whether it is possible for a man to deal unjustly with himself.) Or again, a man may, by reason of failing of self-control, receive hurt from another man also acting voluntarily, and so here will be another case of being unjustly dealt with voluntarily.

The solution, I take it, is this: the definition of being unjustly dealt with is not correct, but to the hurting with the knowledge of the person hurt, and the instrument and the manner of hurting him, we must add the fact of its being against the wish of the man who is hurt.

So then a man may be hurt and suffer what is in itself unjust voluntarily, but unjustly dealt with voluntarily no man can be; since no man wishes to be hurt, not even he who fails of self-control, who really acts contrary to his

wish; for no man wishes for that which he does not *think* to be good, and the man who fails of self-control does not what he thinks he ought to do.

And again, he that gives away his own property (as Homer says Glaucus gave to Diomed, "armour of gold for brass, armour worth a hundred oxen for that which was worth but nine") is not unjustly dealt with; because the giving rests entirely with himself, but being unjustly dealt with does not, there must be some other person who is dealing unjustly towards him.

With respect to being unjustly dealt with then, it is clear that it is not voluntary.

CHAPTER XIII.

IN A CASE OF UNFAIR DISTRIBUTION IS THE RECEIVER OR DISTRIBUTOR IN FAULT?

THERE remain yet two points on which we purposed to speak: first, is he chargeable with an unjust act, who in distribution has *given* the larger share to one party contrary to the proper rate, or he that *has* the larger share? Next, can a man deal unjustly by himself?

In the first question, if the first-named alternative is possible, and it is the distributor who acts unjustly, and not he who has the larger share, then supposing that a person knowingly and willingly gives more to another than to himself, here is a case of a man dealing unjustly by himself; which, in fact, moderate men are thought to do, for it is a characteristic of the equitable man to take less than his due.

Is not this the answer: that the case is not quite fairly stated, because of some other good, such as credit, or the abstract honourable, of which, in the supposed case, the man did get the larger share. And again, the difficulty is solved by reference to the definition of unjust dealing; for the man suffers nothing contrary to his own wish, so that, on this score at least, he is not unjustly dealt with, but if anything he is hurt only.

It is evident also that it is the distributor who acts unjustly, and not the man who has the greater share; because the mere fact of the abstract Unjust attaching to what a man does, does not constitute unjust action, but the doing this voluntarily; and voluntariness attaches to that quarter whence is the origination of the action, which clearly is in the distributor, not in the receiver. And again, the term doing is used in several senses; in one sense inanimate objects kill, or the hand, or the slave by his master's bidding; so the man in question does not act unjustly, but does things which are in themselves unjust.

Again, suppose that a man has made a wrongful award in ignorance; in the eye of the law he does not act unjustly, nor is his awarding legally unjust, but yet it is unjust in a certain sense, for the Just, according to law, and primary or natural Just, are not coincident; but if he knowingly decided unjustly, then he himself as well as the receiver got the larger share, that is, either of favour from the receiver, or private revenge against the other party. And so the man who decided unjustly from these motives gets a larger share, in exactly the same sense as a man would who received part of the actual matter of the unjust action, because in this case the man who wrongly adjudged, say a field, did not actually get land, but money, by his unjust decision.

CHAPTER XIV.

WHETHER ACTING JUSTLY AND UNJUSTLY IS QUITE WITHIN OUR OWN POWER?

Now men suppose that acting Unjustly rests entirely with themselves, and conclude that acting Justly is therefore also easy. But this is not really so. To have connection with a neighbour's wife, or strike one's neighbour, or give the money with one's hand, is of course easy, and rests with one's self; but the doing these acts with certain inward dispositions neither is easy, nor rests entirely with one's self. And in like way the knowing what is Just, and what Unjust, men think no great instance of wisdom, because it is not hard to comprehend those things of which the laws speak. They forget that these are not Just actions, except accidentally. To be Just they must be done and distributed in a certain manner, and this is a more difficult task than knowing what things are wholesome, for in this branch of knowledge it is an easy matter to know honey, and wine, and hellebore, and cautery, and the use of the knife, but the knowing how one should administer these with a view to health, and to whom and at what time, amounts in fact to being a physician.

From this very same mistake they suppose also that acting Unjustly is equally in the power of the Just man, for the Just man no less, nay, even more than the Unjust, may be able to do the particular acts; he may be able to have intercourse with a woman, or strike a man; or the brave man to throw away his shield and turn his back, and run this way or that. True, but then it is not the mere doing

these things which constitutes acts of cowardice or injustice (except accidentally), but the doing them with certain inward dispositions. Just as it is not the mere using or not using the knife, administering or not administering certain drugs, which constitutes medical treatment or curing, but doing these things in a certain particular way.

Again, the principles of Justice have their province among those who partake of what is, speaking generally, good, and can have too much or too little of these.[1] Now there are beings who cannot have too much of them, as perhaps the gods; there are others, again, to whom no particle of them is of use—those who are incurably wicked, to whom all things are hurtful; others to whom they are useful to a certain degree. For this reason then the province of Justice is among *Men*.

CHAPTER XV.

OF EQUITY.

WE have next to speak of Equity and the Equitable, that is to say, of the relations of Equity to Justice, and the Equitable to the Just; for when we look into the matter the two do not appear identical, nor yet different in kind; and we sometimes commend the Equitable, and the man who embodies it in his actions, so that by way of praise we commonly transfer the term also to other acts, instead of the term good, thus showing that the more Equitable a thing is the better it is. At other times, following a certain train of reasoning, we arrive at a

[1] Where the stock of good is limited, if any individual takes more than his share, some one else must have less than his share. Where it is infinite, or where there is no good at all, this cannot happen.

difficulty, in that the Equitable, though distinct from the Just, is yet praiseworthy; it seems to follow, either that the Just is not good, or the Equitable not Just, since they are by hypothesis different; or if both are good, then they are identical.

This is a tolerably fair statement of the difficulty which on these grounds arises in respect of the Equitable; but in fact all these may be reconciled, and really involve no contradiction; for the Equitable is Just, and is also better than one form of Just; but it is not better than the Just, as though it were different from it in kind. Just and Equitable then are generically of the same kind, and both being good, the Equitable is the better of the two.

What causes the difficulty is this: the Equitable is Just, but not the Just which is in accordance with written law, being in fact a correction of that kind of Just. And the account of this is, that every law is necessarily universal, while there are some things which it is not possible to speak of rightly in any universal or general statement. Where then there is a necessity for general statement, while a general statement cannot apply rightly to all cases, the law takes the generality of cases, being fully aware of the error thus involved; and rightly too notwithstanding, because the fault is not in the law, or in the framer of the law, but is inherent in the nature of the thing, because the matter of all action is necessarily such.

When then the law has spoken in general terms, and there arises a case of exception to the general rule, it is proper, in so far as the lawgiver omits the case, and, by reason of his universality of statement, is wrong, to set right the omission by ruling it as the lawgiver himself would rule, were he there present, and would have provided by law, had he foreseen the case would arise. And so the Equitable is Just, and better than one form of Just; I do

not mean the abstract Just, but the error which arises out of the universality of statement; and this is the nature of the Equitable, "a correction of Law, where Law is defective by reason of its universality."

This is the reason why not all things are according to law, because there are things about which it is simply impossible to lay down a law, and so we want special enactments for particular cases. For to speak generally, the rule of the undefined must be itself undefined also, just as the rule to measure Lesbian building is made of lead; for this rule alters according to the form of each stone, and the special enactment according to the facts of the case in question.

It is clear then what the Equitable is, namely, that it is Just, but better than one form of Just; and hence it appears too who the Equitable man is; he is one who has a tendency to choose and carry out these principles, and who is not apt to press the letter of the law on the worse side, but content to waive his strict claims, though backed by the law. And this moral state is Equity, being a species of Justice, and not a different moral state from Justice.

CHAPTER XVI.

CAN A MAN DEAL UNJUSTLY BY HIMSELF?

THE answer to the second of the two questions indicated above, "whether it is possible for a man to deal unjustly by himself," is obvious from what has been already stated.

In the first place, one class of Justs is those which are enforced by law in accordance with Virtue in the most

extensive sense of the term. For instance, the law does not bid a man kill himself, and whatever it does not bid it forbids.[1] Well, whenever a man does hurt contrary to the law (unless by way of requital of hurt), voluntarily—*i.e.*, knowing to whom he does it and wherewith—he acts Unjustly. Now he that from rage kills himself voluntarily, does this in contravention of Right Reason, which the law does not permit. He therefore acts Unjustly; but towards whom? Towards the Community, not towards himself (because he suffers with his own consent, and no man can be Unjustly dealt with with his own consent), and on this principle the Community punishes him—that is, a certain infamy is attached to the suicide, as one who acts Unjustly towards the Community.

Next, a man cannot deal Unjustly by himself in the sense in which a man is Unjust who only does Unjust acts without being entirely bad (for the two things are different, because the Unjust man is in a bad way, as the coward is, not as though he were chargeable with badness in the full extent of the term, and so he does not act Unjustly in this sense), because if it were so then it would be possible for the same thing to have been taken away from and added to the same person;[2] but this is really not possible, the Just and the Unjust always implying a plurality of persons.

[1] An "extraordinary assertion" Sir A. Grant calls this remark. He adds, "We might well ask, Did the Athenian law command its citizens to breathe, to eat, to sleep, etc.?" No, but the obligation of State service, to which every man was liable, may well have been taken by Aristotle to include things necessary for health.—[ED.]

[2] The reference is to Chapter vii., where it was said that the law views the parties in a case of particular injustice as originally equal, but now unequal, the wrong-doer being the gainer, and the sufferer the loser by the wrong, but in the case above supposed there is but *one* party.

Again, an Unjust action must be voluntary, done of deliberate purpose, and aggressive (for the man who hurts, because he has first suffered, and is merely requiting the same, is not thought to act Unjustly); but here the man does to himself, and suffers the same things at the same time.

Again, it would imply the possibility of being Unjustly dealt with with one's own consent.

And besides all this, a man cannot act Unjustly without his act falling under some particular crime; now a man cannot well seduce his own wife, commit a burglary on his own premises, or steal his own property.

After all, the general answer to the question is to allege what was settled respecting being Unjustly dealt with with one's own consent.

CHAPTER XVII.

SUPPLEMENTARY QUESTIONS.

It is obvious, moreover, that being Unjustly dealt by, and dealing Unjustly by others, are both wrong; because the one is having less, the other having more, than the mean, and the case is parallel to that of the healthy in the healing art, and that of good condition in the art of training; but still the dealing Unjustly by others is the worst of the two, because this involves wickedness, and is blameworthy. Wickedness, I mean, either formed or on the way to being so (for not all voluntary wrong implies [a disposition of] injustice), but the being Unjustly dealt by does not involve wickedness or injustice.

In itself then, the being Unjustly dealt by is the least

bad, but accidentally it may be the greatest evil of the two. However, scientific statement cannot take in such considerations; a pleurisy, for instance, is called a greater physical evil than a bruise; and yet this last may be the greater accidentally; it may chance that a bruise received in a fall may cause one to be captured by the enemy and slain.

Further, Justice, in the way of metaphor and similitude, there may be; I do not say between a man and himself exactly, but between certain parts of his nature; but not Justice of every kind, only such as belongs to the relation of master and slave, or to that of a head of a family. For all through this treatise the rational part of the Soul has been viewed as holding this relation to the irrational.

Now taking these into consideration, there is thought to be a possibility of injustice towards one's self, because herein it is possible for men to suffer somewhat in contradiction of impulses really their own; and so it is thought that there is Justice of a certain kind between these parts mutually, as between ruler and ruled.

Let this then be accepted as an account of the distinctions which we recognise respecting Justice and the rest of the moral virtues.

BOOK VI.

CHAPTER I.

PREFATORY.

HAVING stated in a former part of this Treatise that men should choose the mean instead of either the excess or defect, and that the mean is according to the dictates of Right Reason, we will now proceed to explain this term.

For in all the habits which we have expressly mentioned, as likewise in all the others, there is, so to speak, a mark with his eye fixed on which, the man who has Reason tightens or slacks his rope;[1] and there is a certain limit of those mean states which we say are in accordance with Right Reason, and lie between excess on the one hand and defect on the other.

Now to speak thus is true enough, but conveys no very definite meaning, as in fact in all other pursuits requiring attention and diligence, on which skill and science are brought to bear. It is quite true of course to say that men are neither to labour nor relax too much or too little, but in moderation, and as Right Reason directs. Yet if this were all a man had he would not be greatly the wiser; as, for

[1] I understand the illustration to be taken from the process of lowering a weight into its place; a block of marble, or stone, for instance, in a building.

instance, if in answer to the question, what are proper applications to the body, he were to be told, "Oh! of course whatever the science of medicine, and in such manner as the physician, directs."

And so in respect of the mental states it is requisite not merely that this should be true which has been already stated, but further, that it should be expressly laid down what Right Reason is, and what is the definition of it.

CHAPTER II.

DIVISION OF THE INTELLECT INTO TWO DISTINCT PARTS. THE FUNCTION OF EACH DETERMINED.

Now in our division of the Virtues of the Soul we said there were two classes, the Moral and the Intellectual. The former we have already gone through, and we will now proceed to speak of the others, premising a few words respecting the Soul itself. It was stated before, you will remember, that the Soul consists of two parts, the Rational and Irrational. We must now make a similar division of the Rational.

Let it be understood then that there are two parts of the Soul possessed of Reason, one whereby we realise those existences whose causes cannot be otherwise than they are, and one whereby we realise those which can be otherwise than they are[1] (for there must be, answering to things generically different, generically different parts of the soul naturally adapted to each, since these parts of the soul possess their knowledge in virtue of a certain resemblance and appropriateness in themselves to the objects of which they are percipients); and let us name the former, "that

[1] Called for convenience sake Necessary and Contingent matter.

which is apt to know," the latter, "that which is apt to calculate" (because deliberating and calculating are the same, and no one ever deliberates about things which cannot be otherwise than they are; and so the Calculative will be one part of the Rational faculty of the soul).

We must discover, then, which is the best state of each of these, because that will be the Excellence of each; and this again is relative to the work each has to do.[1]

There are in the Soul three functions, on which depend moral action and truth—Sense, Intellect, Appetition. Now of these Sense is the originating cause of no moral action, as is seen from the fact that brutes have Sense, but are in no way partakers of moral action.[2]

[Intellect and Will are thus connected], what in the Intellectual operation is Affirmation and Negation, that in the Will is Pursuit and Avoidance. And so since Moral Virtue is a disposition exercising Choice, and Choice is Will consequent on deliberation, the Reason must be true and the Will right to constitute good Choice, and what the Reason affirms the Will must pursue.[3]

Now this Intellectual operation and this Truth is what bears upon Moral Action; of course, simple truth and

[1] And therefore the question resolves itself into this, "What is the work of the Speculative, and what of the Practical, faculty of Reason." See the description of Virtue, II. 5.

[2] *πράξις* is here used in its strict and proper meaning.

[3] That is to say, the Will waits upon deliberation in which Reason is the judge; when the decision is pronounced, the Will must act accordingly.

The question at issue always is, *Is this Good?* because the Will is only moved by an impression of Good. The Decision then will be always *Aye or No*, and the mental hand is put forth to grasp in the former case, and retracted in the latter.

So far is what must take place in *every* Moral Action, right or wrong,

falsehood must be the good and the bad of that Intellectual Operation which is purely Speculative, and concerned neither with action nor production, because this is manifestly the work of every Intellectual faculty, while of the faculty which is of a mixed Practical and Intellectual nature, the work is that Truth which, as I have described above, corresponds to the right movement of the Desire.

Now the originating cause of moral action is Choice (I mean what actually sets it in motion, not the final cause), and of Choice, Appetition, and Reason directed to a certain result; and thus Choice is neither independent of intellect —*i.e.*, intellectual operation, nor of a certain moral state; for right or wrong action cannot be, independently of operation of the Intellect, and moral character.

But operation of the Intellect by itself moves nothing, only when directed to a certain result—*i.e.*, exercised in Moral Action (I say nothing of its being exercised in production, because this function is originated by the former; for every one who makes makes with a view to somewhat further; and that which is or may be made is not an End in itself, but only relatively to somewhat else, and belonging to some one;[1] whereas that which is or may be done is an

the Machinery of the mind being supposed uninjured; but to constitute a good Moral Choice—*i.e.*, a good Action—the Reason must have said Aye when it ought.

The cases of faulty action will be, either when the Machinery is perfect but wrongly directed, as in the case of a deliberate crime, or when the direction given by the Reason is right, but the Will does not move in accordance with that direction; in other words, when the Machinery is out of order, as in the case of the ακρατής.—Video meliora proboque, Deteriora sequor.

[1] The cobbler is at his last; why? to make shoes, which are to clothe the feet of some one; and the price to be paid—*i.e.*, the produce of his industry—is to enable him to support his wife and children; thus his production is subordinate to Moral Action.

End in itself, because acting well is an End in itself, and this is the object of the Will), and so Choice is either Intellect put in a position of Will-ing, or Appetition subjected to an Intellectual Process. And such an originating cause of moral action is Man.

But nothing which is done and past can be the object of Choice. For instance, no man chooses to have sacked Troy; because in fact no one ever deliberates about what is past, but only about that which is future, and which may therefore be influenced, whereas what has been cannot not have been; and so Agathon is right in saying,

> "Of this alone is Deity bereft,
> To make undone whatever hath been done."

Thus then Truth is the work of both the Intellectual Parts of the Soul; those dispositions therefore are the Excellences of each in which each will best attain truth.

CHAPTER III.

THE VIRTUES OF THE INTELLECTUAL OR RATIONAL PART OF THE SOUL ENUMERATED. THE FIRST SLIGHTLY DISCUSSED

COMMENCING then from the point stated above, we will now speak of these Virtues again. Let those faculties whereby the Soul attains truth in Affirmation or Negation be assumed to be in number five—viz., Art, Science, Good Sense, Wisdom, Intuitive Apprehension (Supposition and Opinion I do not include, because by these one may go wrong).

What Science is is plain from the following considerations, if one is to speak accurately, instead of being led away by resemblances. For we all conceive that what we scientifically *know* cannot be otherwise than it is, because as to those things which can be otherwise than they are, we are uncertain whether they are or are not, the moment they cease to be within the sphere of our actual observation.

So then, whatever comes within the range of Science is by necessity, and therefore eternal (because all things are so which exist necessarily), and all eternal things are without beginning, and indestructible.

Again, all Science is thought to be capable of being taught, and what comes within its range capable of being learned. And all teaching is based upon previous scientific knowledge (a statement you will find in the *Analytics* also), for there are two ways of teaching, by Syllogism and by Induction. In fact, Induction is the source of universal propositions, and Syllogism reasons from these universals. Syllogism then may reason from principles which cannot be themselves proved Syllogistically, and therefore must by Induction.

So Science is "a state or mental faculty apt to demonstrate syllogistically," etc., as in the *Analytics*, because a man, strictly and scientifically, *knows* when he establishes his conclusion in a certain way, and the principles are known to him; for if they are not better known to him than the conclusion, such knowledge as he has will be merely accidental.

Let thus much be accepted as a definition of Science.

CHAPTER IV.

OF ART.

MATTER which may exist otherwise than it actually does in any given case (commonly called Contingent), is of two kinds—that which is the object of Making, and that which is the object of Doing. Now Making and Doing are two different things (as the popular view affirms), and so that state of mind, conjoined with Reason, which is apt to Do, is distinct from that also conjoined with Reason, which is apt to Make, and for this reason they are not included one by the other, that is, Doing is not Making, nor Making Doing.[1] Now, as Architecture is an Art, and is the same as "a certain state of mind, conjoined with Reason, which is apt to Make," and as there is no Art which is not such a state, nor any such state which is not an Art, Art, in its strict and proper sense, must be "a state of mind, conjoined with true Reason, apt to Make."

Now all Art has to do with production and contrivance, and seeing how any of those things may be produced which may either be or not be, and the origination of which rests with the maker, and not with the thing made.

And so, neither things which exist or come into being necessarily, nor things in the way of nature, come under the province of Art, because these are self-originating. And since Doing and Making are distinct, Art must be concerned with the latter, and not the former. And in a certain sense Art and Fortune are concerned with the same things, as Agathon says by the way—

[1] This is the test of correct logical division, that the *membra dividentia* shall be opposed—*i.e.*, not included the one by the other.

"Art Fortune loves, and is of her beloved."[1]

So Art, as has been stated, is "a certain state of mind, apt to Make, conjoined with true Reason;" its contrary is the same state with false Reason, and both are employed upon Contingent or variable matter.

CHAPTER V.

OF GOOD SENSE.

As for Good Sense, we shall ascertain its nature by examining to what kind of persons we in common language ascribe it.

It is thought then to be the property of the Sensible man to be able to deliberate well respecting what is good and expedient for himself, not in any definite line, as what is conducive to health or strength, but what to living well. A proof of this is that we call men Sensible in this or that, when they calculate well with a view to some good, and in a case where there is no definite rule. And so, in a general way of speaking, the man who is good at deliberation will be Sensible. Now no man deliberates respecting things which cannot be otherwise than they are, nor such as lie not within the range of his own action; and so, since Science requires strict demonstrative reasoning, of which Contingent matter does not admit (I say Contingent matter, because all matters of deliberation must be Contingent, and deliberation cannot take place with respect to things which are

[1] A saying full of insight. Art loves to win its successes by a kind of happy accident, but such accidents are only granted to the true artist, though abundantly to him.—[ED.]

Necessarily), Good Sense cannot be Science nor Art. Not the former, because what falls under the province of Doing must be Contingent; not the latter, because Doing and Making are different in kind.

It remains then that it must be "a disposition true, conjoined with Reason, and apt to Do, having for its object those things which are good or bad for Man;" because, of Making, something beyond itself is always the object, but cannot be of Doing, because the very well-doing is in itself an End.

For this reason we think Pericles and men of that stamp to be Sensible, because they can see what is good for themselves and for men in general, and we also think those to be such who are skilled in domestic management or civil government. In fact, this is the reason why we call the habit of perfected self-mastery by the name which in Greek it bears, etymologically signifying, "that which preserves the Sense," for what it does preserve is the Notion I have mentioned—*i.e.*, of one's own true interest.[1]

For it is not every kind of Notion which the pleasant

[1] The two aspects under which Virtue may be considered as claiming the allegiance of moral agents are, that of being right, and that of being truly expedient, because Conscience and Reasonable Self-Love are the two Principles of our moral constitution naturally supreme; and "Conscience and Self-Love, *if we understand our true happiness*, always lead us the same way." Bp. Butler, end of Sermon III. See also the Preface, p. xxiv.

And again—

"If by *a sense of interest* is meant a practical regard to what is upon the whole our Happiness. This is not only coincident with the principle of Virtue or Moral Rectitude, but is a part of the idea itself. And it is evident this Reasonable Self-Love wants to be improved as really as any principle in our nature. . . . So little cause is there for Moralists to disclaim this principle." From the note on sec. iv. of the Chapter on Moral Discipline, *Analogy*, Part I. chap. v.

and the painful corrupt and pervert, as, for instance, that "the three angles of every rectilineal triangle are equal to two right angles," but only those bearing on moral action.

For the Principles of the matters of moral action are the final cause of them. Now to the man who has been corrupted by reason of pleasure and pain the Principle immediately becomes obscured, nor does he see that it is his duty to choose and act in each instance with a view to this final cause, and by reason of it, for viciousness has a tendency to destroy the moral Principle; and so Good Sense must be "a disposition conjoined with reason, true, having human good for its object, and apt to do."

Then again Art admits of degrees of excellence, but Good Sense does not.[1] And in Art he who goes wrong purposely is preferable to him who does so unwittingly,[2] but not so in respect of Good Sense, or the other Virtues. It plainly is then a Virtue of a certain kind and not an Art.

Now as there are two parts of the Soul which have Reason, it must be the Virtue of the Opinionative [which we called before calculative or deliberative], because both Opinion and Good Sense are exercised upon Contingent matter. And further, it is not simply a disposition conjoined with Reason, as is proved by the fact that such a disposition may be forgotten and so lost, while Good Sense cannot.

[1] This is not quite fair. Used in its strict sense, Art does not admit of degrees of excellence any more than Sense. In popular language we use the term "wiser man," as readily as "better artist"; really denoting in each case different degrees of approximation to Practical Wisdom and Art respectively; *διὰ τὸ γίνεσθαι τοὺς ἐπαίνους δὶ ἀναφορᾶς.* I. 12.

[2] He would be a *better Chymist* who should poison intentionally, than he on whose mind the prevailing impression was that "Epsom Salts mean Oxalic Acid; and Syrup of Senna, Laudanum."

CHAPTER VI.

OF INTUITIVE APPREHENSION.

Now Science is a conception concerning universals and Necessary matter, and there are of course certain First Principles in all trains of demonstrative reasoning (that is, of all Science, because this is connected with reasoning). That faculty, then, which takes in the first principles of that which comes under the range of Science, cannot be either Science, or Art, or Sense: not Science, because what is the object of Science must be derived from demonstrative reasoning; not either of the other two, because they are exercised upon Contingent matter only. Nor can it be Wisdom which takes in these, because the Wise Man must in some cases depend on demonstrative Reasoning.

It comes then to this: since the faculties whereby we always attain truth, and are never deceived when dealing with matter Necessary or Contingent, are Science, Sense, Wisdom, and Intuitive Apprehension, and the faculty which takes in First Principles cannot be any of the three first; the last, namely, Intuitive Apprehension, must be it which performs this function.

CHAPTER VII.

OF WISDOM, IN ITSELF, AND IN RELATION TO GOOD SENSE.

WISDOM is a term we use principally in two meanings. In the first place, in the Arts we ascribe it to those who carry

their arts to the highest accuracy.[1] Phidias, for instance, we call a "Wise" or cunning sculptor; Polycleitus, a Wise or cunning statuary; meaning, in this instance, nothing else by Wisdom than an excellence of art. In the other sense, we think some to be Wise in a general way, not in any particular line or in any particular thing, just as Homer says of a man in his Margites: "Him the Gods made neither a digger of the ground, nor ploughman, nor in any other way Wise."

So it is plain that Wisdom must mean the most accurate of all Knowledge; but if so, then the Wise man must not merely know the deductions from the First Principles, but be in possession of truth respecting the First Principles. So that Wisdom must be equivalent to Intuitive Apprehension and Science; it is, so to speak, Science of the most precious objects *with a head on.*

I say of the most precious things, because it is absurd to suppose Politics or Good Sense to be the highest, unless it can be shown that Man is the most excellent of all that exists in the Universe. Now if "healthy" and "good" are relative terms, differing when applied to men or to fish, but "white" and "straight" are the same always, men must allow that the Wisdom is the same always, but Good Sense varies, for whatever provides all things well for itself, to this they would apply the term Sensible, and commit these matters to it, which is the reason, by the way, that they call some brutes Sensible, such that is as plainly have a faculty of forethought respecting their own subsistence.

