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NOTES

ON

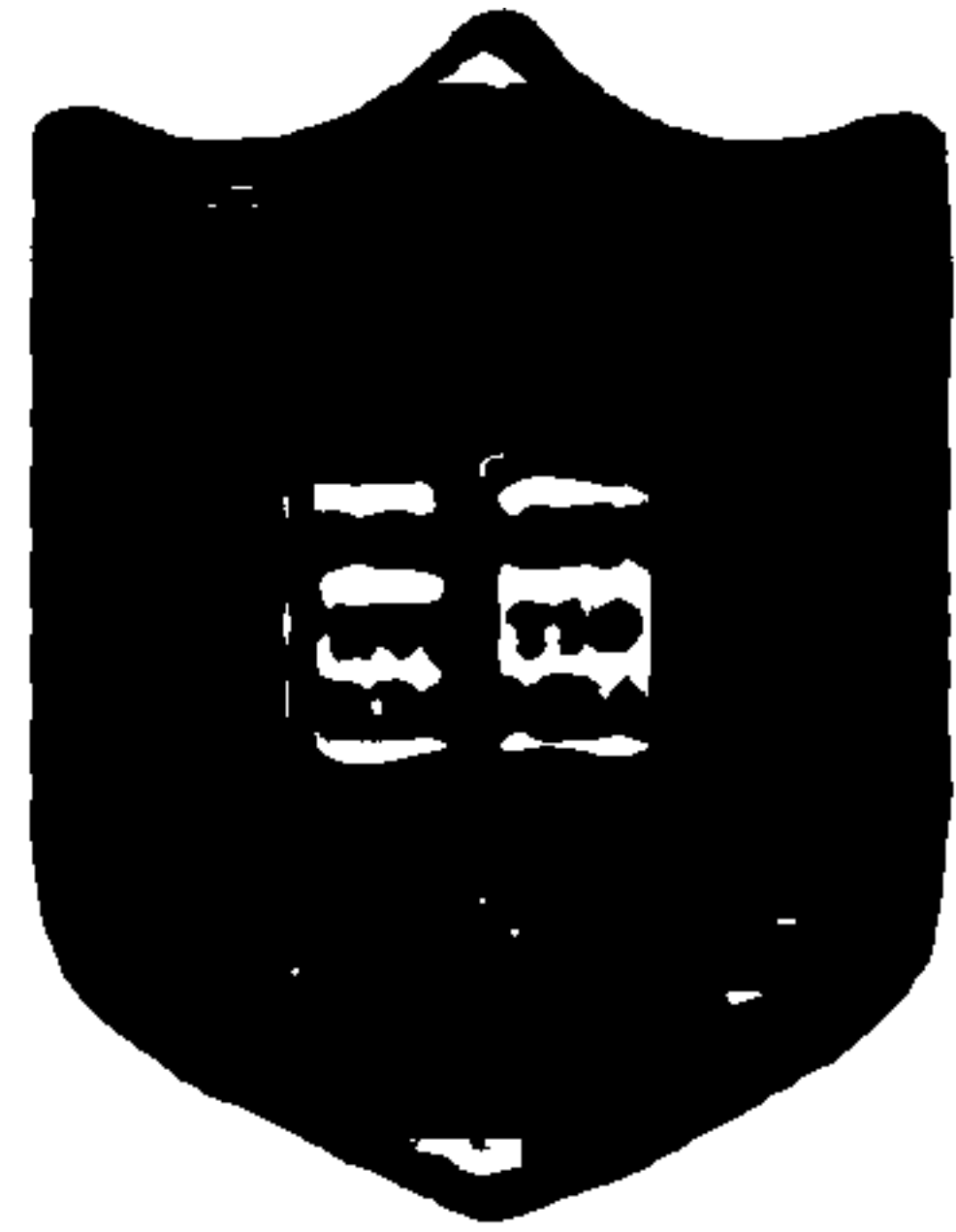
THE NICOMACHEAN ETHICS

J. A. STEWART

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NOTES
ON THE
NICOMACHEAN ETHICS
OF
ARISTOTLE

BY

J. A. STEWART, M.A.

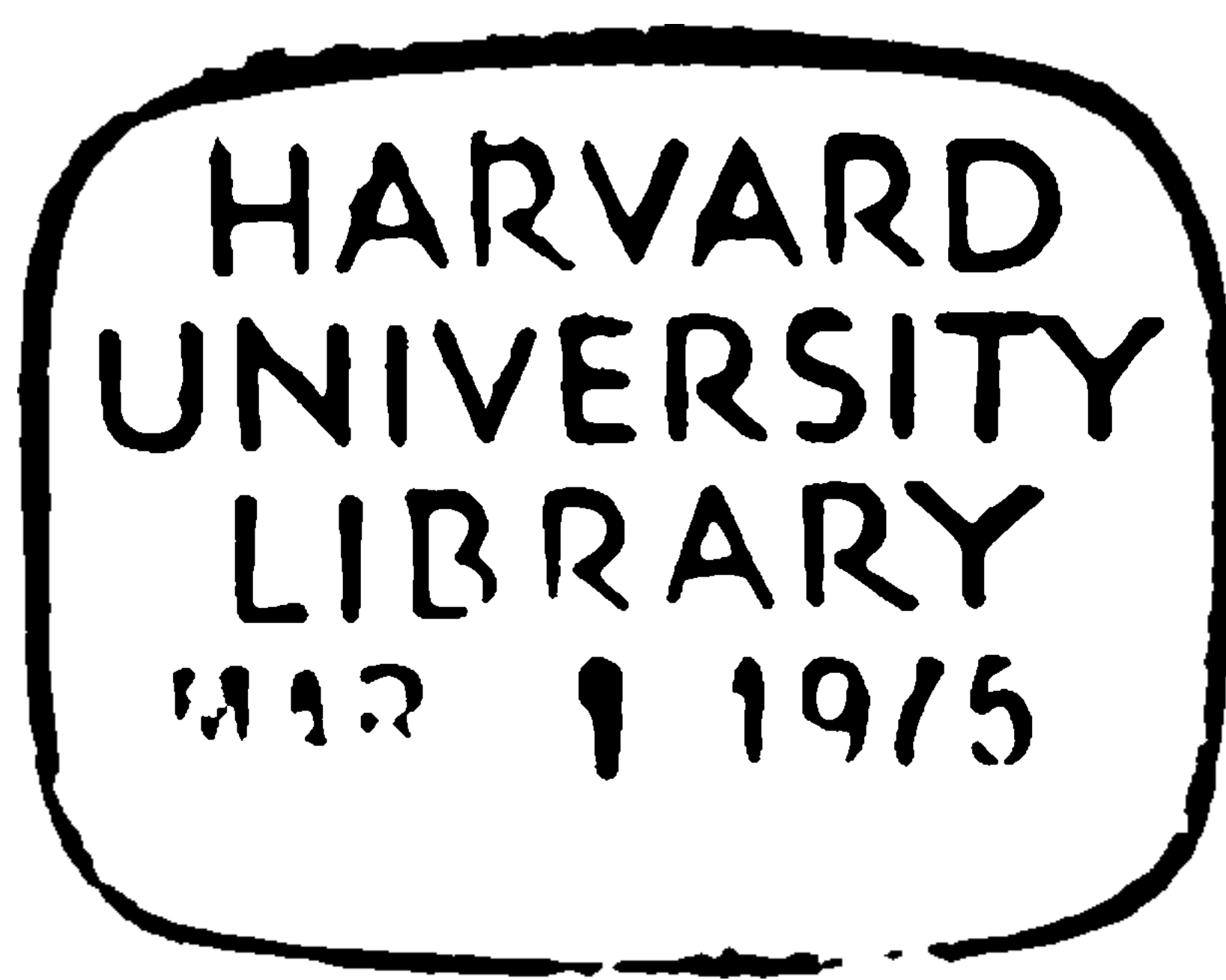
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BOOK VI.



CHAPTER I.

ARGUMENT.

We have said that we must choose the mean, and that the mean is that which the 'right reason' points out. But how is the 'right reason' determined? What makes it 'the right reason'? What is it that 'the right reason' has in view in fixing on this point rather than on that as 'the mean'? The musician, for example, in tuning his instrument, must have some standard of tension before his mind. It is true that the strings must not be too tight or too loose, but just the right tightness. Again, it is true that the patient must get just what a skilful physician would prescribe—neither more nor less:—all this is true, but it is not definite enough. So in morals it is true that we must choose the mean as the right reason directs: but not definite enough. We must know definitely what the right reason is, that is, why, or in relation to what, it is 'right.'

We have distinguished the virtues of the soul as virtues of the moral character and virtues of the intellect. We have discussed the moral virtues: let us now discuss the intellectual—but first a few words about the soul generally. We have seen that there are two parts of the soul, the part which has reason, and the irrational part. Now let us divide the part which has reason into (1) that part by which we perceive necessary truth, and (2) that by which we perceive contingent truth: for, as the objects are generically distinct, there must be generically distinct faculties of the soul naturally corresponding to each class of objects, knowledge implying a certain similarity and kinship between faculty and object. Let us call (1) the Scientific Faculty, and (2) the Calculative Faculty, for to deliberate and to calculate is the same thing, and no one deliberates about necessary truths. The best state of each of these faculties will be the 'virtue' of each. We have to discover, then, what is the virtue of each, or the state which enables it to perform its proper function.

§§ 1–4.] Rasso (Forsch. pp. 19, 20) points out that this book has 1138 b. 18. two introductions, (1) ἐπει . . . ὁπος, §§ 1, 2, 3, and (2) τὰς δὲ . . . οὐτως, § 4. The motives of these two introductions seem, on first inspection at least, to differ. In §§ 1–3 we are told that the ideal or law of the perfect exercise of reason must now be examined,

1138 b. 18. because reason (as distinguished from feeling) is the faculty which perceives the exact point where, in a given case, the moral mean lies. The moral function of reason cannot, it would appear, be rightly understood apart from the ideal or law which regulates its speculative function. The completion of the doctrine of the moral mean thus seems to be presented by the writer of §§ 1-3 as the justification of a formal discussion of the *ἀρεταί* of the rational part of the soul, leading up to a definition of the ideal, or law, of the perfect exercise of reason. But in § 4 the discussion of the intellectual *ἀρεταί* is not introduced as for the sake of the right understanding of the moral *ἀρεταί*; the writer, having finished what he has to say about the moral *ἀρεταί*, simply passes on to the second coordinate part of his treatise—the discussion of the intellectual *ἀρεταί*. It is to be noted that the writer of the *M. M.* does not seem to have had § 4 before him. He follows the writer of §§ 1-3 in introducing the discussion of the intellectual *ἀρεταί* as necessary to complete the doctrine of moral virtue; see *M. M.* i. 34. 1196 b. 4 *ἐπειδὴ δ' ὑπὲρ τῶν ἀρετῶν εἴρηται, καὶ τινες εἰσὶν καὶ ἐν τίσιν καὶ περὶ ποῖα, καὶ περὶ ἐκάστης αὐτῶν, ὅτι εἰ πράττομεν κατὰ τὸν ὀρθὸν λόγον τὸ βέλτιστον, τὸ μὲν οὕτως εἰπεῖν, τὸ κατὰ τὸν ὀρθὸν λόγον πράττειν, ὁμοίον ἐστὶν ὥσπερ ἂν εἴ τις εἴποι ὅτι ὑγίεια ἄριστ' ἂν γένοιτο, εἴ τις τὰ ὑγιεινὰ προσφέροιτο. τὸ δὴ τοιοῦτον ἀσαφές· ἀλλ' ἐρεῖ μοι, τὰ ποῖα διασάφησόν ἐστιν ὑγιεινά. οὕτως καὶ ἐπὶ τοῦ λόγου, τί ἐστὶν ὁ λόγος καὶ τίς ὁ ὀρθὸς λόγος; ἀναγκαῖον ἴσως ἐστὶν πρῶτον μὲν, ἐν ᾧ ὁ λόγος ἐγγίνεται, ὑπὲρ τούτου διελέσθαι. διωρίσθη μὲν οὖν ὑπὲρ ψυχῆς ὡς τύψῃ καὶ πρότερον, ὅτι τὸ μὲν αὐτῆς ἐστὶ λόγον ἔχον, τὸ δὲ ἄλογον μῦθον τῆς ψυχῆς· ἐστὶν δ' εἰς δύο τὴν διαίρεσιν ἔχον τὸ λόγον ἔχον μῦθον τῆς ψυχῆς. ὧν ἐστὶ τὸ μὲν βουλευτικὸν τὸ δὲ ἐπιστημονικόν κ.τ.λ. Further on, (*M. M.* i. 34. 1197 b. 28-35), we find him stating distinctly that his treatise is *ὑπὲρ ἠθῶν*, and defending, though not without some confusion of thought, or perhaps of language, the discussion of *σοφία* in such a treatise—*ἀπορήσειε δ' ἂν τις καὶ θαυμάσειε, διὰ τί ὑπὲρ ἠθῶν λέγοντες καὶ πολιτικῆς τινὸς πραγματείας ὑπὲρ σοφίας λέγομεν. ὅτι ἴσως γε πρῶτον μὲν οὐδ' ἀλλοτρία δόξειεν ἂν εἶναι ἢ σκέψις ἢ ὑπὲρ αὐτῆς, εἴπερ ἐστὶν ἀρετὴ, ὡς φημέν. ἔτι δ' ἴσως ἐστὶν φιλοσόφου καὶ περὶ τούτων παρεπισκοπεῖν ὅσα ἐν τῷ αὐτῷ τυγχάνουσιν ὄντα. καὶ ἀναγκαῖον δέ, ἐπεὶ περὶ τῶν ἐν ψυχῇ λέγομεν, περὶ πάντων λέγειν· ἐστὶ δὲ καὶ ἡ σοφία ἐν ψυχῇ· ὥστε οὐκ ἀλλοτρίως ὑπὲρ . . . ψυχῆς ποιούμεθα τοὺς λόγους.**

It is not a profitable line of enquiry to ask which 'introduction' is 'Aristotelian,' and which 'Eudemian.' Thus much may be said, however, by way of bringing out the implication of each:—§ 4

seems to assume that the Statesman's Manual ought to cover the whole ground of human nature, the intellectual *ἀρεταί* being as indispensable as the moral *ἀρεταί* to the noble life. The unity of the *ἀρεταί* in the *σπουδαίος* having been assumed once for all, no explanation is offered of the special connexion of one *ἀρετή* with another, or of one set of *ἀρεταί* with another set: it is thought to be enough to arrange them according to the popularly received psychological divisions, and to describe them in order as they occur on the list: §§ 1-3, on the other hand, instead of passing, like § 4, without comment from the description of the moral *ἀρεταί* to that of the intellectual *ἀρεταί*, come forward with a reason why the intellectual *ἀρεταί* should be discussed at all:—they are to be discussed because the discussion of them is necessary to complete the doctrine of the moral mean. Whereas § 4 seems to present the moral and intellectual *ἀρεταί* as holding coordinate places in the treatise, §§ 1-3 give us a logical bridge by which we seem to pass from the main subject of the treatise—the moral *ἀρεταί*—to a subordinate part—the discussion of the intellectual *ἀρεταί*—appended as necessary to the comprehension of the main subject. But if the true position of the writer of §§ 1-3 is to be estimated from *E. E. Θ. 3. (H. 15) 1249 a. 21-b. 25* (and it is safe, I think, from the striking similarity of language, to suppose that it is), he misrepresents himself, when he thus—apparently from a desire for logical connexion between the parts of his treatise—*introduces reason as if it were merely ancillary to moral virtue*. It cannot be his real intention to put reason on any such footing. The *σκοπός* or *ἔπος* of the present passage, if identical with that of *E. E. Θ. 3. (H. 15)*, will, after all, be the law of the moral mean, only because it is the law or ideal of man's life, not as human and moral, but as godlike. Reason does not exist (as becomes afterwards clear) to accommodate itself to the exigencies of the moral life, and to perform the function of blind-man's leader to passion; rather the moral life is for the sake of the life of divine speculation, as matter is for the sake of form. Reason must regulate passion, that man's life may become *δεκτικὸν τοῦ εἶδους*—receptive of its true form, capable of the contemplation and service of God. I transcribe the whole passage *E. E. Θ. 3. (H. 15) 1249 a. 21-b. 25*, as being essential to the right understanding of *E. N. vi. 1. §§ 1-3*—*ἐπεὶ δ' ἐστὶ τις ὁρος καὶ τῷ ἰατρῷ, πρὸς ὃν ἀναφέρων κρίνει τὸ ὑγιεῶδες σῶματι καὶ μὴ, καὶ πρὸς ὃν μέχρι πουςοῦ ποιητίον ἕκαστον καὶ εὖ ὑγιαῖνον, εἰ δὲ ἔλαττον ἢ πλείον, οὐκέτι· οὕτω καὶ τῷ σπουδαίῳ περὶ*

1138 b. 18. τὰς πράξεις καὶ αἰρέσεις τῶν φύσει μὲν ἀγαθῶν οὐκ ἐπαινετῶν δὲ δεῖ τιμὰ εἶναι ὄρον καὶ τῆς ἔξεως καὶ τῆς αἰρέσεως καὶ [περὶ] φυγῆς (καὶ περὶ) χρημάτων πλήθους καὶ ὀλιγότητος καὶ τῶν εὐτυχημάτων. ἐν μὲν οὖν τούτοις πρότερον ἐλέχθη τὸ ὡς ὁ λόγος· τοῦτου δ' ἐστὶν ὡςπερ ἂν εἴ τις ἐν τοῖς περὶ τὴν τροφήν εἴπειεν ὡς ἡ ἰατρικὴ καὶ ὁ λόγος ταύτης. τοῦτο δ' ἀληθὲς μὲν, οὐ σαφὲς δέ. δεῖ δὴ ὡςπερ καὶ ἐν τοῖς ἄλλοις πρὸς τὸ ἄρχον ζῆν, καὶ πρὸς τὴν ἔξιν κατὰ τὴν ἐνέργειαν τὴν τοῦ ἀρχοντος, οἷον δοῦλον πρὸς δεσπύτου καὶ ἕκαστον πρὸς τὴν ἐκάστου καθήκουσαν ἀρχήν. ἐπεὶ δὲ καὶ ἄνθρωπος φύσει συνίστηται ἐξ ἀρχοντος καὶ ἀρχομένου, καὶ ἕκαστον ἂν δεῖ πρὸς τὴν ἐαυτῶν ἀρχήν ζῆν (αὕτη δὲ διττὴ· ἄλλως γὰρ ἡ ἰατρικὴ ἀρχὴ καὶ ἄλλως ἡ ὑγίεια· ταύτης δὲ ἕνεκα ἐκείνη)· οὕτω δ' ἔχει κατὰ τὸ θεωρητικόν. οὐ γὰρ ἐπιτακτικῶς ἀρχων ὁ θεός, ἀλλ' οὐ ἕνεκα ἡ φρόνησις ἐπιτάττει (διττὸν δὲ τὸ οὐ ἕνεκα· διώριστα δ' ἐν ἄλλοις), ἐπεὶ κεινός γε οὐθενὸς δεῖται. ἦτις οὖν αἰρέσεις καὶ κτήσεις τῶν φύσει ἀγαθῶν ποιήσει μάλιστα τὴν τοῦ θεοῦ θεωρίαν, ἢ σώματος ἢ χρημάτων ἢ φίλων ἢ τῶν ἄλλων ἀγαθῶν, αὕτη ἀρίστη, καὶ οὗτος ὁ ὄρος κάλλιστος· ἦτις δ' ἢ δι' ἔνδειαν ἢ δι' ὑπερβολὴν κωλύει τὸν θεὸν θεραπεύειν καὶ θεωρεῖν, αὕτη δὲ φαύλη. ἔχει δὲ τοῦτο τῆ ψυχῇ, καὶ οὗτος τῆς ψυχῆς ὄρος ἀριστος, τὸ ἥκιστα αἰσθάνεσθαι τοῦ ἀλόγου μέρους τῆς ψυχῆς, ἢ τοιούτον. τίς μὲν οὖν ὄρος τῆς κυλοκάγαθίας, καὶ τίς ὁ σκοπὸς τῶν ἀπλῶς ἀγαθῶν, ἔστω εἰρημένον· . . . If I may venture to say so, Zeller hardly does justice to the place of the Sixth Book in the *Ethics*, from failing to connect the ὄρος or σκοπός of chap. i with that of *E. E. Θ.* 3. (H. 15). He regards the Sixth Book as written merely to complete the doctrine of moral virtue by an account of φρόνησις—the other intellectual ἀρεταί being discussed only with the view of defining more accurately the sphere of φρόνησις. His words are (*Ph. der Gr.* ii. 2, p. 648 third Ed.) 'Alle ethische Massbestimmung, und mit ihr alle ethische Tugend, ist durch die Einsicht bedingt. Auch für das Verständniss der ethischen Tugend lässt sich daher die Frage nach dem Wesen der Einsicht nicht umgehen; und so beschäftigt sich denn Aristoteles im sechsten Buch seiner Ethik mit demselben, indem er es durch Vergleichung mit verwandten Eigenschaften erläutert und die praktische Bedeutung der Einsicht auseinandersetzt.'

§ 1. ἐπεὶ δὲ τυγχάνομεν πρότερον εἰρηκότες] *cf.* *E. E.* ii. 5. 1222 a. 6-10, *E. N.* ii. 2. 2. Grant translates ὁ ὀρθὸς λόγος by 'the right law.' It is important to remember that λόγος is at once the objective order, and the faculty in man which perceives it. When a man's passions are regulated, his nature is a λόγος, or organism, of the balance of

which in all its parts he is delicately perceptive by means of his *λόγος*, or reason. Such a man will know at once where the mean point lies in a given case, because his 'moral consciousness'—his consciousness of the 'right law,' or 'just proportion,' of his nature will tell him, as healthy feeling tells a man when he has eaten enough. But what makes the *λόγος*, or proportion, itself *ὀρθός*, or right? It is safe to answer—its end. What then is its end, or, as the writer here expresses it, its *σκοπός* or *ἔρος*? For the sake of what does human nature exist as an organism? Till we know this we cannot attach definite meaning to the phrase *ὁ ὀρθὸς λόγος*.

ἔστι τις σκοπός] Grant says—'Ἐπιτείνει καὶ ἀνίησιν is a metaphor b. 22. from tuning the strings of a lyre. Cf. Plato, *Lysis*, p. 209 B καὶ ἐπειδάν, ὡς ἐγῶμαι, τὴν λύραν λάβης, οὐ διακωλύουσί σε οὐθ' ὁ πατήρ οὐθ' ἡ μήτηρ ἐπιτείνειά τε καὶ ἀνεῖναι ἢν ἂν βούλη τῶν χορδῶν . . . This metaphor is not quite in accordance with the other metaphor of 'looking to the mark,' but in fact the term *σκοπός* seems to have become so regular a formula with Eudemus as to have lost its metaphorical association. By Aristotle, *σκοπός* was used as a pure metaphor . . . But in the writing of Eudemus it seems used as a scientific term equivalent to *τέλος*: cf. *Eth. Eud.* ii. 10. 20 [i.e. ii. 10. 1227 a. 6] ἐπεὶ δὲ βουλευέται αἰεὶ ὁ βουλευόμενος ἐνεκά τινος, καὶ ἔστι σκοπός τις αἰεὶ τῆ βουλευομένης πρὸς ἃν σκοπεῖ τὸ συμφέρον, περὶ μὲν τοῦ τέλους οὐθεὶς βουλευέται . . . The similar use of *ἔρος* by Eudemus is not found in *Eth. Nic.*, but appears borrowed from the mode of writing in the *Politics* of Aristotle.' Grant's remark that 'by Aristotle *σκοπός* was used as a pure metaphor' is true, I think, only of two passages in the so-called Aristotelian books of the *E. N.*—viz. ii. 6. 14 ῥάδιον μὲν τὸ ἀποτυχεῖν τοῦ σκοποῦ, and i. 2. 2 καθάπερ ταξόται σκοπὸν ἔχοντες. In the one other place in which the word *σκοπός* occurs in these books—iii. 12. 9 διὸ δεῖ τοῦ σώφρονος τὸ ἐπιθυμητικὸν συμφωνεῖν τῆ λόγῳ σκοπός γὰρ ἀμφοῖν τῆ καλόν, it seems to be used in much the same way as in *E. E.* ii. 10. 1227 a. 7 quoted by Grant. The same may be said of its use in *Rhet.* i. 6. 1362 a. 17 ἐπεὶ δὲ πρόκειται τῆ συμβουλευόντι σκοπός τὸ συμφέρον, βουλευόνται δὲ οὐ περὶ τοῦ τέλους ἀλλὰ περὶ τῶν πρὸς τὸ τέλος κ.τ.λ., and of its use in *Pol. Δ.* (H.) 13. 1331 b. 26 ἐπεὶ δὲ δύο ἐστὶν ἐν οἷς γίνεται τὸ εὖ πᾶσι, τούτοις δ' ἐστὶν ἐν μὲν ἐν τῆ τὸν σκοπὸν κείσθαι καὶ τὸ τέλος τῶν πράξεων ὀρθῶς, ἐν δὲ τὰς πρὸς τὸ τέλος φερούσας πράξεις εὐρίσκειν. Here surely we may borrow Grant's words about the Eudemian *σκοπός*, and say that by Aristotle '*σκοπός* is used as a scientific term equivalent to *τέλος*'—although, when two

1138 b. 22. lines below he uses it again, he seems to remember its metaphorical character—ἐνίοτε γὰρ ἡ μὲν σκοπὸς ἔκκειται καλῶς, ἐν δὲ τῷ πράττειν τοῦ τυχεῖν αὐτοῦ διαμαρτάνουσιν. But in *E. E.* i. 2. 1214 b. 7 is it not also used metaphorically?—ἅπαντα τὸν δυνάμενον ζῆν κατὰ τὴν αὐτοῦ προαίρεσιν θέσθαι τινὰ σκοπὸν τοῦ καλῶς ζῆν, ἥτοι τιμὴν ἢ δόξαν ἢ πλοῦτον ἢ παιδείαν πρὸς δὲ ἀποβλέπων ποιήσεται πύσας τὰς πράξεις. There seems therefore to be nothing in Grant's view that 'By Aristotle σκοπὸς was used as a pure metaphor . . . but in the writing of Eudemus it seems used as a scientific term equivalent to τέλος.' Both 'Aristotle' and 'Eudemus' use it as a metaphor, and both use it as a scientific term equivalent to τέλος. As for 'the similar use of ὄρος by Eudemus' it is true that it 'is not found in the *Eth. Nic.*' But Grant admits that it occurs in the *Politics*. The non-metaphorical use of σκοπὸς and ὄρος as 'scientific terms' in the Sixth Book of the *Ethics* seems to me to contribute nothing to the solution of the question of authorship.

b. 25. § 2. ἔστι δὲ τὸ μὲν εἰπεῖν οὕτως ἀληθὲς μὲν, οὐδὲν δὲ σαφές] Fritzsche finds in these words a strong confirmation of his view that Eudemus is the author of this Book. He says—'eadem sunt verba de re eadem Eud. p. 1249 b. 6: nusquam in *E. N.* est haec formula. An Aristotelem se ipsum tam graviter reprehendisse veri simile est? Contra eum, qui reprehendendi et conformandi emendandique locum sibi reperisse videretur, in repetenda hac formula sibi placuisse et credibile est et similibus recentiorum philosophorum, qui, scholae philosophi certi addicti, quum quaedam principe scholae melius sibi intelligere videntur, haec ut nauseam paene moveant identidem repetunt, exemplis possit illustrari, nisi odiosa sint exempla.' Grant also sees in the words the protest of the disciple against his master. He says—'This same expression, with the same illustration of the medical art, is repeated *Eth. Eud.* viii. 3. 13 [Θ. 3 (H. 15). 1249 b. 6] ἐν μὲν ταῖς πρότερον ἐλέχθη τὸ ὡς ὁ λόγος. τοῦτο δ' ἐστὶν ὡς περ ἂν εἴ τις ἐν τοῖς περὶ τὴν τροφήν εἴπειεν ὡς ἡ ἰατρικὴ καὶ ὁ λόγος ταύτης, τοῦτο δ' ἀληθὲς μὲν, οὐ σαφές δέ . . . In the present place there is an apparent protest against the indefiniteness and relativity of Aristotle's moral theory of "the mean" and "the law." Eudemus does not seem (according to the statement here) content to give greater explicitness to the idea of the 'law' by the development of the idea of the wise man who is its impersonation. But he asks (separating σκοπὸς and ὄρος from the λόγος), "What is the

mark to which one possessing the law must look?" "What is the standard of the law?" In reality these questions get no answer. They only cloud the subject by introducing a confusion of formulae.' But are the words *ἀληθῆς μὲν οὐθέν δὲ σαφές* too strong to be used by a writer speaking of himself? Surely not, if we may judge from *Ap. Post.* ii. 19. 100 a. 14 (quoted by Ramsauer) *ὁ δὲ ἐλίχθη μὲν πάλαι, οὐ σαφῶς δὲ ἐλίχθη, πάλιν εἶπωμεν*, or from *E. N.* i. 7. 9 *ἀλλ' ἴσως τὴν μὲν εὐδαιμονίαν τὸ ἄριστον λέγειν ὁμολογούμενον τι φαίνεται, παθεῖται δ' ἐναργέστερον τί ἐστίν ἔτι λεχθῆναι*. Indeed in *E. E. Θ.* 3 (H. 15) 1249 b. 3-6 (quoted by Fritzsche and Grant¹) we find Eudemus correcting himself¹ in words identical with those in which Fritzsche and Grant here see the protest of the disciple against his master.

Again, is Grant right when he says that the questions—'What is the mark to which one possessing the law must look?'—'What is the standard of the law?' get no answer? Surely they do at the end of the *E. E.*, where the *ὄρος τῆς καλοκάγαθίας* is determined, and in the Tenth Book of the *E. N.* where the *βίος θεωρητικός* is discussed. It is true however that in the Sixth Book itself we get no answer to them. The Sixth Book merely prepares us for the answer by completing the detailed account of the *ἀρεταί* of the *σπουδαῖος*. When the *σπουδαῖος* has been once placed concretely before us in the fulness of his attributes, we shall then be in a position to appreciate the definition of his *ὄρος* or *σκοπός*—of the ideal for which he lives. It may be that in the undisputed Nicomachean Books more value is attached to the living example of the *σπουδαῖος* than to a formal definition of his *σκοπός*—as we have it at the end of the *E. E.* (see note on *E. N.* ii. 6. 15), but so far as a formal account of the ideal is given in the undisputed Nicomachean Books, it does not seem to differ from that given at the end of the *E. E.* In *E. N.* x the ideal is *ἐφ' ὅσον ἐνδέχεται ἀθανατίζειν καὶ πάντα ποιεῖν πρὸς τὸ ζῆν κατὰ τὸ κράτιστον τῶν ἐν αὐτῷ* (*E. N.* x. 7. 8), and the man who acts up to it is *θεοφιλέστατος* (x. 8. 13); in *E. E. Θ.* (H.) the ideal is *τὸν θεὸν θεραπεύειν καὶ θεωρεῖν*. This latter formula is quite 'Aristotelian' in substance; and it matters little whether it owes its phraseology to the master himself or to a disciple of the school.

§ 3. *διὸ δεῖ . . . τίς ὄρος.*] A moral rule—e.g. 'Be moderate in your pleasures'—cannot be interpreted aright apart from a correct

¹ If he wrote *E. N.* vi, as Fritzsche and Grant hold.

1138 b. 32. view of the ideal or chief end of life. As interpreted by an Epicurean this rule would mean—‘Enjoy yourself as much as you can consistently with your own health and peace of mind.’ But this would be excess from the Aristotelian point of view; such enjoyment would hinder τὸ ζῆν κατὰ τὸ κράτιστον τῶν ἐν αὐτῷ. What the writer of *E. N.* vii. 13. 4 says of εὐτυχία is here virtually said of μεσότης, viz. πρὸς τὴν εὐδαιμονίαν ὁ ὄρος αὐτῆς—the mean point in every case is fixed, where it is fixed, because the Chief Good is what it is. What then is it? The answer finally given is—The exercise of the Speculative Reason. But before this answer can be given, the rational part of the soul, as a whole, must be examined, and especially the Practical Reason—φρόνησις—both because it is that manifestation of Reason which is γνωριμώτερον ἡμῖν, and because it must have performed its function of rationalising the feelings and desires, before the Speculative Reason can engage, without impediment, in that activity of θεωρία which is the highest expression of man’s nature—i.e. the final cause of his being. We have seen that the object of this speculative activity is ‘God,’ and that the man who engages in it is θεοφιλέστατος. It may be said then that, in their answer to the question τοῦτου τίς ὄρος, the Aristotelians maintain that the ultimate moral standard is given by the religious consciousness. The ὄρος τῶν μεσοτήτων given by φρόνησις, or the Practical Reason (*cf.* ᾧ ἐν ὃ φρόνιμος ὀρίσειεν *E. N.* ii. 6. 15, and εἷς ἢ κατὰ τὸν ὀρθὸν λόγον, ὀρθὸς δ’ ὁ κατὰ τὴν φρόνησιν vi. 13. 4) is not the *ultimate* standard, because the position of φρόνησις in the hierarchy of faculties is that described in *E. N.* vi. 13. 8—ἀλλὰ μὴν οὐδὲ κυρία γ’ ἐστὶν ἡ φρόνησις τῆς σοφίας οὐδὲ τοῦ βελτίονος μορίου, ὥσπερ οὐδὲ τῆς ὑγείας ἢ ἰατρικῆ· οὐ γὰρ χρῆται αὐτῇ, ἀλλ’ ὀρᾷ ὅπως γένηται· ἐκείνης οὖν ἔνεκα ἐπιτάττει, ἀλλ’ οὐκ ἐκείνη. ἔτι ὁμοιον κἀν εἴ τις τὴν πολιτικὴν φαίη ἄρχειν τῶν θεῶν, ὅτι ἐπιτάττει περὶ πάντα τὰ ἐν τῇ πόλει: *cf.* x. 8. 1 δευτέρως δ’ ὁ κατὰ τὴν ἄλλην ἀρετὴν κ.τ.λ.

This note may be brought to a close with a reference to a note of Fritzsche on *E. E.* ii. 5. 1222 b. 7–8, in which he maintains the view against which I have been arguing—that the ὡς ἂν ὁ φρόνιμος ὀρίσειε of the *E. N.* was put forward as an *ultimate* standard ‘by Aristotle,’ and that it was left to Eudemus ‘to correct Aristotle,’ by showing that it is not ultimate, but dependent on the ὄρος τῆς καλοκάγαθίας: my contention being that ‘Aristotle’ (as we must conclude from the subordinate place which he assigns to the ἠθικαὶ ἀρεταὶ αἱ κατὰ τὴν φρόνησιν in *E. N.* x. 8) does not regard the

ὡς εἰ δὲ φρόνιμος δρίσειεν as an ultimate standard, but as dependent 1188 b. 82. on a standard which is identical with the 'Eudemian' ὁρος τῆς καλοκάγαθίας—that, in short, there is no difference between the positions of 'Aristotle' and of 'Eudemus' with regard to the ultimate standard. Fritzsche's note, which thus raises a very important question respecting the difference between 'Aristotle' and 'Eudemus,' will be found on p. 40 of his edition of the *E. E.*

ἀληθῶς] K^b Γ Ald. B³.

b. 88.

§ 4. ἔφαμεν] *E. E.* ii. 1. 1220 a. 5. *E. N.* i. 13. 19.

1189 a. 1.

§ 5. πρότερον] *E. E.* ii. 4. 1221 b. 27, *E. N.* i. 13. 9.

a. 8.

ἄλογον] After this word Spengel (*Arist. Stud.* p. 211) supposes a. 4. that ἔν ἤδη διώρισται τὸ ἄλογον, or words to such effect have fallen out; but the supposition is unnecessary. Τὸν αὐτὸν τρόπον διαιρετίον relates to δὺ εἶναι μέρη τῆς ψυχῆς, and the writer means that, as the ψυχή has two parts—τὸ λόγον ἔχον and τὸ ἄλογον, so τὸ λόγον ἔχον has also two parts.

καὶ ὑποκείσθω δύο τὰ λόγον ἔχοντα] This division is not to be a. 6. confused with that indicated in *E. E.* ii. 1. 1219 b. 28 ὑποκείσθω δύο μέρη ψυχῆς τὰ λόγου μετέχοντα, οὐ τὸν αὐτὸν δὲ τρόπον μετέχειν ἀμφω, ἀλλὰ τὸ μὲν τῷ ἐπιτάττειν, τὸ δὲ τῷ πείθεσθαι καὶ ἀκούειν κεφυκέναι, and in *E. N.* i. 13. 19 διττὸν ἔσται καὶ τὸ λόγον ἔχον, τὸ μὲν κυρίως καὶ ἐν αὐτῷ, τὸ δ' ὡσπερ τοῦ πατρὸς ἀκουστικόν τι. In these passages we have really the main division of the ψυχή into ἄλογον and λόγον ἔχον, and only apparently a subdivision of τὸ λόγον ἔχον. But in the passage before us (vi. 1. 5) the λόγον ἔχον κυρίως καὶ ἐν αὐτῷ is itself subdivided into the faculty which apprehends things which are necessarily what they are—τὰ μὴ ἐνδεχόμενα ἄλλως ἔχειν, and that which apprehends things which are contingently what they are—τὰ ἐνδεχόμενα. For the distinction between τὰ μὴ ἐνδεχόμενα ἄλλως ἔχειν (= τὰ αἰδία, τὰ εἰς ἀνάγκης ἀπλῶς) and τὰ ἐνδεχόμενα ἄλλως ἔχειν (here = τὰ ὡς ἐπὶ τὸ πολὺ), see notes on iii. 3. §§ 3-5, and i. 3. 4. This distinction, regarded by Aristotle as in things, is really in our way of looking at things. There is no contingency in things, but there is often failure on the part of organic beings to cope with the complexity of the necessary laws which things obey. A 'necessary truth' so-called is one of which we become conscious by the way of intuition¹. Thus, the truth that the three angles of a triangle

¹ Cf. Spinoza's theory of *Scientia intuitiva*, *Eth.* ii. 40; Schol. 2.

1139 a. 6. are equal to two right angles is apprehended by us as 'necessary,' because we see that, in the diagram before us (which represents all that is essential to a triangle), they are plainly equal to two right angles: we assist at the operation of superposing them upon two adjacent angles, and see that they cover them. Again, the truth that a thing cannot be at once this and not this is apprehended by us as 'necessary' as soon as we look at an object and see plainly that it has a definite attribute—that a rose, *e.g.* is red, and not also not-red. When, however, we pass from this region of direct intuition to that of forces so complicated in their interaction that it is impossible to calculate more than roughly what events will result, we are in the region of the so-called 'contingent.' The events which *do* result are indeed necessarily what they are—there is no 'contingency' in them, as we should see if we could comprehend *all* their causes; but this we either cannot do, or cannot wait to do; for in most cases we are called upon for present *action* in relation to these imperfectly understood future events, and are compelled to forecast them as we best can. Our attitude towards them is thus not 'speculative,' but essentially 'practical.' The apprehension of 'contingent truth' is, in short, 'correspondence with environment.' In apprehending this kind of truth, we prepare, as we best can, for a future condition of the environment, which must always be more or less difficult to forecast; in apprehending 'necessary truth' we see plainly something which is immediately present. 'Contingent truth' may then be described as that body of beliefs and expectations upon which a being, whose life is 'a correspondence extending in time'¹ acts on the whole successfully. The Aristotelian God, whose life is a timeless intuitive function, perceives all things as 'necessary.' In so far as man perceives 'necessary truth,' he too is a 'spectator' of the universe, and lives a divine life; but, as concrete human being, he, is no longer a 'spectator,' but an 'actor' engaged in a struggle—ἀεὶ γὰρ ποιεῖ τὸ ζῆον—and in this struggle his human life is guided by his perception of 'contingent,' or, as it may be called, 'practical' truth.

In the foregoing remarks I have treated τὰ ἐνδεχόμενα ἄλλως ἔχειν as being here equivalent to τὰ ὡς ἐπὶ τὸ πολὺ. Technically τὰ ἀπὸ τύχης, as well as τὰ ὡς ἐπὶ τὸ πολὺ, fall under the head of τὰ ἐνδεχόμενα ἄλλως ἔχειν, but are obviously not to be thought of here in a passage

¹ See Spencer, *Psychol.*, vol. i. p. 320.

which distinguishes faculties of knowledge in relation to objects of 1199 a. 6. knowledge. Τὰ ἀπὸ τύχης are not objects of knowledge.

πρὸς γὰρ . . . ὑπάρχει αὐτοῖς] The doctrine that to generically a. 6. distinct objects of knowledge must correspond generically distinct faculties is here based by the writer on the hypothesis that knowledge implies a 'similarity,' or 'kinship' between object and faculty. This hypothesis meets us in various forms in the history of Psychology. Sometimes it is the analogy of the reflection in a mirror (perhaps suggested by the fact that we see by images reflected in the eye), which seems to determine the form which the hypothesis takes. Knowledge in the mind is something in having which the mind becomes like the object which it knows, just as the mirror, in reflecting, becomes like the object which it reflects. Under this head may be brought those ancient theories identified with the names of Empedocles, Democritus, and Epicurus, according to which certain εἰδῶλα, ἀπόρροιαί, ρεύματα, images of themselves are thrown off by objects, and passing into the soul, become its knowledge of the objects: and also the various modern theories of Representative Perception, which explain knowledge by means of 'ideas.' To a closely related class belong the theories, both ancient and modern, of 'impressions,' 'traces,' and the like, in which the mirror analogy has been replaced by the allied wax and seal analogy. Sometimes again the hypothesis γινώσκεισθαι τῷ ὁμοίῳ τὸ ὅμοιον appears in a form determined by a desire actually to *identify* the faculties of the knowing mind with the objects known. Under this head come those theories which assert that the mind is itself *made of* the elements (στοιχεῖα), material or formal, which it perceives in objects: see *de An.* i. 2. 404 b. 10 λέγουσι τὴν ψυχὴν τὰς ἀρχάς, οἱ μὲν πλείους ποιοῦντες ταύτας, οἱ δὲ μίαν ταύτην, ὡς περ Ἐμπεδοκλῆς μὲν ἐκ τῶν στοιχείων πάντων, εἶναι δὲ καὶ ἕκαστον ψυχὴν τοιούτων, λέγων οὕτως

γαῖῃ μὲν γὰρ γαῖαν ὀπώπαμεν, ὕδατι δ' ὕδωρ,
αἰθέρι δ' αἰθήρα διαν, ἀτὰρ πυρὶ πῦρ αἰδηλον,
στοργῇ δὲ στοργήν, νεῖκος δὲ τε νεῖκεῖ λυγρῷ.

τῶν αὐτῶν δὲ τρόπου καὶ ὁ Πλάτων ἐν τῷ Τιμαίῳ τὴν ψυχὴν ἐκ τῶν στοιχείων ποιεῖ γινώσκεισθαι γὰρ τῷ ὁμοίῳ τὸ ὅμοιον, τὰ δὲ πράγματα ἐκ τῶν ἀρχῶν εἶναι. ὁμοίως δὲ καὶ ἐν τοῖς περὶ φιλοσοφίας λεγομένοις διωρίσθη, αὐτὸ μὲν τὸ ζῶον ἐξ αὐτῆς τῆς τοῦ ἐνὸς ιδέας καὶ τοῦ πρώτου μήκου καὶ πλάτους καὶ βέβους, τὰ δ' ἄλλα ὁμοιοτρόπως. ἔτι δὲ καὶ ἄλλως, τοῦ

1139 a. 8. μὲν τὸ ἐν, ἐπιστήμην δὲ τὰ δύο· μοναχῶς γὰρ ἐφ' ἐν· τὸν δὲ τοῦ ἐπιπέδου ἀριθμὸν δόξαν, αἰσθησὺν δὲ τὸν τοῦ στερεοῦ. All such attempts to explain how mind and external objects can be brought into the contact of knowledge are idle. The gulf, which they would bridge by 'images' and the like does not exist. Knowing faculty and object known are not two separate entities. Each exists only as the correlate of the other in the organic whole of knowledge. We cannot go behind knowledge to find there something γνωριμώτερον by means of which to explain it. What seems to be an explanation is invariably a metaphor, fitted only to conceal from us our true problem—the faithful description of the organic whole as it is actually given.

The view καθ' ὁμοιότητά τινα καὶ οἰκειότητα ἢ γνώσις, adopted here without demur, is submitted to lengthy criticism in the *de An.*, and finally accepted only in a modified form. In *de An.* i. 5 the point first insisted upon is that it is not enough to make the ψυχή contain merely the four material στοιχεῖα which it perceives in external objects; it must also, if the view is to be consistently held, contain the manifold λόγοι, or συνθέσεις, in which these στοιχεῖα are combined in the objects: and this is regarded as a *reductio ad absurdum* of the view in the crude form in which it is held by Empedocles: see *de An.* i. 5. 410 a. 7 οὐδὲν οὖν ὄφελος ἐνεῖναι τὰ στοιχεῖα ἐν τῇ ψυχῇ, εἰ μὴ καὶ οἱ λόγοι ἐνέσονται καὶ ἡ σύνθεσις· γνωριεῖ γὰρ ἕκαστον τὸ ὅμοιον, τὸ δ' ὁστοῦν ἢ τὸν ἄνθρωπον οὐθέν, εἰ μὴ καὶ ταῦτ' ἐνέσται. τοῦτο δ' ὅτι ἀδύνατον, οὐθέν δεῖ λέγειν· τίς γὰρ ἂν ἀπορήσειεν εἰ ἐνεστιν ἐν τῇ ψυχῇ λίθος ἢ ἄνθρωπος; ὁμοίως δὲ καὶ τὸ ἀγαθὸν καὶ τὸ μὴ ἀγαθόν· τὸν αὐτὸν δὲ τρόπον καὶ περὶ τῶν ἄλλων. The more refined form of the view, according to which the mind contains not the material, but the formal στοιχεῖα—*i.e.* the categories which it perceives in things, is next examined, and dismissed—for the mind cannot perceive these στοιχεῖα in things either in virtue of containing that which is common to them all (the categories having nothing in common, being ultimate γένη); nor yet in virtue of containing οὐσία, ποιόν, ποσόν, and the rest, separately, inasmuch as it is itself οὐσία, and οὐσία cannot be built up out of elements which are not substantial. If, *e.g.* the mind 'contains' ποσόν, or is composed of ποσά, it must be ποσόν. Again the view is inconsistent with the fundamental truth that 'like cannot be affected by like'—a truth which is referred to in *de An.* ii. 4. 10. 416 a. 29 in connexion with nutrition (the parallel between nutrition and knowing is an interesting point in

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1139 a. 8. in *de An.* iii. 2. 425 b. 26 ἡ δὲ τοῦ αἰσθητοῦ ἐνέργεια καὶ τῆς νισθήσεως ἡ αὐτὴ μὲν ἐστὶ καὶ μία, τὸ δ' εἶναι οὐ ταῦτὸν αὐταῖς· κ.τ.λ. This is his *philosophical* position; but on the whole he is satisfied with his metaphor, which, it must be admitted, takes account of the duality in knowledge, which some of those who insist upon its unity, are inclined to make too little of.

Now to return to *E. N.* vi. 1. 5. In what sense is the faculty which apprehends 'ὄντα which are necessarily what they are' like these ὄντα, and the faculty which apprehends 'ὄντα which are contingently what they are' like these ὄντα? The answer is that, on Aristotelian principles, the faculties in exercise are not merely like, but identical with the objects as perceived. The ὄντα, their objects, are in both cases *relations*, i. e. εἶδη, whose 'entity consists in their intelligibility.' That θεωρία, or the scientific faculty in exercise, is identical with the θεωρημα is a doctrine of the widest reach in the Aristotelian philosophy, and is often insisted upon: e. g. *de An.* iii. 7. 431 a. 1 τὸ δ' αὐτό ἐστὶν ἢ κατ' ἐνέργειαν ἐπιστήμη τῷ πράγματι: cf. *de An.* iii. 4. 430 a. 4, iii. 7. 431 b. 16. But what is thus said of the scientific faculty is true of all faculties. In active exercise they are all identical with their objects—for their true objects are εἶδη, constructions of their own activity, 'relations which the mind sets up', whether it be in sensation, in practical deliberation, or in θεωρία: see *de An.* iii. 8. 431 b. 21 ἡ ψυχὴ τὰ ὄντα πῶς ἐστὶν· πάντα γὰρ ἢ αἰσθητὰ τὰ ὄντα ἢ νοητά, ἔστι δ' ἡ ἐπιστήμη μὲν τὰ ἐπιστητὰ πῶς, ἢ δ' αἰσθησις τὰ αἰσθητά· πῶς δὲ τοῦτο, δεῖ ζητεῖν. τίμνεται οὖν ἡ ἐπιστήμη καὶ ἡ αἰσθησις εἰς τὰ πράγματα, ἢ μὲν δυνάμει εἰς δυνάμεις, ἢ δ' ἐντελεχείᾳ εἰς ἐντελεχείας· τῆς δὲ ψυχῆς τὸ αἰσθητικὸν καὶ τὸ ἐπιστημονικὸν δυνάμει ταῦτά ἐστι, τὸ μὲν ἐπιστητὸν τὸ δὲ αἰσθητὸν. ἀνάγκη δ' ἢ αὐτὰ ἢ τὰ εἶδη εἶναι. αὐτὰ μὲν δὴ οὐ· οὐ γὰρ ὁ λίθος ἐν τῇ ψυχῇ, ἀλλὰ τὸ εἶδος· ὥστε ἡ ψυχὴ ὡσπερ ἡ χεὶρ ἐστὶν· καὶ γὰρ ἡ χεὶρ ὄργανόν ἐστὶν ὀργάνων, καὶ ὁ νοῦς εἶδος εἰδῶν καὶ ἡ αἰσθησις εἶδος αἰσθητῶν. With the οὐ γὰρ, ὁ λίθος ἐν τῇ ψυχῇ, ἀλλὰ τὸ εἶδος of this passage may be compared Green's remark (*Proleg.* pp. 36, 37) that 'as we pursue the analysis of the operations involved in the simplest perception of fact, we are unable to detect any residuary phenomenon amounting to a fact at all, that can be held to be given independently of a combining and relating activity, which if the antithesis between the work of the mind and the work of things be accepted must be ascribed to the former.' Cf. also Green's *Works*, vol. ii. p. 179, § 18.

¹ Green, *Prolegomena*, p. 36.

The forecasting or calculating faculty in exercise will then be 1139 a. 8. identical with its object—the probability of the occurrence of the event about which the forecast is made. The probability is not a quality belonging to the event; it is a quality attaching to the thought of a mind ready to venture upon a certain line of action¹. Just as the theorem is what the thinker plainly sees it to be, *i.e.* his thought, so the probability of the occurrence of a certain event is the readiness to act in view of it displayed by the man whose interest it is to make as correct a forecast as possible.

We thus have two distinct faculties of the 'rational part'—that of plainly seeing the truth of the theorems (τὸ εἶξ ἀνάγκης vi. 3. 2), and that of wisely forecasting future occurrences (τὸ ἐσόμενον καὶ ἐνδεχόμενον vi. 2. 6), each naturally related to its object in the way described.

The writer of the *M. M.* gives a good commentary on the distinction between the two rational faculties. It will be observed that he does not trouble himself with the καθ' ὁμοιότητα ἢ γνῶσις explanation of the distinction—*M. M.* i. 34, 1196 b. 15 ἔστιν δ' εἰς δύο τὴν διαίρεσιν ἔχον τὸ λόγον ἔχον μόριον τῆς ψυχῆς, ὧν ἔστι τὸ μὲν βουλευτικὸν τὸ δὲ ἐπιστημονικόν. ὅτι δὲ ἕτερα ἀλλήλων ἐστίν, ἐκ τῶν ὑποκειμένων ἂν γένοιτο φανερόν. ὥσπερ γὰρ δὴ ἕτερα ἐστίν ἀλλήλων χρώμα τε καὶ χυμὸς καὶ ψόφος καὶ ὄσμη, ὡσαύτως καὶ τὰς αἰσθήσεις ἕτερας αὐτῶν ἢ φύσις ἀπέδωκεν (ψόφον μὲν γὰρ ἀκοῆ, χυμὸν δὲ γεύσει γνωρίζομεν, χρώμα δὲ ὄψει), ὁμοίως δὲ καὶ τὰλλα τὸν αὐτὸν τρόπον δεῖ ὑπολαμβάνειν. ἐπεὶ δὴ ἕτερα τὰ ὑποκείμενα ἐστίν, ἕτερα καὶ τὰ τῆς ψυχῆς εἶναι μέρη οἷα ταῦτα γνωρίζομεν. ἕτερον δ' ἐστὶ τὸ νοητὸν καὶ τὸ αἰσθητὸν ταῦτα δὲ ψυχῇ γνωρίζομεν ἕτερον ἄρ' ἂν εἴη τὸ μόριον τὸ περὶ τὰ αἰσθητὰ καὶ τὰ νοητὰ. τὸ δὲ βουλευτικὸν καὶ προαιρετικὸν περὶ τὰ αἰσθητὰ καὶ ἐν κινήσει καὶ ἀπλῶς ὅσα ἐν γενέσει τε καὶ φθορᾷ ἐστίν. βουλευόμεθα γὰρ ὑπὲρ τούτων ἢ ἐφ' ἡμῖν ἐστίν καὶ πράξαι καὶ μὴ πράξαι προελομένοις, περὶ δ' ἐστὶν [καὶ] βουλή καὶ προαίρεσις τοῦ πράξαι ἢ μὴ πράξαι· ταῦτα δ' ἐστὶν αἰσθητὰ καὶ ἐν κινήσει τοῦ μεταβάλλειν· ὥστε τὸ προαιρετικὸν μόριον τῆς ψυχῆς κατὰ τὸν λόγον τῶν αἰσθητῶν ἐστίν.

§ 8. τὸ μὲν ἐπιστημονικὸν τὸ δὲ λογιστικόν] the 'scientific' faculty a. 12. and the 'calculative' faculty. I think that Grant is right when he says that the terms ἐπιστημονικόν and λογιστικόν as they occur in *de An.* iii. 11 are *not* opposed to each other, as they are here. In *de An.* iii. 11 Aristotle is discussing the psychology of animal motion, with

¹ Cf. Lotze, *Logic*, p. 367 (English translation).

perception of a fixed principle (described as ἀκίνητον 434 a. 16) perception of a particular fact as falling under the perception of the fixed principle, ἡ καθόλου ὑπόληψις (the socket), is due to an element in the calculative faculty which he calls τὸ ἐπιστημονικόν (434 a. 16)¹.
μονικόν of *E. N.* vi is not a principle of action.

οὐδεὶς δὲ βουλευέται περὶ τῶν μὴ ἐνδεχομένων εἰς
deliberate only where we have to do with things
modify by our action. Power of modifying the course
by action may indeed be accepted as a definition of
βουλευτική δρεξις. An irrational animal, being without
δρεξις—being dominated by the impulse or fancy of
and unable to weigh alternatives before acting, is the
cause of those modifications in the course of events which
to bring about by what it does. It is merely a link
of necessary consequence formed by act, impulse, and
of impulse. This is what the writer means by denoting
the lower animals, as he does below in ch. 2, § 2.
rational being that can *initiate* a modification in the course
of events. For the irrational animal there exist no ἐπι-
δρασεις, in the sense of τὰ ὡς ἐπὶ τὸ πολὺ, any more than
of τὰ ἀπὸ τύχης: see *Phys.* ii. 6. 197 b. 3 ἀνάγκη περὶ
τῆς τύχης . . . ὡς ὅσοις μὴ ἐνδέχεται πράξαι, οὐδὲ τι
ποιῆσαι. καὶ διὰ τοῦτο οὔτε ἀψυχον οὐδὲν οὔτε θηρίον οὐ
ποιεῖ ἀπὸ τύχης, ὅτι οὐκ ἔχει προαίρεσιν· οὐδ' εὐτυχία οὐδ'
αἰσχύνη· οὗτοι, εἰ μὴ καθ' ὁμοιότητα, ὡς περὶ ἔφη Πρωταρχος εὐτι-
μοίους ἐξ ἑνὸς βωμοῦ, ὅτι τιμῶνται, οἱ δὲ ὁμόζυγοι αὐτῶν
This, I think, is a fair statement of what the distin-

impelling force : 'man is not a necessary, because not a natural 1189 a. 18. agent'.¹ It is plain that we have here a germ capable of growing, in a suitable soil, into the 'Free Will Theory' as we find it in modern philosophy. It may therefore be worth while to call attention to the approach which later Aristotelianism made towards such a theory. In his treatise *περὶ ψυχῆς* B. 159 b. 160 a. we find Alexander Aphrod. denying that φύσις and διδασκαλία are in any real sense the causes of our προαιρέσεις. If they were, our actions would be *necessary*. Only *contingent actions* are in our power, and contingent actions imply προαιρέσεις ἀναίτιος. His words are (*περὶ ψυχῆς* B. p. 160, ed. Ald.) μόνον ψυχὴν λογικὴν ἔχει (ὁ ἄνθρωπος) καθ' ἣν βουλευέσθαι τε καὶ ζητεῖν δύναται περὶ τῶν πρακτέων αὐτῷ· καὶ οὐ παραπλήσιόν ἐστι τοῖς ἄλλοις ζῴοις, ἃ τῷ μὴ κοινωνεῖν τῆς τοιαύτης δυνάμεως ἄλογα καλοῦμεν, ταῖς προσπιπτούσαις φαντασίαις ἐπόμενά τε καὶ συγκατατιθέμενα, καὶ ἀνξετάστως ἕκαστον, ὧν πράττει, ποιῶντα. ὁ γὰρ ἄνθρωπος μόνον τῶν ἄλλων ζῴων μετὰ τὴν προσπεισοῦσαν αὐτῷ φαντασίαν περὶ τινος ὡς πρακτέου, οἷόν τε ζητεῖν περὶ αὐτοῦ καὶ βουλευέσθαι, εἴτε χρὴ συγκατατίθισθαι τῷ φανέντι, εἴτε καὶ μὴ. βουλευσάμενος δὲ καὶ κρίνας, οὕτως ὁρμᾶ καὶ ἐπὶ τὸ πράττειν ἢ μὴ πράττειν ὁπότερον· καὶ ὁπότερον προῖκρινεν ἐκ τῆς βουλῆς, ἄρχεται. διὰ τοῦτο καὶ μόνον τῶν ζῴων ἀπάντων ἐφ' αὐτῷ τὸ πράττειν ἔχει, ὅτι καὶ τοῦ μὴ πράττειν τὸ αὐτὸ τοῦτο τὴν ἐξουσίαν ἔχει ἃ οὖν ἀναίτιως καὶ μὴ προὔπαρχούσης αἰτίας προαιρούμεθα, ταῦτά ἐστι τὰ λεγόμενα ἐφ' ἡμῖν· ὧν καὶ τὰ ἀντικείμενά ἐστι δυνατὰ διὰ τὸ τὴν αἰτίαν μὴ προκαταβεβλήσθαι· ἥτις προὔπαρχουσα, πάντως ἂν τοῦ γενέσθαι τοῦτο τὴν ἀνάγκην παρείχε. διὰ ταῦτα πολλάκις τινὲς καὶ πιφυκότες ὁμοίως καὶ ἐν τοῖς αὐτοῖς ἔθεσιν ἡγμένοι, διαφέροντες ἀλλήλων γίνονται παρὰ τὰς ἀναίτιους προαιρέσεις².

In this theory of προαιρέσεις ἀναίτιος we have perhaps the nearest approach in ancient philosophy to the modern doctrine of 'Free Will.' I will only add here that the germ of the opposite theory of 'Necessitarianism' is also contained in the Aristotelian view. The Aristotelian view, as presented in the *Ethics*, however, seems to combine the truth of the 'Free Will Theory,' with that of 'Necessitarianism,' without abstracting or exaggerating either. Man is 'a creature, yet a cause.' Ἄνθρωπος ἀρχὴ πράξεων, and ἄνθρωπος ἄνθρωπον γεννᾷ καὶ ἥλιος are both true.

§ 7.] Cf. *E. N.* ii. 6. 3 ἢ τοῦ ἀνθρώπου ὁρετὴ εἶη ἂν ἢ εἶς ἀφ' ἧς a. 15.

¹ See Green's *Proleg.*, pp. 112, 113.

² I have transposed these two passages to bring out the argument more clearly.

- 1199 a. 15. ἀγαθὸς ἄνθρωπος γίνεται καὶ ἀφ' ἧς εὖ τὸ ἑαυτοῦ ἔργον ἀποδώσει, and *E. E.*
 ii. 1. 1218 b. 37 ταῦτα δὴ ὑποκείσθω καὶ περὶ ἀρετῆς, ὅτι ἐστὶν ἡ βελτίστη
 διάθεσις ἡ εἷσις ἡ δύναμις ἐκάστων, ὧσων ἐστὶ τις χρῆσις ἡ ἔργον.

CHAPTER II.

ARGUMENT.

There are three principles in the soul which go to determine moral action and truth—sense, reason, appetite.

Now sense, as such, cannot originate moral action: thus the brutes are incapable of moral action.

As for reason or understanding, and appetite—it is to be noted that pursuit and avoidance in the sphere of appetite answer to affirmation and negation in the sphere of the understanding. Accordingly, since moral virtue is a habit which involves choice, and since choice is deliberate appetite, the process of deliberation must be true, and the appetite must be right, if the choice is to be good, i. e. the understanding must affirm, and the appetite must pursue the same things. Here we have the practical understanding and practical truth. The function of the understanding in science (as distinguished from its function in conduct and its function in art) is well performed when truth is obtained, badly performed when falsity results. To attain truth is indeed the function of the understanding generally, but the special function of the understanding in relation to conduct—i. e. of the practical understanding, is to attain truth which is in harmony with appetite rightly directed.

Choice is the efficient, but not the final cause, of moral action; while the efficient cause of choice itself is appetite and reasoning directed to a certain end; thus choice involves reason and understanding, and a definite condition of the moral nature. Understanding by itself supplies no motive; it is only when understanding has a practical end before it that it moves to action, the end of the understanding as employed in art being included under the practical end. For when we produce or make, anything, we do so, not for the mere sake of making the thing, but with a practical end in view. Wherefore choice is reason moved by appetite, or appetite directed by understanding, and such a principle is man.

The past is not an object of choice; no man 'chooses' to have sacked Troy, for no man deliberates about the past, but only about the future and contingent.

Truth then is the object of both the intellectual parts. That condition which makes each best able to attain truth will be the virtue, or excellence, of each.

- a. 17. § 1. τρία δὴ ἐστὶν . . . ὁρεξίς] These words introduce a singularly confused passage, in which the Aristotelian doctrine of animal motion, as we find it in *de An.* iii. chapters 9, 10, 11, and *de Motu Anim.*, is applied to the explanation of πρῆξις in particular. It will be well then to begin with a sketch of that doctrine.

The question asked in *de An.* iii. 9. 432 b. 13 is—What makes 1139 a. 17. an animal move its limbs?—τί τὸ κινεῖν τὸ ζῷον τὴν κατὰ τόπον κίνησιν; Ἡ κατὰ τόπον κίνησις is always accompanied by the idea of an object (φαντασία), or by an appetite (ὄρεξις) urging the animal to seek or shun an object. Hence ἡ θρεπτικὴ δύναμις cannot be the cause of this κίνησις, for plants have ἡ θρεπτ. δύν. but not φαντασία or ὄρεξις. Nor can τὸ αἰσθητικόν be the cause of it; for many sentient animals do not move κατὰ τόπον. As for νοῦς being the cause of it—the θεωρητικὸς νοῦς cannot be the cause of it, for this does not contemplate ‘conduct’; it has nothing to say about ‘things that are sought or things that are shunned—the objects which the man who moves κατὰ τόπον has before his mind: while the other kind of νοῦς, which does contemplate ‘conduct,’ and issues commands about shunning this or seeking that—the πρακτικὸς νοῦς cannot insure κινήσεις in accordance with its commands; ἐπιθυμία steps in, as in the case of the ἀκρατής, and produces a κίνησις contrary to that commanded by νοῦς. And yet, on the other hand, we cannot say that ὄρεξις or ἐπιθυμία is the sole determining cause (κυρία) of ἡ κατὰ τόπον κίνησις, for the ἐγκρατής, although his ὄρεξις is strong, follows the dictates of his νοῦς. Thus it would appear that *both* νοῦς (including φαντασία) and ὄρεξις are causes of ἡ κατὰ τόπον κίνησις. But as νοῦς, in this connexion, is ὁ ἕνεκά τινος λογιζόμενος καὶ ὁ πρακτικὸς, and as the ἀρχή of the πρακτικὸς νοῦς, i. e. that which starts its deliberation, is τὸ ὀρεκτόν, we get ultimately one cause of ἡ κατὰ τόπον κίνησις, viz. τὸ ὀρεκτόν, which is τὸ κινεῖν πρῶτως, and uses νοῦς (i. e. προαίρεσις, or βουλευτικὴ ὄρεξις) and ὄρεξις (i. e. ἐπιθυμία roused by αἰσθησις or φαντασία) as its instruments. That τὸ ὀρεκτόν is the prime movent is seen from the fact that νόησις (the mere contemplation of truth) without ὄρεξις does not produce κίνησις, whereas ὄρεξις (appetite) often produces κίνησις in spite of λογισμός. The ὀρεκτόν, as prime movent of ἡ κατὰ τόπον κίν. is ‘the good’—either that which is really good, or that which a man thinks good—the good, however, in the sphere of conduct (τὸ πρακτικὸν ἀγαθόν), not the good in the sphere of speculation¹—the good which is realised in the contingent sphere, not that which is realised in the necessary sphere: see *de An.* iii. 10. 433 a. 27 αἰεὶ κινεῖ μὲν τὸ ὀρεκτόν, ἀλλὰ τοῦτ’ ἐστὶν ἢ τὸ ἀγαθόν ἢ τὸ φαινόμενον ἀγαθόν οὐ πᾶν δέ,

¹ It must not be forgotten, however, that it is as ὀρεκτόν that God, the object of man’s speculative faculty, moves the universe (and with it man’s speculative faculty): see *Met.* Λ. 7.

1189 a. 17. ἀλλὰ τὸ πρακτὸν ἀγαθόν. πρακτὸν δ' ἐστὶ τὸ ἐνδεχόμενον καὶ ἄλλως ἔχειν: and *de Motu Anim.* 6. 700 b. 15 πάντα τὰ ζῷα καὶ κινεῖ καὶ κινεῖται ἕνεκά τινος, ὥστε τοῦτ' ἐστὶν αὐτοῖς πάσης τῆς κινήσεως πέρας, τὸ οὐ ἕνεκα. ὁρῶμεν δὲ τὰ κινούμενα τὸ ζῷον διάνοιαν καὶ φαντασίαν καὶ προαίρεσιν καὶ βούλησιν καὶ ἐπιθυμίαν. ταῦτα δὲ πάντα ἀνάγεται εἰς νοῦν καὶ ὄρεξιν. καὶ γὰρ ἡ φαντασία καὶ ἡ αἴσθησις τὴν αὐτὴν τῷ νῷ χώραν ἔχουσιν· κριτικὰ γὰρ πάντα . . . βούλησις δὲ καὶ θυμὸς καὶ ἐπιθυμία πάντα ὄρεξις, ἡ δὲ προαίρεσις κοινὸν διανοίας καὶ ὄρεξεως· ὥστε κινεῖ πρῶτον τὸ ὄρεκτὸν καὶ τὸ διανοητὸν· οὐ πᾶν δὲ τὸ διανοητὸν, ἀλλὰ τὸ τῶν πρακτῶν τέλος . . . τὸ μὲν οὖν πρῶτον οὐ κινούμενον κινεῖ, ἡ δ' ὄρεξις καὶ τὸ ὄρεκτικὸν κινούμενον κινεῖ. The ὄρεκτὸν, as κινεῖ πρῶτως moves, but is not moved (κινεῖ οὐ κινούμενον): the ὄρεκτικόν, or appetitive faculty, is moved, and moves (κινούμενον κινεῖ): the animal is moved (κινεῖται): or, to put it otherwise, the animal is moved by a movent which has two parts or elements—an unmoved part (ἀκίνητον *de An.* iii. 10. 433 b. 15) *viz.* τὸ πρακτὸν ἀγαθόν, and a part which is moved, and moves (τὸ κινεῖ καὶ κινούμενον), *viz.* τὸ ὄρεκτικόν or appetitive faculty. Thus ἡ κίνησις ἡ κατὰ τόπον depends on a mechanism which may be compared to a ball and socket joint (*de An.* iii. 10. 433 b. 21, *cf.* *de Motu Anim.* 1. 698 a. 14). Like the ball, ὄρεξις moves in the fixed socket of τὸ πρακτὸν ἀγαθόν, as νοῦς (which is always ὀρθός, see *de An.* iii. 10. 433 a. 26) presents the ἀγαθόν truly, or as φαντασία (which is καὶ ὀρθὴ καὶ οὐκ ὀρθή, see *de An.* *l. c.*) presents it truly or falsely. Or, we may compare the Practical Syllogism (see note on vii. 3. 9, a. 28) to the ball and socket joint: ἡ καθόλου ὑπόληψις καὶ λόγος is a fixed centre of control determining the sweep of the μερικὴ δόξα: the μερικὴ δόξα is the efficient, but not the final, cause of the πράξις—the occasion, but not the principle, of the act: ἤδη αὕτη κινεῖ ἡ δόξα, οὐχ ἡ καθόλου, ἡ ἀμφω, ἀλλ' ἡ μὲν ἡρεμοῦσα μᾶλλον, ἡ δ' οὐ *de An.* iii. 11. 434 a. 19. There can be no κίνησις without a fixed point *d' appui*—πρὸς τὸ ἡρεμῶν δεῖ ἀπερείδεσθαι τὸ κινεῖν (*de Motu Anim.* 8. 702 a. 26); no πράξις (ἡ γὰρ πράξις κίνησις) without a fixed principle of conduct—ἡ καθόλου δόξα ἡ ἡρεμοῦσα. In other words, animal motion (including moral action) implies a definitely constituted organism (or character) and a stimulus received by that organism (or character) from its environment.

To return now to *E. N.* vi. 2. 1.—The difficulty is in τρία. In the *de An.* and *de Motu Anim.* τὰ κινούμενα are two—νοῦς or διάνοια (including αἴσθησις and φαντασία) and ὄρεξις. But even these two are κινούμενα only in the sense of being *instruments* of motion. The

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1189 a. 17. to αἰσθησις, as one of *three* elements jointly κύρια πράξεως καὶ ἀληθείας. The position here assigned to αἰσθησις is certainly not that assigned to it in the *de An.* and *de Mol. An.*, where only two κινούντα are recognised—νοῦς and ὄρεξις—αἰσθησις being included in νοῦς; but it is not necessarily inconsistent with the doctrine of these treatises. It ought, I think, to be explained in connexion with the theory of the Practical Syllogism, the minor premiss of which is described in *E. N.* vii. 3 as δόξα αἰσθητοῦ, and as αἰσθητικὴ ἐπιστήμη. A right action is the conclusion of a syllogism in which the minor premiss—a stimulus of sense—is followed by that action which the moral rule, defined by the major premiss, requires in the circumstances. Indeed all πράξις, wrong as well as right, involves such a ‘syllogism’ with major and minor premisses. Αἰσθησις or αἰσθητικὴ φαντασία (for the latter see *de An.* iii. 11. 434 a. 5) alone, as the lower animals have it, cannot initiate πράξις, right or wrong:—*E. N.* vi. 2. 2 τοῦτων δ’ ἡ αἰσθησις οὐδεμιᾶς ἀρχὴ πράξεως· δῆλον δὲ τῷ τὰ θηρία αἰσθησιν μὲν ἔχειν, πράξεως δὲ μὴ κοινωνεῖν: *E. N.* vii. 3. 11 τὰ θηρία οὐκ ἀκρατῆ, ὅτι οὐκ ἔχει καθόλου ὑπόληψιν ἀλλὰ τῶν καθ’ ἕκαστα φαντασίαν καὶ μνήμην: *cf. M. M.* i. 11. 1187 b. 7, and *E. E.* ii. 6. 1222 b. 15. The lower animals, in Aristotle’s view, act on no definite plan, of which they are themselves conscious, but as αἰσθησις, αἰσθητικὴ φαντασία, and ὄρεξις momentarily determine; whereas man’s οἰσθησις, with the ἐπιθυμία attending it (see *de An.* ii. 2. 413 b. 23 ὅπου μὲν αἰσθησις, καὶ λύπη τε καὶ ἡδονή, ὅπου δὲ ταῦτα, ἐξ ἀνάγκης καὶ ἐπιθυμία), moves, or ought to move, in a definite manner within the ‘fixed socket’ of rational principle.