[1] The term Wisdom is used in our English Translation of the Old Testament in the sense first given to Σοφία here. "Then wrought Bezaleel and Aholiab, and every *wise-hearted man, in whom the Lord put wisdom and understanding* to know how to work all manner of work for the service of the Sanctuary" (Exodus xxxvi. 1).

And it is quite plain that Wisdom and Politics cannot be identical, because if men give the name of Wisdom to that faculty which is employed upon what is expedient for themselves, there will be many instead of one, because there is not one and the same faculty employed on the good of all animals collectively, unless in the same sense as you may say, there is one art of healing with respect to all living beings.

If it is urged that Man is superior to all other animals, that makes no difference, for there are many other things more Godlike in their nature than Man, as, most obviously, the elements of which the Universe is composed.

It is plain then that Wisdom is the union of Science and Intuitive Apprehension, and has for its objects those things which are most precious in their nature. Accordingly, Anaxagoras, Thales, and men of that stamp people call Wise, but not Sensible, because they see them ignorant of what concerns themselves; and they say that what they know is quite out of the common run certainly, and wonderful and hard and very fine no doubt, but still useless, because they do not seek after what is good for them as Men.

CHAPTER VIII.

ADDITIONAL NOTES UPON GOOD SENSE.

BUT Good Sense is employed upon human matters, and such as are objects of deliberation (for we say that to deliberate well is most peculiarly the work of the man who possesses this Sense), and no man deliberates about things which cannot be otherwise than they are, nor about any

save those that have some definite End, and this End good resulting from Moral Action; and the man to whom we should give the name of Good in Counsel, simply and without modification, is he who in the way of calculation has a capacity for attaining that of practical goods, which is the best for Man.

Nor again does Good Sense consist in a knowledge of general principles only, but it is necessary that one should know also the particular details, because it is apt to act, and action is concerned with details, for which reason sometimes men who have not much knowledge are more practical than others who have. Among others, they who derive all they know from actual experience. Suppose a man to know, for instance, that light meats are easy of digestion and wholesome, but not what kinds of meat are light, he will not produce a healthy state. That man will have a much better chance of doing so who knows that the flesh of birds is light and wholesome. Since then Good Sense is apt to act, one ought to have both kinds of knowledge, or if only one, the knowledge of details rather than of Principles. So there will be in respect of Good Sense the distinction of supreme and subordinate.[1]

Further, Politics and Good Sense are the same mental disposition, but the point of view is not the same.

[1] In every branch of Moral Action in which Good Sense is employed there will be general principles, and the application of them; but in some branches there are distinct names appropriated to the operations of Good Sense, in others there are not.

Thus Sense, when employed on the general principles of Civil Government, is called Legislation; as administering its particular functions, it is called simply Government. In Domestic Management there are of course general Rules, and also the particular application of them; but here the faculty is called only by one name. So too when Self-Interest is the object of Good Sense.

Of Good Sense exerted upon a community, that which I would call the Supreme is the faculty of Legislation; the subordinate, which is concerned with the details, generally has the common name Politics, and its functions are Action and Deliberation (for the particular enactment is a matter of action, being the ultimate issue of this branch of Good Sense, and therefore people commonly say that these men alone are really engaged in government, because they alone act, filling the same place relatively to legislators that workmen do to a master).

Again, that is thought to be Good Sense in the most proper sense which has for its object the interest of the Individual; and this usually appropriates the common name; the others are called respectively Domestic Management, Legislation, Executive Government divided into two branches, Deliberative and Judicial. Now, of course, knowledge for one's self is one kind of knowledge, but it admits of many shades of difference; and it is a common notion that the man who knows and busies himself about his own concerns merely is the man of Sense, while they who extend their solicitude to society at large are considered meddlesome.

Euripides has thus embodied this sentiment: "how," says one of his Characters, "how Foolish am I, who whereas I might have shared equally, idly numbered among the multitude of the army . . . for them that are busy and meddlesome [Jove hates]," because the generality of mankind seek their own good, and hold that this is their proper business. It is then from this opinion that the notion has arisen that such men are the Sensible. And yet it is just possible that the good of the individual cannot be secured independently of connection with a family or a community. And again, how a man should manage his own affairs is

sometimes not quite plain, and must be made a matter of inquiry.[1]

A corroboration of what I have said[2] is the fact that the young come to be geometricians, and mathematicians, and Wise in such matters, but it is not thought that a young man can come to be possessed of Good Sense; for the reason is that this Sense has for its object particular facts which come to be known from experience, which a young man has not, because it is produced only by length of time.

By the way, a person might also inquire[3] why a boy may be made a mathematician, but not a Sage or a natural philosopher. Is not this the reason? that mathematics are taken in by the process of abstraction, but the principles of Wisdom and natural philosophy must be gained by experience; and the latter young men talk of, but do not realise, while the nature of the former is plain and clear.

Again, in matter of practice, error attaches either to the general rule, in the process of deliberation, or to the particular fact; for instance, this would be a general rule, "All water of a certain gravity is bad;" the particular fact, "this water is of that gravity."

[1] But where can this be done if there be no community? See Horace's account of the way in which his father made him reap instruction from the examples in the Society around him. I. *Sat.* iv. 105, etc. See also Bp. Butler, *Analogy*, Part I., Chap. v. sec. III.

The whole question of the Selfish Morality is treated in Bp. Butler's first three and the eleventh Sermons, in which he shows the coincidence in *fact* of enlightened Self-Love and Benevolence—*i.e.*, love of others. Compare also what is said in the first Book of this treatise, Chap. v., about *αὐταρκεία*.

[2] More truly "implied"—namely, that Sense results from experience.

[3] This observation seems to be introduced, simply because suggested by the last, and not because at all relevant to the matter in hand.

And that Sense is not Science is plain, for it has to do with the ultimate end, as has been said, because every object of action is of this nature.

To Intuitive Apprehension it is opposed, for this takes in those principles which cannot be proved by reasoning, while Sense is concerned with the ultimate particular fact, which cannot be realised by Science, but by Perception; I do not mean one of the five senses, but the same by which we take in the mathematical fact, that no rectilineal figure can be contained by less than three lines—*i.e.*, that a triangle is the ultimate figure, because here also is a stopping point.

This, however, is Perception rather than Sense, which is of another kind.

CHAPTER IX.

OF GOOD COUNSEL.

Now the acts of inquiring and deliberating differ, though deliberating is a kind of inquiring. We ought to ascertain about Good Counsel likewise what it is, whether a kind of Knowledge, or Opinion, or Happy Conjecture, or some other kind of faculty. Knowledge it obviously is not, because men do not inquire about what they know, and Good Counsel is a kind of deliberation, and the man who is deliberating is inquiring and calculating.

Neither is it Happy Conjecture, because this is independent of reasoning, and a rapid operation; but men deliberate a long time, and it is a common saying, that one should execute speedily what has been resolved upon in deliberation, but deliberate slowly.

Quick perception of causes[1] again is a different faculty from Good Counsel, for it is a species of Happy Conjecture. Nor is Good Counsel Opinion of any kind.

Well, then, since he who deliberates ill goes wrong, and he who deliberates well does so rightly, it is clear that Good Counsel is Rightness of some kind, but not of Science nor of Opinion, for Science cannot be called right because it cannot be wrong, and Rightness of Opinion is Truth; and again, all which is the object of Opinion is definitely marked out.[2]

Still, however, Good Counsel is not independent of Reason. Does it remain then that it is a rightness of Intellectual Operation simply, because this does not amount to an assertion; and the objection to Opinion was, that it is not a process of inquiry, but already a definite assertion, whereas whosoever deliberates, whether well or ill, is engaged in inquiry and calculation.

Well, Good Counsel is a Rightness of deliberation, and so the first question must regard the nature and objects of deliberation. Now remember Rightness is an equivocal term; we plainly do not mean Rightness of any kind whatever; the profligate, for instance, or the bad man, will obtain by his calculation what he sets before him as an

[1] The definition of it in the Organon (*Post. Analyt.* I. xxxiv.), "a happy conjecture of the middle term without time to consider of it."

The quæstio states the phænomena, and the middle term the causation, the rapid ascertaining of which constitutes ἀγχίνοια.

All that receives light from the sun is bright on the side next to the sun.

The moon receives light from the sun,

∴ The moon is bright on the side next the sun.

The ἀγχίνοια consists in rapidly and correctly accounting for the observed fact, that the moon is bright on the side next to the sun.

[2] Opinion is a complete, deliberation an incomplete, mental act.

object, and so he may be said to have deliberated *rightly* in one sense, but will have attained a great evil. Whereas to have deliberated well is thought to be a good, because Good Counsel is Rightness of deliberation of such a nature as is apt to attain good.

But even this again you may get by false reasoning, and hit upon the right effect, though not through right means,[1] your middle term being fallacious; and so neither will this be yet Good Counsel, in consequence of which you get what you ought, but not through proper means.

Again, one man may hit on a thing after long deliberation, another quickly. And so that before described will not be yet Good Counsel, but the Rightness must be with reference to what is expedient; and you must have a proper End in view, pursue it in a right manner and right time.

Once more. One may deliberate well, either generally, or towards some particular End.[2] Good counsel in the general then is that which goes right towards that which is the End in a general way of consideration; in particular, that which does so towards some particular End.

Since then deliberating well is a quality of men possessed of Sense, Good Counsel must be "Rightness in respect of what conduces to a given end, of which End Good Sense gives the true conception."

[1] The End does not sanctify the Means.

[2] The meaning is, there is one End including all others; and in this sense Sense is concerned with Means, not Ends; but there are also many subordinate Ends which are in fact Means to the Great End of all. Good counsel has reference not merely to the grand End, but to the subordinate Ends which Sense selects as being right means to the Grand End of all.

CHAPTER X.

OF INTELLIGENCE AND JUDGMENT.

THERE is too the faculty of Intelligence, and also its absence, in virtue of which we call men Intelligent or the contrary.

Now Intelligence is neither entirely identical with Science or Opinion (for then all men would have been Intelligent), nor is it any one specific science, as medical science, whose object-matter is things wholesome; or geometry, whose object-matter is magnitude; for it has not for its object things which always exist and are immutable, nor of those things which come into being, just any which may chance, but those in respect of which a man might doubt and deliberate.

And so it has the same object-matter as Sense; yet the two faculties are not identical, because Sense has the capacity for commanding and taking the initiative, for its End is "what one should do or not do;" but Intelligence is only apt to criticise (though we do in Greek put "well" on to the faculty and its concrete noun, these really mean exactly the same as the plain words), and Intelligence is neither the having Sense nor attaining it; but just as learning is termed to have intelligence of a thing when a man uses his knowledge, so Intelligence consists in employing the Opinionative faculty in judging concerning those things which come within the province of Sense, when another enunciates them; and not judging merely, but judging well (for εὖ and καλῶς mean exactly the same thing). And the Greek name of this faculty is derived from the use

of the term *συνιέναι* (to have intelligence) in learning; *μανθάνειν* (to learn) and *συνιέναι* being often used as synonymous.

The faculty called Judgment (*γνώμη*[1]), in right of which we call men of good Judgment, or say they have Judgment, is "the right Judgment of the equitable man." A proof of which is, that we most commonly say that the equitable man has a tendency to make allowance, and the making allowance in certain cases is equitable. And *συγγνώμη* (the word denoting allowance) is right Judgment, having a capacity of making equitable decisions. By "right" I mean that of the Truthful man.

CHAPTER XI.

OF THE COINCIDENCE OF THE FACULTIES OF SENSE, INTUITIVE APPREHENSION, INTELLIGENCE, AND JUDGMENT.

Now all these mental states tend to the same object, as indeed common language leads us to expect. I mean we speak of Judgment, Intelligence, Good Sense, and Intuitive Apprehension, attributing the possession of Judgment and Intuition to the same Individuals whom we denominate Sensible and Intelligent, because all these faculties are employed upon particular details; and in right of his aptitude for deciding on the matters which come within the province of the Sensible, a man is Intelligent and possessed of good judgment—*i.e.*, he is disposed to make

[1] We have no term which at all approximates to the meaning of this word, much less will our language admit of the play upon it which connects it with *συγγνώμη*.

allowance, for considerations of equity are entertained by all good men alike in transactions with their fellows.

And all matters of Moral Action belong to the class of particulars; for the man of Sense must know them, and Intelligence and Judgment are concerned with matters of Moral Action, which are particulars.

Intuition, moreover, takes in the particulars at both ends.[1] I mean the first and last terms must be taken in not by reasoning, but by Intuition [so that Intuition comes to be of two kinds], and that which belongs to strict demonstrative reasonings takes in immutable, *i.e.*, Necessary first terms; while that which is employed in practical matters takes in the particular, the Contingent, and the minor Premiss; for the minor Premisses are the source of the Final Cause, Universals being made up out of Particulars.[2]

[1] There are cases where we must simply accept or reject without proof: either when Principles are propounded which are prior to all reasoning, or when particular facts are brought before us which are simply matters of *αἴσθησις*. Aristotle here brings both these cases within the province of *νους*—*i.e.*, he calls by this name the Faculty which attains Truth in each.

[2] As a matter of fact and mental experience the Major Premiss of the Practical Syllogism is wrought into the mind by repeatedly acting upon the Minor Premiss (*i.e.*, by *ἐθισμός*).

All that is pleasant is to be done,
This is pleasant,
∴ This is to be done.

By habitually acting on the Minor Premiss—*i.e.*, on the suggestions of *ἐπιθυμία*—a man comes really to hold the Major Premiss. Aristotle says of the man destitute of all self-control that he is firmly persuaded that it is his proper line to pursue the gratification of his bodily appetites, *διὰ τὸ τοιοῦτος εἶναι οἷος διώκειν αὐτάς*. And his analysis of *ἀκρασία* (the state of progress towards this utter abandonment to passion) shows that each case of previous good resolution succumbing to temptation is attributable to *ἐπιθυμία* suggesting its own Minor Premiss in place of the right one. Book VII. 8 and 5.

To take in these of course we must have Perception—*i.e.*, Intuitive Apprehension.

And for this reason these are thought to be simply gifts of nature; and whereas no man is thought to be Wise by nature, men are thought to have Judgment, and Intelligence, and Intuition; a proof of which is, that we think these faculties are a consequence even of particular ages, and this given age has Intuition and Judgment, we say, as if under the notion that nature is the cause. And thus Intuition is both the beginning and end, because the proofs are based upon the one kind of particulars, and concern the other.

And so[1] one should attend to the undemonstrable dicta and opinions of the skilful, the old and the Sensible, no less than to those which are based on strict reasoning, because they see aright, having gained their power of moral vision from experience.

CHAPTER XII.

OBJECTIONS TO THE USEFULNESS OF THESE INTELLECTUAL VIRTUES. THE ANSWERS. A FULLER DESCRIPTION AND ANALYSIS OF GOOD SENSE.

WELL, we have now stated the nature and objects of Good Sense and Wisdom respectively, and that they belong each to a different part of the Soul. But I can conceive a person

[1] The *consequentia* is this:

There are cases both of principles and facts which cannot admit of reasoning, and must be authoritatively determined by νοῦς (Intuition). What makes νοῦς to be a true guide? only practice—*i.e.*, Experience, and *therefore*, etc.

questioning their utility. "Wisdom," he would say, "concerns itself with none of the causes of human happiness (for it has nothing to do with producing anything). Sense has this recommendation, I grant, but where is the need of it, since its province is those things which are just and honourable, and good for man, and these are the things which the good man as such does; but we are not a bit the more apt to do them, because we know them, since the Moral Virtues are Habits, just as we are not more apt to be healthy or in good condition from mere knowledge of what relates to these (I mean of course things so called not from their producing health, etc., but from their evidencing it in a particular subject), for we are not more apt to be healthy and in good condition merely from knowing the art of medicine or training.

If it be urged that knowing what is good does not by itself make a Sensible man, but *becoming* good, still this Sense will be no use either to those that are good, and so have it already, or to those who have it not; because it will make no difference to them, whether they have it themselves, or put themselves under the guidance of others who have; and we might be contented to be in respect of this as in respect of health; for though we wish to be healthy, still we do not set about learning the art of healing.

Furthermore, it would seem to be strange that though lower in the scale than Wisdom, it is to be its master; which it is, because whatever produces results takes the rule, and directs in each matter.

This then is what we are to talk about, for these are the only points now raised.

Now first we say that being respectively Excellences of different parts of the Soul, they must be choiceworthy,

even on the supposition that they neither of them produce results.

In the next place we say that they *do* produce results; that Wisdom makes Happiness, not as the medical art, but as healthiness makes health;[1] because being a part of Virtue in its most extensive sense, it makes a man happy by being possessed, and by working.

Next, Man's work *as Man* is accomplished by virtue of Sense and Moral Virtue, the latter giving the right aim and direction, the former the right means to its attainment;[2] but of the fourth part of the Soul, the mere nutritive principle, there is no such Excellence, because nothing is in its power to do or leave undone.[3]

As to our not being more apt to do what is noble and just by reason of possessing Sense, we must begin a little higher up,[4] taking this for our starting-point. Just as we say that men may do things in themselves just, and yet not be just men; as, for instance, when men do what the laws require of them, either against their will, or by reason of ignorance or something else, at all events not for the sake of the things themselves (and yet they do what they ought, and all that the good man should do); so it seems that to be a good man one must do each act in a particular frame of mind, I mean from Moral Choice and for the sake of the things themselves which are done. Now it is Virtue which makes the Moral Choice right, but whatever is naturally required to carry out that Choice comes not under

[1] Healthiness is the formal } cause of health.
Medicine is the efficient }

[2] φρόνησις (Sense) is here used in a partial sense to signify the Intellectual, as distinct from the Moral, element of Practical Wisdom.

[3] This is another case of an observation being thrown in *obiter*, not relevant to, but suggested by, the matter in hand.

[4] See Book II., chap. iii. and v. 13.

the province of Virtue, but a different faculty. We must halt, as it were, awhile, and speak more clearly on these points.

There is then a certain faculty, commonly named Cleverness, of such a nature as to be able to do and attain whatever conduces to *any* given purpose. Now if that purpose be a good one, the faculty is praiseworthy; if otherwise, it goes by a name which, denoting strictly the ability, implies the willingness to do *anything;* we accordingly call the Sensible Clever, and also those who can and will do anything.[1]

Now Sense is not identical with Cleverness, nor is it without this power of adapting means to ends. But this Eye of the Soul (as we may call it) does not attain its proper state without goodness, as we have said before, and as is quite plain, because the syllogisms into which Moral Action may be analysed have for their Major Premiss, "since ——— is the End and the Chief Good" (fill up the blank with just anything you please, for we merely want to exhibit the Form, so that anything will do), but how this blank should be filled is seen only by the good man, because Vice distorts the moral vision and causes men to be deceived in respect of practical principles.[2]

It is clear, therefore, that a man cannot be a Sensible, without being a good, man.

We must inquire again also about Virtue, for it may be divided into Natural Virtue and Matured, which two bear to each other a relation similar to that which Practical

[1] The article is supplied at *πανούργους*, because the abstract word has just been used expressly in a bad sense. "Up to anything" is the nearest equivalent to *πανούργους*, but too nearly approaches to a colloquial vulgarism.

[2] "Look asquint on the face of truth." Sir T. Browne, *Religio Medici.*

Wisdom bears to Cleverness, one not of identity but resemblance. I speak of Natural Virtue, because men hold that each of the moral dispositions attach to us all somehow by nature. We have dispositions towards justice, self-mastery, and courage, for instance, immediately from our birth. But still we seek Goodness in its highest sense as something distinct from these, and that these dispositions should attach to us in a somewhat different fashion. Children and brutes have these natural states, but then they are plainly hurtful, unless combined with an intellectual element. At least, thus much is matter of actual experience and observation, that as a strong body destitute of sight must, if set in motion, fall violently, because it has not sight, so it is also in the case we are considering; but if it can get the intellectual element, it then excels in acting. Just so the Natural State of Virtue, being like this strong body, will then be Virtue in the highest sense, when it too is combined with the intellectual element.

So that, as in the case of the Opinionative faculty, there are two forms, Cleverness and Sense, so also in the case of the Moral there are two, Natural Virtue and Matured; and of these the latter cannot be formed without Sense.

This leads some to say that all the Virtues are merely intellectual Sense, and Socrates was partly right in his inquiry and partly wrong—wrong, in that he thought all the Virtues were merely intellectual Sense, right in saying they were not independent of that faculty.

A proof of which is, that now all, in defining Virtue, add on the "state accordant with Right Reason," by way of saying to what it is related; now "right" means in accordance with Sense. So then all seem to have an instinctive notion that that state which is in accordance with Sense is Virtue; however, we must make a slight change in their

statement, because that state is Virtue not merely which is in accordance with, but which implies the possession of, Right Reason, which upon such matters is Sense. The difference between us and Socrates is this—he thought the Virtues were reasoning processes (*i.e.*, that they were all instances of Knowledge in its strict sense), but we say they imply the possession of Reason.

From what has been said, then, it is clear that one cannot be, strictly speaking, good without Sense, nor Sensible without moral goodness.

And by the distinction between Natural and Matured Virtue, one can meet the reasoning by which it might be argued "that the Virtues are separable, because the same man is not by nature most inclined to all at once, so that he will have acquired this one before he has that other." We would reply, this is possible with respect to the Natural Virtues, but not with respect to those in right of which a man is denominated simply good, because they will all belong to him, together with the one faculty of Sense.

It is plain too that even had it not been apt to act we should have needed it, because it is the Virtue of a part of the Soul; and that the moral choice cannot be right, independently of Sense or Moral Goodness, because this gives the right End that causes the doing these things which conduce to the End.

Then again, it is not master of Wisdom (*i.e.*, of the superior part of the Soul), just as neither is the healing art of health; for it does not make use of it, but looks how it may come to be—so it commands for the sake of it, but does not command it.

The objection is, in fact, about as valid as if a man should say Political Science governs the Gods, because it gives orders about all things in the community.

BOOK VII.

CHAPTER I.

PREFATORY.

NEXT we must take a different point to start from,[1] and observe that of what is to be avoided in respect of moral character there are three forms: Vice, Imperfect Self-Control, and Brutishness. Of the two former it is plain what the contraries are, for we call the one Virtue, the other Self-Control; and as answering to Brutishness, it will be most suitable to assign Superhuman, *i.e.*, heroical and godlike Virtue, as, in Homer, Priam says of Hector, that he was very excellent, nor was he like the offspring of mortal man, but of a god; and so if, as is commonly said, men are raised to the position of gods by reason of very high excellence in Virtue, the state opposed to the Brutish will plainly be of this nature; because as brutes are not virtuous or vicious, so neither are gods, but the state of these is something more precious than Virtue, of the former something different in kind from Vice.

And as, on the one hand, it is a rare thing for a man to be godlike (a term the Lacedæmonians are accustomed to

[1] The account of Virtue and Vice hitherto given represents rather what men *may be* than what they *are*. In this book we take a practical view of Virtue and Vice, in their ordinary, everyday development.

use when they admire a man exceedingly), so the Brutish man is rare among men; the character is found most among barbarians, and some cases of it are caused by disease or maiming; also such men as exceed in vice all ordinary measures, we therefore designate by this opprobrious term. Well, we must in a subsequent place make some mention of this disposition, and Vice has been spoken of before. For the present we must speak of Imperfect Self-Control, and its kindred faults of Softness and Luxury, on the one hand, and of Self-Control and Endurance on the other, since we are to conceive of them, not as being the same states exactly as Virtue and Vice respectively, nor again as differing in kind.

And we should adopt the same course as before, *i.e.*, state the phænomena, and, after raising and discussing difficulties which suggest themselves, then exhibit, if possible, all the opinions afloat respecting these affections of the moral character; or, if not all, the greater part and the most important; for we may consider we have illustrated the matter sufficiently, when the difficulties have been solved, and such theories as are most approved are left as a residuum.

The chief points may be thus enumerated. It is thought—

I. That Self-Control and Endurance belong to the class of things good and praiseworthy, while Imperfect Self-Control and Softness belong to that of things low and blameworthy.

II. That the man of Self-Control is identical with the man who is apt to abide by his resolution, and the man of Imperfect Self-Control with him who is apt to depart from his resolution.

III. That the man of Imperfect Self-Control does things

at the instigation of his passions, knowing them to be wrong, while the man of Self-Control, knowing his lusts to be wrong, refuses, by the influence of reason, to follow their suggestions.

IV. That the man of Perfected Self-Mastery unites the qualities of Self-Control and Endurance, and some say that every one who unites these is a man of Perfect Self-Mastery, others do not.

V. Some confound the two characters of the man who has *no* Self-Control, and the man of *Imperfect* Self-Control, while others distinguish between them.

VI. It is sometimes said that the man of Sense cannot be a man of Imperfect Self-Control, sometimes that men who are Sensible and Clever are of Imperfect Self-Control.

VII. Again, men are said to be of Imperfect Self-Control, not simply, but with the addition of the thing wherein, as in respect of anger, of honour, and gain.

These then are pretty well the common statements.

CHAPTER II.

QUESTIONS RAISED, AND SLIGHTLY DISCUSSED.

Now a man may raise a question as to the nature of the right conception in violation of which a man fails of Self-Control.

That he can so fail when *knowing* in the strict sense what is right, some say is impossible; for it is a strange thing, as Socrates thought, that while Knowledge is present in his mind, something else should master him, and drag

him about like a slave. Socrates, in fact, contended generally against the theory, maintaining there is no such state as that of Imperfect Self-Control, for that no one acts contrary to what is best, conceiving it to be best, but by reason of ignorance what is best.

With all due respect to Socrates, his account of the matter is at variance with plain facts, and we must inquire with respect to the affection, if it be caused by ignorance, what is the nature of the ignorance; for that the man so failing does not suppose his acts to be right before he is under the influence of passion is quite plain.[1]

There are people who partly agree with Socrates, and partly not; that nothing can be stronger than Knowledge they agree, but that no man acts in contravention of his conviction of what is better, they do not agree; and so they say that it is not Knowledge, but only Opinion, which the man in question has, and yet yields to the instigation of his pleasures.

But then, if it is Opinion, and not Knowledge, that is, if the opposing conception be not strong, but only mild (as in the case of real doubt), the not abiding by it in the face of strong lusts would be excusable; but wickedness is not excusable, nor is anything which deserves blame.

Well then, is it Good Sense which in this case offers opposition, for that is the strongest principle? The supposition is absurd, for we shall have the same man uniting Good Sense and Imperfect Self-Control, and surely no single person would maintain that it is consistent with the character of Good Sense to do voluntarily what is very wrong; and besides we have shown before that the very mark of a man of this character is aptitude to act, as distinguished from mere knowledge of what is right;

[1] This illustrates the expression, "*Deceits* of the Flesh."

because he is a man conversant with particular details, and possessed of all the other virtues.

Again, if the having strong and bad lusts is necessary to the idea of the man of Self-Control, this character cannot be identical with the man of Perfected Self-Mastery, because the having strong desires or bad ones does not enter into the idea of this latter character; and yet the man of Self-Control must have such, for suppose them good, then the moral state which should hinder a man from following their suggestions must be bad, and so Self-Control would not be in all cases good. Suppose them on the other hand to be weak and not wrong, it would be nothing grand, nor anything great, supposing them to be wrong and weak.

Again, if Self-Control makes a man apt to abide by all opinions without exception, it may be bad, as suppose the case of a false opinion; and if Imperfect Self-Control makes a man apt to depart from all without exception, we shall have cases where it will be good. Take that of Neoptolemus in the *Philoctetes* of Sophocles for instance, for he is to be praised for not abiding by what he was persuaded to by Ulysses, because he was pained at being guilty of falsehood.

Or again, false sophistical reasoning presents a difficulty; for because men wish to prove paradoxes that they may be counted clever when they succeed, the reasoning that has been used becomes a difficulty; for the intellect is fettered, a man being unwilling to abide by the conclusion, because it does not please his judgment, but unable to advance, because he cannot disentangle the web of sophistical reasoning.

Or again, it is conceivable on this supposition that folly joined with Imperfect Self-Control may turn out, in a given case, goodness; for by reason of his imperfection of self-

control a man acts in a way which contradicts his notions Now his notion is, that what is really good is bad, and ought not to be done; and so he will eventually do what is good, and not what is bad.

Again, on the same supposition, the man who acting on conviction pursues and chooses things because they are pleasant, must be thought a better man than he who does so, not by reason of a quasi-rational conviction, but of Imperfect Self-Control; because he is more open to cure by reason of the possibility of his receiving a contrary conviction. But to the man of Imperfect Self-Control would apply the proverb, "When water chokes, what should a man drink then?" for had he never been convinced at all in respect of what he does,[1] then by a conviction in a contrary direction he might have stopped in his course; but now, though he has had convictions, he notwithstanding acts against them.

Again, if any and everything is the object-matter of Imperfect and Perfect Self-Control, who is the man of Imperfect Self-Control simply? because no one unites all cases of it, and we commonly say that some men are so simply, not adding any particular thing in which they are so.

Well, the difficulties raised are pretty near such as I have described them, and of these theories we must remove some, and leave others as established, because the solving of a difficulty is a positive act of establishing something as true. .

[1] Another reading omits the μὴ. The meaning of the whole passage would be exactly the same. It would then run, "If he had been convinced of the rightness of what he does—*i.e.*, if he were now acting on conviction—he might stop in his course on a change of conviction."

CHAPTER III.

OF THE OBJECT-MATTER OF SELF-CONTROL. OF THE NATURE OF THE CONVICTION AGAINST WHICH THE MAN OF IMPERFECT SELF-CONTROL ACTS.

Now we must examine, first, whether men of Imperfect Self-Control act with a knowledge of what is right or not. Next, if with such knowledge, in what sense; and next, what are we to assume is the object-matter of the man of Imperfect Self-Control, and of the man of Self-Control. I mean, whether pleasure and pain of all kinds, or certain definite ones; and as to Self-Control and Endurance, whether these are designations of the same character, or different. And in like manner we must go into all questions which are connected with the present.

But the real starting-point of the inquiry is, whether the two characters of Self-Control and Imperfect Self-Control are distinguished by their object-matter, or their respective relations to it. I mean, whether the man of Imperfect Self-Control is such, simply by virtue of having such and such object-matter; or not, but by virtue of his being related to it in such and such a way, or by virtue of both. Next, whether Self-Control and Imperfect Self-Control are unlimited in their object-matter, because he who is designated without any addition a man of Imperfect Self-Control is not unlimited in his object-matter, but has exactly the same as the man who has lost all Self-Control. Nor is he so designated because of his relation to this object-matter merely (for then his character would be identical with that just mentioned, loss of all Self-Control), but because of his relation to it

being such and such. For the man who has lost all Self-Control is led on with deliberate choice, holding that it is his line to pursue pleasure as it rises; while the man of Imperfect Self-Control does not think that he ought to pursue it, but does pursue it all the same.

Now as to the notion that it is True Opinion and not Knowledge, in contravention of which men fail in Self-Control, it makes no difference to the point in question, because some of those who hold Opinions have no doubt about them, but suppose themselves to have accurate Knowledge. If, then, it is urged that men holding Opinions will be more likely than men who have Knowledge to act in contravention of their conceptions, as having but a moderate belief in them, we reply, Knowledge will not differ in this respect from Opinion, because some men believe their own Opinions no less firmly than others do their positive Knowledge. Heraclitus is a case in point.

Rather the following is the account of it. The term *knowing* has two senses, for both the man who does not use his Knowledge and he who does are said to *know*. There will be a difference between a man's acting wrongly, who, though possessed of Knowledge, does not call it into operation, and his doing so who has it, and actually exercises it. The latter is a strange case, but the mere having, if not exercising, presents no anomaly.[1]

Again, as there are two kinds of propositions affecting action, universal and particular, there is no reason why a man may not act against his Knowledge, having both propositions in his mind, using the universal, but not the particular, for the particulars are the objects of moral action.

[1] The reader may refer to the illuminating treatment of Real and Formal Assent in Newman's *Grammar of Assent*.—[ED.]

There is a difference also in universal propositions.[1] A universal proposition may relate partly to a man's self, and partly to the thing in question. Take the following for instance:—"Dry food is good for every man;" this may have the two minor premisses, "this is a man," and "so and so is dry food;" but whether a given substance is so and so, a man either has not the Knowledge, or does not exert it. According to these different senses there will be an immense difference; so that for a man to *know* in the one sense, and yet act wrongly, would be nothing strange, but in any of the other senses it would be a matter for wonder.

Again, men may have Knowledge in a way different from any of those which have been now stated, for we constantly see a man's state so differing by having and not using Knowledge, that he has it in a sense, and also has not; when a man is asleep, for instance, or mad, or drunk. Well, men under the actual operation of passion are in exactly similar conditions, for anger, lust, and some other such like things manifestly make changes even in the body, and in some they even cause madness. It is plain then that we must say the men of Imperfect Self-Control are in a state similar to these.

And their saying what embodies Knowledge is no proof of their actually then exercising it, because they who are under the operation of these passions repeat demonstrations and verses of Empedocles,[2] just as children, when first learning, string words together, but as yet know nothing of their meaning, because they must grow into it, and this is a process requiring time. So that we must suppose these

[1] Some necessarily implying knowledge of the particulars, others not.

[2] As a modern parallel take old Trumbull in Scott's *Red Gauntlet.*

men who fail in Self-Control to say these moral sayings, just as actors do.

Furthermore, a man may look at the account of the phænomenon in the following way, from an examination of the actual working of the mind: All action may be analysed into a syllogism, in which the one premiss is an universal maxim, and the other concerns particulars of which Perception [moral or physical, as the case may be] is cognisant. Now when one results from these two, it follows necessarily that, as far as theory goes, the mind must assert the conclusion, and in practical propositions the man must act accordingly.

For instance, let the universal be, "All that is sweet should be tasted," the particular, "This is sweet;" it follows necessarily that he who is able and is not hindered should not only draw but put in practice the conclusion, "This is to be tasted." When, then, there is in the mind one universal proposition forbidding to taste, and the other, "All that is sweet is pleasant," with its minor, "This is sweet" (which is the one that really works), and desire happens to be in the man, the first universal bids him avoid this, but the desire leads him on to taste, for it has the power of moving the various organs; and so it results that he fails in Self-Control, in a certain sense under the influence of Reason and Opinion, not contrary in itself to Reason, but only accidentally so, because it is the desire that is contrary to Right Reason, but not the Opinion.[1] And so

[1] That is, as I understand it, either the major or the minor premiss; it is true that "all that is sweet is pleasant;" it is true also that "this is sweet." What is contrary to Right Reason is the bringing in this minor to the major—*i.e.*, the universal maxim, forbidding to taste. Thus: a man goes to a convivial meeting with the maxim in his mind, "All excess is to be avoided;" at a certain time his Perception tells him, "This glass is excess." As a matter of mere reasoning he cannot

for this reason brutes are not accounted of Imperfect Self-Control, because they have no power of conceiving universals, but only of receiving and retaining particular impressions.

As to the manner in which the ignorance is removed, and the man of Imperfect Self-Control recovers his Knowledge, the account is the same as with respect to him who is drunk or asleep, and is not peculiar to this affection, so physiologists[1] are the right people to apply to. But whereas the minor premiss of every practical syllogism is an opinion on matter cognisable by Sense, and determines the actions, he who is under the influence of passion either has not this, or so has it that his having does not amount

help receiving the conclusion, "This glass is to be avoided;" and supposing him to be morally sound, he would accordingly abstain. But Desire, being a simple tendency towards indulgence, suggests in place of the minor premiss, "This is excess," its own premiss, "This is sweet;" this again suggests the self-indulgent maxim or principle (Ἀρχή), "All that is sweet is to be tasted," and so, by strict logical sequence, proves, "This glass is to be tasted."

The solution then of the phænomenon of Imperfect Self-Control is this: that Desire, by its direct action on the animal nature, swamps the suggestions of Right Reason.

On the high ground of Universals, Science, *i.e.* Right Reason, easily defeats Desire. The man of Imperfect Self-Control, an hour before he is in temptation, would never deliberately prefer the maxim, "All that is sweet is to be tasted," to "All excess is to be avoided." The man of no Self-Control would.

Horace has a good comment upon this (II. *Sat.* 2):

"Quæ virtus et quanta, boni, sit vivere parvo
. . . . . .
Discite, *non inter lances mensasque nitentes*
Verùm hìc *impransi* mecum disquirite."

Compare also Proverbs xxiii. 31, "Look not thou upon the wine when it is red," etc.

[1] As we commonly speak, Metaphysicians. Physiology of course included Metaphysics.

to *knowing*, but merely saying, as a drunken man might Empedocles' verses; and because the minor term is neither universal, nor is thought to have the power of producing Knowledge in like manner as the universal term. And so the result which Socrates was seeking comes out—that is to say, the affection does not take place in the presence of that which is thought to be specially and properly Knowledge, nor is this dragged about by reason of the affection, but in the presence of that Knowledge which is conveyed by Sense.

Let this account then be accepted of the question respecting the failure in Self-Control, whether it is with Knowledge, and the manner in which such failure is possible or not, though a man possesses Knowledge.

CHAPTER IV.

OF THE CHARACTER DESIGNATED SIMPLY BY THE TERM "OF IMPERFECT SELF-CONTROL." OF THOSE SO DESIGNATED, WITH THE ADDITION OF THE PARTICULAR OBJECT-MATTER.

THE next question to be discussed is, whether there is a character to be designated by the term "of Imperfect Self-Control," or whether all who are so are to be accounted such, in respect of some particular thing; and, if there is such a character, what is his object-matter.

Now that pleasures and pains are the object-matter of men of Self-Control and of Endurance, and also of men of Imperfect Self-Control and Softness, is plain.

Further, things which produce pleasure are either necessary, or objects of choice in themselves, but yet admitting

of excess. All bodily things which produce pleasure are necessary, and I call such those which relate to food and other grosser appetites; in short, such bodily things as we assumed were the Object-matter of absence of Self-Control, and of Perfected Self-mastery.

The other class of objects are not necessary, but objects of choice in themselves: I mean, for instance, victory, honour, wealth, and such like good or pleasant things. And those who are excessive in their liking for such things contrary to the principle of Right Reason which is in their own breasts, we do not designate men of Imperfect Self-Control simply, but with the addition of the thing wherein, as in respect of money, or gain, or honour, or anger, and not simply because we consider them as different characters, and only having that title in right of a kind of resemblance (as when we add to a man's name, "conqueror in the Olympic games," the account of him as Man differs but little from the account of him as the Man who conquered in the Olympic games, but still it is different). And a proof of the real difference between these so designated with an addition and those simply so called is this, that Imperfect Self-Control is blamed, not as an error merely, but also as being a vice, either wholly or partially; but none of these other cases is so blamed.

But of those who have for their object-matter the bodily enjoyments, which we say are also the object-matter of the man of Perfected Self-Mastery and the man who has lost all Self-Control, he that pursues excessive pleasures, and too much avoids[1] things which are painful (as hunger and thirst, heat

[1] The Greek would give "avoids excessive pain," but this is not true, for the excess of pain would be ground for excuse. The warrant for translating as in the text is the passage occurring just below, διώκει τὰς ὑπερβολὰς καὶ φεύγει μετρίας λύπας.

and cold, and everything connected with touch and taste), not from moral choice, but in spite of his moral choice and intellectual conviction, is termed "a man of Imperfect Self-Control," not with the addition of any particular object-matter, as we do in respect of want of control of anger, but simply.

And a proof that the term is thus applied is, that the kindred term "Soft" is used in respect of these enjoyments, but not in respect of any of those others. And for this reason we put into the same rank the man of Imperfect Self-Control, the man who has lost it entirely, the man who has it, and the man of Perfected Self-Mastery; but not any of those other characters, because the former have for their object-matter the same pleasures and pains; but though they have the same object-matter, they are not related to it in the same way, but two of them act upon moral choice, two without it. And so we should say, that man is more entirely given up to his passions who pursues excessive pleasures, and avoids moderate pains, being either not at all, or at least but little, urged by desire, than the man who does so, because his desire is very strong; because we think what would the former be likely to do, if he had the additional stimulus of youthful lust and violent pain consequent on the want of those pleasures, which we have denominated necessary.[1]

Well then, since of desires and pleasures there are some which have for their objects things honourable and good (because things pleasant are divisible, as we said before, into such as are naturally objects of choice, such as are naturally objects of avoidance, and such as are in themselves indifferent), money, gain, honour, victory, for instance. In

[1] Compare Bp. Butler on Particular Propensions, *Analogy*, Part I., chap. v. sec. iv.

respect of all such, and those that are indifferent, men are blamed not for being affected by, or desiring or liking them, but for exceeding in any way in these feelings.

And so they are blamed, whosoever in spite of Reason are mastered by, that is pursue, any object, though in its nature noble and good; they, for instance, who are more earnest than they should be respecting honour, or their children or parents; not but what these are good objects, and men are praised for being earnest about them. But still they admit of excess; for instance, if any one, as Niobe did, should fight even against the Gods, or feel towards his father as Satyrus, who got therefrom the nickname of Philopator because he was thought to be very foolish.

Now depravity there is none in regard of these things for the reason assigned above, that each of them in itself is a thing naturally choiceworthy, yet the excesses in respect of them are wrong, and matter for blame; and similarly, there is no Imperfect Self-Control in respect of these things, that being not merely a thing that should be avoided but blameworthy.

But because of the resemblance of the affection to the Imperfection of Self-Control, the term is used with the addition in each case of the particular object-matter, just as men call a man a bad physician, or bad actor, whom they would not think of calling simply bad. As then in these cases we do not apply the term simply because each of the states is not a vice, but only like a vice in the way of analogy,[1] so it is plain that in respect of Imperfect Self-Control and Self-Control we must limit the names to those states which have the same object-matter as Perfected Self-Mastery, and utter loss of Self-Control, and that we do

[1] That is, they are to the right states as Vice to Virtue.

apply it to the case of anger only in the way of resemblance, for which reason, with an addition, we designate a man of Imperfect Self-Control in respect of anger, as of honour or gain.

CHAPTER V.

OF THE BRUTISH STATES.

As there are some things naturally pleasant, and of these two kinds—those, namely, which are pleasant generally, and those which are so relatively to particular kinds of animals and men; so there are others which are not naturally pleasant, but which come to be so in consequence either of physical defects, or custom, or depraved natural tastes; and one may observe moral states similar to those we have been speaking of, having respectively these classes of things for their object-matter.

I mean the Brutish, as in the case of the female, who, they say, would rip up women with child and eat the fœtus; or the tastes which are found among the savage tribes bordering on the Pontus, some liking raw flesh, and some being cannibals, and some lending one another their children to make feasts of; or what is said of Phalaris. These are instances of Brutish states, caused in some by disease or madness; take, for instance, the man who sacrificed and ate his mother, or him who devoured the liver of his fellow-servant. Instances again of those caused by disease or by custom would be, plucking out of hair, or eating one's nails, or eating coals and earth.[1] Now wherever nature is really the cause, no one would think of

[1] See the letter of Sabina Rentfree, *Spectator*, 431.

calling men of Imperfect Self-Control, nor, in like manner, such as are in a diseased state through custom.

The having any of these inclinations is something foreign to what is denominated Vice, just as Brutishness is. And when a man has them, his mastering is not properly Self-Control, nor his being mastered by them Imperfection of Self-Control in the proper sense, but only in the way of resemblance; just as we may say a man of ungovernable wrath fails of Self-Control in respect of anger, but not simply fails of Self-Control. For all excessive folly, cowardice, absence of Self-Control, or irritability, are either Brutish or morbid. The man, for instance, who is naturally afraid of all things, even if a mouse should stir, is cowardly after a Brutish sort; there was a man again who, by reason of disease, was afraid of a cat. And of the fools, they who are naturally destitute of Reason, and live only by Sense, are Brutish, as are some tribes of the far-off barbarians, while others who are so by reason of diseases, epileptic or frantic, are in morbid states.

So then of these inclinations a man may sometimes merely have one without yielding to it. I mean, suppose that Phalaris had restrained his unnatural desire to eat a child; or he may both have, and yield to it. As then Vice when such as belongs to human nature is called Vice simply, while the other is so called with the addition of "brutish" or "morbid," but not simply Vice, so manifestly there is Brutish and Morbid Imperfection of Self-Control, but that alone is entitled to the name without any qualification, which is of the nature of utter absence of Self-Control as it is found in Man.

CHAPTER VI.

IMPERFECT SELF-CONTROL (SIMPLY), COMPARED WITH IMPERFECT SELF-CONTROL IN RESPECT OF ANGER.

IT is plain, then, that the object-matter of Imperfect Self-Control and Self-Control is restricted to the same as that of utter absence of Self-Control, and Perfected Self-Mastery, and that the rest is the object-matter of a different species so named metaphorically and not simply. We will now examine the position, "that Imperfect Self-Control in respect of Anger is less disgraceful than that in respect of Lusts."

In the first place it seems that Anger does in a way listen to Reason, but mishears it; as quick servants who run out before they have heard the whole of what is said, and then mistake the order. Dogs, again, bark at the slightest stir, before they have seen whether it be friend or foe; just so Anger, by reason of its natural heat and quickness, listening to Reason, but without having heard the command of Reason, rushes to its revenge. That is to say, Reason or some impression on the mind shows there is insolence or contempt[1] in the offender, and then Anger, reasoning as it were that one ought to fight against what is such, fires up immediately; whereas Lust, if Reason or Sense, as the case may be, merely says a thing is sweet, rushes to the enjoyment of it. And so Anger follows Reason in a manner, but Lust does not, and is therefore more disgraceful; because he that cannot control his anger yields

[1] Consult in connection with this Chapter the Chapter on Anger in the *Rhetoric*, II. 2, and Bp. Butler's Sermon on Resentment.

in a manner to Reason, but the other to his Lust, and not to Reason at all.

Again, a man is the more excusable for following such desires as are natural, just as he is for following such Lusts as are common to all, and to that degree in which they are common. Now Anger and irritability are more natural than Lusts, when in excess, and for objects not necessary. (This was the ground of the defence the man made who beat his father. "My father," he said, "used to beat his, and his father his again, and this little fellow here," pointing to his child, "will beat me when he is grown a man; it runs in the family." And the father, as he was being dragged along, bid his son leave off beating him at the door, because he had himself been used to drag his father so far.)

Again, characters are less unjust in proportion as they involve less insidiousness. Now the Angry man is not insidious, nor is Anger, but quite open; but Lust is, as they say of Venus—

"Cyprus-born Goddess, *weaver of deceits.*"

Or Homer of the girdle called the Cestus—

"Persuasiveness *cheating* the subtlest mind."

And so if this kind of Imperfect Self-Control is more unjust, then it is also more disgraceful than that in respect of Anger, and is simply Imperfect Self-Control and Vice, in a sense.

Again, no man feels pain in being insolent, but every one who acts through Anger does act with pain; and he who acts insolently does it with pleasure. If then those things are most unjust with which we have most right to be angry,

then Imperfect Self Control, arising from Lust, is more so than that arising from Anger, because in Anger there is no insolence.[1]

Well, then, it is clear that Imperfect Self-Control in respect of Lusts is more disgraceful than that in respect of Anger, and that the object-matter of Self-Control, and the Imperfection of it, are bodily Lusts and pleasures; but of these last we must take into account the differences, for, as was said at the commencement, some are proper to the human race, and natural both in kind and degree; others Brutish, and others caused by maimings and diseases.

Now the first of these only are the object-matter of Perfected Self-Mastery, and utter absence of Self-Control, and therefore we never attribute either of these states to Brutes (except metaphorically, and whenever any one kind of animal differs entirely from another in insolence, mischievousness, or voracity), because they have not moral choice or process of deliberation, but are quite different from that kind of creature, just as are madmen.

Brutishness is less in the scale than Vice, yet it is to be regarded with more fear, because it is not that the highest principle has been corrupted, as in the human creature, but the subject has it not at all.

[1] The reasoning here being somewhat obscure from the conciseness of expression, the following exposition of it is subjoined:—

Actions of Lust are wrong actions done with pleasure,
Wrong actions done with pleasure are more justly objects of wrath,*
Such as are more justly objects of wrath are more unjust,
∴ Actions of Lust are more unjust.

* ὕβρις (insolence) is introduced as the single instance from which this premiss is proved inductively. See the account of it in the Chapter of the *Rhetoric* referred to in the preceding note.

It is much the same, therefore, as if one should compare an inanimate with an animate being, which were the worse; for the badness of that which has no principle of origination is always less harmful; but Intellect is such a principle A similar case would be the comparing injustice and an unjust man together;[1] for in different ways each is the worst. A bad man would produce ten thousand times as much harm as a brute.

CHAPTER VII.

AN ENUMERATION AND DESCRIPTION OF THE VARIOUS CHARACTERS (TAKING IN THE IDEA OF PAINS AS WELL AS PLEASURES).

Now with respect to the pleasures and pains which come to a man through Touch and Taste, and the desiring or avoiding such (which we determined before to constitute the object-matter of the states of utter absence of Self-Control and Perfected Self-Mastery), one may be so disposed as to yield to temptations, to which most men would be superior, or to be superior to those to which most men would yield. In respect of pleasures, these characters will be respectively the man of Imperfect Self-Control and the man of Self-Control; and in respect of pains, the man of Softness and the man of Endurance. But the moral state of most men is something between the two, even though they lean somewhat to the worse characters.

[1] There is probably some corruption here—the comparison intended seems to be between the principle of injustice and a given act of injustice, such as might proceed from a character not naturally unjust.—[ED.]

Again, since of the pleasures indicated some are necessary and some are not, others are so to a certain degree, but not the excess or defect of them, and similarly also of Lusts and pains, the man who pursues the excess of pleasant things, or such as are in themselves excess, or from moral choice, for their own sake, and not for anything else which is to result from them, is a man utterly void of Self-Control, for he must be incapable of remorse, and so incurable, because he that has not remorse is incurable. (He that has too little love of pleasure is the opposite character, and the man of Perfected Self-Mastery the mean character.) He is of a similar character who avoids the bodily pains, not because he *cannot*, but because he *chooses not to*, withstand them.

But of the characters who go wrong without *choosing* so to do, the one is led on by reason of pleasure, the other because he avoids the pain it would cost him to deny his lust; and so they are different the one from the other. Now every one would pronounce a man worse for doing something base without any impulse of desire, or with a very slight one, than for doing the same from the impulse of a very strong desire, for striking a man when not angry than if he did so in wrath; because one naturally says, "What would he have done had he been under the influence of passion?" (and on this ground, by-the-bye, the man utterly void of Self-Control is worse than he who has it imperfectly.) However, of the two characters which have been mentioned [as included in that of utter absence of Self-Control], the one is rather Softness, the other properly that character.

Furthermore, to the character of Imperfect Self-Control is opposed that of Self-Control, and to that of Softness that of Endurance; because Enduring consists in continued resistance, but Self-Control in actual mastery, and continued resistance and actual mastery are as different as not being

conquered is from conquering. And so Self-Control is more choiceworthy than Endurance.

Again, he who fails when exposed to those temptations, against which the common run of men hold out, and are well able to do so, is Soft and Luxurious (Luxury being a kind of Softness), the kind of man, I mean, to let his robe drag in the dirt to avoid the trouble of lifting it, and who, aping the sick man, does not however suppose himself wretched, though he is like a wretched man. So it is too with respect to Self-Control and the Imperfection of it. If a man yields to pleasures or pains which are violent and excessive, it is no matter for wonder, but rather for allowance, if he made what resistance he could (instances are, Philoctetes in Theodectes' drama, when wounded by the viper; or Cercyon in the Alope of Carcinus, or men who in trying to suppress laughter burst into a loud continuous fit of it, as happened, you remember, to Xenophantus), but it is a matter for wonder when a man yields to, and cannot contend against, those pleasures or pains which the common herd are able to resist; always supposing his failure not to be owing to natural constitution or disease, I mean, as the Scythian kings are constitutionally Soft, or the natural difference between the sexes.

Again, the man who is a slave to amusement is commonly thought to be destitute of Self-Control, but he really is Soft, because amusement is an act of relaxing, being an act of resting, and the character in question is one of those who exceed due bounds in respect of this.

Moreover, of Imperfect Self-Control there are two forms, Precipitancy and Weakness. Those who have it in the latter form, though they have made resolutions, do not abide by them, by reason of passion; the others are led by passion, because they have never formed any resolutions at

all; while there are some who, like those who when they are prepared for it, cannot be tickled, having felt and seen beforehand the approach of temptation, and roused up themselves and their resolution, yield not to passion, whether the temptation be somewhat pleasant or somewhat painful. The Precipitate form of Imperfect Self-Control they are most liable to who are constitutionally of a sharp or melancholy temperament, because the one by reason of the swiftness, the other by reason of the violence, of their passions, do not wait for Reason, because they are disposed to follow whatever notion is impressed upon their minds.