I would therefore explain the words πράξεως καὶ ἀληθείας, αἰσθησις νοῦς ὄρεξις in the present passage as the formula of the Practical Syllogism read upwards thus—πράξις (conclusion), δόξα αἰσθητοῦ (minor premiss), ὑπόληψις τοῦ νοητοῦ ὀρεκτοῦ ὄντος (major premiss). Jointly the premisses determine the conclusion. The minor alone could not determine it, for the minor alone would have no *ροῖσι δ’ ἀρρημι*, nor could the major alone, ἡριμεῖ γάρ.

a. 21. § 2. ἔστι δ’ ὅπερ . . . φυγή] τὸ δὲ τὸ ὡς ἀληθές (and it is with ἀλήθεια the ἔργον διανοίας that we are here concerned), *i.e.* ‘is = is true’ (for the various senses of τὸ δὲ, see *Met.* Δ. 7, and Θ. 10) consists in affirmation (κατάφασις) and negation (ἀπόφασις) in correspondence with fact:—*Met.* Δ. 1017 a. 31 ἔτι τὸ εἶναι σημαίνει καὶ τὸ ἔστιν ὅτι ἀληθές, τὸ δὲ μὴ εἶναι ὅτι οὐκ ἀληθές ἀλλὰ ψεῦδος, ὁμοίως ἐπὶ

καταφάσεως καὶ ἀποφάσεως, ὡς ὅτι ἔστι Σωκράτης μουσικός, ὅτι ἀληθὲς 1130 a. 21. τοῦτο, ἢ ὅτι ἔστι Σωκράτης οὐ λευκός, ὅτι ἀληθὲς· τὸ δ' οὐκ ἔστι ἡ διάμετρος σύμμετρος, ὅτι ψεῦδος: *Θ.* 10. 1051 b. 1 ἐπεὶ . . . τὸ κυριώτατα ἐν ἀληθείᾳ ἢ ψεῦδος, τοῦτο δ' ἐπὶ τῶν πραγμάτων ἐστὶ τῷ συγκεῖσθαι ἢ διηρηθῆναι, ὥστ' ἀληθεύει μὲν ὁ τὸ διηρημένον οἰόμενος διηρηθῆναι καὶ τὸ συγκείμενον συγκεῖσθαι, ἔψευσται δὲ ὁ ἐναντίως ἔχων ἢ τὰ πράγματα, πότε ἔστιν ἡ οὐκ ἔστι τὸ ἀληθὲς λεγόμενον ἢ ψεῦδος; τοῦτο γὰρ σκεπτίον τί λέγομεν. οὐ γὰρ διὰ τὸ ἡμᾶς οἰεσθαι ἀληθῶς σε λευκὸν εἶναι εἰ σὺ λευκός, ἀλλὰ διὰ τὸ σε εἶναι λευκὸν ἡμεῖς οἱ φάντες τοῦτο ἀληθεύομεν: *De Interpret.* 1. 16 a. 12 περὶ γὰρ σύνθεσιν καὶ διαίρεσιν ἐστὶ τὸ ψεῦδος τε καὶ τὸ ἀληθὲς: *Mel.* Γ. 7. 1012 a. 2 πᾶν τὸ διασητὸν καὶ νοητὸν ἢ διάνοια ἢ κατάφησιν ἢ ἀπόφησιν τοῦτο δ' ἐξ ὀρισμοῦ δῆλον ὅταν ἀληθεύῃ ἢ ψεύδῃται. ὅταν μὲν ὠδὶ συνθῆ φᾶσα ἢ ἀποφᾶσα, ἀληθεύει, ὅταν δὲ ὠδὶ, ψεύδεται: *De An.* iii. 6. 430 a. 26 ἢ μὲν οὖν τῶν ἀδιαιρέτων κήσεις ἐν τοῦτοις, περὶ δ' οὐκ ἔστι τὸ ψεῦδος· ἐν οἷς δὲ καὶ τὸ ψεῦδος καὶ τὸ ἀληθὲς, σύνθεσις τις ἤδη νοημάτων ὥσπερ ἐν ὄντων—*i.e.* united not as the successive ideas in a reverie, but because certain attributes really belong to certain things. Now, the faculty which thinks together those things which exist or occur together in the external world, and thinks apart those things which exist or occur apart—which, in other words, affirms and denies in accordance with objective conditions, and realises *truth* where it is possible to fall into *falsity* (*sc.* 'truth' as that is given in *propositions*) is διάνοια: see *Mel.* E. 4. 1027 b. 25 οὐ γὰρ ἐστὶ τὸ ψεῦδος καὶ τὸ ἀληθὲς ἐν τοῖς πράγμασιν, ὡς τὸ μὲν ἀγαθὸν ἀληθὲς, τὸ δὲ κακὸν εὐθὺς ψεῦδος, ἀλλ' ἐν διανοίᾳ· περὶ δὲ τὰ ἀπλά καὶ τὰ τί ἐστὶν οὐδ' ἐν τῇ διανοίᾳ. Διάνοια is the Understanding, or discursive intellect, as distinguished from νοῦς—Reason, or the intuitive intellect. The latter is concerned with εἶδη or notions *per se*, which are indivisible in the unity of their οὐσία—περὶ δὲ τὰ ἀπλά καὶ τὰ τί ἐστὶν οὐδ' ἐν τῇ διανοίᾳ *sc.* ἐστὶ τὸ ἀληθὲς καὶ τὸ ψεῦδος (see *Alex.* quoted at end of this note)—their ἀληθὲς consists simply in their 'clear intelligibility' (τὸ δὲ ἀληθὲς τὸ νοεῖν αὐτά *Mel.* Θ. 10. 1052 a. 1), and has no ψεῦδος opposed to it: see *Mel.* Θ. 10. 1051 b. 24 τὸ μὲν θιγγεῖν καὶ φάναι ἀληθὲς (οὐ γὰρ ταῦτο κατάφασις καὶ φάσις), τὸ δ' ἀγνοεῖν μὴ θιγγάνειν· ἀπαταθῆναι γὰρ περὶ τὸ τί ἐστὶν οὐκ ἔστι . . . τὸ δὲ ψεῦδος οὐκ ἔστιν, οὐδ' ἀπάτη, ἀλλ' ἄγνοια (on which see *Alexander*, p. 571, ed. Bonitz—ἐπὶ μὲν οὖν τῶν ἀπλῶν ἢ θιγγάνει ὁ νοῦς αὐτῶν καὶ καθάπερ εἰσὶν ἀπτεται τῆς φύσεως αὐτῶν καὶ ἀπλῆ ἐπιβολῇ ὥσπερ καὶ ἡ ὄψις τῶν χρωμάτων . . . ἢ οὐ θιγγάνει, οὐδ' ὡς ὄρα αὐτά): *cf.* also *Themistius*, περὶ ψυχῆς A. fol. 71 b τὸ νοεῖν μὲν ὅταν τοὺς ἀπλοῦς ὄρους καταλαμβάνῃ, τὸ διανοεῖσθαι δὲ ἐν τῷ συντιθέσθαι τούτους καὶ διαιρεῖν . . . τὸ ψεῦδος ἐν τῷ

1199 a. 21. συντιθέναι τούτους καὶ διαιρεῖν καὶ τὸ ἀληθές· καὶ νοεῖν μὲν οὐχ οἶόν τε ψευδῶς, διανοεῖσθαι δὲ οἶόν τε: see also Alex. on *Met.* Γ. 7. 1012 a. 1 (Alex. ed. Bonitz, p. 289, line 15).¹ This is undoubtedly the distinction (recognised by Schwegler, *Met.* vol. iii. p. 183, Trendelenburg, *de An.* p. 272, Bonitz, *Met.* p. 214, Waitz, *Organon*, vol. ii. p. 298), which the Aristotelians make between νοῦς and διάνοια, when they do make any distinction; but they often use the terms interchangeably. Thus in the chapter before us (*E. N.* vi. 2), διάνοια in § 2 is obviously equivalent to νοῦς in § 1; and in § 5 προαίρεσις is defined as ἡ ὀρεκτικὸς νοῦς ἢ ὄρεξις διανοητική. Again, in *de An.* iii. 4. 429 a. 23, we find νοῦς given as the faculty of διανοεῖσθαι, and in *An. Post.* ii. 19. 100 b. 5 διάνοια given as the genus under which νοῦς falls as a species. Again, in *de An.* ii. 2. 413 b. 12, the parts of the ψυχή are distinguished as θρεπτικόν, αἰσθητικόν and διανοητικόν; in iii. 4. 429 a. 30 as νοητικόν, αἰσθητικόν and θρεπτικόν: in *de An.* iii. 10. 433 a. 9 we read φαίνεται δὲ γε δύο ταῦτα κινῶντα ἢ ὄρεξις ἢ νοῦς, and a few lines below 433 a. 17 δύο ταῦτα φαίνεται τὰ κινῶντα ὄρεξις καὶ διάνοια πρακτική. Lastly, Alexander in his commentary on *Met.* E. 4, where the technical meaning of διάνοια as *discursus* seems clear, writes as if intellect in the general sense were intended (Alex. ed. Bonitz, p. 424. 4)—οὐ μόνον ὃ ἐν τοῖς πράγμασι οὐκ ἔστι τὸ ἀληθές καὶ τὸ ψεῦδος ἀλλ' οὐδ' ἐν τοῖς ἀπλοῖς τοῖς ἐν τῇ διανοίᾳ.

For φυγή and δίωξις as elements of ἡ κατὰ τόπον κίνησις ἢ τῶν ζῴων, see *de An.* iii. 9. 432 b. 28 ἡ δὲ κίνησις ἢ φεύγοντός τι ἢ διώκοντός τί ἐστι.

a. 22. ἕξις προαιρετική] *E. E.* ii. 10. 1227 b. 8, *E. N.* ii. 6. 15.

a. 23. ὄρεξις βουλευτική] *E. E.* ii. 10. 1226 b. 17, *E. N.* iii. 3. 19.

a. 24. τὸν τε λόγον ἀληθῆ εἶναι καὶ τὴν ὄρεξιν ὀρθήν] ὄρεξις is ὀρθή when it seeks (δίωξις) what λόγος or διάνοια affirms (κατάφασις) to be good, and shuns (φυγή) what it denies (ἀπόφασις) to be good:—when, to use the expression of *E. N.* i. 13. 17, it ὁμοφρονεῖ τῷ λόγῳ: cf. *E. N.* i. 13. 18 τὸ δ' ἐπιθυμητικὸν καὶ ὅλως ὀρεκτικὸν μετέχει πως [λόγου] ἢ κατή-

¹ Cook Wilson (*Trans. Oxf. Philol. Soc.* 1887-88, p. 6) remarks that 'the doctrine that single or simple notions are neither true nor false is clearly stated in treatises whose genuineness is doubted, viz. *De Int.* c. 1, *Cal.* 4, and *Met.* E. 1027 b. 18.' I understand *Cal.* 4. 2 a. 8 to state that τὰ κατὰ μηδεμίαν συμπλοκὴν λεγόμενα are 'neither true nor false' in the sense in which 'true' and 'false' are applied to *propositions*; but I do not think that this statement is inconsistent with the doctrine that there is an ἀληθές = τὸ νοεῖν.

κοόν ἐστὶν αὐτοῦ καὶ πειθαρχικόν. The motive power in man, τὸ ὀρεκ- 1139 a. 24.
 τικόν, left to itself, simply seeks present pleasure, and shuns present
 pain: but this is *wrong*. The motive power is used *rightly*, only
 when it is used to further that welfare of the whole life which reason
 comprehends: see *de An.* iii. 10. 433 b. 5 ἐπεὶ δ' ὀρέξεις γίνονται
 ἐναντίαι ἀλλήλαις, τοῦτο δὲ συμβαίνει ὅταν ὁ λόγος καὶ ἡ ἐπιθυμία ἐναντίαι
 ᾖσι, γίνεται δ' ἐν τοῖς χρόνου αἰσθησιν ἔχουσιν (ὁ μὲν γὰρ νοῦς διὰ τὸ
 μέλλον ἀνθέλκειν κελεύει, ἡ δ' ἐπιθυμία διὰ τὸ ἤδη φαίνεται γὰρ τὸ ἤδη
 ἡδὺ καὶ ἀπλῶς ἡδὺ καὶ ἀγαθὸν ἀπλῶς, διὰ τὸ μὴ ὄραν τὸ μέλλον), εἶδει μὲν
 ἐν ἡμῶν εἶη τὸ κινεῖν τὸ ὀρεκτικόν, ἢ ὀρεκτικόν, πρῶτον δὲ πάντων τὸ ὀρεκτόν
 (τοῦτο γὰρ κινεῖ οὐ κινούμενον τῷ νοηθῆναι ἢ φαντασθῆναι), ἀριθμῶ δὲ πλείω
 τὰ κινεῖντα. By λόγος in *E. N.* vi. 2. 2 we are to understand the
 συλλογισμός or chain of deliberative reasoning leading up to the
 act of προαίρεσις. This λόγος is ἀληθής when the thoughts of
 which it consists are connected as facts require—when the means
 which will actually ensure the end are duly thought of in the
 proper order.

§ 3. θεωρητικῆς . . . πρακτικῆς . . . ποιητικῆς] See *Mel. E.* i. 1025 b. a. 27.
 25 πᾶσα δianoia ἢ πρακτικὴ ἢ ποιητικὴ ἢ θεωρητικὴ.

Δianoia in the technical sense—the understanding, or faculty by
 which the steps to an end are reviewed in their *true* order, *i. e.* in
 correspondence with the actual conditions of the problem, operates
 in three fields, according as the end is the solution of a scientific
 problem, the attainment of a practical good, or the construction of
 a work of art. Take the last—the field of τέχνη. The architect
 apprehends by νοῦς the plan of his temple—an indivisible form
 (ἀδιαίρετον, ἀπλοῦν). This plan is with him in all the steps of his
 work. It is a fixed principle (ἀκίνητον) from which his δianoia may
 be said to *deduce* these steps. The plan being assumed to be a
 realisable one, δianoia ποιητικὴ or 'the faculty of thinking of the
 means by which a thing may be made,' performs its function well
 when it devises a method of finding and employing materials which
 is *true*—*i. e.* one in which the steps really suitable are duly thought
 of. In Geometry again the thinker starts with a definite problem
 to be solved, and his δianoia θεωρητικὴ reviews the steps which lead
 to a solution in the order determined by the conditions of the
 problem: see *E. N.* iii. 3. 11 ὁ γὰρ βουλευόμενος ἔοικε ζητεῖν καὶ ἀνα-
 λύειν τὸν εἰρημένον τρόπον ὡς περ διάγραμμα. But in the field of πράξις
 we cannot, as in the fields of τέχνη and θεωρητικὴ ἐπιστήμη, start with

1139 a. 27. a definite plan or problem. We have no clear-cut notion of Life (τὸ εὖ ζῆν) before we begin to deal dianoetically with the emergencies of life. It is only after we have spent much time in dealing with them, that we see τὸ εὖ ζῆν as νοητόν and καλόν. We do not know what the problem of Life is till we have in part solved it. This is perhaps a reason for not insisting much on the technical distinction between νοῦς and διάνοια in this field.

a. 29. τοῦτο γάρ ἐστι παντὸς διανοητικοῦ ἔργον] See passages quoted above in note on ἔστι δ' ὑπερ κ.τ.λ., § 2, a. 21.

τοῦ δὲ πρακτικοῦ καὶ διανοητικοῦ] = τῆς δὲ πρακτικῆς διανοίας. Its function is the attainment of ἀλήθεια ὁμολόγως ἔχουσα τῇ ὀρέξει τῇ ὀρθῇ. That ὄρεξις is ὀρθή which obeys the dictates of the πρακτικὴ διάνοια, and the dictates of the πρακτικὴ διάνοια are such as ὄρεξις can obey—i. e. they are concerning τὸ φευκτόν καὶ διωκτόν.

a. 31. § 4. This section, § 5, and § 6 down to πεπραγμένα Ramsauer marks as probably *aliunde huc translata*. At any rate, whether a digression due to the writer himself, or an interpolated fragment, the passage seems to him to be out of place here. I cannot share this view. The passage, culminating as it does in διὸ ἡ ὀρεκτικὸς νοῦς ἢ προαίρεσις ἢ ὄρεξις διανοητικὴ (§ 5), seems to me to be fully justified by the contribution which it makes to the writer's object—the explanation of διάνοια πρακτικὴ as κυρία πράξεως καὶ ἀληθείας. Much less can I follow Susemihl who brackets § 4, § 5 from διὸ, and § 6 down to πεπραγμένοι, and thus brings διάνοια δ' αὐτὴ οὐθέν κινεῖ at the beginning of § 5 into immediate connexion with the end of § 3. It seems to me that § 4, dealing as it does with πρακτικὴ διάνοια as a source of κίνησις, is naturally followed by διάνοια δ' αὐτὴ οὐθέν κινεῖ.

πράξεως μὲν οὖν . . . ἐνεκά τινος] προαίρεσις is the efficient cause (ἀρχὴ ὅθεν ἡ κίνησις), but not the final cause (ἀλλ' οὐχ οὗ ἐνεκα) of πράξις: cf. *de An.* iii. 10. 433 a. 13 ἀμφω ἀρα ταῦτα κωητικὰ κατὰ τόπον, νοῦς καὶ ὄρεξις, νοῦς δὲ ὁ ἐνεκά του λογιζόμενος καὶ ὁ πρακτικός· διαφέρει δὲ τοῦ θεωρητικοῦ τῷ τέλει. καὶ ἡ ὄρεξις ἐνεκί του πᾶσα· οὐ γὰρ ἡ ὄρεξις, αὐτὴ ἀρχὴ τοῦ πρακτικοῦ νοῦ· τὸ δ' ἰσχατον ἀρχὴ τῆς πράξεως. ὥστε εὐλόγως ταῦτα δύο φαίνεται τὰ κινεῖντα, ὄρεξις καὶ διάνοια πρακτικὴ· τὸ ὀρεκτόν γὰρ κινεῖ, καὶ διὰ τοῦτο ἡ διάνοια κινεῖ, ὅτι ἀρχὴ αὐτῆς ἐστὶ τὸ ὀρεκτόν. The final cause of πράξις is τὸ ὀρεκτόν which is τὸ πρακτόν ἀγαθόν (*de An.* iii. 10. 433 a. 29) or εὐπραξία (*E. N.* vi. 2. 5). Its efficient cause is the 'last appetite' in the deliberation started by the final cause—i. e. its efficient cause is the ὄρεξις which translates

into act the idea of something now to be done to which βούλευσις 1139 a. 31. has conducted the agent: see *de An.* iii. 10. 433 a. 16 τὸ δ' ἔσχατον ἀρχὴ τῆς πράξεως, and *E. N.* iii. 3. 12 καὶ τὸ ἔσχατον ἐν τῇ ἀναλύσει κ. τ. λ. The προαίρεσις or deliberate ὄρεξις of an act then is the efficient cause of the act; while the efficient cause of the deliberate ὄρεξις itself is the deliberation started by that final ὀρεκτὸν for the sake of which the act is performed—προαιρέσεως δὲ ὄρεξις καὶ λόγος ὁ ἕνεκά τινος. Briefly, the good moves the ὄρεξις διανοητική, and the ὄρεξις διανοητική moves the agent: see *de An.* iii. 10. 433 b. 14 τὸ δὲ κινεῖν διττὸν, τὸ μὲν ἀκίνητον, τὸ δὲ κινεῖν καὶ κινούμενον ἔστι δὲ τὸ μὲν ἀκίνητον τὸ πρακτὸν ἀγαθόν, τὸ δὲ κινεῖν καὶ κινούμενον τὸ ὀρεκτικόν (κινεῖται γὰρ τὸ ὀρεγόμενον ἢ ὀρέγεται, καὶ ἡ ὄρεξις κίνησις τίς ἐστίν ἢ ἐνέργεια), τὸ δὲ κινούμενον τὸ ζῷον.

The *caveat* conveyed by the words ἀλλ' οὐχ οὗ ἕνεκα is not to be overlooked. Προαίρεσις is only the instrument, not the *raison d'être* of πρῶξις. An act is good, not because it gives a certain faculty assumed to be 'authoritative,' or a certain motive classed as 'high,' an opportunity of manifesting itself, but because it contributes to the realisation of an objective good. Right and wrong do not depend on an 'arbitrary make of faculties,' but are qualities 'in things.' Προαίρεσις is distinguished from the ἐπιθυμία which is contrary to it, not by its 'good intentions' or any other such subjective quality, but by its rationality; and its rationality means its correspondence with objective law. But the acts of the ἀκρατής (who is μὴ προαιρούμενος *E. N.* vii. 4. 4) are produced by an ἀρχή—the ἐπιθυμία of the moment—which is at once their efficient and their final cause. They are done not for the sake of objective good, but for the sake of the gratification of the subjective feeling which immediately excites them. It is only in man, however, that such a violation of nature is possible. In the irrational animals (which are incapable of ἀκρασία, *E. N.* vii. 3. 11) ὄρεξις is always primarily for the sake of *objects* and only incidentally for the sake of its own gratification. When the irrational animals seem to follow present pleasure they are really striving after τὸ αἰὲ καὶ τὸ θεῖον. Thus προαίρεσις or ὄρεξις διανοητική only conforms to the law of all healthy ὄρεξις in producing acts which look beyond the gratification of subjective feeling to correspondence with environment. Butler's contention against Hobbes—that, as food, not self (*i. e.* pleasure), is the object of the appetite of hunger, so our neighbour, not self, is the object of benevolence, is based on the recognition of this law

1139 a. 31. of life often strangely ignored by moralists—antihedonistic as well as hedonistic, perhaps more often and more thoroughly by the former than by the latter.

In his note on προαιρέσεως δὲ ὄρεξις καὶ λόγος ὁ ἐνεκά τινος, Eustratius is puzzled by Aristotle's inconsistency in first making ὄρεξις the γένος of προαίρεσις, defined as βουλευτική (differentia) ὄρεξις (genus)—i.e. its material cause, and then here its efficient cause.

a. 33. διὸ οὐτ' ἄνευ νοῦ καὶ διανοίας οὐτ' ἄνευ ἠθικῆς ἐστὶν ἕξεως ἢ προαίρεσις] Here νοῦ καὶ διανοίας take up λόγος in the immediately preceding clause, and ἠθικῆς ἕξεως takes up ὄρεξις. The ὄρεξις involved in προαίρεσις, as distinguished from that involved in mere ἐπιθυμία, is a steadily operating appetite, proceeding from and declaring the ἠθικὴ ἕξις or ἦθος of its subject:—see *E. N.* iii. 2. 1 οἰκειότατον γὰρ εἶναι δοκεῖ ἢ προαίρεσις τῇ ἀρετῇ καὶ μᾶλλον τὰ ἦθη κρίνειν τῶν πράξεων. According as the ἠθικὴ ἕξις or ἦθος is good or bad, so is the end οὗ ἢ ὄρεξις—*E. N.* iii. 5. 20 τῷ ποιοῖ τινες εἶναι τὸ τέλος τοιόνδε τιθέμεθα: vi. 12. 6 ἢ μὲν γὰρ ἀρετὴ τὸν σκοπὸν ποιεῖ ὀρθόν: cf. vi. 12. 10, vi. 13. 7.

It may be asked whether νοῦς and διάνοια are distinguished in *E. N.* vi. 2. 4. It is certainly plain that elsewhere in this chapter they are not distinguished; but here we are tempted to think that the two names would not have been brought so close together unless the writer had wished to distinguish two faculties. In *de An.* iii. 9. 433 a. 1, which resembles the present passage in bringing the two terms closely together, a distinction seems to be intended—ἔτι καὶ ἐπιτάττοντος τοῦ νοῦ καὶ λεγούσης τῆς διανοίας φεύγειν τι ἢ διώκειν οὐ κινεῖται, ἀλλὰ κατὰ τὴν ἐπιθυμίαν πράττει, οἷον ὁ ἀκρατής. In *de An.* iii. 9 Aristotle seems to distinguish νοῦς as authoritative principle or ἀρχή (ἐπιτάττοντος) from διάνοια as merely indicating (λεγούσης) what particular things are to be sought or shunned. If we are to distinguish between νοῦς and διάνοια in *E. N.* vi. 2. 4, we may say that νοῦς grasps the end immediately, and διάνοια reviews the means: ἠθικὴ ἀρετὴ gives the moral interest in the end declared by νοῦς, and προαίρεσις is the rational choice of the means discovered by διάνοια. It may be mentioned that Eustratius, in his note here, treats νοῦς and διάνοια as distinct. He says—ὁ κυρίως νοῦς ἀπλαῖς ἐπιβολαῖς γινώσκειν πέφυκε, τούτῳ μέσῳ χρωμένη ἢ διάνοια οἰκείῳ τοῦ πράγματος ἀνελιγμένως καταλαμβάνει.

a. 34. εὐπραξία γὰρ καὶ τὸ ἐναντίον ἐν πράξει ἄνευ διανοίας καὶ ἠθους οὐκ ἐστὶν] i.e. τὰ θηρία πράξεως οὐ κοινωνεῖ—τὰ θηρία οὐκ ἀκρατῆ.

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1189 b. 7. ἐπὶ μὲν οὖν τῶν ὄντων καὶ γενομένων ἀνάγκη τὴν κατάφασιν ἢ τὴν ἀπόφασιν ἀληθῆ ἢ ψευδῆ εἶναι . . . a. 33 ἐπὶ δὲ τῶν καθ' ἕκαστα καὶ μελλόντων οὐχ ὁμοίως· εἰ γὰρ πᾶσα κατάφασις ἢ ἀπόφασις ἀληθῆς ἢ ψευδῆς, καὶ ἅπαν ἀνάγκη ὑπάρχειν ἢ μὴ ὑπάρχειν, ὥστε εἰ ὁ μὲν φήσῃ ἔσεσθαι τι ὁ δὲ μὴ φήσῃ τὸ αὐτὸ τοῦτο, δῆλον ὅτι ἀνάγκη ἀληθεύειν τὸν ἕτερον αὐτῶν, εἰ πᾶσα κατάφασις ἀληθῆς ἢ ψευδῆς . . . b. 5 οὐδὲν ἄρα οὔτε ἔστιν οὔτε γίνεται οὔτε ἀπὸ τύχης οὐθ' ὁπότερ' ἔτυχεν, οὐδὲ ἔσται ἢ οὐκ ἔσται, ἀλλ' ἐξ ἀνάγκης ἅπαντα καὶ οὐχ ὁπότερ' ἔτυχεν· ἢ γὰρ ὁ φᾶς ἀληθεύει ἢ ὁ ἀποφᾶς εἰ ἔστι λευκὸν νῦν, ἀληθὲς ἦν εἰπεῖν πρότερον ὅτι ἔσται λευκὸν, ὥστε αἰεὶ ἀληθὲς ἦν εἰπεῖν ὅτι οὖν τῶν γενομένων ὅτι ἔσται· εἰ δὲ αἰεὶ ἀληθὲς ἦν εἰπεῖν ὅτι ἔστιν ἢ ἔσται, οὐχ οἷόν τε τοῦτο μὴ εἶναι οὐδὲ μὴ ἔσεσθαι· ὁ δὲ μὴ οἷόν τε μὴ γενέσθαι, ἀδύνατον μὴ γενέσθαι· ὁ δὲ ἀδύνατον μὴ γενέσθαι, ἀνάγκη γενέσθαι· ἅπαντα οὖν τὰ ἐσόμενα ἀναγκαῖον γενέσθαι· οὐδὲν ἄρα ὁπότερ' ἔτυχεν οὐδὲ ἀπὸ τύχης ἔσται· εἰ γὰρ ἀπὸ τύχης, οὐκ ἐξ ἀνάγκης· ἀλλὰ μὴν οὐδ' ὡς οὐδέτερόν γε ἀληθὲς ἐνδέχεται λέγειν, οἷον ὅτι οὔτε ἔσται οὔτε οὐκ ἔσται b. 22 εἰ δὲ μήτε ἔσται μήτε μὴ ἔσται αὐριον, οὐκ ἂν εἴη τὸ ὁπότερ' ἔτυχεν, οἷον ναυμαχία· δέοι γὰρ ἂν μήτε γενέσθαι ναυμαχίαν μήτε μὴ γενέσθαι b. 31 ὥστε οὔτε βουλευέσθαι δέοι ἂν οὔτε πραγματεύεσθαι, ὡς εἰάν μὲν τοδὶ ποιήσωμεν, ἔσται τοδί, εἰάν δὲ μὴ τοδί, οὐκ ἔσται τοδί. οὐδὲν γὰρ κωλύει καὶ εἰς μυριοστὸν ἔτος τὸν μὲν φάναι τοῦτο ἔσεσθαι τὸν δὲ μὴ φάναι, ὥστε ἐξ ἀνάγκης ἔσεσθαι ὑποτερονοῦν αὐτῶν ἀληθὲς ἦν εἰπεῖν τότε 19 a. 1 ὥστε εἰ ἐν ἅπαντι χρόνῳ οὕτως εἶχεν ὥστε τὸ ἕτερον ἀληθεύεσθαι, ἀναγκαῖον ἦν τοῦτω γενέσθαι, καὶ ἕκαπτον τῶν γενομένων αἰεὶ οὕτως εἶχεν ὥστε ἐξ ἀνάγκης γενέσθαι. ὁ τε γὰρ ἀληθῶς εἶπέ τις, ὅτι ἔσται, οὐχ οἷόν τε μὴ γενέσθαι· καὶ τὸ γινόμενον ἀληθὲς ἦν εἰπεῖν αἰεὶ ὅτι ἔσται. εἰ δὲ ταῦτα ἀδύνατα—ὁρῶμεν γὰρ ὅτι ἔστιν ἀρχὴ τῶν ἐσομένων καὶ ἀπὸ τοῦ βουλευέσθαι καὶ ἀπὸ τοῦ πράξαι τι, καὶ ὅτι ὅλως ἔστιν ἐν τοῖς μὴ αἰεὶ ἐνεργοῦσι τὸ δυνατόν εἶναι καὶ μὴ ὁμοίως· ἐν οἷς ἀμφω ἐνδέχεται, καὶ τὸ εἶναι καὶ τὸ μὴ εἶναι, ὥστε καὶ τὸ γενέσθαι καὶ τὸ μὴ γενέσθαι: *i. e. future events are not settled beforehand.* They have yet to be produced by φύσις or by human agency. If we maintain therefore that of two contradictory propositions about a future event, the one must be true, and the other false, in the sense that the one is *already* true, and the other *already* false, we make the occurrence of the 'contingent' *necessary*: we banish the 'contingent' from the world, and leave no place for deliberation. It is, of course, *logically* necessary that a battle should either take place to-morrow in a certain spot, or not take place: but if it takes place, it does not take place 'necessarily,' and if it does not take place, it does not not-take place 'necessarily.'—*de Int.* 9. 19 a. 28 εἶναι μὲν ἢ μὴ εἶναι ἅπαν ἀνάγκη, καὶ ἔσεσθαι γε ἢ μὴ. οὐ μίντοι

διλόγιστα γε εἰπεῖν θάτερον ἀπυκνίον· λέγω δὲ οἷον ἀνάγκη μὲν ἴσσεσθαι 1189 b. 7. ναυμαχίαν αὐρίον ἢ μὴ ἴσσεσθαι, οὐ μόντοι ἴσσεσθαί γε αὐρίον ναυμαχίαν ἀναγκαῖον οὐδὲ μὴ γενέσθαι· γενέσθαι μόντοι ἢ μὴ γενέσθαι ἀναγκαῖον.

ἀμφοτέρων δὴ τῶν νοητικῶν μορίων] The ἐπιστημονικὸν μέρος and the b. 12. λογιστικὸν μέρος of chap. 1. § 6.

CHAPTER III.

ARGUMENT.

The modes in which the soul reaches truth in affirmation or negation are five—art, science, prudence, wisdom, reason.

The object of science strictly so called is necessary truth, or that which cannot be otherwise, and is therefore eternally true; for things that are necessary in the strict sense are all eternal, and things which are eternal are without generation and corruption. Moreover science can always be taught, and its object learnt. Now, all teaching starts from previous knowledge, as we say in Logic, and proceeds sometimes by induction, sometimes by syllogism. Induction is the source of the universal; syllogistic reasoning starts from universals. It is by induction therefore that syllogistic principles are obtained. The scientific faculty accordingly is the faculty of demonstrating conclusions from principles which are 'better known' than the conclusions derived from them. So much for science.

§ 1. ἀρξάμενοι οὖν ἄνωθεν περὶ αὐτῶν πάλιν λέγωμεν.] 'This chap- b. 14. ter,' Grant says, 'proposes to consider the two parts of the reason (scientific and calculative) from a fresh point of view.' In chap. 1. § 5 Reason was divided into two parts, because its objects are of two kinds; here it is the consideration of διάνοια, the faculty of affirming and denying truly, which suggests a list of five rational states—ἴστω δὴ οἷς ἀληθεύει ἡ ψυχὴ τῆς καταφάναι ἢ ἀποφάναι πέντε τῶν ἀριθμῶν. In this list τέχνη answers to διάνοια ποιητικὴ, ἐπιστήμη to διάνοια θεωρητικὴ, and φρόνησις to διάνοια πρακτικὴ, while νοῦς supplies τέχνη, ἐπιστήμη, and φρόνησις with their respective ἀρχαί (see chap. 6), and σοφία is the possession of both νοῦς and διάνοια—especially θεωρητικὴ διάνοια (see chap. 7. § 3). If this is plainly the rationale of the present list, it is even more plainly that of the list in *Anal. Post.* i. 33. 89 b. 7, by which Grant thinks it highly probable that the present list was suggested. In *An. Post.* i. 33 we have the rational states given in the following order—διάνοιαι, νοῦς, ἐπιστήμη, τέχνη, φρόνησις, σοφία—i.e. first, the main division of the rational part into the discursive reason (διάνοια) and the reason which grasps principles immediately (νοῦς): then, the three kinds of discursive

1189 b. 14. reason: and lastly, the possession of discursive ability together with the power of grasping principles. The list as we find it in *E. N.* vi. 3. 1 bears its rationale less clearly on its face. *Διάνοια* is not mentioned, although we must assume from *οἷς ἀληθεύει ἡ ψυχὴ τῷ καταφάναι ἢ ἀποφάναι* that the writer has it in his mind: and the logical order is reversed when *σοφία* is placed before *νοῦς*, although it is to be noted that in the subsequent discussion of these two states *σοφία* is taken last. Grant thinks that 'Eudemus' does not distinguish *διάνοια* from *νοῦς* here. It is certainly in favour of this view that *νοῦς* appears in a list *οἷς ἀληθεύει ἡ ψυχὴ τῷ καταφάναι ἢ ἀποφάναι*, for, as we have seen in *Met. Θ.* 10. 1051 b. 24, quoted in note on vi. 2. 2, a. 21, the *ἀλήθεια* which is perceived by *νοῦς*, as intuitive reason, is that of *τὸ θιγγάνειν*, or of *φάσις*, not that of *κατάφασις ἢ ἀπόφασις* which is the *ἔργον διανοίας*. On the other hand the identification of *νοῦς* in the present list with *διάνοια* is inconsistent with the special function assigned to *νοῦς* as distinguished from *ἐπιστήμη* in chap. 6. The statement with which chap. 6 ends—*λείπεται νοῦν εἶναι τῶν ἀρχῶν* makes it, I think, impossible to regard the *νοῦς* of the list as anything but the intuitive reason. The words *οἷς ἀληθεύει τῷ καταφάναι ἢ ἀποφάναι* must therefore be taken to apply directly to *τέχνη ἐπιστήμη* and *φρόνησις*, and to be loosely extended to *νοῦς* on account of its position as *κεφαλὴ τῆς ἐπιστήμης* (chap. 7. § 3).

Prantl, in his work *über die dialektischen Tugenden in der Nicomachischen Ethik des Aristoteles* 1852, maintains the thesis that to regard this as a list of *five intellectual ἀρεταί* is to involve oneself in a confusion of Logic and Ethics. There are only two intellectual ἀρεταί—*σοφία* and *φρόνησις*. *Σοφία* is the ἀρετή of the *λόγον ἔχον μέρος*, *quod* concerned with *τὰ μὴ ἐνδεχόμενα ἄλλως ἔχειν*, and *φρόνησις* (including *εὐβουλία*, *σύνεσις*, *γνώμη* and *δεινότης*) the ἀρετή of the *λόγον ἔχον μέρος*, *quod* concerned with *τὰ ἐνδεχόμενα ἄλλως ἔχειν*. *Νοῦς* is not an ἀρετή, but *das Unmittelbare*, i.e. the mind itself. *Ἐπιστήμη* is not an ἀρετή, for there is an ἀρετή ἐπιστήμης, *viz.* *σοφία*. *Τέχνη* is not an ἀρετή, for there is an ἀρετή τέχνης, which in its highest form is also called *σοφία*:—see p. 10 of Prantl's work for a summary statement of these results. On p. 14, he calls attention to *E. N.* vi. 11. 7. 1143 b. 15, as strongly supporting his view that *σοφία* and *φρόνησις* are the only intellectual ἀρεταί—*τί μὲν οὖν ἐστὶν ἡ φρόνησις καὶ ἡ σοφία καὶ περὶ τίνα ἑκατέρω τυχάνει οὕσα, καὶ ὅτι ἄλλου τῆς ψυχῆς μορίου ἀρετὴ ἑκατέρω εἴρηται*. Zeller examines Prantl's view in his *Phil. d. Gr.* ii. 2, p. 649 note 2, and rejects it on two grounds—(1) because the subject

of Book vi, as stated in ch. 1. § 4, is the *διανοητικαὶ ἀρεταί*, and no 1189 b. 14. hint is thrown out that these are not the *five* states enumerated in ch. 3. § 1: (2) because the Aristotelian conception of ἀρετή as ἐπαινετὴ ἔξις (*E. N.* i. 13. 19) applies to all five. Ἐπιστήμη and τέχνη are certainly ἐπαινεταὶ ἔξεις (ἐπιστήμη is adduced as an example of a ἔξις in *Cat.* 8. 8 a. 29, 11 a. 24); and νοῦς (not as *part* of the soul, but as *state* of the soul) is expressly described as a ἔξις in *E. N.* vi. 11. 2. If it is a ἔξις, it is an ἐπαινετὴ ἔξις—*i.e.* an ἀρετή. I think that Zeller's general position is unassailable. Ἐπιργεῖ κατὰ τὴν ἔξιν could undoubtedly be said of the ἐπιστήμων, and also of the τεχνίτης, without violence to Aristotelian usage. But it must at the same time be conceded to Prantl that a certain difficulty is felt by the writer of the Sixth Book about the place of ἐπιστήμη and τέχνη—see vi. 5. 7 ἀλλὰ μὴν τέχνης μὲν ἐστὶν ἀρετή, φρονήσεως δ' οὐκ ἔστιν . . . δῆλον ὅτι ἀρετὴ τις ἐστὶν [ἢ φρόνησις] καὶ οὐ τέχνη—(this is perhaps why τέχνη is omitted from the list given in ch. 6. § 2): see also *M. M.* i. 34. 1197 a. 16 ἔστιν δ' ἡ φρόνησις ἀρετὴ, ὡς δόξειεν ἂν, οὐκ ἐπιστήμη (ἐπιστήμη seems to do duty for both ἐπιστήμη and τέχνη here, as in the list 1196 b. 36), ἐπαινετοὶ γὰρ εἰσιν οἱ φρόνιμοι, ὁ δ' ἔπαινος ἀρετῆς· ἐτι δ' ἐπιστήμης μὲν πάσης ἀρετὴ ἐστὶν, φρονήσεως δὲ ἀρετὴ οὐκ ἔστιν, ἀλλ' ὡς ἔοικεν, αὐτό τι ἐστὶν ἀρετὴ. I ought to add that Kassow (*Forsch.* p. 124 note) gives his opinion very strongly in favour of Prantl's view that σοφία and φρόνησις are the only intellectual ἀρεταί, properly so called, recognised in the Sixth Book.

ὀπολήψει γὰρ καὶ δόξη ἐνδέχεται διαψεύδεσθαι] What is here b. 17. implied is expressed fully in ch. 6. § 2—εἰ δὴ οἷς ἀληθεύομεν καὶ μηδέποτε διαψευδόμεθα περὶ τὰ μὴ ἐνδεχόμενα ἢ καὶ ἐνδεχόμενα ἄλλως ἔχειν, ἐπιστήμη καὶ φρόνησις ἐστὶ καὶ σοφία καὶ νοῦς κ. τ. λ. In what sense, then, are all these ἔξεις said to be *infallible*? Νοῦς is infallible as the immediate perception of ἀδιαίρετα or ἀπλᾶ: see *Met.* θ. 10. 1051 b. 24, and other passages quoted in (note on vi. 2. 2, a. 21.) Ἐπιστήμη is infallible inasmuch as the truths which it apprehends, or of which it is the apprehension, are such as, if seen at all, are clearly seen for what they are, and leave no room for the supposition that they might be seen otherwise—see § 2 below, πάντες γὰρ ὑπολαμβάνομεν, ὃ ἐπιστάμεθα, μὴ ἐνδέχεσθαι ἄλλως ἔχειν. Σοφία is infallible, because it is νοῦς καὶ ἐπιστήμη (ch. 7. § 3). But in what sense can the ἔξεις which have to do with τὰ ἐνδεχόμενα ἄλλως ἔχειν be said to be infallible? We are saved the trouble of trying to answer

1189 b. 17. this question as regards τέχνη, for τέχνη does not appear in the corrected list of infallible ἕξεις given in ch. 6. § 2, and it is stated in ch. 5. § 7 that there are degrees of excellence in it—τέχνης μὲν ἔστιν ἀρετή, and implied that involuntary, as well as voluntary ἀμαρτία is possible in it—ἐν μὲν τέχνῃ ὁ ἐκὼν ἀμαρτάνων αἰρετώτερος (sc. τοῦ ἀκνησίως ἀμαρτάνοντος). We have therefore only to explain how φρόνησις, concerned as it is with τὰ ἐνδεχόμενα ἄλλως ἔχειν, is infallible. The explanation seems to be that φρόνησις is correlated with the perfect organisation of the whole moral nature—*E. N.* vi. 12. 10 ἀδύνατον φρόνιμον εἶναι μὴ ὄντα ἀγαθόν. Φρόνησις is the consciousness of what goodness requires for its preservation. This consciousness is always present with the good man, and authoritative in him. An artist may forget his art, because it is only a part of himself—like a limb which may be cut off, leaving the body alive; but φρόνησις is the good man himself—a second nature, which, having once put on, he cannot put off—*E. N.* vi. 5. 8 ἀλλὰ μὴν οὐδ' ἕξις μετὰ λόγου μόνον σημεῖον ὃ ὅτι λήθη τῆς τοιαύτης ἕξεως ἔστι, φρονήσεως δ' οὐκ ἔστιν. It directs him unerringly in the interest of the noble life, as instinct directs an animal in the interest of the physical life. There is indeed nothing exceptional in 'the infallibility of the good man' (see *E. N.* iii. 4. 4, 5—ὁ σπουδαῖος γὰρ ἕκαστα κρίνει ὀρθῶς, καὶ ἐν ἐκάστοις τὰληθῆς αὐτῷ φαίνεται . . . ὥσπερ κανὼν καὶ μέτρον αὐτῶν ὢν); every organism knows infallibly how to be itself.

ὑπολήψει] ὑπόληψις is a *view* or *assumption*, whether true or false: see Bonitz, *Met.* p. 41—'Significat ὑπολαμβάνειν sumere et statuere aliquid pro vero, sive illud est verum sive secus.' It is sometimes reached mediately as the conclusion of a syllogism—ὅταν διὰ συλλογισμοῦ λάβῃ τὴν ὑπόληψιν, sometimes is taken up immediately—ὅταν ἀπλῶς ὑπολάβῃ ὑπάρχειν ἢ μὴ ὑπάρχειν (see *An. Post.* i. 16. 79 b. 27): in the latter case it may amount either to ἐπιστήμη ἀναπόδεικτος—defined in *An. Post.* i. 33. 88 b. 7 as ὑπόληψις τῆς ἀμείσου προτάσεως (sc. καὶ ἀναγκαίας), or to δόξα as defined in the same passage (89 a. 2-4)—λείπεται δόξαν εἶναι περὶ τὸ ἀληθές μὲν ἢ ψεῦδος, ἐνδεχόμενον δὲ καὶ ἄλλως ἔχειν τοῦτο ὃ ἔστιν ὑπόληψις τῆς ἀμείσου προτάσεως καὶ μὴ ἀναγκαίας. It would thus appear that ὑπόληψις is a term of very wide application: cf. *de An.* iii. 3. 427 b. 24 εἰσι δὲ καὶ αὐτῆς τῆς ὑπολήψεως διαφοραί, ἐπιστήμη καὶ δόξα καὶ φρόνησις καὶ τὰναντία τούτων: and *E. N.* vi. 9. 7 ἢ εὐβουλία εἴη ἂν ὀρθότης ἢ κατὰ τὸ συμφέρον πρὸς τὸ τέλος, οὐ ἢ

φρόνησις ἀληθῆς ὑπόληψις ἐστίν. In the section before us (vi. 3. 1), 1139 b. 17. however, ὑπόληψις is evidently used in a specific sense as equivalent to δόξα, the standing opposite of ἐπιστήμη: see *An. Post.* i. 33. 89 a. 5 ἢ τε γὰρ δόξα ἀβέβαιον καὶ ἡ φύσις ἢ τοιαύτη· πρὸς δὲ τούτοις οὐδεὶς οὔται δοξάζειν ὅταν οἴηται ἀδύνατον ἄλλως ἔχειν, ἀλλ' ἐπίστασθαι· ἀλλ' ὅταν εἶναι μὲν οὕτως, οὐ μὴν ἀλλὰ καὶ ἄλλως οὐδὲν κωλύειν, τότε δοξάζειν, ὡς τοῦ μὲν τοιούτου δόξαν οὔσαν, τοῦ δ' ἀναγκαίου ἐπιστήμην.

§ 2. ἐπιστήμη μὲν οὖν κ.τ.λ.] See *An. Post.* i. 2. 71 b. 9 ἐπίστασθαι b. 18. δὲ οἰόμεθ' ἕκαστον ἀπλῶς, ἀλλὰ μὴ τὸν σοφιστικὸν τρόπον τὸν κατὰ συμβεβηκός, ὅταν τὴν τ' αἰτίαν οἰόμεθα γινώσκειν δι' ἣν τὸ πρᾶγμα ἐστίν, ὅτι ἐκείνου αἰτία ἐστὶ, καὶ μὴ ἐνδέχεσθαι τοῦτ' ἄλλως ἔχειν. Δῆλον τοίνυν ὅτι τοιοῦτόν τι τὸ ἐπίστασθαι ἐστὶ· καὶ γὰρ οἱ μὴ ἐπιστάμενοι καὶ οἱ ἐπιστῆμενοι οἱ μὲν οἴονται αὐτοὶ οὕτως ἔχειν, οἱ δ' ἐπιστάμενοι καὶ ἔχουσιν, ὥστε οὐ ἀπλῶς ἐστὶν ἐπιστήμη, τοῦτ' ἀδύνατον ἄλλως ἔχειν. Εἰ μὲν οὖν καὶ ἕτερός ἐστὶ τοῦ ἐπίστασθαι τρόπος, ὕστερον ἐροῦμεν, φημὲν δὲ καὶ δι' ἀποδείξεως εἶδέναι. Ἀπόδειξιν δὲ λέγω συλλογισμὸν ἐπιστημονικόν. Ἐπιστημονικόν δὲ λέγω καθ' ὃν τῷ ἔχειν αὐτὸν ἐπιστάμεθα. Εἰ τοίνυν ἐστὶ τὸ ἐπίστασθαι οἷον ἔθεμεν, ἀνάγκη καὶ τὴν ἀποδεικτικὴν ἐπιστήμην ἐξ ἀληθῶν τ' εἶναι καὶ πρώτων καὶ ἀμέσων καὶ γνωριμωτέρων καὶ προτέρων καὶ αἰτίων τοῦ συμπεράσματος· οὕτω γὰρ ἔσονται καὶ αἱ ἀρχαὶ οἰκείαι τοῦ δεικνυμένου. Συλλογισμὸς μὲν γὰρ ἔσται καὶ ἄνευ τούτων, ἀπόδειξις δ' οὐκ ἔσται· οὐ γὰρ ποιήσει ἐπιστήμην.

ταῖς ὁμοιότησιν] 'the various analogical and inaccurate uses of the word "knowledge"' (Grant). In the strict sense ἐπιστήμη is ἀποδεικτικὴ, as described in *An. Post.* i. 2 quoted in last note: but *politics*, and many other *πραγματεῖαι* dealing with τὰ ἐνδεχόμενα ἄλλως ἔχειν (where there can be no ἀπόδειξις—see *E. N.* vi. 5. 3), are called ἐπιστήμαι in a loose sense. They are 'branches of knowledge.'

ὅταν ἔξω τοῦ θεωρεῖν γένηται] He means that a concrete thing is known for certain to exist, or be of a certain kind, only when it is actually present to our observation; whereas a necessary truth is apprehended as being always what it is now apprehended to be: cf. *Top.* v. 3. 131 b. 21 ἅπαν γὰρ τὸ αἰσθητὸν ἔξω γινόμενον τῆς αἰσθήσεως ἀδηλον γίνεται· ἀφανὲς γὰρ ἐστὶν εἰ ἔτι ὑπάρχει, διὰ τὸ τῇ αἰσθήσει μόνον γινώσκεσθαι.

ἐξ ἀνάγκης] In *Met.* Δ. 5, τὸ ἐξ ἀνάγκης as (1) μὴ ἐνδεχόμενον ἄλλως ἔχειν is distinguished from (2) τὸ ἄνευ οὐ οὐκ ἐνδέχεται, (3) τὸ βίαιον, and (4) ἡ ἀπόδειξις, or syllogistic *consequentia*: cf. *Met.* Λ. 7. 1072 b.

1139 b. 22. 11 (where no. 4 is omitted) τὸ γὰρ ἀναγκαῖον . . . τὸ μὲν βίβησθαι παρὰ τὴν ὀρμήν, τὸ δὲ οὐκ ἄνευ τὸ εὖ, τὸ δὲ μὴ ἐνδεχόμενον ἄλλως ἀλλ' ἀπλῶς:—i.e. τὸ μὴ ἐνδεχόμενον ἄλλως ἔχει (e.g. a mathematical truth) is ἀναγκαῖον ἰπ itself: the other kinds distinguished are ἀναγκαῖα ἐξ ὑποθέσεως—see *Phys.* ii. 9. 199 b. 34.

b. 23. αἰδῖον ἄρα] If ἐξ ἀνάγκης in the sense of μὴ ἐνδεχόμενον ἄλλως ἔχειν, then αἰδῖον: see *Phys.* ii. 5. 196 b. 10 ἐπειδὴ ὁρῶμεν τὰ μὲν αἰδῖα ὡσαύτως γινόμενα τὰ δὲ ὡς ἐπὶ πολὺ, φανερόν ἐστι οὐδετέρου τούτων αἰτία ἢ τύχη λέγεται οὐδὲ τὸ ἀπὸ τύχης, οὔτε τοῦ ἐξ ἀνάγκης καὶ αἰδῖα οὔτε τοῦ ὡς ἐπὶ πολὺ: cf. *Mel.* E. 2. 1026 b. 27 ἐπεὶ οὖν ἐστὶν ἐν τοῖς οὐσι τὰ μὲν αἰδῖα ὡσαύτως ἔχοντα καὶ ἐξ ἀνάγκης, οὐ τῆς κατὰ τὸ βίβιον λεγομένης, ἀλλ' ἢ λέγομεν τῷ μὴ ἐνδέχασθαι ἄλλως, κ.τ.λ. The Divine Power which moves the πρῶτος οὐρανός, and with it all things, is οὐσία αἰδῖος ἀκίνητος—see *Mel.* A. 6. 1071 b. 5, and 7. 1072 a. 23. So also pure form, as it is studied in the mathematical sciences, is αἰδῖον: see *E. N.* iii. 3. 3 περὶ δὴ τῶν αἰδῖων, οὐδεὶς βουλευέται, οἷον περὶ τοῦ κόσμου ἢ τῆς διαμέτρου καὶ τῆς πλευρᾶς, ὅτι ἀσύμμετροι: *Phys.* iv. 12. 222 a. 6 τὸ ἀσύμμετρον εἶναι τὴν διάμετρον αἰδῖον ἐστίν.

τὰ γὰρ ἐξ ἀνάγκης ὄντα ἀπλῶς] as distinguished from τὰ ἀναγκαῖα τὰ ἐξ ὑποθέσεως: see *Phys.* ii. 9. 199 b. 34 τὸ δ' ἐξ ἀνάγκης πότερον ἐξ ὑποθέσεως ὑπάρχει ἢ καὶ ἀπλῶς κ.τ.λ. If a saw is to cut, 'it is necessary that' it should be made of iron (*Phys.* ii. 9. 200 a. 12)—ἐξ ὑποθέσεως δὴ τὸ ἀναγκαῖον. Here the 'necessity' is extrinsic—'if we are to have cutting, it is necessary to have iron.' But the truths of mathematics are ἀναγκαῖα ἀπλῶς—necessary without qualification, in themselves, i.e. their necessity is intrinsic: see *Mel.* Δ. 5. 1015 b. 9 τῶν μὲν δὴ ἕτερον αἰτίον τοῦ ἀναγκαῖα εἶναι, τῶν δὲ οὐδέν, ἀλλὰ διὰ ταῦτα ἕτερα ἐστὶν ἐξ ἀνάγκης. ὥστε τὸ πρῶτον καὶ κυρίως ἀναγκαῖον τὸ ἀπλοῦν ἐστίν.

b. 24. τὰ δ' αἰδῖα ἀγέννητα καὶ ἀφθάρτα] See *Mel.* N. 3. 1091 a. 12 ἀποπον δὲ καὶ γένεσιν ποιεῖν αἰδῖων ὄντων: Z. 8. 1033 b. 17 τὸ μὲν οὖν εἶδος ἢ οὐσία λεγόμενον οὐ γίγνεται: Z. 10. 1035 a. 27 ὅσα δὲ μὴ συνειληπταὶ τῇ ὕλῃ ἀλλ' ἄνευ ὕλης, ὡς οἱ λόγοι τοῦ εἶδους μόνον, ταῦτα δ' οὐ φθείρεται, ἢ ὅπως ἢ οὔτοι οὕτω γε: Z. 15. 1039 b. 20 ἐπεὶ δ' ἡ οὐσία ἕτερα τὸ τε σύνολον καὶ ὁ λόγος: λέγω δ' ὅτι μὲν οὕτως ἐστὶν οὐσία σὺν τῇ ὕλῃ συνειλημμένος ὁ λόγος, ἢ δὲ ὁ λόγος ὅπως. ὅσαι μὲν οὖν οὕτω λέγονται, τούτων μὲν ἔστι φθορά: καὶ γὰρ γένεσις. τοῦ δὲ λόγου οὐκ ἐστὶν οὕτως ὥστε φθείρεσθαι: οὐδὲ γὰρ γένεσις (οὐ γὰρ γίγνεται τὸ αἰκίᾳ εἶναι ἀλλὰ τὸ τῆδε τῇ αἰκίᾳ), ἀλλ' ἄνευ γένεσεως καὶ φθορᾶς εἰσι καὶ οὐκ εἰσίν.

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1139 b. 27. not in demonstrated truth, as the deductive syllogism does, but in moral, or practical certainty.

b. 28. συλλογισμῶ] defined *An. Prior.* i. 1. 24 b. 18 as λόγος ἐν ᾧ τεθέντων τινῶν ἕτερόν τι τῶν κειμένων ἐξ ἀνάγκης συμβαίνει τῷ ταῦτα εἶναι.

ἡ μὲν δὴ ἐπαγωγή ἀρχὴ ἐστὶ καὶ τοῦ καθόλου] L.^b and Ald. read ἀρχῆς, and Γ seems to omit καί. Καί may have been introduced, to make the clause coherent, by a scribe who read ἀρχῆς. If the genitive τοῦ καθόλου depends on ἀρχή, it is difficult to explain καί: if καί be retained, it seems necessary to render—‘Induction is the beginning, and is concerned with the universal’—not a very satisfactory rendering, I think.

b. 29. εἰσὶν ἄρα ἀρχαὶ ἐξ ὧν . . . ἐπαγωγή ἄρα] See *An. Post.* i. 3. 72 b. 18 Ἡμεῖς δὲ φάμεν οὔτε πᾶσαν ἐπιστήμην ἀποδεικτικὴν εἶναι, ἀλλὰ τὴν τῶν ἀμέσων ἀναπόδεικτον. Καὶ τοῦθ' ὅτι ἀναγκαῖον, φανερόν· εἰ γὰρ ἀνάγκη μὲν ἐπίστασθαι τὰ πρότερα καὶ ἐξ ὧν ἡ ἀπόδειξις, ἴσταται δὲ ποτε τὰ ἄμεσα, ταῦτ' ἀναπόδεικτα ἀνάγκη εἶναι. Ταῦτά τ' οὖν οὕτω λέγομεν, καὶ οὐ μόνον ἐπιστήμην ἀλλὰ καὶ ἀρχὴν ἐπιστήμης εἶναι τινὰ φάμεν, ἢ τοὺς ὄρους γνωρίζομεν. The words ἐπαγωγή ἄρα are regarded by Trendelenburg (*Histor. Beitr. zur Phil.* vol. ii. 367) as a gloss. In the parallel passage *M. M.* i. 34. 1197 a. 21 ἐπαγωγή is not mentioned—ἡ μὲν γὰρ ἐπιστήμη τῶν μετ' ἀποδείξεως ὄντων ἐστίν, αἱ δ' ἀρχαὶ ἀναπόδεικτοι: nor in the passage just quoted from *An. Post.* i. 3. 72 b. 18. But surely we must retain ἐπαγωγή ἄρα, unless we are prepared to reject ἡ μὲν δὴ ἐπαγωγή ἀρχὴ ἐστὶ καὶ τοῦ καθόλου. It seems to be impossible to distinguish between ‘Eudemus’ and ‘Aristotle’ here. Both ascribe the principles of syllogism, sometimes to ἐπαγωγή, sometimes to νοῦς. Aristotle, at any rate, saw so little inconsistency in this, that he even gives us the two explanations within the limits of the same immediate context—*An. Post.* ii. 19. 100 b. 3 Δῆλον δὴ ὅτι ἡμῖν τὰ πρῶτα ἐπαγωγῇ γνωρίζειν ἀναγκαῖον· καὶ γὰρ καὶ αἰσθησις οὕτω τὸ καθόλου ἔμποι. ἐπεὶ δὲ τῶν περὶ τὴν διάνοιαν ἔξεων, αἷς ἀληθεύομεν, αἱ μὲν αἰεὶ ἀληθεῖς εἰσὶν, αἱ δὲ ἐπιδέχονται τὸ ψεῦδος, οἷον δόξα καὶ λογισμός, ἀληθῆ δ' αἰεὶ ἐπιστήμη καὶ νοῦς, καὶ οὐδὲν ἐπιστήμης ἀκριβέστερον ἄλλο γένος ἢ νοῦς, αἱ δ' ἀρχαὶ τῶν ἀποδείξεων γνωριμώτεραι, ἐπιστήμη δ' ἅπασα μετὰ λόγου ἐστί, τῶν ἀρχῶν ἐπιστήμη μὲν οὐκ ἂν εἴη, ἐπεὶ δ' οὐδὲν ἀληθέστερον ἐνδέχεται εἶναι ἐπιστήμης ἢ νοῦν, νοῦς ἂν εἴη τῶν ἀρχῶν, ἔκ τε τούτων σκοποῦσι καὶ ὅτι ἀποδείξεως ἀρχὴ οὐκ ἀπόδειξις, ὥστ' οὐδ' ἐπιστήμης ἐπιστήμη. εἰ οὖν μηδὲν ἄλλο παρ' ἐπιστήμην γένος ἔχομεν ἀληθές, νοῦς ἂν εἴη ἐπιστήμης ἀρχή. No explanation of νοῦς ἂν εἴη τῶν ἀρχῶν can be

right which fails to take account of a passage like the following— 1139 b. 20. *Απ. Post.* i. 18. 81 a. 38 φανερόν δὲ καὶ ὅτι, εἴ τις αἰσθησις ἐκλείπειν, ἀνάγκη καὶ ἐπιστήμην τινὰ ἐκλείπειναι, ἣν ἀδύνατον λαβεῖν, εἴπερ μαθηάσομεν ἢ ἐπαγωγῇ ἢ ἀποδείξει. ἔστι δ' ἢ μὲν ἀποδείξεις ἐκ τῶν καθόλου, ἢ δ' ἐπαγωγῇ ἐκ τῶν κατὰ μέρος· ἀδύνατον δὲ τὰ καθόλου θεωρῆσαι μὴ δι' ἐπαγωγῆς, ἐπεὶ καὶ τὰ ἐξ ἀφαιρέσεως λεγόμενα ἔσται δι' ἐπαγωγῆς γνώριμα ποιεῖν, ὅτι ὑπάρχει ἕκαστῳ γίνεσθαι ἓνα, καὶ εἰ μὴ χωριστά ἐστίν, ἢ τοιονδὶ ἕκαστον. ἐπαχθῆναι δὲ μὴ ἔχοντας αἰσθησιν ἀδύνατον. τῶν γὰρ καθ' ἕκαστον ἢ αἰσθησις· οὐ γὰρ ἐνδέχεται λαβεῖν αὐτῶν τὴν ἐπιστήμην· οὔτε γὰρ ἐκ τῶν καθόλου ἄνευ ἐπαγωγῆς, οὔτε δι' ἐπαγωγῆς ἄνευ τῆς αἰσθήσεως. See below, note on ch. 6. § 2, a. 7.

§ 4. ἔξις ἀποδεικτική, καὶ ὄσα ἄλλα προσδιορίζομεθα ἐν τοῖς ἀνα- b. 31. λυτικοῖς.] See *Απ. Post.* i. 2. 71 b. 9—a passage quoted above, § 2 note ἐπιστήμη, b. 18.

ὅταν γὰρ . . . ἔξει τὴν ἐπιστήμην.] Scientific knowledge is realising b. 33. a truth as the necessary consequence of premisses which are clearly known, *i.e.* more clearly known than the conclusion established by means of them: for if they were not more clearly known, how could the conclusion be established by means of them? It would be independent of them. It would be knowledge without proof—'accidental knowledge.' The language here resembles closely that of *Απ. Post.* i. 2. 72 a. 25—ἐπεὶ δὲ δεῖ πιστεύειν τε καὶ εἶδέναι τὸ πρῶμα τῷ τοιοῦτον ἔχειν συλλογισμόν ὃν καλοῦμεν ἀπόδειξιν, ἔστι δ' οὗτος τῷ τὰδ' εἶναι ἐξ ὧν ὁ συλλογισμός, ἀνάγκη μὴ μόνον προγινώσκειν τὰ πρῶτα, ἢ πάντα ἢ ἓνα, ἀλλὰ καὶ μᾶλλον· αἰ γὰρ δι' ὃ ὑπάρχει ἕκαστον, ἐκεῖνο μᾶλλον ὑπάρχει, οἷον δι' ὃ φιλοῦμεν, ἐκεῖνο φίλον μᾶλλον. ὥστ' εἴπερ ἴσμεν διὰ τὰ πρῶτα καὶ πιστεύομεν, κακεῖνα ἴσμεν τε καὶ πιστεύομεν μᾶλλον, ὅτι δι' ἐκεῖνα καὶ τὰ ὑστερον. οὐχ οἷόν τε δὲ πιστεύειν μᾶλλον ὧν οἶδεν, ἢ μὴ τυγχάνει μῆτε εἰδῶς μῆτε βέλτιον διακείμενος ἢ εἰ ἐτύχαιεν εἰδῶς. συμβήσεται δὲ τοῦτο, εἰ μὴ τις προγνώσεται τῶν δι' ἀπόδειξιν πιστευόντων· μᾶλλον γὰρ ἀνάγκη πιστεύειν ταῖς ἀρχαῖς ἢ πάσαις ἢ τισὶ τοῦ συμπεράσματος. τὸν δὲ μέλλοντα ἔξειν τὴν ἐπιστήμην τὴν δι' ἀποδείξεως οὐ μόνον δεῖ τὰς ἀρχὰς μᾶλλον γνωρίζειν καὶ μᾶλλον αὐταῖς πιστεύειν ἢ τῷ δεκνυμένῳ, ἀλλὰ μῆδ' ἄλλο αὐτῷ πιστότερον εἶναι μῆδὲ γνωριμώτερον τῶν ἀντικειμένων ταῖς ἀρχαῖς, ἐξ ὧν ἔσται συλλογισμός ὁ τῆς ἐναντίας ἀπάτης, εἴπερ δεῖ τὸν ἐπιστάμενον ἀπλῶς ἀμετάπειστον εἶναι.

CHAPTER IV.

ARGUMENT.

In the sphere of the contingent, or that which can be otherwise, making and doing are to be distinguished. The habit of reasoning truly, where the making of something is concerned, is Art. The artist sees how something, which may or may not be, shall be produced, the principle residing in himself, the maker, and not in the thing that is being made; for art is not concerned with things that exist or come into existence of necessity; nor is it concerned with the products of nature, for they have their principle in themselves. There is a sense in which chance and art are concerned with the same things. 'Art loves chance and chance loves art.' Art, then, is a habit of reasoning truly where something is being made (while the man who is without art reasons falsely), and operates in the sphere of the contingent.

- 1140 a. 2. § 2. ἕτερον] ποίησις is an ἐνέργεια ἀτελής—it has an ἔργον παρ' αὐτῆς: πρᾶξις is an ἐνέργεια which is its own τέλος: see notes on i. 1. 1, 2: cf. *M. M.* i. 34. 1197 a. 3 οὐ ταῦτὸ τὸ ποιητικὸν καὶ πρακτικόν. τῶν μὲν γὰρ ποιητικῶν ἐστὶ τι παρὰ τὴν ποίησιν ἄλλο τέλος, οἷον παρὰ τὴν οἰκοδομικήν, ἐπειδὴ ἐστὶν ποιητικὴ οἰκίας, οἰκία αὐτῆς τὸ τέλος παρὰ τὴν ποίησιν, ὁμοίως ἐπὶ τεκτονικῆς καὶ τῶν ἄλλων τῶν ποιητικῶν ἐπὶ δὲ τῶν πρακτικῶν οὐκ ἔστιν ἄλλο οὐθέν τέλος παρ' αὐτὴν τὴν πρᾶξιν, οἷον παρὰ τὸ καθαρίζειν οὐκ ἔστιν ἄλλο τέλος οὐθέν, ἀλλ' αὐτὸ τοῦτο τέλος, ἡ ἐνέργεια καὶ ἡ πρᾶξις.
- a. 3. ἑξωτερικοῖς λόγοις] See note on i. 13. 9. Eustrat. has—ἑξωτερικοῖς δ' ὀνομάζει λόγους οὐκ ἔξω τῆς λογικῆς παραδόσεως κοινῶς τὰ πλήθη φασί.
- ἡ μετὰ λόγου ἕξις] μετὰ λόγου is opposed to ἀλογος in *Mel. Θ.* 2. 1046 b. 2, and is really = λογικός, as that adjective is used by the later Aristotelians in the sense of 'rational.'
- a. 5. διὸ οὐδὲ περιέχεται ὑπ' ἀλλήλων] Ramsauer remarks that this is inconsistent with vi. 2. 5—αὕτη (ἡ πρακτικὴ) γὰρ καὶ τῆς ποιητικῆς ἀρχει, and thinks that the writer of the present chapter cannot have had ch. 2. § 5 before him.
- a. 7. § 8. ὅπερ] 'A logical formula implying identity or convertibility of terms' (Grant). Eustrat. *ad loc.* has—τὸ δὲ ὅπερ δηλοῦν κεῖται τὸ οὐσιαστικῶς κατηγορεῖσθαι τῆς οἰκοδομικῆς τὴν τέχνην, καὶ τὸν ὄρισμόν αὐτῆς· ὡς εἴ τις λέγει τὸν ἀνθρώπον τι ζῆον εἶναι, καὶ ὅπερ οὐσία τις ἔμψυχος

αἰσθητική· διὰ τὸ καὶ μέρος εἶναι τοῦ ζῆου τὸν ἄνθρωπον ὡς εἶδος εἰς γένος 1140 a. 7. τὸ ζῆον ἀναφερόμενον ἕκαστον γὰρ τῶν εἰδῶν ὅπερ τί ἐστὶ τὸ γένος αὐτοῦ τοῦ ὅπερ δηλοῦντος τὴν οὐσιώδη κατηγορίαν τοῦ γένους κατὰ τοῦ εἶδους· καὶ ὡς ταῦτόν ἐστὶν εἰπεῖν ὅπερ τί ζῆον εἶναι τὸν ἄνθρωπον, καὶ ὅπερ τινὰ οὐσίαν ἔμψυχον αἰσθητικὴν, οὕτω καὶ τὴν οἰκοδομικὴν ταῦτόν εἰπεῖν εἶναι τέχνην τινὰ, καὶ ὅπερ ἔξω τινὰ μετὰ λόγου ποιητικὴν, ὡς τοῦ ὄρου τούτου ἐξισάζοντος πρὸς τὴν τέχνην καὶ ἀντιστρέφοντος. See note on vii. 13. 1 ὅπερ, b. 6.

μετὰ λόγου ἀληθοῦς] Where we have τέχνη, as distinguished from a. 10. ἀτεχνία (see below, § 6), the calculation, or λόγος, which διάνοια ποιητική goes through, consists of ideas following one another in the *time* order—*i. e.* in the order of the steps which actually constitute 'the making' of the thing.

§ 4. περὶ γένεσιν] See *An. Post.* ii. 19. 100 a. 8 (τὸ καθόλου) τέχνης a. 11. ἀρχὴ καὶ ἐπιστήμη, εἴαν μὲν περὶ γένεσιν τέχνης, εἴαν δὲ περὶ τὸ ὄν, ἐπιστήμη. But φύσις is also περὶ γένεσιν: accordingly, to define the province of τέχνη, it is necessary to add—as the writer does here—ὄν ἢ ἀρχὴ ἐν τῷ ποιῶντι ἀλλὰ μὴ ἐν τῷ ποιουμένῳ: *cf.* *Met.* A. 3. 1070 a. 7 ἢ μὲν οὖν τέχνη ἀρχὴ ἐν ἄλλῳ, ἢ δὲ φύσις ἀρχὴ ἐν αὐτῷ: *Phys.* ii. 8. 199 b. 28 εἰ ἐπὶ ἐν τῷ ξύλῳ ἢ ναυπηγική, ὁμοίως ἂν φύσει ἐποίει. Eustratius has the following note here—ἔστι γὰρ ἰδεῖν καὶ τὴν φύσιν περὶ γένεσιν ἐνεργοῦσαν, ἀλλ' ἢ μὲν φύσις ἐντὸς οὐσα καὶ διὰ τῶν σωμάτων χωροῦσα οὕτως ἐν αὐτοῖς ἐνεργεῖ, ἢ δὲ τέχνη οὐκ ἐντὸς οὐσα ἀλλ' ἐκτὸς τῶν σωμάτων περὶ ἃ καταγίνεται, οὕτως ἐν αὐτοῖς ἐνεργεῖ, καὶ οὕτως αὐτοῖς τὰ τεχνητὰ εἶδη ἐντίθησιν· ἐκτὸς γὰρ ἢ ἀνδριανοποιητικὴ τοῦ χαλκοῦ, καὶ ἢ τεκτονικὴ τοῦ ξύλου· ἐν τοῖς τεχνίταις δ' οὐσαι καὶ ἀμφω, οὕτω κινουσι τὰ ὑποκείμενα, διὸ καὶ ἐκτὸς αὐτῶν κατὰ τὴν ἐπιφάνειαν τὰ εἶδη περιτιθέασιν.

καὶ τὸ τεχνάζειν καὶ θεωρεῖν] Bek.², Fritzsche, Rams., and Susem., following Muretus, bracket the second καί. Muretus says: 'deleo καί, ubi enim docuit quid sit τέχνη, statim addit quid sit τεχνάζειν.'

§ 5. ἐπεὶ δὲ ποίησις . . . πράξεως εἶναι] Rassow (*Forsch.* p. 43) a. 16. brackets this sentence as an interpolation.

καὶ τρόπον τινὰ περὶ τὰ αὐτὰ ἐστὶν ἢ τύχη καὶ ἢ τέχνη] τύχη and a. 17. πράξις (ποίησις or τέχνη being included under πράξις, see *E. N.* vi. 2. 5) operate in the same sphere, viz. in that of τὰ κατὰ προαίρεσιν γυγνόμενα ἐνεκά του (see *Phys.* ii. 5. 196 b. 18). Where a man uses his intelligence to *do* or *make* something, he generally succeeds—*i. e.* the result which follows is caused by him. But sometimes a result (good or bad) which he did not contemplate makes its appearance.

1140 a. 17. Of this Chance is the cause. He ploughs in order to raise a crop, and he turns up a treasure—'by chance': see *Phys.* ii. 5. 197 a. 5 δῆλον ἄρα ὅτι ἡ τύχη αἰτία κατὰ συμβεβηκὸς ἐν τοῖς κατὰ προαίρεσιν τῶν ἐνεκά του. διὸ περὶ τὸ αὐτὸ διάνοια καὶ τύχη· ἡ γὰρ προαίρεσις οὐκ ἄνευ διανοίας: ii. 6. 197 b. 1 ἡ μὲν γὰρ τύχη καὶ τὸ ἀπὸ τύχης ἐστὶν ὅσοις καὶ τὸ εὐτυχεῖν ἂν ὑπάρξειεν καὶ ὅλως πρᾶξις. διὸ καὶ ἀνάγκη περὶ τὰ πρακτὰ εἶναι τὴν τύχην· σημεῖον δ' ὅτι δοκεῖ ἦτοι ταύτων εἶναι τῇ εὐδαιμονίᾳ ἢ εὐτυχίᾳ ἢ ἐγγύς, ἢ δ' εὐδαιμονία πρᾶξις τις· εὐπραξία γάρ. ὥσθ' ὅπόσοις μὴ ἐνδέχεται πρᾶξαι, οὐδὲ τὸ ἀπὸ τύχης τι ποιῆσαι. καὶ διὰ τοῦτο οὔτε ἄψυχον οὐδὲν οὔτε θηρίον οὔτε παιδίον οὐδὲν ποιεῖ ἀπὸ τύχης, ὅτι οὐκ ἔχει προαίρεσιν· οὐδ' εὐτυχία οὐδ' ἀτυχία ὑπάρχει τούτοις, εἰ μὴ καθ' ὁμοιότητα. Τύχη and πρᾶξις (the latter including ποίησις) are thus περὶ τὰ αὐτά, τύχη operating irregularly to produce or frustrate results which πρᾶξις produces regularly. There is a special sense, however, in which τύχη and τέχνη (τέχνη being distinguished from πρᾶξις) may be said to be περὶ τὰ αὐτά. Τύχη seems to cooperate with and favour (ἔστερξει) τέχνη, as it does not favour πρᾶξις. This is because πρᾶξις is a more perfect expression of reason, or the organising principle, than τέχνη. Πρᾶξις is the realisation of the rational personality itself. But τέχνη realises its good in an external ἔργον, and the εἶδος which it imposes on ὕλη is only a surface form—very different from the forms, penetrating to the very heart of the ὕλη, which φύσις and ἀρετή produce (cf. *E.N.* ii. 6. 9 ἡ δ' ἀρετή πάσης τέχνης ἀκριβεστέρα καὶ ἀμείνων ἐστὶν ὥσπερ καὶ ἡ φύσις: *Met.* Δ. 3. 1070 a. 7 ἡ μὲν οὖν τέχνη ἀρχὴ ἐν ἄλλῳ, ἡ δὲ φύσις ἀρχὴ ἐν αὐτῷ). Τέχνη is a weak principle which cannot succeed unless the underlying ὕλη—the element of irrationality and accident—be favourable. Thus its greatest triumphs are often unexpected. The exigency of a rhyme suggests a beautiful turn of thought; 'a mere accident' gives the world a great mechanical invention. But though, for this reason, τέχνη owes more to τύχη than πρᾶξις does, we must not forget that the highest πρᾶξις—εὐδαιμονία, needs εὐτυχία, and that the fundamental πρᾶξις—the physical life of plant and animal—is often most vigorous when some 'accidental' variation has given a new direction to inherited tendency.

- a. 21. § 6. ἡ δ' ἀτεχνία τοῦναντίον μετὰ λόγου ψευδοῦς ποιητικὴ ἔξις] When the unskilful man tries to make something, he realises the steps of the operation 'falsely.' He goes to work 'in the wrong way.'