Again, the man utterly destitute of Self-Control, as was observed before, is not given to remorse, for it is part of his character, that he abides by his moral choice; but the man of Imperfect Self-Control is almost made up of remorse. And so the case is not as we determined it before, but the former is incurable, and the latter may be cured; for depravity is like chronic diseases, dropsy and consumption, for instance, but Imperfect Self-Control is like acute disorders, the former being a continuous evil, the latter not so. And, in fact, Imperfect Self-Control and Confirmed Vice are different in kind, the latter being imperceptible to its victim, the former not so.[1]

But of the different forms of Imperfect Self-Control those are better who are carried off their feet by a sudden excess of temptation, than they who have Reason, but do not abide by it, these last being overcome by passion less in degree,

[1] "If we went into a hospital where all were sick or dying, we should think those least ill who were insensible to pain; a physician who knew the whole would behold them with despair. And there is a mortification of the soul as well as of the body, in which the first symptoms of returning hope are pain and anguish."—Sewell, *Sermons to Young Men* (Sermon xii.).

and not wholly without premeditation, as are the others, for the man of Imperfect Self-Control is like those who are soon intoxicated and by little wine, and less than the common run of men.

Well, then, that Imperfection of Self-Control is not Confirmed Viciousness is plain; and yet perhaps it is in a way, because in one sense it is contrary to moral choice, and in another the result of it.[1] At all events, in respect of the actions, the case is much like what Demodocus said of the Miletians. "The people of Miletus are not fools, but they do just the kind of things that fools do;" and so they of Imperfect Self-Control are not unjust, but they do unjust acts.

But to resume. Since the man of Imperfect Self-Control is of such a character as to follow bodily pleasures in excess, and in defiance of Right Reason, without acting on any deliberate conviction, whereas the man utterly destitute of Self-Control does act upon a conviction, which rests on his natural inclination to follow after these pleasures; the former may be easily persuaded to a different course, but the latter not; for Virtue and Vice respectively preserve and corrupt the moral principle; now the motive is the principle or starting-point in moral actions, just as axioms and postulates are in mathematics; and neither in morals nor mathematics it is Reason which is apt to teach the principles; but Virtue, either natural, or acquired by custom, in holding right notions with respect to the principle. He who does this

[1] Before the time of trial comes the man deliberately makes his Moral Choice to act rightly; but at the moment of acting the powerful strain of desire makes him contravene this choice. His Will does not act in accordance with the affirmation or negation of his Reason. His actions are therefore of the mixed kind. See Book III., chap. i., and note 3 on page 175.

in morals is the man of Perfected Self-Mastery, and the contrary character is the man utterly destitute of Self-Control.

Again, there is a character liable to be taken off his feet in defiance of Right Reason, because of passion; whom passion so far masters as to prevent his acting in accordance with Right Reason, but not so far as to make him be convinced that it is his proper line to follow after such pleasures without limit. This character is the man of Imperfect Self-Control, better than he who is utterly destitute of it, and not a bad man simply, and without qualification, because in him the highest and best part—*i.e.* principle—is preserved. And there is another character opposed to him who is apt to abide by his resolutions, and not to depart from them; at all events, not at the instigation of passion.

It is evident then from all this that Self-Control is a good state, and the Imperfection of it a bad one.

CHAPTER VIII.

OF THE RELATION WHICH STEADFASTNESS IN OPINION, AND THE CONTRARY, BEAR TO SELF-CONTROL AND IMPERFECT SELF-CONTROL RESPECTIVELY.

NEXT comes the question, whether a man is a man of Self-Control, for abiding by his conclusions and choice, be they of what kind they may, or only by the right one; or again, a man of Imperfect Self-Control, for not abiding by his conclusions and choice, be they of whatever kind; or, to put the case we did before, is he such for not abiding by false conclusions and wrong choice?

Is not this the truth, that *incidentally* it is by conclusions

and choice of any kind that the one character abides and the other does not, but *per se* true conclusions and right choice.[1] To explain what is meant by incidentally and *per se*:—Suppose a man chooses or pursues this thing for the sake of that, he is said to pursue and choose that *per se*, but this only incidentally. For the term *per se* we use commonly the word "simply"; and so, in a way, it is opinion of any kind soever by which the two characters respectively abide or not, but he is "simply" entitled to the designations who abides or not by the true opinion.

There are also people who have a trick of abiding by their own opinions, who are commonly called Positive, as they who are hard to be persuaded, and whose convictions are not easily changed. Now these people bear some resemblance to the character of Self-Control, just as the prodigal to the liberal, or the rash man to the brave; but they are different in many points. The man of Self-Control does not change by reason of passion and lust, yet when occasion so requires he will be easy of persuasion; but the Positive man changes not at the call of Reason, though many of this class take up certain desires, and are led by their pleasures. Among the class of Positive are the Opinionated, the Ignorant, and the Bearish; the first, from the motives of pleasure and pain—I mean, they have the pleasurable feeling of a kind of victory in not having their convictions changed, and they are pained when their decrees, so to speak, are reversed; so that, in fact, they rather resemble the man of Imperfect Self-Control than the man of Self-Control.

[1] Let a man be punctual *on principle* to any one engagement in the day, and he must, as a matter of course, keep all his others in their due places relatively to this one, and so will often wear an appearance of being needlessly punctilious in trifles.

Again, there are some who depart from their resolutions not by reason of any Imperfection of Self-Control; take, for instance, Neoptolemus in the *Philoctetes* of Sophocles. Here certainly pleasure was the motive of his departure from his resolution, but then it was one of a noble sort; for to be truthful was noble in his eyes, and he had been persuaded by Ulysses to lie.

So it is not every one who acts from the motive of pleasure who is utterly destitute of Self-Control or base, or of Imperfect Self-Control, only he who acts from the impulse of a base pleasure.

CHAPTER IX.

NOTES ADDITIONAL AND SUPPLEMENTARY.

MOREOVER, as there is a character who takes less pleasure than he ought in bodily enjoyments, and he also fails to abide by the conclusion of his Reason,[1] the man of Self-Control is the mean between him and the man of Imperfect Self-Control—that is to say, the latter fails to abide by them because of somewhat too much, the former because of somewhat too little; while the man of Self-Control abides by them, and never changes by reason of anything else than such conclusions.

Now of course since Self-Control is good both the contrary States must be bad, as indeed they plainly are; but because the one of them is seen in few persons, and but rarely in them, Self-Control comes to be viewed as if

[1] Because he is destitute of these minor springs of action, which are intended to supply the defects of the higher principle.

See Bp. Butler's first Sermon on Compassion.

opposed only to the Imperfection of it, just as Perfected Self-Mastery is thought to be opposed only to utter want of Self-Control.

Again, as many terms are used in the way of similitude, so people have come to talk of the Self-Control of the man of Perfected Self-Mastery in the way of similitude; for the man of Self-Control and the man of Perfected Self-Mastery have this in common, that they do nothing against Right Reason on the impulse of bodily pleasures; but then the former has bad desires, the latter not: and the latter is so constituted as not even to feel pleasure contrary to his Reason; the former feels, but does not yield to, it.

Like again are the man of Imperfect Self-Control and he who is utterly destitute of it, though in reality distinct; both follow bodily pleasures, but the latter under a notion that it is the proper line for him to take, the former without any such notion.

And it is not possible for the same man to be at once a man of Good Sense, and of Imperfect Self-Control, because the character of Good Sense includes, as we showed before, goodness of moral character. And again, it is not knowledge merely, but aptitude for action, which constitutes Good Sense; and of this aptitude the man of Imperfect Self-Control is destitute. But there is no reason why the Clever man should not be of Imperfect Self-Control; and the reason why some men are occasionally thought to be men of Good Sense, and yet of Imperfect Self-Control, is this, that Cleverness differs from Good Sense in the way I stated in a former book, and is very near it so far as the intellectual element is concerned, but differs in respect of purpose.

Nor is the man of Imperfect Self-Control like the man who both has and calls into exercise his knowledge, but

like the man who, having it, is overpowered by sleep or wine. Again, he acts voluntarily (because he knows, in a certain sense, what he does, and the result of it), but he is not a confirmed bad man, for his moral choice is good, so he is at all events only half bad. Nor is he unjust, because he does not act with deliberate intent; for of the two chief forms of the character the one is not apt to abide by his deliberate resolutions and the other, the man of constitutional strength of passion, is not apt to deliberate at all.

So in fact the man of Imperfect Self-Control is like a community which makes all proper enactments, and has admirable laws, only does not act on them, verifying the scoff of Anaxandrides—

> "That State did will it, which cares nought for laws;"

whereas the bad man is like one which acts upon its laws, but then they unfortunately are bad ones.

Imperfection of Self-Control and Self-Control, after all, are above the average state of men, because he of the latter character is more true to his Reason, and the former less so, than is in the power of most men.

Again, of the two forms of Imperfect Self-Control, that is more easily cured which they have who are constitutionally of strong passions, than that of those who form resolutions and break them; and they that are so through habituation than they that are so naturally; since of course custom is easier to change than nature, because the very resemblance of custom to nature is what constitutes the difficulty of changing it; as Evenus says—

> **"Practice, I say, my friend, doth long endure,**
> **And at the last is even very nature."**

We have now said then what Self-Control is, what Imperfection of Self-Control, what Endurance, and what Softness, and how these states are mutually related.

[A discussion of Pleasure is usually inserted here, but the translator has omitted it, because it is obviously an interpolation, probably from some other author than Aristotle, and adds little or nothing to the discussion of Pleasure given in Book X.]

BOOK VIII.

CHAPTER 1.

INTRODUCTORY. REASONS FOR INTRODUCING A DISSERTATION ON FRIENDSHIP INTO THIS TREATISE.

NEXT would seem properly to follow a dissertation on Friendship, because, in the first place, it is either itself a virtue, or connected with virtue; and next, it is a thing most necessary for life, since no one would choose to live without friends, though he should have all the other good things in the world; and, in fact, men who are rich or possessed of authority and influence, are thought to have special need of friends; for where is the use of such prosperity if there be taken away the doing of kindnesses, of which friends are the most usual and most commendable objects? Or how can it be kept or preserved without friends, because the greater it is so much the more slippery and hazardous. In poverty, moreover, and all other adversities, men think friends to be their only refuge.

Furthermore, Friendship helps the young in keeping them from error; the old, in respect of attention and such deficiencies in action as their weakness makes them liable to; and those who are in their prime in respect of noble deeds ("They *two* together going," Homer says, you may

remember), because they are thus more able to devise plans and carry them out.

Again, it seems to be implanted in us by Nature—as, for instance, in the parent towards the offspring, and the offspring towards the parent (not merely in the human species, but likewise in birds and most animals), and in those of the same tribe towards one another, and especially in men of the same nation, for which reason we commend those men who love their fellows; and one may see in the course of travel how close of kin and how friendly man is to man.

Furthermore, Friendship seems to be the bond of Social Communities, and legislators seem to be more anxious to secure it than Justice even. I mean, Unanimity is somewhat like to Friendship, and this they certainly aim at, and specially drive out faction as being inimical.

Again, where people are in Friendship, Justice is not required;[1] but, on the other hand, though they are just, they need Friendship in addition, and that principle which is most truly just is thought to partake of the nature of Friendship.

Lastly, not only is it a thing necessary, but honourable likewise, since we praise those who are fond of friends, and the having numerous friends is thought a matter of credit to a man; some go so far as to hold that "good man" and "friend" are terms synonymous.

[1] "Owe no man anything, but to *love* one another; for he that loveth another *hath fulfilled the Law.*"—Romans xiii. 8.

CHAPTER II.

A STATEMENT OF VARIOUS OPINIONS RESPECTING LOVE OR FRIENDSHIP.

YET the disputed points respecting it are not few. Some men lay down that it is a kind of resemblance, and that men who are like one another are friends; whence come the common sayings, "Like will to like," "Birds of a feather," and so on. Others, on the contrary, say that all such come under the maxim, "Two of a trade never agree."

Again, some men push their inquiries on these points higher, and reason physically, as Euripides, who says—

> "The earth by drought consumed doth love the rain,
> And the great heaven, overcharged with rain,
> Doth love to fall in showers upon the earth."

Heraclitus, again, maintains that "contrariety is expedient, and that the best agreement arises from things differing, and that all things come into being in the way of the principle of antagonism."

Empedocles, among others, in direct opposition to these, affirms that "like aims at like."

These questions of natural philosophy we will take leave to omit, inasmuch as they are foreign to the present inquiry; and we will examine such as are proper to man and concern moral characters and feelings—as, for instance, "Does Friendship arise among all without distinction, or is it impossible for bad men to be friends?" and, "Is there but one species of Friendship, or several;" for they who ground

the opinion that there is but one on the fact that Friendship admits of degrees, hold that upon insufficient proof, because things which are different in species admit likewise of degrees (on this point we have spoken before).

CHAPTER III.

OF THE OBJECT-MATTER OF FRIENDSHIP.

OUR view will soon be cleared on these points, when we have ascertained what is properly the object-matter of Friendship; for it is thought that not everything indiscriminately, but some peculiar matter alone, is the object of this affection; that is to say, what is good, or pleasurable, or useful. Now it would seem that that is useful through which accrues any good or pleasure, and so the objects of Friendship, as absolute Ends, are the good and the pleasurable.

A question here arises: whether it is good absolutely, or that which is good to the individuals, for which men feel Friendship (these two being sometimes distinct); and similarly in respect of the pleasurable. It seems then that each individual feels it towards that which is good to himself, and that abstractedly it is the real good which is the object of Friendship, and to each individual that which is good to each. It comes then to this—that each individual feels Friendship not for what *is*, but for that which *conveys to his mind the impression of being* good to himself. But this will make no real difference, because that which is truly the object of Friendship will also convey this impression to the mind.

There are then three causes from which men feel Friendship; but the term is not applied to the case of fondness for things inanimate, because there is no requital of the affection, nor desire for the good of those objects. It certainly savours of the ridiculous to say that a man fond of wine wishes well to it; the only sense in which it is true being that he wishes it to be kept safe and sound for his own use and benefit.[1] But to the friend they say one should wish all good for his sake. And when men do thus wish good to another (he not reciprocating the feeling), people call them Kindly, because Friendship they describe as being "Kindliness between persons who reciprocate it." But must they not add that the feeling must be mutually known? for many men are kindly disposed towards those whom they have never seen, but whom they conceive to be amiable or useful; and this is the same thing as if such a person had really received a kindness from one of these unknown men.

Well, these are plainly Kindly-disposed towards one another. But how can one call them friends, while their mutual feelings are unknown to one another? To complete the idea of Friendship, then, it is requisite that they have kindly feelings towards one another, and wish one another good from one of the afore-mentioned causes, and that these kindly feelings should be mutually known.

[1] In this sense, therefore, is it sung of Mrs. Gilpin, that she

"two stone bottles found,
To hold the liquor that she *loved*
And keep it safe and sound."

CHAPTER IV.

OF THE IMPERFECTION OF THE FRIENDSHIPS BASED ON THE MOTIVES OF EXPEDIENCY AND PLEASURE.

As the motives to Friendship differ in kind, so do the respective feelings and Friendships. The species then of Friendship are three, in number equal to the objects of it, since in the line of each there may be "mutual affection mutually known."

Now they who have Friendship for one another desire one another's good, according to the motive of their Friendship. Accordingly they whose motive is utility have no Friendship for one another really, but only in so far as some good arises to them from one another.

And they whose motive is pleasure are in like case. I mean they have Friendship for men of easy pleasantry, not because they are of a given character, but because they are pleasant to themselves. So then they whose motive to Friendship is utility love their friends for what is good to themselves; they whose motive is pleasure do so for what is pleasurable to themselves; that is to say, not in himself, but in so far as he is useful or pleasurable. These Friendships then are a matter of result, since the object is not beloved in himself, but in that he furnishes advantage or pleasure, as the case may be.

Such Friendships are of course very liable to dissolution, if the parties do not continue alike. I mean that the others cease to have any Friendship for them, when they are no longer pleasurable or useful. Now it is the nature of utility not to be permanent, but constantly varying; so of course,

when the motive which made them friends is vanished, the Friendship likewise dissolves, since it existed only relatively to those circumstances.

Friendship of this kind is thought to exist principally among the old (because men at that time of life pursue, not what is pleasurable, but what is profitable); and in such of men in their prime, and of the young, as are given to the pursuit of profit. They that are such have no intimate intercourse with one another, for sometimes they are not even pleasurable to one another; nor, in fact, do they desire such intercourse, unless their friends are profitable to them, and they are pleasurable only in so far as they have hopes of advantage. With these Friendships is commonly ranked that of hospitality.[1]

But the Friendship of the young is thought to be based on the motive of pleasure, because they live at the beck and call of passion, and generally pursue what is pleasurable to themselves, and the object of the present moment; and as their age changes, so likewise do their pleasures.

This is the reason why they form and dissolve Friendships rapidly, since the Friendship changes with the pleasurable object, and such pleasure changes quickly.

The young are also much given up to Love, this passion being in great measure a matter of impulse, and based on pleasure. For which cause they conceive Friendships and quickly drop them, changing often in the same day. These wish for society and intimate intercourse with their friends, since they thus attain the object of their Friendship.

[1] The interchange of hospitality formed in Greece a certain definite and permanent bond among different families.—[ED.]

CHAPTER V.

ON THE PERFECTIONS OF THE FRIENDSHIP BASED ON VIRTUE AND THE IMPERFECTIONS OF THE OTHER TWO KINDS.

THAT then is perfect Friendship which subsists between those who are good and whose similarity consists in their goodness, for these men wish one another's good in similar ways, in so far as they are good (and good they are in themselves). And those are specially friends who wish good to their friends for their sakes, because they feel thus towards them on their own account, and not as a mere matter of result; so the Friendship between these men continues to subsist so long as they are good, and goodness, we know, has in it a principle of permanence.

Moreover, each party is good abstractedly, and also relatively to his friend, for all good men are not only abstractedly good, but also useful to one another. Such friends are also mutually pleasurable, because all good men are so abstractedly. and also relatively to one another, inasmuch as to each individual those actions are pleasurable which correspond to his nature, and all such as are like them. Now when men are good these will be always the same, or at least similar.

Friendship then under these circumstances is permanent, as we should reasonably expect, since it combines in itself all the requisite qualifications of friends. I mean that Friendship of whatever kind is based upon good or pleasure (either abstractedly or relatively to the person entertaining the sentiment of Friendship), and results from a similarity of some sort, and to this kind belong all the afore-mentioned requisites in the parties themselves, because in this the

parties are similar, and so on.[1] Moreover, in it there is the abstractedly good, and the abstractedly pleasant, and as these are specially the object-matter of Friendship, so the feeling and the state of Friendship is found most intense and most excellent in men thus qualified.

Rare, it is probable, Friendships of this kind will be, because men of this kind are rare. Besides, all requisite qualifications being presupposed, there is further required time and intimacy, for as the proverb says, men cannot know one another "till they have eaten the requisite quantity of salt together;" nor can they, in fact, admit one another to intimacy, much less be friends, till each has appeared to the other, and been proved to be, a fit object of Friendship. They who speedily commence an interchange of friendly actions may be said to wish to be friends, but they are not so unless they are also proper objects of Friendship, and mutually known to be such. That is to say, a desire for Friendship may arise quickly, but not Friendship itself.

Well, this Friendship is perfect, both in respect of the time and in all other points, and exactly the same and similar results accrue to each party from the other, which ought to be the case between friends.

The Friendship based upon the pleasurable is, so to say, a copy of this, since the good are sources of pleasure to one another; and that based on utility likewise, the good being also useful to one another. Between men thus connected Friendships are most permanent when the same result accrues to both from one another—pleasure, for instance; and not merely so, but from the same source, as in the case of two men of easy pleasantry; and not as it is in that

[1] Cardwell's reading, *ταύτῃ γὰρ ὅμοιοι, καὶ τὰ λοιπά*, is here adopted, as yielding a better sense than Bekker's.

of a lover and the object of his affection, these not deriving their pleasure from the same causes, but the former from seeing the latter, and the latter from receiving the attentions of the former; and when the bloom of youth fades, the Friendship sometimes ceases also, because then the lover derives no pleasure from seeing, and the object of his affection ceases to receive the attentions which were paid before. In many cases, however, people so connected continue friends; if being of similar tempers, they have come from custom to like one another's disposition.

Where people do not interchange pleasure but profit in matters of Love, the Friendship is both less intense in degree and also less permanent; in fact, they who are friends because of advantage commonly part when the advantage ceases, for, in reality, they never were friends of one another, but of the advantage.

So then it appears that, from motives of pleasure or profit, bad men may be friends to one another, or good men to bad men, or men of neutral character to one of any character whatever; but disinterestedly, for the sake of one another, plainly the good alone can be friends, because bad men can have no pleasure even in themselves, unless in so far as some advantage arises.

And further, the Friendship of the good is alone superior to calumny, it not being easy for men to believe a third person respecting one whom they have long tried and proved. There is between good men mutual confidence, and the feeling that one's friend would never have done one wrong, and all other such things as are expected in Friendship really worthy the name; but in the other kinds there is nothing to prevent all such suspicions.

I call them Friendships, because since men commonly give the name of friends to those who are connected from

motives of profit (which is justified by political language, for alliances between states are thought to be contracted with a view to advantage), and to those who are attached to one another by the motive of pleasure (as children are), we may perhaps also be allowed to call such persons friends, and say there are several species of Friendship; primarily and specially that of the good, in that they are good, and the rest only in the way of resemblance. I mean, people connected otherwise are friends in that way in which there arises to them somewhat good and some mutual resemblance (because we must remember the pleasurable is good to those who are fond of it).

These secondary Friendships, however, do not combine very well; that is to say, the same persons do not become friends by reason of advantage, and by reason of the pleasurable, for these matters of result are not often combined. And Friendship having been divided into these kinds, bad men will be friends by reason of pleasure or profit, this being their point of resemblance, while the good are friends for one another's sake; that is, in so far as they are good.

These last may be termed absolutely and simply friends, the former as a matter of result, and termed friends from their resemblance to these last.

CHAPTER VI.

ON THE METHOD OF SUSTAINING FRIENDSHIP.

FURTHER, just as in respect of the different virtues some men are termed good in respect of a certain inward

disposition, others in respect of acts of performance, so is it in respect of Friendship. I mean they who live together take pleasure in and impart good to one another; but they who are asleep, or are locally separated, do not perform acts, but only are in such a state as to act in a friendly way, if they acted at all. Distance has in itself no direct effect upon Friendship, but only prevents the acting it out. Yet, if the absence be protracted, it is thought to cause forgetfulness even of the Friendship. And hence it has been said, "Many and many a Friendship hath want of intercourse destroyed."

Accordingly, neither the old nor the morose appear to be calculated for Friendship, because the pleasurableness in them is small, and no one can spend his days in company with that which is positively painful, or even not pleasurable, since to avoid the painful and aim at the pleasurable is one of the most obvious tendencies of human nature. They who get on with one another very fairly, but are not in habits of intimacy, are rather like people having kindly feelings towards one another than friends, nothing being so characteristic of friends as the living with one another, because the necessitous desire assistance, and the happy companionship, they being the last persons in the world for solitary existence; but people cannot spend their time together, unless they are mutually pleasurable, and take pleasure in the same objects, a quality which is thought to appertain to the Friendship of companionship.

CHAPTER VII.

REPETITION OF SOME REMARKS. SUPPLEMENTARY REMARKS ON THE SAME SUBJECT.

THE connection then subsisting between the good is Friendship *par excellence*, as has already been frequently said, since that which is abstractedly good or pleasant is thought to be an object of Friendship and choiceworthy, and to each individual whatever is such to him; and the good man to the good man for both these reasons.

(Now the entertaining the sentiment is like an emotion, but Friendship itself like a disposition, because the former may have for its object even things inanimate; but requital of Friendship is attended with choice, which proceeds from a moral disposition. And again, men wish good to the objects of their Friendship for their sakes, not in the way of a mere feeling, but of moral disposition.)

And the good, in loving their friend, love their own good (inasmuch as the good man, when brought into that relation, becomes a good to him with whom he is so connected), so that either party loves his own good, and repays his friend equally, both in wishing well, and in giving pleasure, for equality is said to be a tie of Friendship. Well, these points belong most to the Friendship between good men.

But between morose or elderly men Friendship is less apt to arise, because they are somewhat awkward-tempered, and take less pleasure in intercourse and society, these being thought to be specially friendly, and productive of Friendship; and so young men become friends quickly, old

men not so (because people do not become friends with any, unless they take pleasure in them); and in like manner neither do the morose. Yet men of these classes entertain kindly feelings towards one another: they wish good to one another, and render mutual assistance in respect of their needs, but they are not quite friends, because they neither spend their time together, nor take pleasure in one another, which circumstances are thought specially to belong to Friendship.

To be a friend to many people, in the way of the perfect Friendship, is not possible—just as you cannot love many at once. It is, so to speak, a state of excess, which naturally has but one object; and besides, it is not an easy thing for one man to be very much pleased with many people at the same time, nor perhaps to find many really good. Again, a man needs experience, and to be in habits of close intimacy, which is very difficult.

But it *is* possible to find many who will please on the score of advantage and pleasure, because there are many men of the kind, and the services may be rendered in a very short time.

Of the two imperfect kinds, that which most resembles the perfect is the Friendship based upon pleasure, in which the same results accrue from both, and they take pleasure in one another, or in the same objects—such as are the Friendships of the young, because a generous spirit is most found in these. The Friendship because of advantage is the connecting link of those who love gain.

Then, again, the very happy have no need of persons who are profitable, but of pleasant ones they have, because they wish to have people to live intimately with; and what is painful they bear for a short time indeed, but continuously no one could support it—nay, not even the Chief

Good itself—if it were painful to him individually; and so they look out for pleasant friends. Perhaps they ought to require such to be good also;-and good moreover to themselves individually, because then they will have all the proper requisites of Friendship.

Men in power are often seen to make use of several distinct friends, for some are useful to them, and others pleasurable, but the two are not often united, because they do not, in fact, seek such as shall combine pleasantness and goodness, nor such as shall be useful for honourable purposes; but with a view to attain what is pleasant, they look out for men of easy pleasantry; and again, for men who are clever at executing any business put into their hands; and these qualifications are not commonly found united in the same man.

It has been already stated that the good man unites the qualities of pleasantness and usefulness; but then such an one will not be a friend to a superior, unless he be also his superior in goodness; for if this be not the case, he cannot, being surpassed in one point, make things equal by a proportionate degree of Friendship.[1] And characters who unite superiority of station and goodness are not common.

[1] The Great man will have a right to look for more Friendship than he bestows; but the Good man *can* feel Friendship only for, and in proportion to, the goodness of the other.

CHAPTER VIII.

OF FRIENDSHIP BETWEEN PARTIES WHO ARE UNEQUAL.

Now all the kinds of Friendship which have been already mentioned exist in a state of equality, inasmuch as either the same results accrue to both, and they wish the same things to one another, or else they barter one thing against another; pleasure, for instance, against profit. It has been said already that Friendships of this latter kind are less intense in degree and less permanent.

And it is their resemblance or dissimilarity to the same thing which makes them to be thought to be and not to be Friendships; they show like Friendships in right of their likeness to that which is based on virtue (the one kind having the pleasurable, the other the profitable, both of which belong also to the other). And again, they do not show like Friendships by reason of their unlikeness to that true kind, which unlikeness consists herein, that while that is above calumny, and so permanent, these quickly change, and differ in many other points.

But there is another form of Friendship, that, namely, in which the one party is superior to the other; as between father and son, elder and younger, husband and wife, ruler and ruled. These also differ one from another. I mean the Friendship between parents and children is not the same as between ruler and the ruled, nor has the father the same towards the son as the son towards the father, nor the husband towards the wife, as she towards him; because the work, and therefore the excellence, of each of these is different, and different therefore are the causes of their

feeling Friendship; distinct and different therefore are their feelings and states of Friendship.

And the same results do not accrue to each from the other, nor in fact ought they to be looked for; but when children render to their parents what they ought to the authors of their being, and parents to their sons what they ought to their offspring, the Friendship between such parties will be permanent and equitable.

Further, the feeling of Friendship should be in a due proportion in all Friendships which are between superior and inferior. I mean the better man, or the more profitable, and so forth, should be the object of a stronger feeling than he himself entertains, because when the feeling of Friendship comes to be after a certain rate, then equality in a certain sense is produced, which is thought to be a requisite in Friendship.

(It must be remembered, however, that the equal is not in the same case as regards Justice and Friendship; for in strict Justice the exactly proportioned equal ranks first, and the actual numerically equal ranks second, while in Friendship this is exactly reversed.)

And that equality is thus requisite is plainly shown by the occurrence of a great difference of goodness or badness, or prosperity, or something else; for in this case people are not any longer friends, nay they do not even feel that they ought to be. The clearest illustration is perhaps the case of the gods, because they are most superior in all good things. It is obvious too in the case of kings, for they who are greatly their inferiors do not feel entitled to be friends to them; nor do people very insignificant to be friends to those of very high excellence or wisdom. Of course in such cases it is out of the question to attempt to define up to what point they may continue friends; for you may

remove many points of agreement, and the Friendship last nevertheless; but when one of the parties is very far separated (as a god from men), it cannot continue any longer.

This has given room for a doubt whether friends do really wish to their friends the very highest goods, as that they may be gods; because, in case the wish were accomplished, they would no longer have them for friends, nor in fact would they have the good things they had, because friends are good things. If then it has been rightly said, that a friend wishes to his friend good things for that friend's sake, it must be understood that he is to remain such as he now is; that is to say, he will wish the greatest good to him of which as man he is capable; yet perhaps not all, because each man desires good for himself most of all.

It is thought that desire for honour makes the mass of men wish rather to be the objects of the feeling of Friendship than to entertain it themselves; and for this reason they are fond of flatterers, a flatterer being a friend inferior or at least pretending to be such, and rather to love than to be loved, which last is thought to be nearly the same as being honoured, which the mass of men desire. And yet men seem to choose honour, not for its own sake, but for the sake of something else. I mean the common run of men delight to be honoured by those in power, because of the hope it raises—that is, they think they shall get from them anything they may happen to be in want of, so they delight in honour as an earnest of future benefit. They again who grasp at honour at the hands of the good, and those who are really acquainted with their merits, desire to confirm their own opinion about themselves; so they take pleasure in the conviction that they are good, which is based on the sentence of those who assert it. But in being

the object of Friendship men delight for its own sake, and so this may be judged to be higher than being honoured, and Friendship to be in itself choiceworthy. Friendship, moreover, is thought properly to consist in loving rather than in being loved,[1] which is proved by the delight mothers have in the feeling. Some there are who give their children to be adopted and brought up by others, and, knowing them, bear this feeling towards them, never seeking to have it returned, if both are not possible; but seeming to be content with seeing them well off, and bearing this feeling themselves towards them, even though they, by reason of ignorance, never render to them any filial regard or love.

Since then Friendship stands rather in the entertaining than in being the object of the sentiment, and they are praised who are fond of their friends, it seems that entertaining the sentiment is the Virtue of friends; and so, in whomsoever this exists in due proportion, these are stable friends, and their Friendship is permanent. And in this way may they who are unequal best be friends, because they may thus be made equal.

Equality, then, and similarity are a tie to Friendship, and specially the similarity of goodness, because good men, being stable in themselves, are also stable as regards others, and neither ask unworthy services nor render them, but, so to say, rather prevent them; for it is the part of the good neither to do wrong themselves, nor to allow their friends in so doing.

The bad, on the contrary, have no principle of stability; in fact, they do not even continue like themselves—only

[1] Compare the "wonderful sentence" (as Goethe called it) of Spinoza —"He who truly loves God must not demand that God shall love him in return."—[ED.]

they come to be friends for a short time from taking delight in one another's wickedness. Those connected by motives of profit or pleasure hold together somewhat longer—so long, that is to say, as they can give pleasure or profit mutually.

The Friendship based on motives of profit is thought to be most of all formed out of contrary elements. The poor man, for instance, is thus a friend of the rich, and the ignorant of the man of information; that is to say, a man desiring that of which he is, as it happens, in want, gives something else in exchange for it. To this same class we may refer the lover and beloved, the beautiful and the ill-favoured. For this reason lovers sometimes show in a ridiculous light, claiming to be the objects of as intense a feeling as they themselves entertain. Of course, if they are equally fit objects of Friendship, they are perhaps entitled to claim this, but if they have nothing of the kind, it is ridiculous.

Perhaps, moreover, the contrary does not aim at its contrary for its own sake, but incidentally. The mean is really what is grasped at, it being good for the dry, for instance, not to become wet, but to attain the mean, and so of the hot, etc.

However, let us drop these questions, because they are in fact somewhat foreign to our business.

CHAPTER IX.

THE RELATION BETWEEN JUSTICE AND FRIENDSHIP.

It seems too, as was stated at the commencement, that Friendship and Justice have the same object-matter, and subsist between the same persons. I mean, that in every Communion there is thought to be some principle of Justice, and also some Friendship. Men address as friends, for instance, those who are their comrades by sea, or in war, and in like manner also those who are brought into Communion with them in other ways; and the Friendship, because also the Justice, is coextensive with the Communion. This justifies the common proverb, "the goods of friends are common," since Friendship rests upon Communion.

Now brothers and intimate companions have all in common, but other people have their property separate, and some have more in common, and others less, because the Friendships likewise differ in degree. So too do the various principles of Justice involved, not being the same between parents and children as between brothers, nor between companions as between fellow-citizens merely, and so on of all the other conceivable Friendships. Different also are the principles of Injustice as regards these different grades, and the acts become greater from being done to friends. For instance, it is worse to rob your companion than one who is merely a fellow-citizen; to refuse help to a brother than to a stranger; and to strike your father than any one else. So then the claims of Justice naturally increase with the degree

of Friendship, both existing in the same parties and growing with equal growth.

All cases of Communion are parts, so to say, of the great Social one, since in them men associate with a view to some advantage, and to procure some of those things which are needful for life; and the great Social Communion is thought originally to have been associated and to continue for the sake of some advantage, this being the point at which legislators aim, affirming that to be just which is generally expedient.

All the other cases of Communion aim at advantage in particular points; the crew of a vessel, at that which is to result from the voyage, which is undertaken with a view to making money, or some such object; comrades in war, at that which is to result from the war, grasping either at wealth or victory, or it may be a political position; and those of the same tribe, or Demus, in like manner.

Some of them are thought to be formed for pleasure's sake, those, for instance, of bacchanals or club-fellows, which are with a view to religious festivals, or merely company. But all these seem to be ranged under the great Social one, inasmuch as the aim of this is not merely the expediency of the moment, but for life, and at all times, with a view to which the members of it institute sacrifices and their attendant assemblies, to render honour to the gods, and procure for themselves respite from toil, combined with pleasure. For it appears that sacrifices and religious assemblies in old times were made as a kind of first-fruits after the ingathering of the crops, because at such seasons they had most leisure.

So then it appears that all the instances of Communion are parts of the great Social one, and corresponding Friendships will follow upon such Communions.

CHAPTER X.

OF THE VARIOUS FORMS OF POLITICAL CONSTITUTIONS, AND THEIR TYPES IN DOMESTIC LIFE.

OF Political Constitutions there are three kinds, and equal in number are the deflections from them—being, so to say, corruptions of them

The former are Kingship, Aristocracy, and that which recognises the principle of wealth, which it seems appropriate to call Timocracy (τιμή, cost, value), and which people commonly call "constitutional government." Of these the best is Monarchy, and Timocracy the worst.

From Monarchy the deflection is Despotism, both being Monarchies, but widely differing from each other; for the Despot looks to his own advantage, but the King to that of his subjects, for he is in fact no King who is not thoroughly independent and superior to the rest in all good things, and he that is this has no further wants: he will not then have to look to his own advantage, but to that of his subjects, for he that is not in such a position is a mere King elected by lot for the nonce.

But Despotism is on a contrary footing to this Kingship, because the Despot pursues his own good; and in the case of this its inferiority is most evident, and what is contrary to what is the best is the worst. The transition to Despotism is made from Kingship, Despotism being a corrupt form of Monarchy—that is to say, the bad King comes to be a Despot.

From Aristocracy to Oligarchy the transition is made by the fault of the Rulers, in distributing the public property

contrary to right proportion, and giving either all that is good, or the greatest share, to themselves, and the offices to the same persons always, making wealth their idol; thus a few bear rule, and they bad men in place of the best.

From Timocracy the transition is to Democracy, they being contiguous; for it is the nature of Timocracy to be in the hands of a multitude, and all in the same grade of property are equal. Democracy is the least vicious of all [the corrupt forms], since herein the form of the constitution undergoes least change.

Well, these are generally the changes to which the various Constitutions are liable, being the least in degree, and the easiest to make.

Likenesses, and, as it were, models of them, one may find even in Domestic life. For instance, the Communion between a Father and his Sons presents the figure of Kingship, because the children are the Father's care; and hence Homer names Jupiter Father, because Kingship is intended to be a paternal rule. Among the Persians, however, the Father's rule is Despotic, for they treat their Sons as slaves. The relation of Master to Slaves is of the nature of Despotism, because the point regarded herein is the Master's interest. This now strikes me to be as it ought, but the Persian custom to be mistaken, since, for different persons there should be different rules.

Between Husband and Wife the relation takes the form of Aristocracy, because he rules by right, and in such points only as the Husband should, and gives to the Wife all that befits her to have. Where the Husband lords it in everything, he changes the relation into an Oligarchy; because he does it contrary to right, and not as being the better of the two. In some instances the Wives take the reins of government, being heiresses; here the rule is carried on,

not in right of goodness, but by reason of wealth and power, as it is in Oligarchies.

Timocracy finds its type in the relation of Brothers; they being equal, except as to such differences as age introduces; for which reason, if they are very different in age, the Friendship comes to be no longer a fraternal one; while Democracy is represented specially by families which have no head (all being their equal), or in which the proper head is weak, and so every member does that which is right in his own eyes.

CHAPTER XI.

THE CORRELATIVENESS OF FRIENDSHIP AND JUSTICE.

ATTENDANT then on each form of Political Constitution there plainly is Friendship, exactly coextensive with the principle of Justice; that between a King and his Subjects being in the relation of a superiority of benefit, inasmuch as he benefits his subjects, it being assumed that he is a good king, and takes care of their welfare, as a shepherd tends his flock; whence Homer (to quote him again) calls Agamemnon "shepherd of the people." And of this same kind is the Paternal Friendship, only that it exceeds the former in the greatness of the benefits done; because the father is the author of being (which is esteemed the greatest benefit), and of maintenance and education (these things are also, by the way, ascribed to ancestors generally); and by the law of nature the father has the right of rule over his sons, ancestors over their descendants, and the king over his subjects.

These friendships are also between superiors and inferiors,

for which reason parents are not merely loved, but also honoured. The principle of Justice also between these parties is not exactly the same, but according to proportion, because so also is the Friendship.

Now between Husband and Wife there is the same Friendship as in Aristocracy, for the relation is determined by relative excellence, and the better person has the greater good, and each has what befits. So too also is the principle of Justice between them.

The Fraternal Friendship is like that of Companions, because brothers are equal and much of an age, and such persons have generally like feelings and like dispositions. Like to this also is the Friendship of a Timocracy, because the citizens are intended to be equal and equitable. Rule, therefore, passes from hand to hand, and is distributed on equal terms; so too is the Friendship accordingly.

In the deflections from the constitutional forms, just as the principle of Justice is but small, so will be the Friendship also, and, least of all, in the most perverted form. In Despotism there is little or no Friendship, for generally, wherever the ruler and the ruled have nothing in common, there is no Friendship, because there is no Justice; but the case is as between an artisan and his tool, or between body and soul, and master and servant. All these are benefited or cared for by those who use them, but towards things inanimate there is neither Friendship nor Justice; nor even towards a horse or an ox, or a slave *quâ* slave, because there is nothing in common; a slave as such is an animate tool, a tool an inanimate slave. *Quâ* slave, then, there is no Friendship towards him, only *quâ* man; for it is thought that there is some principle of Justice between every man, and every other who can share in law and be a party to an agreement; and so somewhat of Friendship, in so far as the

slave is man. So in Despotisms, the Friendships and the principle of Justice are inconsiderable in extent, but in Democracies they are most considerable, because they who are equal have much in common.

CHAPTER XII.

OF THE FRIENDSHIPS WHOSE BASIS IS BLOOD-RELATIONSHIP.

Now of course all Friendship is based upon Communion, as has been already stated; but one would be inclined to separate off from the rest the Friendship of Kindred and that of Companions; whereas those of men of the same city, or tribe, or crew, and all such, are more peculiarly, it would seem, based upon Communion, inasmuch as they plainly exist in right of some agreement, expressed or implied. Among these one may rank also the Friendship of Hospitality.

The Friendship of Kindred is likewise of many kinds, and appears in all its varieties to depend on the Parental. Parents, I mean, love their children as being part of themselves, children love their parents as being themselves somewhat derived from them. But parents know their offspring more than these know that they are from the parents, and the source is more closely bound to that which is produced, than that which is produced is to that which formed it. Of course, whatever is derived from one's self is proper to one's self (as, for instance, a tooth or a hair, or any other thing whatever to him that has it); but we are in no degree proper to it, or in an inferior degree at least.

Then again the greater length of time comes in. The parents love their offspring from the first moment of their being, but their offspring them only after a lapse of time, when they have attained intelligence or instinct. These considerations serve also to show why mothers have greater strength of affection than fathers.

Now parents love their children as themselves (since what is derived from themselves becomes a kind of other Self by the fact of separation), but children their parents as being sprung from them. And brothers love one another from being sprung from the same—that is, their sameness with the common stock creates a sameness with one another; whence come the phrases, "same blood," "root," and so on. In fact, they are the same in a sense, even in the separate distinct individuals.

Then again the being brought up together, and the nearness of age, are a great help towards Friendship, for a man likes one of his own age, and persons who sympathise in disposition are companions, which accounts for the resemblance between the Friendship of Brothers and that of Companions.

And cousins and all other relatives derive their bond of union from these—that is to say, from their community of origin; and the strength of this bond varies according to their respective distances from the common ancestor.

Further, the Friendship felt by children towards parents, and men towards the gods, is as towards something good and above them, because these have conferred the greatest possible benefits, in that they are the causes of their being, and being nourished, and of their having been educated after they were brought into being.

And Friendship of this kind has also the pleasurable and the profitable, more than that between persons unconnected

by blood, in proportion as their life is also more shared in common. Then again in the Fraternal Friendship there is all that there is in that of Companions, and more, that is if they are good and generally resemble one another, for they are more closely tied, and from their very birth have a feeling of affection for one another to begin with, and they are more like in disposition who spring from the same stock, and have grown up together and been educated alike; and besides this, they have the greatest opportunities in respect of time for proving one another, and can therefore depend most securely upon the trial.

Between Husband and Wife there is thought to be Friendship by a law of nature, man being by nature disposed to pair, more than to associate in Communities; in proportion as the family is prior in order of time, and more absolutely necessary than the Community. And procreation is more common to him with other animals; all the other animals have Communion thus far, but human creatures cohabit not merely for the sake of procreation, but also with a view to life in general,[1] because in this connection the works are immediately divided, and some belong to the man, others to the woman. Thus they help one the other, putting what is peculiar to each into the common stock.

And for these reasons this Friendship is thought to combine the profitable and the pleasurable. It will be also based upon virtue if they are good people, because each has goodness, and they may take delight in this quality in each other. Children too are thought to be a tie; accordingly the childless sooner separate, for the children are a good

[1] "For the mutual society, help, and comfort that the one ought to have of the other, both in prosperity and adversity."

common to both, and anything in common is a bond of union.

The question how a man is to live with his wife, or more generally one friend with another, appears to be no other than this, how it is just that they should; because plainly there is not the same principle of Justice between a friend and friend, as between strangers, or companions, or mere chance fellow-travellers.

CHAPTER XIII.

OF DISPUTES ARISING IN THE FRIENDSHIP BECAUSE OF ADVANTAGE, WITH A SOLUTION OF THE QUESTIONS RAISED.

THERE are then, as was stated at the commencement of this book, three kinds of Friendship, and in each there may be friends on a footing of equality, and friends in the relation of superior and inferior; we find, I mean, that people who are alike in goodness become friends, and better with worse, and so too pleasant people; and also because of advantage people are friends, balancing exactly their mutual profitableness even if they in themselves are different. Well then, those who are equal should in right of this equality love each other, and so on, equally; and those who are on a footing of inequality should render Friendship in proportion to the superiority of the other party.

Fault-finding and blame arises, either solely or most naturally, in Friendship of which utility is the motive; for they who are friends by reason of goodness are eager to do kindnesses to one another, because this is a natural result

of goodness and Friendship; and when men are vying with each other for this End there can be no fault-finding nor contention; since no one is annoyed at one who entertains for him the sentiment of Friendship, and does kindnesses to him, but if of a refined mind, he requites him with kind actions. And suppose that one of the two exceeds the other, yet as he is attaining his object he will not find fault with his friend, for good is the object of each party.

Neither can there well be quarrels between men who are friends for pleasure's sake, because, supposing them to delight in living together, then both attain their desire; or if not, a man would be put in a ridiculous light who should find fault with another for not pleasing him, since it is in his power to forbear intercourse with him. But the Friendship because of advantage is very liable to fault-finding, because as the parties use one another with a view to advantage the requirements are continually enlarging, and they think they have less than of right belongs to them, and find fault, because though justly entitled they do not get as much as they want; while they who do the kindnesses can never come up to the requirements of those to whom they are being done.

It seems also that, as the Just is of two kinds, the unwritten and the legal, so Friendship, because of advantage, is of two kinds, what may be called the Moral and the Legal; and the most fruitful source of complaints is, that parties contract obligations, and discharge them not in the same line of Friendship. The Legal is upon specified conditions, either purely tradesmanlike, from hand to hand, or somewhat more liberal as regards time, but still by agreement a *quid pro quo.*

In this Legal kind, the obligation is clear, and admits of no dispute, the friendly element is the delay in requiring its

discharge; and for this reason, in some countries, no actions can be maintained at Law for the recovery of such debts, it being held that they who have dealt on the footing of credit must be content to abide the issue.

That which may be termed the Moral kind is not upon specified conditions, but a man gives as to his friend, and so on; but still he expects to receive an equivalent, or even more, as though he had not given, but lent. He also will find fault, because he does not get the obligation discharged in the same way as it was contracted.

Now this results from the fact that all men, or the generality at least, *wish* what is honourable, but, when tested, *choose* what is profitable; and the doing kindnesses disinterestedly is honourable, while receiving benefits is profitable. In such cases one should, if able, make a return proportionate to the good received, and do so willingly, because one ought not to make a disinterested friend[1] of a man against his inclination; one should act, I say, as having made a mistake originally, and received kindness from one from whom one ought not to have received it, he being not a friend, nor doing the act disinterestedly. One should therefore discharge one's self of the obligation, as having received a kindness on specified terms; and, if able, a man would engage to repay the kindness, while if he were unable, even the doer of it would not expect it of him; so that if he is able he ought to repay it. But one ought at first to ascertain from whom one is receiving kindness, and on what understanding, that on that same understanding one may accept it or not.

A question admitting of dispute is whether one is to measure a kindness by the good done to the receiver of it,

[1] Which one would be assuming he was if one declined to recognise the obligation to requite the favour or kindness.

and make this the standard by which to requite, or by the kind intention of the doer?

For they who have received kindnesses frequently plead in depreciation that they have received from their benefactors such things as were small for them to give, or such as they themselves would have got from others; while the doers of the kindnesses affirm that they gave the best they had, and what could not have been got from others, and under danger, or in such like straits.

May we not say that, as utility is the motive of the Friendship, the advantage conferred on the receiver must be the standard? because he it is who requests the kindness, and the other serves him in his need, on the understanding that he is to get an equivalent. The assistance rendered is then exactly proportionate to the advantage which the receiver has obtained, and he should therefore repay as much as he gained by it, or even more, this being more creditable.

In Friendships based on goodness the question of course is never raised, but herein the motive of the doer seems to be the proper standard, since virtue and moral character depend principally on motive.

CHAPTER XIV.

OF THE DISPUTES ARISING IN FRIENDSHIPS BETWEEN UNEQUAL PARTIES.

QUARRELS arise also in those Friendships in which the parties are unequal, because each party thinks himself entitled to the greater share, and of course, when this happens, the Friendship is broken up.

The man who is better than the other thinks that having the greater share pertains to him of right, for that more is always awarded to the good man; and similarly the man who is more profitable to another than that other to him. "One who is useless," they say, "ought not to share equally, for it comes to a tax, and not a Friendship, unless the fruits of the Friendship are reaped in proportion to the works done;" their notion being, that as in a money partnership, they who contribute more receive more, so should it be in Friendship likewise.

On the other hand, the needy man and the less virtuous advance the same claim; they urge that "it is the very business of a good friend to help those who are in need, else what is the use of having a good or powerful friend if one is not to reap the advantage at all?"

Now each seems to advance a right claim, and to be entitled to get more out of the connection than the other, only *not more of the same thing;* but the superior man should receive more respect, the needy man more profit, respect being the reward of goodness and beneficence, profit being the aid of need.

This is plainly the principle acted upon in Political Communities; he receives no honour who gives no good to the common stock, for the property of the Public is given to him who does good to the Public, and honour is the property of the public; for it is not possible both to make money out of the Public, and receive honour likewise, because no one will put up with the less in every respect; so to him who suffers loss as regards money they award honour, but money to him who can be paid by gifts; since, as has been stated before, the observing due proportion equalises and preserves Friendship.

Like rules then should be observed in the intercourse of

friends who are unequal; and to him who advantages another in respect of money, or goodness, that other should repay honour, making requital according to his power; because Friendship requires what is possible, not what is strictly due, this being not possible in all cases, as in the honours paid to the gods and to parents. No man could ever make the due return in these cases, and so he is thought to be a good man who pays respect according to his ability.

For this reason it may be judged never to be allowable for a son to disown his father, whereas a father may his son, because he that owes is bound to pay. Now a son can never, by anything he has done, fully requite the benefits first conferred on him by his father, and so is always a debtor. But they to whom anything is owed may cast off their debtors; therefore the father may his son. But at the same time it must perhaps be admitted, that it seems no father ever *would* sever himself utterly from a son, except in a case of exceeding depravity, because, independently of the natural Friendship, it is like human nature not to put away from one's self the assistance which a son might render. But to the son, if depraved, assisting his father is a thing to be avoided, or at least one which he will not be very anxious to do—most men being willing enough to receive kindness, but averse to doing it, as unprofitable.

Let thus much suffice on these points.

BOOK IX.

CHAPTER I.

CASES OF COMPLAINT IN FRIENDSHIPS BETWEEN PARTIES DISSIMILAR. WHO HAS THE RIGHT OF FIXING THE RATE OF THE RETURN TO BE MADE.

WELL, in all the Friendships the parties to which have different motives and objects, it is the proportionate which equalises and preserves the Friendship, as has been already stated. I mean, for instance, in the Social Friendship the cobbler gets an equivalent for his shoes after a certain rate, and the weaver, and all others in like manner. Now in this case a common measure has been provided in money, and to this accordingly all things are referred, and by this are measured; but in the Friendship of Love, the complaint is sometimes from the lover that, though he loves exceedingly, his love is not requited, he having perhaps all the time nothing that can be the object of Friendship. Again, oftentimes from the object of love, that he who as a suitor promised any and everything, now performs nothing. These cases occur, because the Friendship of the lover for the beloved object is based upon pleasure, that of the other for him upon utility, and in one of the parties the requisite quality is not found; for as these are respectively the grounds of the Friendship, the Friendship comes to be

broken up, because the motives to it cease to exist. The parties loved not one another, but qualities in one another, which are not permanent, and so neither are the Friendships; whereas the Friendship based upon the moral character of the parties, being independent and disinterested, is permanent, as we have already stated before.

Quarrels arise also, when the parties realise different results, and not those which they desire; for the not attaining one's special object is all one in this case with getting nothing at all, as in the well-known case where a man made promises to a musician rising in proportion to the excellence of his music; but when, the next morning, the musician claimed the performance of his promises, he said that he had given him pleasure for pleasure. Of course, if each party had intended this, it would have been all right; but if the one desired amusement, and the other gain, and the one gets his object, but the other not, the dealing cannot be fair; because a man fixes his mind upon what he happens to want, and will give so and so for that specific thing.

The question then arises, who is to fix the rate? the man who first gives, or the man who first takes? Because, *primâ facie*, the man who first gives seems to leave the rate to be fixed by the other party. This, they say, was in fact the practice of Protagoras. When he taught a man anything, he would bid the learner estimate the worth of the knowledge gained by his own private opinion, and then he used to accept so much remuneration from him. In such cases some people adopt the rule—

"With specified reward a friend should be content."

They are certainly fairly found fault with who take the money in advance, and then do nothing of what they said

they would do, their promises having been so far beyond their ability; for such men do not execute what they agreed. The Sophists, however, are perhaps obliged to take this course, because no one would give a sixpence for their knowledge. These then, I say, are fairly found fault with, because they do not what they have already taken money for doing.