CHAPTER V.

ARGUMENT.

Prudence comes next: in order to understand what it is, let us look at the characteristics of the people who are deemed prudent. It would appear to be characteristic of the prudent man to be able to deliberate well about the things that are good and expedient for himself, not in the narrow sense of good for health or strength, but in the general sense of good for the life of the noble citizen. Now no man deliberates about things which are necessarily what they are, nor about things which it is not in his own power to do. Accordingly prudence will not be science, or art—not science, because its object—that which is done—is contingent; not art, because making and doing are generically distinct. It remains, then, that prudence is the faculty of reasoning truly where something is being done, its sphere being that of man's good and evil. The end of doing is not something different from the doing; it is well-doing; whereas the end of making is something different from the process of making. Pericles may be taken as an example of the prudent man, as popularly understood—the man who has the faculty of seeing what is good for himself and for others in the State and the family. Hence τοὺς σωφροσύνη gets its name ἀπὸ τοῦ σφίσειν τὴν φρόνησιν, because it 'preserves' a man's conception of what is good—a conception, or principle, which differs from a scientific conception, or principle, in being distorted and vitiated by pleasure and pain—for in conduct the end aimed at is the principle, and the man who has been vitiated by pleasure or pain is, because so vitiated, blind to the good end. Prudence, then, is a rational habit, which forms true conceptions about what is good for man, and issues in moral action. It is a virtue or excellence, not an art; for we speak of excellence in art, but not of excellence in prudence; and in art voluntary error is better than involuntary, whereas in the sphere of prudence and of the moral virtues voluntary error is worse. It is the excellence of that division of the rational part of the soul, which forms opinions, or deals with probabilities. But it is not merely a rational habit: for a merely rational habit may be lost; but prudence is never lost.

§ 1.] From hence onwards the Sixth Book may be thought to 1140 a. 24. justify better its place in an Ethical Treatise. It will now be concerned mainly with Reason as 'the Moral Faculty': but see note on ch. 1. §§ 1-4.

περὶ δὲ φρονήσεως] Grant has an important note here, in which he traces the history of the doctrine of φρόνησις down to the form which it takes in this Book:—'Plato (*Phaedo* 79 D) identified the

1140 a. 24. moral consciousness with philosophy'—*i. e.* he made φρόνησις identical with σοφία—'With Aristotle φρόνησις was gradually coming to assume its distinctive meaning, as practical wisdom,' being described in the *Politics* Γ. 2. 1277 b. 25 as 'the only virtue properly belonging to a ruler'—*i. e.* as 'practical wisdom, but in a broad general sense with reference to state affairs rather than to individual life': while 'in the present Book we have the Eudemian exposition and development of Aristotle's theory, which entirely contrasts φρόνησις with σοφία, and limits the former to the regulation of individual life.' See also Grant's *Ethics*, Essay iii. vol. i. p. 194. I cannot agree with Grant that in this Book φρόνησις is limited to the regulation of individual life; nor do I think that in the *Politics* it is denied to the individual as managing for himself his own private affairs—(if this is the import of Grant's remark, quoted above, on its place in the *Politics*), but only to the individual, *quod ἀρχόμενος*. We shall have opportunities, however, of returning to these points in subsequent notes.

θεωρήσαντες τίνες λέγομεν τοὺς φρονίμους] For this method of enquiry Fritzsche compares *E. N.* iv. 3. 2 διαφέρει δ' οὐθὲν τὴν ἔξω ἢ τὸν κατὰ τὴν ἔξω σκυπεῖν.

a. 28. πρὸς τὸ εὖ [ἦν ὄλως] *Cf.* *E. N.* vi. 9. 7 πρὸς τὸ τέλος τὸ ἀπλῶς. Bekker omits ὄλως with K^b. All other MSS. read it (or ὄλον). As I have had occasion to remark before, the omissions of K^b count for little; and Kassow (*Forsch.* p. 62) is undoubtedly right when he says—'ὄλως, das kaum entbehrlich ist, hätte Bekker meiner Ansicht nach aufnehmen sollen. Vgl. p. 1141 a. 12 εἶναι δὲ τινες σοφοὺς οἰόμεθα ὄλως, οὐ κατὰ μέρος, οὐδ' ἄλλο τι σοφοῦς.'

a. 30. § 2. ὦν μὴ ἐστὶ τέχνη], because τέχνη is concerned with ποίησις, not with πράξις.

a. 31. § 3. βουλευέται δ' οὐθείς κ.τ.λ.] See *E. N.* iii. 3.

a. 33. μετ' ἀποδείξεως] See note on ch. 3. § 2 ἐπιστήμη, b. 18.

ὦν δ' αἱ ἀρχαὶ ἐνδέχονται ἄλλως ἔχειν, τούτων μὴ ἐστὶν ἀπόδειξις] See *An. Post.* i. 4. 73 a. 21 ἐπεὶ δ' ἀδύνατον ἄλλως ἔχειν οὐ ἐστὶν ἐπιστήμη ἀπλῶς, ἀναγκαῖον ἂν εἴη τὸ ἐπιστητὸν τὸ κατὰ τὴν ἀποδεικτικὴν ἐπιστήμην. ἀποδεικτικὴ δ' ἐστὶν ἢ ἔχομεν τῇ ἔχειν ἀπόδειξιν εἰς ἀναγκαῖων ἄρα συλλογισμὸς ἐστὶν ἢ ἀπόδειξις.

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1140 b. 4. are contrasted in a continuous passage; and (3) the statement ἀλλὰ μὴν οὐδ' ἕξις μετὰ λόγου μόνον, with the σημείον—ὅτι λήθη φρονήσεως οὐκ ἔστι, is brought into close connexion with the passage which explains the function of the *moral* ἕξις, σωφροσύνη, in 'preserving' the ἀληθῆς ὑπόληψις of the *intellect* περὶ τὰ ἀνθρώπινα ἀγαθὰ. This rearrangement professes merely to make §§ 4–8 read more evenly. About the causes of their present unevenness—omissions, interpolations, transpositions, or double versions—I forbear to speculate.

b. 5. § 4. ἕξιν ἀληθῆ] Kassow (*Forsch.* pp. 44, 45) calls attention to this strange conjunction. The definition of τέχνη at the end of ch. 4 is ἕξις τις μετὰ λόγου ἀληθοῦς ποιητική: so we ought to have here ἕξιν μετὰ λόγου ἀληθοῦς πρακτικήν. In § 6, however, ἀληθοῦς is supported by good authority (Γ) and ought, I believe, to be read. The definition given here in § 4, with its καὶ κακά (an addition supported neither by § 1, nor by § 5¹), and its ἀληθῆ placed where ἀληθοῦς would be unnatural, seems to be a late interpolation due to some one who thought proper to show that φρόνησις is a ἕξις μετὰ λόγου ἧς οὐκ ἔστι λήθη, by defining it as a ἕξις ἀ—ληθῆς μετὰ λόγου.

b. 6. ἕτερον τὸ τέλος] See *M. M.* i. 34. 1197 a. 4, quoted above in note on vi. 4. 2. 1140 a. 2.

b. 7. οὐκ ἂν εἶη] The corruption οὐκ ἀεί is given by M^b and accepted by Eustratius and Michelet, who explain that there are some πράξεις or πρακτικαὶ τέχναι with ends which, though not ἔργα like the ends of the ποιητικὰ τέχναι, are still subservient to higher ends—as, e. g. the immediate end of riding is subordinate to victory.

b. 8. § 5. Περικλέα] Surely this is against Grant's view (note on vi. 5. 1 quoted above *ad loc.*) that the developed theory of the Sixth Book 'limits φρόνησις to the regulation of individual life.' Indeed, in his note on the present §, Grant refers us to his note on ch. 8. § 1, which treats of 'the connection established by Eudemus between thought (*i. e.* φρόνησις) for the individual, for the family, and for the state.'

b. 10. οἰκονομικούς] CCC has the strange blunder οἰκουμεικούς.

¹ In *Rhet.* i. 9. 1366 b. 20 however we have—φρόνησις δ' ἐστὶν ἀρετὴ διανοίας, καθ' ἣν εὖ βουλευέσθαι δύνανται περὶ ἀγαθῶν καὶ κακῶν τῶν εἰρημένων εἰς εὐδαιμονίαν.

τὴν σωφροσύνην . . . ὡς σφίλουσαν τὴν φρόνησιν] The editors quote 1140 b. 11. Plato, *Cratylus* 411 E σωφροσύνη δὲ σωτηρία οὐ νῦν δὴ ἐσκέμμεθα, φρονήσεως.

§ θ. τὴν τοιαύτην ὑπόληψιν] τὴν περὶ τὰ ἀνθρώπων ἀγαθὰ καταγινόμενῃ ἢ τὰ κακὰ (Eustratius). Pleasure and pain are the influences which interfere with the maintenance of that moral balance of which φρόνησις is the consciousness. Σωφροσύνη, then, being the maintenance of the balance, *and* endangered by the most pressing pleasures and pains, will 'preserve' φρόνησις in a special manner. The wide Platonic conception of σωφροσύνη, however, as the ὁμόνοια of all the parts of the soul, seems also to be present to the writer's mind here, as well as the narrower Aristotelian conception of it as μεσότης περὶ σωματικῆς ἡδονᾶς καὶ λύπας. Cf. with the doctrine of this passage that of *E. N.* i. 3—that the man whose πάθη are not under moral control does not 'know' what is right and what is wrong, and that therefore (since πᾶσα διδασκαλία καὶ πᾶσα μάθησις διανοητικὴ ἐκ προϋπαρχούσης γίνεται γνώσεως) we must not begin to train him by the way of the intellect—τῆς πολιτικῆς οὐκ ἔστιν οἰκείος ἀκρατῆς ὁ νῖος· ἀπειρος γὰρ τῶν κατὰ τὸν βίον πράξεων . . . ἔτι δὲ τοῖς πάθεσιν ἀκολουθητικὸς ὧν ματαίως ἀκούσεται καὶ ἀνωφελῶς . . . τοῖς τοιούτοις (i. e. τοῖς κατὰ πάθος ζῶσιν) ἀνόνητος ἢ γνώσις γίνεται, καθάπερ τοῖς ἀκρατέσιν· τοῖς δὲ κατὰ λόγον τὰς ὀρέξεις ποιουμένοις καὶ πράττουσι πολυωφελῆς ἂν εἴη τὸ περὶ τούτων εἰδέναι—*E. N.* i. 3. §§ 5–7. It is only the 'good man' who is φρόνιμος, because the 'knowledge' in virtue of which a man is called φρόνιμος is knowledge conducive to right action—knowledge *upon which a man is prepared to act*. The 'knowledge' with which the ἀκρατῆς is credited is only formally 'knowledge':—οὐ τῷ εἰδέναι μόνον φρόνιμος ἀλλὰ καὶ τῷ πρακτικῷ· ὁ δ' ἀκρατῆς οὐ πρακτικός (*E. N.* vii. 10. 2). But knowledge which does not call for action—ὅλον ὅτι τὸ τρίγωνον κ.τ.λ.—is accessible to good and bad men indifferently. In short, knowledge of an environment we ascribe only to the being which corresponds with that environment:—ὁ σπουδαῖος ἕκαστα κρίνει ὀρθῶς, καὶ ἐν ἑκάστοις ταλῆθῆς αὐτῷ φαίνεται (*E. N.* iii. 4. 4).

δύο ὀρθάς] *sc.* γωνίας.

b. 15.

αἱ μὲν γὰρ ἀρχαί κ.τ.λ.] *cf.* *E. N.* vi. 12. 10 οἱ γὰρ συλλογισμοὶ τῶν πρακτῶν ἀρχὴν ἔχοντες εἰσιν, ἐπειδὴ τοιούδε τὸ τέλος καὶ τὸ ἀριστον, ὅτιδήποτε ὦν (ἔστω γὰρ λόγου χάριν τὸ τυχόν): τοῦτο δ' εἰ μὴ τῷ ἀγαθῷ, οὐ

b. 16.

1140 b. 16. φαίνεται· διαστρέφει γὰρ ἡ μοχθηρία καὶ διαψεύδεται ποιῆ περὶ τὰς πρακτικὰς ἀρχάς. ὥστε φανερόν ὅτι ἀδύνατον φρόνιμον εἶναι μὴ ὄντα ἀγαθόν.

b. 22. § 7. τέχνης μὲν ἔστιν ἀρετὴ, φρονήσεως δ' οὐκ ἔστιν] The Paragraph. Heliodorus has—τῆς μὲν τέχνης ἔστι καὶ κακία καὶ ἀρετὴ· καὶ γὰρ δυνατόν καὶ ἀγαθόν εἶναι τεχνίτην καὶ πονηρόν· φρονήσεως δὲ οὔτε κακία ἔστιν (ἀδύνατον γὰρ φρόνιμον τινα φαῦλον εἶναι) οὔτε ἀρετὴ. αὐτὴ γὰρ ἔστιν ἀρετὴ· ἀρετὴ δὲ ἀρετῆς οὐκ ἔστιν, οὐ γὰρ μεσότης μεσότητος: cf. *M. M.* i. 34. 1197 a. 16 ἔστιν δ' ἡ φρόνησις ἀρετὴ, ὡς δόξειεν ἂν, οὐκ ἐπιστήμη (= τέχνη here). ἐπαινετοὶ γὰρ εἰσιν οἱ φρόνιμοι, ὁ δ' ἔπαινος ἀρετῆς. ἔτι δ' ἐπιστήμης μὲν πάσης ἀρετὴ ἔστιν, φρονήσεως δὲ ἀρετὴ οὐκ ἔστιν, ἀλλ' ὡς ἔοικεν, αὐτό τί ἐστιν ἀρετὴ.

καὶ ἐν μὲν τέχνῃ ὁ ἐκὼν . . . περὶ τὰς ἀρετάς] The editors refer to *Met. Δ.* 29. 1025 a. 6, where the paradox τὸν ἐκὼντα φαῦλον βελτίω, maintained in *Hipp. Min.* 373 C, is criticised. The Aristotelians seem to miss Plato's point when he says that it is better to do injustice voluntarily than to do it involuntarily. They tell him 'that the analogy of the arts does not apply to the virtues. The man who voluntarily spells incorrectly is indeed a better *speller* than the man who involuntarily spells incorrectly (see *Xen. Mem.* iv. 2. 20 πότερον δὲ γραμματικώτερον κρίνεις δεῖν ἂν ἐκὼν μὴ ὀρθῶς γράφῃ καὶ ἀναγιγνώσκῃ, ἢ δεῖν ἄκων; δεῖν ἂν ἐκὼν); but voluntarily to keep back money one owes is worse than to do so unwittingly.' Surely Plato did not wish to dispute this truth. Voluntarily to keep back money, he would say, is worse, because it indicates 'ignorance in the soul' (*Rep.* 382 B) in the sense of a bad character, just as involuntarily to spell incorrectly is worse, because it indicates 'ignorance in the soul' in the sense of defective education or stupidity. But Plato put this paradoxically; he said that to do wrong voluntarily is better than to do so involuntarily. The Aristotelians, it would appear, either could not, or would not see that by 'involuntarily' he meant, not 'in consequence of an accidental oversight,' but 'in consequence of moral blindness, or ignorance in the soul.' His language is of course rather misleading; but he could not have really misled Aristotle. Aristotle must have seen that Plato was only making the distinction marked by the ἀγνοια ἢ καθ' ἕκαστα and the ἀγνοια ἢ καθόλου of *E. N.* iii. 1. 15.

b. 28. § 8. δοξαστικῶν] = λογιστικῶν of *E. N.* vi. 1. 6. Rassow (*Forsch.* pp. 43, 44) finds the employment of δοξαστικῶν for λογιστικῶν incon-

sistent with the manner in which δόξα is conceived, not only in 1140 b. 26. other parts of the *E. N.*, but in this Book. In this Book it is βουλευέσθαι, and not δοξάζειν, which is characteristic of the φρόνιμος: and the wide difference between δόξα and βουλή is seen in the chapter on εὐβουλία (vi. 9), where—1142 b. 13. § 3—it is said καὶ γὰρ ἡ δόξα οὐ ζήτησις ἀλλὰ φάσις τις ἤδη, ὃ δὲ βουλευόμενος, εἴαν τε εὖ εἴαν τε καὶ κακῶς βουλευῆται, ζητεῖ τι καὶ λογίζεται. Further, to prove that φρόνησις is the ἀρετὴ of the δοξαστικὸν μέρος, the writer of vi. 5. 8 adds—ἡ τε γὰρ δόξα περὶ τὸ ἐνδεχόμενον ἄλλως ἔχειν καὶ ἡ φρόνησις: but this is inconsistent (Rassow thinks) with *E. N.* iii. 2. 10. 1111 b. 31 ἡ μὲν γὰρ δόξα δοκεῖ περὶ πάντα εἶναι, καὶ οὐδὲν ἦγον περὶ τὰ αἰδία καὶ τὰ ἰδύνατα ἢ τὰ ἐφ' ἡμῖν. The term δοξαστικὸν for λογιστικὸν occurs again in this Book 1144 b. 14. vi. 13. 2, in a context, however, which Rassow suspects to be of later origin. I cannot attach much weight to Rassow's difficulties. It is true that the *Index Arist.* gives the term δοξαστικὸν = λογιστικὸν as occurring only in these two places in the Aristotelian Corpus; but it must be remembered that in vi. 10. 3 we find σύμψις defined as consisting ἐν τῷ χρῆσθαι τῇ δόξῃ ἐπὶ τὸ κρίνειν περὶ τούτων περὶ ὧν ἡ φρόνησις ἐστίν, and that τὸ δοξαστικόν—'the probable'—is the regular Aristotelian opposite of τὸ ἐπιστητὸν: nor must we forget that the premisses of the Practical Syllogism are generally described as δόξαι (e. g. vii. 3. 9). All this makes me think that Rassow goes too far when he accepts the occurrence of δοξαστικὸν = λογιστικὸν here and in vi. 13. 2 as evidence for the interpolation of the respective contexts. It seems to me quite natural that the writer of vi. 1. 6 should happen to substitute δοξαστικὸν here and in vi. 13. 2 for λογιστικὸν. With regard to Rassow's difficulty about the consistency of δοξαστικὸν = λογιστικὸν with *E. N.* iii. 2. 10—surely that passage does not mean that τὸ δοξαστικόν as such is ever τὸ αἰδίων: it surely means only that, although 'probable matter' is the proper object of δόξα as distinguished from ἐπιστήμη, yet people are ready enough to trespass into the region of 'necessary truth' with their 'unscientific opinions'—to offer 'opinions' about what ought not to be matter of opinion at all, but of 'scientific knowledge.' Lastly, as regards Rassow's difficulty in connexion with *E. N.* vi. 9. 3. 1142 b. 13—it is true that δόξα (i. e. an opinion) is φάσις τις, and βούλευσις is ζήτησις: but this does not imply that τὸ δοξαστικὸν μέρος συμβαλλόμενον ταῖς δόξαις is not a faculty of ζήτησις.

σημείον δ' ὅτι λήθη κ.τ.λ.] See note on vi. 3. 1. 1139 b. 17.

b. 28.

CHAPTER VI.

ARGUMENT.

Since scientific knowledge is knowledge derived by a discursive process from necessary principles, the derivation of these principles themselves cannot be discursive: they cannot be scientifically demonstrated: nor can they be produced in the mind by the operation of the making faculty, nor yet by that of the faculty of prudence—for they are necessary principles, and art and prudence have to do with contingencies: nor again can we say that Wisdom or Philosophy gives us the principles of demonstrated or scientific knowledge: this would be too general a statement, for the philosopher does not merely apprehend principles, but draws conclusions from principles. Accordingly, in our list of the faculties by which, or ways in which, certain truth is always attained—Science, Prudence, Wisdom, and Reason—Reason only remains as the faculty by which we obtain first principles.

The argument of this chapter, as the editors note, is borrowed from *An. Post.* ii. 19. 100 b. 5, quoted in note on vi. 3. 3 b. 29.

1140 b. 31. § 1. *περὶ τῶν καθόλου ἐστὶν ὑπόληψις] ἀποδεικτικὴ ἐπιστήμη*, with which, as distinguished from *νοῦς*, the present argument has to do, is *ὑπόληψις περὶ τῶν ἐκ τῶν καθόλου*—see *E. N.* vi. 3. 3 ὁ δὲ συλλογισμὸς ἐκ τῶν καθόλου. These demonstrated truths are of course themselves *καθόλου καὶ ἀναγκαῖα*, but it is awkward to begin a chapter, intended to present the distinction between *ἐπιστήμη* and *νοῦς*, with words ascribing to the former a characteristic (*τὸ περὶ τῶν καθόλου ὑπόληψιν εἶναι*) which it shares with the latter. The *ὑπόληψις* of the present passage is *ἡ διὰ συλλογισμοῦ* of *An. Post.* i. 16. 79 b. 29: see note on vi. 3. 1. 1139 b. 17 *ὑπολήψει*.

b. 33. *μετὰ λόγου] Cf. An. Post.* ii. 19. 100 a. 10 *ἐπιστήμη δ' ἅπασα μετὰ λόγου ἐστὶ*. *Λόγος* is here = *συλλογισμὸς*, as again in *E. N.* vi. 8. 9 ὁ μὲν γὰρ νοῦς τῶν ὄντων, ὃν οὐκ ἔστι λόγος, and vi. 11. 4 τῶν ἐσχάτων νοῦς ἐστὶ καὶ οὐ λόγος.

τῆς ἀρχῆς τοῦ ἐπιστητοῦ οὐτ' ἂν ἐπιστήμη εἴη] i. e. ἀποδεικτικὴ ἐπιστήμη (with which alone the present argument is concerned—*τὸ μὲν γὰρ ἐπιστητὸν ἀποδεικτόν*), for there is an *ἀναπόδεικτος ἐπιστήμη* which gives *ἀρχαί*: see *An. Post.* i. 3. 72 b. 18 *ἡμεῖς δὲ φάμεν οὐτ' ἅσάν ἐπιστήμην ἀποδεικτικὴν εἶναι, ἀλλὰ τὴν τῶν ἀμέσων ἀναπόδεικτον*.

τοῦ γὰρ σοφοῦ περὶ ἐνίων εἶχει ἀπόδειξιν εἶναι] *i. e.* the σοφός is the 1141 a. 2. comprehensive genius who grasps scientific principles, and reasons from them; as explained in chapter 7. § 3. Σοφία is not *exclusively* τῶν ἀρχῶν. We have to find the faculty which has to do with them exclusively.

§ 2.] Why is τέχνη omitted from this list, after having been a. 3. included in that given in chapter 3. § 1? Is it because τέχνη has been shown in chapter 5 to be a εἴς τις ἢς ἔστι λήθη? Or does ἐπιστήμη here include τέχνη? Or have we the lists of two different writers?

λείπεται νοῦν εἶναι τῶν ἀρχῶν] Grant says—'In following im- a. 7. plicitly the passage above cited (*An. Post.* ii. 19. 100 b. 5-15, which is to the effect that νοῦς δὲ εἶη τῶν ἀρχῶν), Eudemus has ignored for the time the earlier part of the same chapter, in which Aristotle attributes the origin of universals rather to induction (*Post. An.* ii. 19. 100 b. 3). Also he is at variance with his own statement above ch. 3. § 3.' I have pointed out in my note on ch. 3. § 3 1139 b. 29 that ἐπαγωγή ἀρχή ἐστὶ καὶ τοῦ καθόλου and λείπεται νοῦν εἶναι τῶν ἀρχῶν can scarcely be inconsistent statements in the Sixth Book of the *Ethics*, when Aristotle himself in the *An. Post.* makes them both in the same context (*An. Post.* ii. 19 from 100 b. 3 to end of the chapter). There is no inconsistency in saying at once that νοῦς gives ἀρχαί, and that ἐπαγωγή gives ἀρχαί, because νοῦς, as distinguished from αἴσθησις, is the faculty which man, as rational being, possesses of taking notice of that which is common in a number of particulars presented; and ἐπαγωγή is the process in which the particulars are presented.

CHAPTER VII.

ARGUMENT.

*When we speak of the Wisdom (σοφία) of a great artist like Phidias, we mean by 'Wisdom' nothing but excellence in the particular art. * * * 'Wisdom' is, in short, the most perfect of the sciences or arts: accordingly, if a man is 'wise,' i. e. knows 'perfectly,' he will know not only scientific results but principles: 'Wisdom' is therefore Science crowned, as it were, with Reason—knowledge of results, and grasp of principles, in the highest sphere.*

It would be absurd to make practical knowledge higher than speculative knowledge, unless Man were the highest object of knowledge in the universe.

The objects of practical knowledge or Prudence, like the conditions of health, vary: but the absolute truth, which 'Wisdom' or philosophy apprehends, may be compared to 'White' or 'Straight,' which is always the same. There are as many different kinds of Prudence, as there are classes of men (perhaps we ought to say, of animals) capable of seeing to their own different interests. It is plain, then, that we cannot identify Prudence and Wisdom without falling into the contradiction of 'many kinds of Wisdom—many kinds of Absolute Truth.' But perhaps it may be argued—Man is so far exalted above other creatures, that we may regard his peculiar human good as a thing sui generis and unique—as the best thing in the universe, an absolute to be apprehended by the highest faculty, the faculty of 'Wisdom.' To this it must be replied, that man is not highest in the universe: the nature of the Heavenly Spheres is more divine than human nature. If the knowledge of man's peculiar human good be 'Wisdom,' there will be 'another kind of Wisdom,' concerned with the good which is more divine than man's: but 'another kind of Wisdom—another kind of Absolute Truth' is a contradiction in terms. There is only one 'Wisdom'—the exercise of the understanding and the reason in relation to the ultimate Truth. Indeed, popular opinion recognises clearly enough the distinction between the spheres of 'Wisdom' and 'Prudence.' Anaxagoras and Thales are held to be 'wise men'—'philosophers' with the knowledge of things high and wonderful, but ignorant of the useful truths of daily life which Prudence perceives.

Prudence is concerned with man's peculiar human good in so far as that good can be made object of deliberation. Indeed, deliberating well is the distinguishing function of the prudent man. No man deliberates about things which are necessarily what they are, and cannot be changed, or about things which have no reference to a practical end. The man who 'deliberates well,' in the strict sense of the expression, is he whose calculation enables him to hit the highest and best mark which man can aim at—to realise as perfectly as may be the ideal of the life of noble action. But Prudence has to do, not merely with the ideal, or universal, but also with particulars. Prudence is a habit which results in action, and action is concerned with particular things to be done: these particular things to be done, therefore, the prudent man must know as well as the ideal. The analogy of an art like that of the physician shows us how important the knowledge of particulars is: an empiric knowledge is more useful than mere theory, without experience—it is better to know that 'chicken's flesh is digestible,' than to know generally that 'all light flesh is digestible,' and nothing more.

Since Prudence, then, is not mere theoretical knowledge, but knowledge for the sake of moral action, and since moral action involves an end or ideal for the sake of which particular things are done, to be prudent a man must know both the universal and the particulars: at any rate the particulars. But when we say—'at any rate the particulars,' let us remember that even in what seems to be knowledge of mere particulars there must always be present some consciousness of the 'plan' which the particulars subserve.

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1141 a. 9. το ἐνταῦθα μὲν in § 1, l. 11), conjectures that the quotation from the *Margites* was followed by a clause containing illustrations of the ascription of σοφία το οἱ ἀκριβέστατοι τὰς ἐπιστήμας, as distinguished from οἱ ἀκριβ. τὰς τέχνας. As the text now stands, the argument conducting to ὥστε δῆλον l. 16 is, he thinks, defective. It is possible that something has fallen out before ὥστε δῆλον, but the anacoluthia noted by Ramsauer need not be regarded as pointing to such a supposition: δέ often answers to τε in Aristotle and the best writers (see Eucken *de Arist. dicendi ratione*: pars prima, *de particularum usu*, pp. 16, 17, and Fritzsche on *E. N.* viii. 14. 1 and ix. 11. 1), and εἶναι δέ τινας, though answering, so far as regular form is concerned, to the nearer ἐνταῦθα μὲν, may well answer also, per anacoluthiam, to ἐν τε ταῖς τέχναις τοῖς ἀκριβεστάτοις τὰς τέχνας (to which indeed ἐνταῦθα μὲν relates). The two facts—that σοφία is ascribed both (τε) to those who are perfect in some art, and (δέ) to those who are capable in the general sense (ὅλως), seem to me to be sufficient to warrant the conclusion ὥστε δῆλον ὅτι ἀκριβεστάτη ἀν τῶν ἐπιστημῶν εἷη ἡ σοφία.

An examination of the articles σοφία and σοφός in *Liddell and Scott* shows (1) that any one who excelled his fellows as a carpenter, charioteer, pilot, soothsayer, sculptor, and especially as a poet or musician, was called σοφός: (2) that a man with natural abilities was distinguished as σοφός from ὁ μαθών who owes all to teaching: (3) that σοφός was applied like φρόνιμος to the man who was wise in matters of common life—e.g. the seven sages were called σοφοί: and (4) that the application of the term was restricted by the philosophers to those who were skilled in the sciences, learned, profound, wise.

ἀκριβεστάτοις] On ἀκρίβεια, see note on i. 7. 18; also Grant's note on that §.

a. 10. οἶον Φειδίαν] 'sc. λέγοντες: quod e verbo ἀποδίδομεν elici potest.' Rams.

a. 13. § 2. σοφοὺς οἰόμεθα ὅλως οὐ κατὰ μέρος] Of course, if these are (as is generally assumed) σοφοί *par excellence*—philosophers like Thales and Anaxagoras, and not merely men of brilliant general ability and culture, the conclusion ὥστε δῆλον κ.τ.λ. follows easily enough.

a. 14. ὥσπερ Ὅμηρός φησιν] The quotation merely gives illustrations

of ἡ κατὰ μέρος σοφία, and throws no light on the conception of the 1141 a. 14. σοφὸς ὄλος.

ἐν τῷ Μαργίτη] In *Poet.* 4. 1448 b. 30 and 38 Aristotle ascribes the *Margites* to Homer, and says that it bears the same relation to comedy that the *Iliad* and *Odyssey* do to tragedy.

οὐτ' ἄλλως τι σοφόν] The editors refer to Clem. Alex. *Strom.* i. a. 10. 281 (221), who completes the line with πάσης δ' ἡμάρτανε τέχνης.

ὥστε δῆλον κ.τ.λ.] The argument is (1) that, because σοφία is ascribed τοῖς ἀκριβεστάτοις, it is itself ἀκριβεστάτη, and (2) that it is ἀκριβεστάτη τῶν ἐπιστημῶν—because, as ἀκριβεστάτη, concerned, not only with τὰ ἐκ τῶν ἀρχῶν, but with ἀρχαί, and, in its highest form, with the ultimate ἀρχαί of all ἐπιστήμαι, with τὰ τιμιώτατα τῇ φύσει: see *An. Post.* i. 27. 87 a. 31, where a science which has in itself both the ὄτι and the διότι is said to be ἀκριβεστέρα than one which has to borrow its διότι.

§ 8.] Cf. *M. M.* i. 34. 1197 a. 20 ὁ δὲ νοῦς ἐστὶ περὶ τὰς ἀρχὰς τῶν α. 17. νοητῶν καὶ τῶν ὄντων· ἡ μὲν γὰρ ἐπιστήμη τῶν μετ' ἀποδείξεως ὄντων ἐστίν, αἱ δ' ἀρχαὶ ἀναπόδεικτοι, ὥστ' οὐκ ἂν εἶη περὶ τὰς ἀρχὰς ἡ ἐπιστήμη, ἀλλ' ὁ νοῦς. ἡ δὲ σοφία ἐστὶν ἐξ ἐπιστήμης καὶ νοῦ συγκειμένη. ἔστιν γὰρ ἡ σοφία καὶ περὶ τὰς ἀρχὰς καὶ τὰ ἐκ τῶν ἀρχῶν ἤδη δεικνύμενα, περὶ δ' ἡ ἐπιστήμη· ἢ μὲν οὖν περὶ τὰς ἀρχὰς, τοῦ νοῦ αὐτὴ μετέχει, ἢ δὲ περὶ τὰ μετὰ τὰς ἀρχὰς μετ' ἀποδείξεως ὄντα, τῆς ἐπιστήμης μετέχει· ὥστε δῆλον ὅτι ἡ σοφία ἐστὶν ἐκ τε νοῦ καὶ ἐπιστήμης συγκειμένη, ὥστ' εἶη ἂν περὶ ταῦτά, περὶ δ' καὶ ὁ νοῦς καὶ ἡ ἐπιστήμη.

ὥσπερ κεφαλὴν ἔχουσα ἐπιστήμη τῶν τιμιωτάτων] The σοφία, a. 10. so called, of a creative artist like Phidias is ὥσπερ κεφαλὴν ἔχουσα ἐπιστήμη—technical skill guided by artistic ideals which the artist's own genius supplies—οὗτος μὲν πανάριστος δε αὐτὸς πάντα νοήση: the σοφία of the metaphysician—and this is the σοφία strictly so called—is ὥσπερ κεφαλὴν ἔχουσα ἐπιστήμη τῶν τιμιωτάτων, i. e. τῶν χωριστῶν καὶ ἀκινήτων, the explanation of the universe by reference to its ultimate principle, God, τὸ πρῶτον κινοῦν —, hence distinguished from μαθηματικὴ and φυσικὴ, the other θεωρητικαὶ ἐπιστήμαι, as θεολογική: see *Met.* K. 7. 1064 a. 28 ἐπεὶ δ' ἔστι τις ἐπιστήμη τοῦ ὄντος ἢ ὄν καὶ χωριστόν, σκεπτέον πότερον ποτε τῇ φυσικῇ τὴν αὐτὴν θετεῖον ταύτην εἶναι ἢ μᾶλλον ἑτέραν. ἡ μὲν οὖν φυσικὴ περὶ τὰ κινήσεως ἔχοντ' ἀρχὴν ἐν αὐτοῖς ἐστίν, ἡ δὲ μαθηματικὴ θεωρητικὴ μὲν καὶ περὶ μένοντά τις αὐτῇ, ἀλλ' οὐ χωριστά. περὶ τὸ χωριστόν ἄρα ὄν καὶ τὸ ἀκίνητον ἑτέρα τούτων ἀμφο-

1141 a. 19. *τέρων τῶν ἐπιστημῶν ἔστι τις, εἴπερ ὑπάρχει τις οὐσία τοιαύτη, λέγω δὲ χωριστὴ καὶ ἀκίνητος, ὅπερ πειρασόμεθα δεικνύναι. καὶ εἴπερ ἔστι τις τοιαύτη φύσις ἐν τοῖς οὐσιν, ἐνταῦθ' ἂν εἴη που καὶ τὸ θεῖον, καὶ αὕτη ἂν εἴη πρώτη καὶ κυριωτάτη ἀρχή. δῆλον τοίνυν ὅτι τρία γένη τῶν θεωρητικῶν ἐπιστημῶν ἐστί, φυσικὴ, μαθηματικὴ, θεολογικὴ. βέλτιστον μὲν οὖν τὸ τῶν θεωρητικῶν ἐπιστημῶν γένος, τούτων δ' αὐτῶν ἡ τελευταία λεχθεῖσα· περὶ τὸ τιμιώτατον γὰρ ἐστί τῶν ὄντων, βελτίων δὲ καὶ χείρων ἐκάστη λέγεται κατὰ τὸ οἰκεῖον ἐπιστητόν. ἀπορήσειε δ' ἂν τις πότερον ποτε τὴν τοῦ ὄντος ἢ τὴν ἐπιστήμην καθόλου δεῖ θεῖναι ἢ οὐ. τῶν μὲν γὰρ μαθηματικῶν ἐκάστη περὶ ἓν τι γένος ἀφωρισμένον ἐστίν, ἡ δὲ καθόλου κοινὴ περὶ πάντων. εἰ μὲν οὖν αἱ φυσικαὶ οὐσίαι πρώται τῶν ὄντων εἰσὶ, κἀν ἡ φυσικὴ πρώτη τῶν ἐπιστημῶν εἴη· εἰ δ' ἔστιν ἑτέρα φύσις καὶ οὐσία χωριστὴ καὶ ἀκίνητος, ἑτέραν ἀνάγκη καὶ τὴν ἐπιστήμην αὐτῆς εἶναι καὶ προτέραν τῆς φυσικῆς καὶ καθόλου τῆ προτέραν. For the technical meaning of *τίμιος* see notes on *E. N.* i. 12.*

a. 20. *ἄτοπον γάρ]* Ramsauer and Susemihl suspect a lacuna between *τιμιωτάτων* and *ἄτοπον*—on insufficient grounds, I think: see their notes *ad loc.* The connexion seems to me very plain in the text as we have it—*σοφία* is *ἀκριβεστάτη τῶν ἐπιστημῶν*, i. e. *σπουδαιοτάτη*, because concerned with *τὰ τιμιώτατα* (*cf. Met. K. 7* quoted above); for (*M^b* has *δέ*) it would be absurd to say that *φρόνησις* is *σπουδαιοτάτη*, inasmuch as its object is *χείρον*—*cf. M. M. i. 34. 1197 b. 6* *ἔστιν δὲ χείρων ἡ φρόνησις τῆς σοφίας* (*περὶ χείρων γὰρ ἐστίν· ἡ μὲν γὰρ σοφία περὶ τὸ αἰδίου καὶ τὸ θεῖον, ἡ δὲ φρόνησις περὶ τὸ συμφέρον ἀνθρώπου.*

L^b, *O^b*, *B¹*, *B²*, *B³*, *NC*, *CCC*, *γ*, and *Ald.* read *τὴν ἐπιστήμην πολιτικὴν*, introducing confusion into the passage by making *ἐπιστήμη* the subject of a passage which is concerned with *σοφία*. *Coraes*, reading *ἐπιστήμην*, proposes to meet the difficulty by inserting *τὴν* before *πολιτικὴν*, while *Cambr.* does so by reading *τὴν πολιτικὴν ἐπιστήμην*.

a. 21. *εἰ μὴ τὸ ἄριστον κ.τ.λ.] Cf. below § 4. 1141 a. 34 καὶ γὰρ ἀνθρώπου ἄλλα πολὺ θειώτερα τὴν φύσιν, κ.τ.λ. Cf. an interesting passage in Grant's *Ethics*, Essay v. vol. i. pp. 286, 287, in which Aristotle's 'idea of the slightness of man and of his actions in comparison with nature, and what he would call the "diviner parts" of the universe,' is dwelt on: 'Aristotle might, indeed, seem to coincide with the utterance of the Psalmist, "What is man in comparison with the Heavens?" But with him the heavens were not a mere*

physical creation; rather the eternal sphere of Reason, the abode of 1141 a. 21. pure Intelligences, the source of all emanations of Reason and Intelligence throughout the world. Compared with this higher sphere individual man, with his practical and moral life, appeared insignificant.' On the *πρῶτος οὐρανός* and other *σφαῖραι*, see note on iii. 3. 3.

§ 4. εἰ δὴ ὑγιεινὸν κ.τ.λ.] I prefer δ' (M^b) to δὴ here: *another* a. 22. reason is being given for not identifying *φρόνησις* with *σοφία*. The argument of the § is—As 'healthy' or 'good' has a different meaning, according as it is applied to the condition of men, or of fishes, while 'white' or 'straight' has the same meaning in all connexions; so 'wise' has always the same meaning, whereas 'prudent' has not: 'prudence' in one case is not necessarily 'prudence' in another, any more than what is a 'healthy' condition in one case is necessarily a 'healthy' condition in another case—utilities, the objects of Prudence or Statesmanship, vary, and there are consequently many kinds of Prudence or Statesmanship; but philosophic truth, the object of Wisdom, is one, and there is only one kind of Wisdom: accordingly, if we identify Prudence or Statesmanship with Wisdom, by making Wisdom the knowledge of utilities, we shall land ourselves in the contradiction of 'many kinds of Wisdom'—'many kinds of philosophic truth.' But it may be asked—Is not man so highly exalted above the other animals, that we may place his utility in a category by itself, as *the* utility *par excellence*—one in contradistinction to the many varying utilities of the other animals? If so, may we not then identify Statesmanship, the science of man's utility, with Wisdom, without thus making 'many Wisdoms'? No, because there are existences higher than man. With these Wisdom must concern itself; and if it concerns itself also with man's utility, we shall still have 'many Wisdoms.' I follow Michelet in making the apodosis begin at καὶ τὸ σοφὸν l. 24. Zell would make it begin at φανερόν δέ καὶ l. 28.

ὑγιεινὸν καὶ ἀγαθόν are the objects of *φρόνησις*, in the wide sense of the term in which it includes the 'intelligence' of the lower animals; but τὸ λευκὸν καὶ εἰθύ are not the objects of *σοφία*; they merely resemble its objects in being always the same. So the Paraph.—τὸ αὐτὸ παρὰ πᾶσιν ἐπιστητὸν (=σοφόν) εἶναι, καθάπερ καὶ τὸ αὐτὸ εἰθύ καὶ τὸ αὐτὸ λευκὸν παρὰ πᾶσιν. The Paraph., it will be

1141 a. 22. observed, takes τὸ σοφόν as the *object* of σοφία. It is better to take it as the *subject* of σοφία—the wise being or faculty. He or it is of only one type: whereas τὸ φρόνιμον, the prudent being or faculty, is of many types.

a. 25. τὰ γὰρ περὶ αὐτὸ ἕκαστα τὸ εὖ θεωροῦν φησὶν εἶναι φρόνιμον, καὶ τούτῳ ἐπιτρέψει αὐτά] This is Bywater's reading for Bekker's τὸ γὰρ περὶ αὐτὸ ἕκαστα εὖ θεωροῦν φαίεν ἂν εἶναι φρόνιμον, καὶ τούτῳ ἐπιτρέψειαν αὐτά. For τὰ all MSS. read τό: τό before εὖ is omitted by Γ and M^b: φησὶν is given by K^b alone: and ἐπιτρέψει by K^b alone. Susemihl, otherwise following Bekker, reads αὐτούς for αὐτά, after M^b. Kassow advocates αὐτούς, *Forsch.* p. 63. If K^b is right with φησὶν and ἐπιτρέψει, the change to the singular number, after the emphatic πάντες ἂν εἴποιεν, is so awkward, that one is tempted to suspect that something has dropped out; but see Byw. *Contrib.* p. 50. Αὐτά are the ἕκαστα, its own peculiar ὠφέλιμα. We trust a being which is φρόνιμον to see to its own interests.

a. 27. τῶν θηρίων ἕνια φρόνιμα] See *Met.* A. 1. 980 b. 22 φρόνιμα . . . οἷον μέλιττα καὶ εἴ τι τοιοῦτον ἄλλο γένος ζῶων ἐστίν.

a. 33. τῶν ὄντων] ἰατρική is περὶ ζῶων, animate beings, not περὶ ὄντων, existences as such. Hence the editors have suspected the genuineness of the words. Perhaps they have arisen out of a dittograph of πάντων: but *cf.* *E. E.* 1217 a. 26 quoted by Byw. *Cont.* 51.

a. 34. οὐδὲν διαφέρει] 'that makes no difference'—still there will be 'many wisdoms.' Eustr. has—οὐθὲν διαφέρει τοῦτο· τουτίστιν οὐκ οἰκειῶν ἐστίν πρὸς τὸ δεῖξαι μὴ ἑτέρας οὐσας πρὸς ἀλλήλας σοφίαν καὶ φρόνησιν.

b. 1. οἷον φανερώτατά γε ἐξ ὧν ὁ κόσμος συνέστηκεν] 'As—to take the most obvious instance—the heavenly bodies' (Peters). So the Schol. Paris. quoted by Zell—τὰ οὐράνια σώματα, ἵνα μὴ λέγωμεν ἥρωτες καὶ δαίμονας. *Cf.* *Met.* A. 8. 1074 a. 30, quoted by the editors, τέλος ἴσται πάσης φορῆς τῶν φερομένων τι θείων σωμάτων κατὰ τὸν οὐρανόν: *Phys.* B. 4. 196 a. 33 τὸν δ' οὐρανὸν καὶ τὰ θειότατα τῶν φανερῶν: *cf.* *Met.* E. 1. 1026 a. 18 τοῖς φανεροῖς τῶν θείων. These phrases—τὰ θειότατα τῶν φανερῶν—τὰ φανερά τῶν θείων—show that 'to take the most obvious instance' does not fully render the force of οἷον φανερώτατά γε. For some account of τὰ ἐξ ὧν συνέστηκεν ὁ κόσμος see passages quoted in note on iii. 3.

§ 5. ἐκ δὴ . . . τῆ φύσει] Ramsauer and Susemihl bracket these 1141 b. 2. words. They are unnecessary, and interrupt the obviously close connexion between the closing lines of § 4 and διὸ Ἀναξαγόραν καὶ Θαλῆν καὶ τοὺς τοιοῦτους σοφοὺς μὲν φρονίμους δ' οὐ φασιν εἶναι. Ramsauer also notes the unusual nature of the construction νοῦς τῶν τιματάων.

διὸ κ.τ.λ.] Grant quotes Plato *Theaet.* 174 A—ὡσπερ καὶ Θαλῆν b. 8. ἀστρονομούντα, δὲ Θεόδωρε, καὶ ἄνω βλέποντα, πεισόντα εἰς φρέαρ, Θραῦττά τις ἐμμελής καὶ χαρίεσσα θεραπευτὴς ἀποσκῶψαι λέγεται, ὡς τὰ μὲν ἐν οὐρανῷ προθυμοῖτο εἰδέσθαι, τὰ δ' ἐμπροσθεν αὐτοῦ καὶ παρὰ πόδας λαμβάνει αὐτόν. Ταῦτ' ἀρκεῖ σκῶμμα ἐπὶ πάντας ἄσοι ἐν φιλοσοφίᾳ διάγουσι.

§ 6. ἡ δὲ φρόνησις . . . b. 12 πρακτὸν ἀγαθόν] Kassow (*Forsch.* b. 8. p. 20) prints this sentence and the beginning of chapter 5 as duplicate passages. Grant notes that the remark βουλευέται δ' οὐδεὶς κ.τ.λ. is here repeated for the third time: cf. ch. 1. § 6, and ch. 5. § 3.

οὐδ' ὅσων μὴ τέλος τι ἔστι, καὶ τοῦτο πρακτὸν ἀγαθόν] No man b. 11. deliberates about what is invariable, nor, in the region of the variable, about things which have no practical bearing upon life—i. e. about things 'which involve no end realisable in action.' As Ramsauer remarks, οὐδ' ὅσων limits the sphere of φρόνησις to a certain class of ἐνδεχόμενα, whereas in ch. 1. §§ 5, 6 it is simply said that τὸ λογιστικόν is concerned with τὰ ἐνδεχόμενα.

δ' δ' ἀπλῶς εὐβουλος] i. e. εὐβουλος in the strict sense of the word: b. 12. cf. ch. 9. § 7 ἔστι καὶ ἀπλῶς εὐβουλευῆσθαι καὶ πρὸς τι τέλος: cf. ch. 5. § 1.

τοῦ ἀρίστου] τοῦ εὐζήν. Eustr. has the following note here: b. 18. ἀριστον δὲ ἀνθρώπῳ ὡσπερ διαφορὰ κείμενον ἐν τῷ ὀρισμῷ ἀπὸ τῶν κατὰ τέχνην ἀποτελουμένων διύστησι τὸν φρόνιμον καὶ τὴν φρόνησιν. ἀγαθὰ γὰρ καὶ τῶν ἀγαθῶν τεχνῶν ὑπάρχει ἀποτελέσματα, ἀλλ' οὐδὲν ἐξ ἐκείνων ὑπάρχει ἀνθρώπῳ τὸ ἀριστον. οἰκεῖα γὰρ καὶ θρόνος καὶ τράπεζα, καὶ ἱμάτιον καὶ τὰ τοιαῦτα ἀγαθὰ μὲν ἀνθρώπῳ, ὡς χρήσιμα καὶ ὠφέλιμα, οὐδὲν δὲ αὐτῶν ἀνθρώπῳ τὸ ἀριστον, ἀλλὰ τοῦτό ἐστι τὸ ὑποβέσθαι τῷ λογισμῷ τὰ πάθη, καὶ κύριον αὐτόν καὶ δεσπότην τῆς ἀλόγου ποιήσασθαι. πρακτὰ δὲ λέγονται ἀγαθὰ τὰ διὰ πράξεως κατορθούμενα. οἷον τὸ ἐν πολέμῳ ἀνδρῖσθαι, τὸ ἐπὶ ἐπιθυμίας πολεμούμενον ἐγκρατεῦσθαι καὶ ὅσα τοιαῦτα.

1141 b. 13. Ἐν πάντων ἀριστόν τε καὶ ἐξοχώτατον ἢ ἀπάθεια, καὶ τὸ ἔξω γενέσθαι τῆς σαρκός. κ.τ.λ.

b. 14. § 7. οὐδ' ἐστὶν ἡ φρόνησις τῶν καθόλου μόνον] This remark seems to suggest itself here as a qualification of what has just been said. The general conception of τὸ ἀριστόν ἀνθρώπου is not enough: acquaintance with particulars is also necessary.

b. 16. πρακτικὴ γάρ] It is of the essence of the 'knowledge,' which the φρόνιμος as such possesses, to issue in action. In the sphere of conduct, 'knowledge' without works is dead.

b. 17. οὐκ εἰδότες] sc. τὰ καθόλου, Eustr.

καὶ ἐν τοῖς ἄλλοις] in other matters as well as in those with which φρόνησις is concerned; e.g. in matters with which ἰατρικὴ (εἰ γὰρ εἰδείη ὅτι τὰ κοῦφα κ.τ.λ.) is concerned: so Eustrat. Zell and other editors quote here *Mel.* A. 1. 981 a. 12 πρὸς μὲν οὖν τὸ πράττειν ἐμπειρία τέχνης οὐδὲν δοκεῖ διαφέρειν, ἀλλὰ καὶ μᾶλλον ἐπιτυγχάνοντες ὁρῶμεν τοὺς ἐμπείρους τῶν ἀνευ τῆς ἐμπειρίας λόγον ἔχόντων. αἴτιον δ' ὅτι ἡ μὲν ἐμπειρία τῶν καθ' ἕκαστόν ἐστι γνῶσις, ἡ δὲ τέχνη τῶν καθόλου, αἱ δὲ πράξεις καὶ αἱ γενέσεις πᾶσαι περὶ τὸ καθ' ἕκαστόν εἰσιν· οὐ γὰρ ἄνθρωπον ὑγιάζει ὁ ἰατρεύων, πλὴν ἀλλ' ἡ κατὰ συμβεβηκός, ἀλλὰ Καλλίαν ἢ Σωκράτη ἢ τῶν ἄλλων τιὰ τῶν οὕτω λεγομένων, ᾧ συμβέβηκεν ἀνθρώπου εἶναι. ἐὰν οὖν ἀνευ τῆς ἐμπειρίας ἔχη τις τὸν λόγον, καὶ τὸ μὲν καθόλου γνωρίζῃ, τὸ δ' ἐν τούτῳ καθ' ἕκαστον ἀγνοῇ, πολλάκις διαμαρτήσεται τῆς θεραπείας· θεραπευτὸν γὰρ τὸ καθ' ἕκαστον. ἀλλ' ὅμως τό γ' εἰδέναί καὶ τὸ ἐπαίειν τῆ τέχνη τῆς ἐμπειρίας ὑπάρχειν οἴομεθα μᾶλλον, καὶ σοφωτέρους τοὺς τεχνίτας τῶν ἐμπείρων ὑπολαμβάνομεν, ὡς κατὰ τὸ εἰδέναί μᾶλλον ἀκηλουθοῦσαν τὴν σοφίαν πᾶσι· τοῦτο δέ, ὅτι οἱ μὲν τὴν αἰτίαν ἴσασιν, οἱ δ' οὐ. οἱ μὲν γὰρ ἐμπειροὶ τὸ ὅτι μὲν ἴσασιν, διότι δ' οὐκ ἴσασιν· οἱ δὲ τὸ διότι καὶ τὴν αἰτίαν γνωρίζουσιν. διὸ καὶ τοὺς ἀρχιτέκτονας περὶ ἕκαστον τιμιωτέρους καὶ μᾶλλον εἰδέναί νομίζομεν τῶν χειροτεχνῶν καὶ σοφωτέρους, ὅτι τὰς αἰτίας τῶν ποιουμένων ἴσασιν. The writer of *E. N.* vi. 7. 7 may have had this passage in his mind. His introduction of the term ἀρχιτεκτονικὴ 1141 b. 22 may have been suggested by διὸ καὶ τοὺς ἀρχιτέκτονας κ.τ.λ.

b. 18. τὰ κοῦφα εὐπεπτα κρέα καὶ ὑγιεινά] κοῦφον is opposed to τῆ ποιῶντι βάρος *de Part. Anim.* Γ. 11. 673 b. 7 quoted by Ramsauer. The argument is—'All light flesh is wholesome: the flesh of fowls is light: therefore it is wholesome.' The man who knows the conclusion, 'the flesh of fowls is wholesome,' is more likely to prescribe successfully than the man who knows the major 'all light flesh is wholesome,' without knowing the minor, 'the flesh of fowls is

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1141 b. 22. as realising ἡ καθ' ἕκαστα φρόνησις, or 'empirical knowledge of right and wrong, that αἱ ἀρεαί are contrasted with ἡ φρόνησις ἡ ἀρχιτεκτονική.

CHAPTER VIII.

ARGUMENT.

Statesmanship and Prudence are the same faculty regarded from different points of view.

Under Statesmanship, or Prudence as concerned with the welfare of the State, are included—(1) the faculty of legislating in accordance with a comprehensive plan of social life; (2) the faculty of dealing with the details of social life: this latter species (which has taken to itself the generic term, Statesmanship) is (a) deliberative and (b) judicial; and dealing, as it does in the assembly and law-courts, with particular cases—issuing in particular decrees and verdicts, is thought by many to be the only form of statesmanship; for it is that in the practice of which alone people are seen to be 'doing something,' like workmen.

Similarly, many think that Prudence as concerned with one's own private affairs is Prudence par excellence. It has, indeed, the generic name, Prudence; but knowing the good of others in the family and in the State is equally Prudence. Knowing what is good for oneself is only one species of knowing what is good for man; but it is a species distinguished from the other species—knowing what is good for other people—by a large differentia: it therefore seems to many to be sui generis: the man who can see well to his own interests is thought to be 'prudent,' and those who devote themselves to the interests of others are considered 'busy-bodies,' not 'prudent.' But surely a man's 'own' interest cannot thus be abstracted from the interests of 'other people.' A man cannot be prudent in 'his own' interest without considering the interests of other people in the family and the State.

If 'one's own' interest could be abstracted from the social tissue, and made the object by itself of 'Prudence,' then boys would be 'prudent': they deal successfully with the abstractions of mathematics; why not, then, also with the abstraction of 'their own' interests? But they are no more 'prudent' in 'their own' interests than they are well versed in philosophy and the natural sciences. This may be taken as a sign that 'one's own' interest cannot be abstracted; that Prudence, like proficiency in the concrete sciences, requires long and wide experience for its acquirement—experience of 'one's own' interest as that inheres in the tissue of the interests of the community.

Prudence, then, being the immediate knowledge of particulars, is not scientific knowledge, for scientific knowledge is mediate, or proved, knowledge; it is therefore the antithesis of Reason, for Reason apprehends universals immediately. Its particulars, then, being apprehended, not mediately as conclusions

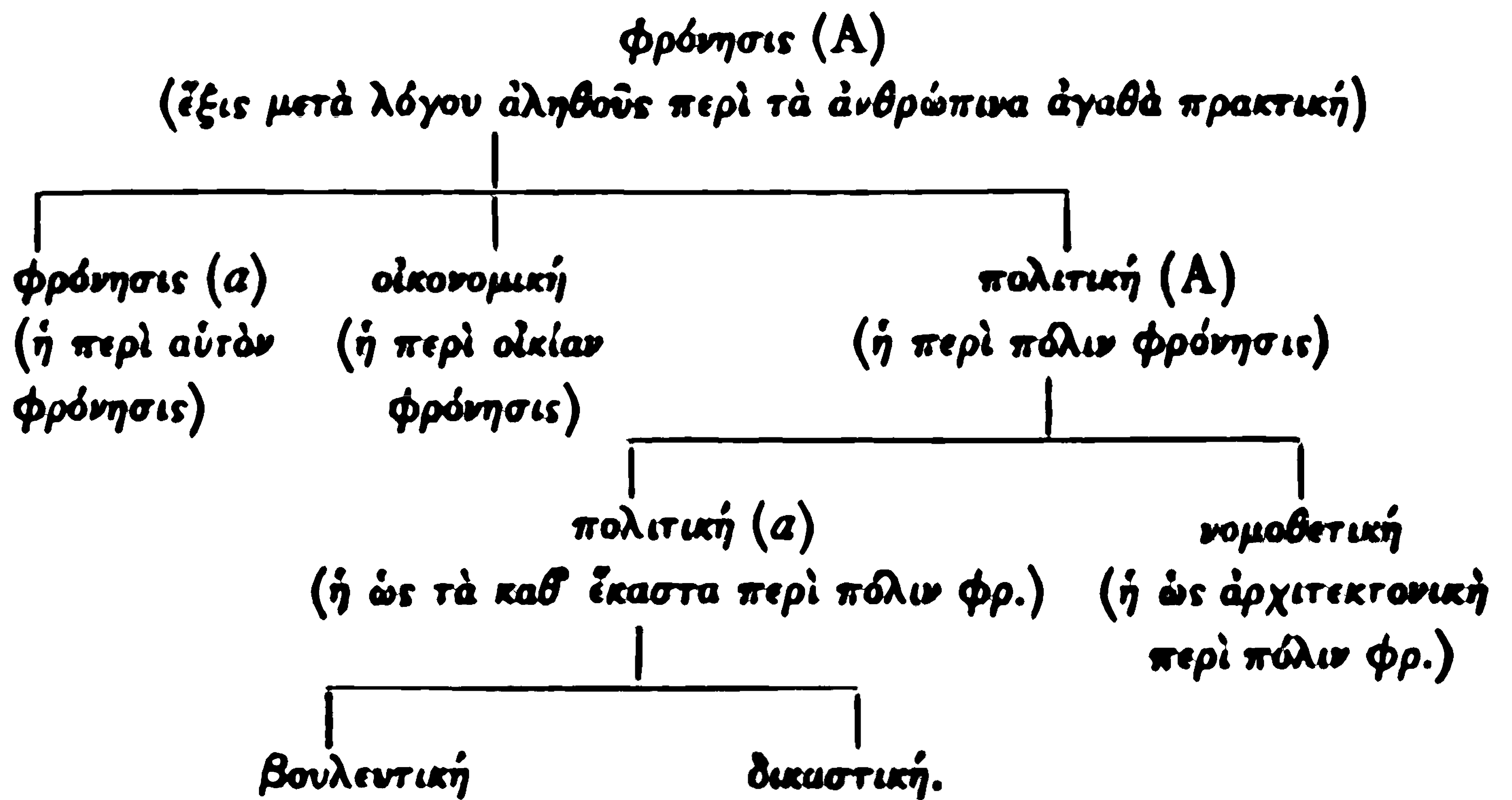
are apprehended by science, but immediately, Prudence will be a sort of sense—not indeed like sight, which perceives colour immediately as its special object, or hearing, which perceives sound, but rather like the sense by which we perceive a geometrical figure—a triangle or a circle—immediately for what it is.

§ 1. ἡ πολιτική] Grant has an important remark here—that, 1141 b. 23. according to Aristotle, 'φρόνησις was a psychological term expressing a faculty of the mind, but πολιτική was merely one of the divisions of the sciences. In order to make them commensurate, Eudemus alters the signification of πολιτική. He treats it as a state of the mind (ἔξις), as a mode of φρόνησις, dealing with the State either universally or in details. From the same later point of view he adds also οἰκονομική.'

ἡ αὐτὴ μὲν ἔξις, τὸ μέντοι εἶναι οὐ ταῦτόν αὐταῖς] See note on v. 1. 20. Πολιτική, the prudence of the citizen, and φρόνησις, the prudence of the man, are the same habit viewed from different points, as the citizen and the man are the same person viewed from different points. Take the case of one who 'gets on well in the world.' He may be looked at either as a man who conducts his own affairs prudently, or as a citizen who contributes by his position and influence to the welfare of the State of which he is the product. His career is a line in which the private can only logically be distinguished from the public side. Except as conforming to the conditions of the community to which he belongs, and as promoting its good, no man can be said to manage his own affairs prudently—οὐκ ἔστι τὸ αὐτοῦ εὖ ἄνευ οἰκονομίας οὐδ' ἄνευ πολιτείας § 5. Even the narrowest φρόνησις περὶ αὐτόν is πολιτική—although the latter name is technically given only to the faculty of the 'public man'—the legislator, ecclesiast, dicast, or executive officer. We may say then that the ἔξις προνοητική περὶ τὰ πρακτὰ ἀγαθὰ is φρόνησις *quod* περὶ αὐτόν, and πολιτική *quod* περὶ ἕτερον. These are two aspects logically distinguishable: but there is no such thing as caring *only* for oneself, or caring *only* for others.

Fritzsche and Grant make much of this § and the three following §§ as fulfilling a promise 'made before in the *E. E.*'—viz. i. 8. 1218 b. 9 τὸ δ' οὐ ἕνεκα ὡς τέλος ἀριστον καὶ αἴτιον τῶν ὑφ' αὐτὸ καὶ πρῶτον πάντων. ὥστε τοῦτ' ἂν εἴη αὐτὸ τὸ ἀγαθὸν τὸ τέλος τῶν ἀνθρώπων πρακτῶν. τοῦτο δ' ἐστὶ τὸ ὑπὸ τὴν κυρίαν πασῶν. αὕτη δ' ἐστὶ πολιτικὴ καὶ οἰκονομικὴ καὶ φρόνησις. διαφέρουσι γὰρ αὐταὶ αἱ ἔξεις πρὸς τὰς ἄλλας τῆ τοιαῦται εἶναι πρὸς δ' ἀλλήλας εἴ τι διαφέρουσιν, ὕστερον λεκτέον.

1141 b. 24. § 2.] The divisions made in this § and in § 3 may be tabulated thus:—



Here φρόνησις is used in a generic sense (A), and a specific sense (α)—δοκεῖ δὲ καὶ φρόνησις μάλιστ' εἶναι ἡ περὶ αὐτὸν καὶ ἕνα· καὶ ἔχει αὕτη (α) τὸ κοινὸν ὄνομα (A), φρόνησις § 3. Πολιτικῆ is also used in a generic (A), and a specific (α) sense.

b. 25. νομοθετικῆ] The architectonic relation of νομοθετικῆ τοῦ ἡ πολιτικῆ ἡ περὶ τὰ καθ' ἕκαστα, as well as to οἰκονομικῆ and ἡ περὶ αὐτὸν φρόνησις, is not exhibited to the eye in the above table, in which νομοθετικῆ appears as coordinate with πολιτικῆ (α), and as having no bearing at all upon οἰκονομικῆ or φρόνησις (α). In the well-ordered State, however, it dominates all three—φρόνησις (α), οἰκονομικῆ, and πολιτικῆ (α)—ὁ γὰρ νόμος ἀγορεύει περὶ πάντων. Its architectonic relation, to πολιτικῆ (α) at least, is better brought out in *Pol. Δ.* 11. 1297 b. 37, where three μόρια τῶν πολιτειῶν πασῶν are distinguished—(1) τὸ βουλευόμενον περὶ τῶν κοινῶν—the deliberative body: (2) τὸ περὶ τὰς ἀρχάς—the executive: and (3) τὸ δικάζον—the judicial body; and νομοθετικῆ is said to be concerned 'theoretically,' i. e. architectonically, with all three: ἔστι δὲ τρία μόρια τῶν πολιτειῶν πασῶν περὶ ὧν δεῖ θεωρεῖν τὸν σπουδαῖον νομοθέτην ἑκάστη τὸ συμφέρον.

ἡ δὲ ὡς τὰ καθ' ἕκαστα] The Vet. tr. has—haec autem ut circa singularia commune habet nomen politica, as if he read ἡ δὲ ὡς περὶ τὰ καθ' ἕκαστα. Ramsauer conjectures ἡ δὲ ὡς χειροτεχνικῆ (or ὡς πράττουσα) περὶ τὰ καθ' ἕκαστα. Would it not be simpler to read ἡ δὲ ὡς καθ' ἕκαστα? Cf. *iii.* 1. 15 ἡ ἀγνοία . . . ἡ καθ' ἕκαστα.

πρακτική καὶ βουλευτική] This is not the formal division of 1141 b. 27. πολιτική (α). That is given in the next section as βουλευτική and δικαστική. Here the writer wishes merely to characterise πολιτική (α) as πρακτική, *i. e.* as concerned with τὰ καθ' ἕκαστα, in contradistinction to νομοθετική which involves ἡ τῶν καθόλου θεωρία. He adds καὶ βουλευτική in order to explain πρακτική—τὸ γὰρ ψήφισμα πρακτὸν ὡς τὸ ἔσχατον. He might have written—αὕτη δὲ πρακτική, ἦτοι βουλευτική καὶ δικαστική· τὸ γὰρ ψήφισμα πρακτὸν ὡς τὸ ἔσχατον (*sc.* ἐν τῇ βουλεύσει), καὶ ἡ κρίσις.

ὡς τὸ ἔσχατον] Eustr. has—τὸ ψήφισμά ἐστιν ὁ τελευταῖον ὁ κρίνας b. 28. ἡ βουλευσάμενος ἀπεφῆνατο τί δεῖ γενέσθαι ἐπὶ τῷ προτεθέντι ζητήματι, οὐχ ὡς καθόλου φαινόμενον ἀλλ' ὡς ἔσχατον καὶ καθέκαστον· τὸ γὰρ καθόλου οὐ πράξει ὑποτίθεται. A ψήφισμα is the first step in the execution of a policy. It carries with it consequences which result in the realisation of a certain τέλος. Deliberation, starting from the conception of this τέλος, reviews the steps by which it may be realised till *at last* the first step actually to be taken is reached in thought. This is the ψήφισμα, which is thus τὸ ἔσχατον: *cf.* *E. N.* iii. 3, 11, 12 ὁ γὰρ βουλευόμενος εἶκε ζητεῖν καὶ ἀναλύειν . . . ὡσπερ διάγραμμα . . . καὶ τὸ ἔσχατον ἐν τῇ ἀναλύσει πρῶτον εἶναι ἐν τῇ γενέσει. The term ἔσχατον often stands simply for the 'particular' as such—*e. g.* *E. N.* vi. 11. 3 ἔστι δὲ τῶν καθ' ἕκαστα καὶ τῶν ἐσχάτων ἅπαντα τὰ πρακτά: *Met.* κ. 1. 1059 b. 26 πᾶσα ἐπιστήμη τῶν καθόλου καὶ οὐ τῶν ἐσχάτων: *cf.* *E. N.* vii. 3. 13 ἔσχατος ὄρος. Particulars as such are called ἔσχατα, doubtless because they are individuals, or ultimate units found by breaking up genus and species.

διὸ πολιτεύεσθαι κ.τ.λ.] πολιτική (α)—ἡ χειροτεχνική, has appropriated to itself the generic name which it ought to share with ἡ ἀρχιτεκτονική. Only 'party men,' 'active politicians'—those who 'have a hand in carrying on the current business of the State,' are popularly regarded as 'our statesmen.' Political thinkers are not regarded as 'statesmen.'

§ 3. δοκεῖ δὲ καὶ φρόνησις κ.τ.λ.] Similarly, φρόνησις (α) has ap- b. 29. propriated to itself the generic name which it ought to share with οἰκονομική and πολιτική. To be able to manage 'one's own' affairs well is Prudence—and the only real Prudence, it is thought (δοκεῖ); for to attend as a 'politician' to other people's affairs is the mark, not of a prudent man, but of a busybody. The truth, however,

1141 b. 29. is that, as the State which is ruled by ψηφίσματα instead of νόμος sinks into the social chaos of ἡ ἐσχάτη δημοκρατία (*Pol. E.* 8. 1312 b. 36), so the man who tries to manage 'his own affairs,' without regard for the common good, courts his own ruin. 'One's own good' cannot be abstracted from the common good, and treated as a thing by itself.

b. 33. § 4. εἶδος . . . πολυπράγμονες] 'Knowing one's own good (φρόνησις α)' and 'knowing what is good for other people (πολιτική¹)' are the two species (εἶδη) of 'knowing what is good (φρόνησις Α).' But these two species are distinguished from each other by such a large 'difference' (διαφορά), that they often do not seem to be coordinate species at all under the same genus. 'My own good' is such a very different thing to me from 'my neighbour's good,' and seems so superior, that the tendency is to make the knowledge of the former coextensive with Prudence, and to cast the knowledge of the latter out of the genus altogether as πολυπραγμοσύνη. This interpretation assumes that διαφορά is here used in its logical sense as διαφορά εἰδοποιός or *differentia specifica*, and is suggested by the foregoing εἶδος = *species*: see (e.g.) *Met.* I. 7. 1057 b. 7 ἐκ γὰρ τοῦ γένους καὶ τῶν διαφορῶν τὰ εἶδη. It is the interpretation adopted by Eustratius, who writes:—τὴν διαφορῶν διδάσκει διὰ τούτων τοῦ καθ' ἑαυτὸν φρονίμου πρὸς οἰκονομικὸν καὶ πολιτικόν' καὶ φησὶν ὅτι ἐκάστῳ μὲν τούτων καὶ γνῶσις ἐστὶ καὶ φρόνησις, πλὴν ἔχουσι διαφορὰς πρὸς ἀλλήλους, τῇ γένει μὲν ἴσως ὄντας τοὺς αὐτοὺς (ταύτας Eustr.) διαφέροντας δὲ πολὺ τούτων πρὸς τὰ λοιπά, καὶ τοσοῦτον ὥστε καὶ δοκεῖν τὸν εἰδόμενον τὰ περὶ αὐτόν, καὶ περὶ αὐτὰ διατρίβοντα, φρόνιμον εἶναι, τὸν δὲ πολιτικὸν οὐ φρόνιμον ἀλλὰ πολυπράγμονα ὡς τὰ ἔξω ἑαυτοῦ ζητοῦντα, καὶ ἐξετάζοντα.

It is difficult to suppose that in a context in which the *species* of a *genus* are distinguished, διαφορά can be used in any but in this, its logical, sense. Zell, Coraes, Grant, and Ramsauer, however, follow Lambinus in understanding ἀλλ' ἔχει διαφορὰν πολλήν to mean—'verum de hoc ipso magna est controversia.'

b. 34. γνῶσεως] Eustr. had a *v. l.* φρονήσεως before him.

τὸ αὐτῷ εἰδέναι] Eustr. says that the phrase is elliptical, and that we must understand ὠφέλιμον, συμφέρον, or ἄριστον. Αὐτοῦ, the

¹ Οἰκονομική is not mentioned, perhaps because, as Eustr. says, ἡ γὰρ οἰκονομική ἐγγίζει τῇ γνῶσει τῇ τοῦ οἰκείου συμφέροντος ἐνός τινος.

reading of M^b, is tempting, but is probably only one of the con- 1141 b. 34.
jectures of which M^b is full.

καὶ δοκεῖ κ.τ.λ.] Eustr. brings out correctly the force of these 1142 a. 1.
words—διαφέροντας (*i. e.* τὸν καθ' ἑαυτὸν φρόνιμον καὶ τὸν πολιτικόν)
τοσοῦτον ὥστε καὶ δοκεῖν τὸν εἰδὸτα τὰ περὶ αὐτὸν φρόνιμον εἶναι, τὸν
δὲ πολιτικὸν οὐ φρόνιμον ἀλλὰ πολυπράγμονα. So much is made of the
specific difference between φρόνησις περὶ αὐτὸν and πολιτικὴ, that the
latter is cast out of the genus, which the former is allowed to
monopolise.¹ But the truth is, as the writer is about to show,
that φρ. περὶ αὐτὸν and πολιτικὴ are closely connected. A man
cannot secure 'his own' interests ἀνευ οἰκονομίας οὐδ' ἀνευ πολιτείας
(§ 4). If (§ 5) 'one's own' interests could be abstracted from the
concrete tissue of social well-being, and treated simply by themselves,
boys, who can deal with simple abstractions, might be expected to
be φρόνιμοι. As a matter of fact they are not φρόνιμοι, because the
'good' with which even the most self-regarding φρόνησις is con-
cerned, is concretely implicated with the 'common good,' which
only a man of ripe experience can estimate.

οἱ δὲ πολιτικοὶ πολυπράγμονες] Zell and Grant quote Plato a. 2.
Rep. 433 A τὸ τὰ αὐτοῦ πράττειν καὶ μὴ πολυπραγμασιῶν, and *Gorg.*
526 C φιλοσόφου τὰ αὐτοῦ πράξαντος καὶ οὐ πολυπραγμασιῶσαντος: *cf.*
Isoc. περὶ ἀντιδόσεως 319 τοὺς μὲν διὰ πολυπραγμοσύνην ἐμπείρους
τῶν ἀγῶνων γεγενημένους.

Εὐριπίδης] From the *Philoctetes* of Euripides: see Dindorf, *Poet.*
Scen. p. 352. The third line of the present quotation seems to
have been in full—

ἴσον μετασχεῖν τῷ σοφωτάτῳ τύχης;

After this line there seems to have followed a passage (para-
phrased by Dio Chr. *Or.* 59. p. 575) which ended with the lines—

οὐδὲν γὰρ οὕτω γαῦρον² ὥς ἀνὴρ ἔφν'
τοὺς γὰρ περισσοὺς καὶ τι πράσσοντας πλέον
τιμῶμεν ἄνδρας τ' ἐν πόλει νομίζομεν.

After πλέον in our text 1142 a. 6 the Paraph. Heliodorus seems
to have read Ζεὺς μισεῖ, and CCC adds οὐκ ᾤετο φρονίμους.

ζητοῦσι] *sc.* those οἷς δοκεῖ ὁ περὶ αὐτὸν εἰδὼς καὶ διατρίβων φρόνιμος εἶναι. a. 7.

¹ For examples of the general tendency illustrated by the extrusion of πολιτικὴ
from its genus, see Mill's *Logic*, iv. 5, especially § 4.

² γαῖρος = ἀθάλας, σεμνός, μεγαλοπρεπής ἢ μετέωρος—Hesych.

1142 a. 9. καίτοι ἴσως οὐκ ἔστι τὸ αὐτοῦ εὖ¹ ἄνευ οἰκονομίας οὐδ' ἄνευ πολιτείας] It is impossible to secure one's own good, without taking account of the good of the household and even of the State. The Paraph. has a good note here in which he shows how the next sentence ἔτι δὲ κ.τ.λ. and the σημείον § 5 are connected with this remark—καίτοι οὐ δυνατόν ἴσως τὴν ἠθικὴν² εἶναι ἄνευ τῆς οἰκονομικῆς, οὐδέ τὴν οἰκονομικὴν ἄνευ τῆς πολιτικῆς· οὐ γὰρ δυνατόν εὖ καὶ καλῶς τὰ καθ' ἑαυτὸν τινα διαθεῖναι, τῆς οἰκίας αὐτῷ, ἢ τῆς πόλεως οὐ καλῶς ἐχούσης. χαλεπὸν γὰρ μὴ διαφθαρῆναι τινὰ μετὰ πολλῶν φαύλων διατρίβοντα· εἰ δὲ μετὰ μηδενὸς διατρίβει, ἀλλὰ βίον ἔχει μονώτην, πῶς εἴσεται τὸ ἑαυτῷ ἀγαθόν; ἀδύνατον γάρ, καὶ χρεία διδασκαλίας πρὸς αὐτὸ καὶ σκέψεως. ταῦτα δὲ ἀδύνατον ἄνευ ἐμπειρίας γενέσθαι· ἡ δὲ ἐμπειρία τῶν ἐν κοινωνίᾳ ὄντων ἐστὶ, καὶ οἰκίας καὶ πόλεως, καὶ ἄνευ τούτων οὐκ ἔστι ἐμπειρον οὐδέ φρόνιμον εἶναι. Similarly Eustrat., who formally distinguishes two reasons why οὐκ ἔστι τὸ αὐτοῦ εὖ ἄνευ οἰκονομίας οὐδ' ἄνευ πολιτείας—(1) Man is a social being. Family and public life is part of the concrete life of the individual: (2) the deliberation necessary to secure τὸ αὐτοῦ ἀγαθόν cannot be carried on without κοινωνοί. This is how he explains 1142 a. 10 ἔτι δὲ τὰ αὐτοῦ πῶς δεῖ διοικεῖν, ἀδύνατον καὶ σκεπτόν. He says—τῇ δὲ σκέψει δεῖ κοινωνοῦ, ἡ δὲ κοινωνία ἢ οἰκονομικὴ ἢ πολιτικὴ. This interpretation of σκεπτόν 1142 a. 10, by which it is made to refer to the σκέψις of the φρόνιμος, is, I daresay, possible; but it would be more in accordance with Aristotelian usage to make it refer to the σκέψις of the writer and his reader. The sentence ἔτι δὲ . . . σκεπτόν is one which it is indeed difficult to explain satisfactorily in its context. At any rate, however, we may suppose that the οὐκ ἀδύνατον of § 6, 1142 a. 20 is intended to contrast with the ἀδύνατον of § 4, 1142 a. 10.

a. 11. § 5. σημείον κ.τ.λ.] Kassow (*Forsch.* p. 45), as was pointed out in note on ch. 7. § 7, b. 21, regards the passage beginning ch. 7. § 7. 1141 b. 21 ἡ δὲ φρόνησις πρακτικὴ, and ending here 1142 a. 11 with σκεπτόν, as an interpolation, and takes the σημείον closely with the remarks in ch. 7. § 7 which end with ποιήσει μᾶλλον 1141 b. 21. It is true that the σημείον would follow these remarks very appositely. But does it not follow καίτοι ἴσως οὐκ ἔστι τὸ αὐτοῦ εὖ ἄνευ οἰκονομίας οὐδ' ἄνευ πολιτείας appositely enough? Τὸ εἰρημένον is οὐκ ἔστι τὸ αὐτοῦ εὖ ἄνευ οἰκονομίας οὐδ' ἄνευ πολιτείας—φρόνησις περὶ αὐτὸν καὶ ἕνα

¹ Cambr. seems to be the only MS. which agrees with K^b in reading εὖ.

² Moral science conceived as the science of the individual's good.

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1142 a. 10. philosophy and natural science, but merely repeats by rote the formulae used to express them; the truths of mathematics, on the other hand, he comprehends fully, for they are plain at first sight.'

a. 17. σοφός] *i.e.* σοφὸς ἀπλῶς as distinguished from σοφοὶ τὰ τοιαῦτα above, line a. 13.

a. 18. δι' ἀφαιρέσεως] τὰ δι' οἱ ἐξ ἀφαιρέσεως, 'results or products of abstraction,' are regularly used as = 'the truths of mathematics': see notes on i. 3. 1 and i. 3. 5: *cf.* Trendelenburg's note on *de An.* iii. 4. 8 (*cf.* also his *Elem. Log.* § 36, note), where it is pointed out that the first meaning of ἀφαίρεσις is material—*e.g.* it is the process of chipping away the block of stone till the perfect form of the statue is reached in *Phys.* i. 7. 190 b. 7 τὰ δ' ἀφαιρέσει οἶον ἐκ τοῦ λίθου ὁ Ἑρμῆς. It is then applied to the process of reaching εἶδη or concepts by leaving out of account the particularities of individuals, and fixing attention upon essential characteristics: and especially to the process of reaching those εἶδη with which mathematical science (see *An. Post.* i. 13. 79 a. 7) is concerned. Eustratius has the following note on τὰ δι' ἀφαιρέσεως here—χωρὶς τῶν ὑποκειμένων κατ' ἐνέργειαν ὑφίστασθαι μὴ δυνάμενα, ἀφαιροῦνται δὲ κατ' ἐπίνοιαν ἐκ τῶν ὑποκειμένων ἐν οἷς ὑφιστήκασιν, καὶ ὡς ἐν φαντασίᾳ ὑφιστηκότα περὶ τῆς διανοίας τὴν ἐξέτασιν δέχονται περὶ τῶν ἐπομένων αὐτοῖς.

Opposed to ἐξ ἀφαιρέσεως 'abstract' is ἐκ προσθέσεως 'concrete': see *Met.* A. 2. 982 a. 27 and *An. Post.* i. 27. 87 a. 31, where geometry is said to be 'more concrete' than arithmetic, and therefore less exact—καὶ ἐξ ἑλαττόνων ἀκριβεστέρα τῆς ἐκ προσθέσεως, οἶον γεωμετρίας ἀριθμητικῆ· λέγω δὲ ἐκ προσθέσεως, οἶον μόναν οὐσίαν ἀθετοῦστιγμὴ δὲ οὐσία θετός ταύτην ἐκ προσθέσεως. Geometry is ἐκ προσθέσεως as compared with arithmetic, because it adds *position*: it adds also the three dimensions as generated by the *motion* of the point, line, and plane respectively: see Trendelenburg, *Kategorienlehre*, pp. 83, 84.

It is not to be understood from the words τὰ μὲν δι' ἀφαιρέσεως ἴστω, τῶν δ' αἱ ἀρχαὶ ἐξ ἐμπειρίας that ἀφαίρεσις and ἐμπειρία are mutually exclusive. The ἀρχαὶ of natural science are ἐν ἀφαιρέσει, inasmuch as they are general points of view, not particular observations; see *An. Post.* ii. 19. 100 a. 6 ἐκ δ' ἐμπειρίας ἢ ἐκ παντὸς ἡρεμήσαντος τοῦ καθόλου ἐν τῇ ψυχῇ τοῦ ἐνός παρὰ τὰ πολλὰ δ' ἐν ἀπασιν ἐν ἐνῇ ἐκείνοισι τὸ αὐτὸ τέχνης ἀρχὴ καὶ ἐπιστήμη: and it is by induction

that even τὰ ἐξ ἀφαιρίσεως *par excellence*—the truths of mathematics, 1142 a. 18. are said to become known in *An. Post.* i. 18. 81 b. 2 ἀδύνατον δὲ τὰ καθόλου θεωρῆσαι μὴ δι' ἐπαγωγῆς, ἐπεὶ καὶ τὰ ἐξ ἀφαιρίσεως λεγόμενα ἔσται δι' ἐπαγωγῆς γνώριμα ποιεῖν—on which see Waitz's note.

καὶ τὰ μὲν] The ἀρχαί of philosophy or natural science, τῶν δὲ a. 19. being τὰ δι' ἀφαιρίσεως.

οὐ πιστεύουσιν] 'do not realise': see *Index Arist.*—'πιστεύειν omnino firmitatem persuasionis significat, sive ea δόξης sive ἐπιστήμης vim ac naturam habet sive ad cognitionem principiorum pertinet'—see *de An.* iii. 3. 428 b. 4, 428 a. 21, *E. N.* vii. 3. 4, *An. Prior.* ii. 23. 68 b. 13 ἅπαντα πιστεύομεν ἢ διὰ συλλογισμοῦ ἢ ἐξ ἐπαγωγῆς.

ἀλλὰ λέγουσιν] Grant compares *E. N.* vii. 3. 8 οἱ πρῶτον μαθόντες a. 20. συγκίρουσι μὲν τοὺς λόγους, ἴσασι δ' οὕτω.

τῶν δὲ τὸ τί ἐστὶν οὐκ ἄδηλον] *i. e.* the definitions, ὀρισμοί (θίσεις οἱ λόγοι τοῦ τί ἐστὶν *An. Post.* ii. 10. 94 a. 10), from which the mathematician starts, are plain and easily understood at first sight: as Eustratius says—τὸ ἐστὶ στιγμή, τί ἐστὶ γραμμὴ, τί ἐστὶ ἐπιφάνεια, τί σῶμα, τί κύκλος, τί τρίγωνον, καὶ τῶν σχημάτων ἕκαστον, καὶ ὅσα ἕτερα ὀριστικῶς λαμβάνει ὁ γεωμέτρης . . . οἶδασιν διὰ τὸ μὴ πολλοῦ δεῖσθαι χρόνου πρὸς τὸ καὶ τοὺς ὄρους αὐτῶν ἐπίστασθαι. On ὀρισμοί and their relation to ἀποδείξεις see *e. g.* *An. Post.* ii. 3. 90 b. 30 ὀρισμὸς μὲν γὰρ τοῦ τί ἐστὶ καὶ οὐσίας· αἱ δ' ἀποδείξεις φαίνονται πᾶσαι ὑποτιθέμεναι καὶ λαμβάνουσαι τὸ τί ἐστὶν ὅλον αἱ μαθηματικαὶ τί μονὰς καὶ τί τὸ περιττόν, καὶ αἱ ἄλλαι ὁμοίως.

§ 7. ἔτι κ.τ.λ.] This seems to be another argument (after the digression in §§ 5, 6) to prove that οὐκ ἔστι τὸ αὐτοῦ εὖ ἄνευ οἰκονομίας οὐδ' ἄνευ πολιτείας. So Eustr.—τοῦτο πρὸς τὰ ἀνωτέρω ἐστὶν ὅτι δεῖ τῇ εἰδήσει τοῦ οἰκείου ἀγαθοῦ, τῆς τοῦ κοινου ἀγαθοῦ γνώσεως . . . ὁ γὰρ βουλευσάμενος ἢ ἤμαρτε . . . ἢ ἠυστόχησε . . . ἐν τε τῷ καθόλου καὶ τῷ καθέκαστα. ὥστε ἀμφω δεῖ τὸν φρόνιμον ἔχειν . . . καθόλου δὲ ἀγαθὸν λέγει καὶ καθέκαστον, τὸ κοινὸν καὶ τὸ ἰδικόν· ἔστι δὲ τὸ μὲν ἰδικόν τοῦ ἰδίως φρονίμου, τὸ δὲ κοινόν τοῦ οἰκονομικοῦ, ὥστε δεῖ τῷ ἰδίως φρονίμῳ τοῦ οἰκονομικοῦ καὶ πολιτικοῦ. *Cf.* the Paragraph.—Ἐτι, ἐπεὶ ἡ ἀμαρτία ἢ περὶ τὰς πράξεις ἀπὸ ἀγνοίας συμβαίνει, ἢ τῆς καθόλου, ἢ τῆς μερικῆς (καὶ γὰρ ὁ ἀγνοῶν καθόλου, ὅτι τὰ βαρύσταθα ὕδατα φαῦλα, καὶ ὁ τοῦτο μὲν εἰδώς, ἀγνοῶν δὲ μερικῶς, ὅτι τάδε τὰ ὕδατα βαρύσταθα, ὁμοίως ἀμαρτήσεται· χρήσεται

1142 a. 20. γὰρ ἑκάτερος τοῖς φαύλοις ὕδασι), φανερόν ὅτι πρὸς τὸ μὴ ἀμαρτεῖν, ἀναγκαῖον μὴ μόνον εἶδέναι, ὅτι τάδε τὰ ὕδατα βαρύσταθμα, ἀλλὰ καὶ ὅτι τὰ βαρύσταθμα φαῦλα· δείται ἄρα ἡ μερική φρόνησις τῆς καθόλου φρονήσεως τῆς πολιτικῆς, καὶ ἀδύνατον τὴν ἠθικὴν ἀνευ τῆς πολιτικῆς συστήναι, ὥσπερ καὶ τὴν μερικὴν γνώσιν ἀνευ τῆς καθόλου μὴ ἀμαρτάνειν ἀδύνατον. It would thus appear that in the present § we have a parallel adduced from medical science to illustrate the interdependence of a knowledge of what is good for others and a knowledge of what is good for oneself. The universal πάντα τὰ βαρύσταθμα ὕδατα φαῦλα is parallel to the knowledge of the social good; the particular, τοῦ βαρύσταθμον, to the knowledge of one's own good. As the conclusions of ἰατρική demand the knowledge of both a major and a minor, so do those of φρόνησις—even when it seems to be concerned merely with 'one's own' good.

Zell refers to *Probl.* 933 b. 28, where it is stated that τὸ μὲν ἀλμυρὸν βαρὺ, τὸ δὲ γλυκὺ κοῦφον. The adjective βαρύσταθμον appears to occur only here in the Aristotelian Corpus. Susemihl brackets this §.

- a. 23. § 8. ὅτι δ' ἡ φρόνησις οὐκ ἐπιστήμη, φανερόν τοῦ γὰρ ἔσχατου ἐστίν, ὥσπερ εἴρηται] *Cf. Met. K.* 1. 1059 b. 26 πᾶσα ἐπιστήμη τῶν καθόλου καὶ οὐ τῶν ἔσχατων. For this sense of ἔσχατον (= ultimate individual) see above, note on vi. 8. 2 b. 28. The expression τοῦ ἔσχατου ἐστίν ἡ φρόνησις has not actually occurred before, but, as Ramsauer notes, the equivalence of τὸ καθ' ἑκάστον and τὸ ἔσχατον is assumed.
- a. 25. § 9. νῶ] *i.e.* τῶ θεωρητικῶ νῶ as distinguished below in vi. 11. 4 from the πρακτικὸς νοῦς, which is τοῦ ἔσχατου καὶ ἐνδεχομένου καὶ τῆς ἐτέρας προτάσεως.
- a. 26. λόγος] = συλλογισμός.
- a. 27. ἐπιστήμη] *i.e.* mediate, deductively derived knowledge.

οὐχ ἡ τῶν ἰδίων, ἀλλ' οἷα αἰσθανόμεθα ὅτι τὸ [ἐν τοῖς μαθηματικοῖς] ἔσχατον τρίγωνον] We have here the Aristotelian distinction between the ἴδια αἰσθητά (*propria sensibilia* of the Schoolmen) and the κοινὰ αἰσθητά (*communia sensibilia*), as explained in *de An.* ii. 6. 418 a. 7 λεκτέον δὲ καθ' ἑκάστην αἰσθησιν περὶ τῶν αἰσθητῶν πρῶτον. λέγεται δὲ τὸ αἰσθητὸν τριχῶς, ὧν δύο μὲν καθ' αὐτὰ φάμεν αἰσθάνεσθαι, τὸ δὲ ἐν κατὰ συμβεβηκός. τῶν δὲ δύο τὸ μὲν ἴδιον ἐστίν ἑκάστης αἰσθήσεως, τὸ δὲ κοινὸν πασῶν. λέγω δ' ἴδιον μὲν ὃ μὴ ἐνδέχεται ἐτέρα αἰσθήσει αἰσθάνεσθαι, καὶ περὶ ὃ μὴ ἐνδέχεται

ἀπατηθῆναι, οἷον ὄψις χρώματος καὶ ἀκοή ψόφου καὶ γεῦσις χυμοῦ. ἡ δ' ἀφή 1142 a. 27. πλείους μὲν ἔχει διαφοράς· ἀλλ' ἐκάστη γε κρίνει περὶ τούτων, καὶ οὐκ ἀπατᾶται ὅτι χρῶμα οὐδ' ὅτι ψόφος, ἀλλὰ τί τὸ κεχρωσμένον ἢ ποῦ, ἢ τί τὸ ψοφοῦν ἢ ποῦ. τὰ μὲν οὖν τοιαῦτα λέγεται ἴδια ἐκάστου, κοινὰ δὲ κίνησις, ἡρεμία, ἀριθμός, σχῆμα, μέγεθος· τὰ γὰρ τοιαῦτα οὐδεμιᾶς ἐστὶν ἴδια, ἀλλὰ κοινὰ πάσαις· καὶ γὰρ ἀφή κινήσις τίς ἐστὶν αἰσθητὴ καὶ ὄψει. κατὰ συμβεβηκός δὲ λέγεται αἰσθητὴν, οἷον εἰ τὸ λευκὸν εἶη Διάρους υἱός· κατὰ συμβεβηκός γὰρ τούτου αἰσθάνεται, ὅτι τῷ λευκῷ συμβέβηκε τοῦτο οὐ αἰσθάνεται. διὸ καὶ οὐδὲν πάσχει ἢ τοιοῦτον ὑπὸ τοῦ αἰσθητοῦ. τῶν δὲ καθ' αὐτὰ αἰσθητῶν τὰ ἴδια κυρίως ἐστὶν αἰσθητά, καὶ πρὸς δ' ἡ οὐσία πέφυκεν ἐκάστης αἰσθήσεως. Cf. περὶ ἐνυπνίων I. 458 b. 4 κοινὰ δ' ἐπιτὶ τῶν αἰσθήσεων οἷον σχῆμα καὶ μέγεθος καὶ κίνησις καὶ τάλλα τὰ τοιαῦτα, ἴδια δ' οἷον χρῶμα ψόφος χυμός. We must note the admission, made at the end of the passage quoted from *de An.* ii. 6 that the κοινὰ αἰσθητά are after all not αἰσθητά in the strict sense (κυρίως). In *de An.* iii. 1. 425 b. 5 they are called the common concomitants (τὰ ἀκολουθοῦντα καὶ κοινὰ) of the ἴδια αἰσθητά, and must be regarded as really *intelligibilia* formally present in the *propria sensibilia*. As such, they differ from the κατὰ συμβεβηκός αἰσθητά of *de An.* ii. 6. 418 a. 20, which are merely *empirically inferred* proper sensibles: e.g. when one infers the bitterness of the yellow bile which one sees, the bitterness is κατὰ συμβεβηκός αἰσθητόν (*de An.* iii. 1. 425 b. 1). The eye, as such, is not affected by it. The κοινὰ αἰσθητά are described by Hamilton (*Reid*, p. 830) as 'concomitant cognitions to which the impression on the organ of the proper sensible only affords the occasion';—and Grant says—'We see in the apprehension of number, figure, and the like, not an operation of sense, but the mind putting its own forms and categories, *i.e.* itself, on the external object.' In *de An.* iii. 1. 425 a. 13 the five common sensibles enumerated in *de An.* ii. 6 are reduced to one—κίνησις:—ἀλλὰ μὴν οὐδέ τῶν κοινῶν οἷον τ' εἶναι αἰσθητήριόν τι ἴδιον, ὡς ἐκάστη αἰσθήσει αἰσθανόμεθα (οὐ) κατὰ συμβεβηκός¹, οἷον κινήσεως, στάσεως, σχήματος, μεγέθους, ἀριθμοῦ ἑνός.² ταῦτα γὰρ πάντα κινήσει αἰσθανόμεθα, οἷον μέγεθος κινήσει· ὅσοι καὶ σχῆμα· μέγεθος γὰρ τι τὸ σχῆμα· τὸ δ' ἡρεμοῦν τῷ μὴ κι-

¹ The *οὐ* is Torstrik's conjecture. The κοινὰ αἰσθητά are not to be confounded with τὰ κατὰ συμβεβηκός αἰσθητά of *de An.* ii. 6. 418 a. 20. The κοινὰ αἰσθητά are not *empirically inferred* from the ἴδια αἰσθητά, but are *formally present* in them: see *de An.* iii. 1. 424 a. 27 τῶν δὲ κοινῶν ἤδη ἔχομεν αἰσθησιν κοινῶν *οὐ* κατὰ συμβεβηκός.

² We have not really a sixth common sensible added here to the five given in ii. 6, for *ὡς* is included in ἀριθμός.

1142 a. 27. *νεῖσθαι*: ὁ δ' ἀριθμὸς τῆ ἀποφάσει τοῦ συνεχοῦς, καὶ τοῖς ἰδίοις· ἐκάστη γὰρ ἐν αἰσθάνεται αἰσθησις. ὥστε δῆλον ὅτι ἀδύνατον ὄτουοῦν ἰδίαν αἰσθησιν εἶναι τούτων, οἷον κινήσεως· οὕτω γὰρ ἔσται ὥσπερ νῦν τῆ ὄψει τὸ γλυκὺ αἰσθανόμεθα. τοῦτο δ' ὅτι ἀμφοῖν ἔχοντες τυγχάνομεν αἰσθησιν, ἧ καὶ ὅταν συμπέσωσιν ἅμα γνωρίζομεν. On this reduction of the κοινὰ αἰσθητὰ το κινήσις Hamilton (*Reid*, p. 829 note *) has the following remarks—
 'Many modern philosophers when they attempted to explain the origin of our notion of extension from motion, and, in particular, the motion of the hand, were not aware that they had the Stagirite at their head. It is to be remembered, however, that Aristotle does not attempt, like them, to explain by motion our necessary concept¹ of space, but merely our contingent perception of the relative extension of this or that particular object. This, however, takes it for granted, that by motion (κινήσις) Aristotle intends *local motion*. But motion is with him a generic term, comprising under it four, or six, species; and in point of fact, by motion Aristotle may here (*de An.* iii. 1), as in many, if not most, other places of his psychological writings, mean a subjective mutation (ἀλλοίωσις) or modification of the percipient. This too is the interpretation given to the passage by the great majority, if not the whole, of the ancient expositors It is therefore remarkable that Dr. Trendelenburg, in his late valuable edition of the *De Anima*, should have apparently contemplated the interpretation by local motion, as the only one proposed, or possible.' See also Trendelenburg's *Logische Untersuchungen*, vol. i. chapters 5, 6, 7, and 8, in which the intuition of motion is described as fundamental in sensation and thought—
 'Die Bewegung ist die erste Thätigkeit des Denkens und des Seins: der Raum ist das äussere Erzeugniss der Bewegung: die Zeit ist die Vorstellung des innern Masses der Bewegung' (p. 168).

The κοινὰ αἰσθητὰ, as distinguished from the ἴδια αἰσθητὰ, are to be assigned directly to the so-called κοινὸν ἢ κύριον αἰσθητήριον ἢ κοινὴ αἰσθησις, as faculty: (see *de Mem.* i. 450 a. 9). But ultimately the ἴδια αἰσθητὰ also are to be referred to it. 'Common sense—κοινὴ αἰσθησις,' says Hamilton (*Reid*, p. 756), 'was employed by Aristotle to denote the faculty in which the various reports of the several senses are reduced to the unity of a common apperception': see *περὶ ὕπνου καὶ ἐγρηγόρσεως* 2. 455 a. 12 ἐπεὶ δ' ὑπάρχει καθ' ἐκάστην αἰσθησιν τὸ μὲν τι ἴδιον τὸ δὲ τι κοινόν, ἴδιον μὲν οἷον τῆ ὄψει τὸ ὄραν, τῆ δ' ἀκοῇ τὸ ἀκούειν, ταῖς δ' ἄλλαις κατὰ τὸν αὐτὸν τρόπον· ἔστι δὲ τις καὶ

¹ Kant would say—intuition, not concept.

κοινή δύναμις ἀκολουθοῦσα πάσαις, ἣ καὶ ὅτι ὁρᾷ καὶ ἀκούει καὶ αἰσθάνεται· 1142 a. 27. οὐ γὰρ δὴ τῇ γε ὄψει ὁρᾷ ὅτι ὁρᾷ. καὶ κρίνει δὴ καὶ δύναται κρίνειν ὅτι ἕτερα τὰ γλυκία τῶν λευκῶν, οὔτε γεύσει οὔτε ὄψει οὐτ' ἀμφοῖν, ἀλλὰ τινὶ κοινῇ μορίῳ τῶν αἰσθητηρίων ἀπάντων. ἔστι μὲν γὰρ μία αἴσθησις, καὶ τὸ κύριον αἰσθητήριον· ἐν τῷ δ' εἶναι αἰσθήσει τοῦ γένους ἑκάστου ἕτερον, οἷον ψόφου καὶ χρώματος. τοῦτο δ' ἄμα τῷ ὀπτικῷ μάλισθ' ὑπάρχει· τοῦτο μὲν γὰρ χωρίζεται τῶν ἄλλων αἰσθητηρίων, τὰ δ' ἄλλα τούτου ἀχάριστα.

Κοινή αἴσθησις is thus the 'consciousness' of sensations—the reference of them to a self-conscious subject, this subject being embodied in a tactually sensitive organism governed, in the case of τὰ ἔναιμα, by a heart—*de Somno*, ch. 3. 456 a. 4 πάντα τὰ ἔναιμα καρδίαν ἔχει, καὶ ἡ ἀρχὴ τῆς κινήσεως καὶ τῆς αἰσθήσεως τῆς κυρίας ἐντεῦθεν ἐστίν. Κοινή αἴσθησις is the ultimate 'faculty' of *all* sensation—*i.e.* τὰ κοινὰ αἰσθητά (magnitude, figure, &c.) are indeed to be referred to it, but so are ultimately the ἴδια αἰσθητά also. It is the living being, one and indivisible, conscious of the various ἴδια αἰσθητά in the forms or categories of μέγεθος, σχῆμα, στάσις, ἀριθμός, κίνησις. But the living being is essentially ἀρχὴ κινήσεως καὶ αἰσθήσεως (*de Somno* 4. 456 a. 5), and the categories in which it is conscious of αἰσθητά may be reduced to one—*viz.* κίνησις. Since, however, ἡ τοῦ αἰσθητοῦ ἐνέργεια καὶ τῆς αἰσθήσεως ἡ αὐτὴ ἐστὶ καὶ μία (*de An.* iii. 2. 425 b. 25)—since in actual experience subject and object are one, this ultimate category of the mind is also ultimate in things: 'die Bewegung ist die erste Thätigkeit des Denkens und des Seins.'

On the general subject of the ἴδια and κοινὰ αἰσθητά, see Hamilton's *Reid*, note D on Primary and Secondary Qualities of Body, especially pp. 828–830 (Hamilton regards the Aristotelian distinction as analogous to that between Primary and Secondary Qualities): see also Trendelenburg, *de Anima*, notes on passages quoted above, and Edwin Wallace, *Psychology of Aristotle*, Introduction § ix, and notes on passages quoted above: see also Grant's useful note *ad loc.*

οἷον] 'like that by which we perceive.' The nature of the per- a. 28. ception involved in φρόνησις is merely illustrated by means of the mathematician's perception of the common sensible σχῆμα. The ἄτομον, or particular, which the mathematician, as such, perceives is the *particular shape* (triangular, quadrilateral, circular) of the figure before him; and shape is not the datum of a single sense

1142 a. 28. as colour *e.g.* is, but is given in the perceptions of more than one sense. I thus take τρίγωνον to be merely an *example* of the common sensible σχῆμα (κύκλος would have done equally well), and dismiss as untenable the view of Michelet and other commentators, that what the mathematician is here said to perceive is that 'what is ultimate or simplest in geometry is the triangle'—*i.e.* that all figures may be broken up into triangles. But surely, if the writer had been thinking of 'that which is ultimate in geometry,' he would not have mentioned a *figure* at all, but στιγμή.

Φρόνησις then is concerned with ἔσχατα—particulars, which it perceives, as αἴσθησις perceives its ἔσχατα, *immediately*: but the ἔσχατα of φρόνησις are not like the ἴδια αἰσθητά perceived by the special senses,—'this is red, this is sweet,'—but rather, they are like the perceptions of the geometer—'this shape before me is triangular, or circular.' As a coloured object seen, or a resisting object touched, is the *occasion* for the geometer of the perception of σχῆμα by his κοινὸν αἰσθητήριον, so in the φρόνιμος the various feelings and circumstances which make up τὰ ἐν ταῖς πράξεσι are responded to by an activity of the moral reason which imposes on the ὕλη presented to it its own form of Duty. As the geometer solves his problem by perceiving *shapes* in the data of eye (or touch), and recognising this construction, or manipulation of shapes, as better fitted for the solution of a given problem than that other construction, so the φρόνιμος solves the problem of τὸ εὖ ζῆν by apprehending τὰ ἐν ταῖς πράξεσι, not as things pleasant or painful to sense here and now, but as things which are *good* or *bad*—*i.e.* fitted, or not fitted, to have a permanent place in the general plan of life: ἀγαθοῦ γὰρ ἢ αἴσθησις, ἢ αἴσθησις, ἀντιλαμβάνεσθαι οὐχ οἷα τε οὐδέ κακοῦ, ἀλλὰ μόνον τοῦ τέροντος ἢ ἀκίοντος. τὸ δὲ ἀγαθὸν καὶ τὸ κακὸν τοῦ νοῦ μόνου κρίνειν ἐστὶ: Themistius, vol. ii. p. 211, ed. Spengel.

Although I believe that the *first* meaning of τὸ [ἐν τοῖς μαθηματικοῖς]¹ ἔσχατον in the writer's mind was the geometer's *particular*—*this particular shape, e.g.* triangle, he could not fail to be conscious of the other meaning of ἔσχατον, as the *last step* in ζήτησις: see *E. N.*

¹ ἐν τοῖς μαθ. bracketed by Bywater. The words may very well have been inserted by a scribe in the interest of the interpretation adopted by Michelet referred to above: in his *Contributions* (p. 51), however, Bywater remarks that 'it is quite possible that ἐν τοῖς μαθηματικοῖς is only out of place, and that it came in originally after αἰσθανόμεθα.'

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1142 a. 29. αἰσθησις) and ἡ ἀρχιτεκτονικὴ φρόνησις (which cannot be classed as a kind of αἰσθησις). I prefer the ἡ reading; but anyhow the clause is awkward and unnecessary.

CHAPTER IX.

ARGUMENT.

Deliberating, or taking counsel, is a species of seeking.

What is good counsel? Is it scientific knowledge, or opinion, or happy guessing? ¹

It cannot be scientific knowledge, for he who knows does not seek, and taking good counsel, or deliberating well, is a form of deliberation, i. e. of seeking.

It cannot be happy guessing, for one makes a happy guess all at once without thinking, whereas deliberation takes time. Nor is it sagacity, which is a kind of happy guessing.

Again, it cannot be opinion of any kind.

Since deliberating well is deliberating 'correctly,' it will be 'correctness' of some kind,—not correctness of scientific knowledge, however, for 'correct' is used only where 'incorrect' is possible, and scientific knowledge is never 'incorrect'; nor of opinion, for correctness of opinion is truth—something definite and settled (indeed, an opinion as such, whether true or false, is always something definite and settled), whereas the man who deliberates (whether correctly or incorrectly) has not yet reached anything definite and settled, but is still seeking and thinking. It remains, then, that deliberating well is a correct process of thinking conceived as still going on, not a correct result of thinking conceived as definitely affirmed.

But when we speak of deliberation as 'correct,' we must be careful to note that it is not enough that it should be 'correct' as regards any single one of the three elements—end, means, and length of time taken—which are distinguished in deliberation: it must be 'correct' as regards all three, e. g. he does not deliberate well, or 'correctly,' who attains to a good end by bad means; or who even attains to a good end by good means, but takes an unusually long time in his deliberation, and so runs the risk of missing the opportunity of action.

There are of course many ends in relation to which we say of a man, 'he deliberates well,' specifying in each case the end; but when a man 'deliberates well or correctly' in relation to the end par excellence—the chief end of man—we say without any qualification, 'he deliberates well or correctly,'—'he is a man of good counsel.' Good counsel then, in the strict sense, will be the characteristic quality of the prudent man—the man who has a true conception of the chief end and employs the means which subserve it.

This chapter, as Grant explains, commences the examination of a set of faculties (εἰβουλία, εὐστοχία, ἀγχίνοια, σύνεσις, and γνῶμη) cognate to φρόνησις, or forming part of it.

¹ I owe this rendering of εὐστοχία to Peters.

§ 1. *περὶ εὐβουλίας.*] ‘It is an abrupt, awkward commencement 1142 a. 32. of the chapter to say, “enquiring and deliberating are different, for deliberating is a species of enquiring.” But what is meant apparently is, to bring “good counsel” under the head of enquiring, which separates it at once from both science and opinion.’—Grant. This seems to me to be the correct view of the place of the clause; and I cannot agree with Kassow (*Forsch.* p. 46), who says—‘das Capitel das über die εὐβουλία handelt, beginnt mit einem Satz der völlig zusammenhanglos dasteht: τὸ ζητεῖν δὲ καὶ τὸ βουλευέσθαι διαφέρει· τὸ γὰρ βουλευέσθαι ζητεῖν τι ἐστίν.’ The Paraphrast brings out the connexion, recognised by Grant, as follows—καὶ πρῶτον περὶ εὐβουλίας· οἰκείως γὰρ ἔχει μάλιστα τῇ φρονήσει, ἧς τὸν λόγον ἀρτίως ἀπηλλάξαμεν· ὥστε τὸν περὶ εὐβουλίας λόγον τῷ περὶ τῆς φρονήσεως συναπτέον. πρῶτον μὲν οὖν οὐκ ἔστι ζήτησις· ἐπὶ πλείον γὰρ ἔστιν ἢ ζήτησις τῆς εὐβουλίας· οὐ μόνον γὰρ ὁ εὖ βουλευόμενος, ἀλλὰ καὶ ὁ κακῶς βουλευόμενος ζητεῖ, καὶ οὐ μόνον τὰ ἐνδεχόμενα, ἀλλὰ καὶ τὰ ἀναγκῆν ζητοῦνται· περὶ δὲ ἐστὶν ἢ ἐπιστήμη· οἶον, εἰ τὸ τρίγωνον ἔχει δύο ὀρθάς, ζητεῖται πρὸς τῆς ἐπιστήμης, καὶ εἰ ἡ σελήνη σφαιροειδῆς ἐστὶ· διὰ τοῦτο ἢ εὐβουλία οὐκ ἔστιν ταῦτόν τῇ ζητήσει· ἔτι δέ, οὐδέ ἐπιστήμη ἐστὶν ἢ εὐβουλία· ὁ μὲν γὰρ ἐπιστήμων οὐ ζητεῖ περὶ ὧν ἐπίσταται, ὁ δὲ εὐβουλος ζητεῖ· ἢ γὰρ εὐβουλία βουλή τις ἐστίν· ἢ δὲ βουλή ζήτησις ἐστὶν τοῦ τί δεῖ πράττειν· καὶ ὁ βουλευόμενος ζητεῖ καὶ λογίζεται περὶ τῶν πράξεων, ὅπως εὖ καὶ καλῶς γένηται· ὥστε ἢ μὲν εὐβουλία ζήτησις, ἢ δὲ ἐπιστήμη οὐ τοιαύτη· ἢ εὐβουλία ἄρα οὐκ ἔστιν ἐπιστήμη. The writer of the *M. M.* thus describes the relation of εὐβουλία to φρόνησις ii. 3. 1199 a. 4—ἢ δὲ γε εὐβουλία ἐστὶ μὲν περὶ ταῦτα τῇ φρονήσει (περὶ γὰρ τὰ πρακτά ἐστὶ τὰ περὶ αἵρεσιν καὶ φυγὴν ὄντα), ἔστιν δὲ οὐκ ἄνευ φρονήσεως. ἢ μὲν γὰρ φρόνησις πρακτικὴ τούτων ἐστὶ, ἢ δὲ εὐβουλία ἕξις ἢ διάθεσις ἢ τι τοιοῦτον ἢ ἐπιτεκτικὴ τῶν ἐν τοῖς πρακτοῖς βελτίστων καὶ συμφωρωτάτων.

§ 2. *ἄνευ τε γὰρ λόγου*] does not involve a process of reasoning. b. 2.

§ 3. *ἀγχίνουα*] The editors refer to *An. Post.* i. 34. 89 b. 10 for b. 5. the definition of ἀγχίνουα as εὐστοχία τις ἐν ἀσκέπτῳ χρόνῳ τοῦ μέσου. It is the faculty of guessing at once the ‘middle term,’ or cause, which explains a phenomenon; and thus answers to Locke’s sagacity (*Essay*, iv. 2. 3 ‘a quickness of the mind to find out these intermediate ideas that shall discover the agreement or disagreement of any other, and to apply them right’), or to what is now called the ‘Scientific Imagination.’

1142 b. 6. οὐδὲ δὴ δόξα ἢ εὐβουλία οὐδεμία] After this assertion we expect a clause giving the reason for it; but instead we have a clause which goes off with ἀλλά. It is not till we come to the words 1142 b. 13 καὶ γὰρ ἡ δόξα . . . λογίζεται that we get the reason for the assertion οὐδὲ δὴ δόξα . . . οὐδεμία. The run of the passage would be greatly improved if we could adopt Zwinger's rearrangement (for which see Zell's note and Susemihl's *Appar. Crit., ad loc.*) so far as to insert 1142 b. 13 καὶ γὰρ ἡ δόξα . . . λογίζεται after οὐδεμία 1142 b. 7. The sentence 1142 b. 7 ἀλλ' ἐπεὶ ὁ μὲν κακῶς . . . b. 12 πᾶν οὐ δόξα ἐστὶν would then come in without awkwardness. As for the words 1142 b. 12 ἀλλὰ μὴν . . . οὐπω φάσις, they are rejected by several critics. Their inconsistency with 1142 b. 16 ἀλλ' ὀρθότης τίς ἐστὶν ἢ εὐβουλία βουλήσ is insisted on by Kassow (*Forsch.* p. 46)—'Aeltere Erklärer, wie Giphanius und Zwinger, nehmen Anstoss an den von mir eingeklammerten Worten (*i. e.* 1142 b. 12 ἀλλὰ μὴν . . . οὐπω φάσις), die neueren halten es für hinreichend, zu διανοίας ἄρα λείπεται die Worte ὀρθότητα αὐτὴν εἶναι zu ergänzen. Allerdings handelt es sich um die Frage: τίνος ὀρθότης ἢ εὐβουλία; aber wenn auf diese bereits mit λείπεται κ.τ.λ. die letzte Antwort gegeben wird, wie passen dann die Worte ἀλλ' ὀρθότης τίς ἐστὶν ἢ εὐβουλία βουλήσ, in denen doch ersichtlich erst das Endresultat der Untersuchung angegeben werden soll? Durch Umstellung ist, wie ich glaube, hier nicht zu helfen.'

b. 8. ὁ δ' εὐ ὀρθῶς βουλευέται] *i. e.* εὐ = ὀρθῶς, therefore εὐβουλία is ὀρθότης τίς.

b. 10. ἐπιστήμης μὲν γὰρ οὐκ ἔστιν ὀρθότης (οὐδε γὰρ ἁμαρτία)] as Eustrat. explains—ἐπιστήμη is itself ὀρθότης, and there is no ὀρθότης ὀρθότητος. The infallibility of ἐπιστήμη, as such, has already been asserted in ch. 3. § 1 and ch. 6. § 2.

b. 11. δόξης δ' ὀρθότης ἀλήθεια] Of course ἐπιστήμη, although it has properly no ὀρθότης, has its ἀλήθεια. It is one of the faculties οἷς ἀληθεύομεν καὶ μηδέποτε διαψευδόμεθα, ch. 6. § 2.

ἅμα δὲ καὶ ὄρισται ἤδη πᾶν οὐ δόξα ἐστὶν] 'the object of opinion is, as such, always something definite': δόξα has already adopted a definite view: βουλή is a process which has not yet led to the adoption of anything definite. As the Paraph. puts it—ἡ μὲν εὐβουλία ζητεῖν ἐστὶν, ἡ δὲ δόξα εὐρηκέναι.

b. 12. ἀλλὰ μὴν οὐδ' . . . οὐπω φάσις] If this sentence be retained (and

I think that Rasso and Susemihl go too far when they bracket it, 1142 b. 12. after Giphanius), we ought to take the first clause very closely with what immediately precedes—‘The object of δόξα is always a definite result already reached; but εὐβουλία is only a process (λόγος) which has not yet reached a result.’ Then follow the words διανοίας ἄρα λείπεται, to which we must supply ὀρθότητα αὐτὴν εἶναι. Since εὐβουλία cannot be the ὀρθότης of either ἐπιστήμη or δόξα, for the reasons given, it remains that it is the ὀρθότης of the discursive faculty—the faculty which carries on the process of reviewing *the steps which lead to results*, but is not itself the ὑπόληψις of these results—αὕτη γὰρ (sc. διάνοια) οὕτω φάσις.

§ 4. ἀλλ’ ὀρθότης τίς ἐστίν ἢ εὐβουλία βουλήσ] Rasso (*Forsch.* b. 16. p. 46), as we have seen, regards these words as inconsistent with διανοίας ἄρα λείπεται. I think that something might be said for bracketing them, and retaining the sentence ἀλλὰ μὴν οὐδ’ ἄνευ λόγου ἢ εὐβουλία. διανοίας ἄρα λείπεται· αὕτη γὰρ οὕτω φάσις, bracketed by Rasso. As for the words 1142 b. 16 διὸ ἢ βουλή ζητητῆα πρῶτον τί καὶ περὶ τί—they are bracketed by Rasso, because (*Forsch.* p. 46) ‘das Wesen der βουλή ist ja schon viele Male erörtert und im Folgenden ist davon nicht die Rede, vielmehr wird der Begriff der ὀρθότης, auf den es hier ganz allein ankommt, näher bestimmt.’

ἐπεὶ δ’ ἢ ὀρθότης πλεοναχῶς, δῆλον ὅτι οὐ πᾶσα] ὀρθῶς βεβουλευσθαι b. 17. is an expression which lends itself to several inaccurate senses. It is inaccurate to describe (1) the man who has taken *the right means* to the attainment of a *bad end* as ὀρθῶς βεβουλευμένος: or (2) the man who has reached a *good end* by *improper means*: or (3) the man who has reached a good end by right means, but only after spending an *unreasonably long time* in deliberation. Thus πᾶσα must be taken distributively: ‘when we say ὀρθῶς βεβουλευμένος, we do not wish the expression to be understood in *any one* of its various senses, but only in the one strict sense in which it is applied to the man who reaches a good end, by right means discovered within a reasonable time.’

ὁ γὰρ ἀκρατής κ.τ.λ.] The description of the ἀκρατής here, as b. 18. employing λογισμὸς for the attainment of a bad end, is not consistent with the account of him given in *E. N.* vii, and answers rather to the ἀκάλαστος. See Grant *ad loc.*

δ προτίθεται ἰδεῖν] ἰδεῖν is the reading of K^b, L^b, M^b, O^b, CCC.

1142 b. 18. Cambr., B². Instead of *ιδεῖν* NC and Par. 1853 have *καὶ σκέψασθαι δεῖν*—*σκέψασθαι* being probably a gloss on *ιδεῖν*: *cf.* Eustrat. *ὁ γὰρ ὁ ἀκρατῆς καὶ ἀπλῶς ὁ φαῦλος προτίθεται ὡς τέλος ἰδεῖν ἦτοι σκέψασθαι ὅπως αὐτοῦ ἐπιτεύξεται, καθὼ ἀκρατῆς καὶ φαῦλος, οὐκ ἴσται ὠφέλιμον.* Madvig (*Act. Crit.* 462) suggests *δεῖν* (so Γ), which is adopted by Grant (3rd ed.) and Jackson, who compare Plato, *Soph.* 221 A *ὅπερ ἄρτι προῦθέμεθα δεῖν ἐξευρεῖν.* Kassow (*Forsch.* p. 97) suggests *οὐ προτίθεται τυχεῖν*, which is adopted by Bek.², Susemihl, and Grant in his last edition. I would suggest *λαβεῖν*: *cf.* the following *εἰληφῶς*.

b. 20. *δοκεῖ κ.τ.λ.*] Fritzsche quotes, among other aphorisms, *Soph. Aeth.* 1050 *κράτιστον κτημάτων εὐβουλία.*

b. 22. § 5. *ἀλλ' ἔστι καὶ κ.τ.λ.*] Eustrat. has *ὡς γὰρ ἐν τῷ συλλογισμῷ ἐνδέχεται ἀληθὲς εἶναι συμπέρασμα, τοῦ μέσου λαμβανομένου ψευδοῦς, οὕτως ἐνδέχεται καὶ διὰ φαύλου τρόπου τέλος ἀποβῆναι χρηστόν, οἷον εἴ τις πένης μοιχεύσας ἐκ τούτου ἠπόρηκεν.* It is inaccurate, as Grant notes, to speak of 'a false middle term' (*ψευδῆ τὸν μέσον ὄρον εἶναι*), falsehood or truth belonging to propositions, not to terms. What the writer means is that either or both of the premisses containing the middle term may be false, and yet the conclusion be true: see *An. Prior.* ii. 2. 53 b. 4 *ἔστι μὲν οὖν οὕτως ἔχειν, ὥστ' ἀληθεῖς εἶναι τὰς προτάσεις, δι' ὧν ὁ συλλογισμὸς ἔστι ὅσπερ ψευδεῖς ἔστι ὅσπερ τὴν μὲν ἀληθῆ, τὴν δὲ ψευδῆ τὸ δὲ συμπέρασμα ἢ ἀληθὲς ἢ ψεῦδος ἐξ ἀνάγκης. ἐξ ἀληθῶν μὲν οὖν οὐκ ἔστι ψεῦδος συλλογίσασθαι, ἐκ ψευδῶν δ' ἔστιν ἀληθὲς, πλὴν οὐ διότι, ἀλλ' ὅτι τοῦ γὰρ διότι οὐκ ἔστιν ἐκ ψευδῶν συλλογισμός.*

b. 27. § 6. *ἐκείνη*] *i. e.* the *βουλή* which, having a good end and employing good means, yet takes too long time. The man who comes to a 'right' decision only when the time for action is past, cannot be called *εὐβουλος*.

ἀλλ' ὀρθότης ἢ κατὰ τὸ ὠφέλιμον, καὶ οὐ δεῖ καὶ ὡς καὶ ὅτε] 'but rightness where the advantageous is concerned—end, means, and length of time, being all what they ought to be.' I scarcely think that Eustr. is right in making *καὶ οὐ δεῖ* exexegetical of *τὸ ὠφέλιμον*. He says—*ἐκείνη ἢ ὀρθότης τῆς εὐβουλίας ἐστὶν εὐβουλία, ἢ καὶ τὸ ὠφέλιμον ἔχει τοῦ τέλους, καὶ τοῦ τρόπου τὸ ἐπαινετόν, ὃ δηλοῖ τὸ ὡς, καὶ τοῦ χρόνου τὸ ἄρκουν, ὅπερ δηλοῖ τὸ ὅτε. τὸ δὲ ὠφέλιμον καὶ οὐ δεῖ ἐκ παραλλήλου ἐστὶ τὸ αὐτό.*

b. 28. § 7.] The Paraph. Heliodorus has the following note: *Ἐπεὶ δὲ τὸ τέλος ἢ καθόλου ἐστὶ καὶ ἰσχυρόν, ἢ μερικόν, ἰσχυρόν μὲν, πρὸς δὲ πᾶσα πρᾶ-*

ξίς ἀνθρωπίνη φέρεται, μερικὸν δέ, πρὸς ὃ τινες πράξεις φέρουσιν, ἀκολουθῶς 1142 b. 28. καὶ ἡ εὐβουλία ἔχει· ἡ μὲν γὰρ καθόλου ἐστίν, ἥτις ὀρθὴ καὶ ἀγαθὴ βουλή ἐστὶ περὶ τῶν φερότων εἰς τὸ ἔσχατον τέλος, τὴν κατ' ἀρετὴν ζωὴν ἢ δὲ μερικὴ, ἥτις εἰς μερικὸν τι τέλος φέρει, ὃ οὐκ ἐστὶ μὲν τὸ ἔσχατον, φέρει δὲ εἰς τὸ ἔσχατον τέλος. Thus τὸ τέλος τὸ ἀπλῶς is the τέλος τέλειον—εὐδαιμονία: cf. *E. N.* vi. 5. 1 δοκεῖ δὴ φρονίμου εἶναι τὸ δύνασθαι καλῶς βουλευσασθαι περὶ τὰ αὐτῷ ἀγαθὰ καὶ συμφέροντα, οὐ κατὰ μέρος, οἷον ποῖα πρὸς ὑγίειαν, πρὸς ἰσχύν, ἀλλὰ ποῖα πρὸς τὸ εὖ ζῆν ὅλως.

τις δέ] so Sus. and Byw. after K^b, M^b, Γ. Bekker's ἡ δέ τις is b. 30. given by L^b, NC, O^b, B¹. 2. 3: ἡ τις δέ by Cambr.

ἡ κατὰ τὸ συμφέρον πρὸς τὸ τέλος, οὐ ἡ φρόνησις ἀληθῆς ὑπόληψις b. 32. ἐστίν] Bywater has restored τὸ before τέλος from K^b and Γ, instead of τι read by Bekker. It has been suggested that τὸ συμφέρον, not τέλος, is the antecedent to which οὐ relates—on the ground that φρόνησις is concerned with means to the end given by ἠθικὴ ἀρετὴ (see *E. N.* vi. ch. 12. § 8—ch. 13. § 2). But then, we should have had πρὸς τὸ τέλος τὸ ἀπλῶς, not πρὸς τὸ τέλος or πρὸς τι τέλος. The clause beginning οὐ is necessary to define the reference of τὸ (or τι) τέλος. Nor is there any difficulty in making φρόνησις the ὑπόληψις τοῦ τέλους. Φρόνησις is ἀρχιτεκτονική, as well as περὶ τὰ καθ' ἕκαστα (see *E. N.* vi. 7. 7). We may say that φρόνησις indeed apprehends the end, but could not do so in the way required by morality—i. e. with a 'single eye,' unless ἠθικὴ ἀρετὴ invested that end with a moral interest. The Paraph. is quite distinct in referring οὐ to τέλος. He says that the words πρὸς τι τέλος, οὐ ἡ φρόνησις ἀληθῆς ὑπόληψις ἐστὶ ἀρετὴ καὶ οὐτὶ κατὰ τὴν πονηρὰν βουλήν, ἥτις τὰ μὲν τέλει προσήκοντα καὶ ἀκολουθῶς ζῆται, πρὸς τέλος δὲ φέρεται πονηρὸν οὐ οὐκ ἐστὶν ἡ φρόνησις ἀληθῆς ὑπόληψις.

CHAPTER X.

ARGUMENT.

Intelligence is not the same as knowledge generally, or opinion (then all men would be 'intelligent'), nor is it a special branch of knowledge, like medical science or geometry; for it is not concerned with the 'eternal and immutable,' and among things 'that come into being' only with those which, being difficult to understand, are subjects of deliberation. Its field therefore is the same as that of Prudence; but it is not Prudence: for Prudence issues commands or recommendations, whereas Intelligence merely sits, as it were, and judges. The

intelligent man, using his experience, comes to a right decision about matters within the province of Prudence laid before him by another in a speech: as he listens he does not add to his experience, but makes use of his experience, just as a man who knows Greek does not learn Greek, when he listens to another speaking Greek, but uses the Greek which he has, in order to understand what is said. The intelligent man is he who understands, or appreciates correctly, the value of recommendations made to him within the province of Prudence.

1142 b. 34. § 1. σύνεσις] intelligence, is another element in φρόνησις, or a state cognate to it. It is the faculty of understanding and appreciating good advice laid before one by another person. The συνετός, *quid* συνετός, does not initiate policies, or schemes of conduct, but has the intelligence to recognise good ones when they are presented to him. Σύνεσις is thus the excellence of the κρείττης who listens to a speech (ἄλλου λέγοντος § 3), and judges rightly as to the merits of the plan of action which it recommends (ἐπιτάττει § 2). Σύνεσις may be regarded as a stage in the development of φρόνησις. A man must have listened intelligently to what his elders advise on practical matters, before he can take rank himself as an authoritative adviser. Of course the majority of men—so far as large political questions are concerned—never become φρόνιμοι and ἐπιτακτικοί, but are, at best, only intelligent followers or critics—συνετοί.

εὐσυνεσία] All MSS. seem to give ἀσυνεσία, and, in the next line, ἀσυνέτους. Εὐσυνεσία and εὐσυνέτους is the certain emendation of H. Stephanus—made, independently it would appear, by Spengel also (see *Arist. Studien*. i. p. 212).

1148 a. 2. πάντες γὰρ ἂν ἦσαν συνετοί] He seems to mean that *all men* would then be 'intelligent,' for all men have either ἐπιστήμη or δόξα: but the Paraph. understands the words rather differently: he says—ἡ γὰρ ἂν πάντες οἱ ἐπιστήμονες ἢ οἱ δοξάζοντες συνετοὶ ἦσαν. ἀλλ' οὐκ εἰσὶν: *i. e.* either *all ἐπιστήμονες* or *all δοξάζοντες* would be συνετοί.

a. 8. § 2. ἡ μὲν γὰρ φρόνησις ἐπιτακτικὴ ἐστίν . . . ἡ δὲ σύνεσις κριτικὴ μόνον] Grant points out that 'the opposition of these terms is taken from Plato, *Politicus* 259 E–260 C,' where it is said that 'all science may be divided under the two heads of critical and mandatory'—ἄρ' οὖν συμπάσης τῆς γνωστικῆς εἰ τὸ μὲν ἐπιτακτικὸν μέρος, τὸ δὲ κριτικὸν διαιρούμενοι προσείπομεν, ἑμμελῶς ἂν φαίμεν διηρῆσθαι;

a. 10. ταῦτ' οὖν σύνεσις καὶ εὐσυνεσία καὶ συνετοὶ καὶ εὐσύνετοι] added to

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CHAPTER XI.

ARGUMENT.

Judgment is the faculty of deciding correctly what is equitable: this definition is in accordance with the view commonly held about the equitable man—that his chief characteristic is to be ready to pass favourable judgment.

The faculties mentioned—judgment, intelligence, prudence, and reason—have all, it is easy to see, the same reference, and may be ascribed to the same character: they all have to do with ultimate particulars, intelligence and judgment being faculties which come to right decisions as regards matters within the province of prudence, i. e. as regards things which men do, which are always ultimate particulars, never universals. Reason, indeed, is concerned with 'ultimates' at both ends of the series; it is both beginning and end—as speculative, it is concerned with the ultimate universals which cannot be demonstrated by syllogistic reasoning, but are the immutable first principles of scientific demonstration—as practical, it is concerned with the ultimate particulars, which are contingent, and find their place in the minor premiss of the practical syllogism: these particulars the practical reason, as regulating conduct, must perceive immediately, for it is from often perceiving them thus that a man acquires the universal principle of conduct—the prevailing bent of character.

Since reason, and the cognate faculties, intelligence and judgment, are concerned with particulars, they will require time and experience for their development: and, as a matter of fact, we see these faculties (as distinguished from the speculative faculty) growing naturally up in men, as they become older: so much so that we feel that undemonstrated assertions and opinions, coming from men of years and experience, have all the weight of demonstrations. Such men have the eye of experience and see correctly.

So much for Prudence and Wisdom. Each has its own nature, and its own sphere, and is the excellence of its own separate part of the soul.

1148 a. 10. § 1. γνώμη] rendered by Grant 'considerateness.' It is perhaps impossible to bring out in any single English word the whole meaning of this term. It may be sufficient to think of ὁ γνώμων ἔχων as 'the man of good sense and good feeling'—especially in so far as he exhibits these qualities in his judicial decisions (ἡ τοῦ ἐπιεικούς ἐστὶ κρίσις ὀρθή). The dicasts swore γνώμη τῇ ἀρίστη (οἱ δικαιοσύνη) κρίνειν—'to decide according to the best of their judgment'—cf. *Pol.* iii. 16. 1287 a. 25 ἀλλ' ἐπίτηδες παιδεύσας ὁ νόμος ἐπίστησι τὰ λοιπὰ τῇ δικαιοσύνη γνώμη κρίνειν καὶ διοικεῖν τοὺς ἀρχοντας: *Rhet.* i. 15. 1375 a. 27 φανερόν γάρ ὅτι, εἰάν μὲν ἐναντίος ἦ ὁ γεγραμμένος τῷ πράγματι, τῷ κοινῷ νόμῳ χρηστίον καὶ τοῖς ἐπιεικίσιν ὡς δικαιοτέροις. καὶ ὅτι τὸ γνώμη τῇ

ἀρίστη τοῦτ' ἐστὶ, τὸ μὴ παντελῶς χρῆσθαι τοῖς γεγραμμένοις. The 1148 a. 10. original meaning of γνώμη is 'knowledge' or 'understanding.' Thus in Democritus, quoted by Sextus Empiricus *Adv. Math.* vii. 138, we have γνώμης δὲ δύο εἰσὶν ἰδέαι, ἡ μὲν γνησίη, ἡ δὲ σκοτιή—'genuine knowledge' and 'dark knowledge': and in Herodotus iii. 4, γνώμην ἰκανός means 'a man of good understanding.' Secondly, γνώμη came to stand for 'a thought'—especially for 'a thought' or 'opinion' relating to the conduct of life. And this is the sense in which we find γνώμη technically used by Aristotle in the *Rhetoric*: see *Rhet.* ii. 21. 1394 a. 22 ἔστι δ' ἡ γνώμη ἀπόφρασις, οὐ μέντοι οὔτε περὶ τῶν καθ' ἑαυτῶν, οἷον ποιός τις Ἰφικράτης, ἀλλὰ καθόλου· καὶ οὐ περὶ πάντων, οἷον ὅτι τὸ εὐθὺ τῆ καμπύλῳ ἐναντίον, ἀλλὰ περὶ ὅσων αἱ πράξεις εἰσὶ, καὶ αἰρετὰ ἢ φευκτὰ ἐστὶ πρὸς τὸ πράττειν. A γνώμη is thus a generalisation relating to the conduct of life: and Aristotle takes special pains to make it clear that it is a generalisation which has merely an empirical basis—i. e. has not been verified by syllogistic derivation from higher principles; for he goes on to say 1394 a. 26 ὥστ' ἐπεὶ τὰ ἐνθύμηματα ὁ περὶ τοιούτων συλλογισμός ἐστίν, σχεδὸν τὰ συμπεράσματα τῶν ἐνθύμημάτων καὶ αἱ ἀρχαὶ ἀφαιρεθέντος τοῦ συλλογισμοῦ γνώμαί εἰσιν, οἷον

χρὴ δ' οὐ ποθ' ὅς τις ἀρτίφρων πέφυκ' ἀνὴρ,
παῖδας περισσῶς ἐκδιδάσκεισθαι σοφούς.

τοῦτο μὲν οὖν γνώμη· προστιθείσης δὲ τῆς αἰτίας καὶ τοῦ διὰ τί ἐνθύμημά ἐστιν τὸ ὅσων, οἷον

χωρὶς γὰρ ἄλλης ἢς ἔχουσιν ἀργίας,
φθόνον παρ' ἀστῶν ἀλφάνουσι δυσμενῆ.

καὶ τὸ

οὐκ ἔστιν ὅς τις πάντ' ἀνὴρ εὐδαιμονεῖ

καὶ τὸ

οὐκ ἔστιν ἀνδρῶν ὅς τις ἔστ' ἐλεύθερος

γνώμη, πρὸς δὲ τῆ ἐχομένῳ ἐνθύμημα,

ἢ χρημάτων γὰρ δοῦλός ἐστιν ἢ τύχης.

A maxim which may be used, by way of σημείον or εἰκός, as the premiss of an ἐνθύμημα or 'rhetorical syllogism' (see *Rhet.* i. 2), or may, as conclusion of an ἐνθύμημα, be deduced from suitable premisses, is, if taken by itself (ἀφαιρεθέντος τοῦ συλλογισμοῦ), a γνώμη. A γνώμη, then, is a moral maxim, a piece of proverbial wisdom (cf. the expression ποιηταὶ γνωμικοί), advanced and accepted without

1143 a. 19. proof, but recommending itself by its obvious agreement with the sentiments and feelings of the society in which it appears.

Here, in the *Ethics*, the meaning of γνώμη seems to waver between 'the act of deciding sensibly and kindly,' and 'the disposition which results in sensible and kind decisions.'

συγγνώμονας] This is the reading of K^b and M^b restored by Bywater, instead of Bekker's εὐγνώμονας the reading of L^b, Γ, Cambr., NC, B¹ 2 3, CCC, Eustr., Heliod. The *Index Arist.* does not give εὐγνώμων except in this chapter, and in *M. M.* ii. 2, where συγγνώμων does not occur, and εὐγνωμοσύνη is used instead of γνώμη. It is not unlikely therefore that εὐγνώμων got into the text of the *Ethics* at a date subsequent to the compilation of the *M. M.*¹ Apart, however, from this suspicion, there is nothing against the word in the context here. Indeed it may be thought that the words a. 21 σημείον δέ τὸν γὰρ ἐπιεικῆ μάλιστα φάμεν εἶναι συγγνωμονικόν follow εὐγνώμονας more naturally than συγγνώμονας: that the connexion between ἐπιείκεια and συγγνώμη is assumed to be better known than that between ἐπιείκεια and γνώμη, καθ' ἣν εὐγνώμονας καὶ ἔχει φάμεν γνώμην, and is therefore adduced as a σημείον: cf. *Rhet.* i. 13. 1374 b. 4 ἐφ' οὗς γὰρ δεῖ συγγνώμην ἔχειν ταῦτα ἐπιεικῆ, and b. 10 τὸ τοῖς ἀνθρώποις συγγνώσκων ἐπιεικῆς.

Συγγνώμη means properly 'thinking and feeling with others,' and answers to the *sensus communis* of the Roman writers: cf. Quintil. *Inst.* i. 2—Sensum ipsum, qui communis dicitur, ubi discet, cum se a congressu, qui non hominibus solum, sed multis quoque animalibus naturalis est, segregarit?—Hor. *Sat.* i. 3. 66 Simplicior quis et est . . . ut forte legentem Aut tacitum impellat quovis sermone molestus, Communi sensu plane caret, inquit:—on which Orelli quotes Seneca, *de Benefic.* i. 12 Sit in beneficiis sensus communis: tempus locum personas observet, quia momentis quaedam grata et ingrata sunt. The συγγνώμων is the man of social sympathy, who enters into the thoughts and feelings of others, and especially is ready to make allowance for their difficulties in his formal or informal verdicts—who, in short, gives judgment (γνώμη) in their favour (συν) when a rigid interpretation of the law would warrant an unfavourable judgment.

a. 23. ἡ δὲ συγγνώμη γνώμη ἐστὶ κριτικὴ τοῦ ἐπιεικοῦς ὀρθή· ὀρθὴ δ' ἡ

¹ I find, since writing the above, that this is Bywater's opinion; see *Contributions*, p. 52.

τοῦ ἀληθοῦς] Trendelenburg brackets *συγγνώμη*: the sentence is 1143 a. 23. then a mere repetition of what has just been said three lines above—*ἡ γνώμη . . . ἡ τοῦ ἐπιεικοῦς ἐστὶ κρίσις ὀρθή*: on the other hand, with *συγγνώμη* retained, the definition of *συγγνώμη* is in the same terms as that of *γνώμη*. I think that the words *ἡ δὲ συγγνώμη γνώμη ἐστὶ κριτικὴ τοῦ ἐπιεικοῦς ὀρθή* ought to be bracketed. The clause *ὀρθή δ' ἡ τοῦ ἀληθοῦς* follows the *ὀρθή* of line 20 very naturally, *σημείον δέ . . . συγγνώμην* being parenthetical. I agree with Rams. that *τοῦ ἐπιεικοῦς* in line 20, as in line 23, is neuter—the genitive of the object. Grant makes it masc. in both places.

ὀρθή δ' ἡ τοῦ ἀληθοῦς] *sc. κριτικὴ*, if line 23 be retained: if not, a. 24. *κρίσις*—‘that is a *right* decision which gives a *true* verdict.’

The whole § may be paraphrased thus—What is called ‘good sense’—the quality of people whom we describe as ‘fair and sensible,’ and as ‘taking a sensible and proper view,’ may be defined as ‘the habit of coming to right decisions in matters of equity.’ That this is a correct definition of ‘good sense’ is seen, if we refer to the usage of the term ‘common sense’ as equivalent to ‘fellow feeling’ or ‘tendency to give favourable judgment.’ It is generally admitted that ‘the equitable man’ is distinguished for his ‘common sense,’ or ‘fellow feeling,’ and that to give effect to this sense or feeling in certain cases is ‘equitable.’ ‘Common sense’ is, in fact, ‘good sense,’ which enables a man to come to a right decision in a matter of equity: a ‘right’ decision being one which gives a *true* verdict.

Instead of *γνώμη*, the writer of *M. M.* uses *εὐγνωμοσύνη*, as we have seen—ii. 2. 1198 b. 34 *ἡ δὲ εὐγνωμοσύνη καὶ ὁ εὐγνώμων ἐστὶν περὶ ταῦτα περὶ δὲ καὶ ἡ ἐπιείκεια, περὶ τὰ δίκαια [καὶ] τὰ ἐλλειμμένα ὑπὸ τοῦ νομοθέτου τῷ μὴ ἀκριβῶς διορίσθαι, κριτικὸς δὲ τῶν ἐλλειμμένων ὑπὸ τοῦ νομοθέτου, καὶ γιγνώσκων ὅτι ὑπὸ μὲν τοῦ νομοθέτου ἐλλείπεται, ἔστι μὲντοι δίκαια, ὁ τοιοῦτος εὐγνώμων. ἔστι μὲν οὖν οὐκ ἄνευ ἐπιεικείας ἡ εὐγνωμοσύνη· τὸ μὲν γὰρ κρίναι τοῦ εὐγνώμονος, τὸ δὲ δὴ πράττειν [καὶ] κατὰ τὴν κρίσιν τοῦ ἐπιεικοῦς.* It ought to be remembered that the writer of the *M. M.* discusses *ἐπιείκεια* in a context parallel, not to *E. N.* v. 10, but to *E. N.* vi. 11.

I said that *σύνεσις* may be regarded as a stage in the development of *φρόνησις*. But the power of intelligently following a speech, and estimating its recommendations at what they are worth, presupposes **something more than mere intellectual sharpness and nimbleness.**

1148 a. 24. The successful critic of a policy must be in sympathy with the traditional thought and feeling of the community for which the policy is recommended. Γνώμη, or *communis sensus*, underlies σύνεσις. And, as there are many who are συνετοί but never (at least in great matters) become φρόνιμοι, so there are many who have γνώμη and συγγνώμη without rising to the clear intellectual consciousness of reasons possessed by the συνετοί. The συνετοί appreciate the force of the ἐνθυμήματα (ῥητορικοὶ συλλογισμοί) which the speaker employs: but γνώμαι are points of view which recommend themselves without syllogistic proof (ἀφαιρεθέντος τοῦ συλλογισμοῦ)—are felt to be true by ὁ γνώμην ἔχων.

In the foregoing remarks I have purposely allowed the Aristotelian associations connected (a) with the term γνώμη, as (1) moral maxim, (2) judge's decision, (3) disposition which results in γνώμαι (1) or (2), and (b) with the term συγγνώμη, as *communis sensus*, and especially the manifestation of *communis sensus* in equitable judgments, to have free play, and influence one another. I believe that the writer of this § could not use the term γνώμη without being affected by these various associations. At the same time, it is proper to say, in conclusion, that I think that the sense of γνώμη as judge's decision is most prominent in his mind. If σύνεσις is especially the κρίσις in the ἐκκλησία, γνώμη is especially that in the δικαστήριον.

a. 27. § 2. γνώμην ἔχειν] This infinitive is grammatically the object of ἐπιφέροντες, and we should have expected the article before it; but the writer omits the article, because he still has λέγομεν in his mind. That he has λέγομεν in his mind is shown clearly by the following accusatives καὶ φρονίμους καὶ συνετούς. Michelet makes the construction—γνώμην γὰρ καὶ σύνεσιν καὶ φρόνησιν καὶ νοῦν ἐπὶ τοὺς αὐτοὺς ἐπιφέροντες, λέγομεν καὶ φρονίμους καὶ συνετούς γνώμην ἔχειν καὶ νοῦν ἤδη: but, if this is the construction, why have we not the article before φρονίμους and συνετούς?

νοῦν ἤδη] I think that Grant's suggestion is right—that this expression refers 'to what is said in § 6 ἤδη ἡ ἡλικία νοῦν ἔχει' and is 'nearly equivalent to our saying of a person that he had "attained to years of discretion."' "

a. 31. τὰ γὰρ ἐπιεικῆ κοινὰ τῶν ἀγαθῶν ἀπάντων ἐστὶν ἐν τῷ πρὸς ἄλλον] 'for equity enters into all good relations between man and man'—

i. e. equity is coextensive with justice. This is given as a reason 1143 a. 31. for the statement ἐν τῷ κριτικὸς εἶναι περὶ ὧν ὁ φρόνιμος, συνετὸς καὶ εὐγνώμων¹ ἢ συγγνώμων:—the φρόνιμος has to do with ‘all good relations between man and man’; and the συγγνώμων is κριτικὸς τοῦ ἐπιεικοῦς, which is coextensive with these ‘good relations.’

§ 3.] Having proved at the end of § 2 that σύνεσις and γνώμη a. 33. have the same sphere as φρόνησις or νοῦς, because τὰ ἐπιεικῆ are coextensive with τὰ ἀγαθὰ τὰ ἐν τῷ πρὸς ἄλλον, the writer now proves the same point again, by reference to the fact that τὰ πρακτά (which are ἔσχατα) are the objects of σύνεσις and γνώμη, as well as of φρόνησις or νοῦς. Ramsauer brackets τὰ πρακτά in line 33, and K^b M^b Γ, Cambr. pr., and NC read ἀπάντων for ἀπαντα.

§ 4. καὶ ὁ νοῦς τῶν ἔσχατων ἐπ’ ἀμφότερα] γνώμη, σύνεσις, φρόνησις a. 35. and νοῦς have been exhibited as πᾶσαι εἰς ταῦτ’ εἰσέρχονται, because all concerned with moral ἔσχατα (ἐπιεικῆ, ἀγαθὰ, πρακτά). The writer now goes on to say that νοῦς is concerned, not only with moral ἔσχατα—the particulars of action—but, in science as distinguished from conduct, with another kind of ἔσχατα—ultimate principles—the highest *universals*: so that, if we use νοῦς in its generic sense, we can say that it is concerned with ‘ultimates at both ends of the series’ (Grant)—*i. e.* with universals at the top, and particulars at the bottom.

νοῦς ἐστὶ καὶ οὐ λόγος] The highest universals and the ultimate b. 1. particulars are apprehended intuitively, not reached by discursive reasoning.

καὶ ὁ μὲν κατὰ τὰς ἀποδείξεις] *sc.* νοῦς. The construction is ὁ μὲν κατὰ τὰς ἀποδείξεις νοῦς ἐστὶ τῶν ἀκινήτων ὄρων. This is the νοῦς θεωρητικός, as distinguished from the νοῦς πρακτικός—ὁ ἐν ταῖς πρακτικαῖς (*sc.* δόξαις *cf.* E. N. vii. 3. 9, or προτάσεις, or perhaps ἀποδείξεις understood in a loose sense).

τῶν ἀκινήτων ὄρων καὶ πρώτων] *sc.* ἐστὶ, ‘is concerned with.’ These b. 2. are the First Principles of θεολογική and μαθηματική.

ἐνδεχομένου] The full expression requires the addition of καὶ b. 3.

¹ Εὐγνώμων ἢ fort. secludendum Byw.; see above § 1, note on συγγνώμονας 1143 a. 19.

1143 b. 3. ἄλλως ἔχειν, which Rasso (Forsch. p. 77) accordingly proposes to insert.

τῆς ἐτέρας προτάσεως] the minor premiss, called in *E. N.* vii. 3. 13 ἡ τελευταία πρότασις. The phrase ἐτέρα πρότασις does not appear from the *Index Arist.* to occur except here.

b. 4. ἀρχαὶ γὰρ τοῦ οὐ ἕνεκα αὐταὶ] αὐταὶ (attracted to the gender of ἀρχαί) are the particulars (ἔσχατα) which constitute the 'minor premiss' apprehended by νοῦς πρακτικός. These particulars are said to be the ἀρχαὶ τοῦ οὐ ἕνεκα—to supply the materials out of which the moral end, or the character, is built up by ἐθισμός, as by a sort of induction—ἐκ τῶν καθ' ἕκαστα γὰρ τὰ καθόλου¹. For a similar use of ἀρχή (as the material source) Grant compares *E. N.* vi. 3. 3 ἐπαγωγή ἀρχή ἐστὶ καὶ τοῦ καθόλου.

b. 5. § 5. τούτων οὖν ἔχειν δεῖ αἰσθησιν, αὕτη δ' ἐστὶ νοῦς] The πρακτικός νοῦς is here represented as a *sensibility* to certain particular impressions. The cumulative effect of such particular impressions is a certain *bent of character*, or settled way of looking at, and feeling with regard to, the objects from which the impressions are received. But when νοῦς πρακτικός is thus described as a sensibility to certain particular impressions, it is evident that, *from the very first*, it must find, in the things which impress it, the common attribute to which the character eventually formed is the adaptation. Νοῦς πρακτικός is indeed the sensibility to certain particular impressions, in so far as it is on the occasion of the presence of particular αἰσθητά (ἡδέα καὶ λυπηρά) that it receives its impressions; but these αἰσθητά impress it from the first *in a moral way*. It is therefore not merely passive in relation to them; it *perceives* this among them to be *good*, and that *bad*, irrespectively of the present pleasure or pain which attends either: *i. e.* it criticises them in view of the requirements of its own permanent nature. It is as true, in short, of the αἰσθησις with which the νοῦς πρακτικός is here identified, as of the αἰσθησις of the bodily senses, that it involves a perception of the καθόλου: see *Ap. Post.* ii. 19. 100 a. 16 καὶ γὰρ αἰσθάνεται μὲν τὸ καθ' ἕκαστον, ἡ δ' αἰσθησις τοῦ καθόλου ἐστίν.

¹ If τὰ καθόλου (K^b M^b Bywater) is right (as against Bekker's τὸ καθόλου), Trendelenburg's, I think, mistaken view (*Hist. Beitr.* ii. 384) that τέλος is to be supplied after καθόλου is finally disposed of.