In cases where no stipulation as to the respective services is made, they who disinterestedly do the first service will not raise the question (as we have said before), because it is the nature of Friendship, based on mutual goodness, to be free from such quarrels. The requital is to be made with reference to the intention of the other, the intention being characteristic of the true friend, and of goodness.

And it would seem the same rule should be laid down for those who are connected with one another, as teachers and learners of philosophy; for here the value of the commodity cannot be measured by money, and, in fact, an exactly equivalent price cannot be set upon it, but perhaps it is sufficient to do what one can, as in the case of the gods, or one's parents.

But where the original giving is not upon these terms, but avowedly for some return, the most proper course is perhaps for the requital to be such as *both* shall allow to be proportionate; and where this cannot be, then for the receiver to fix the value would seem to be not only necessary, but also fair; because when the first giver gets that which is equivalent to the advantage received by the other, or to what he would have given to secure the pleasure he has had, then he has the value from him; for not only is this seen to be the course adopted in matters of buying and selling, but also in some places the law does not allow of actions upon voluntary dealings, on the principle that when

one man has trusted another, he must be content to have the obligation discharged in the same spirit as he originally contracted it—that is to say, it is thought fairer for the trusted than for the trusting party to fix the value; for, in general, those who have and those who wish to get things do not set the same value on them. What is their own, and what they give in each case, appears to them worth a great deal, but yet the return is made according to the estimate of those who have received first. It should perhaps be added that the receiver should estimate what he has received, not by the value he sets upon it now that he has it, but by that which he set upon it before he obtained it.

CHAPTER II.

CASES OF COMPARATIVE OBLIGATIONS PUT AND PARTIALLY SOLVED.

QUESTIONS also arise upon such points as the following:—Whether one's father has an unlimited claim on one's services and obedience, or whether the sick man is to obey his physician? Or, in an election of a general, the warlike qualities of the candidates should be alone regarded?

In like manner, whether one should do a service rather to one's friend, or to a good man? Whether one should rather requite a benefactor, or give to one's companion, supposing that both are not within one's power?

Is not the true answer, that it is no easy task to determine all such questions accurately, inasmuch as they involve numerous differences of all kinds, in respect of amount, and what is honourable, and what is necessary? It is obvious,

of course, that no one person can unite in himself all claims. Again, the requital of benefits is, in general, a higher duty than doing unsolicited kindnesses to one's companion; in other words, the discharging of a debt is more obligatory upon one than the duty of giving to a companion. And yet this rule may admit of exceptions; for instance, which is the higher duty? for one who has been ransomed out of the hands of robbers, to ransom in return his ransomer, be he who he may, or to repay him on his demand, though he has not been taken by robbers, or to ransom his own father? for it would seem that a man ought to ransom his father, even in preference to himself.

Well then, as has been said already, as a general rule the debt should be discharged, but if in a particular case the giving greatly preponderates over the repaying, as being either honourable or necessary, we must be swayed by these considerations; I mean in some cases the requital of the obligation previously existing may not be equal. Suppose, for instance, that the original benefactor has conferred a kindness on a good man, knowing him to be such, whereas this said good man has to repay it, believing him to be a scoundrel.

And again, in certain cases no obligation lies on a man to lend to one who has lent to him. Suppose, for instance, that a bad man lent to him, as being a good man, under the notion that he should get repaid, whereas the said good man has no hope of repayment from him, being a bad man. Either then the case is really as we have supposed it, and then the claim is not equal, or it is not so, though supposed to be; and still in so acting people are not to be thought to act wrongly. In short, as has been oftentimes stated before, all statements regarding feelings and actions can be definite only in proportion as their object-matter is so. It is of

course quite obvious that all people have not the same claim upon one; nor are the claims of one's father unlimited, just as Jupiter does not claim all kinds of sacrifice without distinction. And since the claims of parents, brothers, companions, and benefactors are all different, we must give to each what belongs to and befits each.

And this is seen to be the course commonly pursued: To marriages men commonly invite their relatives, because these are from a common stock, and therefore all the actions in any way pertaining thereto are common also; and to funerals, men think that relatives ought to assemble in preference to other people for the same reason.

And it would seem that in respect of maintenance it is our duty to assist our parents in preference to all others as being their debtors, and because it is more honourable to succour in these respects the authors of our existence than ourselves. Honour likewise we ought to pay to our parents just as to the gods, but then not all kinds of honour; not the same, for instance, to a father as to a mother; nor, again, to a father the honour due to a sage or to a general, but that which is a father's due, and in like manner to a mother that which is a mother's.

To all our elders also the honour befitting their age, by rising up in their presence, turning out of the way for them, and all similar marks of respect; to our companions again, or brothers, frankness and free participation in all we have. And to those of the same family, or tribe, or city, with ourselves, and all similarly connected with us, we should constantly try to render their due, and to discriminate what belongs to each in respect of nearness of connection, or goodness, or intimacy. Of course, in the case of those of the same class, the discrimination is easier; in that of those who are in different classes, it is a matter of more trouble.

This, however, should not be a reason for giving up the attempt, but we must observe the distinctions so far as it is practicable to do so.

CHAPTER III.

WHAT CIRCUMSTANCES CAUSE THE BREAKING UP OF FRIENDSHIPS, ALLOWABLY OR OTHERWISE. CASES PUT.

A QUESTION is also raised as to the propriety of dissolving or not dissolving those Friendships, the parties to which do not remain what they were when the connection was formed.

Now surely, in respect of those whose motive to Friendship is utility or pleasure, there can be nothing wrong in breaking up the connection, when they no longer have those qualities; because they were friends [not of one another, but] of those qualities; and these having failed, it is only reasonable to expect that they should cease to entertain the sentiment.

But a man has reason to find fault if the other party, being really attached to him because of advantage or pleasure, pretended to be so because of his moral character. In fact, as we said at the commencement, the most common source of quarrels between friends is their not being friends on the same grounds, as they suppose themselves to be.

Now when a man has been deceived, and has supposed himself to excite the sentiment of Friendship, by reason of his moral character, the other party doing nothing to indicate this, he has but himself to blame; but when he has been deceived by the pretence of the other, he has a right to find fault with the man who has so deceived him, ay,

even more than with utterers of false coin, in proportion to the greater preciousness of that which is the object-matter of the villainy.

But suppose a man takes up another as being a good man, who turns out, and is found by him, to be a scoundrel, is he bound still to entertain Friendship for him? or may we not say at once it is impossible, since it is not every thing which is the object-matter of Friendship, but only that which is good; and so there is no obligation to be a bad man's friend, nor in fact ought one to be such, for one ought not to be a lover of evil, nor to be assimilated to what is base, which would be implied, because we have said before, like is friendly to like.

Are we then to break with him instantly? Perhaps not in all cases—only where our friends are incurably depraved; but when there is a chance of amendment, we are bound to aid in repairing the moral character of our friends, even more than their substance, in proportion as it is better and more closely related to Friendship. Still he who should break off the connection is not to be judged to act wrongly, for he never was a friend to such a character as the other now is, and therefore since the man is changed, and he cannot reduce him to his original state, he backs out of the connection.

To put another case: suppose that one party remains what he was when the Friendship was formed, while the other becomes morally improved, and widely different from his friend in goodness, is the improved character to treat the other as a friend?

May we not say it is impossible. The case of course is clearest where there is a great difference, as in the Friendships of boys: for suppose that of two boyish friends, the one still continues a boy in mind, and the other becomes a

man of the highest character, how can they be friends? since they neither are pleased with the same objects, nor like and dislike the same things; for these points will not belong to them as regards one another, and without them it was assumed they cannot be friends, because they cannot live in intimacy: and of the case of those who cannot do so we have spoken before.

Well then, is the improved party to bear himself towards his former friend in no way differently to what he would have done had the connection never existed?

Surely he ought to bear in mind the intimacy of past times, and just as we think ourselves bound to do favours for our friends in preference to strangers, so to those who have been friends and are so no longer we should allow somewhat on the score of previous Friendship, whenever the cause of severance is not excessive depravity on their part.

CHAPTER IV.

THE FEELINGS OF TRUE FRIENDSHIP ARE TRANSFERRED FROM SELF TO OTHERS. THE DIFFERENT FEELINGS OF THE GOOD AND BAD MEN RESPECTIVELY TOWARDS SELF DESCRIBED.

Now the friendly feelings which are exhibited towards our friends, and by which Friendships are characterised, seem to have sprung out of those which we entertain towards ourselves.

I mean people define a friend to be "one who intends and does what is good (or what he believes to be good) to another for that other's sake;" or "one who wishes his

friend to be and to live for that friend's own sake" (which is the feeling of mothers towards their children, and of friends who have come into collision). Others again, "one who lives with another and chooses the same objects," or "one who sympathises with his friend in his sorrows and in his joys" (this too is especially the case with mothers).

Well, by some one of these marks people generally characterise Friendship; and each of these the good man has towards himself, and all others have them in so far as they suppose themselves to be good. (For, as has been said before, goodness, that is, the good man, seems to be a measure to every one else.)

For he is at unity in himself, and with every part of his soul he desires the same objects; and he wishes for himself both what is, and what he believes to be, good; and he does it (it being characteristic of the good man to work at what is good); and for the sake of himself, inasmuch as he does it for the sake of his Intellectual Principle, which is generally thought to be a man's Self. Again, he wishes himself, and especially this Principle whereby he is an intelligent being, to live and be preserved in life, because existence is a good to him that is a good man.

But it is to himself that each individual wishes what is good, and no man, conceiving the possibility of his becoming other than he now is, chooses that that New Self should have all things indiscriminately. God indeed has at each moment all Good, but he has it in right of being God. And the Intelligent Principle must be judged to be each man's Self, or at least eminently so (though other Principles help, of course, to constitute him the man he is).

Furthermore, the good man wishes to continue to live with himself, for he can do it with pleasure, in that his memories of past actions are full of delight, and his

anticipations of the future are good, and such are pleasurable. Then again he has good store of matter for his Intellect to contemplate, and he most especially sympathises with his Self in its griefs and joys, because the objects which give him pain and pleasure are at all times the same, and not one thing to-day and a different one to-morrow, because he is not given to repentance,[1] if one may so speak. It is then because each of these feelings is entertained by the good man towards his own Self, and a friend feels towards a friend as towards himself (a friend being in fact another Self), that Friendship is thought to be some one of these feelings, and they are accounted friends in whom they are found. Whether or no there can really be Friendship between a man and his Self is a question we will not at present entertain. There may be thought to be Friendship in so far as there are two or more of the aforesaid requisites, and because the highest degree of Friendship, in the usual acceptation of that term, resembles the feeling entertained by a man towards himself.

But it may be urged that the aforesaid requisites are to all appearance found in the common run of men, though they are men of a low stamp.

May it not be answered that they share in them only in so far as they please themselves, and conceive themselves to be good? for certainly they are not either really, or even apparently, found in any one of those who are in the lowest degree depraved and villainous; we may

[1] "Neither the son of man, that He should *repent*."—Numbers xxiii. 19.

"In a few instances the Second Intention, or Philosophical employment of a Term, is more extensive than the First Intention, or popular use."—Whately, *Logic*, iii. 10.

almost say, not even in those who are bad men at all, for they are at variance with themselves, and lust after different things from those which in cool reason they wish for, just as men who fail of Self-Control. I mean, they choose things which, though hurtful, are pleasurable, in preference to those which in their own minds they believe to be good; others again, from cowardice and indolence, decline to do what still they are convinced is best for them; while they who from their depravity have actually done many dreadful actions, hate and avoid life, and accordingly kill themselves; and the wicked seek others in whose company to spend their time, but fly from themselves because they have many unpleasant subjects of memory, and can only look forward to others like them when in solitude, but drown their remorse in the company of others; and as they have nothing to raise the sentiment of Friendship, so they never feel it towards themselves.

Neither in fact can they who are of this character sympathise with their Selves in their joys and sorrows, because their soul is, as it were, rent by faction, and the one principle, by reason of the depravity in them, is grieved at abstaining from certain things, while the other and better principle is pleased thereat; and the one drags them this way, and the other that way, as though actually tearing them asunder.[1] And though it is impossible actually to have at the same time the sensations of pain and pleasure,

[1] "I have sometimes considered in what troublesome case is that Chamberlain in an Inn, who being but one is to give attendance to many guests. For suppose them all in one chamber, yet, if one shall command him to come to the window, and the other to the table, and another to the bed, and another to the chimney, and another to come upstairs, and another to go downstairs, and all in the same instant, how would he be distracted to please them all? And yet such is the sad condition of my soul by nature; not only a servant, but a slave

yet after a little time the man is sorry for having been pleased, and he could wish that those objects had not given him pleasure, for the wicked are full of repentance.

It is plain then that the wicked man cannot be in the position of a friend even towards himself, because he has in himself nothing which can excite the sentiment of Friendship. If then to be thus is exceedingly wretched, it is a man's duty to flee from wickedness with all his might, and to strive to be good, because thus may he be friends with himself, and may come to be a friend to another.

CHAPTER V.

OF KINDLY FEELING.

KINDLY Feeling, though resembling Friendship, is not identical with it, because it may exist in reference to those whom we do not know, and without the object of it being aware of its existence, which Friendship cannot. (This, by the way, has also been said before.) And further, it is not even Affection, because it does not imply intensity nor yearning, which are both consequences of Affection. Again, Affection requires intimacy, but Kindly Feeling may arise quite suddenly, as happens sometimes when we see athletes competing for a prize. I mean, we come to be kindly disposed to them, and sympathise in their wishes,

unto sin. Pride calls me to the window, gluttony to the table, wantonness to the bed, laziness to the chimney, ambition commands me to go upstairs, and covetousness to come down. Vices, I see, are as well contrary to themselves as to Virtue." (Fuller's "Good Thoughts in Bad Times," *Mix't Contemplations*, viii.)

but still we would not join them in any action, because, as we said, we conceive this feeling of kindness suddenly, and so have but a superficial liking.

What it does seem to be is the starting-point of a Friendship; just as pleasure, received through the sight, is the commencement of Love; for no one falls in love without being first pleased with the personal appearance of the beloved object; and yet he who takes pleasure in it does not therefore necessarily love, but when he wearies for the object in its absence, and desires its presence. Exactly in the same way men cannot be friends without having passed through the stage of Kindly Feeling, and yet they who are in that stage do not necessarily advance to Friendship; they merely have an inert wish for the good of those toward whom they entertain the feeling, but would not join them in any action, nor put themselves out of the way for them. So that, in a metaphorical way of speaking, one might say that it is dormant Friendship, and when it has endured for a space, and ripened into intimacy, comes to be real Friendship; but not that whose object is advantage or pleasure, because such motives cannot produce even Kindly Feeling.

I mean, he who has received a kindness requites it by Kindly Feeling towards his benefactor, and is right in so doing; but he who wishes another to be prosperous because he has hope of advantage through his instrumentality does not seem to be kindly disposed to that person, but rather to himself; just as neither is he his friend if he pays court to him for any interested purpose.

Kindly Feeling always arises by reason of goodness and a certain amiability, when a man gives us the notion of being a fine fellow, or brave man, etc., as we said was the case sometimes with the athletes.

CHAPTER VI.

OF UNITY OF SENTIMENT.

UNITY of Sentiment is also plainly connected with Friendship, and therefore is not the same as Unity of Opinion, because this might exist even between people unacquainted with one another.

Nor do men usually say people are united in sentiment, merely because they agree in opinion on *any* point, as, for instance, on points of astronomical science (Unity of Sentiment herein not having any connection with Friendship), but they say that Communities have Unity of Sentiment when they agree respecting points of expediency, and take the same line, and carry out what has been determined in common consultation.

Thus we see that Unity of Sentiment has for its object matters of action, and such of these as are of importance, and of mutual, or, in the case of single States, common interest; when, for instance, all agree in the choice of magistrates, or forming alliance with the Lacedæmonians, or appointing Pittacus ruler (that is to say, supposing he himself was willing). But when each wishes himself to be in power (as the brothers in the Phœnissæ), they quarrel and form parties; for, plainly, Unity of Sentiment does not merely imply that each entertains the same idea be it what it may, but that they do so in respect of the same object, as when both the populace and the sensible men of a State desire that the best men should be in office, because then all attain their object.

Thus Unity of Sentiment is plainly a social Friendship,

as it is also said to be; since it has for its object-matter things expedient and relating to life.

And this Unity exists among the good; for they have it towards themselves, and towards one another, being, if I may be allowed the expression, in the same position. I mean the wishes of such men are steady, and do not ebb and flow like the Euripus, and they wish what is just and expedient, and aim at these things in common.

The bad, on the contrary, can as little have Unity of Sentiment as they can be real friends, except to a very slight extent, desiring as they do unfair advantage in things profitable, while they shirk labour and service for the common good; and while each man wishes for these things for himself, he is jealous of and hinders his neighbour; and as they do not watch over the common good, it is lost. The result is that they quarrel, while they are for keeping one another to work, but are not willing to perform their just share.

CHAPTER VII.

THE DIFFERENCE OF FEELING IN BENEFACTORS, AND IN THE OBJECTS OF THEIR KINDNESSES, STATED AND ACCOUNTED FOR.

BENEFACTORS are commonly held to have more Friendship for the objects of their kindness than these for them; and the fact is made a subject of discussion and inquiry, as being contrary to reasonable expectation.

The account of the matter which satisfies most persons is, that the one are debtors and the others creditors; and

therefore that, as in the case of actual loans, the debtors wish their creditors out of the way, while the creditors are anxious for the preservation of their debtors, so those who have done kindnesses desire the continued existence of the people they have done them to, under the notion of getting a return of their good offices, while these are not particularly anxious about requital.

Epicharmus, I suspect, would very probably say that they who give this solution judge from their own baseness; yet it certainly is like human nature, for the generality of men have short memories on these points, and aim rather at receiving than conferring benefits.

But the real cause, it would seem, rests upon nature, and the case is not parallel to that of creditors; because in this there is no affection to the persons, but merely a wish for their preservation, with a view to a return; whereas, in point of fact, they who have done kindnesses feel friendship and love for those to whom they have done them, even though they neither are, nor can by possibility hereafter be, in a position to serve their benefactors.

And this is the case also with artisans; every one, I mean, feels more affection for his own work than that work possibly could for him if it were animate. It is perhaps specially the case with poets; for these entertain very great affection for their poems, loving them as their own children. It is to this kind of thing I should be inclined to compare the case of benefactors, for the object of their kindness is their own work, and so they love this more than this does its creator.

And the account of this is, that existence is to all a thing choiceworthy, and an object of affection. Now we exist by acts of working, that is, by living and acting: he then that has created a giving work exists, it may be said, by his act

of working; therefore he loves his work because he loves existence. And this is natural, for the work produced displays in act what existed before potentially.

Then again, the benefactor has a sense of honour in right of his action, so that he may well take pleasure in him in whom this resides; but to him who has received the benefit there is nothing honourable in respect of his benefactor, only something advantageous, which is both less pleasant and less the object of Friendship.

Again, pleasure is derived from the actual working out of a present action, from the anticipation of a future one, and from the recollection of a past one; but the highest pleasure and special object of affection is that which attends on the actual working. Now the benefactor's work abides (for the honourable is enduring), but the advantage of him who has received the kindness passes away.

Again, there is pleasure in recollecting honourable actions, but in recollecting advantageous ones there is none at all, or much less (by the way, though, the contrary is true of the expectation of advantage).

Further, the entertaining the feeling of Friendship is like an act of creation, but being the object of the feeling is like being acted upon.

So then, entertaining the sentiment of Friendship, and all feelings connected with it, attend on those who, in the given case of a benefaction, are the superior party.

Once more. All people value most what has cost them much labour in the production; for instance, people who have themselves made their money are fonder of it than those who have inherited it; and receiving kindness is, it seems, unlaborious, but doing it is laborious. And this is the reason why the female parents are most fond of their offspring, for their part in producing them is attended with

most labour, and they know more certainly that they are theirs. This feeling would seem also to belong to benefactors.

CHAPTER VIII.

OF SELF-LOVE.

A QUESTION is also raised as to whether it is right to love one's Self best, or some one else, because men find fault with those who love themselves best, and call them in a disparaging way lovers of Self; and the bad man is thought to do everything he does for his own sake merely, and the more so the more depraved he is. Accordingly, men reproach him with never doing anything unselfish; whereas the good man acts from a sense of honour (and the more so the better man he is), and for his friend's sake, and is careless of his own interest.

But with these theories facts are at variance, and not unnaturally; for it is commonly said also that a man is to love most him who is most his friend, and he is most a friend who wishes good to another for that other's sake, even though no one knows. Now these conditions, and in fact all the rest by which a friend is characterised, belong specially to each individual in respect of his Self, for we have said before that all the friendly feelings are derived to others from those which have Self primarily for their object. And all the current proverbs support this view; for instance, "one soul," "the goods of friends are common," "equality is a tie of Friendship," "the knee is nearer than the shin." For all these things exist specially with reference to a man's

own Self: he is specially a friend to himself, and so he is bound to love himself the most.

It is with good reason questioned which of the two parties one should follow, both having plausibility on their side. Perhaps then, in respect of theories of this kind, the proper course is to distinguish and define how far each is true, and in what way. If we could ascertain the sense in which each uses the term "Self-loving," this point might be cleared up.

Well now, they who use it disparagingly give the name to those who, in respect of wealth, and honours, and pleasures of the body, give to themselves the larger share; because the mass of mankind grasp after these, and are earnest about them as being the best things; which is the reason why they are matters of contention. They who are covetous in regard to these gratify their lusts and passions in general, that is to say, the irrational part of their soul; but the mass of mankind are covetous, for which reason the appellation has taken its rise from that mass which is low and bad. Of course they are justly reproached who are Self-loving in this sense.

And that the generality of men are accustomed to apply the term to denominate those who do give such things to themselves is quite plain. Suppose, for instance, that a man were anxious to do, more than other men, acts of justice, or self-mastery, or any other virtuous acts, and, in general, were to secure to himself that which is abstractedly noble and honourable, no one would call him Self-loving nor blame him.

Yet might such an one be judged to be more truly Self-loving. Certainly he gives to himself the things which are most noble and most good, and gratifies that Principle of his nature which is most rightfully authoritative, and obeys

it in everything; and just as that which possesses the highest authority is thought to constitute a Community or any other system, so also in the case of a man; and so he is most truly Self-loving who loves and gratifies this Principle.

Again, men are said to have, or to fail of having, self-control, according as the Reason controls or not, it being plainly implied thereby that this Principle constitutes each individual; and people are thought to have done of themselves, and voluntarily, those things specially which are done with Reason.

It is plain, therefore, that this Principle does, either entirely or specially, constitute the individual man, and that the good man specially loves this. For this reason then he must be specially Self-loving, in a kind other than that which is reproached, and as far superior to it, as living in accordance with Reason is to living at the beck and call of passion, and aiming at the truly noble to aiming at apparent advantage.

Now all approve and commend those who are eminently earnest about honourable actions, and if all would vie with one another in respect of the noble (καλὸν), and be intent upon doing what is most truly noble and honourable, society at large would have all that is proper, while each individual in particular would have the greatest of goods, Virtue being assumed to be such.

And so the good man ought to be Self-loving; because by doing what is noble he will have advantage himself, and will do good to others. But the bad man ought not to be, because he will harm himself and his neighbours by following low and evil passions. In the case of the bad man, what he ought to do and what he does are at variance, but the good man does what he ought to do, because all Intellect chooses what is best for itself,

and the good man puts himself under the direction of Intellect.

Of the good man it is true likewise, that he does many things for the sake of his friends and his country, even to the extent of dying for them, if need be; for money and honours, and, in short, all the good things which others fight for, he will throw away, while eager to secure to himself that which is noble; he will prefer a brief and great joy to a tame and enduring one, and to live nobly for one year than ordinarily for many, and one great and noble action to many trifling ones. And this is perhaps that which befalls men who die for their country and friends. They choose great glory for themselves, and they will lavish their own money that their friends may receive more, for hereby the friend gets the money, but the man himself the noble part; so, in fact, he gives to himself the greater good. It is the same with honours and offices; all these things he will give up to his friend, because this reflects honour and praise on himself; and so with good reason is he esteemed a fine character, since he chooses the noble before all things else. It is possible also to give up the opportunities of action to a friend, and to have caused a friend's doing a thing may be more noble than having done it one's self.

In short, in all praiseworthy things the good man does plainly give to himself a larger share of the noble. In this sense it is right to be Self-loving, in the vulgar acceptation of the term it is not.

CHAPTER IX.

WHETHER THE HAPPY MAN WILL NEED FRIENDS?

A QUESTION is raised also respecting the Happy man, whether he will want Friends or no?

Some say that they who are blessed and independent have no need of Friends, for they already have all that is good, and so, as being independent, want nothing further; whereas the notion of a friend's office is to be as it were a second Self, and procure for a man what he cannot get by himself; hence the saying—

"When Fortune gives us good, what need we Friends?"

On the other hand, it looks absurd, while we are assigning to the Happy man all other good things, not to give him Friends, which are, after all, thought to be the greatest of external goods.

Again, if it is more characteristic of a friend to confer than to receive kindnesses, and if to be beneficent belongs to the good man and to the character of virtue, and if it is more noble to confer kindnesses on friends than strangers, the good man will need objects for his benefactions. And out of this last consideration springs a question, whether the need of Friends be greater in prosperity or adversity, since the unfortunate man wants people to do him kindnesses, and they who are fortunate want objects for their kind acts.

Again, it is perhaps absurd to make our Happy man a solitary, because no man would choose the possession of all goods in the world on the condition of solitariness, man

being a social animal, and formed by nature for living with others. Of course, the Happy man has this qualification, since he has all those things which are good by nature; and it is obvious that the society of friends and good men must be preferable to that of strangers and ordinary people, and we conclude, therefore, that the Happy man does need Friends.

But, then, what do they mean whom we quoted first, and how are they right? Is it not that the mass of mankind mean by Friends those who are useful? and of course the Happy man will not need such, because he has all good things already. Neither will he need such as are Friends with a view to the pleasurable, or at least only to a slight extent, because his life, being already pleasurable, does not want pleasure imported from without; and so, since the Happy man does not need Friends of these kinds, he is thought not to need any at all.

But it may be this is not true, for it was stated originally that Happiness is a kind of Working. Now Working plainly is something that must come into being, not be already there like a mere piece of property.