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1143 b. 6. τούτων πορίζεται, διὰ τοῦτο καὶ φυσικὰ δοκοῦσι καὶ ἐκ φύσεως ἔρχεσθαι. Cf. Philemon (Meineke, *Fragm. Comic.* vol. iv. p. 34)—

ἤκουσα τούτων αὐτός, οὐδὲ φύεται
αὐτόματον ἀνθρώποισιν, ὧ βέλτιστε, νοῦς
ὥσπερ ἐν ἀγρῷ θύμος· ἐκ δὲ τοῦ λέγειν τε καὶ
ἐτέρων ἀκούειν καὶ θεωρῆσαι . . .
κατὰ μικρὸν αἰεὶ, φασί, φύονται φρένες.

b. 9. § 6. διὸ καὶ ἀρχὴ καὶ τέλος νοῦς· ἐκ τούτων γὰρ αἱ ἀποδείξεις καὶ περὶ τούτων] Rasso (Forsch. p. 31) places these words after αὕτη δ' ἐστὶ νοῦς § 5, 1143 b. 5. A scribe, he suggests, transposed the two sentences both beginning with διὸ. This is very likely. Moreover, it is only after τούτων οὖν ἔχειν δεῖ αἰσθῆσιν, αὕτη δ' ἐστὶ νοῦς that the grammatical reference of the words ἐκ τούτων γὰρ αἱ ἀποδείξεις καὶ περὶ τούτων is intelligible.

As for the meaning of the statement ἀρχὴ καὶ τέλος νοῦς—it is doubtless given correctly by the Paraph.—ἀρχὴ μὲν, καθ' ὅσον τῶν πρώτων ἀρχῶν ἐστὶ γνῶσις, καὶ θεωρητικὸς λέγεται· ἀρχὴ γὰρ ἐστὶν ἀποδείξεως· τέλος δέ, καθ' ὅσον γνῶσις ἐστὶ τῶν καθ' ἕκαστα καὶ ἐν αἰσθήσει, καὶ πρακτικὸς λέγεται. For the expression ἐκ τούτων . . . καὶ περὶ τούτων, cf. i. 3. 4 ἀγαπητὸν οὖν περὶ τοιούτων καὶ ἐκ τοιούτων λέγοντας κ.τ.λ. He means that 'reasoning' in morals is ἐκ τῶν καθ' ἕκαστα, and περὶ τῶν καθ' ἕκαστα. The term ἀποδείξεις is, of course, used here in a loose sense, for 'morality is not capable of demonstration.'

b. 14. ὀρθῶσιν ὀρθῶς] This is the reading of L^b (and apparently O^b) only: ἀρχάς or τὰς ἀρχάς is given instead of ὀρθῶς by K^b, M^b, Γ, CCC, NC, Cambr., and B¹ 2 3, Ald., Hel., Eustr.

b. 16. § 7. ἄλλου τῆς ψυχῆς μορίου] *i. e.* σοφία is the highest excellence of the ἐπιστημονικὸν μέρος, and φρόνησις of the λογιστικόν: see note on ch. 3. § 1. 1139 b. 14, for Prantl's view of the διανοητικαὶ ἀρεταί.

CHAPTER XII.

ARGUMENT.

Let us now discuss the question—What is the practical use of Wisdom and Prudence?

Wisdom, it may be urged, is useless: it is concerned with that which eternally is, not with that which comes to pass or is produced, and consequently does not regard the means which produce Human Happiness.

Prudence indeed regards these means; but must we have Prudence in order to secure them practically? The good man in virtue of his good habits employs these means, i. e. performs good acts. Surely knowing that these acts are good does not help to make him perform them, any more than knowing that a regular pulse is a healthy symptom (as distinguished from knowing the proper treatment of an irregular pulse) makes a man's pulse regular. And if it be said that we must have Prudence, not indeed to tell us that such and such acts are good, but to tell us how to secure their performance, what, it may still be asked, is the practical use of Prudence? It is superfluous in the case of those who are already good, and perform the acts in question from habit; and why should those who are not already good, but wish to become good, trouble themselves to have Prudence of their own? Why should they not consult a professional expert in Prudence, as we do a doctor in the matter of health? Lastly, there is the awkward point—If Prudence is practically useful, if it really does something—especially something so great as the production of Human Happiness—it will take the lead over Wisdom, for the practical faculty which uses materials always directs as a mistress the scientific or artistic faculty which supplies the materials. But how can Wisdom be thus ancillary to Prudence? Prudence is surely inferior to Wisdom.

So much for the statement of the difficulties: now let us attempt to answer them.

Let us begin by saying that Wisdom and Prudence, even if they result in nothing 'practical,' must be choice-worthy in themselves, inasmuch as each of them is the excellence of its own part of the soul.

Secondly, they do produce results. Wisdom produces Happiness, not indeed as efficient cause of it, but as formal cause: it is one of the formal elements in that totality of the virtuous character, which realises itself in the function called Happiness. The other formal elements are Prudence and Moral Virtue, Virtue making the end aimed at good, and Prudence the means. Wisdom is the excellence of the scientific part, Prudence of the deliberative, Moral Virtue of the appetitive: the excellence of the fourth part of the soul, the nutritive, is not one of the formal elements in the totality of the virtuous character: for it does not rest with it to do, or not to do.

As regards the objection that Prudence does not help us to perform good acts, let us meet it by analysing 'a good act' a little deeper. What looks like 'a

good act' may be performed under external pressure, or from ignorance, or for some end which has nothing to do with goodness, by a man who is not good: but an act is really 'good' only when it is done by a good man, being deliberately chosen by him because it is a good act—i. e. contributes to the chief end. This chief end, for the sake of which acts are deliberately chosen as means, is set up by Virtue—i. e. it is the same thing to say 'This man is virtuous or good' and 'his end is good'—but the steps which must be taken in order to realise this end are discovered, not by virtue but by another faculty. Let us stop to explain this point. Cleverness is the power of hitting upon the means conducive to a given end. If, then, the end be good, we praise the faculty which discovers the means, and call it Prudence: but we call it Roguery if the end be bad. Cleverness is the potentiality of Prudence (as it is of Roguery); but Prudence, as confirmed habit, does not supervene without Virtue: for, without Virtue, the syllogisms in which Prudence reasons would have no major premiss: it is only the good man who sees the good end which constitutes the major premiss. Vice distorts and falsifies a man's view of the principles of conduct. It is plain, then, that a man cannot be Prudent without being good.

- 1148 b. 19. § 1. θεωρήσει] Byw. after K^b, M^b, Cambr. All other MSS., apparently, give θεωρεῖ, which I prefer.
- b. 20. οὐδεμιᾶς γὰρ ἐστι γενέσεως] on the contrary, it is the contemplation of *being* (τὸ ὄν, as distinguished from τὸ γιγνόμενον).
- b. 22. ἡ περὶ τὰ δίκαια] L^b seems to be right in omitting ἡ: see Rasso (Forsch. p. 63).
- b. 25. ὡπερ οὐδὲ τὰ ὑγιεινὰ οὐδὲ τὰ εὐεκτικά] Ramsauer suggests the insertion of τῷ before τὰ ὑγιεινὰ. The construction is—ὡπερ οὐδέ τῷ τὰ ὑγιεινὰ καὶ εὐεκτικὰ εἶδέναι πρακτικώτεροι ἔσμεν τῶν ὑγιεινῶν καὶ εὐεκτικῶν. This usage of πρακτικώτεροι is well illustrated by Rasso (Forsch. p. 124) from *E. N.* v. 1. 4 οἷον ἀπὸ τῆς ὑγείας οὐ πράττεται τὰ ἐναντία, ἀλλὰ τὰ ὑγιεινὰ μόνον λέγομεν γὰρ ὑγιεινῶς βαδίζειν, ὅταν βαδίζῃ ὡς ἂν ὁ ὑγιαίνων.
- b. 26. ὅσα μὴ τῷ ποιεῖν ἀλλὰ τῷ ἀπὸ τῆς ἕξεως εἶναι λέγεται] 'I mean ὑγιεινὰ and εὐεκτικά in the sense, not of the efficient causes, but of the manifestations of ὑγεία and εὐεξία.' Cf. *Met.* Γ. 2. 1003 a. 34 τὸ ὑγιεινὸν ἅπαν πρὸς ὑγίαν, τὸ μὲν τῷ φυλάττειν, τὸ δὲ τῷ ποιεῖν, τὸ δὲ τῷ σημεῖον εἶναι τῆς ὑγείας, τὸ δὲ ὅτι δεκτικὸν αὐτῆς: cf. *Top.* ii. 2. 110 a. 19, *Met.* Κ. 3. 1061 a. 6. He means that the mere knowledge of 'what concerns health' does not make a man perform healthy functions. 'Healthy functions' (τὰ ὑγιεινὰ τὰ τῷ ἀπὸ τῆς ἕξεως εἶναι λεγόμενα) are not like 'the means to health' (τὰ ὑγιεινὰ τὰ τῷ ποιεῖν τῆς ἕξεως λεγόμενα) which are suggested by medical know-

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1143 b. 35. Zell compares *Pol.* Θ. 6. 1340 b. 20 πρότερον δὲ δεῖ μαθάνειν αὐτοὺς ἄδοντας τε καὶ χειρουργοῦντας ἢ μὴ, καθάπερ ἠπορήθη πρότερον, εἴναι λεκτίον.

1144 a. 1. § 4.] Human nature, as a system of ἀρεταί, is an end in itself: see *Met.* A. 2. 982 b. 24 δῆλον οὖν ὡς δι' οὐδεμίαν αὐτὴν (sc. σοφίαν) ζητοῦμεν χρεῖαν ἑτέραν ἀλλ' ὥσπερ ἄνθρωπος φάμεν ἐλεύθερος ὁ ἑαυτοῦ ἔνεκα καὶ μὴ ἄλλου ὄν, οὕτω καὶ αὕτη, μόνη ἐλευθέρα οὔσα τῶν ἐπιστημῶν· μόνη γὰρ αὕτη ἑαυτῆς ἔνεκὲν ἐστίν.

a. 3. § 5.] After ἀλλ' ὡς ἡ ὑγίεια understand τὸ ὑγιαίνειν. Σοφία 'produces' εὐδαιμονία—not, however, as the doctor (efficient cause), but as the principle of health (formal cause), produces a healthy state. Eustratius reads τὰ εὐεκτικὰ after ὑγίεια, but explains the sentence as if he read εὐδαιμονίαν: σοφία and φρόνησις, he explains, produce εὐδαιμονία, not as merely external causes, like ἰατρική when it produces health; but as constituent parts (μέρη) of εὐδαιμονία, like ὑγίεια, which is also a constituent part of εὐδαιμονία. Ἡ δὲ ἀρετή (the character of which εὐδαιμονία is the function) is made up of the ἀρεταί of the *mind* and of the *body*, aided by *external means*, such as wealth. Σοφία is the highest ἀρετή of the *mental*, as ὑγίεια is of the *bodily* part. Εὐδαιμονία is a *ᾠλον* constituted by the union of these two μόρια. Σοφία accordingly produces εὐδαιμονία, just as ὑγίεια also produces it, in the sense of being *one of the factors which constitute it*. Ἰατρική is not one of the *factors or constituent elements* of that which it 'produces', but is external to the product. Such is the explanation offered by Eustratius. It is not inconsistent with the view of εὐδαιμονία presented in *Rhet.* i. 5. 1360 b. 18 εἰ δὲ ἐστὶν ἡ εὐδαιμονία τοιοῦτον, ἀνάγκη αὐτῆς εἶναι μέρη εὐγένειαν, πολυφιλίαν, χρηστοφιλίαν, πλοῦτον, εὐτεκνίαν, πολυτεκνίαν, εὐγηρίαν, εἶτι τὰς τοῦ σώματος ἀρετάς, οἷον ὑγίειαν κάλλος ἰσχὺν μέγεθος δύναμιν ἀγωνιστικὴν, δόξαν, τιμὴν, εὐτυχίαν, ἀρετήν. But surely it is inconsistent with the words which follow in § 6, 1144 a. 9 τοῦ δὲ τετάρτου μορίου τῆς ψυχῆς οὐκ ἔστιν ἀρετὴ τοιαύτη, τοῦ θρεπτικοῦ. These words make it impossible to regard ὑγίεια, the excellence of τὸ θρεπτικόν, as a μέρος τῆς δὲ ἀρετῆς: see also *E. E.* ii. 1. 1219 b. 20 διὸ καὶ ἄλλο εἶτι μόριον ἐστὶ τῆς ψυχῆς, οἷον τὸ θρεπτικόν, ἢ τούτου ἀρετὴ οὐκ ἐστὶ μέρος τῆς δὲ ἀρετῆς, ὥσπερ οὐδ' ἡ τοῦ σώματος. We must therefore understand τὸ ὑγιαίνειν, not εὐδαιμονίαν, after ὑγίεια 1144 a. 4, and explain—σοφία (he has dropped φρόνησις for the moment) 'produces' εὐδαιμονία, as formal, not as efficient cause:—i.e. it is a

μέρος, or formal element, in the *δλον*, or *εἶδος*, of the virtuous 1144 a. 3. character whose function is *εὐδαιμονία*. For the technical use of *μέρη*, as the *notae notionis*, see Bonitz on *Mel. Δ. 25. 1023 b. 19* *ἔτι εἰς ἃ διαίρεται τι ἢ ἐξ ὧν σύγκειται τὸ δλον, ἢ τὸ εἶδος, ἢ τὸ ἔχον τὸ εἶδος*. The phrase *δλη ἀρετή* does not occur in the 'Nicomachean' Books of the *E. N.*, but is well known to Eudemus. Grant remarks that Eudemus came to identify *ἡ δλη ἀρετή* with *καλοκαγαθία*—for which see *E. E. H. 15. 1248 b. 8 sqq.* The Paraphrast explains the present § correctly—*Ἐπειτα καὶ χρήσιμοι εἰσι πρὸς τὴν εὐδαιμονίαν, οὐχ ὥσπερ ἰατρικὴ πρὸς ὑγίειαν ἀλλ' ὥσπερ ἡ ὑγίεια πρὸς ὑγίειαν ἔχει, οὕτω σοφία καὶ φρόνησις πρὸς εὐδαιμονίαν χρήσιμοι εἰσι· ἡ μὲν γὰρ καθόλου εὐδαιμονία ἢ παντελής ἐστὶν ἀρετή, σοφίῃ δὲ καὶ φρόνησις μέρος εἰσὶ τῆς ὅλης ἀρετῆς· ὥστε μέρος εἰσὶ τῆς ἀνθρωπίνης εὐδαιμονίας σοφία καὶ φρόνησις, καὶ τὸ ταύτας ἔχειν μετὰ τῶν ἄλλων ἀρετῶν εὐδαιμονεῖν ἐστὶ τὴν ὅλην εὐδαιμονίαν.*

§ 6. *ἔτι τὸ ἔργον ἀποτελεῖται κ.τ.λ.*] 'Further, the function of the a. 6. *εὐδοίμων* (τὸ ἔργον takes up *ἐνεργεῖν* (?) immediately preceding) requires for its complete fulfilment Prudence and Moral Virtue—Virtue making the end aimed at (*sc.* in the sphere of conduct) right, and Prudence making the means right.' Man's is a *σύνθετος φύσις*. 'Ἡ δλη ἀρετή includes, as its *μέρη*, the *ἠθικαί*, as well as the *διανοητικαὶ ἀρεταί*. The *ἀνθρώπινον ἀγαθόν*, or man's function, as man, is an *ἐνέργεια ψυχῆς*, which involves not only *θεωρία*, but *πρᾶξις*. For the doctrine of this passage *cf. E. E. ii. 11. 1227 b. 19* *ἔστι γὰρ τὸν μὲν σκοπὸν ὀρθὸν εἶναι, ἐν δὲ τοῖς πρὸς τὸν σκοπὸν διαμαρτάνειν· ἔστι δὲ τὸν μὲν σκοπὸν ἡμαρτηθῆναι, τὰ δὲ πρὸς ἐκεῖνον περαίνοντα ὀρθῶς ἔχειν, καὶ μηδέτερον. πότερον δ' ἡ ἀρετὴ ποιεῖ τὸν σκοπὸν ἢ τὰ πρὸς τὸν σκοπὸν; τιθέμεθα δὴ ὅτι τὸν σκοπὸν, διότι τούτου οὐκ ἔστι συλλογισμὸς οὐδέ λόγος. ἀλλὰ δὴ ὥσπερ ἀρχὴ τοῦτο ὑποκείσθω. οὔτε γὰρ ἰατρὸς σκοπεῖ εἰ δεῖ ὑγαινεῖν ἢ μή, ἀλλ' εἰ περιπατεῖν ἢ μή, οὔτε ὁ γυμναστικὸς εἰ δεῖ εὖ ἔχειν ἢ μή, ἀλλ' εἰ παλαῖσαι ἢ μή. ὁμοίως δ' οὐδ' ἄλλη υἰδεμία περὶ τοῦ τέλους· ὥσπερ γὰρ ταῖς θεωρητικαῖς αἱ ὑποθέσεις ἀρχαί, οὕτω καὶ ταῖς ποιητικαῖς τὸ τέλος ἀρχὴ καὶ ὑπόθεσις. ἐπειδὴ δεῖ τόδε ὑγαινεῖν, ἀνάγκη τοδὶ ὑπάρξαι, εἰ ἔσται ἐκεῖνο, ὥσπερ ἐκεῖ, εἰ ἔστι τὸ τρίγωνον δύο ὀρθαί, ἀνάγκη τοδὶ εἶναι. τῆς μὲν οὖν νοήσεως ἀρχὴ τὸ τέλος, τῆς δὲ πράξεως ἢ τῆς νοήσεως τελευτή. εἰ οὖν πάσης ὀρθότητος ἢ ὁ λόγος ἢ ἡ ἀρετὴ αἰτία, εἰ μὴ ὁ λόγος, διὰ τὴν ἀρετὴν ἂν ὀρθὸν εἶη τὸ τέλος, ἀλλ' οὐ τὰ πρὸς τὸ τέλος. . . . τὸ μὲν οὖν τυγχάνειν τούτων ἄλλης δυνάμεως, ὅσα ἕνεκα τοῦ τέλους δεῖ πράττειν.* 'Αρετή is the moral structure or organisation, which, like all living

1144 a. 8. structures, strives to maintain itself: in suo esse perseverare conatur (Spinoza, *Eth.* iii. 6). Asked to define the 'rightness' of the virtuous end, we can only answer—that it is being the end which human nature, as a well-known type, is seen to propose to itself. It is the life which this particular organism, as a matter of fact, strives to lead. Our answer is thus given in the same way as it would have to be given, if the question were—How do you define the 'rightness' of (say) a sparrow's σκοπός?

Φρόνησις ἢ καθ' ἑκάστην, as here described in relation to ἠθικὴ ἀρετή, is the consciousness of the moral structure or organisation, in so far as this consciousness manifests itself in the delicate perception of the particular things which are advantageous or hurtful to the structure.

- a. 9. τετάρτου] The four parts are (1) τὸ ἐπιστημονικόν, with its ἀρετή—σοφία, (2) τὸ λογιστικόν, with its ἀρετή—φρόνησις, (3) τὸ ὀρεκτικόν, with its ἀρετή—ἠθικὴ ἀρετή, and (4) τὸ θρεπτικόν, with its ἀρετή—ὑγίεια.
- a. 10. ἀρετὴ τοιαύτη] is ἀρετή which can be regarded as a μέρος of ἡ ἀληθὴ ἀρετή (see note on § 5 above), and more especially (as is shown by the explanatory clause οὐδὲν γὰρ ἐπ' αὐτῷ πράττειν ἢ μὴ πράττειν) ἠθικὴ ἀρετή.
- a. 12. § 7. ἀνωθεν] Ramsauer compares *E. N.* viii. 1. 6 καὶ περὶ αὐτῶν τούτων ἀνώτερον ἐπιζητοῦσιν καὶ φυσικώτερον—where see note.
- a. 16. ἢ δι' ἕτερόν τι καὶ μὴ δι' αὐτά] ἢ δι' ἄλλο τι, ἢ χρήματα ἢ ἡδονήν, τὸ δίκαιον ποιῶντες, καὶ μὴ δι' ἑαυτό (Paragraph.).
- a. 19. οἶον] here = 'i. e.'—see Waitz, *Organon* vol. i. p. 280—'Aristoteles saepe voce οἶον ita utitur, ut explicet (*scilicet, nempe*), non ut exempla afferat.'
- For the doctrine of this §, see *E. N.* ii. 4.
- a. 30. § 8. τὴν μὲν οὖν προαίρεσιν ὀρθὴν ποιεῖ ἡ ἀρετή, τὸ δ' ὅσα ἐκείνης ἕνεκα πέφυκε πράττεσθαι οὐκ ἔστι τῆς ἀρετῆς ἀλλ' ἑτέρας δυνάμεως] Grant says—'There is some confusion here in speaking of the means to a purpose, προαίρεσις itself being in the Aristotelian psychology a faculty of means; but *cf.* *Eth. Eud.* ii. 11. 5-6 [1227 b. 36], where προαίρεσις is said to imply both end and means, and whence the present passage is repeated almost *verbatim*, ἔστι γὰρ πᾶσα προαίρεσις τινὸς καὶ ἕνεκα τινός. οὐ μὲν οὖν ἕνεκα τὸ μέσον ἐστίν, οὐ αἰτία ἢ ἀρετὴ τῷ προαιρεῖσθαι οὐ ἕνεκα. ἔστι μὲντοι ἡ προαίρεσις οὐ τούτου,

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1144 a. 25. against Bywater's reading—τὸ μὲν οὖν τυγχάνειν τούτων ἄλλης δυνάμεως, ὅσα ἕνεκα τοῦ τέλους δεῖ πράττειν.

a. 27. διὸ καὶ τοὺς φρονίμους δεινοὺς καὶ πανούργους φαμέν εἶναι] These words are to be construed (as by Eustr. and the Paraph.) in the obvious way—τοὺς φρονίμους being the subject, and δεινοὺς καὶ πανούργους the predicate. It is adduced as a proof of the close connexion which the writer wishes to establish, between δεινότης and πανουργία on the one hand, and δεινότης and φρόνησις on the other, that 'even the φρόνιμοι are often popularly described as δεινοὶ and πανούργοι'—i. e. that the terms φρόνιμος, δεινός, and πανούργος are used (inaccurately, of course, but still used) interchangeably. Michelet construes—διὸ καὶ φαμέν τοὺς φρονίμους καὶ πανούργους εἶναι δεινοὺς, but does not satisfactorily explain the omission of the article before πανούργους in the existing text. Ramsauer (followed by Susemihl) inserts the article before πανούργους. It may perhaps be thought that οὐ, which CCC reads before πανούργους, is a fragment of an original τοὺς. Fritzsche quotes Plato, *Theaet.* 177 A δεινοὶ καὶ πανούργοι, and Demosth. *Olynth.* i. p. 9 πανούργος ὢν καὶ δεινὸς ἄνθρωπος πράγμασι χρήσασθαι.

a. 28. § 10. οὐχ ἡ δύναμις] Bekker's οὐχ ἡ δεινότης is the reading of M^b alone. Not only do the great MSS.—K^b and L^b—read δύναμις, but the inferior ones—Cambr., CCC, NC, B¹, B², and B³—also. Accordingly Susemihl and Bywater revert to δύναμις. I agree with Ramsauer (against Rassow, *Forsch.* p. 63) when he says—'οὐχ ἡ δύναμις nullo modo ferri potest, nisi addatur (ἡ δύναμις) αὐτή. Optime, ut sexcenties, Bekkerus de Nic. meruit corrigens δεινότης.' It is to be noted that the Paraph. Heliodorus has—ἔστι δὲ ἡ φρόνησις οὐχ αὐτὴ ἡ δύναμις, ἡ δεινότης, ἀλλ' κ.τ.λ.

a. 29. ἡ δ' εἷς τῷ ὄμματι τούτῳ κ.τ.λ.] Eustratius (followed by Zell, Fritzsche, and Grant) is plainly wrong in regarding the ὄμμα here as νοῦς πρακτικός. The passages quoted by these editors (e. g. *E. N.* vi. 11. ὁ διὰ γὰρ τὸ ἔχειν ἐκ τῆς ἐμπειρίας ὄμμα ὀρθῶς ὀρθῶς, i. 6. 12 ὡς γὰρ ἐν σώματι ὄψις, ἐν ψυχῇ νοῦς) certainly show that νοῦς is described as ὄμμα or ὄψις: but the question here is—What does τῷ ὄμματι τούτῳ mean? and it surely can only mean the δύναμις of δεινότης, which becomes the εἷς of φρόνησις (or νοῦς πρακτικός), when ἀρετή has taken it into its service. Grant compares Plato, *Rep.* 518. It will be seen that the δύναμις or ὄμμα of Plato answers to the δεινότης or

innate capacity of *E. N.* vi. 12. 10, not to φρόνησις—518 B Δεῖ δὲ, 1144 a. 29. εἶπον. ἡμᾶς τοιόνδε νομίσαι περὶ αὐτῶν, εἰ ταῦτ' ἀληθῆ, τὴν παιδείαν, οὐχ οἷαν τινὲς ἐπαγγελλόμενοι φασιν εἶναι, τοιαύτην καὶ εἶναι. φασὶ δὲ πού οὐκ ἐνούσης ἐν τῇ ψυχῇ ἐπιστήμης σφεῖς ἐντιθέσθαι, οἷον τυφλοῖς ὀφθαλμοῖς ὄψιν ἐντιθέσθαι. φασὶ γὰρ οὖν, ἔφη. Ὁ δὲ γε νῦν λόγος, ἦν δ' ἐγώ, σημαίνει ταύτην τὴν ἐνούσαν ἐκάστου δύναμιν ἐν τῇ ψυχῇ καὶ τὸ ὄργανον, ᾧ καταμαθᾶναι ἕκαστος, οἷον εἰ ὄμμα μὴ δυνατόν ἦν ἄλλως ἢ ξὺν ὄλῳ τῷ σώματι στρέφειν πρὸς τὸ φανόν ἐκ τοῦ σκοτώδους, οὕτω ξὺν ὄλῳ τῇ ψυχῇ ἐκ τοῦ γενομένου περιεκτικόν εἶναι, ἕως ἂν εἰς τὸ ἴν καὶ τοῦ ὄντος τὸ φανότατον δυνατὴ γένηται ἀνοσχέσθαι θεωμένη· τοῦτο δ' εἶναι φάμεν πάραθόν. ἦ γὰρ ; Ναί. Τούτου τοίνυν, ἦν δ' ἐγώ, αὐτοῦ τέχνη ἂν εἴη, τῆς περιαγωγῆς, τίνα τρόπον ὡς ῥᾶστα τε καὶ ἀνυσιμώτατα μεταστραφήσεται, οὐ τοῦ ἐμποιῆσαι αὐτῷ τὸ ὄραν, ἀλλ' ὡς ἔχοντι μὲν αὐτό, οὐκ ὀρθῶς δὲ τετραμμένῳ οὐδὲ βλέποντι εἰ ἔδει, τοῦτο διαμηχανήσασθαι. Ἔοικε γάρ, ἔφη. Αἱ μὲν τοίνυν ἄλλαι ἀρεταὶ καλούμεναι ψυχῆς κινδυνούουσιν ἐγγύς τι εἶναι τῶν τοῦ σώματος· τῷ ὄντι γὰρ οὐκ ἐνούσαι πρότερον ὑστερον ἐμποιεῖσθαι ἔθεσί τε καὶ ἀσκήσεσιν· ἢ δὲ τοῦ φρονῆσαι παντὸς μᾶλλον θειοτέρου τινὸς τυγχάνει, ὡς ἔοικεν, οὖσα, ὃ τὴν μὲν δύναμιν οὐδέποτε ἀπόλλυσιν, ὑπὸ δὲ τῆς περιαγωγῆς χρήσιμον καὶ ἀφελιμον καὶ ἀχρηστον αὐτὸ καὶ βλαβερόν γίγνεται. ἢ οὕτω ἐνενοήκας, τῶν λεγομένων ποιηρῶν μὲν, σοφῶν δέ, ὡς δριμύ μὲν βλέπει τὸ ψυχάριον καὶ ὀξέως διορᾷ ταῦτα, ἐφ' ἃ τέτραπται, ὡς οὐ φαύλην ἔχον τὴν ὄψιν, κακίᾳ δ' ἠναγκασμένον ὑπηρετεῖν, ὥστε ὅσῳ ἂν ὀξύτερον βλέπῃ, τοσοῦτῳ πλείω κακὰ ἐργαζόμενον ;

ὡς εἴρηται] Ramsauer makes a difficulty about the statement thus a. 30. referred to, and comes to the conclusion that it is not to be found, and must have occurred in a lost passage—most likely in the present Book. But what is the statement? Virtually, that ἀρετὴ makes the σκοπός of the ὄμμα τῆς ψυχῆς good, and so makes the ὄψις of this ὄμμα an ἐπαινετὴ ἔξις. This has been said several times in §§ 6—9. I cannot understand why Ramsauer declines to recognise the remarks in these §§ as referred to by ὡς εἴρηται.

οἱ γὰρ συλλογισμοὶ τῶν πρακτῶν ἀρχὴν ἔχοντές εἰσιν, ἐπειδὴ κ.τ.λ.] a. 31. ἔχοντές εἰσιν (if the reading is sound) must be taken as equivalent to ἔχουσιν : so the Paragraph.—οἱ γὰρ συλλογισμοὶ τῶν πρακτῶν, οὗς δηλονότι συλλογίζόμενοι πράττομεν, ἀρχὰς ἔχουσι τὰ τέλη τῶν πράξεων. For the Practical Syllogism, see notes on vii. 3. 9. Ramsauer suspects τὸ τυχόν, which he regards as inappropriate where τὸ ἀριστον is concerned. This objection seems a little hypercritical.

1144 a. 36. ἀδύνατον φρόνιμον εἶναι μὴ ὄντα ἀγαθόν] φρόνησις is the consciousness of what is required, in all circumstances, for the maintenance of the moral character. Similarly, every living creature is aware, in all that it does, of the requirements of its particular type.

CHAPTER XIII.

ARGUMENT.

As Prudence is related to Cleverness, so is Virtue strictly so called related to natural virtue. That there is such a thing as natural virtue is plain: people are born with tendencies to acquire this or that virtuous disposition—temperance, or courage, or justice: such tendencies are constitutional or natural. Unless directed by reason they are obviously harmful; but under the direction of Reason, i.e. of Prudence, they settle down into habits and become virtues strictly so called. Thus, as we find Cleverness and Prudence under the opining part of the soul, so we find natural virtue and virtue strictly so called under the moral part: and virtue strictly so called does not come into existence without Prudence. Hence Socrates held that the virtues are so many forms of Prudence. He was wrong in simply identifying the virtues with Prudence, right in so far as he recognised that Prudence is necessary to them. And this is what all now recognise in their definition of Virtue as 'a habit in relation to certain objects—determined,' they add, 'as the right ratio requires,' meaning by 'right' that determined by Prudence. A slight alteration, however, is necessary in this definition. Virtue is not only 'a habit determined as the right ratio requires,' for thus the right ratio might be a law external to the 'virtuous disposition—rather, Virtue is 'a habit which has the right ratio in itself.'

It is plain then from what has been said that a man cannot be good in the strict sense without Prudence, or prudent without moral virtue: and it is by means of the distinction which we have drawn between Virtue strictly so called and natural virtue that we meet the dialectical argument which tries to show that the virtues may exist separately in a man—that he may have this virtue, and not yet have acquired that. The 'virtues' which this argument manipulates are only the 'natural virtues,' which indeed may exist separately; but as for the virtues which constitute the character of the good man strictly so called, they cannot exist separately. If a man have Prudence, he will at the same time have all the virtues. Even if Prudence did not help conduct, we should regard it as being the excellence of a part of the soul; as it is, however, it does help conduct; without it and Virtue choice would not be right; for Virtue gives the good end and makes it attractive, Prudence discovers means such as virtuous choice can adopt.

As for the difficulty about Prudence being mistress of Wisdom—It is no

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1144 b. 4. ἀνδρία καὶ δειλία, καὶ φόβοι καὶ θάρρη, καὶ θυμοὶ καὶ πανουργίαι καὶ τῆς περὶ τὴν διάνοιαν συνέσεως ἐνιαισιν ἐν πολλοῖς αὐτῶν ὁμοιότητες, καθάπερ ἐπὶ τῶν μερῶν ἐλέγομεν. Τὰ μὲν γὰρ τῷ μᾶλλον καὶ ἥττον διαφέρει πρὸς τὸν ἄνθρωπον, καὶ ὁ ἄνθρωπος πρὸς πολλὰ τῶν ζῴων (ἔνια γὰρ τῶν τοιούτων ὑπάρχει μᾶλλον ἐν ἀνθρώπῳ, ἔνια δ' ἐν τοῖς ἄλλοις ζῴοις μᾶλλον), τὰ δὲ τῷ ἀνάλογον διαφέρει· ὡς γὰρ ἐν ἀνθρώπῳ τέχνη καὶ σοφία καὶ σύκσις, οὕτως ἐνίοις τῶν ζῴων ἐστὶ τις ἑτέρα τοιαύτη φυσικὴ δύναμις. Φανερότατον δ' ἐστὶ τὸ τοιοῦτον ἐπὶ τὴν τῶν παίδων ἡλικίαν βλέψασιν· ἐν τούτοις γὰρ τῶν μὲν ὕστερον ἐξεων ἐσομένων ἐστὶν ἰδεῖν οἶον ἴχνη καὶ σπέρματα, διαφέρει δ' οὐθέν ὡς εἰπεῖν ἢ ψυχὴ τῆς τῶν θηρίων ψυχῆς κατὰ τὸν χρόνον τοῦτον, ὅστ' οὐδὲν ἄλογον εἰ τὰ μὲν ταῦτα τὰ δὲ παραπλήσια τὰ δ' ἀνάλογον ὑπάρχει τοῖς ἄλλοις ζῴοις. Οὕτω δ' ἐκ τῶν ἀψύχων εἰς τὰ ζῶα μεταβαίνει κατὰ μικρὸν ἢ φύσις, ὅστε τῇ συνεχείᾳ λαμβάνει τὸ μεθύριον αὐτῶν καὶ τὸ μέσον ποτέρων ἐστίν.

The most definite statement of the doctrine of φυσικὴ ἀρετὴ in the *E. E.* is that in iii. 7. 1234 a. 24 sqq. The writer is speaking of the παθητικαὶ μεσότητες (αἰδώς, νέμεσις, φιλία, σεμνότης, εὐτραπελία) and their respective extremes, and he says—*πάσαι δ' αὐται αἱ μεσότητες ἐπαινεταὶ μὲν, οὐκ εἰσὶ δ' ἀρεταί, οὐδ' αἱ ἐναντία κακίαι· ἄνευ προαιρέσεως γάρ. ταῦτα δὲ πάντ' ἐστὶν ἐν ταῖς τῶν παθημάτων διαιρέσεσιν· ἕκαστον γὰρ αὐτῶν πάθος τι ἐστίν. διὰ δὲ τὸ φυσικὰ εἶναι εἰς τὰς φυσικὰς συμβάλλεται ἀρετάς· ἐστὶ γάρ, ὅσπερ λεχθήσεται ἐν τοῖς ὕστερον, ἐκάστη πως ἀρετὴ καὶ φύσει καὶ ἄλλως μετὰ φρονήσεως. ὁ μὲν οὖν φθόνος εἰς ἀδικίαν συμβάλλεται (πρὸς γὰρ ἄλλον αἱ πράξεις αἱ ἀπ' αὐτοῦ) καὶ ἡ νέμεσις εἰς δικαιοσύνην, ἡ αἰδώς εἰς σωφροσύνην, διὸ καὶ ὀρίζονται ἐν τῷ γίνεσθαι τούτῳ τὴν σωφροσύνην.* Here an attempt is made to distinguish separate natural or constitutional bases in the πάθη, not only for separate virtues, but for separate vices: and it may be at once admitted that Aristotle supplies only *hints* for such detail, as when he says of the courage *διὰ τὸν θυμὸν E. N. iii. 8. 12*—*φυσικωτάτη δ' ἔοικεν ἢ διὰ τὸν θυμὸν εἶναι, καὶ προσλαβοῦσα προαίρεσιν καὶ τὸ οὐ ἔνεκα ἀνδρεία εἶναι*, and when he recognises the value of αἰδώς as a quality in the young, *E. N. iv. 9. 3*. The passage in the *M. M.*, parallel to *E. N. vi. 13. §§ 1–5* is as follows—*i. 34. 1197 b. 36 ὅσπερ δ' ἔχει ἡ δεινότης πρὸς φρόνησιν, οὕτως δόξειεν ἂν ἔχειν ἐπὶ τῶν ἀρετῶν ἀπασῶν. λέγω δὲ οἶον εἰσὶν ἀρεταὶ καὶ φύσει ἐν ἐκάστοις ἐγγινόμεναι, οἷον ὀρμαὶ τινες ἐν ἐκάστῳ ἄνευ λόγου πρὸς τὰ ἀνδρεία καὶ τὰ δίκαια καὶ καθ' ἐκάστην πρὸς τὰ τοιαῦτα· εἰσὶ δὲ δὴ καὶ ἔθει καὶ προαιρέσει. αἱ δὲ δὴ μετὰ λόγου οὔσαι τελείως ἀρεταὶ εἰσιν ἐπαινεταὶ ἐπιγινόμεναι. ἔστιν οὖν ἡ φυσικὴ ἀρετὴ αὕτη ἢ ἄνευ λόγου χωριζομένη μὲν τοῦ λόγου μικρὰ καὶ ἀπαλειπομένη τοῦ ἐπαινεῖσθαι, πρὸς δὲ τὸν λόγον καὶ τῆς*

προαίρεσις προστιθεμένη τελείαν ποιῆ τὴν ἀρετὴν. διὸ καὶ συνεργεῖ τῷ λόγῳ 1144 b. 4. καὶ οὐκ ἔστιν ἄνευ τοῦ λόγου ἡ φυσικὴ ὁρμὴ πρὸς ἀρετὴν. οὐδ' αὖ ὁ λόγος καὶ ἡ προαίρεσις οὐ πάνυ τελειοῦται τῷ εἶναι ἀρετὴν ἄνευ τῆς φυσικῆς ὁρμῆς. διὸ οὐκ ὀρθῶς Σωκράτης ἔλεγεν, φάσκων εἶναι τὴν ἀρετὴν λόγον οὐδὲν γὰρ ὄφελος εἶναι πράττειν τὰ ἀνδρείια καὶ τὰ δίκαια, μὴ εἰδότες καὶ προαιρούμενον τῷ λόγῳ. διὸ τὴν ἀρετὴν ἔφη λόγον εἶναι, οὐκ ὀρθῶς, ἀλλ' οἱ νῦν βέλτιον τὸ γὰρ κατὰ τὸν ὀρθὸν λόγον πράττειν τὰ καλά, τοῦτό φασιν εἶναι ἀρετὴν ὀρθῶς μὲν οὐδ' αὐτοὶ. πράξαι μὲν γὰρ ἂν τις τὰ δίκαια προαιρέσει μὲν οὐδεμιᾷ, οὐδέ γνώσει τῶν καλῶν, ἀλλ' ὁρμῇ τινὶ ἀλόγῳ, ὀρθῶς δὲ ταῦτα καὶ κατὰ τὸν ὀρθὸν λόγον (λέγω δέ, ὡς ἂν ὁ λόγος ὁ ὀρθὸς κελεύσειεν, οὕτως ἔπραξεν) ἀλλ' ὅμως ἡ τοιαύτη πράξις οὐκ ἔχει τὸ ἐπαινετόν. ἀλλὰ βέλτιον, ὡς ἡμεῖς ἀφορίζομεν, τὸ μετὰ λόγου εἶναι τὴν ὁρμὴν πρὸς τὸ καλόν· τὸ γὰρ τοιοῦτον καὶ ἀρετὴ καὶ ἐπαινετόν. Eustratius describes φυσικὴ ἀρετὴ as εὐφυΐα τις πρὸς ὑποδοχὴν τῆς κυρίως ἀρετῆς, and φρόνησις as εἰδοποιήσις τις καὶ μόρφωσις τῆς δεινότητος.

σωφρονικοί] capable of becoming σώφρονες.

b. 5.

καὶ τὰλλα ἔχομεν] i. e. are capable of acquiring the other ἕξεις, b. 6. or have the other ἕξεις potentially.

§ 2. εἰάν δὲ λάβῃ νοῦν, ἐν τῷ πράττειν διαφέρει] The highest b. 12. moral life consists in the greatest possible αὐτάρκεια of the inner, or rational, as distinguished from the outer, or sensitive, man. But reason and sense are not to be regarded as two *entities* having no part in each other, the one being the principle of morality, and the other of immorality. If this were the distinction, it would be difficult to understand Aristotle's view of a voluntary act, as one springing from any ἀρχή within the man, whether it be ἐπιθυμία, θυμός, or λόγος (*E. N.* iii. 1. 20), and his definition of προαίρεσις as βουλευτικὴ ὁρεξις (*E. N.* iii. 3. 19). The moral reason is no mere abstraction out of contact with the passions, but it is the Form (εἶδος) and they are the Matter (τὸ δεκτικόν)—not antagonistic, but really complementary forces which morality seeks to harmonise. Choice, or προαίρεσις, wherein man appears so clearly as an ἀρχή—without which there would be no such thing as morality, belongs as much to the sensitive and emotional, as to the rational side of human nature, and presupposes the power of performing voluntary (ἐκούσια) acts, which irrational beings have no less than man. As the objects of the scientific νοῦς are always presented in a particular ὄλῃ, so the ὀρθὸς λόγος, or moral organism, of which νοῦς

1144 b. 12. *πρακτικός* is the consciousness, is an *ἔνυλος λόγος*, an equilibrium of real passions. The inner, or rational, is the Form of the outer, or sensitive man. The moral reason is the *εἰδοποίησις καὶ μὀρφωσις τῶν παθημάτων*. Aristotle thus avoids the extreme Socratic position—that virtue is knowledge, and vice consequently involuntary, without surrendering the truth that reason is essential to morality. Morality is the perfection of the form of a given matter. In *plants*, their manner of growth—*τὸ θρεπτικόν*—is the form. *Animals* are conscious of their organisms in the schemata of pleasure and pain; and mere *δρεξις* is the exponent of their form, so that whatever thwarts mere *δρεξις* is not themselves. Acts done from mere *δρεξις* by *man* are his own acts, and voluntary, because in him the sensible nature is the material vehicle of the rational moral nature, and if he is to have credit for achieving the perfect form, he must be responsible for acts which hinder its reception—if virtue is in his power, vice must also be in his power. This is the practical consideration which makes Aristotle, in treating of *τὸ ἐκούσιον*, represent man as coextensive with his *δρέξεις* of all kinds. There is therefore no contradiction between the statements that Reason is the Man (e.g. *E. N.* ix. 8. 6), and that acts done from *ἐπιθυμία* and *θυμός*, as well as those done from *λόγος*, are voluntary, i. e. the man's own acts (*E. N.* iii. 1. 21). Reason is the Form taken by the whole sensitive nature. The more clearly a man sees that Reason is himself, the more readily will he hold himself responsible for all acts of the sensibility which stand in the way of the final victory of Reason. A central government becomes strong and succeeds in crushing lawlessness in the provinces, only by holding *itself*—*its own* weakness—responsible for the lawlessness.

The education of the young citizen under *νόμος* consists in the process of centralising the *ἀρχή* of his nature. At first he acts *κατὰ λόγου*—in accordance with an external standard, supplied by the *νομοθέτης*, which he could not see unless it were pointed out to him, and would not conform to unless he were constrained. As time goes on, he begins to see for himself what is right, and to desire, independently of external constraint, to do it, till at last he acts *μετὰ λόγου*—in accordance with a standard which he has now appropriated to himself and assimilated: see *E. N.* vi. 13. 5 *ἔστι γὰρ οὐ μόνον ἢ κατὰ τὸν ὀρθὸν λόγον, ἀλλ' ἢ μετὰ τοῦ ὀρθοῦ λόγου ἔξις ἀρετῆ ἴστω*. By habituation the natural tendencies to proper conduct (*αἱ φυσικαὶ ἀρεταί*) become fixed in relation to one another; and as

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1144 b. 16. as a vicious circle.' We must look out of the dialectical circle, as it were, beyond the *relata* themselves, and enquire after the cause which has brought them into this relation of mutuality. We shall then see that ἀρετή and φρόνησις grow up *together* in the citizen, because the νοῦς, or φρόνησις ἀρχιτεκτονική of the νομοθέτης, which produces both, cannot, as a matter of fact, produce the one without producing the other. The fully formed ἔξις of κυρία ἀρετή is the assured order of the passions; and the order is not assured till the subject is clearly conscious for himself of its essential lines. This clear consciousness of the moral order is the fully formed ἔξις of φρόνησις: *cf.* also Zeller's *Ph. der Griechen*, ii. 2 (Aristoteles) p. 658 (3rd ed.), p. 508 (2nd ed.).

b. 17. § 3. διόπερ] The connexion here is well brought out by the writer of the *M. M.* in the passage i. 34. 1197 b. 36–1198 a. 21 quoted above in note on vi. 13. 1.

b. 18. φρονήσεις] *Cf.* *E. E.* i. 5. 1216 b. 2 Σωκράτης μὲν οὖν ὁ πρεσβύτης φητ' εἶναι τέλος τὸ γινώσκειν τὴν ἀρετὴν, καὶ ἐπεζήτει τί ἐστὶν ἡ δικαιοσύνη καὶ τί ἡ ἀνδρεία καὶ ἕκαστον τῶν μορίων αὐτῆς. ἐποίει γὰρ ταῦτ' εὐλόγως. ἐπιστήμας γὰρ φητ' εἶναι πάσας τὰς ἀρετάς, ὥσθ' ἄμα συμβαίνει εἰδέναι τε τὴν δικαιοσύνην καὶ εἶναι δίκαιον.

Σωκράτης] See Grant's note *ad loc.*, in which it is concluded from the absence of the article that 'the actual and historical Socrates is designated' here. It is scarcely necessary to say that the bald doctrine—πάσας τὰς ἀρετάς ἐπιστήμας εἶναι attributed by Eudemus in i. 5. 1216 b. 2 sqq. to Σωκράτης ὁ πρεσβύτης, and by the writer of the *M. M.* in i. 1. 1182 a. 16 to Σωκράτης, and in 1183 b. 8 sq. to ὁ Σωκράτης, is *not* the doctrine either of the historical or of the Platonic Socrates. Συμβαίνει οὖν αὐτῷ (*sc.* Σωκράτει) ἐπιστήμας ποιοῦντι τὰς ἀρετάς ἀναιρεῖν τὸ ἄλογον μέρος τῆς ψυχῆς, τοῦτο δὲ ποιῶν ἀναιρεῖ καὶ πάθος καὶ ἦθος (*M. M.* i. 1. 1182 a. 20) is a captious inference from isolated statements of Socrates or Plato, not a fair account of the theory of either, which did not differ essentially from that of the Aristotelian school.

b. 19. ἐζήτει] Eustr. connects ἐζήτει with the circumstance that Socrates philosophised *διαλογικῶς καὶ ζητητικῶς*.

b. 21. § 4. καὶ γὰρ νῦν πάντες] Fritzsche has an important note here (*E. E.* p. 147)—'Ego interpretor *nunc, quum valeat doctrina Peri-*

paetica, relicta jam Academia, et comparo M. M. i. 35. 1198 a. 13 1144 b. 21.
 διὸ τὴν ἀρετὴν εἶφη (Socrates) λόγον εἶναι, οὐκ ὀρθῶς, ἀλλ' οἱ νῦν βέλτιον:
 atque existimo ita scribere potuisse Aristotelis aemulum Eudemum,
 non potuisse ita scribere Aristotelem. Cf. etiam infra v. 30 ἡμεῖς.'

ὅταν ὀρίζονται τὴν κατὰ τὸν ὀρθὸν λόγον] What *οἱ νῦν* add is b. 22.
 κατὰ τὸν ὀρθὸν λόγον. They define ἀρετὴ as 'a εἶς concerned with
 certain objects,' and add 'in accordance with the ὀρθὸς λόγος.'
 Eustr. explains that πρὸς δ = πρὸς πράξεις καὶ πάθη, and that the
 ἴδιον which is added is κατὰ τὸν ὀρθὸν λόγον. So the Paraphrast—
 ὅταν ὀρίζονται τὴν ἀρετὴν, εἰπόντες αὐτὴν καὶ περὶ τίνα καταγίνεται, προσ-
 τιθιάσι καὶ κατὰ τὸν ὀρθὸν λόγον.

§ 5. μικρὸν μεταβῆναι] μικρὸν παραλλάξαι τὴν λέξιν (Eustr.). b. 26.

κατὰ τὸν ὀρθὸν λόγον—μετὰ τοῦ ὀρθοῦ λόγου] Socrates made the
 ἀρεταὶ λόγοι, the writer says: they are not λόγοι, but εἶς, περὶ πάθη
 καὶ πράξεις, κατὰ λόγον—or rather, μετὰ λόγου, for the λόγος which the
 πάθη of the κυρίως ἀγαθός obey is not an external one,—not that of
 law which a man conforms to, but of principle which he reveres.
 The κυρίως ἀγαθός performs his virtuous acts *proprio motu*, according
 to a standard which he has assimilated—with which he identifies him-
 self: see Eustratius—οὐ γὰρ μόνον ὡς μέτρον δεῖ τάξαι τὸν ὀρθὸν λόγον
 τῆς κατ' ἀρετὴν ἐνεργείας ἢ πείσεως, ἢ εἴη πάντα τὰ τῆς ἀρετῆς κατ' αὐτόν· τὸ
 γὰρ μέτρον ἐνδέχεται ποτε τοῦ μετρούμενου χωρίζεσθαι· οὐκ αἰεὶ δέ ποτε πράτ-
 τειν ἢ πάσχειν κατ' ἀρετὴν, χωριζομένης φρονήσεως, ἀλλὰ δεῖ παρεῖναι καὶ
 τὸν ὀρθὸν λόγον αἰεὶ, καὶ μετ' αὐτοῦ τὰς πράξεις γίνεσθαι καὶ τὰς πείσεις ἵνα
 κατ' ἀρετὴν γίνοιτο, καὶ ἡ μετὰ τοῦ ὀρθοῦ λόγου εἶς ἀρετὴ ἐστὶ. Cf. also the
 Paraphrast, who has τὸ γὰρ κατὰ λόγον διαφέρει τοῦ μετὰ λόγου· κατὰ λόγον
 γὰρ τις ποιῆ τι, καὶ ἑτέρου κινουῦντος, καὶ τὸ τέλος σκοποῦντος, ὡσπερ ἡ φύσις
 κατὰ λόγον ποιῆ· μετὰ λόγου δέ, ὅταν αὐτὸς εἰδῶς πράττη, καὶ τὸ τέλος σκοπῶν
 κατὰ λόγον ποιῆ. The introduction of *consciousness* (ὅταν αὐτὸς εἰδῶς
 πράττη) by the Paraphrast, as discriminating τὸ μετὰ λόγου from τὸ
 κατὰ λόγον, is unfortunate. It is true that in man the rule of an
 internal principle is the rule of consciousness, or conscience; but
 surely plant life, from which consciousness is absent, is also ruled by
 an internal principle (ἡ γὰρ φύσις ἀρχὴ ἐν αὐτῷ), and if the term
 λόγος is used to express the law of that life, it ought to be used in
 the formula μετὰ λόγου, not, as by the Paraphrast, in the formula
 κατὰ λόγον. We shall avoid confusion if we take μετὰ λόγου to mark
 an *inward principle* (whether its inwardness appear as self-con-

1144 b. 26. consciousness, or merely as the organic unity of the physical individual), and *κατὰ λόγον* an *external rule*. Thus, a temple is built *κατὰ λόγον*: a tree grows *μετὰ λόγου*.

b. 32. § 6. ἀλλὰ καὶ ὁ λόγος πᾶσαι ὑπάρξουσιν] The writer of the *M. M.* helps us to understand the real nature and object of the dialectical argument (ὁ λόγος . . . φ' διαλεχθείη τις ἄν) referred to here, which tries to prove that the ἀρεταί are independent of one another. Its real object is to make a casuistical interpretation of duty possible, by showing that there may be 'a conflict of duties' in any given case—that man is nothing but a bundle of separate virtuous tendencies, any one of which may be indulged at the expense of the others. His words are—*M. M.* ii. 3. 1199 b. 36 ἔχει δὲ καὶ τὸ τοιοῦτον ἀπορίαν, οἷον ἐπειδὴν μὴ ἢ ἅμα πράξαι τὸν δρεῖα καὶ τὰ δίκαια, πότερ' ἂν τις πράξειεν; ἐν μὲν δὴ ταῖς φυσικαῖς ἀρεταῖς ἔφαμεν τὴν ὀρμὴν μόνον [δεῖν] τὴν πρὸς τὸ καλὸν ὑπάρχειν ἄνευ λόγου φ' ὅ ἐστιν αἴρεσις, ἐν τῷ λόγῳ καὶ τῷ λόγον ἔχοντι ἐστίν. ὅστε ἅμα τὸ ἐλέσθαι [καὶ] παρέσται καὶ ἡ τελεία ἀρετὴ ὑπάρξει, ἣν ἔφαμεν μετὰ φρονήσεως εἶναι, οὐκ ἄνευ δὲ τῆς φυσικῆς ὀρμῆς τῆς ἐπὶ τὸ καλόν. οὐδ' ἐναντιώσεται ἀρετὴ ἀρετῇ. πέφυκεν γὰρ ὑπεῖκειν τῷ λόγῳ, [ἢ] ὡς οὗτος προστάττει, ὥστ' ἐφ' ὃ ἂν οὗτος ἄγῃ, ἐπὶ τοῦτο ἀποκλίνει. τὸ γὰρ βέλτιον οὗτός ἐστιν ὁ αἰρούμενος. οὔτε γὰρ ἄνευ τῆς φρονήσεως αἱ ἄλλαι ἀρεταὶ γίνονται, οὔθ' ἡ φρόνησις τελεία ἄνευ τῶν ἄλλων ἀρετῶν, ἀλλὰ συνεργουσί πως μετ' ἀλλήλων ἐπακολουθοῦσαι τῇ φρονήσει.

b. 35. τοῦτο γὰρ κατὰ μὲν τὰς φυσικὰς ἀρετὰς ἐνδέχεται κ.τ.λ.] The λύσις of the casuistical argument is that man is not a bundle of separate natural tendencies, but a moral organism: and that, as a matter of fact, the best men are conscious of this organism, and make the consciousness of it, and not feeling or natural inclination (however amiable), their guide in life.

1145 a. 1. ἅμα γὰρ τῇ φρονήσει μὴ ὑπαρχούση πᾶσαι ὑπάρξουσιν] ὑπαρχούση (Byw.) is the reading of K^b, M^b, Cambr.: οὔση is the reading of L^b, and other authorities, accepted by Bekker and Susemihl. I think that ὑπαρχούση is better than οὔση, if we read the future ὑπάρξουσιν—'if φρόνησις is present, all the virtues will be present': but L^b, which reads οὔση, reads ὑπάρχουσιν. As for μὴ—it accords with οὔση, but scarcely with ὑπαρχούση. We seem to require—ἅμα γὰρ τῇ φρονήσει, μὴ οὔση, ὑπαρχούση πᾶσαι ὑπάρξουσιν. As regards the doctrine of the sentence—ἀλη ἀρετῇ, of which φρόνησις is the con-

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BOOK VII.



Introductory Note.—‘These chapters [vii. 1–10],’ says Grant, ‘form a necessary complement to the Aristotelian ethical system, taking a more practical point of view (*ἄλλην ἀρχήν*) than that which would divide mankind simply into the virtuous and the vicious. Moral systems in general have perhaps too much neglected this field of the intermediate states; and general language has not definitely adopted the distinction between the “Intemperate” [*ἀκόλαστος*], and the “Incontinent” [*ἀκρατής*], as the use of the English words at once testifies, for we are evidently obliged to give a certain special and technical meaning to the word “Intemperate,” in order to make it stand as the representative of *ἀκόλαστος*’.¹ Cf. the Aldine Scholiast on vii (not Aspasius, but ‘Anonymus rec.’—see Rose: *Commentare sur Ethik des Arist.*, Hermes, vol. v) fol. 117^v—*ἡ ἐγκράτεια οὐκ ἔστι κυρίως ἀρετὴ ἀλλ’ ἐγγίζει τῇ ἀρετῇ . . . ἡ μὲν γάρ ἐστιν ἡ ἐγκράτεια ἐκ προαιρέσεως γινόμενη καὶ περὶ πρακτὰ καταγινόμενη, ἔοικεν ἀρετῇ· ἡ δὲ πάλιν οὐκ ἔστιν ἰσονομία ἐπὶ τῶν μερῶν τῆς ψυχῆς ἀλλὰ μάχη τις καὶ στασιασμός, ἀρετὴ οὐκ ἔστιν· ὁ γὰρ ἐγκρατής ἔχει μὲν τὸν λόγον προστάσσοντα δεῖν ἀπέχεσθαι τῶν ἡδονῶν τῶν αἰσchrῶν, τὴν δὲ ἐπιθυμίαν ἔχει μὴ ἀκολουθοῦσαν τῷ λόγῳ ἀλλ’ ἀντιτείνουσας καὶ τῶν αἰσchrῶν ἡδονῶν ἀντέχεσθαι σπεύδουσας· ἐπὶ δὲ τῶν ἀρετῶν ἰσονομία τις ἐστιν καὶ οὐ μάχη τῶν μερῶν τῆς ψυχῆς, ἀλλὰ ὁ σώφρων ἔχει μὲν τὸν λόγον προστάσσοντα δεῖν ἀπέχεσθαι τῶν αἰσchrῶν ἡδονῶν καὶ εὐθύς ἔχει τὴν ἐπιθυμίαν ἐπακολουθοῦσαν τῷ λόγῳ καὶ μὴ ἀντιτείνουσας . . . ὁμοίως δὲ καὶ ἡ ἀκροσία ἡ ἀντικειμένη τῇ ἀρετῇ ἢτοι τῇ ἐγκρατεῖα ἑτέρα τις ἐστὶ κακία παρὰ τὰς ἄλλας τὰς ἀντικειμένας ταῖς ἠθικαῖς ἀρεταῖς ἡγουσά τὴν ἀκολασίαν τὴν δειλίαν καὶ τὰς λοιπὰς· ὁ γὰρ ἀκρατής ἔχει μὲν τὸν λόγον ἐρρωμένον ὅτι κακόν*

¹ ‘Incorrigible’ is perhaps the closest rendering of *ἀκόλαστος*. He is the man who has no principle, and is an ‘incorrigible offender.’ ‘Intemperate,’ however, is amply justified by the fact that *ἀκολασία* is the regular contrary of *σωφροσύνη*.

ἔστι τὸ μοιχεύειν, ἡττᾶται δὲ ὑπὸ τοῦ πάθους, καὶ γίγνεται καταῦθα μάχη τις τῶν μερῶν τῆς ψυχῆς· τῆς γὰρ ἐπιθυμίας σπενδούσης ἀντέχειν τῶν αἰσχροῦν ἡδονῶν, ὁ λόγος ἀντιτείνει καὶ ἡττᾶται· ὁ δὲ ἀκόλαστος ἔχων τὴν ἐπιθυμίαν ῥέπουσαν πρὸς τὰς φαύλας ἡδονὰς εὐθύς ἔχει καὶ τὸν λόγον ἐπακολουθοῦντα καὶ μὴ ἀντιτείνοντα. Cf. *M. M.* ii. 4. 1200 a. 35 μετὰ δὲ ταῦτα ἀναγκαῖόν ἐστὶν ἑτέραν ἀρχὴν ποιησαμένοις λέγειν ὑπὲρ ἐγκρατείας καὶ ἀκρασίας. ὥσπερ δὲ καὶ ἡ ἀρετὴ καὶ ἡ κακία αὐταὶ εἰσιν ἄτοποι, ὡσαύτως ἀναγκαῖον καὶ τοὺς περὶ τούτων λόγους λεχθησομένους ὑπόπους γίνεσθαι· οὐ γὰρ ὁμοία ἡ ἀρετὴ αὕτη ἐστὶ ταῖς ἄλλαις. ἐν μὲν γὰρ ταῖς ἄλλαις ἐπὶ ταῦτα καὶ ὁ λόγος καὶ τὰ πάθη ὁρμῶσι, καὶ οὐκ ἐναντιοῦνται ἀλλήλοις, ἐπὶ δὲ ταύτης ἐναντιοῦνται ἀλλήλοις ὁ τε λόγος καὶ τὰ πάθη. The paradoxical character (τὸ ἄτοπον) of ἀκρασία, to which Socrates first called attention, made the state a favourite subject of discussion. Thus the chief difficulties in the notion of voluntary action present themselves to the writer of the *Eudemian Ethics* (*E. E.* ii. 7 and 8) in connexion with ἐγκράτεια and ἀκρασία: the writer of *E. N.* v discusses the puzzle of self-injury with immediate reference to the ἀκρατής (*E. N.* v. 9. 5); the interest of the writer of *E. N.* vii. chapters 1–10 in his subject is, to a considerable extent, a dialectical one; and the same remark applies to the writer of the *M. M.* ii. chapters 4, 5, and 6, who follows *E. N.* vii. 1–10 very closely, and probably (see Ramsauer *E. N.* p. 425) had no other treatment of the subject before him, when he wrote. It is the circumstance, as it seems to me, that ἀκρασία lends itself to dialectical discussion, rather than the intrinsic importance of the subject—great as that is¹—which accounts for its remarkable prominence in the Aristotelian system, and more especially (as was to be expected) in the later versions of that system.

¹ The necessity of assuming the existence of intermediate states between the confirmed ἕξεις, ἀρετὴ and κακία, is set forth by Alexander Aphrod. in his *ἔκθεσις καὶ λύσις*, iv. 3. p. xxx. Ald. 'ὅτι δικαιοσύνης τε καὶ ἀδικίας, καὶ ὄλης ἀρετῆς τε καὶ κακίας, ἔστι τις ἕξις μεταξύ.' If there were no intermediate states, how, he asks, would it be possible to become virtuous? Everything comes either ἐκ τοῦ ἐναντίου or ἐκ τοῦ μεταξύ. If ἀρετὴ came ἐκ τοῦ ἐναντίου, then κακία would be φύσει, and ἀρετὴ consequently παρὰ φύσιν. Therefore ἀρετὴ and κακία are differentiated ἐκ τοῦ μεταξύ.

CHAPTER I.

ARGUMENT.

Let us now pass to another division of our subject.

Dispositions to be avoided are three, (1) Vice, (2) Incontinence, (3) Brutality. Virtue and Continnence are plainly the contraries of Vice and Incontinence: the contrary of Brutality is not so plain; but may be taken to be superhuman virtue, such as we ascribe to heroes and to the gods. As this godlike virtue is rare among men, so is its opposite brutality—oftenest found among barbarians, and sometimes even caused by disease and mutilation. We shall return to it afterwards—at present we are concerned with those properly human dispositions which lie between the god and the brute. Of these dispositions, Vice and Virtue have been already discussed: there remain Incontinence and Softness, Continnence and Endurance, the latter two belonging to the same genus as Virtue, but differing from it specifically; the former two belonging to the same genus as Vice, but differing from it specifically.

Let us conduct this enquiry in our usual way,—first stating the views held regarding these dispositions; then going through the difficulties in the views: then proceeding to establish, if possible, all the views backed by sufficient opinion, or, at least, the most of them, and the weightiest: for the purpose of this treatise will have been sufficiently served if, having removed certain confusions, we leave men's opinions to speak for themselves.

The following views, then, are held—

- (1) *Continnence and endurance are good, incontinence and softness bad.*
- (2) *The continent man is he who abides by the result of his reflection; the incontinent, he who falls away from it.*
- (3) *The incontinent man acts under the influence of feeling, knowing that what he does is bad; the continent man, knowing that his desires are bad, obeys his reason and does not follow them.*
- (4) *The temperate man is continent and enduring; while the converse of this statement some regard as universally true, and others do not.*
- (5) *Some use the terms 'incorrigible' and 'incontinent' interchangeably; others distinguish between them.*
- (6) *Some say that the prudent man cannot be incontinent; others say that prudent and clever people are sometimes incontinent.*
- (7) *There is 'incontinence' in anger, and in the pursuit of honour and of material advantages.*

1145 a. 15. § 1.] In this section we have six states—(1) θεία ἀρετή, ἡ ὑπὲρ ἀνθρώπου, (2) ἀρετή, ἡ κατ' ἀνθρώπου, (3) ἐγκράτεια, (4) ἀκρασία, (5) κακία, ἡ κατ' ἀνθρώπου, (6) θηριότης. Although the ἀρετή above ἐγκράτεια in *pari materia* is σωφροσύνη (i. e. περὶ τὰς σωματικὰς

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1145 a. 25. divine good is not a *ἕξις*, which is merely *ἐπαινετόν*, but an *ἐνέργεια*, which is *τίμιον*: see *E. N.* i. 12.

a. 27. *ἕτερόν τι γένος κακίας*] The genitive *κακίας* depends on *ἕτερον*: see Coraes *ad loc.*—*διάφορόν τι γένος παρὰ τὴν κακίαν, ὡς ἐξηγεῖται ἡ Ἀργυροπούλου*—*diversum quid est a vitio genus.*

a. 29. § 3. (*οἱ*) *ὅταν ἀγασθῶσι σφόδρα του, σεῖος ἀνὴρ φασιν*] Bywater adds *οἱ*. I like better Susemihl's way of meeting the difficulty, by making *σεῖος ἀνὴρ φασιν* parenthetical. Coraes (with the approval of Kassow, *Forsch.* p. 126, and Susemihl *ad loc.*) reads *οὗτος* between *φασιν* and *οὕτω*, on the strength of Plato, *Meno.* 99 D, which the writer of the present passage seems to have had in his mind—*καὶ αἱ γε γυναῖκες δὴ που τοὺς ἀγαθοὺς ἀνδρας θεῖους καλοῦσι· καὶ οἱ Λάκωνες ὅταν τινὰ ἐγκωμιάζωσι ἀγαθὸν ἀνδρα, θεῖος ἀνὴρ, φασίν, οὗτος.* Argyropulus, as Coraes notes, favours *οὗτος*: his version is—*Dicunt enim vir divus hic est.* The Ald. Schol. also may have read *οὗτος*: his version is—*οἱ Λάκωνες . . . ἔλεγον οὗτος ὁ ἀνὴρ θεός ἐστιν ἦτοι θεῖος.*

On the construction *ἐπεὶ . . . οὕτω* see Eucken, *de Arist. dicendi ratione* p. 30, who compares *Pol.* 1253 b. 23-33, and *Pol.* 1258 a. 31.

a. 30. *μάλιστα δ' . . ἐπιδυσφημοῦμεν*] '(1) Some men are born brutal; (2) others are made so; (3) others make themselves so'—Peters' note *ad loc.* *Τοὺς διὰ κακίαν ὑπερβάλλοντας*, introduced by *καὶ*—*δέ*, are distinguished as a third variety from (1) *οἱ φύσει, i. e. βάρβαροι*, and (2) *οἱ διὰ νόσους*.

a. 31. *πηρώσεις*] We are to think of bodily mutilations and defects, not, with the Ald. Schol., of a defective moral nature—*εἰσὶ γὰρ τινες*, he says, *πεπηρωμένον ἦτοι βεβλαμμένον ἔχοντες τὸ λογιστικὸν καὶ τῶν οἰκείων φρενῶν ἐκστάντες.* Coraes, noting that Argyropulus has *laesiones principii*, suggests the reading *πηρώσεις τῆς ἀρχῆς*, and compares the *πεπηρωμένος πρὸς ἀρετὴν* of *E. N.* i. 9. 4: but the association of *πηρώσεις* with *νόσοι* (frequent, as Fritzsche *ad loc.* notes, in the *E. E.* and in *E. N.* vii) seems conclusive in favour of understanding the former term of bodily injuries or defects.

a. 34. § 4. *ὑστερον*] vii. 5.

περὶ δὲ κακίας εἴρηται πρότερον] *E. E.* iii. 2 (*cf. E. N.* iii. 10), if *κακία* be taken here rather in its special sense, as *ἀκολασία*, than in the general sense of the contrary of *ἠθικὴ ἀρετή*. The Paraph.

probably takes it in the general sense : he says *περὶ δὲ κακίας εἴρηται* 1145 a. 34. *πρότερον, ὅτε περὶ ἀρετῶν ἐλέγομεν ἠθικῶν.*

οὔτε γὰρ ὡς περὶ τῶν αὐτῶν ἔξευεν τῇ ἀρετῇ καὶ τῇ μοχθηρίᾳ a. 38, *ἐκατέραν αὐτῶν ὑποληπτέον, οὐθ' ὡς ἕτερον γένος*] Rasso (Forsch. p. 126) remarks on the extraordinary carelessness of the writing here, and supposes that the author, when he wrote *περὶ*, intended to use *λεκτέον*, as in the previous clause, but wrote *ὑποληπτέον* instead. Coraes adopts the reading *ὡσπερὶ* for *ὡς περὶ*. Ramsauer notes the carelessness with which *ἐκατέραν* is used in the singular number, although, on the one side, three dispositions (*ἀκρασία, μαλακία, and τρυφή*) are enumerated, and, on the other side, two (*ἐγκράτεια and καρτερία*). *ὡσπερ οὐσῶν*, for *ὡς περὶ*, might be suggested, if it were not easier to accept the careless writing of the text as it stands.

Ἐγκράτεια and *ἀρετή* (here = *σωφροσύνη*, apparently) belong to the same *γένος*, inasmuch as both result in good acts, where certain bodily pleasures are concerned ; but differ *κατ' εἶδος*, in that the good acts proceeding from *ἀρετή* are done without, and those proceeding from *ἐγκράτεια* with, a struggle. Similarly, *ἀκρασία* and *μοχθηρία* (= *ἀκολασία*) belong to the same *γένος*, inasmuch as both result in bad acts ; but they differ *κατ' εἶδος*, in that the bad acts proceeding from *μοχθηρία* are done without, and those proceeding from *ἀκρασία* with, a struggle. So also *καρτερία* produces good acts, where certain bodily pains are concerned, but after a struggle ; and thus belongs to the same *γένος* as *ἀρετή*, but differs from it *κατ' εἶδος* : and *μαλακία* produces bad acts, where certain bodily pains are concerned, but after a struggle, thus belonging to the same *γένος* as *μοχθηρία*, but differing from it *κατ' εἶδος*. For the difference between the *ἀκρατής* and *ἀκόλαστος* see *E. N.* vii. 3. 2 *ὁ μὲν γὰρ (sc. ἀκόλαστος) ἄγεται προαιρούμενος, νομίζων δεῖ δαῖν τὸ παρὸν ἡδὺ διώκειν· ὁ δ' (sc. ἀκρατής) οὐκ οἶται μὲν, διώκει δέ.* The Ald. Schol. marks the difference by saying that in the *ἐγκρατής* and *ἀκρατής* there is a *μάχη τις*, in the *σώφρων* and *ἀκόλαστος* an *ισονομία τῶν μερῶν τῆς ψυχῆς* : cf. Plutarch, *de Virt. Moral.* ch. 6 *νῦν δὲ σωφροσύνη μὲν ἴστω, οὐ τὸ παθητικὸν ὡσπερ εὐήνιον θρέμμα καὶ πρῶον ὁ λογισμὸς ἡσυχῆ καὶ μεταχειρίζεται, περὶ τὰς ἐπιθυμίας χρώμενος ὑπέεικοντι καὶ δεχομένην τὸν χαλιῶν καὶ κρατοῦντι τὴν ἐπιθυμίαν· ἐγκράτειαν δὲ οὐκ ἀλύπως ἄγει, οὐδὲ πειθομένην, ἀλλὰ πλαγίαν καὶ ἀντιτείνουσαν, ὅσον ὑπὸ πληγῆς καὶ χαλινοῦ καταβιαζόμενος καὶ ἀνακρούων, ἄγνωτος ὢν ἐν ἑαυτῷ καὶ θορύβου μιστός· ὅσον ὁ Πλάτων ἐξεικονίζει περὶ τὰ τῆς ψυχῆς ὑποζύγια, τοῦ χείρονος πρὸς τὸ βέλτιον ζυγομαχοῦντος ἅμα καὶ τὸν ἡνίοχον διαταράττοντος, ἀντέχειν*

1145 a. 36. ὀπίσω, καὶ κατατείνειν ὑπὸ σπουδῆς ἀναγκαζόμενον αἰεὶ, μὴ βάλῃ φοίνικας ἐκ χειρῶν ἱμάτας κατὰ Σιμωνίδην. ὅθεν οὐδ' ἀρετὴν αὐτοτελῆ ἀξιοῦσι τὴν ἐγκράτειαν, ἀλλ' ἔλαττον ἀρετῆς εἶναι· μεσότης γὰρ οὐ γέγονεν ἐκ συμφωνίας τοῦ χείρονος πρὸς τὸ βέλτιον, οὐδ' ἀνήρηται τοῦ πάθους τὸ ὑπερβάλλον, οὐδέ πειθόμενον οὐδέ ὁμολογοῦν τῷ φρονοῦντι τῆς ψυχῆς τὸ ἐπιθυμοῦν, ἀλλὰ λυποῦν καὶ λυπούμενον καὶ κατειργόμενον ὑπ' ἀνάγκης, ὥσπερ ἐν στάσει δυσμενὲς καὶ πολέμιον συνοικεῖ·

πόλις δ' ὁμοῦ μὲν θυμιαμάτων γέμει,
ὁμοῦ δὲ παιάνων τε καὶ στεναγμάτων.

b. 2. § 5.] *On the method of the present enquiry.* First, we must state what men think on the subject (τιθέντας τὰ φαινόμενα): then, review the difficulties in the various opinions (διαπορήσαντας); but not in such a way as to overthrow any, or, at least, many of them (οὕτω δεικνύναι μάλιστα μὲν πάντα τὰ ἔνδοξα περὶ ταῦτα τὰ πάθη, εἰ δὲ μή, τὰ πλεῖστα καὶ κυριώτατα); for men's opinions about matters of conduct, if certain confusions be cleared up (εἰάν λήγῃ τὰ δυσχερῆ), will generally be found to be right. *Cf. E. E. i. 6. 1216 b. 28* κράτιστον μὲν πάντας ἀνθρώπους φαίνεσθαι συνομολογοῦντας τοῖς ῥηθησομένοις, εἰ δὲ μή, τρόπον γέ τινα πάντας, ὅπερ μεταβιβαζόμενοι ποιήσανσιν ἔχει γὰρ ἕκαστος οἰκεῖόν τι πρὸς τὴν ἀλήθειαν, ἐξ ἧν ἀναγκαῖον δεικνύναι πως περὶ αὐτῶν· ἐκ γὰρ τῶν ἀληθῶς μὲν λεγομένων οὐ σαφῶς δέ, προῖοῦσιν ἔσται καὶ τὸ σαφῶς, μεταλαμβάνουσιν αἰεὶ τὰ γνωριμώτερα τῶν εἰωθότων λέγεσθαι συγκεχυμένως. According to this view, the function of the moral philosopher is to introduce form into the matter already supplied by the common opinions of men. These opinions, often representing imperfect knowledge and states of feeling, and generally couched in misleading language, cannot, as they stand, combine to form a consistent theory of conduct. They necessarily conflict with one another at many points, if not in their substance, at least in their expression. The moralist has to note the points at which they conflict, and to present the exact nature of the conflict in every case as sharply as possible in a striking ἀπορία. When two conflicting opinions have been sharply defined side by side, the grounds on which each has been adopted will generally appear. Each is seen to embody part of the truth; each regards the same thing from a somewhat different point of view; or even perhaps it is not the same thing at all that is regarded, but two things which a word confounds. The detection of the equivocation, or other cause of misunderstanding, which has opposed two nearly correct

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1145 b. 2. of τὸ διαπορῆσαι (= διεξελεῖν τὰς ἀπορίας, see Bonitz, *Met.* p. 137), the moralist hits upon the distinctions and ideas (together with the terminology to express them) which bring light and order into the rough material of popular opinion. These distinctions and ideas are not likely to be fanciful and arbitrary, for they have been forced upon the moralist by a careful study of the intricacies of his subject-matter. They will be οἰκείοι λόγοι τοῦ πράγματος (see *E. E.* i. 6. 1217 a. 9). In other words—ἡ λύσις τῆς ἀπορίας εὐρεσις ἐστίν. As most ἀπορίαι are largely due to the ambiguities of common language, an important part of the method of τὸ διαπορῆσαι is to distinguish τὰ πλεοναχῶς λεγόμενα. Thus, in *Top.* i. 13. 105 a. 21 this is given as the second of the four parts into which the method of dialectical enquiry is divided—τὰ δὲ ὄργανα δι' ὧν εὐπορήσομεν τῶν συλλογισμῶν ἐστὶ τέτταρα· ἐν μὲν τὸ προτάσεις λαβεῖν· δεύτερον δὲ τὸ ποσαχῶς ἕκαστον λέγεται δύνασθαι διελεῖν· τρίτον δὲ τὸ τὰς διαφορὰς εὐρεῖν, τέταρτον δὲ ἡ τοῦ ὁμοίου σκέψις. The method sketched in the above passage, and fully explained in *Top.* i. chapters 14–18, is indicated in the section before us (*E. N.* vii. 1. 5), and followed, though not very systematically, in the enquiry prosecuted in *E. N.* vii. chapters 1–10. In the section before us, τιθέντας τὰ φαινόμενα answers to τὸ προτάσεις λαβεῖν: and τὸ δεικνύναι τὰ ἔνδοξα (resulting from τὸ διαπορῆσαι) corresponds to the εὐπορία effected by the detection of ambiguities (τὸ ποσαχῶς ἕκαστον λέγεται δύνασθαι διελεῖν), by the observation of distinctions which had been overlooked (τὸ τὰς διαφορὰς εὐρεῖν), and by the survey of the subject as a connected whole (ἡ τοῦ ὁμοίου σκέψις), which the detection of ambiguities and the observation of distinctions render possible.