If then the being happy consists in living and working, and the good man's working is in itself excellent and pleasurable (as we said at the commencement of the treatise), and if what is our own reckons among things pleasurable, and if we can view our neighbours better than ourselves, and their actions better than we can our own, then the actions of their Friends, who are good men, are pleasurable to the good, inasmuch as they have both the requisites which are naturally pleasant. So the man in the highest state of happiness will need Friends of this kind, since he desires to contemplate good actions, and actions of his own, which those of his friend, being a good man, are.

Again, common opinion requires that the Happy man live with pleasure to himself. Now life is burthensome to a man in solitude, for it is not easy to work continuously by one's self, but in company with and in regard to others it is easy, and therefore the working, being pleasurable in itself, will be more continuous (a thing which should be in respect of the Happy man); for the good man, in that he is good, takes pleasure in the actions which accord with Virtue, and is annoyed at those which spring from Vice, just as a musical man is pleased with beautiful melodies and annoyed by bad ones. And besides, as Theognis says, Virtue itself may be improved by practice, from living with the good.

And upon the following considerations, more purely metaphysical, it will probably appear that the good friend is naturally choiceworthy to the good man. We have said before, that whatever is naturally good is also in itself good and pleasant to the good man. Now the fact of living, so far as animals are concerned, is characterised generally by the power of sentience, in man it is characterised by that of rationality (the faculty of course being referred to the actual operation of the faculty, certainly the main point is the actual operation of it), so that living seems essentially to consist in the act of sentience, or exerting rationality; now the fact of living is in itself one of the things that are good and pleasant (for it is a definite totality, and whatever is such belongs to the nature of good), but what is naturally good is good to the good man; for which reason it seems to be good to all. (Of course one must not take life which is depraved and corrupted, nor one spent in pain, for that which is such is indefinite, as are its inherent qualities; however, what is to be said of pain will be clearer in what is to follow.)

If then the fact of being is in itself good and pleasant (and this appears from the fact that all desire it, and specially those who are good and in high happiness, their course of life being most choiceworthy, and their existence most choiceworthy likewise), then also he that sees perceives that he sees; and he that hears perceives that he hears; and in all the other instances in like manner there is a faculty which reflects upon and perceives the fact that we are working so that we can perceive that we perceive, and intellectually know that we intellectually know; but to perceive that we perceive or that we intellectually know is to perceive that we exist, since existence was defined to be perceiving or intellectually knowing. Now to perceive that one lives is a thing pleasant in itself, life being a thing naturally good, and the perceiving of the presence in ourselves of things naturally good being pleasant.

Therefore, the fact of living is choiceworthy, and to the good specially so, since existence is good and pleasant to them; for they receive pleasure from the internal consciousness of that which in itself is good.

But the good man is to his friend as to himself, friend being but a name for a second Self; therefore as his own existence is choiceworthy to each, so too or similarly at least is his friend's existence. But the ground of one's own existence being choiceworthy is the perceiving of one's self being good, any such perception being in itself pleasant. Therefore one ought to be thoroughly conscious of one's friend's existence, which will result from living with him, that is, sharing in his words and thoughts; for this is the meaning of the term as applied to the human species, not mere feeding together as in the case of brutes.

If then to the man in a high state of happiness existence is in itself choiceworthy, being naturally good and pleasant,

and so too of a friend's existence, then the friend also must be among things choiceworthy. But whatever is choiceworthy to a man he should have, or else he will be in this point deficient. The man therefore who is to come up to our notion of "Happy" will need good Friends.

CHAPTER X.

OF THE NUMBER OF FRIENDS WHICH IT IS POSSIBLE AND DESIRABLE TO HAVE.

ARE we then to make our friends as numerous as possible? or, as in respect of acquaintance it is thought to have been well said, "have not thou many acquaintances, yet be not without;" so too in respect of Friendship may we adopt the precept, and say that a man should not be without friends, nor again have exceeding many friends?

Now, as for friends who are intended for use, the maxim I have quoted will, it seems, fit in exceedingly well, because to requite the services of many is a matter of labour, and a whole life would not be long enough to do this for them. So that, if more numerous than what will suffice for one's own life, they become officious, and are hindrances in respect of living well; and so we do not want them. And again, of those who are to be for pleasure, a few are quite enough, just like sweetening in our food.

But of the good, are we to make as many as ever we can, or is there any measure of the number of friends, as there is of the number to constitute a State? I mean, you cannot make one out of ten men, nor if you increase the

number to ten myriads (100,000), is it any longer a State.[1] However, the number is not perhaps some one definite number, but any between certain extreme limits.

Well, of friends likewise there is a limited number, which perhaps may be laid down to be the greatest number with whom it would be possible to keep up intimacy, this being thought to be one of the greatest marks of Friendship, and it being quite obvious that it is not possible to be intimate with many, in other words, to part one's self among many. And, besides, it must be remembered that they also are to be friends to one another, if they are all to live together; but it is a matter of difficulty to find this in many men at once.

It comes likewise to be difficult to bring home to one's self the joys and sorrows of many; because in all probability one would have to sympathise at the same time with joys of this one and the sorrows of that other.

Perhaps then it is well not to endeavour to have very many friends, but so many as are enough for intimacy; because, in fact, it would seem not to be possible to be very much a friend to many at the same time, and for the same reason not to be in love with many objects at the same time, love being a kind of excessive Friendship which implies but one object, and all strong emotions must be limited in the number towards whom they are felt.

And if we look to facts, this seems to be so; for not many at a time become friends in the way of companionship, all the famous Friendships of the kind are between

[1] It was understood that all the members of a Political Community (being freemen) might take part in General Assemblies for legislative purposes, etc., and the principle of representation was not then in being. Attica contained between fifty and sixty thousand adult male citizens.—[ED.]

two persons; whereas they who have many friends, and meet everybody on the footing of intimacy, seem to be friends really to no one except in the way of general society; I mean, the characters denominated as over-complaisant.

To be sure, in the way merely of society, a man may be a friend to many without being necessarily over-complaisant, but being truly good; but one cannot be a friend to many, because of their virtue, and for the person's own sake; in fact, it is a matter for contentment to find even a few such.

CHAPTER XI.

IN WHAT CIRCUMSTANCES OF FORTUNE ARE FRIENDS MOST NEEDED?

AGAIN, are friends most needed in prosperity or in adversity? They are required, we know, in both states, because the unfortunate need help, and the prosperous want people to live with and to do kindnesses to, for they have a desire to act kindly to some one.

To have friends is more necessary in adversity, and therefore in this case useful ones are wanted; and to have them in prosperity is more honourable, and this is why the prosperous want good men for friends, it being preferable to confer benefits on, and to live with, these. For the very presence of friends is pleasant even in adversity, since men when grieved are comforted by the sympathy of their friends.

And from this, by the way, the question might be raised, whether it is that they do in a manner take part of the weight of calamities, or only that their presence being

pleasurable, and the consciousness of their sympathy, make the pain of the sufferer less.

However, we will not further discuss whether these which have been suggested or some other cause produces the relief, at least the effect we speak of is a matter of plain fact.

But their presence has probably a mixed effect; I mean, not only is the very seeing friends pleasant, especially to one in misfortune, and actual help towards lessening the grief is afforded (the natural tendency of a friend, if he is gifted with tact, being to comfort by look and word, because he is well acquainted with the sufferer's temper and disposition, and therefore knows what things give him pleasure and pain), but also the perceiving a friend to be grieved at his misfortunes causes the sufferer pain, because every one avoids being cause of pain to his friends. And for this reason they who are of a manly nature are cautious not to implicate their friends in their pain; and unless a man is exceedingly callous to the pain of others, he cannot bear the pain which is thus caused to his friends; in short, he does not admit men to wail with him, not being given to wail at all; women, it is true, and men who resemble women, like to have others to groan with them, and love such as friends and sympathisers. But it is plain that it is our duty in all things to imitate the highest character.

On the other hand, the advantages of friends in our prosperity are the pleasurable intercourse, and the consciousness that they are pleased at our good fortune.

It would seem, therefore, that we ought to call in friends readily on occasion of good fortune, because it is noble to be ready to do good to others; but on occasion of bad fortune we should do so with reluctance; for we should as little as possible make others share in our ills,

on which principle goes the saying, "I am unfortunate, let that suffice." The most proper occasion for calling them in is when with small trouble or annoyance to themselves they can be of very great use to the person who needs them.

But, on the contrary, it is fitting perhaps to go to one's friends in their misfortunes, unasked and with alacrity (because kindness is the friend's office, and specially towards those who are in need, and who do not demand it as a right, this being more creditable and more pleasant to both); but on occasion of their good fortune to go readily, if we can forward it in any way (because men need their friends for this likewise), but to be backward in sharing it, any great eagerness to receive advantage not being creditable.

One should perhaps be cautious not to present the appearance of sullenness in declining the sympathy or help of friends, for this happens occasionally.

It appears then that the presence of friends is, under all circumstances, choiceworthy.

CHAPTER XII.

INTIMACY THE CHIEF OBJECT OF FRIENDSHIP. ITS EFFECT ON THE GOOD AND THE BAD RESPECTIVELY.

May we not say then that as seeing the beloved object is most prized by lovers, and they choose this sense rather than any of the others, because Love

> "Is engendered in the eyes
> With gazing fed;"

in like manner intimacy is to friends most choiceworthy, Friendship being communion? Again, as a man is to himself so is he to his friend; now with respect to himself the perception of his own existence is choiceworthy, therefore is it also in respect of his friend.

And, besides, their Friendship is acted out in intimacy, and so with good reason they desire this. And whatever in each man's opinion constitutes existence, or whatsoever it is for the sake of which they choose life, herein they wish their friends to join with them, and so some men drink together, others gamble, others join in athletic exercises or hunting, others study philosophy together; in each case spending their days together in that which they like best of all things in life, for since they wish to be intimate with their friends, they do and partake in those things whereby they think to attain this object.

Therefore the Friendship of the wicked comes to be depraved, for, being unstable, they share in what is bad, and become depraved in being made like to one another. But the Friendship of the good is good, growing with their intercourse; they improve also, as it seems, by repeated acts, and by mutual correction, for they receive impress from one another in the points which give them pleasure; whence says the Poet—

"Thou from the good, good things shalt surely learn."

Here then we will terminate our discourse of Friendship. The next thing is to go into the subject of Pleasure.

BOOK X.

CHAPTER I.

INTRODUCTORY.

NEXT, it would seem, follows a discussion respecting Pleasure, for it is thought to be most closely bound up with our kind, and so men train the young, guiding them on their course by the rudders of Pleasure and Pain. And to like and dislike what one ought is judged to be most important for the formation of good moral character, because these feelings extend all one's life through, giving a bias towards, and exerting an influence on the side of, Virtue and Happiness, since men choose what is pleasant, and avoid what is painful.

Subjects such as these then, it would seem, we ought by no means to pass by, and specially since they involve much difference of opinion. There are those who call Pleasure the Chief Good; there are others who, on the contrary, maintain that it is exceedingly bad. Some perhaps from a real conviction that such is the case, others from a notion that it is better, in reference to our life and conduct, to show up Pleasure as bad, even if it is not so really; arguing that, as the mass of men have a bias towards it, and are the slaves of their pleasures, it is right to draw them to the contrary, for that so they may possibly arrive at the mean.

I confess I suspect the soundness of this policy. In matters relating to men's feelings and actions, theories are less convincing than facts. Whenever, therefore, they are found conflicting with actual experience, they not only are despised, but involve the truth in their fall. He, for instance, who depreciates Pleasure, if once seen to aim at it, gets the credit of thinking all pleasure a thing to be pursued, the mass of men being incapable of nice distinctions.

Real accounts, therefore, of such matters seem to be most expedient, not with a view to knowledge merely, but to life and conduct; for they are believed as being in harmony with facts, and so they prevail with the wise to live in accordance with them.

But of such considerations enough. Let us now proceed to the current maxims respecting pleasure.

CHAPTER II.

THE OPINIONS OF EUDOXUS AND OTHERS STATED AND DISCUSSED.

Now Eudoxus thought Pleasure to be the Chief Good, because he saw all, rational and irrational, aiming at it; and he argued that since in all what was the object of choice must be good, and what most so, the best, the fact of all being drawn to the same thing proved this thing to be the best of all. "For each," he said, "finds what is good for itself, just as it does its proper nourishment, and so that which is good for all, and the object of the aim of all, is their Chief Good."

(And his theories were received, not so much for their

own sake, as because of his excellent moral character; for he was thought to be eminently possessed of perfect self-mastery, and therefore it was not thought that he said these things because he was a lover of Pleasure, but that he really was so convinced.)

And he thought his position was not less proved by the argument from the contrary; that is, since Pain was in itself an object of avoidance to all, the contrary must be in like manner an object of choice.

Again, he urged that that is most choiceworthy which we choose, not by reason of, or with a view to, anything further; and that Pleasure is confessedly of this kind, because no one ever goes on to ask to what purpose he is pleased, feeling that Pleasure is in itself choiceworthy.

Again, that when added to any other good it makes it more choiceworthy; as, for instance, to actions of justice or perfected self-mastery; and good can only be increased by itself.

However, this argument at least seems to prove only that it belongs to the class of goods, and not that it does so more than anything else; for every good is more choiceworthy in combination with some other than when taken quite alone. In fact, it is by just such an argument that Plato proves that Pleasure is not the Chief Good;[1] "For," says he, "the life of Pleasure is more choiceworthy in combination with Good Sense than apart from it; but if the compound be better, then simple Pleasure cannot be the Chief Good, because the very Chief Good cannot by any addition become more choiceworthy than it is already." And it is obvious that nothing else can be the Chief Good which, by combination with any of the things in themselves good, comes to be more choiceworthy.

[1] See Book I., Chap. iv., *ad finem.*

What is there then of such a nature? (meaning, of course, whereof we can partake, because that which we are in search of must be such).

As for those who object that "what all aim at is not necessarily good," I confess I cannot see much in what they say, because what all *think* we say *is*. And he who would cut away this ground from under us will not bring forward things more dependable, because if the argument had rested on the desires of irrational creatures, there might have been something in what he says, but since the rational also desire Pleasure, how can his objection be allowed any weight? And it may be that, even in the lower animals, there is some natural good principle above themselves which aims at the good peculiar to them.

Nor does that seem to be sound which is urged respecting the argument from the contrary. I mean, some people say, "It does not follow that Pleasure must be good because Pain is evil, since evil may be opposed to evil, and both evil and good to what is indifferent." Now what they say is right enough in itself, but does not hold in the present instance. If both Pleasure and Pain were bad, both would have been objects of avoidance; or if neither, then neither would have been, at all events they must have fared alike; but now men do plainly avoid the one as bad and choose the other as good, and so there is a complete opposition.

Nor again is Pleasure therefore excluded from being a good, because it does not belong to the class of qualities.[1] The acts of Virtue are not qualities, neither is Happiness [yet surely both are goods].

[1] The notion alluded to is that of the Idea—that there is no real substantial good except the Essential Good, and therefore whatever is so called is so named in right of its participation in that.

Again, they say the Chief Good is limited, but Pleasure unlimited, in that it admits of degrees.

Now if they judge this from the act of feeling Pleasure, then the same thing will apply to justice and all the other virtues,[1] in respect of which clearly it is said that men are more or less of such and such characters (according to the different virtues), for they are more just or more brave, or one may practise justice and self-mastery more or less.

If, on the other hand, they judge in respect of the Pleasures themselves, then it may be they miss the true cause—namely, that some are unmixed and others mixed; for just as health, being in itself limited, admits of degrees, why should not Pleasure do so, and yet be limited? In the former case we account for it by the fact that there is not the same adjustment of parts in all men, nor one and the same always in the same individual; but health, though relaxed, remains up to a certain point, and differs in degrees; and of course the same may be the case with Pleasure.

Again, assuming the Chief Good to be perfect, and all Movements[2] and Generations imperfect, they try to show that Pleasure is a Movement and a Generation.

Yet they do not seem warranted in saying even that it is a Movement, for to every Movement are thought to belong swiftness and slowness, and if not in itself, as to that of the

[1] See Note 1, on page 55.

[2] Movement is, according to Aristotle, of six kinds:—

From not being to being	Generation	*Categories*, Chap. xi.
From being to not being	Destruction	
From being to being more	Increase	
From being to being less	Diminution	
From being here to being there	Change of Place	
From being in this way to being in that..	Alteration	

universe, yet relatively; but to Pleasure neither of these belongs, for though one may have got quickly into the state of Pleasure as into that of anger, one cannot be in the state quickly,[1] nor relatively to the state of any other person; but we can walkor grow, and so on, quickly or slowly.

Of course it is possible to change into the state of Pleasure quickly or slowly, but to act in the state (by which I mean, have the perccption of Pleasure) quickly is not possible.

And how can it be a Generation? because, according to notions generally held, not *any* thing is generated from *any* thing, but a thing resolves itself into that out of which it was generated, and of that of which Pleasure is the generation Pain is the destruction; and so they say that Pain is a lack of something suitable to nature, and Pleasure a supply of it.

But these are affections of the body. Now if Pleasure really is a supplying of somewhat suitable to nature, that must feel the Pleasure in which the supply takes place, therefore the body of course; yet this is not thought to be so. Neither then is Pleasure a supplying, only a person of course will be pleased when a supply takes places, and be pained when he is cut short.

This notion would seem to have arisen out of the Pains and Pleasures connected with natural nourishment, because, when people have felt a lack, and so have had Pain first, they of course are pleased with the supply of their lack.

But this is not the case with all Pleasures. Those attendant on mathematical studies, for instance, are unconnected with any Pain; and, of such as attend on the

[1] A may go to sleep quicker than B, but cannot *do more sleep* in a given time.

senses, those which arise through the sense of Smell; and again, many sounds, and sights, and memories, and hopes. Now of what can these be Generations? because there has been here no lack of anything to be afterwards supplied.

And to those who bring forward disgraceful Pleasures we may reply that these are not really pleasant things; for it does not follow because they are pleasant to the ill-disposed that we are to admit that they are pleasant except to them; just as we should not say that those things are really wholesome, or sweet, or bitter which are so to the sick, or those objects really white which give that impression to people labouring under ophthalmia.[1]

Or we might say thus, that the Pleasures are choice-worthy, but not as derived from these sources; just as wealth is, but not as the price of treason; or health, but not on the terms of eating anything, however loathsome.

Or again, may we not say that Pleasures differ in kind; those derived from honourable objects, for instance, are different from those arising from disgraceful ones; and it is not possible to experience the Pleasure of the just man without being just, or of the musical man without being musical; and so on of others.

The distinction commonly drawn between the friend and the flatterer would seem to show clearly either that Pleasure is not a good, or that there are different kinds of Pleasure; for the former is thought to have good as the object of his intercourse, the latter, Pleasure only; and this last is reproached, but the former men praise, as having different objects in his intercouse.

Again, no one would choose to live with a child's intellect all his life through, though receiving the highest possible Pleasure from such objects as children receive it from; or

[1] Compare Book III. chap. vi.

to take Pleasure in doing any of the most disgraceful things, though sure never to be pained.

There are many things also about which we should be diligent, even though they brought no Pleasure; as seeing, remembering, knowing, possessing the various Virtues, and the fact that Pleasures do follow on these naturally makes no difference, because we should certainly choose them, even though no Pleasure resulted from them.

It seems then to be plain that Pleasure is not the Chief Good, nor is every kind of it choiceworthy; and that there are some choiceworthy in themselves, differing in kind—*i.e.*, in the sources from which they are derived. Let this then suffice by way of an account of the current maxims respecting Pleasure and Pain.

CHAPTER III.

THAT PLEASURE IS A "WHOLE," AND SO DISTINGUISHED FROM ANY KIND OF MOVEMENT.

Now what it is, and how characterised, will be more plain if we take up the subject afresh.

An act of Sight is thought to be complete at any moment; that is to say, it lacks nothing, the accession of which subsequently will complete its whole nature.

Well, Pleasure resembles this: because it is a whole, as one may say; and one could not at any moment of time take a Pleasure, whose whole nature would be completed by its lasting for a longer time. And for this reason it is not a Movement, for all movement takes place in time of certain duration, and has a certain End to accomplish; for

instance, the Movement of house-building[1] is then only complete when the builder has produced what he intended, that is, either in the whole time [necessary to complete the whole design], or in a given portion.[2] But all the subordinate Movements are incomplete in the parts of the time, and are different in kind from the whole movement, and from one another (I mean, for instance, that the fitting the stones together is a Movement different from that of fluting the column, and both again from the construction of the Temple as a whole; but this last is complete, as lacking nothing to the result proposed; whereas that of the basement, or of the triglyph, is incomplete, because each is a Movement of a part merely).

As I said then, they differ in kind, and you cannot at any time you choose find a Movement complete in its whole nature, but, if at all, in the whole time requisite.

And so it is with the Movement of walking, and all others; for if motion be a Movement from one place to another place, then too are there different kinds of it, flying, walking, leaping, and such like. And not only so, but there are different kinds even in walking: the wherefrom and whereto are not the same in the whole Course, as in a portion of it; nor in one portion as in another; nor is crossing this line the same as crossing that: because a man is not merely crossing a line, but a line in a given place, and this is in a different place from that.

Of Movement, I have discoursed exactly in another treatise. I will now therefore only say that it seems not to be complete at any given moment, and that the many minor ones are incomplete and specifically different, if the

[1] Which is of course a Generation.

[2] That is, subordinate Movements are complete before the whole Movement is.

whence and whither can be admitted as constituting different species.

But of Pleasure, the whole nature is complete at any given moment. It is plain then that Pleasure and Movement must be different from one another, and that Pleasure belongs to the class of things whole and complete. And this might appear also from the impossibility of moving except in a definite time, whereas there is none with respect to the sensation of Pleasure, for what exists at the very present moment is a kind of "whole."

From these considerations then it is plain that people are not warranted in saying that Pleasure is a Movement or a Generation; because these terms are not applicable to all things, only to such as are divisible and not "wholes." I mean, that of an act of Sight there is no Generation, nor is there of a point, nor of a monad, nor is any one of these a Movement or a Generation; neither then of Pleasure is there Movement or Generation, because it is, as one may say, "a whole."[1]

CHAPTER IV.

ARISTOTLE'S OWN ACCOUNT OF PLEASURE.

Now since every Percipient Faculty works upon the Object answering to it, and perfectly, the Faculty in a good state upon the most excellent of the Objects within its range (for Perfect Working is thought to be much what I have

[1] Pleasure is so instantaneous a sensation that it cannot be conceived divisible or incomplete; the longest continued Pleasure is only a succession of single sparks, so rapid as to give the appearance of a stream of light.

described; and we will not raise any question about saying the Faculty works, instead of that subject wherein the Faculty resides), in each case the best Working is that of the Faculty in its best state upon the best of the Objects answering to it. And this will be, further, most perfect and most pleasant; for Pleasure is attendant upon every Percipient Faculty, and in like manner on every intellectual operation and speculation; and that is most pleasant which is most perfect, and that most perfect which is the Working of the best Faculty upon the most excellent of the Objects within its range.

And Pleasure perfects the Working. But Pleasure does not perfect it in the same way as the Faculty and Object of Perception do, being good; just as health and the physician are not in similar senses causes of a healthy state.

And that Pleasure does arise upon the exercise of every Percipient Faculty is evident, for we commonly say that sights and sounds are pleasant; it is plain also that this is especially the case when the Faculty is most excellent, and works upon a similar Object; and when both the Object and Faculty of Perception are such, Pleasure will always exist, supposing of course an agent and patient.

Furthermore, Pleasure perfects the act of Working, not in the way of an inherent state, but as a supervening finish, such as is bloom in people at their prime. Therefore so long as the Object of intellectual or sensitive Perception is such as it should be, and also the Faculty which discerns or realises the Object, there will be Pleasure in the Working; because so long as that which has the capacity of being acted on, and that which is apt to act, remain the same in themselves and in their relations, the same result follows naturally.

How is it then that no one feels Pleasure continuously?

Is it not that he wearies, because all human faculties are incapable of unintermitting exertion; and so, of course, Pleasure does not arise either, because that follows upon the act of Working. But there are some things which please when new, but afterwards not in the like way, for exactly the same reason—that at first, the mind is roused, and works on these Objects with its powers at full tension, just as they who are gazing stedfastly at anything; but afterwards the act of Working is not of the kind it was at first, but careless, and so the Pleasure too is dulled.

Again, a person may conclude that all men grasp at Pleasure, because all aim likewise at Life, and Life is an act of Working, and every man works at and with those things which also he best likes; the musical man, for instance, works with his hearing at melodies; the studious man with his intellect at speculative questions, and so forth. And Pleasure perfects the acts of Working, and so Life, after which men grasp. No wonder then that they aim also at Pleasure, because it perfects Life to each, which is itself choiceworthy. (We will take leave to omit the question whether we choose Life for Pleasure's sake, or Pleasure for Life's sake; because these two plainly are closely connected, and admit not of separation; since Pleasure comes not into being without Working, and again, every Working Pleasure perfects.)

And this is one reason why Pleasures are thought to differ in kind, because we suppose that things which differ in kind must be perfected by things so differing, it plainly being the case with the productions of Nature and Art, as animals, and trees, and pictures, and statutes, and houses, and furniture; and so we suppose that in like manner acts of Working which are different in kind are perfected by things differing in kind. Now Intellectual Workings differ

specifically from those of the Senses, and these last from one another; therefore so do the Pleasures which perfect them.

This may be shown also from the intimate connection subsisting between each Pleasure and the Working which it perfects; I mean, that the Pleasure proper to any Working increases that Working, for they who work with Pleasure sift everything more closely, and carry them out to a greater degree of nicety; for instance, those men become geometricians who take Pleasure in geometry, and they apprehend particular points more completely; in like manner men who are fond of music, or architecture, or anything else, improve, each on his own pursuit, because they feel Pleasure in them. Thus the Pleasures aid in increasing the Workings, and things which do so aid are proper and peculiar; but the things which are proper and peculiar to others specifically different are themselves also specifically different.

Yet even more clearly may this be shown, from the fact that the Pleasures arising from one kind of Workings hinder other Workings. For instance, people who are fond of flute-music cannot keep their attention to conversation or discourse when they catch the sound of a flute, because they take more Pleasure in flute-playing than in the Working they are at the time engaged on; in other words, the Pleasure attendant on flute-playing destroys the Working of conversation or discourse.

Much the same kind of thing takes place in other cases, when a person is engaged in two different Workings at the same time; that is, the pleasanter of the two keeps pushing out the other, and, if the disparity in pleasantness be great, then more and more, till a man even ceases altogether to work at the other.

This is the reason why, when we are very much pleased

with anything whatever, we do nothing else, and it is only when we are but moderately pleased with one occupation that we vary it with another. People, for instance, who eat sweetmeats in the theatre do so most when the performance is indifferent.

Since then the proper and peculiar Pleasure gives accuracy to the Workings, and makes them more enduring and better of their kind, while those Pleasures which are foreign to them mar them, it is plain there is a wide difference between them; in fact, Pleasures foreign to any Working have pretty much the same effect as the Pains proper to it,[1] which, in fact, destroy the Workings. I mean if one man dislikes writing, or another calculation, the one does not write, the other does not calculate, because in each case the Working is attended with some Pain; so then, contrary effects are produced upon the Workings by the Pleasures and Pains proper to them, by which I mean those which arise upon the Working, in itself, independently of any other circumstances. As for the Pleasures foreign to a Working, we have said already that they produce a similar effect to the Pain proper to it; that is, they destroy the Working, only not in like way.

Well then, as Workings differ from one another in goodness and badness, some being fit objects of choice, others of avoidance, and others in their nature indifferent, Pleasures are similarly related, since its own proper Pleasure attends on each Working. Of course, that proper to a good Working is good, that proper to a bad bad; for even the desires for what is noble are praiseworthy, and for what is base blameworthy.

Furthermore, the Pleasures attendant on Workings are

[1] A man is as effectually hindered from taking a walk by the foreign pleasure of reading a novel as by the proper pain of gout in the feet.

more closely connected with them, even than the desires after them; for these last are separate both in time and nature, but the former are close to the Workings, and so indivisible from them, as to raise a question whether the Working and the Pleasure are identical; but Pleasure does not seem to be an Intellectual Operation, nor a Faculty of Perception, because that is absurd, but yet it gives some the impression of being the same, from not being separated from these.

As then the Workings are different, so are their Pleasures. Now Sight differs from Touch in purity, and Hearing and Smelling from Taste; therefore in like manner do their Pleasures; and again, Intellectual Pleasures from these Sensual, and the different kinds both of Intellectual and Sensual, from one another.

It is thought, moreover, that each animal has a Pleasure proper to itself, as it has a proper Work; that Pleasure of course which is attendant on the Working. And the soundness of this will appear upon particular inspection, for horse, dog, and man have different pleasures; as Heraclitus says, an ass would sooner have hay than gold. In other words, provender is pleasanter to asses than gold. So then the Pleasures of animals specifically different are also specifically different, but those of the same, we may reasonably suppose, are without difference.

Yet in the case of human creatures they differ not a little; for the very same things please some and pain others; and what are painful and hateful to some are pleasant to and liked by others. The same is the case with sweet things; the same will not seem so to the man in a fever as to him who is in health; nor will the invalid and the person in robust health have the same notion of warmth. The same is the case with other things also.

Now in all such cases that is held to *be* which impresses the good man with the notion of being such and such; and if this is a sound maxim (as it is usually held to be), and Virtue, that is, the Good man, in that he is such, is the measure of everything, then those must be real Pleasures which give him the impression of being so, and those things pleasant in which he takes Pleasure. Nor is it at all astonishing that what are to him unpleasant should give another person the impression of being pleasant, for men are liable to many corruptions and marrings; and the things in question are not pleasant really, only to these particular persons, and to them only as being thus disposed.

Well of course you may say it is obvious that we must not assert those which are confessedly disgraceful to be real Pleasures, except to depraved tastes; but of those which are thought to be good, what kind, or which, must we say is *The Pleasure of Man?* Is not the answer plain, from considering the Workings, because the Pleasures follow upon these?

If then there be one or several Workings which belong to the perfect and blessed man, the Pleasures which perfect these Workings must be said to be specially and properly *The Pleasures of Man;* and all the rest in a secondary sense, and in various degrees, according as the Workings are related to those highest and best ones.

CHAPTER V.

A RECAPITULATION OF FORMER STATEMENTS RESPECTING HAPPINESS.

Now that we have spoken about the Virtues of both kinds, and Friendship in its varieties, and Pleasures, it remains to sketch out Happiness, since we assume that to be the one End of all human things; and we shall save time and trouble by recapitulating what was stated before.

Well then we said that it is not a State merely, because, if it were, it might belong to one who slept all his life through, and merely vegetated, or to one who fell into very great calamities; and so, if these possibilities displease us, and we would rather put it into the rank of some kind of Working (as was also said before), and Workings are of different kinds (some being necessary and choiceworthy with a view to other things, while others are so in themselves), it is plain we must rank Happiness among those choiceworthy for their own sakes, and not among those which are so with a view to something further, because Happiness has no lack of anything, but is self-sufficient.

By choiceworthy in themselves are meant those from which nothing is sought beyond the act of Working; and of this kind are thought to be the actions according to Virtue, because doing what is noble and excellent is one of those things which are choiceworthy for their own sake alone.

And again, such amusements as are pleasant, because people do not choose them with any further purpose; in fact, they receive more harm than profit from them, neglecting their persons and their property. Still the

common run of those who are judged happy take refuge in such pastimes, which is the reason why they who have varied talent in such are highly esteemed among despots, because they make themselves pleasant in those things which these aim at, and these accordingly want such men.

Now these things are thought to be appurtenances of Happiness, because men in power spend their leisure herein; yet it may be we cannot argue from the example of such men, because there is neither Virtue nor Intellect necessarily involved in having power, and yet these are the only sources of good Workings. Nor does it follow that because these men, never having tasted pure and generous Pleasure, take refuge in bodily ones, we are therefore to believe them to be more choiceworthy, for children too believe that those things are most excellent which are precious in their eyes.

We may well believe that as children and men have different ideas as to what is precious so too have the bad and the good; therefore as we have many times said, those things are really precious and pleasant which seem so to the good man; and as to each individual that Working is most choiceworthy which is in accordance with his own state, so to the good man that is so which is in accordance with Virtue.

Happiness then stands not in amusements; in fact, the very notion is absurd of the End being amusement, and of one's toiling and enduring hardness all one's life long with a view to amusement, for everything in the world, so to speak, we choose with some further End in view, except Happiness, for that is the End comprehending all others. Now to take pains, and to labour with a view to amusement, is plainly foolish, and very childish; but to amuse one's self with a view to steady employment afterwards, as

Anacharsis says, is thought to be right, for amusement is like rest, and men want rest, because unable to labour continuously.

Amusement, therefore, is not an End, because it is adopted with a view to Working afterwards.

Again, it is held that the Happy Life must be one in the way of Virtue, and this is accompanied by earnestness,[1] and stands not in amusement. Moreover, those things which are done in earnest, we say, are better than things merely ludicrous and joined with amusement; and we say that the Working of the better part, or the better man, is more earnest, and the Working of the better is at once better, and more capable of Happiness.

Then again, as for bodily Pleasures, any ordinary person, or even a slave, might enjoy them, just as well as the best man living; but Happiness no one supposes a slave to share, any more than he shares the social life of the citizens, because Happiness stands not in such pastimes, but in the Workings in the way of Virtue, as has also been stated before.

[1] I have thus rendered *σπουδὴ, οὐκ ἀγνοῶν τὸ ἁμαρτανόμενον;* but though the English term does not represent the depth of the Greek one, it is some approximation to the truth to connect an earnest serious purpose with Happiness.

CHAPTER VI.

THAT HAPPINESS CONSISTS, PRIMARILY, IN THE WORKING OF PURE INTELLECT; SECONDARILY, IN THAT OF THE OTHER EXCELLENCES.

Now if Happiness is a Working in the way of Virtue, of course that Virtue must be the highest—that is to say, the Virtue of the best Principle. Whether then this best Principle is intellect, or some other which is thought naturally to rule and to lead and to conceive of noble and divine things, whether being in its own nature divine, or the most divine of all our internal Principles, the Working of this in accordance with its own proper Virtue must be the perfect Happiness.

That it is Contemplative has been already stated, and this would seem to be consistent with what we said before, and with truth; for, in the first place, this Working is of the highest kind, since the Intellect is the highest of our internal Principles, and the subjects with which it is conversant the highest of all which fall within the range of our knowledge.

Next, it is also most Continuous, for we are better able to contemplate than to do anything else whatever continuously.

Again, we think Pleasure must be in some way an ingredient in Happiness; and of all Energies in accordance with Virtue that in the way of Wisdom is confessedly most pleasant; at least the pursuit of Wisdom is thought to contain Pleasures admirable for purity and permanence; and it

is reasonable to suppose that the employment is more pleasant to those who have mastered than to those who are yet seeking for it.[1]

And the Self-Sufficiency which people speak of will attach chiefly to the Contemplative Energy. Of course the actual necessaries of life are needed alike by the sage and the just man, and all the other characters; but supposing all sufficiently supplied with these, the just man needs people towards whom, and in concert with whom, to practise his justice; and in like manner the man of perfected self-mastery, and the brave man, and so on of the rest; whereas the sage can contemplate and speculate even when quite alone, and the more entirely he deserves the appellation the more able is he to do so. It may be he can do better for having fellow-workers, but still he is certainly most Self-Sufficient.

Again, this alone would seem to be desired for its own sake, since nothing results from it beyond the fact of having contemplated; whereas from all things which are objects of moral action we do mean to get something beside the doing them, be the same more or less.

Also, Happiness is thought to stand in perfect Leisure, for we toil that we may have Leisure and war that we may be at peace. Now all the Practical Virtues require either society or war for their Working, and the actions regarding these are thought to exclude Leisure, those of war entirely, because no one chooses war, nor prepares for war, for war's

[1] Bp. Butler, *contrà* (Sermon XV.).

"Knowledge is not our proper Happiness. Whoever will in the least attend to the thing will see that it is the gaining, not the having, of it which is the entertainment of the mind." The two statements may, however, be well reconciled. Aristotle may be well understood only to mean that the pursuit of knowledge will be the pleasanter the freer it is from the minor hindrances which attend on *learning*.

sake. He would indeed be thought a bloodthirsty villain who should make enemies of his friends to secure the existence of fighting and bloodshed. The Working also of the Politician exclude the idea of Leisure, and, beside the actual work of government, seeks for power and dignities, or at least Happiness for the man himself and his fellow-citizens, a Happiness distinct[1] from the national Happiness which we evidently seek as being different and distinct.

If then of all the actions in accordance with the various virtues those of policy and war are pre-eminent in honour and greatness, and these are busy and aim at some further End, and are not choiceworthy for their own sakes, but the Energy of the Intellect, being apt for contemplation, is thought to excel in earnestness, and to aim at no End beyond itself, and to have Pleasure of its own which helps to increase the Energy; and if the attributes of Self-Sufficiency and capacity of Leisure and unweariedness (as far as is compatible with the infirmity of human nature), and all other attributes of the highest Happiness, plainly belong to this Energy, this must be perfect Happiness, if attaining a complete duration of life, which condition is added because none of the points of Happiness is incomplete.

But such a life will be higher than mere human nature, because a man will live thus, not in so far as he is man, but in so far as there is in him a divine Principle. And in proportion as this Principle excels his composite nature, so far does the Energy thereof excel that in accordance with any other kind of Virtue. And therefore if pure Intellect, as compared with human nature, is divine, so

[1] That is to say, he aims at producing not merely a happy aggregate, but an aggregate of happy individuals. Compare what is said of Legislators in the last chapter of Book I. and the first of Book II.

too will the life in accordance with it be divine compared with man's ordinary life.

Yet must we not give ear to those who bid one as man to mind only man's affairs, or as mortal only mortal things, but, so far as we can, to make ourselves like immortals, and do all with a view to living in accordance with the highest Principle in us; for small as it may be in bulk, yet in power and preciousness it far more excels all the others [than they it in bulk].

In fact, this Principle would seem to constitute each man's "Self," since it is supreme and above all others in goodness; it *would* be absurd then for a man not to choose his own life, but that of some other.

And here will apply an observation made before, that whatever is proper to each is naturally best and pleasantest to him. Such then is to Man the life in accordance with pure Intellect (since this Principle is most truly Man), and if so, then it is also the happiest.

And second in degree of Happiness will be that Life which is in accordance with the other kind of Virtue, for the Workings in accordance with this are proper to Man. I mean we do actions of justice, courage, and the other virtues towards one another in contracts, services of different kinds, and in all kinds of actions and feelings too, by observing what is befitting for each; and all these plainly are proper to man. Further, the Virtue of the Moral character is thought to result in some points from physical circumstances, and to be in many very closely connected with the passions.

Again, Good Sense and Virtue of the Moral character are very closely united, since the Principles of Good Sense are in accordance with the Moral Virtues, and these are right when they accord with Good Sense.

These moreover, as bound up with the passions, must belong to the composite nature, and the Excellences or Virtues of the composite nature are proper to man; therefore so too. will be the life and Happiness which is in accordance with them. But that of the Pure Intellect is separate and distinct; and let this suffice upon the subject, since great exactness is beyond our purpose.

It would seem moreover to require supply of external goods to a small degree, or certainly less than the Moral Happiness; for, as far as necessaries of life are concerned, we will suppose both characters to need them equally (though, in point of fact, since the man who lives in society does take more pains about his person and all that kind of thing, there will really be some little difference), but when we come to consider their Energy there will be found a great difference.

I mean, the liberal man must have money to do his liberal actions with, and the just man to meet his engagements (for mere intentions are uncertain, and even those who are unjust make a pretence of *wishing* to do justly), and the brave man must have power, if he is to perform any of the actions which appertain to his particular Virtue, and the man of perfected self-mastery must have opportunity of temptation, else how shall he or any of the others display his real character?

(By the way, a question is sometimes raised, whether the moral choice or the actions have most to do with Virtue, since it consists of both. It is plain that the perfection of virtuous action requires both.) Now for the actions many things are required, and the greater and nobler the action the more is needed. But as for the man engaged in Contemplative Speculation, not only are such things unnecessary for his Working, but so to speak they are even

hindrances; as regards the Contemplation at least, because of course in so far as he is Man and lives in society he chooses to do what Virtue requires, and so he will need such things for maintaining his character as Man, though not as a speculative philosopher.

And that the perfect Happiness must be a kind of Contemplative Energy may appear also from the following consideration: our conception of the Gods is, that they are above all blessed and happy. Now what kind of Moral actions are we to attribute to them? those of justice? Nay, will they not be set in a ridiculous light if represented as forming contracts, and restoring deposits, and so on? Well then, shall we picture them performing brave actions, withstanding objects of fear and meeting dangers, because it is noble to do so? or liberal ones? But to whom shall they be giving? and further, it is absurd to think they have money or anything of the kind. And as for actions of perfected self-mastery, what can theirs be? would it not be a degrading praise that they have no bad desires? In short, if one followed the subject into all details, all the circumstances connected with Moral actions would appear trivial and unworthy of Gods.

Still, every one believes that they live, and therefore that they Work, because it is not supposed that they sleep their time away like Endymion. Now if from a living being you take away Action, still more if Creation, what remains but Contemplation? So then the Energy of the Gods, eminent in blessedness, will be one apt for Contemplative Speculation; and of all human Energies that will have the greatest capacity for Happiness which is nearest akin to this.

A corroboration of which position is the fact that the other animals do not partake of Happiness, being completely shut out from any such Energy.

To the Gods then all their life is blessed; and to men, in so far as there is in it some copy of such Energy; but of the other animals, none is happy, because it in no way shares in Contemplative Speculation.

Happiness then is coextensive with this Contemplative Speculation, and in proportion as people have the act of Contemplation, so far have they also the being happy, not incidentally, but in the way of Contemplative Speculation, because it is in itself precious.

CHAPTER VII.

EXTERNAL PROSPERITY, HOW FAR NECESSARY TO HAPPINESS.

So Happiness must be a kind of Contemplative Speculation; but since it is Man we are speaking of, he will need likewise External Prosperity, because his Nature is not by itself sufficient for Speculation, but there must be health of body, and nourishment, and tendance of all kinds.

However, it must not be thought, because without external goods a man cannot enjoy high Happiness, that therefore he will require many and great goods in order to be happy. For neither Self-sufficiency nor Action stand in Excess, and it is quite possible to act nobly, without being ruler of sea and land, since even with moderate means a man may act in accordance with Virtue.

And this may be clearly seen in that men in private stations are thought to act justly, not merely no less than men in power, but even more; it will be quite enough that just so much should belong to a man as is necessary, for

his life will be happy who works in accordance with Virtue.

Solon perhaps drew a fair picture of the Happy when he said that they are men moderately supplied with external goods, and who have achieved the most noble deeds, as he thought, and who have lived with perfect self-mastery; for it is quite possible for men of moderate means to act as they ought.

Anaxagoras also seems to have conceived of the Happy man, not as either rich or powerful, saying that he should not wonder if he were not accounted a happy man in the judgment of the multitude; for they judge by outward circumstances, of which alone they have any perception.

And thus the opinions of the Wise seem to be accordant with our account of the matter. Of course such things carry some weight, but truth, in matters of moral action, is judged from facts, and from actual life, for herein rests the decision. So what we should do is to examine the preceding statements, by referring them to facts and to actual life, and when they harmonise with facts we may accept them; when they are at variance with them, conceive of them as mere theories.

Now he that works in accordance with, and pays observance to, Pure Intellect, and tends this, seems likely to be both in the best frame of mind, and dearest to the Gods; because if, as is thought, any care is bestowed on human things by the Gods, then it must be reasonable to think that they take pleasure in what is best and most akin to themselves (and this must be the Pure Intellect); and that they requite with kindness those who love and honour this most, as holding dear the same things as the Gods do, and acting rightly and nobly. And it is quite obvious that the Sage chiefly combines all these. He is therefore dearest

to the Gods, and it is probable that he is at the same time most Happy.

Thus then on this view also the Sage will be most Happy.

CHAPTER VIII.

INTRODUCTORY TO THE POLITICS.

Now then that we have said enough in our sketchy kind of way on these subjects—I mean on the Virtues, and also on Friendship and Pleasure—are we to suppose that our original purpose is completed? Must we not rather acknowledge what is commonly said, that in matters of moral action mere Speculation and Knowledge is not the real End, but rather Practice; and if so, then neither in respect of Virtue is Knowledge enough; we must further strive to have and exert it, and take whatever other means there are of becoming good.

Now if talking and writing were of themselves sufficient to make men good, they would justly, as Theognis observes, have reaped numerous and great rewards, and the thing to do would be to provide them; but in point of fact, while they plainly have the power to guide and stimulate the generous among the young, and to base upon true virtuous principle any noble and truly high-minded disposition, they as plainly are powerless to guide the mass of men to Virtue and goodness, because it is not their nature to be amenable to a sense of shame, but only to fear; nor to abstain from what is low and mean because it is disgraceful to do it, but because of the punishment attached to it. In fact, as they live at the beck and call of passion, they pursue their own

proper pleasures and the means of securing them, and they avoid the contrary pains; but as for what is noble and truly pleasurable, they have not an idea of it, inasmuch as they have never tasted of it.

Men such as these then what mere words can transform? No, indeed! it is either actually impossible, or a task of no mean difficulty, to alter by words what has been of old taken into men's very dispositions; and it may be it is a ground for contentment if we can attain some share of Virtue, when all the circumstances that make that way are present.

The formation of a virtuous character some ascribe to Nature, some to Custom, and some to Teaching. Now Nature's part, be it what it may, obviously does not rest with us, but belongs to those who in the truest sense are fortunate, by reason of certain divine agency.

Then, as for Words and Precept, they, it is to be feared, will not avail with all; but it may be necessary for the mind of the disciple to have been previously prepared for liking and disliking as he ought; just as the soil must, to nourish the seed sown. For he that lives in obedience to passion cannot hear any advice that would dissuade him, nor, if he heard, understand. Now him that is thus how can one reform? In fact, generally passion is not thought to yield to Reason, but to brute force. So then there must be, to begin with, a kind of affinity to Virtue in the disposition, which must cleave to what is honourable, and loathe what is disgraceful. But to get right guidance towards Virtue from the earliest youth is not easy, unless one is brought up under laws of such kind, because living with self-mastery and endurance is not pleasant to the mass of men, and specially the young. For this reason the food, and manner of living generally, ought to be the subject of

legal regulation, because things, when become habitual, will not be disagreeable.

Yet perhaps it is not sufficient that men while young should get right food and tendance, but inasmuch as they will have to practise and become accustomed to certain things, even after they have attained to man's estate, we shall want laws on these points as well, and, in fine, respecting one's whole life, since the mass of men are amenable to compulsion rather than Reason, and to punishment rather than to a sense of honour.

And therefore some men hold that while lawgivers should employ the sense of honour to exhort and guide men to Virtue, under the notion that they will then obey who have been well trained in habits, they should impose chastisement and penalties on those who disobey, and are of less promising nature; and as for the incurable, expel them entirely, because the good man, and he who lives under a sense of honour, will be obedient; and the baser sort, who grasp at pleasure, will be kept in check, like beasts of burthen, by pain. Therefore also they say that the pains should be such as are most contrary to the pleasures which are liked.

As has been said already, he who is to be good must have been brought up and habituated well, and then live accordingly under good institutions, and never do what is low and mean, either against or with his will. Now these objects can be attained only by men living in accordance with some guiding Intellect, and right order, with power to back them.

As for the Paternal Rule, it possesses neither strength nor compulsory power, nor in fact does the Rule of any one man, except he is a king, or some one in like case; but the Law has power to compel, since it is a declaration

emanating from Good Sense and Intellect. And people feel enmity towards their fellow-men who oppose their impulses, however rightly they may do so. The Law, on the contrary, is not the object of hatred, though enforcing right rules.

The Lacedæmonian is nearly the only State in which the framer of the Constitution has made any provision, it would seem, respecting the food and manner of living of the people; in most States these points are entirely neglected, and each man lives just as he likes, ruling his wife and children Cyclops-fashion.[1]

Of course the best thing would be that there should be a Public System, and that we should be able to carry that out; but since as a public matter those points are neglected, the duty would seem to devolve upon each individual to contribute to the cause of Virtue with his own children and friends, or at least to make this his aim and purpose; and this, it would seem, from what has been said, he will be best able to do by learning the Art of Legislation, since all public systems, it is plain, are formed by the instrumentality of laws, and those are good which are formed by that of good laws; whether they are written or unwritten, whether they are applied to the training of one or many, will not, it seems, make any difference, just as it does not in music, gymnastics, or any other such accomplishments which are gained by practice.

For just as in Communities laws and customs prevail, so too in families the express commands of the Head and customs also; and even more in the latter, because of blood-relationship, and the benefits conferred; for there

[1] See *Odyssey*, ix. 114. The Cyclopes lived, says Homer, in lawless isolation, each ruling his own family, and obeying no common authority.—[ED.]

you have, to begin with, people who have affection, and are naturally obedient to the authority which controls them.

Then, furthermore, Private training has advantages over Public, as in the case of the healing art; for instance, as a general rule, a man who is in a fever should keep quiet and starve; but in a particular case, perhaps, this may not hold good; or to take a different illustration, the boxer will not use the same way of fighting with all antagonists.

It would seem then that the individual will be most exactly attended to under Private care, because so each will be more likely to obtain what is expedient for him. Of course, whether in the art of healing, or gymnastics, or any other, a man will treat individual cases the better for being acquainted with general rules; as, "that so and so is good for all, or for men in such and such cases," because general maxims are not only said to be, but are the object-matter of sciences; still this is no reason against the possibility of a man's taking excellent care of some *one* case, though he possesses no knowledge, but from experience is exactly acquainted with what happens in each point; just as some people are thought to doctor themselves best, though they would be wholly unable to administer relief to others. Yet it may seem to be necessary, nevertheless, for one who wishes to become a real master of any art, and well acquainted with the theory of his profession, to have recourse to general principles, and ascertain all their capacities; for we have already stated that these are the object-matter of sciences.

If then it appears that we may become good through the instrumentality of laws, of course, whoso wishes to make men better by a system of care and training must try to make himself a good Legislator: for to treat skilfully

just any one who may be put before you is not what any ordinary person can do, but, if any one, he who has knowledge, as in the healing art, and all others which involve careful practice and skill.

Will not then our next business be to inquire from what sources, or how one may acquire this faculty of Legislation; or shall we say that, as in similar cases, Statesmen are the people to learn from, since this faculty was thought to be a part of the Social Science? Must we not admit that the Political Science plainly does not stand on a similar footing to that of other sciences and faculties; I mean, that while in all other cases those who impart the faculties and themselves exert them, are identical (physicians and painters for instance), matters of Statesmanship the Sophists profess to teach but not one of them practises it, that being left to those actually engaged in it; and these might really very well be thought to do it by some singular knack, and by mere practice rather than by any intellectual process; for they neither write nor speak on these matters (though it might be more to their credit than composing speeches for the courts or the assembly), nor again have they made Statesmen of their own sons or their friends.

One can hardly suppose but that they would have done so if they could, seeing that they could have bequeathed no more precious legacy to their communities, nor would they have preferred, for themselves or their dearest friends, the possession of any faculty rather than this.

Practice, however, seems to contribute no little to its acquisition; merely breathing the atmosphere of politics would never have made Statesmen of them, and therefore we may conclude that they who would acquire a knowledge of Statesmanship must have in addition practice.

But of the Sophists, they who profess to teach it are

plainly a long way off from doing so; in fact, they have no knowledge at all of its nature and objects. If they had, they would never have put it on the same footing with Rhetoric, or even on a lower; neither would they have conceived it to be "an easy matter to legislate, by simply collecting such laws as are famous, because of course one could select the best," as though the selection were not a matter of skill, and the judging aright a very great matter, as in Music; for they alone who have practical knowledge of a thing can judge the performances rightly, or understand with what means and in what way they are accomplished, and what harmonises with what: the unlearned must be content with being able to discover whether the result is good or bad, as in painting.

Now laws may be called the performances or tangible results of Political Science; how then can a man acquire from these the faculty of Legislation, or choose the best? We do not see men made physicians by compilations; and yet in these treatises men endeavour to give not only the cases, but also how they may be cured, and the proper treatment in each case, dividing the various bodily habits. Well, these are thought to be useful to professional men, but to the unprofessional, useless. In like manner it may be that collections of laws and Constitutions would be exceedingly useful to such as are able to speculate on them, and judge what is well, and what ill, and what kind of things fit in with what others. But they who, without this qualification, should go through such matters cannot have right judgment, unless they have it by instinct, though they may become more intelligent in such matters.

Since then those who have preceded us have left uninvestigated the subject of Legislation, it will be better perhaps for us to investigate it ourselves, and, in fact, the

whole subject of Polity, that thus what we may call Human Philosophy may be completed as far as in us lies.

First, then, let us endeavour to get whatever fragments of good there may be in the statements of our predecessors; next, from the Polities we have collected, ascertain what kind of things preserve or destroy Communities, and what particular Constitutions, and the cause why some are well and others ill managed; for after such inquiry we shall be the better able to take a concentrated view as to what kind of Constitution is best, what kind of regulations are best for each, and what laws and customs.

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