The value attached by Aristotle to τὸ διαπορῆσαι καλῶς is well set forth in the following passage, *Met.* B. 1. 995 a. 24 sqq.—Ἀνάγκη πρὸς τὴν ἐπιζητουμένην ἐπιστήμην ἐπελθεῖν ἡμᾶς πρῶτον, περὶ ὧν ἀπορῆσαι δεῖ πρῶτον· ταῦτα δ' ἐστὶν ὅσα τε περὶ αὐτῶν ἄλλως ὑπειλήφασί τινας, κἂν εἴ τι χωρὶς τούτων τυγχάνοι παρεωραμένον. ἔστι δὲ τοῖς εὐπορήσαι βουλομένοις προῦργον τὸ διαπορῆσαι καλῶς· ἡ γὰρ ὕστερον εὐπορία λύσις τῶν πρότερον ἀπορουμένων ἐστὶ, λύει δ' οὐκ ἔστιν ἀγνοῦντας τὸν δεσμόν. ἀλλ' ἡ τῆς διανοίας ἀπορία δηλοῖ τοῦτο περὶ τοῦ πράγματος· ἡ γὰρ ἀπορεῖ, ταύτη παραπλήσιον πέποιθε τοῖς δεδεμένοις· ἀδύνατον γὰρ ἀμφοτέρως προελθεῖν εἰς τὸ πρόσθεν. διὸ δεῖ τὰς δυσχερείας τεθεωρηκέναι πάσας πρότερον, τούτων τε χάριν καὶ διὰ τὸ τοὺς ζητοῦντας ἄνευ τοῦ διαπορῆσαι πρῶτον ὁμοίους εἶναι τοῖς ποῖ δεῖ βαδίζειν ἀγνοοῦσι, καὶ πρὸς τοῦτοις οὐδ' εἴ ποτε τὸ ζητούμενον εὕρηκεν ἢ μὴ γνώσκειν· τὸ γὰρ τέλος τοῦτο μὲν οὐ

δῆλον, τῷ δὲ προσηγορηκότι δῆλον. ἔτι δὲ βέλτιον ἀνάγκη ἔχει πρὸς τὸ 1145 b. 2.
κρῖναι τὸν ὡς περ ἀντιδίκων καὶ τῶν ἀμφισβητούντων λόγων ἀκηκοῦτα
πάντων.

δεικνύναι] 'to establish.'

b. 4.

τὰ ἔνδοξα] *Top.* i. 1. 100 a. 29 sqq.—διαλεκτικὸς δὲ συλλογισμὸς ὁ
ἐξ ἐνδόξων συλλογιζόμενος . . . ἔνδοξα δὲ τὰ δοκοῦντα πᾶσιν ἢ τοῖς
πλείστοις ἢ τοῖς σοφοῖς· καὶ τούτοις ἢ τοῖς πᾶσιν ἢ τοῖς πλείστοις ἢ τοῖς
μάλιστα γνωρίμοις καὶ ἐνδόξοις.

The conditions of moral and political welfare (as distinguished from the recondite laws of the physical world) are represented with substantial accuracy in the common opinions of men; for if common opinions had misrepresented conditions so essential to its survival, the human race must have long ago perished. These common opinions, arbitrary and accidental though they may often seem, are really, like the colours of flowers and the markings of insects, *parts* of the rational or 'noumenal' world, not mere opaque 'phenomena' which hide it from our sight. Hence the moralist fulfils a function of the first *philosophical* importance, when he detects and removes certain obscurities and confusions which prevent a connected view of the whole body of experience represented by ἔνδοξα.

ἐὰν γὰρ . . . ἰκανῶς] The Ald. Schol. and the Par. take τὰ b. 8.
δυσχερῆ to mean *false ideas*—τοὺς λόγους τοὺς μὴ συμβαίοντας τῇ
ἀληθείᾳ (Par.)—δοῦναι μὲν τῶν δοξῶν ἔχονται ἀληθείας ταύτας λαβεῖν, δοῦναι
δὲ εἰσι πεπλοσημέναι καὶ τῆς ἀληθείας ἔξω ταύτας εἶναι (Ald. Schol.);
but λέγεται τὰ δυσχερῆ cannot mean the rejection of false views,
the reference plainly being to the λύσις τῆς ἀπορίας which is εὕρεσις,
or εὐπορία. The δυσχερῆ here are evidently the δυσχέρειαι or δεσμός
of the passage quoted above, *Met.* B. 1. 995 a. 24 sqq., *i.e.* the
causes of the various ἀπορίαι, such *e.g.* as the reason why two
ἔνδοξα, each of which is apparently well-founded in itself, seem
to contradict and discredit each other. When this reason
has been detected, then καταλείπεται τὰ ἔνδοξα—each of the two
ἔνδοξα is seen to be true from its own somewhat different point of
view, and the moralist fulfils his function sufficiently if he states in
unambiguous terms the precise sense in which each is true. I
therefore agree with Grant and Ramsauer, who explain ἐὰν γὰρ
λέγεται τε τὰ δυσχερῆ καὶ καταλείπεται τὰ ἔνδοξα in connexion with

1145 b. 6. *E. N.* vii. 2. 12 αἱ μὲν οὖν ἀπορίαι τοιαῦταί τινες συμβαίνουσι, τούτων δὲ τὰ μὲν ἀνελεῖν δεῖ τὰ δὲ καταλιπεῖν ἢ γὰρ λύσις τῆς ἀπορίας εὕρεσις ἐστίν. Here τὰ μὲν ἀνελεῖν and ἢ λύσις τῆς ἀπορίας answer to εἰάν λύηται τὰ δυσχερῆ, as these latter words have been explained above; and τὰ δὲ καταλιπεῖν answers to καταλείπηται τὰ ἔνδοξα. The words in *E. N.* vii. 2. 12 I understand to mean that these questions must be dealt with on the method of removing difficulties, and so leaving the truth (embodied in the ἔνδοξα) plain.

δεικνύναι and δεδειγμένον seem to be used here rather than the compound with ὑπο-, because the διαλεκτικός συλλογισμός is distinguished from the ἀποδεικτικός συλλογισμός by being ἐξ ἐνδόξων, the ἀποδεικτικός συλλογισμός being ἐξ ἀληθῶν καὶ πρώτων. See *Top.* i. 1.

b. 8. §§ 6, 7] enumerate the φαινόμενα, ἔνδοξα, or λεγόμενα about ἐγκράτεια, ἀκρασία, &c. These ἔνδοξα are generally reduced to six (as by the Paraph.), though a more minute division is possible. The Paraph. has Δοκεῖ δὴ πᾶσιν ἡ ἐγκράτεια ἀγαθόν, καὶ ἡ καρτερία τῶν σπουδαίων καὶ τῶν ἐπαινετῶν εἶναι· ἡ δὲ ἀκρασία τούναντίον. φασὶ δὲ περὶ τῆς ἐγκρατείας καὶ ταῦτα πρῶτον μὲν, ὅτι ὁ ἐγκρατῆς ὁ αὐτός ἐστι τῷ ἐμμεντικῷ ἔντινι λογισμῷ καὶ ἀκινήτῳ, καὶ ἐγκράτεια τὸ ἐμμένειν τῷ λογισμῷ, ἀκρασία δὲ καὶ ἀκρατῆς τούναντίον· δεύτερον, ὅτι εἰδὼς ὁ ἐγκρατῆς ὅτι φαῦλαι αἱ ἐπιθυμίαι, ἀφίσταται τούτων καὶ ἀκολουθεῖ τῷ λόγῳ, ὁ δὲ ἀκρατῆς, εἰδὼς ὅτι φαῦλα πράττει, διὰ τὴν ἡδονὴν οὐ πείθεται τῷ λόγῳ· τρίτον, ὅτι καὶ ὁ σώφρων ἐγκρατῆς ἐστὶ καὶ καρτερικός, καὶ ὁ ἀκόλαστος τούναντίον· τέταρτον, ὅτι καὶ πᾶς ἐγκρατῆς σώφρων· ἔνιοι δὲ ὁμοίως καὶ τὸν ἀκρατῆ πάντα ἀκόλαστον, καὶ τὸν ἀκόλαστον ἀκρατῆ εἶναι φασιν· ἄλλοι δὲ διαφέρου ἀλλήλων· πέμπτον, ὅτι ἐνδέχεται φρόνιμον καὶ δεινὸν ὄντα καὶ ἀκρατῆ εἶναι· ἕκτον, ὅτι λέγονται ἀκρατεῖς οἱ πρὸς θυμὸν ἐπιρρεπεῖς, καὶ οἱ σφόδρα τιμῆς καὶ κέρδους ὀρεγόμενοι· ταῦτα μὲν οὖν εἰσὶ πάντα σχεδὸν τὰ λεγόμενα περὶ ἐγκρατείας καὶ ἀκρασίας· ὧν περὶ ἐκάστου σκεψώμεθα· καὶ πρῶτον περὶ τοῦ πρώτου.

For the various views see the passages quoted by Fritzsche and Grant from *Xen. Mem.* i. 5. §§ 4, 5, 6; iv. 5. §§ 3-7; ii. 1. § 1: Plato, *Gorg.* 491 D; *Rep.* iv. 430 E; *Legg.* ix. 869 A: and *Isoc. Demon.* p. 6 c ὑφ' ὧν κριτεῖσθαι τὴν ψυχὴν αἰσχροῦν, τούτων ἐγκρατείας ἀσκεῖ πάντων, κέρδους, ὀργῆς, ἡδονῆς, λύπης.

b. 15. § 6. οἱ δ' οὖ] *i. e.* they regard ἐγκράτεια as a term of wider extent than σωφροσύνη.

b. 18. § 7. φρονίμους ὄντας καὶ δεινούς] τὸ καὶ ἀντὶ τοῦ ἦτοι (*Ald.*

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Other difficulties—and hard ones to solve—are set forth in the following sophistical arguments—

(1) *If a weak incontinent man is only stupid and ignorant enough, he is a virtuous character, for his opinions are wrong and he has not strength of will to act on them, but incontinently does what is right.*

(2) *The man who pursues pleasure deliberately, convinced that it is right to do so, is a better character than the man who does so from incontinence, and not because he is convinced that it is right. The former may change his erroneous conviction for a true one—come to believe that it is wrong to make pleasure his end—and then he will be a reformed character; whereas the latter—the incontinent man—cannot change his conviction for a better: he already believes that his actions are wrong, but he nevertheless goes on performing them; he is as full of sound knowledge as a drowning man is of water; and it does him no good. His case is hopeless.*

Lastly, what is the strict sense of the term 'incontinent'?

These, then, are the difficulties; we must now try so to remove them as to leave the truth bare; for it is in the resolution of difficulties that discovery consists.

1145 b. 21. § 1.] This § introduces the discussion of the ἀπορίαι involved in the view ὁ μὲν ἀκρατῆς εἰδὼς ὅτι φαῦλα πρίττει διὰ πάθος κ.τ.λ. ch. 1. § 6. 1145 b. 12. Zell, Fritzsche, and Grant quote Plato, *Protag.* 352 B, a passage which the present writer evidently had in his mind—δοκεῖ δὲ τοῖς πολλοῖς περὶ ἐπιστήμης τοιοῦτόν τι· οὐκ ἰσχυρόν οὐδ' ἡγεμονικόν οὐδ' ἀρχικόν εἶναι, οὐδὲ ὡς περὶ τοιούτου αὐτοῦ ὄντος διανοοῦνται, ἀλλ', ἐνούσης πολλάκις ἀνθρώπῳ ἐπιστήμης, οὐ τὴν ἐπιστήμην αὐτοῦ ἀρχεῖν, ἀλλ' ἄλλο τι, τοτὲ μὲν θυμόν, τοτὲ δὲ ἡδονήν, τοτὲ δὲ λύπην, ἐπίσπε δὲ ἔρωτα, πολλάκις δὲ φόβον, ἀτεχνῶς διανοούμενοι περὶ τῆς ἐπιστήμης, ὥσπερ περὶ ἀνδραπόδου, περιελκομένης ὑπὸ τῶν ἄλλων ἀπάντων.

πῶς ὑπολαμβάνων ὀρθῶς ἀκρατεύεταιί τις] 'how it is possible to have an ὀρθὴ ὑπόληψις and yet act incontinently,' or 'what is meant by the ὀρθὴ ὑπόληψις of the ἀκρατῆς.' Ὑπόληψις is the generic term, including both ἐπιστήμη and δόξα (see note on vi. 3. 1 b. 17). Hence the writer goes on—ἐπιστάμενον μὲν οὖν κ.τ.λ. and (§ 4) ἀλλὰ μὴν εἶγε δόξα κ.τ.λ.

b. 24. αὐτήν] This is the reading of K^b and NC accepted by Kassow, Susemihl, and Bywater, instead of αὐτόν given by Bekker and Ramsauer. Kassow advocates αὐτήν as follows (*Forsch.* p. 63)—'Für αὐτόν giebt K αὐτήν. Diese Lesart verdient den Vorzug, theils wegen der platonischen Stelle, die Aristoteles im Sinne hat, *Protag.* p. 352 B (i. e. διανοούμενοι περὶ τῆς ἐπιστήμης, ὥσπερ περὶ ἀνδραπόδου, περιελκομένης), theils weil es am Schluss des vierten Capitels (vii. 3. 14) heist: οὐ γὰρ τῆς κυρίως ἐπιστήμης εἶναι δοκούσης

παρούσης γίνεται τὸ πάθος, οὐδ' αὐτὴ περιίλκεται διὰ τὸ πάθος, ἀλλὰ τῆς αἰσθητικῆς.' Ramsauer, reading αὐτόν, explains—'quem scientia liberum et quasi dominum reddidit.' I think that this is a very strong defence of αὐτόν: cf. Xen. Mem. i. 5. § 3 ἀλλὰ μὴν εἴ γε μηδὲ δούλον ἀκρατῆ δεξαίμεθ' ἄν, πῶς οὐκ ἄξιον αὐτόν γε φυλάξασθαι τοιοῦτον γενέσθαι.

Σωκράτης μὲν γὰρ ὄλως . . . ἀλλὰ δι' ἄγνοιαν] 'Socrates indeed b. 25. was entirely opposed to the view (sc. that a man may know the right and do the wrong), maintaining that there is no such thing as incontinence (sc. defined as—knowing the right and doing the wrong).' See Xen. Mem. iii. 9. §§ 4 and 5 Σοφίαν δὲ καὶ σωφροσύνην οὐ διώριζεν, ἀλλὰ τὸν τὰ μὲν καλά τε καὶ ἀγαθὰ γινώσκοντα χρῆσθαι αὐτοῖς, καὶ τὸν τὰ αἰσχρὰ εἰδότα εὐλαβεῖσθαι, σοφὸν τε καὶ σώφρονα ἔκρινε. Προσερωτώμενος δέ, εἰ τοὺς ἐπισταμένους μὲν, ἃ δεῖ πράττειν, ποιοῦντας δὲ τὰναντία, σοφοὺς τε καὶ ἐγκρατεῖς εἶναι νομίζοι; Οὐδέν γε μᾶλλον, ἔφη, ἢ ἀσοφοὺς τε καὶ ἀκρατεῖς. πάντας γὰρ οἶμαι προαιρουμένους ἐκ τῶν ἐνδεχομένων, ἃ ἂν οἴωνται συμφερότατα αὐτοῖς εἶναι, ταῦτα πράττειν. νομίζω οὖν τοὺς μὴ ὀρθῶς πράττοντας, οὔτε σοφοὺς οὔτε σώφρονας εἶναι. Ἔφη δὲ καὶ τὴν δικαιοσύνην καὶ τὴν ἄλλην πᾶσαν ἀρετὴν σοφίαν εἶναι. τά τε γὰρ δίκαια καὶ πάντα, ὅσα ἀρετῇ πράττεται, καλά τε καὶ ἀγαθὰ εἶναι· καὶ οὐτ' ἂν τοὺς ταῦτα εἰδότας ἄλλο ἀντὶ τούτων οὐδέν προελέσθαι, οὔτε τοὺς μὴ ἐπισταμένους δύνασθαι πράττειν, ἀλλὰ καί, ἐὰν ἐγχειρῶσιν, ἀμαρτάνειν. οὕτω καὶ τὰ καλά τε καὶ ἀγαθὰ τοὺς μὲν σοφοὺς πράττειν, τοὺς δὲ μὴ σοφοὺς οὐ δύνασθαι, ἀλλὰ καί, ἐὰν ἐγχειρῶσιν, ἀμαρτάνειν. ἐπεὶ οὖν τά τε δίκαια καὶ τὰ ἄλλα καλά τε καὶ ἀγαθὰ πάντα ἀρετῇ πράττεται, δῆλον εἶναι. ὅτι καὶ δικαιοσύνη καὶ ἡ ἄλλη πᾶσα ἀρετὴ σοφία ἐστί. Cf. Plato, Protag. 352 C ἄρ' οὖν καὶ σοι τοιοῦτόν τι περὶ αὐτῆς δοκεῖ, ἢ καλόν τε εἶναι ἢ ἐπιστήμη, καὶ οἶον ἄρχειν τοῦ ἀνθρώπου; καὶ ἐὰν περ γινώσκη τις τὰγαθὰ καὶ τὰ κακά, μὴ ἂν κρατηθῆναι ὑπὸ μηδενός, ὥστε ἄλλ' ἅττα πράττειν ἢ ἃ ἂν ἐπιστήμη κελεύοι, ἀλλ' ἱκανὴν εἶναι τὴν φρόνησιν βοηθεῖν τῷ ἀνθρώπῳ; καὶ δοκεῖ, ἔφη, ὥσπερ σὺ λέγεις, ὦ Σώκρατες, καὶ ἄμα, εἴπερ τῷ ἄλλῳ, αἰσχρὸν ἐστί καὶ ἐμοὶ σοφίαν καὶ ἐπιστήμην μὴ οὐχὶ πάντων κράτιστον φάναι εἶναι τῶν ἀνθρωπείων πραγμάτων. Καλῶς γε, ἔφην ἐγώ, σὺ λέγων καὶ ἀληθῆ. οἶσθα οὖν ὅτι οἱ πολλοὶ τῶν ἀνθρώπων ἐμοί τε καὶ σοὶ οὐ πείθονται, ἀλλὰ πολλοὺς φασὶ γινώσκοντας τὰ βέλτιστα οὐκ ἐθέλειν πράττειν, ἐξόν αὐτοῖς, ἀλλὰ ἄλλα πράττειν. Cf. M. M. ii. 6. 1200 b. 25 Σωκράτης μὲν οὖν ὁ πρεσβύτης¹ ἀνήρει ὄλως καὶ οὐκ ἔφη ἀκρασίαν εἶναι,

¹ Cf. E. E. i. 5. 1216 b. 2 and Fritzsche's note. Πρεσβύτης is a term of honour, and does not distinguish a senior from a junior Socrates.

1145 b. 25. λέγων ὅτι οὐθείς εἰδώς τὰ κακὰ ὅτι κακὰ εἰσιν ἔλοιτ' ἄν' ὁ δὲ ἀκρατῆς δοκεῖ, εἰδώς ὅτι φαῦλα εἰσίν, αἰρεῖσθαι ὁμως, ἀγόμενος ὑπὸ τοῦ πάθους. διὰ δὲ τὸν τοιοῦτον λόγον οὐκ ᾔετ' εἶναι ἀκρασίαν· οὐ δὲ ὀρθῶς. ἄτοπον γὰρ τῷ λόγῳ τούτῳ πεισθέντας ἀναιρεῖν τὸ πιθανῶς γινόμενον· ἀκρατεῖς γὰρ εἰσὶν ἄνθρωποι, καὶ αὐτοὶ εἰδότες ὅτι φαῦλα ὁμως ταῦτα πράττουσιν.

b. 26. ὑπολαμβάνοντα] Spengel (*Arist. Studien* p. 45) would insert ὀρθῶς before ὑπολαμβάνοντα. Rassow. (*Forsch.* p. 126) thinks that there is nothing to prevent ὑπολαμβάνων standing alone, as εἰδώς so often does. I agree with Rassow.

b. 27. § 2. οὗτος μὲν οὖν ὁ λόγος κ.τ.λ.] The view of Socrates (οὗτος ὁ λόγος) conflicts with τὰ ἔνδοξα, but, as Socrates is a great man, we must treat his θέσις, ὡς παράδοξον, respectfully, and enquire how the ἄγνοια, by which he explains away ἀκρασία, 'comes on' (γίνεται b. 29—see Grant *ad loc.*). It is evidently not a chronic state of ignorance, but an ignorance which 'comes on' like sleep or drunkenness (see *E. N.* vii. 3. 7), for the ἀκρατῆς is not 'ignorant' before he is tempted.

b. 28. καὶ δεόν ζητεῖν περὶ τὸ πάθος, εἰ δι' ἄγνοιαν, τίς ὁ τρόπος γίνεται τῆς ἀγνοίας] Bywater suggests in his note *ad loc.* (*cf. Contributions* p. 53) that perhaps γίνεται should be inserted after δεόν, and omitted after τρόπος. There seems to be some doubt about the use of δεόν (*i. e.* δεόν ἐστί, as distinguished from δεόν the acc. abs., which is common) = δεῖ: see *Index Arist.* s. v. δεῖν: in *E. N.* ii. 7. 1. 1107 a. 32—περὶ γὰρ τὰ καθ' ἕκαστα αἱ πράξεις, δεόν δ' ἐπὶ τούτων συμφωνεῖν. ληπτέον οὖν ταῦτα ἐκ τῆς διαγραφῆς.—K^b omits οὖν. If the doubt is sufficient to recommend a change of the text here (*vii. 2. 2. 1145 b. 28*), I think that it would be simpler to read δεῖν ἄν for δεόν, than to suppose that γίνεται has been displaced.

b. 30. οὐκ οἶεται γε] After γε NC and Ald. insert δεῖν πράττειν ἢ πράττει. These words must, at any rate, be understood: *cf. E. N.* vii. 9. 6 ἀμφότεροι δὲ τὰ σωματικὰ ἡδέα διώκουσιν, ἀλλ' ὁ μὲν καὶ οἰόμενος δεῖν, ὁ δ' οὐκ οἰόμενος: *E. E.* ii. 7. 1223 b. 8 τὸ γὰρ παρ' ὁ οἶεται βέλτιστον εἶναι πράττειν δι' ἐπιθυμίαν ἀκρατεῦσθαι ἐστίν: *E. N.* v. 9. 6 βούλεται οὐθείς ὁ μὴ οἶεται εἶναι σπουδαῖον, ὃ τε ἀκρατῆς οὐχ ἢ οἶεται δεῖν πράττειν πράττει.

b. 33. § 3. τὸ δὲ μηθένα πράττειν παρὰ τὸ δόξαν βέλτιον οὐχ ὁμολογοῦσιν] Their argument falls back on the 'uncertainty of δόξα'—a commonplace of Greek philosophy. They argue that, because δόξα is not

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1146 a. 4. *ἰσχυρότερον φρονήσεως*. It is to be remarked, however, that, for those who take their stand on the Socratic *οὐδὲν ἰσχυρότερον φρονήσεως*, the position *φρονήσεως ἀντιτείνουσης* is really identical with the position *ἐπιστήμης ἐνούσης* (§ 1). Those who take their stand on the Socratic *οὐδὲν ἰσχυρότερον φρονήσεως* evidently do not distinguish between *ἐπιστήμη* and *φρόνησις*. Aristotle and his school, however, distinguish between them; and the reasoning by which the present writer refutes the position *φρονήσεως ἄρα ἀντιτείνουσης* involves the special connotation which he attaches to *φρόνησις* as something different from *ἐπιστήμη*. The words *αὕτη γὰρ ἰσχυρότατον* (§ 5), therefore, representing as they do the *extreme Socratic* position, are somewhat startling, as put in the mouths of persons who depart from that position (*τὰ μὲν συγχωροῦσι τὰ δ' οὐ* § 3), and try to explain *ἀκρασία* by distinguishing *φρόνησις* from *ἐπιστήμη*, and that too in a list which corresponds exactly with the Aristotelian division of *τὸ νοεῖν*, *οἱ ὑπόληψις*, into *ἐπιστήμη*, *δόξα*, *φρόνησις*, as given in *de An.* iii. 3. 427 b. 9 *τὸ νοεῖν ἐν ᾧ ἐστὶ τὸ ὀρθῶς καὶ τὸ μὴ ὀρθῶς τὸ μὲν γὰρ ὀρθῶς φρόνησις καὶ ἐπιστήμη καὶ δόξα ἀληθῆς τὸ δὲ μὴ ὀρθῶς τὰναντία τούτων*: and 427 b. 24 *εἰσὶ δὲ καὶ αὐτῆς τῆς ὑπολήψεως (cf. the πῶς ὑπολαμβάνων ὀρθῶς of E. N. vii. 2. 1) διαφοραὶ ἐπιστήμη καὶ δόξα καὶ φρόνησις καὶ τὰ ἐναντία τούτων*. The Paraphrast sees that the writer is conducting his opponents through a formal list: he says *ἐπεὶ δὲ οὔτε δόξα ἐστὶν ἢ γνώσις τοῦ ἀκρατοῦς οὔτε ἐπιστήμη, δοκεῖ φρόνησις εἶναι αὕτη γὰρ λείπεται, καὶ ἐστὶν ἰσχυρὰ γνώσις*.

a. 5. *ἀλλ' ἄτοπον ἔσται γὰρ ὁ αὐτὸς ἄμα φρόνιμος καὶ ἀκρατής*] After all, the position which the writer takes up here—that the *φρόνιμος* cannot be *ἀκρατής*—does not differ essentially from that of Socrates—*οὐθὲνα ὑπολαμβάνοντα πράττειν παρὰ τὸ βέλτιστον, ἀλλὰ δι' ἀγνοίας*—for *φρόνησις* is an *ἀληθῆς ὑπόληψις* (*E. N.* vi. 9. 7) involving the possession (and exercise) of all the virtues—*ἄμα γὰρ τῇ φρονήσει μὴ ὑπαρχούσῃ πᾶσαι ὑπάρξουσιν αἱ ἀρεταί*. The *ἀλλὰ δι' ἀγνοίας* of the Socratic position means that the *ἀληθῆς ὑπόληψις*, which Aristotle equally with Socrates regarded as incompatible with *ἀκρασία*, is absent.

a. 8. *πρότερον*] *i. e.* *E. N.* vi. 7. 7 (*πρακτικός* = 'one who tends to perform good actions')—vi. 8. 8 (*τῶν ἐσχάτων τις* = 'one concerned with particulars')—vi. 13. 6 (*τὰς ἄλλας ἔχων ἀρεταίς* = 'one who has all the virtues'). Rassow (*Forsch.* p. 127) points out that the words *καὶ τὰς ἄλλας ἔχων ἀρεταίς* do not belong to the causal clause

τῶν γὰρ ἐσχάτων τις, which he accordingly (followed by Susemihl 1146 a. 8. and Bywater) makes parenthetical. It is inserted to explain πρακτικός: cf. *E. N.* vi. 8. 8 τοῦ γὰρ ἐσχάτου ἐστίν, ὥσπερ εἴρηται· τὸ γὰρ πρακτὸν τοιοῦτον.

Perhaps we ought to read ἐστὶ for τις 1146 a. 9.

§ 6. οὐκ ἔσται ὁ σώφρων ἐγκρατῆς οὐδ' ὁ ἐγκρατῆς σώφρων] Cf. a. 10. *E. N.* vii. 1. 6 καὶ τὸν σώφρονα μὲν ἐγκρατῆ καὶ καρτερικόν, τὸν δὲ τοιοῦτον οἱ μὲν πάντα σώφρονα οἱ δ' οὔ.

τὸ ἄγαν] The Ald. Schol. seems to have read τὸ ἄγεσθαι. His a. 12. version is—ὁ γὰρ σώφρων οὐδ' ὄλως ἔχει αἰσχροὺς ἡδονὰς ἐπιηράζουσας αὐτόν, ἀλλὰ τοῦ λόγου προστάσσοντος δεῖν ἀπέχεσθαι τῶν αἰσchrῶν ἡδονῶν, εὐθύς ἔχει τὴν ἐπιθυμίαν ἐπακολουθοῦσαν αὐτῷ, καὶ μένει ἡρεμῶν· οὐ γὰρ τοῦ σώφρονος ἐστὶ τὸ ἄγεσθαι, ἢ τὸ πολεμῆσθαι ὑπὸ αἰσchrῶν ἡδονῶν καὶ ἰσχυρῶν. The Paraphrast Heliodorus may also have read ἄγεσθαι: he says—εἰ δὴ ὁ σώφρων ἔσται ἐγκρατῆς ἔξει φαύλας ἐπιθυμίας καὶ ἰσχυράς· ὅπερ ἐναντίον ἐστὶ τῷ λόγῳ τῆς σωφροσύνης· ἐν γὰρ τῷ ἔπεσθαι τὰς ἐπιθυμίας τῷ λόγῳ ἢ σωφροσύνη οὐ συνίσταται. Cf. *E. N.* vii. 9. 6 ὁ δὲ γὰρ ἐγκρατῆς οἷος μηδὲν παρὰ τὸν λόγον διὰ τὰς σωματικὰς ἡδονὰς ποιεῖν καὶ ὁ σώφρων, ἀλλ' ὁ μὲν ἔχων ὁ δ' οὐκ ἔχων φαύλας ἐπιθυμίας, καὶ ὁ μὲν τοιοῦτος οἷος μὴ ἡδεσθαι παρὰ τὸν λόγον, ὁ δ' οἷος ἡδεσθαι ἀλλὰ μὴ ἄγεσθαι. The blunder of the Ald. Schol. may perhaps be due to a confused recollection of this use of τὸ ἄγεσθαι. ἄγαν is certainly right here, although this is the only place in the Aristotelian corpus given by the *Index Arist.* for its use, with the article, as a substantive.

ἀλλὰ μὴν δεῖ γε] i.e. the ἐγκρατῆς must have strong and evil desires: cf. *M. M.* ii. 6. 1201 a. 12 εἰ μὲν οὖν ἔσται ἐγκρατῆς, σφοδρὰς δεήσει ἔχειν αὐτὸν ἐπιθυμίας. The ἐγκρατῆς differs from the σώφρων in having strong and evil desires—in being strongly tempted by τὰ μὴ φύσει ἡδέια: and that the desires of the ἐγκρατῆς must necessarily (ἀλλὰ μὴν δεῖ γε) be strong and evil is plain; for otherwise it would follow that ἐγκράτεια is not always the good and admirable quality which it is supposed to be.

§ 7.] This ἀπορία is solved at the beginning of chap. 9, where it a. 16. is pointed out that it is not 'any opinion'—πᾶσα δόξα—which the ἐγκρατῆς sticks to and the ἀκρατῆς abandons, but 'the true opinion'—ἡ ὀρθὴ δόξα.

The Paraphrast Heliodorus, following the order in which the λεγόμενα are enumerated in *E. N.* vii. 1. §§ 6 and 7, gives his version

1146 a. 16. of vii. 2. §§ 7–10 ἀλλὰ πράττει 1146 b. 1 (answering to vii. 1. 6 καὶ ὁ αὐτὸς ἐγκρατής . . . ἐκστατικὸς τοῦ λογισμοῦ) first, then proceeds to give his version of vii. 2. §§ 1–6, and ends with vii. 2. 11 ἔτι εἰ περὶ πάντα . . . ἀπλῶς.

a. 19. Νεοπτόλεμος] See Soph. *Philoct.*, especially 54–122, where Odysseus persuades Neoptolemus to deceive Philoctetes, and 895–916, where Neoptolemus tells Philoctetes the truth. Cf. *E. N.* vii. 9. 4.

a. 21. § 8. ἔτι ὁ σοφιστικὸς λόγος [ψευδόμενος] ἀπορία] ψευδόμενος has given much trouble to the commentators. I agree, however, with Rassow (*Forsch.* p. 127) and others that it is merely a dittograph of ψευδόμενος in the line above, and ought to be expunged from the text. There are insuperable objections to supposing, with Fritzsche, a reference to the logical fallacy, ὁ ψευδόμενος, *mentiens*, associated with the name of Eubulides the Megarian, the formula of which is given by Aul. Gell. xviii. 2 Cum mentior et me mentiri dico, mentior an verum dico?¹ As Kassow remarks (p. 127), the article is indispensable before ψευδόμενος if the *mentiens* is to be understood; also, instead of συμβαίνει ἔκ τινος λόγου § 9. 1146 a. 27, we should require ἔκ τούτου τοῦ λόγου: and lastly, the argument which proves that ἡ ἀφροσύνη μετὰ ἀκρασίας ἀρετή is *not* the *mentiens*.

If retained, ψευδόμενος must be taken, as by Zell, to be a predicate qualifying ὁ σοφιστικὸς λόγος—‘Again, there is the sophistical argument which causes difficulty by conducting people to a false conclusion’; and Grant’s very ingenious comparison with *Soph. El.* 3. 165 b. 12 may be accepted—‘Supposing,’ says Grant, ‘that ψευδόμενος be allowed to stand, we must interpret it in a logical sense, not as if it had anything to do with the fallacy of Eubulides. The explanation of it is to be found in the *Soph. Elench.* of Aristotle iii. 1–2, where it is said that the aims of the Sophists and Eristics are five in number, ἔλεγχος καὶ ψεῦδος καὶ παράδοξον καὶ σολοικισμὸς (making one talk bad grammar) καὶ πέμπτον τὸ ποιῆσαι ὑδαλεσχῆσαι (making one repeat the same thing over and over) . . . μάλιστα γὰρ προαιροῦνται φαίνεσθαι ἐλέγχοντες, δεύτερον δὲ ψευδόμενόν τι δεικνύναι, τρίτην εἰς παράδοξον ἄγειν κ.τ.λ. In the above passage we see that the writer has brought together two of these separate terms, speaking of παράδοξον ἐλέγχειν. It is possible that he may also have

¹ For this fallacy see also Ritter and Preller, *Hist. Phil.* § 233 Eubulides, and Ueberweg’s *Logic*, Engl. Trans. pp. 244–247.

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1146 a. 31. ολόμενος δειν, ὃ δ' οὐκ οίόμενος. Hence Kassow, Ramsauer, Susemihl, and Bywater, following K^b, M^b, Γ, omit μή (read by Bekker) before ἐπέπειστο 1146 b. 1, the meaning being—'if the ἀκρατής acted διὰ τὸ πεπεῖσθαι οἱ κατὰ προπίρεσιν, instead of acting, as he does, παρὰ προπίρεσιν οἱ οὐκ οίόμενος δειν, then τὸ μεταπεισθῆναι would be possible in his case.' The omission of μή before ἐπέπειστο, however, necessitates the insertion of οὐ (or ἄλλα Ramsauer and Bywater) before πεπεισμένος 1146 b. 2, against all MS. authority, except that followed by the Vet. Interp. (Γ), which gives *nunc autem non suasus*. See Kassow (*Forsch.* p. 64)—'Es scheint mir keinem Zweifel zu unterliegen, dass mit den besseren Handschriften dieses Buches (MK), die Negation μή vor ἐπέπειστο zu streichen ist. Freilich ist es dann nöthig, in den folgenden Worten mit Lambin. νῦν δ' οὐ πεπεισμένος zu schreiben. . . . Die alte Uebersetzung hat die Negation an erster Stelle nicht, wohl aber an zweiter: si quidem enim persuasus esset qui agit, dissuasus utique quiesceret; nunc autem non suasus nihil minus talia agit.' The difficulties which the omission of μή and the insertion of οὐ remove are (1) that of having to apply the term πεπεισμένος to the ἀκρατής, in opposition to the usage of vii attested by such passages as ch. 8. § 4 quoted above: and (2) that of having to understand ἐπέπειστο and πεπεισμένος to imply a right conviction, whereas πεπεῖσθαι at the beginning of the § must be understood to imply a wrong conviction. Ramsauer's conjecture (adopted by Bywater) νῦν δὲ ἄλλα πεπεισμένος οὐδὲν ἤττον ἄλλα πράττει (Byw. brackets ἄλλα before πράττει) seems to me to labour under the objection that it does not remove difficulty (1): it still applies to the ἀκρατής the epithet πεπεισμένος, which seems in this Book to be retained in a technical sense for the ἀκύλαστος alone. But the 'nunc autem non suasus nihil minus talia agit' of the Vet. Interp. suggests a reading which, I think, meets the requirements of the case. The Vet. Interp. had doubtless before him νῦν δὲ οὐ πεπεισμένος οὐδὲν ἤττον τοιαῦτα πράττει. For τοιαῦτα read τὰ αὐτά, and retain οὐ before πεπεισμένος: the meaning being that the ἀκρατής, without τὸ πεπεῖσθαι, commits *the same acts* as the ἀκύλαστος does with τὸ πεπεῖσθαι: cf. *E. N.* vii. 8. 3 οὐ μὴν ἄλλ' ὁμοίων γε κατὰ τὰς πράξεις κ.τ.λ. It seems to be impossible to decide whether the writer of the *M. M.* had the text as given by Bekker (*i. e.* μή before ἐπέπειστο, and no negative before πεπεισμένος) or as rendered by the Vet. Interp.: see *M. M.* ii. 6. 1203 a. 6 πότερος δὲ εὐιατότερος, ὁ ἀκύλαστος ἢ ὁ ἀκρατής; οὕτω μὲν οὖν δόξειεν ἂν ἴσως οὐχ ὁ ἀκρατής· ὁ γὰρ

ἀκόλαστος εἰατότερος· εἰ γὰρ αὐτῷ λόγος ἐγγένοιτο ὁ διδάξων ὅτι φαῦλα, 1146 a. 31. οὐκέτι πράξει· τῷ δέ γε ἀκρατεῖ ὑπάρχει ὁ λόγος, καὶ ὁμοῦς πράττει, ὥστε ἂν ὁ τοιοῦτος δόξειεν ἀνίατος εἶναι¹.

As regards the proverb—ὅταν τὸ ὕδωρ πνίγη, τί δεῖ ἐπιπίνειν;—the ἀκόλαστος, it is argued, acts from a wrong conviction, which he may exchange for a right one, and so become a reformed character: but the ἀκρατής does not act from conviction, but from passion. It is true that he has a right opinion, but it is not capable of influencing his conduct: his case is therefore hopeless: the proverb applies to him—‘when water sticks in a man’s throat, what can he drink to wash it down?’ The true opinion of the ἀκρατής is ineffectual; and no truer and more effectual one can be found. This represents the interpretation of the proverb given by the Ald. Schol., Stahr, Grant, Peters, and others. Kassow, however (*Forsch.* p. 65), interprets differently. ‘Das tertium comparationis,’ he says, ‘ist die Fülle. An richtiger Erkenntniss (und diese ist es doch die mit dem Wasser verglichen wird) fehltes dem Zügellosen nicht, er hat davon die Hülle und Fülle, man braucht sie ihm nicht erst beizubringen.’ If we accept this interpretation, we may perhaps render the proverb—‘A drowning man doesn’t need more water to drink.’ The Paraphrast’s explanation leaves the sense in which he understood the proverb doubtful—Ὅτι δὲ ὁ δυνάμενος ἐκστῆναι τῆς δόξης βελτίων τοῦ μὴ δυναμένου, δῆλον· ὁ γὰρ τῷ ἠπατησθαι τὰ φαῦλα διώκων, ὅτι νομίζει ἀγαθὰ εἶναι, βελτίων ἐστὶ τοῦ εἰδότος ὅτι φαῦλα, καὶ διώκοντος· ὁ μὲν γὰρ ἠπατημένος μεταπεισθεὶς δύναται ἀγαθὸς γενέσθαι, ὁ δὲ δι’ ἰκρασίαν διώκων, καὶ εἰδὼς ὅτι φαῦλα, οὐ δύναται ἐκστῆναι τῶν κακῶν· πῶς γὰρ ἂν ἐκσταίη, ἐπεὶ οὐ δύναται μεταπεισθῆναι; ὁ γὰρ εἶδει γινώσκειν, οἶδε, καὶ εἰδὼς ἀκρατεύεται, καὶ ἐνοχός ἐστι τῇ παρομιᾷ,

Ὅταν τὸ ὕδωρ πνίγη, τί δεῖ ἐπιπίνειν;

As regards the general significance of the §, and its connexion with what precedes—It is another σοφιστικὸς λόγος, starting, like that given in § 9, from the assumption—πάσης δόξης ἢ ἀκρασία ἐκστατικόν. In § 9 it was proved paradoxically that, if the ἀκρατής be ἀφρων, and his δόξαι false, his actions will be good: in § 10 it is proved paradoxically that, if he have true δόξαι, he is in a hopeless state—he has the best possible δόξαι, but he is too weak to act up to them: whereas the ἀκόλαστος, who is not ἐκστατικὸς τῆς δόξης, may, if sup-

¹ Bywater (*Contrib.* p. 54) thinks that the καὶ ὁμοῦς πράττει of the above passage is an echo of οὐδὲν ἤττον πράττει, without the ἄλλα of our MSS.

1140 a. 31. plied with true δόξαι, act on them as steadfastly as he now acts on his false δόξαι. The paradox thus established by means of the inappropriate use of the idea μεταπεισθῆναι in the context is left here by the writer unrefuted, as an example of those difficulties by grappling with which ethical theory advances. His answer to it is deferred to *E. N.* vii. 8. 1: but it may be useful just now to point out the solution naturally suggested by the terms to which the difficulty has been reduced.

The point which decides us in favour of the ἀκρατής against the ἀκόλαστος is that the *end* which the former ignores in his acts is good, whereas that which the latter acts up to is bad. The argument insists on the point that the ἀκόλαστος follows the recommendations of his λόγος, while the ἀκρατής does not. But we ask, *Why* does the ἀκόλαστος follow the recommendations of his λόγος? and the answer is—*because it recommends that which is bad*. This the sophistical argument in *E. N.* vii. 2. 10 keeps in the background, proceeding to infer that, as the ἀκόλαστος follows reason when it recommends the bad, he would follow it with the same steadfastness if it could be made to recommend the good. But the truth is that we have not to do here with the reason or understanding, but with the moral character and habits. A false issue is raised by assuming that the ἀκόλαστος will yield to arguments addressed to his understanding; and when it is argued that it is useless to try to reform the ἀκρατής, because he already knows what is right, the possibility of strengthening his moral nature is ignored. But this is really the important point. What is represented as ‘false opinion,’ or ‘wrong conviction,’ in the ἀκόλαστος, is really an inveterate moral blindness and depravity brought on by the repeated neglect of that ‘true opinion,’ the possession of which is represented as putting the ἀκρατής in such a hopeless position. The ἀκόλαστος was once ἀκρατής. His so-called ‘false opinion’ or ‘wrong conviction’ is merely an intensified form of the weakness of the ἀκρατής. The fallacy of the argument lies in its transformation of moral depravity into intellectual error. The intellectual error so-called of the ἀκόλαστος is contrasted with the weakness of the ἀκρατής: intellectual error, it is argued, may be corrected, but weakness such as that of the ἀκρατής cannot be cured. The truth, however, is that the so-called intellectual error of the ἀκόλαστος, being really inveterate weakness or utter depravity, is incurable, whereas the not yet inveterate weakness of the ἀκρατής may be cured:

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1146 b. 6. εὔρεσις ἐστίν, because an aporia consists of opposing opinions whose opposition must be somehow overcome: the author of *E. E.* vii. 2. 1 accordingly wrote the passage συμβαίνει κ.τ.λ. to explain it—"The opposition (ἐναντιώσεις) must be allowed to stand (μένειν), if what is said is true in one sense and not in another." I think that Cook Wilson's rendering—"the opposition *must be allowed to stand*"—of the words συμβαίνει δὲ μένειν τὰς ἐναντιώσεις places his view of their origin as an explanation of τὰ δὲ καταλείπειν in *E. N.* vii. 2. 12 in rather too favourable a light. I take the words συμβαίνει δὲ μένειν τὰς ἐναντιώσεις, *E. E.* 1235 b. 17, to mean—"if the thing said be true in one sense, and not in another, *the result is* (συμβαίνει) that the opposition of opinion remains unresolved": *i. e.* one reason why the opinions opposed in an ἀπορία remain opposed—why, in short, an ἀπορία is not resolved—is that the subject about which the opposite opinions are held has really two sides (from one point of view it is true to say this about it, and from another point of view that, as *e. g.* about τὸ φιλούμενον), but we have not yet succeeded in *showing* that it has two sides—in showing that the two opposite views about it are both *reasonably* held (εὐλόγως δοκούντα *E. E.* 1235 b. 15)—that they do not really contradict each other: the whole passage (*E. E.* 1235 b. 13 sqq.) is—ληπτέος δὴ τρόπος ὅστις ἡμῖν ἄμα τὰ τε δοκούντα περὶ τούτων μάλιστα ἀποδώσει, καὶ τὰς ἀπορίας λύσει καὶ τὰς ἐναντιώσεις. τοῦτο δ' ἐστίν, εἰ εὐλόγως φαίνεται τὰ ἐναντία δοκούντα μάλιστα γὰρ ὁμολογούμενος ὁ τοιοῦτος ἐστίν λόγος τοῖς φαινομένοις. συμβαίνει δὲ μένειν τὰς ἐναντιώσεις, εἰ εἶστι μὲν ὡς ἀληθὲς ἢ τὸ λεγόμενον, ἐστίν δ' ὡς οὐ. It will be observed that I attach importance to the antithesis marked by φαίνεται—ἢ. It would be true to say—συμβαίνει δὲ λύεσθαι τὰς ἐναντιώσεις, εἰ εἶστι μὲν ὡς ἀληθὲς φαίνεται τὸ λεγόμενον, ἐστίν δ' ὡς οὐ. The ἀπορία is resolved, when the reasonableness of a difference of opinion has been shown.

As I said in my note on vii. 1. 5. 1145 b. 6, I understand the words before us, τούτων δὲ τὰ μὲν ἀνελεῖν δεῖ τὰ δὲ καταλείπειν, to mean that these questions must be dealt with on the method of removing difficulties, and *so* leaving the truth (embodied in the ἐνδοξα) plain. The words before us are, in fact, equivalent to the εἰ γὰρ λύηται τε τὰ δυσχερῆ καὶ καταλείπηται τὰ ἐνδοξα of *E. N.* vii. 1. 5, and, thus understood, correspond exactly to the ληπτέος δὴ τρόπος ὅστις ἡμῖν ἄμα τὰ τε δοκούντα περὶ τούτων μάλιστα ἀποδώσει (= τὰ δὲ καταλείπειν) καὶ τὰς ἀπορίας λύσει καὶ τὰς ἐναντιώσεις (= τὰ δὲ ἀνελεῖν) of *E. E.* vii.

2. 1235 b. 13. It is perhaps worth adding that τούτων δὲ τὰ μὲν 1146 b. 6. ἀνελεῖν τὰ δὲ καταλιπεῖν does not mean that 'some of the ἀπορίαι must be done away with and some left,' but that 'some things in the ἀπορίαι must be done away with and some left'—i. e. the confusions, causing ἐναντίωσις, must be done away with, or cleared up, in such a way that, as they are cleared up (ἄμα *E. E.* 1235 b. 13), views, hitherto merely ἐναντία, are left no longer as merely ἐναντία, but as εὐλόγως δοκούντα.

CHAPTER III.

ARGUMENT.

We have to enquire—(1) Whether the incontinent man 'knows' or not, and if he 'knows,' in what sense it is that he 'knows.' (2) In relation to what things a man is to be described as 'continent' or 'incontinent'—i. e. whether in relation to any pleasure or pain, or only in relation to certain definite pleasures or pains. (3) Whether 'continence' is identical with 'endurance,' or is to be distinguished from it. These and cognate questions we have to answer.

[Our enquiry begins with the question (1) Whether it is a difference between their respective objects, or a difference between their attitudes to objects (with or without a difference in the objects) which distinguishes between the continent man and the incontinent man. Our next question (2) is whether continence and incontinence are concerned with any objects—i. e. with any pleasures or pains, or are limited (as they certainly are when strictly understood) to the pleasures and pains with which incorrigible profligacy, or intemperance, has to do—the difference between intemperance and incontinence strictly so called being in the attitude, not in the objects—i. e. intemperance pursuing the pleasure of the moment 'on principle,' incontinence pursuing it indeed, but not 'on principle.']

To begin, then, with the question about the 'knowledge' involved in incontinence—The substitution of 'true opinion' for 'knowledge' does not make it easier to explain the prevalence of passion in incontinence, for 'opinion' is often as hard to move as 'knowledge.'

The distinction between 'merely having knowledge' and 'having it and realising it,' is more likely than that between 'opinion' and 'knowledge' to help us. It surely need cause no surprise if a man acts against knowledge, which he has, but does not realise. Of the two premisses of the Practical Syllogism, the major—excess is evil—may be fully realised, quæ universal proposition, in consciousness, and the man may yet act incontinently, because he does not realise the minor—'this is a case of excess.'

And not only have we the difference between the major and the minor—the former realised by the incontinent man, the latter not realised—but in the major

itself we have to distinguish two sides—one relating to the agent and the other to things. The form of the major is, 'All agents who are such and such, ought to do such and such things.' To this two-sided major corresponds a two-sided minor—'I am such and such, and this thing is such and such.' The latter part of this minor a man is much more likely 'not to know,' or 'not to realise,' than the former part; but even this merely half ignorance of the minor is enough to account easily for incontinence, or acting against fully realised knowledge of the major as universal proposition¹.

So much for 'having knowledge,' and 'having it and realising it'; but there is a third kind of 'having'—'having which does not amount to having,' which may be considered in connexion with incontinence. It is in this third sense that a mad or drunken man 'has knowledge'; and the incontinent man, repeating moral phrases without 'knowing' what they mean, may be compared to a mad-man, or to a man who is drunk, or to an actor playing the part assigned to him.

Hitherto our explanation of incontinence has consisted in a general reference to 'non-realised knowledge.' Let us now try to find the immediate cause of incontinence—how it comes about that, in the peculiar condition of the incontinent man, knowledge is 'not realised.'

It is in the way that the machinery of the Practical Syllogism is worked by Desire that we shall find the immediate cause of an incontinent act. The major premiss, 'excess is evil,' which opposes itself to Desire is not allowed to reign without a rival. Desire sets up another major,—'sweet things are pleasant,' and is thus able to represent the incontinent act as a conclusion validly drawn from premisses. Desire marks its opposition to Moral Principle by putting forward a maxim—'sweet things are pleasant—which does not in itself (though it does in its consequences) conflict with 'excess is evil,' the maxim of Moral Principle.

As for the question—How the incontinent man, when the fit is over, recovers his knowledge, the explanation of this recovery will be the same as that given by the physiologists for 'recovery' from the unconsciousness of drunkenness or sleep.

We are now in a position to define our attitude to the view of Socrates. Socrates may be allowed to say—'knowledge cannot be overpowered by passion'—if by 'knowledge' be understood 'true knowledge'—'knowledge of the universal.' This, because it is universal, is not touched by passion. It is only 'the knowledge of the sense-particular'—and this after all is not 'knowledge'—which enters into conflict with passion, and may be conquered by it.

1146 b. 8. §§ 1, 2.] Rasso (Forsch. pp. 20, 21) points out that each of these sections contains a separate list of proposed enquiries. The list given in § 1 corresponds, in substance and in order, with the contents of the following chapters, whereas that given in § 2 mentions only one point actually discussed afterwards—viz. *ἡρώδης*

¹ 'Knowledge of the major, as universal proposition' must not be confounded with 'the application of this knowledge to particular cases.'

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1146 b. 8. The circumstance that the treatment of the Practical Syllogism is not continuous, but broken by §§ 7 and 8, is evidence of confusion in the structure of the chapter; but, as the considerations added in §§ 9, 10, and 11 are so well worth adding, we ought perhaps not to have much difficulty in supposing that the writer of §§ 5, 6, 7, and 8—doubtless with some sacrifice of symmetry—added them. On the other hand, it must be noted that the writer of the *M. M.* (ii. 6), in his version of this chapter, treats of the Practical Syllogism in one place, not in two places; but his treatment of it is so jejune and slight as to make it unlikely that, even if his authority had treated of it in two places, he would have followed his example.

Although I cannot accept, in anything like its fulness, Cook Wilson's theory of the structure of this chapter, I think that his view of its authorship (that it is probably not by Aristotle, not by Eudemus, not by the author of the principal parts of this Book) has much to say for itself; and the remarks which he makes in the course of paragraphs 59–61 in support of his view have also great value, independently of the immediate purpose to which he applies them, and I shall frequently have to refer to them in subsequent notes. According to Cook Wilson this chapter is probably not by Aristotle, not by Eudemus, not by the author of the principal parts of Book vii, because (1) these three writers describe the *ἀκρατής* as the subject of 'an active struggle between reason (*λόγος*, sometimes *προαίρεσις* = "rational will") and appetite (*ἐπιθυμία*), between the desire to do what is wrong and the conviction that it is wrong' (*Arist. Stud.* paragraph 60, p. 49); whereas this chapter, by applying the distinction of actual and potential knowledge to explain *ἀκρασία*, makes a mental struggle impossible, there being no actual knowledge for appetite to struggle with: and because (2) 'chapter 3 is an obvious concession to the Socratic principle, as the writer of the last section of it felt' (p. 50), whereas Aristotle, Eudemus, and the writer of the other parts of Book vii, are strongly opposed to that principle.

The following (among other) passages are quoted by Cook Wilson (paragraphs 59–61) to show that Aristotle, Eudemus, and the writer of the other parts of Book vii regard the struggle in the *ἀκρατής* as an active and conscious one—*E. N.* i. 13. 15, 16. 1102 b. 14–25; ix. 4. 8. 1166 b. 7–10; *de An.* iii. 9. 8. 433 a. 1–3; *de An.* iii. 10. 6. 433 b. 5–10; *E. E.* ii. 7 and 8. 1224 a. 30–36 and

1224 b. 19–23; *E. N.* vii. 2. 1–4. 1145 b. 21–1146 a. 4; *E. N.* vii. 1146 b. 8. 7. 8. 1150 b. 19–28.

§ 2.] Ramsauer, who thinks that this section is out of place here, b. 14. and may have been the opening of an Aristotelian discussion which has not come down to us, remarks that the words *οὐτε γὰρ περὶ ἀπαιτ'* κ.τ.λ. b. 19 'assume as settled what is elaborately established in subsequent chapters. Cook Wilson (*Arist. Studies*, paragraph 61) remarks that 'according to § 1 the first subject for consideration is that which follows . . . *πότερον εἰδότες ἢ οὐ, καὶ πῶς εἰδότες*: § 2 not only puts a different subject first, but omits this, at least in any distinct shape, from the list. Perhaps therefore § 2 belongs to an earlier version which contained nothing about potential knowledge possessed by the *ἀκρατής*. The writer of § 2 may merely, as against Socrates, have maintained or presupposed what is implied in chapter 2, that in *ἀκρασία* there is a strong and active consciousness of wrong-doing (*ισχυρὰ ὑπόληψις . . . ἀντιτείνουσα*), and have added that this conviction could be disobeyed, if not accompanied, as in *φρόνησις* (*cf.* ch. ii. § 5. 1146 a. 4 sqq.) by a strong desire to realise it, but opposed by *ἐπιθυμία*. He may have felt no more difficulty in this representation than the author of the passages quoted from the *de An.* and *Nic. Ethics* [see end of last note] seems to have done, and therefore not have dwelt on it further. . . . The above is somewhat countenanced by the conclusion of § 2. The first problem (*ἡ ἀρχὴ τῆς σκέψεως*) being, whether the *ἀκρατής* and *ἐγκρατής* are differenced by their objects or by their relation to them; the fact that the *ἀκρατής* knows he should not adopt the pleasant motive (*ὁ δ' οὐκ οἶεται μὲν διώκει δέ*) is assumed as subsidiary to the solution of the problem, without any hint that the fact itself is a principal difficulty awaiting settlement.'

Peters expresses his view of this section in an interesting note (p. 215), which I quote to show how plausibly the obscure phenomena here presented to criticism may be accounted for on still another hypothesis.—'This section (§ 2) seems to me not an alternative to § 1, but a correction of it, or rather a remark to the effect that the whole passage (both § 1 and the discussion introduced by it) ought to be rewritten, and an indication of the way in which this should be done. Of considerable portions of the *Nicomachean Ethics* we may safely say that the author could not have regarded them as finished in the form in which we have them. I believe

1146 b. 14. that the author made a rough draft of the whole work, or of the several parts of it, which he kept by him and worked upon,—working some parts up to completion; sometimes rewriting a passage without striking out the original version, or even indicating which was to be retained (*e.g.* the theory of pleasure); more frequently adding an afterthought which required the rewriting of a whole passage, without rewriting it (*e.g.*, to take one instance out of many in Book v, τὸ ἀντιπεπονθός is an afterthought which strictly requires that the whole book should be rewritten); sometimes (as here) making a note of the way in which a passage should be rewritten. Suppose, if need be, that the work, left in this incomplete state, was edited and perhaps further worked upon by a later hand, and we have enough, I think, to account for the facts.'

b. 10. δ ἀπλῶς ἀκρατής] The man strictly so called, or without further qualification—*i.e.* the man who is incontinent about certain bodily pleasures (see ch. 4), as distinguished from the man so called with an added qualification (μετὰ προσθήσεως)—ἀκρατής θυμοῦ, κέρδους, ὀφτημῆς. Viewed as ἀπλῶς ἀκρατής, a man is viewed as related to the same bodily pleasures as the ἀκόλαστος: but the relation is not the same in each case. The relation in which the ἀπλῶς ἀκρατής stands to these pleasures is not so *simple* as that in which the ἀκόλαστος stands to them: the ἀκόλαστος is conceived as 'simply related to them'—πρὸς ταῦτα ἀπλῶς ἔχει: but the ἀπλῶς ἀκρατής is conceived as 'related to them in a certain manner'—ὡδὲ ἔχει—in a certain manner which distinguishes him from the ἀκόλαστος: *i.e.* the ἀκόλαστος simply goes in for them: the ἀπλῶς ἀκρατής goes in for them—*after a struggle*.

b. 24. §§ 3, 4.] Imelmann (*Obs. Crit. in Arist. Eth. Nic.* p. 44). regarding §§ 3 and 4 as two independent versions, would strike out the words ἐπιστήμη δόξης in § 4, b. 29, on the ground that οὐθέν διαίσει immediately preceding is equivalent to the οὐδὲν διαφέρει πρὸς τὸν λόγον of § 3, b. 25. 'Quaestio est,' he says, 'utrum contra ipsam scientiam immodici peccent an contra opinionem: quam nihil facere ad rem Aristoteles indicat, quoniam opinionem interdum eadem pertinacia atque scientiam defendamus et obtineamus. Quem sententiarum nexum duo verba aperte perturbant. Etenim οὐθέν διαίσει ἐπιστήμη δόξης prorsus sunt aliena ab hoc loco, cum, si quidem αἱ δοξάζοντες facilius mollitiae indulgent, differre ἐπιστήμην δόξης

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1148 b. 30. ἔχειν λέγουσι τὸν ἀκρατῆ καὶ ἐπιστήμην τῷ αὐτῷ ἀτοπήματι ἐμπίπτουσι. See Diog. Laert. ix. 1. 5 quoted by Fritzsche and Grant—ἤκουσέ γε οὐδενὸς ἀλλ' αὐτὸν ἔφη διζήσασθαι καὶ μαθεῖν πάντα παρ' ἑαυτοῦ: and Did. ix. 1. 1, where he is described as μεγαλόφρων καὶ ὑπερόπτης: see also other passages collected by Bywater (*Heracl. Eph. Reliq.* p. 33) under fragm. LXXX. Peters (p. 216) supposes that the allusion in the words δηλοῖ δ' Ἡράκλειτος is a general one, to 'the Heraclitean doctrine, which Aristotle rather unfairly interprets as a denial of the most fundamental of all first principles—the law of contradiction. Cf. *Met.* iii. 7. 1012 a. 24.'

b. 31. §§ 5–11.] Kassow's view (with which I agree) of the relation of these §§ to one another is as follows (*Forsch.* pp. 127–129). Against the Socratic doctrine that there is no such thing as ἀκρασία, because no one *knowingly* does wrong, four considerations, coupled together by ἔτι, are brought forward—(a) Knowledge is not always actual. A man may *have* knowledge, without *using* it: § 5. (b) The reflection which precedes action may be reduced to the form of a syllogism, in which the general rule is the major, the particular case the minor premiss. Now, the knowledge of the major premiss may be consciously present, while that of the minor may remain latent; and so a man may do wrong, notwithstanding the fact that his ἀγνοία is only partial: § 6. (c) His passions may take such hold of a man that he may be said to *have* in a sense, and yet *not have*, the knowledge of right and wrong, his condition being like that of a madman, or of a man asleep or drunk: §§ 7, 8. The προπετής ἀκρασία, or προπέτεια of *E. N.* vii. 7. 8, is the form of ἀκρασία which the writer has in view in §§ 7 and 8. (d) The fourth consideration (presented in §§ 9, 10, 11) takes up the other kind of ἀκρασία distinguished in *E. N.* vii. 7. 8, viz. ἀσθένεια. The passions occasion ignorance or moral blindness, not directly, but by means of sophistical representations; they place, by the side of the major premiss which contains the rule of conduct, another major premiss which is not in itself false, but in the circumstances is irrelevant. Hence, in acting from this true, but irrelevant, major premiss, the ἀκρατής acts ὑπὸ λόγου πως καὶ δόξης. These, according to Kassow, are the four separate considerations urged in this chapter against the view of Socrates.

§ 5.] 'The distinction between the possession and the application of knowledge' is made, as the editors note, by Plato, *Theaet.* 197,

198 οὐκοῦν ἡμεῖς ἀπεικάζοντες τῇ τῶν περιστερῶν κτήσει τε καὶ θήρα ἐροῦμεν 1146 b. 31. ὅτι διττὴ ἦν ἡ θήρα, ἡ μὲν πρῶν ἐκτῆσθαι τοῦ κεκτῆσθαι ἔνεκα, ἡ δὲ κεκτημένην τοῦ λαβεῖν, καὶ ἔχειν ἐν ταῖς χερσὶν ἃ πάλαι ἐκίκτητο.

διοίσει τὸ ἔχοντα μὲν μὴ θεωροῦντα δὲ καὶ τὸ θεωροῦντα ἃ μὴ δεῖ b. 33. πράττειν [τοῦ ἔχοντα καὶ θεωροῦντα]] So Bywater. Bekker and Susemihl read διοίσει τὸ ἔχοντα μὲν μὴ θεωροῦντα δὲ ἃ μὴ δεῖ πράττειν τοῦ ἔχοντα καὶ θεωροῦντα, which expresses the sense intended more neatly. The words καὶ τὸ θεωροῦντα are given by all authorities, apparently, except M^b and Γ. On the other hand, all authorities seem to give the words bracketed by Bywater—τοῦ ἔχοντα καὶ θεωροῦντα. Of course we cannot retain both the words omitted by M^b and Γ, and those bracketed by Bywater.

For the antithesis ἔχοντα μὲν μὴ θεωροῦντα δὲ see *de An.* ii. 1. 412 a. 22 αὕτη δὲ (i. e. σώματος ἐντελέχεια) λέγεται διχῶς, ἡ μὲν ὡς ἐπιστήμη, ἡ δ' ὡς τὸ θεωρεῖν. φανερόν οὖν ὅτι ὡς ἐπιστήμη· ἐν γὰρ τῷ ὑπάρχειν τὴν ψυχὴν καὶ ὕπνος καὶ ἐγρήγορσις ἐστίν, ἀνάλογον δ' ἡ μὲν ἐγρήγορσις τῷ θεωρεῖν, ὁ δ' ὕπνος τῷ ἔχειν καὶ μὴ ἐνεργεῖν κ. τ. λ. Cf. *Met. Θ.* 6. 1948 a. 32 λέγομεν δὲ δυνάμει οἷον ἐν τῷ ξύλῳ Ἐρμῆν καὶ ἐν τῇ ὄλῃ τὴν ἡμίσειαν, ὅτι ἀφαιρεθεῖη ἄν, καὶ ἐπιστήμονα καὶ τὸν μὴ θεωροῦντα, εἰάν δυνατὸς ᾗ θεωρῆσαι. Cf. *Phys.* viii. 4. 255 a. 33 ἔστι δὲ δυνάμει ἄλλως ὁ μαθητῶν ἐπιστήμων καὶ ὁ ἔχων ἤδη καὶ μὴ θεωρῶν . . . ὁ γὰρ ἔχων ἐπιστήμην μὴ θεωρῶν δὲ δυνάμει ἐστὶν ἐπιστήμων πως, ἀλλ' οὐχ ὡς καὶ πρῶν μοθειν. See Bonitz, *Met.* p. 394.

§ 6.] Section 5 called attention generally to the fact that know- b. 35. ledge may be possessed without being realised in consciousness, and argued that there is nothing paradoxical in supposing that the ἀκρατής acts 'against knowledge,' if his knowledge is merely possessed, but not realised in consciousness. Section 6 points out further that there is nothing to prevent the ἀκρατής acting 'against knowledge,' if, while his knowledge of the universal is realised in consciousness (χρώμενον μίντοι τῇ καθόλου), his knowledge of the particular is not (ἀλλὰ μὴ τῇ κατὰ μέρος). There is nothing inconsistent in this supposition, for, although knowledge of the universal includes knowledge of the contained particular, it does not necessarily entail the consciously realised knowledge of the particular; see *Ald. Schol. ad loc.* εἴ τις μὲν οὖν γινώσκει τὴν καθόλου πρότασιν, καὶ τὴν μερικὴν ἐξ ἀνάγκης γινώσκει δυνάμει ἢ ἐνεργείᾳ· ἡ γὰρ μερικὴ πρότασις ὑπὸ τῆς καθόλου προτάσεως περιέχεται. Nor is there any difficulty in supposing that the ἀκρατής, in acting against his non-realised, or latent, know-

1148 b. 35. ledge of the particular, acts also against his consciously realised knowledge of the including universal: for action does not lie in the sphere of the universal, but in that of the particular—πρακτὰ γὰρ τὰ καθ' ἕκαστα, it is 'particular things,' not 'things in general,' that are done—see the Paraph. *ad loc.* ἀμφοτέρων οὐσῶν ἐν τῇ ψυχῇ τῶν προτάσεων, ἐπειδὴν ἐπιθυμία τις ἐπὶ τι κινή πονηρόν, συμβαίνει τῇ μὲν καθόλου χρῆσθαι, ὅτι τὸ κακὸν οὐ δεῖ πράττειν, καὶ θεωρεῖν κατ' αὐτὴν τηλικαῦτα, τῇ δὲ μερικῇ, ὅτι τόδε κακόν, ἔχειν μὲν, οὐ χρῆσθαι δέ, οὐδὲ συνορᾶν ἐνεργεῖα, καὶ διὰ τοῦτο πρὸς τὴν μοχθηρίαν χωρεῖν, ὥσπερ ἀποτυφλωθέντα, τοῦτο δὲ οὐδὲν θαυμαστόν. εἰ γὰρ καὶ χρῆται τῇ καθόλου προτάσει, ἀλλὰ πράττειν οὐ δύναται κατὰ τὴν ἐπιστήμην μὴ χρώμενος καὶ τῇ μερικῇ· αὕτη γὰρ ἐστὶν ἡ κυρία τῶν πράξεων. Here the last sentence explains very clearly the words of the text οὐδὲν κωλύει πράττειν παρὰ τὴν ἐπιστήμην . . . πρακτὰ γὰρ τὰ καθ' ἕκαστα. A man may consciously realise a general rule of conduct without realising that this is a case in which it is applicable, and it is only by what he realises in particular cases that his actions, being particulars, can be influenced. The knowledge of the general rule is not an efficient cause. It 'rests' as a final cause. Where it does not inspire efficient causes to act in its interest, actions (produced by efficient causes hostile to its interest) may take place: see *de An.* iii. 11. 434 a. 16 ἐπεὶ δ' ἡ μὲν καθόλου ἰπόληψις καὶ λόγος, ἡ δὲ τοῦ καθ' ἕκαστα (ἡ μὲν γὰρ λέγει ὅτι δεῖ τὸν τοιοῦτον τὸ τοιόνδε πράττειν, ἡ δὲ ὅτι τόδε τοῖον τοιόνδε, καγὼ δὲ τοιόσδε), ἤδη αὕτη κινεῖ ἡ δόξα, οὐχ ἡ καθόλου· ἡ ἄμφω, ἀλλ' ἡ μὲν ἡρεμοῦσα μᾶλλον, ἡ δ' οὐ. In short, 'universal knowledge,' being 'at rest'—not entering into the arena of particular conflicts—is no more affected by the passions which affect 'particular knowledge,' and make it 'latent,' than the Race is affected by the particular incidents of disease and decay which affect Individuals.

The section then proceeds (from διαφέρει 1147 a. 4 onwards) to call attention to the circumstances in which consciously realised knowledge of the universal most frequently coexists with that merely latent knowledge of the particular, which makes the prevalence of ἐπιθυμία intelligible. I agree with Cook Wilson (*Arist. Studies*, paragraph 31) in regarding as mistaken the view (maintained by Kassow, *Forsch.* p. 128) that §§ 5 and 6 'do not refer to ἀκρασία, and that the words δῆλον οὖν ὅτι ὁμοίως ἔχειν λεκτέον τοὺς ἀκρατεῖς τοῖτοις § 7 show that the state of the ἀκρατής is first discussed in §§ 7, 8.' 'This would be strange in itself,' continues Cook Wilson, 'and seems to be disproved by the sentence in § 5 διαίσει τὸ ἔχοντα μὲν μὴ θεωροῦντα δὲ ἄ μὴ δεῖ πράττειν τοῦ ἔχοντα καὶ

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1147 a. 4. (then follows the passage quoted above). The Paraphrast's *μερικαὶ δὲ διαφέρουσι* is quite in place in a *commentary*; but Ramsauer's conjecture *διαφέρει δὲ καὶ τὸ κατὰ μέρος* for the *διαφέρει δὲ καὶ τὸ καθόλου* of the *lecti* is unworthy of the scholastic subtlety of the present passage.

The best explanation of the words *διαφέρει δὲ καὶ τὸ καθόλου* seems to be given by the passage *de An.* iii. 11. 434 a. 16, lately quoted—*ἐπεὶ δ' ἡ μὲν καθόλου ὑπόληψις καὶ λόγος, ἡ δὲ τοῦ καθ' ἕκαστα (ἡ μὲν γὰρ λέγει ὅτι δεῖ τὸν τοιοῦτον τὸ τοιόνδε πράττειν, ἡ δὲ ὅτι τόδε τοῖνον τοιόνδε, καὶ γὰρ δὲ τοιόσδε), ἤδη αὕτη κινεῖ ἡ δόξα, οὐχ ἡ καθόλου· ἡ δὲ μὲν ἡρεμοῦσα μᾶλλον, ἡ δ' οὐ.* The formula of the universal proposition is 'all men in such and such circumstances ought to do acts of such and such a kind.' To apply correctly a general rule drawn according to this formula, the agent must (1) recognise his own circumstances in the general description given—the general description of circumstances being the *τὸ ἐφ' ἑαυτοῦ* of the present §: it is assumed that he will not find much difficulty in doing so, and in supplying the *αὐτὸς ἄνθρωπος* or *καὶ γὰρ δὲ τοιόσδε* part of the minor. (2) He must recognise in the particular thing now before him the marks which the general rule gives as characteristic of the things which men in his circumstances ought to do. These characteristic marks given by the general rule are the *τὸ ἐπὶ τοῦ πράγματος* of the present §, where it is assumed that the agent may easily fail to notice in a particular thing the marks which characterise the things which men in his circumstances ought to do.

It will be observed that the one universal proposition of the *de An.*, with its double reference—to persons and to things (*δεῖ τὸν τοιοῦτον—τὸ τοιόνδε πράττειν*), is resolved, in *E. N.* vii. 3. 6, into two universal propositions—(1) *παντὶ ἄνθρωπῳ συμφέρει τὰ ξηρά*, 'all men are benefited by dry nourishment' (with its minor *αὐτὸς ἄνθρωπος—'I am a man'*), and (2) *ξηρὰν τὸ τοιόνδε*, 'all things with such and such qualities are dry' (with its minor *τόδε τοιόνδε*, 'this thing now before me possesses these qualities'). The resolution, however, is more apparent than real, for the first universal proposition has already a reference to both persons and things, and the second universal proposition merely describes more fully the things referred to in the first proposition. *Παντὶ ἄνθρωπῳ συμφέρει τὰ ξηρά* is really equivalent to *τῶ τοιοῦτῳ συμφέρει τὸ τοιόνδε*—a general rule, expressing the relation of a class of persons to a class of things, which finds its application in the minor *τόδε τοιόνδε καὶ γὰρ δὲ τοιόσδε*—

a proposition which has likewise a double reference—to a person 1147 a. 4. and to a thing. It is in the application, then, of the thing-side of the universal proposition that, according to the present §, the agent's chief difficulty lies (ἀλλ' εἰ τόδε τοιόνδε, ἢ οὐκ ἔχει ἢ οὐκ ἐνεργεῖ 1147 a. 7). A man may know generally that acids are bad for bilious people: and he may know that he is bilious: but he may continue to drink sherry, not knowing that it contains a great deal of acid. His conduct might be described as μηδὲν ἄτοπον. It would have to be described as θαυμαστόν, if he continued to drink sherry, after his doctor had told him its real nature. The distinction, then, drawn in this § seems to resolve itself into that between knowing and not knowing the particular—a distinction which has much more significance in the case of the ἀκρατής than in that of the 'bilious patient' of our example, for there is that in the condition of the ἀκρατής which makes it peculiarly difficult for him to interpret and apply the universal—that is, 'to know the particular.' The ἀκρατής is likely to find as much difficulty with the καὶ γὰρ δὲ τοιόνδε, as with the τόδε τοιόνδε.

αὐτὸς ἄνθρωπος] αὐτός is Rassow's reading (see *Forsch.* pp. 65, a. 6. 66) for Bekker's οὗτος. K^b pr. and M^b have ὁ αὐτός, and Cambr. has ὁ οὗτος. The Paraph. seems to have had αὐτός, and the reading is supported by the αὐτὸς δὲ ἄνθρωπος of the Practical Syllogism in *de Motu Anim.* 7. 701 a. 13.

κατὰ τε δὴ τούτους διοίσει τοὺς τρόπους] Ramsauer notes that a. 8. this τε answers to εἶτι τὸ ἔχειν τὴν ἐπιστήμην ἄλλον τρόπον τῶν νῦν ρηθέντων § 7. 1147 a. 10, where another τρόπος is mentioned.

οὕτω μὲν . . . ἄλλως δέ] Coraes has—οὕτω μὲν ὁ νοῦς δ' οὖν, a. 9. ὥστε δοκεῖν μηδὲν ἄτοπον τὸ οὕτως εἰδέσθαι τὴν ἐπιστήμην ὥστε τὴν μείζω πρότασιν ἐπίστασθαι μόνην καὶ τὴν καθόλου, τὴν δ' ἐλάττω καὶ ἐπὶ μέρους ἀγνοεῖν, καὶ διὰ τοῦτο ἀμαρτάνειν ἄλλως δέ: ἄτοπον δὲ καὶ θαυμαστόν τὸ εἶδόντα ἀμφότερα, τὸ τ' ἐπὶ μέρους καὶ τὸ καθόλου, ἀμαρτάνειν.

§ 7. εἶτι τὸ ἔχειν τὴν ἐπιστήμην ἄλλον τρόπον τῶν νῦν ρηθέντων a. 10. ὑπάρχει τοῖς ἀνθρώποις] The connexion between this § and §§ 5 and 6 seems to me to be the following—§ 5 explained the phenomenon of Incontinence by a general reference to the distinction between potential and actual knowledge: § 6, going into detail, showed that knowledge of the particular is often potential, even when knowledge of the including universal is actual: § 7

1147 a. 10. proceeds to point out that incontinence may be explained, not only by reference to the distinction, just considered, between potential and actual knowledge, but also by reference to a distinction which must be drawn within the limits of potential knowledge itself—for knowledge may be ‘potential’ in the proper and positive sense of ‘likely to be actualised,’ and ‘potential’ in the merely negative sense of ‘not only not actualised, but unlikely, in the circumstances, to be actualised.’ There are cases in which the natural tendency of potential knowledge to rise into actuality (*cf. E. N. ix. 9. 7 ἡ δὲ δύναμις εἰς τὴν ἐνέργειαν ἀνάγεται*) is impeded to such a degree that, while the impeding influences continue to operate, the knowledge can scarcely be called even potential—*i. e.* it is potential in a merely negative sense. The Paraphrast expresses this view of the meaning and connexion of § 7 very well—Ἔτι, οὐ τούτῳ μόνῳ διαφέρουσιν οἱ ἐπιστάμενοι, τῷ τοῖς μὲν ἔχειν καὶ χρῆσθαι, τοῖς δὲ ἔχειν μὲν, οὐ χρῆσθαι δέ, ἀλλὰ καὶ κατ’ αὐτὸ τὸ ἔχειν διαφέρουσιν· οὐ γὰρ ὁμοίως ἔχουσι τὰς ἐπιστήμας οἱ ἐπιστάμενοι· ἔστι γὰρ ἔχοντά τινα ἐπιστήμην, μὴ ἔχειν οἶον, τὸν καθεύδοντα, καὶ μαινόμενον, καὶ οἰνωμένον· κατὰ τοῦτον δὲ τὸν τρόπον ἔχουσι τὴν ἐπιστήμην καὶ οἱ ἐν τοῖς πάθεισιν ὄντες· μεθύουσι γὰρ ὑπὸ τῆς ἐπιθυμίας, καὶ μαινόμενοι ὑπὸ τοῦ θυμοῦ. Similarly Rassow (*Forsch. p. 128*)—‘Dort (*i. e.* in the cases contemplated in §§ 5 and 6) war das Wissen dem Menschen zwar nicht gegenwärtig, aber es konnte durch Erinnerung und Zureden in ihm erweckt werden; in diesem Falle (*i. e.* the ἄλλος τρόπος of § 7) hat die Leidenschaft dem Menschen mit der Besinnung die Fähigkeit geraubt, sich zu sammeln und zum Wissen zurückzukehren. So lange daher die Raserei der Leidenschaft vorhält, ist

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1147 a. 10. Syllogism, and the ἀκρατής has been distinctly said to 'have' *both* προτάσεις, the 'having' of the major being actual, and that of the minor potential.—ἔχοντα μὲν ἀμφοτέρας . . . χρώμενον μόντοι τῇ καθόλου ἀλλὰ μὴ τῇ κατὰ μέρος¹.

To these two species of ἔχειν distinguished in §§ 5 and 6 (the ἔχειν of the οὐ χρώμενος and the ἔχειν of the χρώμενος), § 7 adds yet another species (*cf.* Ramsauer's note—'κατὰ τε δὴ τούτους τοὺς τρόπους 1147 a. 8: τε istud ad τὸ ἐπι 1147 a. 10. § 7 spectat, quo ἄλλος τρόπος additur'), viz. τὸ ἔχειν πως καὶ μὴ ἔχειν, which differs from the normal ἔχειν μὲν μὴ θεωρεῖν δέ in the manner explained at the beginning of the present note. If we keep it steadily in view that the object of § 7 is not 'to explain the difference of explicit and implicit knowledge,' but merely to call attention to another kind τοῦ ἔχειν τὴν ἐπιστήμην, the fact that this third kind τοῦ ἔχειν resembles one of the two kinds distinguished in §§ 5 and 6 in being implicit need not trouble us. Indeed, without compromising the position taken up against Cook Wilson's view, one might admit (though I do not think that it is necessary to do so) that this third kind of ἔχειν, being a variety of implicit ἔχειν, was perhaps not in the author's mind when he wrote § 5, but that he there thought merely of the broad specific difference between implicit ἔχειν and explicit ἔχειν: *cf.* the opinion stated by Peters at the end of the following note, p. 217—'Action in spite of knowledge presents no difficulty (1) if that knowledge be not present at the time of action § 5, or (2) if, though the major (or majors) be known and present, the minor (or one of the minors) be unknown or absent § 6. But (3) other cases remain which can only be explained by a further distinction introduced in § 7; *i. e.* a man who has knowledge may at times be in a state in which his knowledge, though present, has lost its reality—in which, though he may repeat the old maxims, they mean no more to him than to one who talks in his sleep. Section 7, I venture to think, is (like § 2) not a repetition or an alternative version, but an afterthought, which requires the rewriting of the whole passage.'

In referring the words ἄλλον τρόπον τῶν νῦν ῥηθέντων to § 4, Cook Wilson says (paragraph 30) 'There (*i. e.* in § 4) the only kinds of "having" belief are having it doubtfully or having it

¹ The words ἔχοντα μὲν ἀμφοτέρας κ.τ.λ. in § 6 are sufficient to show that not only the ἔχων μὲν οὐ χρώμενος δέ, but also the χρώμενος is thought of as ἔχων—a point which Bywater's reading and bracket in § 5. 1146 b. 34 conceal

certainly, in each of these the "having" being actual, §§ 7 and 8 1147 a. 10. add the case where the "having" is potential.' Surely this view requires § 4 to say 'there are two kinds of "having *knowledge*"—τοῦ ἔχειν τὴν ἐπιστήμην—having it doubtfully and having it certainly, in each of these the "having" being actual': but § 4 compares ἐπιστήμη and δόξα—does not mention two kinds τοῦ ἔχειν ἐπιστήμην, indeed says nothing about 'having'—ἔχειν—either δόξα or ἐπιστήμη: whereas the words with which § 7 begins—ἔτι τὸ ἔχειν τὴν ἐπιστήμην ἄλλον τρόπον τῶν νῦν ῥηθέντων ἵπάρχει τοῖς ἀνθρώποις—seem to imply that the technical expression ἔχειν τὴν ἐπιστήμην does not occur here for the first time in the context, and that other modes τοῦ ἔχειν τὴν ἐπιστήμην have been mentioned before.

The ἔχειν καὶ θεωρεῖν—ἔχειν μὲν μὴ θεωρεῖν δέ—and ἔχειν πως καὶ μὴ ἔχειν of these §§ recall τὸ δυνατόν ὅτι ἤδη ἔστι κατὰ ἐνέργειαν—τὸ δυνατόν ὅτι ἐνεργήσειεν ἂν—and τὸ οὐδέποτε ἐνέργεια ἀλλὰ δύναμις μόνον of *de Interp.* 13. 23 a. 8–25, on which see Grote's *Arist.* vol. i. pp. 184, 185.

Before leaving the subject of the τρόποι τοῦ ἔχειν τὴν ἐπιστήμην, I would call attention to the expressions οὐ θεωρῶν and οὐ χρώμενος, used in §§ 5 and 6 to describe the state of the man whose 'having' is implicit. θεωρεῖν and χρῆσθαι are terms applicable only to the man whose faculties are in normal working order, and the expressions οὐ θεωρῶν, οὐ χρώμενος are intended to show that one who easily could 'think' or 'use' simply does not happen to do so—as when an Englishman who 'has' a knowledge of German does not happen to be reading a German book; but the ἔχειν of § 7, which is practically equivalent to μὴ ἔχειν, and is defined, not by οὐ θεωρῶν, but by μαινόμενος, is knowledge which cannot, in the circumstances, be produced at will—it is tied up, as it were, like money in some bad unrealisable security.

§ 8. τοὺς ἀπὸ τῆς ἐπιστήμης] *Cf. Mel.* K. 3. 1061 a. 3 *ιατρικὸς γὰρ* a. 18. λόγος καὶ μαχαίριον λέγεται τῷ τὸ μὲν ἀπὸ τῆς *ιατρικῆς ἐπιστήμης εἶναι, τὸ δὲ ταύτῃ χρήσιμον.*

ἔπη λέγουσιν Ἐμπεδοκλέους] Besides the poem *περὶ φύσεως*, a. 20. Empedocles wrote a poem called *καθαρμοί*, in which the Agrigentines were exhorted to live piously and virtuously. See Mullach, *Fr. Phil.* vol. i. pp. 12 sqq., and Ritter and Preller, *Hist. Ph.* §§ 167 and 179.

1147 a. 22. συμφύηται] Ald. Sch. οἴοι φύσιν γενέσθαι τὴν ἐξω ἐν αἰσίοις. The reading of K^b συμφύηται, which Sus. and Bywater adopt in place of Bekker's συμφύσαι, is supported by Ald., CCC, and B¹, which have συμφύη εἶναι.

a. 24. § 9. φυσικῶς] 'Again, we may look at the more immediate causes of incontinence'—i. e. we may examine the precise mechanism by which an incontinent act is produced. Hitherto the enquiry has been conducted λογικῶς rather than φυσικῶς—the remote and abstract explanation afforded by the great Aristotelian distinction of δύναμις and ἐνέργεια has been adduced rather than the proximate cause or οἰκειῶς λόγος, which an examination of the concrete nature (φύσις) of the phenomenon will make known. (For the distinction λογικῶς—φυσικῶς see note on i. 3. 4 πεπαιδευμένου 1094 b. 23, and on viii. 1. 6. 1155 b. 2.) The proximate cause (οἰκειῶς λόγος) of an incontinent act, or the precise mechanism by which it is produced, is not, however, given in the premisses of the Practical Syllogism, as such. The premisses of the Practical Syllogism, as such, explain all acts generally (λογικῶς), not incontinent acts specially (φυσικῶς). The proximate cause of an incontinent act is to be sought in the special manner in which ἐπιθυμία uses the mechanism of the Practical Syllogism to attain its own object; and §§ 9, 10 and 11, in explaining the sophistical use which ἐπιθυμία makes of the Practical Syllogism, give the οἰκειῶς λόγος of one form, at least, of incontinence (ἀσθένεια: see vii. 7. 8, and note on vii. 3. 5–11. 1146 b. 31), thus differing from § 6¹, which merely mentions the premisses of the Practical Syllogism in connexion with the remark that the knowledge of the universal may be consciously realised, while that of the included particular may, on account of causes not specially stated, be latent. Section 7, with its οἰσόμενος, μαινόμενος, καθύδων, prepares us for the οἰκειῶς λόγος stated in §§ 9–11.

a. 26. ὅταν δὲ μία γένηται ἐξ αὐτῶν] i. e. when the conclusion results from the premisses: ὅταν δὲ ἀπὸ τῆς καθόλου καὶ τῆς μερικῆς δόξης ἄλλη τινὲ συναγάγῃμεν δόξαν (Paraph.).

a. 27. ἐνθα μὲν] εἰ μὲν ἔστω ἡ δόξα θεωρητικὴ (Paraph.).

a. 28. ποιητικαῖς] =πρακτικαῖς: cf. *de Motu Anim.* 7. 701 a. 23 αἰ δὲ

¹ According to Cook Wilson §§ 9–12 are parallel to § 6; see *Arist. Studies*, Table L.

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1147 a. 28. grow, so a slight physical change or movement in an internal part, caused by the heat or cold induced by a πάθος, is communicated through nerves and muscles, and results in the manifest movement of a limb: 701 b. 13 sqq. ἐν δὲ τῷ ζῳῷ δύναται τὸ αὐτὸ καὶ μείζον καὶ ἔλαττον γίνεσθαι καὶ τὰ σχήματα μεταβάλλειν, αἰφανομένων τῶν μορίων διὰ θερμότητα καὶ πάλιν συστελλομένων διὰ ψύξιν καὶ ἀλλοιουμένων. ἀλλοιοῦσι δ' αἱ φαντασίαι καὶ αἱ αἰσθήσεις καὶ αἱ ἔννοιαι· αἱ μὲν γὰρ αἰσθήσεις εὐθύς ὑπάρχουσιν ἀλλοιώσεις τινὲς οὔσαι, ἡ δὲ φαντασία καὶ ἡ νόησις τὴν τῶν πραγμάτων ἔχουσι δύναμιν· τρόπον γὰρ τινα τὸ εἶδος τὸ νοούμενον τὸ τοῦ θερμοῦ ἢ ψυχροῦ ἢ ἡδέος ἢ φοβεροῦ τοιοῦτον τυγχάνει ὅν οἶόν περ καὶ τῶν πραγμάτων ἕκαστον, διὸ καὶ φρίττουσι καὶ φοβοῦνται νοήσαντες μόνον ταῦτα δὲ πάντα πάθη καὶ ἀλλοιώσεις εἰσίν. ἀλλοιουμένων δ' ἐν τῷ σώματι τὰ μὲν μείζω τὰ δ' ἐλάττω γίνεται. ὅτι δὲ μικρὰ μεταβολὴ γινομένη ἐν ἀρχῇ μεγάλας καὶ πολλὰς ποιεῖ διαφορὰς ἄποθεν, οὐκ ἄδηλον· οἶον τοῦ οἴακος ἀκαριαῖόν τι μεθισταμένου πολλὴ ἢ τῆς πρῶρας γίνεται μετάστασις. . . . ἔστι δὲ τὰ λυπηρὰ καὶ ἡδέα πάντα σχεδὸν μετὰ ψύξεώς τινος καὶ θερμότητος· τοῦτο δὲ δῆλον ἐκ τῶν παθημάτων· θάρρη γὰρ καὶ φόβοι καὶ ἀφροδισιασμοὶ καὶ τἄλλα τὰ σωματικὰ λυπηρὰ καὶ ἡδέα τὰ μὲν κατὰ μόριον μετὰ θερμότητος ἢ ψύξεώς ἐστί, τὰ δὲ καθ' ὅλον τὸ σῶμα· μνήμαι δὲ καὶ ἐλπίδες, οἶον εἰδώλοισι χρώμεναι τοῖς τοιούτοις, ὅτε μὲν ἦττον ὅτε δὲ μᾶλλον αἰτίαι τῶν αὐτῶν εἰσίν. ὥστ' εὐλόγως ἤδη δημιουργεῖται τὰ ἐντὸς καὶ τὰ περὶ τὰς ἀρχὰς τῶν ὀργανικῶν μορίων μεταβάλλοντα ἐκ πεπηγόντων ὑγρὰ καὶ ἐξ ὑγρῶν πεπηγότε καὶ μαλακὰ καὶ σκληρὰ ἐξ ἀλλήλων· τούτων δὲ συμβαινόντων τὸν τρόπον τοῦτον, καὶ ἔτι τοῦ παθητικοῦ καὶ ποιητικοῦ τοιαύτην ἔχόντων φύσιν οἶαν πολλαχοῦ εἰρήκαμεν. . . . ὁπότεν μηδὲν ἀπολίπη αὐτῶν ἑκάτερον τῶν ἐν τῷ λόγῳ, εὐθύς τὸ μὲν ποιεῖ τὸ δὲ πάσχει. διὰ τοῦτο δ' ἅμα ὡς εἶπεν νοεῖ ὅτι πορευτέον καὶ πορεύεται, ἂν μὴ τι ἐμποδίῃ ἕτερον. τὰ μὲν γὰρ ὀργανικὰ μέρη παρασκευάζει ἐπιτηδεύως τὰ πάθη, ἡ δ' ὄρεξις τὰ πάθη, τὴν δ' ὄρεξιν ἢ φαντασίαν· αὕτη δὲ γίνεται ἢ διὰ νοήσεως ἢ δι' αἰσθήσεως.

a. 33. § 10. αὕτη δὲ ἐνεργεῖ] ἔστι δὲ καὶ ἡ μερικὴ δόξα ὅτι τόδε γλυκύ· αὕτη δὲ ἢ μερικὴ δόξα ἐνεργεῖ (Ald. Schol.). So also Peters—'Now when you have on the one side the universal judgment forbidding you to taste, and on the other side the universal "all sweet things are pleasant" (ἡδύ here corresponds to γεύεσθαι δεῖ above: *note*), and the particular judgment, "this thing before me is sweet," and this latter judgment is effectively present, or, in other words, appetite for the sweet is there. . . .' Grant's rendering, however, is grammatically preferable, as referring αὕτη to the second universal proposition (ἡ δὲ), not to the μερικὴ δόξα under it—'When therefore there is in the mind one

universal which forbids tasting, but another which says "all that is 1147 a. 33. sweet is pleasant" (having a minor) "this thing is sweet," and thus the second universal is realised'—i. e. the second universal is applied in its minor.

κινεῖν γὰρ ἕκαστον δύναται τῶν μορίων] Some (e. g. Ramsauer) a. 35. have taken this to mean—'for each of the "Parts of the Soul"—i. e. λόγος and ἐπιθυμία—can move the man'; but I have no doubt that τῶν μορίων are the ὀργανικά μέρη—'bodily parts,' of the passage quoted above from the *de Motu Anim.* τὰ μὲν γὰρ ὀργανικά μέρη παρασκευάζει ἐπιτηδεύως τὰ πάθη, ἡ δὲ ὄρεξις τὰ πάθη, and that the Paraph. is right with—ἡ δ' ἐπιθυμία μετὰ τῆς δόξης ἐπὶ τὸ γευστὸν ἄγει· δύναται γὰρ κινεῖν ἕκαστον τῶν μορίων, λέγω δὲ τὰς οἰκείας αἰσθήσεις τῷ ἐπιθυμητῷ, ὄρῃσιν εἰ ὄρατόν ἐστι τὸ ἡδὺ πρὸς ἑαυτὸν ἔλκει καὶ γεῦσιν τὸ γευστόν.

Section 10, as I said, gives the proximate cause of an incontinent act, by exposing the sophistical use which ἐπιθυμία makes of the Practical Syllogism.

On the one side, we have the maxim of Reason—ἡ μὲν καθόλου ἡ κωλύουσα γεύεσθαι, and on the other side, the desire of sweet things. But the ἀκρατής, unwilling to apply the maxim of Reason, and yet anxious not to seem to act without Reason, presents his irrational desire in the disguise of a rational, or true, proposition, which he makes the major premiss of a new Practical Syllogism, and his incontinent act, though really proceeding from irrational desire, seems to be the conclusion of this syllogism, and to be performed 'under the influence of Reason'—ἔσπε συμβαίνει ὑπὸ λόγου πως καὶ δόξης ἀκρατεῦσθαι. He incontinently tastes something sweet, and then pleads in justification of his act the authority of a principle which he can represent as a rational one; for it is certainly *true* that 'all sweet things are pleasant.' It is not *quid true* that this principle is contrary to the other principle—that of Right Reason or Temperance—ἡ καθόλου ἡ κωλύουσα γεύεσθαι, but *quid* implying the *desire to disobey* that principle. The two general propositions 'Immoderate indulgence in sweet things is evil,' and 'Sweet things are pleasant,' are both true, and, so far, there is no contrariety between them; but when the latter is put thus in its true colour, 'I must have sweet things!' then its contrariety to the former becomes evident. Ἡ μερική δόξα—'this thing is sweet,' and the corresponding καθόλου—'all sweet things are pleasant,' are placed in an attitude of opposition to the principle of Temperance by their

1147 a. 35. association with desire, although *in themselves* they are not opposed to that principle—ὅστε συμβαίνει ὑπὸ λόγου πως καὶ δόξης ἀκρατεῦσθαι, οὐκ ἐναντίας δὲ καθ' αὐτήν, ἀλλὰ κατὰ συμβεβηκός—ἡ γὰρ ἐπιθυμία ἐναντία ἀλλ' οὐχ ἡ δόξα—τῷ ὀρθῷ λόγῳ. The λόγος, under the influence of which the ἀκρατής is said to act incontinently, is simply his principle of uncontrolled ἐπιθυμία transmuted into the true proposition—'all sweet things are pleasant.' But it is not the truth of this proposition that is in dispute, but its value as a principle of conduct. It is no justification of an incontinent act to say 'all sweet things are pleasant,' when this only means—'I am passionately fond of sweet things,' and the point at issue is—'Ought I to yield to my passion?' The Ald. Schol. has a good note—οὐκ ἐναντία δὲ ἐστὶ καθ' αὐτὸ ἡ δόξα ἢ μερικὴ ἢ λέγουσα ὅτι τόδε γλυκὺ ἐστὶ τῷ λόγῳ τῷ καθόλου τῷ λέγοντι οὐδενὸς γλυκίος ἀπογεύεσθαι δεῖ· ποῖαν γὰρ ἐναντιότητα ἔχουσι; γίνονται δὲ ἐναντία κατὰ συμβεβηκός, διότι γὰρ συμβέβηκε τῇ ἐπιθυμίᾳ συνελθεῖν τῇ μερικῇ δόξᾳ καὶ καταναγκάσαι τὴν γεῦσιν γεύσασθαι τοῦδε τοῦ γλυκίος:—i. e. ἡ μερικὴ δόξα, 'this is sweet,' is the occasion of contrariety to the moral law, by arousing desire, which is directly contrary to it. Then men attempt to excuse themselves by pleading the 'rationality of their desire'—by transmuting ἐπιθυμία into πᾶν γλυκὺ ἡδύ. 'Die Sophistik der Begierde, von der unter §§ 10, 11 die Rede ist (says Rasso, *Forsch.* p. 129, note), macht sich natürlich noch auf anderen Gebieten geltend, als dem der ἀκρασία, und sie ist um so gefährlicher, je mehr sie das ἡδύ in eine sittliche Form zu kleiden weiss. Der Feige, der sein Leben nicht preis giebt, weil er sich für seine Kinder erhalten will, der Hungernde, der stiehlt, indem er dem siebenten Gebote das Gebot der Selbsterhaltung gegenüberstellt, sind derartige Sophisten.' Cf. Plut. *de Virt. Mor.* 6 συφιστικῆς οὖν ψυχῆς ἡ ἀκρασία.

b. 4. § 11. τὰ θηρία οὐκ ἀκρατῆ] because ἀκρασία implies a struggle between ἐπιθυμία and λόγος, and the brutes have not λόγος. They have no principle 'forbidding them to taste'; they cannot even construct a spurious λόγος by transmuting τούτῳ γλυκὺ into πᾶν γλυκὺ ἡδύ. They have nothing but the impression or idea of the particular—οἷον ὁ ὄνος ἐνέπεσε τῷδε τῷ βόθρῳ, διὸ καὶ ἔκτοτε ἰδὼν τὸν βόθρον φαντάζεται ὅτι ἐκεῖ ἔπεσε καὶ ἀποφεύγει αὐτόν (Ald. Sch.). Cf. *E. E.* ii. 8: 1224 a. 26 οὐ γὰρ ἔχει τὰ ἄλλα ζῆα λόγον καὶ ὄρεξιν ἐναντίαν, ἀλλὰ τῇ ὄρεξει ζῆ' ἐν ᾧ ἀνθρώπῳ ἐνεστὶν ἡμφο.

b. 8. § 12. φυσιολόγων] See Grant's note *ad loc.* He quotes Sext.

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1147 b. 9. the Socratic position is not without foundation: the passion which prevails in incontinence is not matched directly against real knowledge (οὐ γὰρ τῆς κυρίως ἐπιστήμης εἶναι δοκούσης παρούσης γίνεται τὸ πάθος § 14)—real knowledge, though consciously present in the mind of the ἀκρατής, is not *near enough* (οὐ παρούσης) to this passion to be buffeted about and suppressed by it (οὐδ' αὐτὴ περιέλαται διὰ τὸ πάθος): it is only the knowledge of the particular (ἡ αἰσθητικὴ ἐπιστήμη = δόξα αἰσθητοῦ) which stands near enough to the passion to be affected by it, or, indeed, is of a nature to be affected by it—*i. e.* suppressed and rendered latent by it. But this knowledge of the particular (that 'this particular thing is wrong'), as we said, is not really knowledge (ἐπιστήμη): so, we have explained ἀκρασία (knowing the right and doing the wrong) without entirely discrediting the Socratic position. This is a result in perfect keeping with the principle of procedure laid down in vii. 1. 5 δεῖ δὲ . . . δεικνύναι μάλιστα μὲν πάντα τὰ ἔνδοξα περὶ ταῦτα τὰ πάθη, εἰ δὲ μὴ τὰ πλείστα καὶ κυριώτατα. I am accordingly unable to agree with Cook Wilson that an 'obvious concession of the Socratic principle' (*Arist. Stud.* paragr. 60) is contained in ch. 3 generally, and in §§ 13 and 14 in particular, which contributes to make it probable that the chapter is not by the same author as some of the most important parts of *E. N.* vii. I would put the case, as between Socrates and the writer of this chapter, thus—Socrates denied the existence of ἀκρασία, because ἐπιστήμη cannot be conquered by πάθος. The writer of this chapter opposes the view that ἀκρασία does not exist; but 'concedes' the point that true ἐπιστήμη cannot be conquered by πάθος. He is enabled to make this 'concession' by drawing a distinction—the ἀκρατής has actively present in his mind the true ἐπιστήμη, the general proposition that 'it is wrong to yield to πάθος,' but this ἐπιστήμη, to quote the expression used in *de An.* iii. 11. 434 a. 20, ἡμεμεῖ μᾶλλον, and can touch action only through the intermediation of the δόξα αἰσθητοῦ—'to do this particular act would be to yield to πάθος.' This δόξα αἰσθητοῦ, however, is not true ἐπιστήμη, and its latency, caused by πάθος, sufficiently accounts for the occurrence of an act of ἀκρασία, without obliging us to say, against Socrates, that true ἐπιστήμη is affected by πάθος. The clause οὐ γὰρ τῆς κυρίως ἐπιστήμης εἶναι δοκούσης παρούσης γίνεται τὸ πάθος I understand to mean that 'the affection (τὸ ἀκρατεῖσθαι) does not occur in the immediate presence of real knowledge'—'real knowledge,' though actively present in the consciousness

of the ἀκρατής, does not operate as an *efficient cause* (οὐ κινεῖ *de An.* 1147 b. 9. iii. 11. 434 a. 20) of action, and so does not come into conflict with ἐπιθυμία. Only particulars can come to close quarters with particulars. Only μερικὰ δόξαι are κύριαι τῶν πράξεων, and the μερικὴ δόξα, 'this is wrong,' is defeated by another μερικὴ δόξα—that of ἐπιθυμία—'it is pleasant.' While I am at one with Cook Wilson (paragr. 66) in thinking that the context does not allow us to understand τῆς κυρίως ἐπιστήμης to mean the presence of both minor and major premisses¹, I cannot accept his view that οὐ γὰρ τῆς κυρίως ἐπιστήμης εἶναι δοκούσης παρούσης κ.τ.λ. means that 'the Socratic opinion about ἀκρασία agrees with the theory just given, inasmuch as knowledge proper *has not been allowed* to the ἀκρατής': and consequently I cannot follow him in a difficulty which he expresses a few lines below—'The reason (which the present passage) assigns for the absence of knowledge proper is "that the minor premiss is not so much of the nature of true knowledge as the major." This must mean that the ἀκρατής has not true ἐπιστήμη, because he has only the minor and not the major, which of course is in direct contradiction to the beginning of § 13 and to the rest of the chapter.'

According to the view which I have attempted to state above, it is not argued in § 14 'that the ἀκρατής *has not* true ἐπιστήμη,' but 'that the true ἐπιστήμη, which he has—and has consciously—is not in a position to be affected by πάθος, because it is universal, and so does not enter the arena of particular action.'

While the word παρούσης may be thus, I think, satisfactorily explained, I have considerable doubt as to its genuineness. The homoeoteleuton δοκούσης παρούσης² is suspicious, and the awkwardness of having to take τὸ πάθος in a different sense after γίνεται and διὰ respectively—as 'the affection, viz. ἀκρασία' in the first case, and as 'passion' in the second case³—seems to suggest that there is something wrong in the text as it stands. I offer the conjecture, I confess with hesitation—for what it is worth—that παρούσης represents *περι* and a dittograph of the termination of δοκούσης, the

¹ Ramsauer understands the words to mean this.

² CCC and NC, however, have τῆς κυρίως εἶναι δοκούσης ἐπιστήμης παρούσης.

³ Ramsauer says 'τὸ πάθος vs. 16 intelligas τὸ τῆς ἀκρασίας quod fit διὰ τὸ πάθος vs. 17 affectum qui facit quasi impetum.' Similarly, Stahr translates the first πάθος by Unenthaltbarkeit, the second by Leidenschaft. Both Grant and Peters manage ingeniously to render πάθος in each place by phrases containing 'condition,' or 'passion.'

1147 b. θ. dittograph ουσης having (by a blunder which sometimes appears in MSS.) inserted itself between the περι and the γίνεται of an original περιγίνεται. The deliberate alteration of the resulting περιούσης into παρούσης would then be natural, even if παραγίνεται had not, before the insertion of the dittograph ουσης, taken the place of περιγίνεται, by a blunder which often¹ occurs in MSS. The sentence then would originally stand—οὐ γὰρ τῆς κυρίως ἐπιστήμης εἶναι δοκοῦσης περιγίνεται τὸ πάθος, οὐδ' αὕτη περιέλεται διὰ τὸ πάθος, ἀλλὰ τῆς αἰσθητικῆς. Here τὸ πάθος means 'passion' in both places, and τῆς αἰσθητικῆς is governed, as is τῆς κυρίως ἐπιστήμης, by περιγίνεται = 'gets the better of.'

The following is the Paraphrast's explanation of §§ 13 and 14. It seems to me to be a very satisfactory explanation of the text as it stands: Ὅταν δὲ ἐν τῷ πάθει γίνηται ὁ ἀκρατής, τὴν ἐλάττω πρότερον, τὴν κυρίαν τῶν πράξεων, τὴν ὅτι τότε κακόν, ἢ οὐκ ἔχει οὐδαμῶς οὐδὲ ἐπίσταται, ἢ οὕτως ἔχει ὡσπερ οἱ μεθύοντες καὶ οἱ μαινόμενοι ἔπη τιτὰ καὶ ἀποδείξεις λέγουσιν· ἄλλως τε, ὅτι οὐδὲ ἡ ἐλάττων πρότασις αὕτη καθ' αὐτὴν ἐπιστημονικὴ ἐστίν, ὡσπερ ἡ καθόλου καὶ μείζων. ὅστε ἔοικεν, ὃ ἐζητεῖ Σωκράτης συμβαίνειν· οὐ γὰρ παρούσης τῆς κυρίως εἶναι δοκοῦσης ἐπιστήμης, ἥτις ἐστὶν ἡ καθόλου, γίνεται τὸ πάθος· οὐ γὰρ ταύτης κρατεῖ ἡ ἐπιθυμία· ἀλλὰ τῆς κυρίας τῶν πράξεων, ἥτις ἐστὶν ἡ ἐλάττων καὶ ἡ περὶ τὰ καθήκαστα· ταύτην γὰρ διαφθείρει ὁ πράττων, ἥτις ἐστὶ περὶ τὰς πράξεις· καὶ αὕτη περιέλεται διὰ τὸ πάθος, οὐχ ἡ καθόλου.

b. 14. § 13. ἐζητεῖ] 'sought to establish' (Peters).

b. 17. § 14. τῆς αἰσθητικῆς] See Grant's note: he quotes Sext. Empir. *Adv. Math.* vii. 145 on the ἐπιστημονικὴ αἴσθησις of Speusippus, which is described as ἡ μεταλαμβάνουσα τῆς κατὰ τὸν λόγον (i. e. τὸν ἐπιστημονικὸν λόγον) ἀληθείας.

CHAPTER IV.

ARGUMENT.

Let us now determine the sphere of incontinence, strictly so called.

It is plain that continence and endurance, incontinence and softness, are relative to pleasures and pains.

Now the things which cause pleasure are either necessary, such as food,

¹ I have counted in *E. N.* v eight cases in which παρά and περί are confused by NC; and in two out of the four places in which παραγίνεται occurs (according to Grant's index) in the *E. N.*, περιγίνεται is the reading of a MS. or MSS.

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1147 b. 24. ἀπαλλάττεσθαι, καὶ βλαβερὰ μὲν σώματι βλαβερὰ δὲ ψυχῇ πρὸς τε φρόνησιν καὶ τὸ σωφρονεῖν, ἀρὰ γε ὀρθῶς οὐκ ἀναγκαῖα ἀν καλοῖτο;

For the Aristotelian use of ἀναγκαῖος, Kassow (*Forsch.* p. 22, note 1) compares *E. N.* i. 9. 7. 1099 b. 27, x. 6. 2. 1176 b. 2; *Pol.* 1333 a. 32, 1338 a. 13 and 32.

b. 28. ἔθεμεν] *E. E.* iii. 2, or *E. N.* iii. 10. When we use the term ἀκρατής simply by itself (ἀπλῶς) without qualifying addition, we signify the man who yields, after a struggle, to those bodily pleasures (of touch and taste), the deliberate pursuit of which constitutes ἀκολασία: but the man who pursues gain incontinently can be called ἀκρατής only with a qualifying πρόσθεσις—ἀκρατής κέρδους: also the man who does not succeed in controlling his anger is ἀκρατής with a πρόσθεσις—θυμοῦ.

Rassow (*Forsch.* pp. 21, 22) has called attention to the circumstance that § 5 goes over the same ground as § 2; and Cook Wilson (*Arist. Stud.* parags. 6–9 and 37–42) resolves the whole chapter into duplicate passages forming different versions. His resolution (Table II) is as follows:—

A § 1 (Introduction common to both versions).

B₁ § 2 ἐπεὶ . . . ἡδέων = B₂ § 5 ἐπεὶ . . . ὑπερβαλλεῖν.

C₁ τοὺς μὲν οὖν—οὐθείς = C₂ § 5 Διό . . . § 6 κακόν.

D₁ § 3 τῶν δέ—§ 4 λύπας εἶναι = D₂ § 6 ὥσπερ—φαμέν.

‘Both columns,’ says Cook Wilson p. 8, ‘begin with ἐπεὶ δέ, and it will be seen that either may be read after the first section of the chapter, A, with equal coherence both in syntax and subject-matter. Thus each of the two orders A B₁ C₁ D₁, A B₂ C₂ D₂ yields a chapter on the same subject as the other, and very like it.’ I entirely agree with this statement of the case; I also agree with Cook Wilson’s conclusion (parag. 42) that there are differences in style and subject-matter between the two columns which ‘point in the direction of diversity rather than of unity in the authorship.’ The discrepancy also between *E. E.* iii and *E. N.* iii on the one side, and this ch. on the other, with respect to the object of σωφροσύνη and ἀκολασία, is a point of great interest noticed by Cook Wilson (parag. 39) and I am inclined to think with him that it proves that this chapter is not by the writer either of *E. E.* iii or of *E. N.* iii.

b. 34. καὶ θυμοῦ] ‘The position of ἀκρασία θυμοῦ in ch. 4,’ says Cook Wilson (parag. 70), ‘is not without obscurity, for θυμός cannot be called φύσει αἰρετόν, φύσει τῶν καλῶν καὶ ἀγαθῶν, αἰρετόν καθ’ αὐτό, in the

same sense as the examples κέρδος, τιμή, νίκη: it is not classed with 1147 b. 34. these higher ἡδέα, and ἀκρασία in respect of it is associated with ἀκρασία in respect of them without explanation. Perhaps the oversight occasioned later the introduction of a separate proof in ch. vi that ἀκρασία θυμοῦ is not so blameworthy as ἀκρασία of bodily pleasures: and it is worth notice that § 3 (ch. 6. 1149 b. 19) adds, as corollary, the assertion that it is not properly (ἀπλῶς) ἀκρασία, without reference to the result of ch. iv, which may well have been thought insufficient.' The suggestion here made by Cook Wilson seems to be supported by a passage in *M. M.* ii. 6. 1202 b. 3—referred to by Rasso (*Forsch.* p. 47) in his discussion of the place of ch. 6 in *E. N.* vii (see below, note on vii. 6. 1, a. 24): ἔστιν γὰρ περὶ ἡδονᾶς καὶ λύπας τὰς σωματικὰς ὁ ἀπλῶς ἀκρατής.—δῆλον δὲ καὶ ἐστεῦθεν, ὅτι περὶ ταῦτα ἡ ἀκρασία· ἐπεὶ γὰρ ψεκτὸς ὁ ἀκρατής, ψεκτὰ εἶναι δεῖ τὰ ἰποκείμενα· τιμὴ μὲν οὖν καὶ δόξα καὶ ἀρχὴ καὶ χρήματα καὶ περὶ ὅσα ἄλλα ἀκρατεῖς λέγονται, οὐκ εἰσὶν ψεκτά, αἱ δ' ἡδοναὶ αἱ σωματικαὶ ψεκταὶ· διὸ εἰκότως ὁ περὶ ταύτας ἂν μᾶλλον τοῦ δέοντος, οὗτος ἀκρατής τελέως λέγεται· ἐπειδὴ δὲ ἐστὶ τῶν περὶ τὰ ἄλλα ἀκρασιῶν λεγομένων ἡ περὶ τὴν ὀργὴν οὕσα ἀκρασία ψεκτοτάτη, πότερον ψεκτοτέρα ἐστὶν ἡ περὶ τὴν ὀργὴν ἢ ἡ περὶ τὰς ἡδονὰς;—then follows a passage founded on *E. N.* vii. 6.

ὡς περ ἄνθρωπος ὁ τὰ Ὀλύμπια νικῶν ἐκείνῳ γὰρ . . . ὁμῶς ἕτερος ἦν] b. 35.
Bywater restores νικῶν from K^b, in place of Bekker's νενικηκώς. Cambr. is, so far as I know, the only MS. which agrees with K^b in giving νικῶν. I explain the passage as follows, making ἄνθρωπος a predicate—"The Olympionics" in the school-example—"The Olympionics is a man," will illustrate the distinction between the ἀκρατής ἀπλῶς and the ἀκρατής κατὰ πρόσθεσιν. "The Olympionics," though described generally as "a man," has also, *quod* "Olympionics," a notion of his own, which differs, slightly indeed, but yet differs, from the notion "man." Cf. *Pol.* iii. 2. 1276 b. 21 (quoted by Zell) τῶν δὲ πλωτήρων καί περ ἀνομοίων ὄντων τὴν δύναμιν (ὁ μὲν γὰρ ἐστὶν ἐρέτης, ὁ δὲ κυβερνήτης, ὁ δὲ πρῶρεὺς, ὁ δ' ἄλλην τινὰ ἔχων τοιαύτην ἐπωνυμίαν) δῆλον ὡς ὁ μὲν ἀκριβέστατος ἐκάστου λόγος ἴδιος ἐστὶ τῆς ἀρετῆς, ὁμοίως δὲ καὶ κοινός τις ἐφαρμόσει πᾶσιν. ἡ γὰρ σωτηρία τῆς ναυτιλίας ἔργον ἐστὶν αὐτῶν πάντων· τούτου γὰρ ἕκαστος ὀρέγεται τῶν πλωτήρων. The writer means that the man who is incontinent in relation to certain bodily pleasures is ἀκρατής without qualification, and the man who is incontinent in relation to money is ἀκρατής with that qualification, just as ἄνθρωπος, when unqualified, stands for ζῷον λογικόν

1147 b. 35. *θητόν*, but when qualified as *ὁ τὰ Ὀλύμπια νικῶν*, stands for *ζῷον λογικὸν θητόν ἀβλοφόρον*. So the Paragraph.—Ὁ μὲν οὖν πρὸς τὰ ἡδέα ὑπερβάλλον τὰ μὴ ἀναγκαῖα οὐ λέγεται ἀπλῶς χωρὶς προσθήκης ἀκρατῆς, ἀλλὰ ἀκρατῆς δόξης, ἢ ἀκρατῆς πλοῦτου, ὡς ἕτερος ἦν ἐκείνου τοῦ κυρίως καὶ ἀπλῶς ἀκρατοῦς, ὀνομαζόμενος δὲ ἀκρατῆς διὰ τινὰ πρὸς ἐκείνον ὁμοιότητα· καθάπερ διαφέρει ὁ ἄνθρωπος ὁ τὰ Ὀλύμπια νενικηκὸς τοῦ ἀπλῶς ἀνθρώπου· καὶ γὰρ εἰ καὶ μικρὸν ἐστὶ τὸ διάφορον αὐτῶν, ἀλλ' ὅμως διαφέρει, καὶ ἕτερός ἐστι διὰ τὴν προσθήκην. Clearly the parallel here is not an exact one: the Olympionics is called a *man*, because he has ὁλοκλήρως the nature of *man*, and is included within the class *man*: whereas the ἀκρατῆς κέρδους is not included within the class of the ἀκρατεῖς ἀπλῶς, but belongs to a class which is coordinate with it. Under the general notion of ἀκρατῆς fall (1) ὁ τῶν σωματικῶν ἡδονῶν ἀκρατῆς = ὁ ἀπλῶς ἀκρατῆς, and (2) ὁ κέρδους (ὅς τιμῆς) ἀκρατῆς: ὁ ἀπλῶς ἀκρατῆς does not include ὁ κέρδους ἀκρατῆς, as ὁ ἀπλῶς ἄνθρωπος includes ὁ τὰ Ὀλύμπια νικῶν. Rather, in the expression ἀκρατῆς κέρδους, the proper meaning of the term ἀκρατῆς is metaphorically extended, as the proper meaning of *man* (=human being) is extended in the expression 'wild *man* of the woods' (=ape). Nor do I think that the parallel between the ἀκρατῆς κατὰ πρόσθεσιν and the Olympionics would be made more strict if we accepted the incredible and plainly 'aetiological' story about the Olympian victor whose proper name was Ἄνθρωπος—see *Alex. Soph. Elench.* 316 a. 34 ὥσπερ καὶ ὁ Ὀλυμπιονίκης ἀνομάζεται αὐτὸ τοῦτο Ἄνθρωπος. *Alex. Top.* 262 b. 14 ἄνθρωπος ἦν γὰρ καὶ ἴδιον ὄνομα τοῦτο τοῦ Ὀλυμπιονίκου πύκτου οὐ ἐν ἠθικοῖς ἐμνημόνευσεν. *Suidas* s. v. ἄνθρωπος.—ἄνθρωπος τὸ προσηγορικὸν καὶ Ἄνθρωπος ἴδιον ὄνομα οὐ ἐν ἠθικοῖς Ἀριστοτέλης μνημονεῖ. *Eustath.* *Il.* l. p. 847 καὶ Ὀλυμπιονίκης τις κατὰ κυριωνυμίαν ἐκλήθη Ἄνθρωπος. *Mich. Eph. on Eth. Nic.* v. init. fol. 56 b ἢ δὲ προκειμένη ἀρετὴ (ἰ. ε. ἢ κατὰ μέρος δικαιοσύνη) δικαιοσύνη μὲν λέγεται καὶ ὀνομάζεται τῷ τῆς ὅλης δικαιοσύνης ὀνόματι· ὄνομα δ' ἴδιον οὐκ ἐκληρώσατο, ἀλλ' ὥσπερ ἐκεῖνος ὁ Ὀλυμπιονίκης οὐ Σωκράτης οὐ Πλάτων οὐκ Ἀριστείδης, ἀλλὰ τῷ κοινῷ πάντων ἀνθρώπων ὀνόματι ἄνθρωπος ὀνομάζεται, οὕτω καὶ ἡ παρούσα ἀρετὴ δικαιοσύνη καλεῖται τῷ κοινῷ τῆς ὅλης δικαιοσύνης ὀνόματι. *Ald. Schol.* on the present passage—ὥσπερ καὶ ἦν τις νικήσας εἰς τὰ Ὀλύμπια καὶ ἔκρινεν Ἄνθρωπος, ὥσπερ ὁ δεῖνα ἀκούει Σωκράτης ἢ Πλάτων, ἐκείνου γὰρ ὁ κοινὸς λόγος ἦτοι ὁ καθόλου ἄνθρωπος ἦτοι τὸ ζῷον λογικὸν θητόν μικρὸν διέφερε τοῦ ἰδίου ὀνόματος· ἄνθρωπος γὰρ καὶ οὗτος ἦκουε· μικρὰ γὰρ τις προσθήκη ποιῆ τὴν διαφορὰν· οἱ μέλλοντες γὰρ δηλῶσαι αὐτὸν καὶ διαχωρίσαι αὐτὸν ἀπὸ τοῦ καθόλου, προσετίθουν ὅτι ὁ ἄνθρωπος ὁ τὰ Ὀλύμπια νενικηκὸς.

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1148 a. 7. καὶ τῶν λυπηρῶν φεύγων] sc. τὰς ὑπερβολάς. Instead of understanding τὰς ὑπερβολάς, Ramsauer suggests the insertion of *ὅτιοῦν* after τῶν λυπηρῶν: 'ideo sunt ἀκόλαστοι et ἀκρατεῖς quod ipsam voluptatis absentiam tanquam miseriam ferre nequeunt' is the reason which he gives for his suggestion; and he refers to *E. N.* iii. 11. 5, and to § 4 of the present chapter (διὸ μᾶλλον . . . σφόδρα), and to vii. 14. 2 ἐναντίως δ' . . . τὴν ὑπερβολὴν. Similarly, Rassow (*Forsch.* p. 78) suggests the insertion of τὰ μέτρια before τῶν λυπηρῶν, comparing the καὶ φεύγει μετρίας λύπας of § 4 below. His words are—'Sehr auffällig ist τῶν λυπηρῶν. Der, welcher das Uebermass des Schmerzes flieht, wäre ein ἀκρατής? Unmöglich kann dies die Ansicht des Aristoteles sein. Jeder vernünftige Mensch flieht das Uebermass des Schmerzes, und nur der, welcher auch vor mässiger Unlust zurückschrickt, kann ἀκρατής genannt werden.' Rassow seems to find support for his suggestion in the fact that Bekker's τε before ἡδέων a. 7 (if genuine: Bywater omits it: it is not given by L^b, M^b, γ, CCC, or Ald.) is wrongly placed, as the sentence stands: τῶν ἡδέων and τῶν λυπηρῶν, on account of the different verbs φεύγων and διώκων in the two clauses, cannot, he thinks, be connected by τε—καί: but τῶν τε ἡδέων διώκων τὰς ὑπερβολάς, καὶ τὰ μέτρια τῶν λυπηρῶν φεύγων would be grammatically correct.

Ramsauer's *ὅτιοῦν* and Rassow's τὰ μέτρια seem to me to originate in a misunderstanding. The passage which Ramsauer quotes from iii. 11. 5 describes the ἀκόλαστος, not the ἀκρατής: and the passage which they both quote from vii. 4. 4 describes the ἀκόλαστος as avoiding μετρίας λύπας. But the character described here (§ 3) is not the ἀκόλαστος, but the ἀκρατής—ὁ μὴ τῷ προαιρεῖσθαι διώκων . . . καὶ φεύγων—the man who struggles with strong desires (pleasures and pains), and who succumbs διὰ τὸ ἐπιθυμεῖν σφόδρα—because he has been overtaken by a κενικὴ ἐπιθυμία καὶ περὶ τὰς τῶν ἀναγκαίων ἐνδείας λύπη ἰσχυρά (§ 4 below). It is not *ὅτιοῦν* τῶν λυπηρῶν, οἱ τὰς μετρίας λύπας, that such a person yields to, but τῶν λυπηρῶν τὰς ὑπερβολάς. The passage, again, which they both (and Bywater, *Contrib.* p. 55) quote from vii. 14. 2 is not, as I understand it, intended to describe the ἀκρατής, but the φαῖλος (of 1154 a. 16), i. e. the ἀκόλαστος, who is the subject of φεύγει—ἐναντίως δ' ἐπὶ τῆς λύπης οὐ γὰρ τὴν ὑπερβολὴν φεύγει, ἀλλ' ὅλας οὐ γὰρ ἐστὶ τῇ ὑπερβολῇ λύπη ἐναντία ἀλλ' ἢ τῷ διώκοντι τὴν ὑπερβολήν—'the ἀκόλαστος pursues excessive pleasure, and avoids, not only

excessive pain (as the ἀκρατής does), but any pain, even the absurd 1148 a. 7. pain of absent pleasure (see *E. N.* iii. 11. 5)—a pain which only an habitual follower of excessive pleasure, like himself, feels at all.' See note on vii. 14. 2. With regard to Rasso's remark—that every rational man avoids excessive pain, I would say—surely the ἐγερτής and καρτερικός deliberately endure it, and the ἀκρατής and μαλακός try to endure it, but fail.

ἀλίας καὶ ψύχους] Cook Wilson (paragraph 39) remarks that a. 8. the doctrine of the present passage, according to which the ἀκόλαστος has to do with the pains of heat and cold, 'disagrees as much with the Eudemian as the Nic. Ethics. According to Nic. Eth. iii. 10 and 11, the σώφρων and ἀκόλαστος have to do with pleasures and pains, but the pains are only those of unsatisfied desire for pleasure. Compare Nic. Eth. iii. 11. 5, 6. 1118 b. 28–1119 a. 5.

'But this chapter (4 of Book vii) gives as examples of pains within the sphere of σωφροσύνη and ἀκολασία, . . . πείνα, δίψα, ἀλία, and ψύχος. The last two of these are obviously excluded by the definition of Book iii: they are not pains caused merely by the desire for pleasure; it cannot be said of them τὴν λήπην ποιεῖ ἡ ἡδονή.

'Two other passages in *Nic. Eth.* iii show how much stress the author laid on the exclusion of all pains originating independently of imagined pleasure—ch. 10. § 1. 1117 b. 24–27, *i. e.* it is primarily of pleasure and only secondarily of pain, so far as pain may be "caused by pleasure"; ch. 12. §§ 1, 2. 1119 a. 21–25. If the account of σωφροσύνη in the Eudemian Ethics (iii. 2), which answers to the above part of Nic. Eth. iii, showed the same deviation from the Nicomachean version as Book vii. ch. 4, there would be some ground perhaps for referring the last to the author of Eud. Eth. ii. But on the contrary, the Eudemian account (ii. 2) follows the Nicomachean (iii. 10 and 11) in mentioning no other pain as object of σωφροσύνη and ἀκολασία save that of unsatisfied desire for pleasure: compare Eud. Eth. 1231 a. 30–32 καὶ οὐκ εἰσὶν οὐδὲ λέγονται ἀκόλαστοι οὐ γὰρ ὑπερβύλλουσι τῷ χαίρειν μᾶλλον ἢ δεῖ τυγχάνοντες καὶ λυπεῖσθαι μᾶλλον ἢ δεῖ μὴ τυγχάνοντες. The pains of ἀλία and ψύχη are referred to (Eud. Eth. 1229 b. 5) in the chapter on ἀνδρεία, and not in any connection with σωφροσύνη and ἀκολασία, but associated with the objects of ἀνδρεία and δειλία.' To the passages quoted above by Cook Wilson from the *Nic. Eth.* may be added *E. N.* iii. 10. 11 οὐ

1148 a. 8. *περὶ πᾶν τὸ σῶμα ἢ τοῦ ἀκολάστου ἀφή, ἀλλὰ περὶ τινα μέρη*: by this limitation the pains of *ἀλείαι* and *ψύχη* are excluded.

- a. 12. § 4. *μαλακοί*] ἀκόλουστοι, the reading of CCC, Ald. Sch., Heliod., Ald., is accepted by Coraes and Michelet: but *μαλακοί* is obviously right. The fact that people are popularly called (*λέγονται*) *μαλακοί* in relation to *σωματικά*, and not in relation to *κέρδος* &c. (*περὶ ἐκείνων οὐδεμίαν*), is a *σημεῖον* in favour of the correctness of our view that in the *σωματικά* we have a very definitely marked off and important class of objects or motives, which warrants us in distinguishing people who are *ἀκρατεῖς* in relation to them as *ἀκρατεῖς ἀπλῶς*, from people who are *ἀκρατεῖς* in relation to other objects or motives. Cook Wilson (*Arist. Studies*, p. 47) remarks that these words *καὶ γὰρ μαλακοὶ λέγονται* ignore the doctrine of ch. 7, in which *μαλακία* is technically distinguished from *ἀκρασία*, as the yielding (after a struggle) to pain, from the yielding (after a struggle) to pleasure. And on p. 73 he writes—‘The way in which *μαλακοί* occurs 1148 a. 12 (vii. 4. 4) is remarkable: it is said that the pains with which the *ἀκρατῆς ἀπλῶς* has to do are bodily, and a sign of this is that people are called *μαλακοί* for yielding to them: whereas according to ch. 7 . . . *μαλακοί* is *the proper name* for such characters. This difficulty admits of explanation. . . . It has been pointed out (parag. 39 β) that the third book of the Nic. Ethics and the Eudemian book corresponding associate *μαλακία* with cowardice, and not with *ἀκολασία*, and that there is no trace of the definite coordination (see ch. 7) of *καρτερία* and *μαλακία* with *σωφροσύνη*, *ἀκρασία* &c. The author of vii. 4. 4, though deviating in one respect from Eud. Eth. ii and Nic. Eth. iii (*i.e.* as to the painful motives which concern *σωφροσύνη* and *ἀκολασία*), has not advanced to the development of the theory of *μαλακία* found in ch. 7:’ he merely calls attention to the fact that the ignominious term *μαλακός* is applied where men yield to bodily pains, to show that such conduct is held specially bad, and belongs therefore to *ἀκρασία* proper, and not to *ἀκρασία κατὰ πρόσθεσιν*.’ I am not sure that it is safe to say, with Cook Wilson, that ‘the author of vii. 4. 4 . . . has not advanced to the development of the theory of

¹ ‘In Nic. Eth. iii. 10 and 11 there is no thought of separating the desire for pleasure and the pain of such desire as different motives, and constitutive of different characters, but they are clearly aspects of one and the same thing.’ Cook Wilson, *Arist. Stud.* p. 47.

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1148 a. 17. of the ἀκρατής in an intensified form, and become chronic. Such a man is after all more correctly conceived as acting ἐπιθυμῶν, than as acting προαιρούμενος: unless it be said that, since action breeds belief, he eventually acquires a false λόγος, or theory of life, in virtue of possessing which he may be conceived as acting προαίρουμενος—as deliberately choosing means to the end which that false theory of life holds up before him. This is the recondite sense, just now referred to, in which he may be said to act προαιρούμενος—ὁ μὲν γὰρ ἀκόλαστος ἄγεται προαιρούμενος, νομίζων δεῖ δεῖν (this is his theory of life) τὸ παρὸν ἡδὺ διώκειν vii. 3. 2. But after all it is his long-indulged craving for pleasure, rather than his false theory, which makes him act as he does. And in the sentence just quoted note the contradiction in the terms—ἄγεται—προαιρούμενος. Man is an ἀρχή in his προαίρεσις: it is by his ἐπιθυμίας that he is led—ἄγεται.

So much for the ordinary ἀκόλαστος—the ἀκόλαστος who once was ἀκρατής. But it perhaps ought to be admitted that there are also born ἀκόλαστοι—men in whom λόγος, or *conscientia*, was never effectively present to mar the pleasures of indulgence by its shadow; who never viewed these pleasures askance, as forbidden fruit, but always calmly, as pleasures; and so have been able early to make them objects of the nice comparisons and deliberate preferences and rejections of the connoisseur. Such men may be described as προαιρούμενοι with more correctness than the ordinary ἀκόλαστοι, or chronic weaklings, with whom the Seventh Book is, I believe, chiefly, if not exclusively, concerned.

διό] ‘The conjunction διό,’ says Cook Wilson (*Arist. Studies*, p. 73), ‘may of course be taken in its non-illative use, but even thus it must at least be equivalent to “and so,” and implies that the subject which it introduces has been in some way prepared for: but it is by no means prepared for, and succeeds most abruptly. The subject of the whole chapter is the distinction of the ἀκρατής ἀπλῶς from the ἀκρατής κατὰ πρόσθεσιν, which is wound up in § 4 by the statement that the ἀκρατής ἀπλῶς has to do with the same pleasures and pains as the ἀκόλαστος, ἑγκρατής, and σώφρων, and that the characters so associated differ as regards προαίρεσις: it is clear that the special depravity of that ἀκόλαστος who has little or no ἐπιθυμία is put in no sort of connection with this.’ I confess I cannot see any difficulty in taking διό closely with the words οἱ μὲν προαιροῦνται, οἱ δ’ οὐ προαιροῦνται, immediately preceding:—

the ἀκόλαστος is προαιρούμενος: and this is why (διώ) we ascribe 1148 a. 17. ἀκολασία rather to the man whose acts of indulgence are not attended at all, or not to any considerable extent, by ἐπιθυμία, than to the man whose acts are consequent upon strong ἐπιθυμία: the acts of the former, not being explicable by ἐπιθυμία, must be due to προαίεσις. Σημείον δέ· μᾶλλον γάρ might have taken the place of διὰ μᾶλλον without changing the sense of the passage.

It is to be observed that Cook Wilson, as quoted above, takes μᾶλλον with ἀκόλαστον=ἀκολαστότερον—he speaks of ‘the special depravity of that ἀκόλαστος who has little or no ἐπιθυμία.’ Similarly Ramsauer speaks ‘de diversis quasi gradibus τῆς ἀκολασίας’: Grant says ‘it is more intemperate to pursue luxury, &c., in cold blood than to do so under the influence of passion.’ Coraes has καὶ τοῦ ἀκολίστου ἀκολαστότερον, and Peters translates—‘And so a man who without desire or with only a moderate desire pursues excess of pleasure, and avoids even slight pains, should be called more profligate than one who, &c.’ This, I think, is wrong: the clause, as I understand it, means—‘And this is why ἀκολασία is ascribed to the man who, without desire, pursues excessive pleasures, rather than to the man who, &c.’ Degrees of ἀκολασία are not distinguished, but ἀκολασία is distinguished from ἀκρασία. The τοῦτον ὅστις a. 19 is the ἀκρατής. That this is the meaning of the passage is clearly shown by a comparison of it with what is probably its ‘duplicate’—vii. 7. 3 παντὶ δ’ ἂν δόξειε χείρων εἶναι, εἴ τις μὴ ἐπιθυμῶν ἢ ἡρέμα πράττοι τι αἰσχρόν, ἢ εἰ σφόδρα ἐπιθυμῶν, καὶ εἰ μὴ ὀργιζόμενος τύπτοι ἢ εἰ ὀργιζόμενος· τί γὰρ ἂν ἐποίει ἐν πίθει ὢν; διὸ δ’ ἀκόλαστος χείρων τοῦ ἀκρατοῦς. On the ‘duplicate’ character of vii. 4. 4 διὸ . . . ἰσχυρά and vii. 7. 3 παντί . . . ἀκρατοῦς, see Rassow, *Forsch.* p. 23 and Cook Wilson, *Arist. Stud.* p. 71.

§ 5.] ἐπεὶ κ.τ.λ.] A. ‘duplicate’ of vii. 4. 2: see note on vii. 4. a. 22. 2. 1147 b. 28.

Bekker and Bywater make τῶν γὰρ ἡδέων ἔνια φύσει αἰρετί a. 23, 24 parenthetical. I prefer to make τῶν γὰρ ἡδέων a. 23 . . . πρότερον a. 25 parenthetical, thus referring the examples χρήματα καὶ κέρδος κηὶ νίκη καὶ τιμὴ το τῶν τῷ γίνεαι καλῶν καὶ σπουδαίων a. 23 (=τῶν φύσει αἰρετῶν). The τὰ τῷ γίνεαι καλὰ καὶ σπουδαῖα οἱ τὰ φύσει αἰρετὰ of this section correspond to the αἰρετὰ καθ’ αὐτὰ of § 2: the ἐναντία τούτων were not mentioned in § 2: they are the φευκτά of chapter 5: while τὰ μεταξί—so called, I think, simply

1148 a. 22. because the present list is a threefold one, whereas that in § 2 was only twofold—answer to the ἀναγκαῖα of σωματικά of § 2. Rasso (Forsch. p. 79), followed by Bywater, inserts τῶν before τῷ a. 23, rightly, I think.

a. 28. πρὸς ἅπαντα δέ] Zell, Bekker and Ramsauer (Ramsauer reading δῆ) begin the apodosis here. Bywater (making διὰ ὅσοι a. 28 . . . μωραίνειν b. 2 parenthetical—and apparently following the Ald. Sch. in understanding the construction to be διὰ ὅσοι μὲν παρὰ τὸν λόγον κρατοῦνται . . . ψέγονται) seems to make the apodosis begin with μοχθηρία μὲν οὖν b. 2. That this is really the apodosis is clear, I think, from the ‘duplicate’ passage vii. 4. 2, in which the apodosis begins b. 31 with τοὺς μὲν οὖν πρὸς ταῦτα (i. e. τὰ αἰρετὰ καθ’ αὐτά).

a. 28. τῷ πῶς καὶ ὑπερβάλλειν] Bekker omits καὶ with K^b M^b; but καὶ (approved by Kassow, Forsch. p. 66) is necessary. The meaning is ψέγονται τῷ πῶς ἐπιθυμῆν ἦτοι τῷ ὑπερβαλλόντως ἐπιθυμῆν. L^b, O^b, NC, CCC, Cambr., B¹. 2. 3 give καὶ.

On the relation between § 2 and § 5 of this chapter Cook Wilson (*Arist. Stud.* p. 6) has the following remarks—‘§ 2 divides objects causing pleasure into two classes . . . § 5 gives the same under different phraseology. . . . The examples too of the first class in § 2 are repeated in § 5. . . . But § 5 adds a third class not found in § 2. . . . This amounts to a correction of § 2. In § 2 it is said of the αἰρετὰ καθ’ αὐτά that they admit of excess, implying that they are wrong in excess. . . . In § 5 the same thing is put in a clearer and better way: “it is not susceptibility to these, nor desire and liking for them which are bad, but a certain excess in them.” . . . The badness of ἀναγκαῖα of σωματικά when indulged in to excess is not stated in § 2; though half implied by the term ἀναγκαῖα, and asserted lower down in the same column (§ 3). In § 5 the fact is expressly mentioned. From these considerations it is evident that § 5 is not a mere recapitulation of § 2, for it contains more; that it is not a mere addition to § 2, for it contains the same matter as § 2: it is rather an entire reconstruction which makes § 2 quite unnecessary.’ Then on pp. 33, 34 he says—‘In subject-matter the second version, as already seen, expands the main statements of the first. The additions (in the second version) seem a true advance. . . . Of two versions of the same subject, the more advanced may be by the

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1148 a. 28. The meaning is—‘Those who pursue τὰ φύσει αἰρετά to excess are not μοχθηροί, i. e. ἀκόλαστοι—because their objects are not ἀναγκαῖα, οἷα σωματικά, but φύσει αἰρετά: and for the same reason (ὁμοίως § 6) they are not ἀκρατεῖς ἀπλῶς—their objects are φύσει αἰρετά, the excessive pursuit of which is φευκτόν but not strictly ψεκτόν, as in the excessive pursuit of τὰ σωματικά. They are, however, called ἀκρατεῖς καθ’ ὁμοιότητα.’ Ramsauer is of opinion that the reason stated—ὅτι φύσει τῶν αἰρετῶν ἕκαστόν ἐστι δι’ αὐτό—is not sufficient to prove μοχθηρία μὲν οὖν οὐδεμία περὶ ταῦτ’ ἐστὶ: it seems to me to be sufficient, if understood as above—‘their objects are φύσει αἰρετά, as recently distinguished from σωματικά—the objects of μοχθηρία οἷα ἀκολασία.’ On the words with which § 6 opens, Cook Wilson (p. 35) says—‘In § 2 the fact of the greater guilt in true ἀκρασία is clearly expressed in the sentence ἡ μὲν γὰρ ἀκρασίῳ ψέγεται οὐχ ὡς ἀμαρτία μόνον ἀλλὰ καὶ ὡς κακία τις: the corresponding phrase in § 6 ἡ γὰρ ἀκρασία οὐ μόνον φευκτόν ἀλλὰ καὶ τῶν ψεκτῶν ἐστὶν is much weaker and gets the author into a confusion, for here he makes ψέγεσθαι the differentia of the ἀκρατῆς ἀπλῶς from the ἀκρατῆς κατὰ πρόσθισιν, whereas above (πρὸς ἅπαντα δὲ καὶ τὰ τοιαῦτα καὶ τὰ μεταξὺ . . . ψέγονται) the term ψέγεσθαι is used of the error of both.’ I am inclined to think that, whereas the verb ψέγονται may be used popularly and vaguely, τῶν ψεκτῶν—‘the class of τὰ ψεκτά’—is a technical expression, and marks that severe censure which we pass οἷα ὑπερβολαί in σωματικά.

a. 34. Σάτυρος] The stories given by the Ald. Sch. and the Paraph. (different stories) are not worth transcription. There were kings of Bosphorus of this name. ISOC. τραπεζητικός 370 b. mentions Satyrus I. (B.C. 407–393) as continuing his father’s policy of favouring Athenian grain-shippers. See note on v. 5. 13, b. 8.

b. 7. § 6. περὶ ἕκαστον] Restored by Ramsauer, Susemihl and Bywater for Bekker’s περὶ ἑκάστου. ‘We use the term ἀκρασία by analogy, adding in each case what the ἀκρασία is in’—λέγουσι τὴν ἀκρασίῳ προσεπιτιθέντες τὸ ὅτι περὶ ἕκαστον.

CHAPTER V.

ARGUMENT.

There are things which are (1) naturally pleasant, either (a) generally, or (b) for certain kinds of animals and human beings; and (2) things which are not naturally pleasant, but (a) become pleasant for constitutions depraved by mutilation or habit, or (b) are pleasant for constitutions originally bad.

To the different sorts of 'pleasant things' enumerated under (2) will correspond different dispositions, which may be distinguished as brutish (e.g. cannibalism), as caused by definite diseases (thus it was mental disease which made the man eat his fellow-servant's liver), and as generally 'morbid' or due to perverted habit (e.g. eating earth, unnatural lust). In so far as he has, and gives himself up to, one of these dispositions, a man is outside the boundaries of what we call vice; for vice is relative to normal human desires; and in so far as he has one of these dispositions and keeps it under control, or is mastered by it, he is not 'continent' or 'incontinent' in the strict sense of the term, but in a qualified sense, just as we have seen that the man who controls his anger is 'continent' in a qualified sense. We must qualify the terms vice and incontinence when we use them in relation to the 'pleasant things' enumerated under (2), and speak of brutish or morbid vice, brutish or morbid incontinence.

Introductory Note.] This chapter goes on still further to limit the sphere of ἡ ἀπλῶς ἀκρασία. If a man have unnatural desires (whether (1) connate, or (2) induced by (a) disease, or (b) habit), and keeps them in check, or yields to them, he is not ἐγκρατής or ἀκρατής ἀπλῶς, but so κατὰ πρόσθεσιν—i. e. the unnatural desire which he checks or yields to must be specified (just as κέρδους &c. must be specified in the cases mentioned in ch. 4), for the terms ἐγκρατής and ἀκρατής, even in relation to σωματικά, are applied strictly (ἀπλῶς) only to the man whose desires are natural. As Grant says—'In states that are entirely morbid, whether originally so, or from the effects of an ill-regulated life, the distinctions of right and wrong are no longer applicable.'

§§ 1-8.] The writing of this chapter is very careless, and has 1148 b. 15. given much trouble to the critics (see Rasso, *Forsch.* pp. 79, 80, and Imelmann, *Obs. Crit.* p. 22 note); but the general meaning is plain:—Unnatural propensities are (1) θηριώδεις—bestial (e.g. cannibalism), exhibited, for the most part, by savages. These θηριώδεις ἔξεις are connate, belonging to the μοχθηρὰ φύσις of the

1148 b.15. race, or of the individual: (2) νοσηματώδεις—morbid propensities. These νοσηματώδεις ἔξεις are either (a) due to *supervening* disease, bodily or mental—αἱ δὲ διὰ (omit τε after διὰ with K^b L^b: see Kassow, *Forsch.* p. 67) νόσους γίνονται καὶ διὰ (insert διὰ with K^b: see Kassow, *l. c.*) μανίαν ἐνίοις κ.τ.λ.¹ § 3, b. 25—*cf.* below § 6, a. 11 οἱ δὲ διὰ νόσους, οἷον τὰς ἐπιληπτικὰς, ἢ μανίας νοσηματώδεις: or (b) νοσηματώδεις, in a specific sense, as being morbid *constitutional* states—ἄσοις μὲν οὖν φύσις αἰτία § 4, b. 31. From the νοσηματώδεις ἔξεις in this specific sense must be distinguished (c) or (3) αἱ ἐξ ἔθους—how closely, however, the two kinds are connected is shown, not only by the expression αἱ δὲ νοσηματώδεις ἢ ἐξ ἔθους § 3, b. 27, but by the difficulty of determining how far the ἔξεις adduced as examples (οἷον τριχῶν ἄρρεσιν § 3, b. 27-29) are due to constitutionally morbid conditions, and how far they are habits the formation of which could have been avoided. The expression § 4, b. 33 καὶ ἄσοι νοσηματώδως ἔχουσι δι' ἔθος seems to show that the distinction most prominent in the writer's mind was that between constitutionally morbid states, and *morbid* states produced by bad habits. The question—how far bad habits can result in *morbid* states, where there is no constitutional bias—he does not go into. He merely says, with special reference to the last instance in his list b. 27-29, that these unnatural propensities are due sometimes to φύσις, sometimes to ἔθος—τοῖς μὲν γὰρ φύσει τοῖς δ' ἐξ ἔθους συμβαίνουσιν § 3, b. 29.

The foregoing explanation of the distinctions intended in αἷται μὲν θηριώδεις b. 24—αἱ δὲ διὰ νόσους γίνονται b. 25—αἱ δὲ νοσηματώδεις—ἢ ἐξ ἔθους b. 27 renders unnecessary, I think, while it practically gives the same sense as, Kassow's conjecture (adopted by Susemihl) αἱ δὲ νοσηματώδεις ἢ (φύσει ἢ) ἐξ ἔθους (*Forsch.* p. 80), and also shows that the omission of ἢ before ἐξ ἔθους (K^b), approved by Imelmann (*Obs. Crit.* p. 22 note), is a blunder.

b. 33. § 4. ὡσαύτως δὲ καὶ ἄσοι νοσηματώδως ἔχουσι δι' ἔθος] ἄσοι is Bywater's correction for the τοῖς of the MSS. Kassow (*Forsch.* p. 80) says—'Gedanke und Sprache fordern gleicherweise den Accusativ: ὡσπύτως δὲ καὶ τοὺς νοσηματώδως ἔχοντας δι' ἔθος sc. οὐδεὶς ἂν εἴπειεν ἀκρατεῖς. Die äussere Unwahrscheinlichkeit dieser Aenderung leuchtet mir ein, aber ich habe mich vergeblich

¹ It may be noted that cannibalism, which seems to be the typical θηριώδης ἔξις, is instanced here as due to supervening disease or madness.

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- 1149 a. 13. § 7. ἐνίστε μὲν μόνον] Bywater adds μὲν with K^b and M^b. Although ἐνίστε μόνον stands in Cambr., there are signs of correction.
- a. 23. § 9. ἄλλο εἶδος ἀκρασίας] *i. e.* answering to other objects (the φύσει αἰρετά of chapter 4 and the φευκτά of chapter 5, as distinguished from the ἀναγκαῖα) there are states 'specifically distinct from ἀκρασία,' to which the term ἀκρασία is applied in an extended, not in its proper, sense.

CHAPTER VI.

ARGUMENT.

Incontinence in anger is not so disgraceful as incontinence in desires, for anger indeed lends an ear to reason, but misapprehends its instructions. Like a hasty servant who runs away to execute his master's orders without waiting to hear them out, anger rushes off to take reprisals, if reason or imagination only suggest that insult or slight has been offered—the mere suggestion is enough to make anger rush off with the inference that the insult must be forthwith avenged. Desire, on the other hand, rushes off to enjoy itself, if only reason or sense have said that something is pleasant. Thus anger serves reason in a manner, while desire does not. Again, anger is more constitutional, and even hereditary, than bad desires are, and therefore the man who yields to it is more excusable; also, anger is open—not, like desire, an insidious principle plotting against the just rule of reason. Moreover, it is pain which makes a man vent his anger; but pleasure which actuates the wantonness of desire; and wantonness rouses our just indignation rather than excesses of anger. Since, as we have seen, bodily pleasures are either normally human, or brutish, or morbid, it is with the first class only that temperance and intemperance are concerned; and the brutes are not to be described as either temperate or intemperate—except perhaps by a metaphorical transfer of the term.

Brutality is not such an evil as vice—for in brutality principle simply does not exist, has not been destroyed—but it is more formidable.

- a. 24. § 1. ὅτι δὲ καὶ ἥττον αἰσχρὰ ἀκρασία ἢ τοῦ θυμοῦ ἢ ἢ τῶν ἐπιθυμιῶν, θεωρήσωμεν] Apparently ἢ τοῦ θυμοῦ ἀκρασία, as occupying a peculiar position among the other kinds κατὰ μεταφορὰν λεγόμενα (see note on vii. 4. 2. 1147 b. 34), is selected here for comparison, 'from a moral point of view' (Grant *ad loc.*), with ἀκρασία proper: *cf.* especially *M. M.* ii. 6. 1202 b. 3 (quoted in note on vii. 4. 2. 1147 b. 34), a passage which Kassow (*Forsch.* p. 47) accounts for

by the desire of the writer to give some reason for discussing the 1140 a. 24. special question of the superiority of ἀκρασία θυμοῦ to ἀκρασία ἀπλῶς —ἢ τῶν ἐπιθυμιῶν, when already it had been established that the forms of ἀκρασία κατὰ πρόσθεσιν generally (ἀκρασία θυμοῦ being one of them) are better than ἀκρασία ἀπλῶς. I gather that Kassow regards vii. 6 as interpolated. Susemihl brackets it.

ἔοικε γὰρ ὁ θυμὸς ἀκούειν μὲν τι τοῦ λόγου, παρακούειν δέ] Cf. a. 25. *Probl.* KH. 3. 949 b. 13 διὰ τί ἀκρατεῖς λέγονται κατὰ τὰς ἐπιθυμίας μόνου, οὐσης τῆς ἀκρασίας καὶ περὶ τὴν ὀργήν; ἢ ὅτι ἀκρατῆς μὲν ἐστὶν ὁ παρὰ τὸν λόγον τι πράττων, καὶ ἀκρασία ἢ παρὰ τὸν λόγον ἀγωγή, εἰσὶ δὲ αἱ μὲν ἐπιθυμῖαι ὡς ἐπίπαν εἰπεῖν παρὰ τὸν λόγον, αἱ δ' ὀργαὶ μετὰ λόγου, οὐχ ὡς κελεύσαντος τοῦ λόγου, ἀλλ' ὡς δηλώσαντος τὸν προσηλακισμόν ἢ τὴν αἰτίαν. In *E. N.* vii. 3. 10 the ἀκρατῆς proper is said to act ὑπὸ λόγου in a sense, just as here the ἀκρατῆς θυμοῦ is said ἀκούειν τι τοῦ λόγου. Moreover even within the limits of the present passage λόγος is represented as influencing ἐπιθυμία no less than θυμὸς—ὁ μὲν γὰρ λόγος ἢ ἡ φαντασία 1149 a. 32 . . . ἀπόλαυσιν 1149 b. 1—although the writer proceeds immediately to contradict himself by adding 1149 b. 1 εἰσὶ δ' ὁ μὲν θυμὸς ἀκολουθεῖ τῷ λόγῳ πως, ἢ δ' ἐπιθυμία οὐ. The writing is thus very careless and confused, but the sense intended is true. The λόγος upon which ἐπιθυμία acts is the sophistry of the selfish passions in the ἀκρατῆς, or the hedonistic theory of the ἀκόλαστος, whereas that which prompts θυμὸς is 'an idea of justice, however wild that idea may be'—Grant *ad loc.* Anger and Desire, in themselves, are equally irrational; but Anger coexists with a certain consciousness of what is due between man and man, whereas Desire thinks only of its own gratification. 'Anger is a less immediately selfish passion than Desire. It is less debasing in the long run to the character.'—Grant *ad loc.* Cf. Plato, *Rep.* 440, where θυμὸς is said to aid λόγος against ἐπιθυμία. Resentment is roused by the thought of base and selfish acts: see note on iii. 8. 10, b. 23. Cf. also Butler, *Sermon 8 Upon Resentment*: 'The only way in which our Reason and Understanding can raise anger is by representing to our mind injustice or injury of some kind or other. . . . Since . . . it is necessary for the very subsistence of the world that injury and injustice and cruelty should be punished, and since compassion, which is so natural to mankind, would render that execution of justice exceedingly difficult and uneasy; indignation against vice and wickedness is . . . a balance

1149 a. 25. to that weakness of pity, and also to any thing else which would prevent the necessary methods of severity. Those who have never thought upon these subjects may perhaps not see the weight of this: but let us suppose a person guilty of murder or any other action of cruelty, and that mankind had naturally no indignation against such wickedness and the authors of it; but that every body was affected towards such a criminal in the same way as towards an innocent man: compassion amongst other things would render the execution of justice exceedingly painful and difficult and would often quite prevent it. And notwithstanding that the principle of Benevolence is denied by some and is really in a very low degree, that men are in great measure insensible to the happiness of their fellow creatures; yet they are not insensible to their misery, but are very strongly moved with it: insomuch that there plainly is occasion for that feeling which is raised by guilt and demerit, as a balance to that of compassion. Thus much may, I think, justly be allowed to resentment in the strictest way of moral consideration.'

b. 4. § 2.] φυσικαῖς] It is more excusable to follow those *δρέξεις* (*δρέξεις* is the generic term covering *θυμός* and *ἐπιθυμία*) which are *φυσικαί*, i. e. *κοιναί*, not *ἴδιοι καὶ ἐπιθετοί* (see *E. N.* iii. 11. 1). And *θυμός*, that is (*καί*) *ἡ χαλεπότης* (= *ὁ θυμός ὁ καθ' ὑπερβολήν*), is *φυσικώτερον* than *αἱ ἐπιθυμίαι αἱ τῆς ὑπερβολῆς*. *Θυμός* is, as Grant puts it, 'more constitutional,' and is even hereditary: as the *Ald. Schol.* says—*ὅτι δὲ φυσικὸς ὁ θυμός δῆλον διότι κατὰ γενεὰς ἐπακολουθεῖ*. Of course the writer's elsewhere-expressed view—that *ἡ ἀπλῶς ἀκρασία*, though concerned with *αἱ ἐπιθυμίαι αἱ τῆς ὑπερβολῆς*, is nevertheless confined within the limits of man's normal *φύσις*, must not be regarded as in any way modified by the present passage.

b. 8. ὁ ἀπολογούμενος] *Cf. M. M.* ii. 6. 1202 a. 25—he was acquitted!

b. 10. § 3. δολοπλόκου γὰρ κυπρογενοῦς] a lyric fragment of unknown authorship. The editors compare Sappho—

ποικιλόθρον' ἀθάνατ' Ἀφροδίτα
παῖ Διὸς δολόπλοκε, λίσσομαί σε.

κεστὸν ἱμάντα] 'the embroidered (*κεντεῖν* to stitch) girdle.'

b. 17. Ὅμηρος] *Il.* xiv. 214-217

ἢ, καὶ ἀπὸ στήθεσφιν ἐλύσατο κεστὸν ἱμάντα,
ποικίλον ἔνθα δέ οἱ θελκτήρια πάντα τέτυκτο'

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1149 b. 27. holds that the reference in the passage before us (vii. 6. 6) 'goes back to ch. 5. § 1, and gives colour to a suspicion that the book may have been put together out of separate pieces, and perhaps lectures, one of which may have commenced with the fifth chapter.' So Stahr (*Eth. Uebers.* p. 248, note)—'Der Ausdruck "zu Anfang" geht auf den Anfang der "heutigen" Vorlesung. Denn die Aristotelischen Schriften tragen durchaus den Character mündlicher Vorlesungen und Vorträge.' Without expressing any opinion on the point of 'the oral character' of the *Ethics*, I would say that I have little hesitation in referring the present εἶρηται κατ' ἀρχάς to vii. 1.

b. 31. διὸ καὶ τὰ θηρία κ.τ.λ.] The connexion seems to be this:— 'ἄνθρωποι are called σώφρονες or ἀκόλαστοι in respect of a relation subsisting between προαίρεσις and ἀνθρώπινα καὶ φυσικαί, not νοσηματώδεις καὶ θηριώδεις, ἐπιθυμίαι: hence τὰ θηρία are not described as σώφρονα or ἀκόλαστα (except sometimes metaphorically—e.g. when the members of a race distinguished by extraordinary voracity or lasciviousness are described as ἀκόλαστα): for (1) their ἐπιθυμίαι are θηριώδεις, and (2) they have no προαίρεσις.' In short, σωφροσύνη and ἀκολασία are ascribed to man with his normal human desires and rational principle, not to the irrational brutes with their brutish desires.

b. 32. τινι] If we read τινι it must go with ὑβρι—'remarkable for wantonness, it may be, or lechery' (Grant): but Bywater's suggestion τι is preferable.

b. 35. ἐξέστηκε τῆς φύσεως, ὡς περ οἱ μαινόμενοι τῶν ἀνθρώπων] Ramsauer is wrong, I think, when he makes τοιαῦτα γένη τῶν ζῴων the subject of ἐξέστηκε, and adds—'Cogitatur igitur generalis quaedam omnium animalium sana natura, a qua nonnulla genera (παρὰ φύσιν) degeneraverint.' The subject of ἐξέστηκε is the same as that of ἔχει in the line above—viz. τὰ θηρία—all brutes generally, and the meaning is that the normal condition of brutes resembles that of madmen in being without the consciousness of those limits which define the 'nature' of rational beings. The term φύσεως must be regarded as coloured by its proximity to προαίρεσις and λογισμὸν, just as φυσικαί above is coloured by its proximity to ἀνθρώπινα. The Paraph. brings this out in his version—οὐδαμῶς ἔχουσι (τὰ θηρία) λόγον ἀλλὰ πάντη τῆς φύσεως ταύτης ἀφίστηκεν ὡς περ οἱ μαινόμενοι τῶν ἀνθρώπων.

Similarly the Ald. Schol.—οὐ τοῦτο φησὶν ὅτι ἔξω τῆς φύσεως τοῦ 1149 b. 35. ἀλόγου ἐγένοντο, καὶ λογικὴν φύσιν ἔλαβον, ἀλλ' ὅτι τὰ θηρία εἰκόμασι τοῖς ἐξεστηκόσι τῆς φύσεως ἦτοι τυῖς μαινομένοις.

§ 7. ἔλαττον δὲ θηριότης κακίας] Rasso (Forsch. p. 81) reads 1150 a. 1. ἔλαττον δὲ κακὸν θηριότης κακίας, quoting the Paraphrast in support of the insertion—διὰ τοῦτο καὶ ἔλαττον κακὸν ἢ θηριότης τῆς ἀνθρωπίνης κακίας, εἰ καὶ φοβερώτερον.

ὁμοιον . . . θηρίου] Rasso (Forsch. p. 23) regards ὁμοιον a. 3. a. 3 . . . ἀρχὴ a. 5 and παραπλήσιον a. 6 . . . θηρίου a. 8 as duplicates. 'The last passage,' says Cook Wilson (Arist. Stud. p. 16), 'is evidently a bungler's work, for the comparison συμβάλλειν ἀδικίαν πρὸς ἀνθρώπον ἀδικον is an unfortunate substitute for ἄψυχον συμβάλλειν πρὸς ἔμψυχον, and can hardly be by the same author.' It is to be observed that the Paraphrast does not notice the clause παραπλήσιον a. 6 . . . κάκιον a. 7: his commentary is good—Διὰ τοῦτο καὶ ἔλαττον κακὸν ἢ θηριότης τῆς ἀνθρωπίνης κακίας, εἰ καὶ φοβερώτερον. Ἡ μὲν γὰρ ἀνθρωπίνη κακία τὸ βέλτιστον τῶν ἐν τῷ ἀνθρώπῳ διαφθείρει, δηλονότι τὸν λόγον, ἢ δὲ θηριότης οὐδαμῶς· οὐ γὰρ ἔχει λόγον· ὥσπερ καὶ τὸ ἄψυχον κακὸν ἔλαττον τοῦ ἔμψυχου κακοῦ· τὸ γὰρ κακὸν τὸ ἔχον ἀρχὴν, ἢ τις αὐτὸ κινεῖ, βλαβερώτερον τοῦ μὴ ἔχοντος· τὸ γὰρ ἀκίνητον κακὸν ἀνεκτότερον τοῦ κινουμένου κακοῦ, καθόσον ἔλαττον δύναται δρᾶν. ὥσπερ οὖν τὸ ἔμψυχον κακὸν χεῖρον τοῦ ἀψύχου, ὅτι ἔχει ἀρχὴν ἐν αὐτῷ τὴν ψυχὴν, ἢ τις αὐτὸ κινεῖ, οὕτω καὶ τὸ λογικόν, ὅτι τοῦ ἀλόγου μᾶλλον ἀρχὴν ἔχει, βλαβερώτερον καὶ χεῖρον· μυριοπλάσια γὰρ ἂν ποιήσειεν ἄνθρωπος κακὸς θηρίου. The Ald. Schol., however, comments on παραπλήσιον . . . κάκιον in a manner which amply bears out the truth of Cook Wilson's remark that 'the comparison συμβάλλειν ἀδικίαν πρὸς ἀνθρώπον ἀδικον is an unfortunate substitute for ἄψυχον συμβάλλειν πρὸς ἔμψυχον. The Scholiast's comment is to the following effect—'That the unjust man is hurtful in proportion to the degree in which he participates in Injustice: therefore Injustice, as the source, is worse than the unjust man (εἰ γὰρ τὸ προσεγγίζον τῷ πυρὶ θερμαίνεται, πολλῷ μᾶλλον ἔσται τὸ πῦρ θερμότερον). On the other hand, Injustice is a lifeless thing in itself, unable to hurt unless realised in the unjust man; and in this sense is not so bad as the unjust man.'

CHAPTER VII.

ARGUMENT.

The man who struggles against those pleasures and pains of touch and taste to which ἀκολασία and σωφροσύνη are related, may exhibit either more or less than the average power of coping with them. If he exhibit more than the average power of coping with the pleasures, we call him ἐγκρατής, more than the average power of coping with the pains, καρτερικός: if he exhibit less than the average power of coping with the pleasures, ἀκρατής, with the pains, μαλακός.

On the other hand, the man who does not struggle against the 'necessary' pleasures of touch and taste, but pursues them excessively, of deliberate choice, is ἀκόλαστος—that is 'incorrigible,' for he is not the man to feel regret for what he does, and so is incurable: opposed to him is the man who deliberately indulges too little in these pleasures, while the σώφρων occupies the mean. There is also the man who shuns bodily pains, not because he is conquered in a struggle with them, but deliberately. He is not exactly μαλακός—for μαλακία is the non-deliberate avoidance of pains—but it is a sort of μαλακία (ἡ 3 μαλακίας εἶδος μᾶλλον) which he exhibits. Those who do not act from deliberate choice are to be distinguished as the man who is led on by pleasure, and the man who shuns the pain of unsatisfied desire for pleasure. The man who does something wrong without the spur of any, or a strong, desire is plainly worse than the man who does it under the influence of a strong desire. So the ἀκόλαστος is worse than the ἀκρατής.

The real opposite of the ἀκρατής is the ἐγκρατής, and of the μαλακός the καρτερικός. Ἐγκράτεια is a higher quality than καρτερία, for to overcome (κρατεῖν) is better than merely to hold one's ground (ἀντέχειν). Under the head of μαλακία may be brought luxurious effeminacy, with its indolent valetudinarian ways. A man may be pardoned who after a struggle is overcome by powerful pleasures or pains—like Philoctetes or Cercyon in the play, or like Xenophantus, who could not restrain his laughter: but there is no excuse for one who, without constitutional or morbid weakness, yields to what most people can resist.

The man who is very fond of amusement is sometimes thought of as ἀκόλαστος, but he is really μαλακός, for amusement is relaxation from the pain of work, and it is this pain which the man who is very fond of amusement shirks.

There are two species of ἀκρασία—that of the impetuous 'melancholic' temperament, and that of the weak character. The weak man deliberates and then falls away from his resolve under the influence of passion, whereas the impetuous man does not deliberate and is therefore carried away by passion.

1150 a 11. § 1. διωρίσθη] sc. εἶναι οἱ γίνεσθαι (Zell).

ἔστι μὲν οὕτως ἔχειν . . . a. 16 χείρους] Grant has a good note.

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1150 a. 18. § 1, where we have ἐπιθυμίας καὶ φυγᾶς, and to the verbs διώκειν and φεύγειν which follow in the present §.

a. 19. ὁ μὲν τὰς ὑπερβολὰς διώκων τῶν ἡδέων † ἢ καθ' ὑπερβολὰς † ἢ διὰ προαίρεσιν] See Rasso (Forsch. p. 132): 'Sicher verderbt sind die Worte: καθ' ὑπερβολὰς ἢ διὰ προαίρεσιν. Nicht bloss ἢ, das man in ἢ oder εἰ hat ändern wollen, sondern auch καθ' ὑπερβολὰς ist anstössig. Was man erwartet, findet sich in der Handschrift M: καθ' ὑπερβολὴν καὶ διὰ προαίρεσιν. Sollte diese Lesart eine Correctur sein, so ist sie wenigstens wahrscheinlicher als die neueren Aenderungsvorschläge.' I think that Bywater's suggestion—ἢ ὑπερβολαί for ἢ καθ' ὑπερβολὰς—is good; the meaning, I take it, being that 'he pursues excessive pleasures, because they are excessive, that is (ἢ) deliberately'; but nothing would be lost to this meaning, it seems to me, by the simple omission of the words ἢ καθ' ὑπερβολὰς ἢ.

The Paraphrast's explanation of the text *as it stands* (the second ἢ apparently omitted) is satisfactory enough—ὁ μὲν τὰς ὑπερβολὰς διώκων τῶν ἡδονῶν, καὶ ἢ τὰς φύσει μεγάλας αἰεὶ ζητῶν ἡδονὰς, ἢ τὰς φύσει μετρίας ὑπερβαλλόντως ζητῶν, οὐχ ἐλκόμενος βιαίως πως ὑπ' αἰτῶν, ἀλλὰ μετὰ προαιρέσεως ἐπ' αὐτὰς τρέχων, οὐ δι' ἄλλο τι δόξαν, φέρε εἰπεῖν, ἢ κέρδος, ἀλλ' αὐτὰς δι' ἑαυτὰς, ἀκόλαστος.

a. 21. ἀνάγκη γὰρ . . . ἀμεταμέλητος ἀνίατος] These words seem out of place here, unless the suggestion thrown out by Grant be accepted, that they 'lay some stress on the etymology of the word ἀκόλαστος.' Ramsauer places them after ἀκρατοῦς § 3, a. 31.

a. 31. § 3. τῶν δὴ λεχθέντων τὸ μὲν μαλακίας εἶδος μᾶλλον, ὁ δ' ἀκόλαστος] These words refer to the distinction drawn in § 2 between ὁ μὲν τὰς ὑπερβολὰς διώκων τῶν ἡδέων . . . διὰ προαίρεσιν and ὁ φεύγων τὰς σωματικὰς λύπας μὴ δι' ἡτταν ἀλλὰ διὰ προαίρεσιν—i. e. the deliberate pursuit of bodily pleasure and the deliberate avoidance of bodily pain are distinguished, just as the non-deliberate yielding to pleasure is distinguished from the non-deliberate shrinking from pain. For non-deliberate action, according as it refers to pleasure, or to pain, there are appropriate technical terms—ἀκρασία and μαλακία: but there are no appropriate technical terms to mark the similar distinction which obtains in deliberate action, and the writer is obliged to retain the term ἀκολασία for the deliberate pursuit of pleasure, and to describe the deliberate avoidance of pain as 'rather a kind of μαλακία'—

μαλακίας εἶδος μᾶλλον,—not as μαλακία simply, for that term is techni- 1150 a. 31.
cally retained for the *non-deliberate* avoidance of pain: see Rasso
(*Forsch.* pp. 132, 133), who explains as above, and Cook Wilson
(*Arist. Studies*, paragr. 77, p. 69).

The intervention, however, of the passage τῶν δὲ μὴ προαιρουμένων
a. 25 . . . ἀκρατοῦς a. 31, which relates to non-deliberate action,
has induced many critics to suppose that τῶν δὲ λεχθέντων must be
the ἀκρατής and μαλακός, and hence that δ δ' ἀκόλαστος a. 32, the
reading of all MSS., should be δ δ' ἀκρατής: see Michelet *ad loc.*,
who reads and defends ἀκρατής, and Spengel (*Arist. Stud.* p. 213),
who proposes τὸ δ' ἀκρασίας. The intervention of τῶν δὲ μὴ προαιρου-
μένων a. 25 . . . ἀκρατοῦς a. 31 is certainly awkward, but I do not
think that there can be any serious objection to treating the passage
as a parenthesis, so far as its length is concerned. Of course, if the
passage is an interpolation, as Cook Wilson argues (*Arist. Studies*,
paragr. 78, p. 70), all difficulty disappears, τῶν δὲ λεχθέντων follow-
ing immediately after προαίρεσις § 2, a. 25. 'In the first place,' says
Cook Wilson, 'the sentence παντὶ δ' ἂν δόξειε κ.τ.λ. (a. 27) interrupts
in the most irrelevant manner a context which has for its object to
explain the characters of καρτερία and μαλακία, and in the second
place it is equally difficult to keep the first part of § 3 in the text,
because it makes the pain to which the μαλακός yields that of un-
satisfied desire, which by no means suits the description of the
μαλακός in §§ 5, 6, where the examples are certainly not of such
pains.' Holding the distinction drawn in § 3, δ μὲν a. 25—δ δέ
a. 26 . . . ὅστε διαφέρουσιν ἀλλήλων, to be between two sorts of
ἀκρασία proper (see paragr. 83)—that in which the motive is pleasure
and that in which it is pain caused by the absence of pleasure—not
between ἀκρασία and the μαλακία of which instances are given below
in § 5, Cook Wilson supposes the original locus of vii. 7. 3 τῶν δὲ
μὴ προαιρουμένων a. 25 . . . ἀκρατοῦς a. 31 to have been somewhere
after the passage ὅσπερ 1148 b. 9 . . . φημὶν b. 14, vii. 4. 6, which
and vii. 7. 3 τῶν δὲ μὴ προαιρουμένων a. 25 . . . ἀκρατοῦς a. 31 he
presents (Tab. IX) as fragments of a duplicate of vii. 4. §§ 3, 4 τῶν
δὲ περὶ 1148 a. 4 . . . ἰσχυρά a. 22, a passage—also presented by
him as somewhat fragmentary—in which the ἀκρατής is said to
yield to bodily pleasures *and to avoid bodily pains*. The bodily
pains enumerated in vii. 4. 3 are, it is true, those of πείνα, δίψα,
ἀλία, ψύχος, whereas those mentioned in vii. 7. 3 are only those of
unsatisfied desire: Cook Wilson notices this discrepancy between

1150 a. 31. vii. 7. 3 and vii. 4. 3, but does not find it serious as between *duplicate versions* (see *Arist. Studies*, paragr. 83); while between vii. 4. 6 and vii. 7. 3 τῶν δὲ μὴ προαιρουμένων . . . ἀκρατοῦς, which he presents as parts of the *same version*, there is no such discrepancy, vii. 4. 6 merely describing generally the objects of ἀκρασία as the same as those of ἀκολασία.

I offer no opinion as to the correctness of Cook Wilson's view that the original locus of vii. 7. 3 τῶν δὲ μὴ προαιρουμένων . . . ἀκρατοῦς is after vii. 4. 6. I limit myself to saying that, with Kassow (*Forsch.* p. 23), I think that the whole passage ἐπεὶ 1150 a. 16 . . . ἀκόλαστος a. 32, vii. 7. §§ 2, 3 interrupts the sense, being a repetition (especially in the latter part of § 3) of what has been said before in vii. 4. §§ 1-4.

a. 32. § 4.] ἐγκρατής is the proper opposite of ἀκρατής, because ἐγκρατής involves τὸ κρατεῖν (and ἀκρατής, τὸ κρατεῖσθαι); and καρτερικός is the proper opposite of μαλακός, because τὸ καρτερεῖν involves τὸ ἀντέχεσθαι—'bearing up' against the pressure to which the μαλακός, or 'soft' man, yields. There is no value in the distinction drawn here between the ἐγκρατής and the καρτερικός, on the ground of the difference between 'victory' and 'bearing up.' It may surely be said that the ἐγκρατής 'bears up' against pleasure, and that the καρτερικός is 'victorious over' pain; at any rate, both succeed in *acting well*, one in spite of pleasure, the other in spite of pain: the καρτερικός is not fairly distinguished from the ἐγκρατής merely by the possession of the negative virtue of 'bearing up.' If he 'bears up,' it is in order to act well.

Cook Wilson (*Arist. Studies* pp. 17, &c., and pp. 45, &c.) regards § 4 as part of a version parallel to § 1 (see Table IV)—'In § 1 the relation to one another of the ἀκρατής, μαλακός, ἐγκρατής, and καρτερικός is determined. The first two of these yield (ἡττᾶσθαι) to the bad impulse, but for the ἀκρατής, this is given by pleasure, for the μαλακός by pain. The last two agree so far as both overcome (κρατεῖν) the bad impulse, and differ, like the first two, in its nature. Κρατεῖν then is common to the ἐγκρατής and καρτερικός, ἡττᾶσθαι to the μαλακός and ἀκρατής. This is contradicted by § 4, according to which κρατεῖν belongs to the ἐγκρατής alone, and not to the καρτερικός, whose action is mere ἀντέχειν: and this difference is made a reason for preferring the former to the latter, because κρατεῖν is better than μὴ ἡττᾶσθαι. Two such opposite views cannot have been intended

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1150 a. 82. of representing the *καρτερικός* as inferior to the *ἐγκρατής* in not achieving 'victory'; but I do not see why the writer of § 1 should be deemed incapable of falling into this error, which, after all, does not come into conflict with anything stated in § 1. As I read it, § 1 only says that the *ἐγκρατής* and *καρτερικός* are stronger (*κρείττους*) and the *ἀκρατής* and *μαλακός* weaker (*ἥττους*) than the average man, where pleasures and pains are concerned.

If I have explained correctly the nature of the appeal to etymology made in § 4, Cook Wilson's conjecture (*Arist. Studies*, p. 70) ἀντίκειται δὲ τῷ μὲν ἀκρατεῖ ὁ μαλακός, τῷ δὲ ἐγκρατεῖ ὁ καρτερικός cannot be accepted.

b. 5. § 8. ὁμοίως δ' ἔχει καὶ περὶ ἐγκράτειαν καὶ ἀκρασίαν] *καρτερία* and *μαλακία* are relative to ἡ τῶν πλείστων ἕξις: so also are *ἐγκράτεια* and *ἀκρασία*: then follow explanatory remarks—οὐ γὰρ εἴ τις κ.τ.λ., which concern both *ἀκρασία* and *μαλακία*, as is plain from the words ἡδονῶν ἡττᾶται ἢ λυπῶν b. 7.

b. 9 Θεοδέκτου] Theodectes was a rhetorician and tragic poet, often mentioned and quoted by Aristotle—*e.g.* *Rhet.* ii. 23. 1400 a. 27 as the author of a piece called the *Ajax*: *Rhet.* ii. 23. 1397 b. 3 of an *Alcmaeon*: *Rhet.* ii. 24. 1401 a. 35 of an *Orestes*: *Rhet.* ii. 23. 1399 a. 8 of a *Socrates*: *Pol.* i. 2. 1255 a. 36 of a *Helené*. The *Rhetoric* of Theodectes (probably founded on Aristotle's lectures) is alluded to in *Rhet.* iii. 9. 1410 b. 2 αἱ δ' ἀρχαὶ τῶν περιόδων σχεδὸν ἐν τοῖς Θεοδεκτείοις ἐξηρίθμηνται. He was a native of Phaselis in Pamphylia, but spent most of his life at Athens, where he was the pupil of Isocrates and Aristotle (see Teichmüller, *Literarische Fehden*, pp. 260 and 266: he deserted Isocrates for Aristotle: and, in fact, seems to have put Aristotle in possession of some of the secrets of Isocrates' rhetorical teaching). Aristotle evidently thought very highly of him. The writer of the *Rhet. ad Alex.* 1421 b. 2 alludes to an Aristotelian rhetorical treatise with which the name of Theodectes was associated—ἐν ταῖς ὑπ' ἐμοῦ τέχναις Θεοδέκτη γραφείσαις. He seems to have died at Athens: see Plut. (?) *Oratorum vitæ, Isocrates*, ἐμαθήτευσεν δ' αὐτῷ . . . καὶ Θεοδέκτης ὁ Φασηλίτης ὁ τὰς τραγωδίας ὑστερον γράψας, οὗ ἐστὶ τὸ μνημα ἐπὶ τῆς Κυματίων πορευομένοις, κατὰ τὴν ἱερὰν ὁδὸν τὴν ἐπ' Ἐλευσίαν, ταυτὸν κατεργεῖται. With regard to the *Philoctetes* mentioned here the Ald. Schol. has the following:—ὁ Θεοδέκτης τραγικός ἦν καὶ παράγει τῆς χεῖρας δεδηγμένον τὸν Φιλοκλήτην ὑπὸ ὄψεως καὶ μέχρι μὲν πολλοῦ καὶ ἀστένεως

πρὸς τὰς λύπας καὶ τοὺς πόνους, ὕστερον δὲ ἠττήθη καὶ ἐβόα· κόψατε τὴν 1150 b. 9. ἔμην χεῖρα. Aspasius (p. 133. 6. Heylbut) has:—ὅλον εἴ τις ὡσπερ ὁ παρὰ τῷ Θεοδέκτῃ Φιλοκτήτης ὑπὸ τῆς ἔχως πεπαρμένος κρύπτειν βουλόμενος, τοὺς περὶ τὸν Νεοπτόλεμον μέχρι μὲν τινος ἀνέχει, ὕστερον δ' οὐχ ὑπομένων τὸ μέγεθος τῶν ἀλγηδόνων φανερὸς γίνεται.

ὁ Καρκίνου ἐν τῇ Ἀλόπῃ Κερκύων] There were two tragic poets called Carcinus, one an Athenian, the other an Agrigentine. In *Rhet.* iii. 16. 1417 b. 18 'the *Oedipus* of Carcinus' is mentioned: in *Rhet.* ii. 23. 1400 b. 9, the *Medea*: *Poet.* 16. 1454 b. 23, the *Thyestes*: and in *Poet.* 17. 1455 a. 26, the *Amphiaraus* (?). In this last passage Aristotle refers to a blunder in the acting of the piece, which displeased the spectators very much—σημείον δὲ τούτου ὁ ἐπιτιμᾶτο Καρκίνου· ὁ γὰρ Ἀμφιάραος ἐξ ἱεροῦ ἀνήει, ὁ μὴ ὁρῶντα τὸν θεατὴν ἐλάνθανεν, ἐπὶ δὲ τῆς σκηπῆς ἐξέπεισε, δυσχεραζάντων τοῦτο τῶν θεατῶν. From this passage we may infer that the play mentioned was acted at Athens, and that its author was the Athenian Carcinus. We may assume that in the other places where Carcinus is mentioned by Aristotle the Athenian dramatist¹ is intended. With regard to the *Alopé*, the Ald. Schol. has the following:—ὁ Κάρκινος τραγικός ἦν ὁ δὲ Κερκύων εἶχε θυγατέρα τὴν Ἀλόπην, μαθὼν δὲ ὅτι ἐμοιχεύθη ἢ αὐτοῦ θυγάτηρ Ἀλόπη, ἠρώτησεν αὐτὴν τίς ἦν ὁ μοιχεύσας, λέγων· εἴ μοι τοῦτο ἀν εἶπαις, οὐδ' ὄλωσ ἀν λυπηθῶ. εἶτα εἰπούσης τῆς Ἀλόπης τὸν αὐτὴν μοιχεύσαντα, οὐκ ἔτι ὁ Κερκύων ὑπὸ τῆς λύπης ἔφερε ζῆν, ἀλλὰ καὶ τὸ ζῆν ἀπελέγετο. Cf. Nauck, *Fragm. Trag.* p. 619: and for a discussion of the myth of Kerkyon and Alopé, as represented in art, see Miss J. E. Harrison's *Introductory Essay to Mythology and Monuments of Ancient Athens*, pp. cv-cix.

Ξενοφάντῳ] Alexander is said to have had a musician of this name, b. 12. who may have been known to Aristotle: see Seneca, *de Ira* ii. 2, quoted by Zell—'Alexandrum aiunt Xenophanto canente manum ad arma misisse.'

ἀλλ' εἴ τις] *i. e.* οὐ θαυμαστόν εἴ τις ἰσχυρῶν ἡδονῶν ἢ λυπῶν ἠττᾶται (b. 7), ἀλλὰ θαυμαστόν εἴ τις πρὸς δὲ οἱ πολλοὶ δύναται ἀντίχειν, τούτων ἠττᾶται.

ἐν τοῖς Σκυθῶν βασιλεῦσιν] It is not necessary to suppose with b. 14. many commentators, that the reference here is to the infirmity

¹ There was a comic Carcinus too: he is mentioned by Aristophanes, *Nub.* 1261, *Pax* 781.

1150 b. 14. mentioned in Herod. i. 105. Nor do I find, in the detailed account given by Hippocrates (*περὶ δέρων ὑδάτων τόπων* 21, 22, ed. Littré, vol. ii. pp. 74 sqq.) of the physique of the Scythians, anything answering to the *μαλακία* of the present chapter, which is *περὶ λύπας*. The *θεία νοῦσος* is indeed said by Hippocrates to attack the richer classes especially, but it has nothing in common with the *μαλακία* here mentioned.

b. 15. καὶ ὡς τὸ θῆλυ πρὸς τὸ ἄρρεν διέστηκεν] The point is the natural inferiority of women in the power of bearing up under pain.

b. 17. § 7. ἡ γὰρ παιδιὰ κ.τ.λ.] The *παιδιώδης*—the man given up to amusement—is thought to be *ἀκόλαστος*, but is really *μαλακός*, for *παιδιά* is an *ἀνεσις πόνων*. This relaxation from *πόνος* the *παιδιώδης* pursues excessively. He is therefore *μαλακός*, or too fond of avoiding *πόνος*, not *ἀκόλαστος*, given up to *ἡδονή*. The true use of *παιδιά* is given in *E. N.* x. 6. 6 *παίζειν δ' ὅπως σπουδάξῃ, κατ' Ἀνάχαρσιν, ὀρθῶς ἔχειν δοκεῖ*.

b. 19. § 8. οἱ μὲν . . . οἱ δέ] οἱ μὲν refers to *ἀσθένεια*, and οἱ δέ to *προπέτεια*. Cf. *M. M.* ii. 6. 1203 a. 30 *ἔστι δὲ καὶ τῆς ἀκρασίας δύο εἶδη, ἡ μὲν προπετική τις καὶ ἀπροκόητος καὶ ἐξαιφνης γινομένη (οἷον ὅταν ἴδωμεν καλὴν γυναῖκα, εὐθέως τι ἐπάθομεν, καὶ ἀπὸ τοῦ πάθους ὀρμὴ ἐγένετο πρὸς τὸ πρᾶξαι τι ἂν ἴσως οὐ δεῖ), ἡ δ' ἑτέρα οἷον ἀσθενική τις, ἡ μετὰ τοῦ λόγου οὖσα τοῦ ἀποτρέποντος. ἐκείνη μὲν οὖν οὐδ' ἂν λίαν δόξειεν εἶναι ψεκτὴ· καὶ γὰρ ἐν τοῖς σπουδαίοις ἡ τοιαύτη ἐγγίνεται, ἐν τοῖς θερμοῖς καὶ εὐφυέσιν ἡ δὲ ἐν τοῖς ψυχροῖς καὶ μελαγχολικοῖς, οἱ δὲ τοιοῦτοι ψεκτοί*.

b. 22. ἔνιοι γάρ κ.τ.λ.] This clause is added to show the value of *τὸ βουλευσασθαι*, which is absent in *προπέτεια*. The implication is that the *προπετεῖς*, as distinguished from the *ἀσθενεῖς*, are strong enough to abide by the results of deliberation, if they deliberated at all, which they do not.

προγαργαλίσαντες] It seems to me that we must supply *ἄλλου*, not (as Zell does) *ἑαυτούς*, with *προγαργαλίσαντες*: and understand the reference to be to a 'tickling match,' in which the aggressor has the advantage. The reading of L^b, M^b, CCC, B¹, NC, Asp., Hel., is *προγαργαλισθέντες*: cf. *Probl.* ΛΕ. 6. 965 a. 11 (quoted by the editors) *διὰ τί αὐτὸς αὐτὸν οὐθεὶς γαργαλίζει; ἢ ὅτι καὶ ὑπ' ἄλλου ἦττον, εἰὰν προαίσθηται, μᾶλλον δ', ἂν μὴ ὀρᾷ; ὥσθ' ἥκιστα γαργαλισθήσεται, ὅταν μὴ λαυθάνῃ τοῦτο πάσχων· ἔστι δὲ ὁ γέλωσ παρακοπή τις καὶ ἀπάτη*.

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CHAPTER VIII.

ARGUMENT.

The ἀκόλαστος, as we said, is not the man to repent of what he has done; but the ἀκρατής is always ready to repent. Hence it is not the ἀκρατής, as was suggested in 2. §§ 10, 11, but the ἀκόλαστος who is incurable. 'Ακολασία is like a chronic disease, such as dropsy or consumption; ἀκρασία like a temporary seizure. In short they differ generically—ἀκολασία is present in its subject without his knowledge, but the ἀκρατής knows that he is ἀκρατής.

Of the two species of ἀκρασία, that of the impetuous character is the better.

The ἀκόλαστος and the ἀκρατής are then distinct characters, the former acting as he does from deliberate choice, the latter acting as he does against deliberate choice. What they do, however, is much the same: as 'the Milesians are not unintelligent, but do the things that unintelligent people do,' so the ἀκρατής is not ἀκόλαστος, but does the things that the ἀκόλαστος does. But since the character of the ἀκρατής is such that he follows bodily pleasures immoderately without thinking it proper to do so, whereas the ἀκόλαστος thinks that it is proper to follow them because it is his character to follow them, our conclusion must be that it is the ἀκρατής, and not the ἀκόλαστος, who can be easily induced to 'think differently'—the ἀκρατής may still be reformed, because he still has the Principle of good conduct within him—that Principle which virtue (as in the σώφρων) preserves intact, and vice (as in the ἀκόλαστος) destroys—the good end which in conduct is the principle, as the assumptions are the principles in mathematics: in mathematics it is not a process of reasoning which leads to principles; so, in conduct it is not reasoning of any kind, but virtue, natural or acquired by habit, which gives a right view of the Principle. The σώφρων, then, has the right view, as the ἀκόλαστος has a false view; while the ἀκρατής, though constrained by passion to follow bodily pleasures immoderately, is not constrained by it to believe that it is proper to do so. He is not wholly bad; for that which is best—Principle—is alive in him. Opposed to the ἀκρατής is the ἐγκρατής, in whom reason prevails against passion.

1150 b. 29. § 1.] The writer now passes naturally from οἱ μὴ ἐμμένοντες (ch. 7. § 8) to the ἀκόλαστος—ἐμμένει γὰρ τῇ προαιρέσει.

ὡσπερ ἐλέχθη] A reference (bracketed by Susemihl) to ch. 7. § 2. 1150 a. 21 ἀνάγκη γὰρ τοῦτον μὴ εἶναι μεταμελητικόν, ὅστ' ἀνίατος ὁ γὰρ ἀμεταμέλητος ἀνίατος—a clause which (as noted *ad loc.*) comes in awkwardly in its context.

b. 31. ἠπορήσαμεν] Ch. 2. §§ 10, 11. The appropriate conception μεταμελητικόν εἶναι solves the ἀπορία which was caused by the inappropriate conception μεταπεισθῆναι ἂν ch. 2. §§ 10, 11. The

ἀκρατής, after he has gratified the desire of the moment, ceases to 1150 b. 31. look back upon the gratification with the same satisfaction with which he regarded it before he effected it; the idea of the desire is now weak, and the sense of the harm done by its gratification proportionally strong. This means that he now 'regrets' that he has gratified the desire. But the *ἀκόλαστος* acts under the habitual influence of desires so comparatively feeble, that if the ideas of them occur to his mind at all after gratification, they must occur with a vividness little inferior to that which they possessed before gratification. If it seemed good to gratify them then, it now seems good to have gratified them. This means that the *ἀκόλαστος* does not feel 'regret.' Indulgence has become so habitual to him, that it is no longer, in each case, accompanied and followed by the consciousness of a system of life which is being sacrificed. Acts of indulgence are no longer regarded as involving the agent in a serious responsibility, but are performed as it were mechanically, and in unconsciousness of all but their momentary pleasure. Thus *ἡ μὲν κακία λανθάνει, ἡ δ' ἀκρασία οὐ λανθάνει* 1150 b. 36— explained by the Ald. Schol. *ἡ μὲν κακία ἦτοι ἡ ἀκολασία λανθάνει ἑαυτήν οὐ γινώσκει γὰρ ὅτι τὸ μοιχεύειν κακὸν ἐστὶ, ἀλλ' ὡς ἀγαθὸν αὐτὸ οἶεται ἡ δ' ἀκρασία οὐ λανθάνει, ἦτοι οὐκ ἀγνοεῖ ὅτι τὸ μοιχεύειν κακὸν ἐστὶ.*

§ 2.] Cook Wilson (*Arist. Studies*, pp. 25 and 66) regards this § 1151 a. 1. as interrupting the line of thought begun in § 1, and pursued in § 3. Grant, on the other hand, says—'the thread of reasoning goes on continuously from the end of the preceding chapter, and so there is nothing remarkable in the writer's now reverting to the two kinds of incontinence, as if he had never digressed from discussing them.' I am inclined to endorse Grant's view, which seems to agree practically with that of Ramsauer—'Adjunguntur hæc (a. 1-5) haud alieno quidem loco, sed tamen ita ut unâ istâ sententiâ ab eâ disputatione quae per reliquum caput obtinetur devertatur. Ita vero jam agitur, ut nisi et præcesserit 1150 b. 19-28 et eodem respiciatur verba vix intellegi possint.' Although § 2 opens rather awkwardly with *αὐτῶν δὲ τούτων*, which are not the *ἀκόλαστος* and *ἀκρατής* as might perhaps be supposed, but the *ἀκρατεῖς* themselves (*οἱ ἐκστατικοί* being the *προπετεῖς*, and *οἱ μὴ ἐμμένοντες* the *ἀσθενεῖς* of ch. 7. § 8), I cannot think that its subject is out of place. Section 1 has solved the old *ἀπορία* of ch. 2. §§ 10, 11 by pointing out that the *ἀκόλαστος* sticks to his bad principle

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1151 a. 16. Ὅσπερ ἐν τοῖς μαθηματικοῖς αἱ ὑποθέσεις] ὑποθέσεις in the sense of the θέσεις, or peculiar ἀρχαί, of mathematics which are ὁρισμοί, is not in accordance with strict Aristotelian usage. According to the doctrine of the *Απ. Post.* the θέσεις, or immediate principles, of a particular science (as distinguished from the ἀξιώματα or immediate principles necessary to all sciences) are either ὑποθέσεις or ὁρισμοί. Ὑποθέσεις are θέσεις which assert existence or non-existence, while ὁρισμοί are θέσεις which state formal essence. Mathematical science has, as its peculiar ἀρχαί, θέσεις of the latter kind, *i. e.* θέσεις which are *ποὶ* ὑποθέσεις, but ὁρισμοί. See *Απ. Post.* i. 2. 72 a. 14 Ἄμεσου δ' ἀρχῆς συλλογιστικῆς θέσιν μὲν λέγω ἣν μὴ ἔστι δεῖξαι, μηδ' ἀνάγκη ἔχειν τὸν μαθησόμενον τι· ἣν δ' ἀνάγκη ἔχειν τὸν ὄτιον μαθησόμενον, ἀξίωμα· ἔστι γὰρ ἓνα τοιαῦτα· τοῦτο γὰρ μάλιστ' ἐπὶ τοῖς τοιούτοις εἰσθαμεν ὄνομα λέγειν. Θέσεως δ' ἡ μὲν ὁποτερονοῦν τῶν μορίων τῆς ἀπεφάνσεως λαμβάνουσα, ὡς λέγω τὸ εἶναι τι ἢ τὸ μὴ εἶναι τι, ὑπόθεσις, ἡ δ' ἀπεν τούτου ὁρισμός. Ὁ γὰρ ὁρισμός θέσις μὲν ἔστι· τίθεται γὰρ ὁ ἀριθμητικὸς μονάδα τὸ ἀδιαίρετον εἶναι κατὰ τὸ ποσόν· ὑπόθεσις δ' οὐκ ἔστι· τὸ γὰρ τί ἔστι μονάς καὶ τὸ εἶναι μονάδα οὐ ταῦτόν. See also *Απ. Post.* ii. 7. 92 b. 15 τί μὲν γὰρ σημαίνει τὸ τρίγωνον ἔλαβεν ὁ γεωμέτρης ὅτι δ' ἔστι δεικνύσει—on which Themistius has (fol. 10 a. vol. i. p. 77, ed. Spengel) λαμβάνοντες τί σημαίνει τὸ τρίγωνον ὅτι περιέχεσθαι ὑπὸ τριῶν εὐθειῶν, οὕτω δεικνύουσιν ὅτι ἔστι, συνιστάντες αὐτὸ ἐκ τριῶν εὐθειῶν: see also *Απ. Post.* i. 10. 76 b. 35 οἱ μὲν οὖν ὄροι οὐκ εἰσὶν ὑποθέσεις· οὐδὲν γὰρ εἶναι ἢ μὴ εἶναι λέγονται . . . τοὺς δ' ὄρους μέσον ξυρίεσθαι δεῖ. τοῦτο δ' οὐχ ὑπόθεσις, εἰ μὴ καὶ τὸ ἀκοίειν ὑπόθεσιν τις φήσειεν εἶναι. Accordingly, in the passage before us (*E. N.* vii. 8. 4), if the ὁρισμοί of mathematics are meant, the employment of the term ὑποθέσεις to convey the meaning is against strict Aristotelian usage.

Grant observes that the term ὑπόθεσις is used in precisely the same way in the *E. E.* as here—viz. *E. E.* ii. 10. 1227 a. 8 περὶ μὲν τοῦ τέλους οὐθεὶς βουλευέται, ἀλλὰ τοῦτ' ἔστιν ἀρχὴ καὶ ὑπόθεσις, ὡσπερ ἐν ταῖς θεωρητικαῖς ἐπιστήμαις ὑποθέσεις (εἴρηται δὲ περὶ αὐτῶν ἐν μὲν τοῖς ἐν ἀρχῇ βραχέως, ἐν δὲ τοῖς ἀναλυτικοῖς δι' ἀκριβείας), and *E. E.* ii. 11. 1227 b. 28 ὡσπερ γὰρ ταῖς θεωρητικαῖς αἱ ὑποθέσεις ἀρχαί, οὕτω καὶ ταῖς ποιητικαῖς τὸ τέλος ἀρχὴ καὶ ὑπόθεσις. Now, these passages both agree with that before us (*E. N.* vii. 8. 4) in adducing the ὑποθέσεις of mathematics to illustrate the τέλος, or οὐ ἔνεκα, of πράξις, for which βούλευσις finds means. Remembering that it is with mathematical *analysis* that βούλευσις is compared in *E. N.* iii. 3. 11,

12 (where see notes), we may ask the question—Is it probable that 1151 a. 16. the writer employs *ὑποθέσεις* here (*E. N.* vii. 8. 4) for *δρισμοί*, or the *ἀρχαί* of the *synthetic* process in mathematics, and consequently violates strict Aristotelian usage? May he not be employing the term quite accurately, to denote the assumption of the thing to be proved, from which an analytical proof in mathematics starts? I am inclined to think that he probably employs the term *ὑποθέσεις* in this sense. Of course the general statement which immediately follows—*οὔτε δὴ ἐκεῖ ὁ λόγος διδασκαλικὸς τῶν ἀρχῶν*—may be thought to point the other way.

τοῦ ὀρθοδοξεῖν] governed by *διδασκαλική* understood. A man's a. 19. 'end' is given by his character; his 'end' is the assertion throughout life of a character, just as the 'end' of an animal or plant is the assertion and maintenance of its particular organism. *Cf. E. N.* iii. 5. 17 *ὁποῖός ποθ' ἕκαστός ἐστι, τοιοῦτο καὶ τὸ τέλος φαίνεται αὐτῷ*: or as the same truth is stated, more generally, by Spinoza (*Eth.* iii. 6 and 7), 'Unaquaeque res, quantum in se est, in suo esse perseverare conatur. . . . Conatus, quo unaquaeque res in suo esse perseverare conatur, nihil est praeter ipsius rei actualem essentiam.' It goes without saying, in short, that the good man's 'end' or 'principle' is good, and the bad man's bad. *Cf. E. N.* vi. 12. 10 *οἱ γὰρ συλλογισμοὶ τῶν πρακτῶν ἀρχὴν ἔχοντες εἰσιν, ἐπειδὴ τοιόνδε τὸ τέλος καὶ τὸ ἄριστον, ὅτιδῆποτε ὄν (ἔστω γὰρ λόγου χάριν τὸ τυχόν): τοῦτο δ' εἰ μὴ τῷ ἀγαθῷ, οὐ φαίνεται: διαστρέφει γὰρ ἢ μοχθηρία καὶ διαψεύδεται ποιεῖ περὶ τὰς πρακτικὰς ἀρχάς*: and *E. N.* vi. 5. 6 *αἱ μὲν γὰρ ἀρχαὶ τῶν πρακτῶν τὸ οὐ ἕνεκα τὰ πρακτά: τῷ δὲ διεφθαρμένῳ δι' ἡδονὴν ἢ λύπην εὐθὺς οὐ φαίνεται ἀρχή, οὐδὲ δεῖν τοῦτου ἕνεκεν οὐδὲ διὰ τοῦθ' αἰρεῖσθαι πάντα καὶ πράττειν: ἔστι γὰρ ἢ κακία φθαρτικὴ ἀρχῆς. Ὁν φυσικὴ and ἐθιστὴ (or κυρία) ἀρετὴ, see *E. N.* vi. 13. 2. 6.*

Plutarch (*de Viri. Mor.* ch. 6) illustrates the difference between the *ἀκόλαστος* and the *ἀκρατής* from the poets—

Ἄκολάστων μὲν αἶδε φωναί:

τίς δὲ χάρις, τί δὲ τερπνὸν ἄνευ χρυσοῦς Ἀφροδίτης;
τεθναίνην ὅτε μοι μηκέτι ταῦτα μέλει.

καὶ ἕτερος:

τὸ φαγεῖν, τὸ πιεῖν, τὸ τῆς Ἀφροδίτης τυγχάνειν,
τὰ δ' ἄλλα προσθήκας ἅπαντ' ἐγὼ καλῶ . . .

1151 a. 19. φησίν· αἱ δὲ τῆς ἀκρασίας ἕτεραι καὶ διαφέρουσαι·
γνώμην ἔχοντά μ' ἢ φύσις βιάζεται,

καὶ

αἷ αἷ, τὸ δὴ θεῖον ἀνθρώποις κακόν,
ὅταν τις εἰδῆ τάγαθόν, χρῆται δὲ μή.

καὶ

ἔλκει με γὰρ ἤδη θυμός, οὐδ' ἔτ' ἀντέχει,
θινῶδες ὡς ἄγκιστρον ἀγκύρας σάλφ'.

θινῶδες ἄγκιστρον οὐ φαύλως λέγων τὸ μὴ κάτοχον τοῦ λογισμοῦ μηδὲ ἀραρός, ἀλλὰ μανότητι τῆς ψυχῆς, καὶ μαλακίᾳ προϊέμενον τὴν κρίσιν. οὐ πόρρω δὲ τῆς εἰκόνας ταύτης κἀκεῖνα εἴρηται·

καὺς ὡς τις ἐκ μὲν γῆς ἀνήρτηται βρόχοις,
πνεῖ δ' οὐρός, ἡμῖν δ' οὐ κρατεῖ τὰ πείσματα.

πείσματα γὰρ λέγει τὰς ἀντεχούσας κρίσεις πρὸς τὸ αἰσχροῦν . . . τῇ γὰρ ὄντι πλησίστιος μὲν ἐπὶ τὰς ἡδονὰς ὁ ἀκόλαστος. Σωφροσύνη he illustrates thus (*de Virt. Mor.* ch. 7)—

δὴ τοτ' ἔπειτ' ἄνεμος μὲν ἐπαύσατο, ἢ δὲ γαλήνη
ἔπλετο νηνεμῖη, κοίμισσε δὲ κύματα θαίμων.

. . . πᾶσαν ὀρμὴν εὐάγωγον οὔσαν,

ἄθηλον ἵππῳ πῶλον ὡς ἄμα τρέχειν.

a. 20. § 5. ἐκστατικός] Cook Wilson (*Arist. Studies*, p. 26) thinks that § 5 and § 2 'were not intended for the same context.' In § 2 'the terms ἐκστατικοί and μὴ ἐμμένοντες κ.τ.λ. are opposed, as denoting different species of the same genus'—i. e. προπέτεια and ἀσθένεια, the two species of ἀκρασία: but in § 5 'the passages 1151 a. 26 ὁ ἐμμενετικός καὶ οὐκ ἐκστατικός διὰ γε τὸ πάθος of the ἐγκρατῆς, and 1151 a. 20 ἔστι δὲ τις διὰ πάθος ἐκστατικός παρὰ τὸν ὀρθὸν λόγον shew . . . that the terms ἐκστατικοί and μὴ ἐμμενετικοί [=οἱ τὸν λόγον ἔχοντες μὴ ἐμμένοντες δέ] are identical, and not opposed to one another.' In § 5 each term 'is used to characterise all ἀκρασία, and not a species of it.'

The circumstance that § 2 and § 5 differ in their use of the term ἐκστατικός (μὴ ἐμμενετικός does not occur in § 2) is noticed by Ramsauer also (see above note on § 2. 1151 a. 1), but he does not draw Cook Wilson's inference from the circumstance. I think that the significance of the circumstance may be easily exaggerated. The use of ἐκστατικός in the generic sense, as in § 5, is of course the regular use of the term in this book: but I confess that I do not find much

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CHAPTER IX.

ARGUMENT.

To revert to a former difficulty—Is it any view and choice, or the right view and choice, that the ἐγκρατής abides by?

Is it any view and choice, or the false view, and wrong choice, that the ἀκρατής fails to abide by?

Our answer must surely be, that per accidens it may be any view or choice, but essentially it is the true view and the right choice that the one abides by, and the other fails to abide by.

There are certain people—described generally as ‘people with strong views’—who hold very firmly to their own opinions, and are very hard to convince of error. Their quality resembles ἐγκράτεια, but is spurious; for the ἐγκρατής, while maintaining an unchanging attitude towards passion, is ready to yield, if need be, to the persuasion of reason; whereas these ‘people with strong views’ are not actuated by reason but by desire—they are ignorant clownish people ‘with views of their own,’ who are actuated by the pleasure of not being beaten by those who try to persuade them—they are unhappy if they have not their own way, like a democratic assembly. They thus resemble the ἀκρατής rather than the ἐγκρατής.

There are others, again, who do not abide by their resolves and yet are not ἀκρατεῖς: e. g. the Neoptolemus of Sophocles did not abide by his resolve to tell a lie: it was pleasure which made him abandon his resolve—but noble pleasure—the pleasure of telling the truth. It is only where the pleasure which determines action is bad that we speak of ἀκολασία and ἀκρασία.

Just as σωφροσύνη seems to have only one contrary—ἀκολασία, because the man who avoids pleasure from deliberate resolve is seldom met with; so ἐγκράτεια seems to have only one contrary—ἀκρασία, because we seldom see a man whose resolve to seek the due amount of pleasure is overpowered by a disinclination towards pleasure. Such a man, however, when he occurs, is to be accounted bad.

We speak, in a loose way, of ‘the Continence (ἐγκράτεια) of the temperate man (τοῦ σώφρονος)’; but we must always remember that, although both ἐγκρατής and σώφρων are men who do not transgress the law of reason under the influence of bodily pleasures, yet they differ in this most important respect, that the ἐγκρατής has bad desires, and the σώφρων has not: the σώφρων does not feel those things to be pleasant which transgress the law of reason; the ἐγκρατής feels pleasure in them, but does not let them lead him away.

So also the ἀκρατής and the ἀκόλαστος resemble, and differ from, each other. They both follow bodily pleasures, but the ἀκόλαστος thinks, while the ἀκρατής does not think, that it is proper to do so.

1151 a. 29. § 1.] ὁποιοῦν, i. e. good or bad, as the Ald. Schol. explains. Fritzsche and Michelet (but not ‘Aspasius,’ i. e. the Ald. Schol., as

Grant erroneously states) carry on ἐμμένων from μὴ ἐμμένων to 1151 a. 29. govern τῷ ψευδεῖ λόγῳ κ.τ.λ. But, as Grant remarks, 'this will not do. The ἀκρατής cannot be said "to abide by a false opinion."' Hence the reading τῷ μὴ ψευδεῖ λόγῳ καὶ τῇ προαιρέσει τῇ ὀρθῇ (μὴ ἐμμένων being understood) adopted by Bywater and some other editors (Susemihl reads ἀψευδεῖ instead of μὴ ψευδεῖ). I prefer to leave the text as Bekker gives it—τῷ ψευδεῖ λόγῳ καὶ τῇ προαιρέσει τῇ μὴ ὀρθῇ—following all the MSS. (except L^b, which has τῷ μὴ ψευδεῖ λόγῳ καὶ τῇ προαιρέσει τῇ ὀρθῇ) and Asp., and to suppose that the writer, wishing to make a symmetrical schema, added ὁ μὴ ἐμμένων τῷ ψευδεῖ λόγῳ on the μὴ ἐμμένων side, as the diametrical opposite of ὁ ἐμμένων τῇ ὀρθῇ προαιρέσει, or τῷ ἀληθεῖ λόγῳ, on the other side, thus—

	ὁ ἐμμένων	
ὄποιουν	—————	τῷ ἀληθεῖ
	ὁ μὴ ἐμμένων	
τῷ ψευδεῖ	—————	ὄποιουν.

Does sticking to one's opinion or purpose, right or wrong (ὄποιουν), characterise continence, or does the continent man stick only to a right opinion, or purpose? And does not sticking to one's opinion, or purpose, right or wrong, characterise incontinence, or must we say that the incontinent man does not stick to a false opinion and wrong purpose? Here, I think, the desire for symmetry has led the writer to mention a case so inconsistent with the notion of ἀκρασία (although, it is to be noted, vii. 2. 7 shews that it was regarded by some as possibly a case of ἀκρασία) that critics, among them Kassow¹, have thought it necessary to rescue him from inconsistency by changing the text which rests on the authority of all MSS. save L^b.

ὡςπερ ἠπορήθη πρότερον] vii. 2. 7.

a. 32.

ἢ κατὰ μὲν συμβεβηκός κ.τ.λ.] *moral strength* (τὸ ἐμμένειν) is the a. 33. general characteristic of the continent man, *moral weakness* (τὸ μὴ ἐμμένειν) of the incontinent man. It may sometimes happen that moral strength is the cause of a man's sticking to a mistaken purpose or opinion (κατὰ μὲν συμβεβηκός ὄποιουν), but, as a rule, it

¹ Kassow (*Forsch.* p. 100) approves the emendation of Muretus—ὁ τῷ ἀληθεῖ λόγῳ καὶ τῇ προαιρέσει τῇ ὀρθῇ, believing that the passage has been corrupted in deference to the view that the opposition between ἐγκράτεια and ἀκρασία makes it necessary to give λόγος opposite predicates.

1151 a. 33. is a good purpose, or right opinion, that moral strength enables a man to stick to, and we apply the term continent strictly (*καθ' αὐτό* or *ἀπλῶς*) to the man who sticks to a good purpose, or right opinion; for the man who sticks to a *bad* purpose, or *wrong* opinion is *ἀκόλαστος* (see vii. 8. 1). Again, it may sometimes happen that moral weakness is the cause of a man's departing from a bad purpose or wrong opinion; but such an exceptional case is not contemplated in the term 'incontinent,' which is strictly applied only to those who do not stick to a good purpose, or right opinion (*δόξα ἀληθής*, or *λόγος ἀληθής*). We must remember that it is the *ἀκόλαστος* and the *ἀκρατής* who are distinguished in respect of *δόξα*, or *λόγος*, that of the *ἀκόλαστος* being *ψευδής*, and that of the *ἀκρατής* being *ἀληθής*; but it is not in respect of *λόγος* that the *ἀκρατής* is distinguished from the *ἐγκρατής*, but in respect of strength of character (*ἐμμένειν* and *μη ἐμμένειν*):—as Zeller puts it (*Phil. d. Griech.* vol. ii. 2. *Arist.* p. 659, third ed.) 'Aristoteles . . . unterscheidet beide (i.e. *ἐγκράτεια* and *ἀκρασία*) von den sittlichen Eigenschaften der Selbstbeherrschung (*σωφροσύνη*) und Zügellosigkeit (*ἀκολασία*) durch das Merkmal, dass die Beherrschung oder Herrschaft der Begierden bei diesen auf einer grundsätzlichen Willensrichtung, bei jenen nur auf der Stärke oder Schwäche des Willens beruht.'

The sentence *εἰ γάρ τις* a. 35 . . . *καθ' αὐτό* b. 3 seems to be merely a logical note introduced to explain the difference between *καθ' αὐτό* and *κατὰ συμβεβηκός*—which hardly needs explanation—and to enable the writer to wind up with the satisfactory formula *ἔστι μὲν ὡς . . . ἀπλῶς*. The article before *τῇ ἀληθεί* b. 4 should be omitted: see Rasso (*Forsch.* p. 100) and Ramsauer *ad loc.* It is bracketed by Bywater.

- b. 4. § 2. *εἰσὶ δέ τινες οἱ ἐμμενετικοὶ τῇ δόξῃ εἰσὶν κ.τ.λ.*] The *ἐγκρατής* 'sticks to' his true opinion; but there are people who resemble him in 'sticking to' their opinions, but differ from him in that their opinions are often wrong. The obstinate man or *ἰσχυρογνώμων* is related to the *ἐγκρατής* as the *ἄσωτος* is to the *ἐλευθέριος*. Both *ἄσωτος* and *ἐλευθέριος* 'spend,' but the *ἄσωτος* spends foolishly, the *ἐλευθέριος* wisely. So both *ἰσχυρογνώμων* and *ἐγκρατής* 'stick to' an opinion, but the opinion of the *ἰσχυρογνώμων* is often foolish, while that of the *ἐγκρατής* is necessarily true.
- b. 9. *ὁ ἐγκρατής*] In both places where *ὁ ἐγκρατής* occurs, here and in

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1151 b. 21. of εὐδαιμονία can never lend itself to intemperate uses; nor can the pleasures of sight and hearing, although perhaps they may sometimes be pursued to a somewhat reprehensible extent: see *E. N.* iii. 10. §§ 2–6: with which compare Plutarch, *Sympros.* vii. 5 ἀκρᾶσις μὲν ἔφη καὶ αὐτὸς ἀπολύω τὸ φιλήκοον καὶ φιλοθεάμον· οὐ μὴν Ἀριστοτέλης γε συμφέρηται παντάπασι, ταύταις μόναις φίσκοντι ταῖς ἡδοναῖς τὸ καλῶς ἐπιλέγεσθαι. καὶ γὰρ ὄψα καλὰ καὶ μύρα καλοῦσι, καὶ καλῶς γεγονέναι λέγουσι, δειπνήσαντες ἡδέως καὶ πολυτελῶς· δοκεῖ δέ μοι μηδ' Ἀριστοτέλης αἰτία δικαίη τὰς περὶ θείαν καὶ ἀκρόασις εὐπαθείας ἀπολύειν ἀκρᾶσις, ὡς μόναις ἀνθρωπικᾶς οὐσας· ταῖς δ' ἄλλαις καὶ τὰ θηρία φύσιν ἔχοντα χρῆσθαι καὶ κοινωνεῖν· ὁρῶμεν γὰρ ὅτι καὶ μουσικῇ πολλὰ κηλεῖται τῶν ἀλόγων.

b. 23. § 5. Ἐπεὶ δ' ἔστι . . . μέσος ὁ ἐγκρατής] In b. 24 Bekker, following all the MSS., reads χαίρων. Muretus, objecting to the participles after τοιοῦτος οἶος, wishes to read χαίρειν and οὐκ ἐμμένειν, forgetting, as Rassow (*Forsch.* p. 134) points out, that ἐμμένειν would require μή. Susemihl and Bywater adopt χαίρειν (which Asp. seems to have read), retaining ἐμμένων. Zell and Coraes, on the ground that the Ald. Schol. speaks of the ἐλλείπων as ἀνόνημος, and the Paraph. of the ἐλλείπουσα ἔξις as ἀνόνημος, think that words to that effect have dropped out of the text, and Zell suggests that these words may have justified the participles χαίρων and ἐμμένων. Rassow, however (p. 134), quotes *M. M.* ii 9. 1208 a. 1 for the participle after τοιοῦτος οἶος—ὁ δὲ τοιοῦτος ὢν οἶος ὑποστελλόμενός τι τῶν ἀγαθῶν πρὸς τὸ μὴ εἶναι αὐτῷ, οὐκ ἂν δόξειε καλὸς καὶ ἀγαθὸς εἶναι. I do not think that the Ald. Scholiast's remark that the ἐλλείπων is ἀνόνημος, or the Paraphrast's that the ἐλλείπουσα ἔξις is ἀνόνημος, by any means makes it even probable that either commentator had words to that effect in his text. Each makes the remark, indeed, at the place near the beginning of § 5 where Zell suspects that the words have dropped out of the text; but repeats it later on in connexion with the statement ἀλλὰ διὰ τὸ τὴν b. 30 . . . τῇ ἀκρᾶσίᾳ b. 32. The Paraphrast's words, in this connexion (he has already said at the beginning of his remarks on § 5 ἡ δὲ ἐλλείπουσα ἔξις ἀνόνημος) are—ἀλλ' ὅτι ἡ ἐλλείπουσα ἔξις ἀνόνημος καὶ ἐλάχιστα συμβαίνει (σπάνια γὰρ οἱ ἦγον τοῦ δέοντος χαίροντες ταῖς σωματικαῖς ἡδοναῖς) διὰ τοῦτο μέση ἢ ἀκρᾶσία δοκεῖ ἐναντία εἶναι, ὅτι ἡ ἡλιθιότης ὀλιγάκις εὐρίσκεται. Here the use of the word ἀνόνημος is naturally suggested to the Par. and Ald. Schol. by the words ἐν ὀλίγοις καὶ ὀλιγάκις, and goes no way, in the circumstances, towards proving that it stood in their text. It

would be very rash indeed to found any inference here on the 1151 b. 23. words of commentators who are so careless as to say, as they virtually do, that 'the ἔξις is ἀνόνημος and it is called ἡλιθιότης.' I see no reason for supposing that ἀνόνημος, any more than ἡλιθιότης, stood in their text.

All MSS., except M^b, read δ instead of Bekker's ἦ (M^b has ἦ) before τοιοῦτος b. 24. The reading ἦ τοιοῦτος seems to me to give exactly the sense required—viz. that there is a character *defined as* departing from consciously realised dictates of reason in the direction of the avoidance of bodily pleasures, which stands to the transitional states ἐγκράτεια and ἀκρασία in the same relation that ἀναισθησία stands to the fixed states σωφροσύνη and ἀκολασία: see *E. N.* iii. 11. 7. Of course M^b is generally an unsafe authority, but I think that here it has made a safe emendation. All MSS. seem to give τοιοῦτος b. 24, which Bywater (reading δ) brackets: *cf.* his *Contributions*, p. 57.

μέσος δ ἐγκρατής] 'It is plain,' Grant says, 'that ἐγκράτεια is not b. 25. a mean in the sense of being a balance or harmony of the mind. It is only imperfect temperance, it is temperance in the act of forming.' The writer simply means, I take it, that the ἐγκρατής 'stands between' the ἀκρατής and the ἡττον ἢ δεῖ τοῖς σωματικοῖς χαίρων.

οὐδὲ δι' ἕτερον] 'τὸ λεγόμενον οὐδὲ δι' ἕτερον συντέτακται κατὰ τμήσιν b. 27. σωθήσθαι τοῖς Ἀττικοῖς ἀντὶ τοῦ δι' οὐδέτερον, καθὰ καὶ ἡρμήνευται καὶ ἐν τῇ ΑΡΤ, οὐδὲ neutrum' (Coraes).

§ 8. καὶ ἡ ἐγκράτεια . . . ἠκολούθηκεν] 'We come to speak b. 33. metaphorically of the continence of the temperate man' (Peters). The writer probably uses ἠκολούθηκεν here with some consciousness of the technical meaning of the term, for which see Bonitz, *Met.* p. 42 'verbo ἀκολουθεῖν pariter ac verbo ἐπεσθαι Aristoteles denotat praedicari aliquam notionem de altera, ita ut hac posita illa etiam ponenda sit, *cf.* Γ. 2. 1003 b. 23 et de interpr. 13 passim.'

CHAPTER X.

ARGUMENT.

The next point to notice is that the same man cannot be both φρόνιμος and ἀκρατής, for φρόνησις, as we have seen, implies goodness, and is not simply knowledge, but knowledge which issues in good actions, whereas the ἀκρατής is not one who performs good actions. Cleverness—δεινότης, is indeed compatible with incontinence; hence, because δεινότης and φρόνησις are nearly related (see vi. 12. §§ 9, 10—as intellectual faculties they are nearly related, but from the moral point of view they differ), some have taken up the notion that φρόνησις and ἀκρασία are compatible. But so far is ἀκρασία from being compatible with the active knowledge of the φρόνιμος, that we ought rather to compare the ἀκρατής with one who is asleep or drunk. Of course he acts voluntarily (for he knows after a fashion what he does and why he does it); but his character is not bad, for his deliberate choice is good—his badness is thus only partial; and he is not unjust, for he does not do evil deliberately—being either a weak irresolute man who fails to abide by the result of deliberation, or an impetuous man who does not deliberate at all.

The incontinence of the impetuous man is more easily cured than that of the irresolute man: and incontinence, due to habit, is more easily cured than natural incontinence; although habit may become a second nature.

So much for continence and incontinence, endurance and softness.

1152 a. 6. § 1] takes up vii. 1. 7.

a. 7. ἀμα γὰρ . . . δέδεικται ὄν] See *E. N.* vi. 13. Φρόνησις is the clear consciousness of one's moral nature, as an organic whole: it insures the maintenance and proper function of the moral organism.

a. 8. § 2. τῷ πρακτικῷ] *sc.* εἶναι. The φρόνιμος not only knows what is right, but applies his knowledge, or acts upon it. He is συνεδαίος τὸ ἦθος—*i. e.* his feelings and desires have been so accustomed to move in harmony with his knowledge, that what is technically called πράξις may be always looked for from him. Πράξις is 'moral action,' or 'conduct.' It is deliberate, being the outcome and expression of definite organisation or λόγος. Isolated πάθη do not produce πράξεις: hence *E. N.* vi. 2. 2 αἰσθησις οὐδεμῶς ἀρχὴ πράξεως· δῆλον δὲ τῷ τὰ θηρία αἰσθησιν μὲν ἔχειν πράξεως δὲ μὴ κοινωνεῖν. The ἀκρατής, although he possesses the general knowledge of right and

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1152 a. 10. καί τινες ἀκρατεῖς φρονίμους ὀνομάζουσι καθ' ὁμοιότητά τινα πρὸς τὴν φρόνησιν· τινὲς γὰρ τῶν ἀκρατῶν δεινοὶ εἰσιν ἢ δὲ δεινότης ἔοικε τῇ φρονήσει· καὶ γὰρ οἱ δεινοὶ κατὰ τὴν γνῶσιν τοῦ δέοντος εἰκόσασιν τοῖς φρονίμοις· ἀλλ' οἱ μὲν γινώσκουσι μόνον τὸ δέον, οὐ προαιροῦνται δὲ πράττειν, οὐδὲ πράττουσιν· οἱ δὲ φρόνιμοι γινώσκοντες τὸ δέον καὶ πράττουσι· καὶ διὰ τοῦτο ὁ μὲν φρόνιμος σπουδαῖός ἐστιν· ἀκρατὴς δὲ κἂν δεινὸς ᾖ, φαῦλός ἐστι καὶ ψέγεται.

a. 13. κατὰ μὲν τὸν λόγον ἐγγύς εἶναι, διαφέρειν δὲ κατὰ τὴν προαίρεσιν] 'as far as reason goes they are closely allied, though they differ in purpose' (Peters). This translation might be understood to imply that δεινότης involves purpose (προαίρεσις), though a different sort of purpose from that involved in φρόνησις: but δεινότης (so far as morality is concerned) is merely a δύναμις τῶν ἐναντίων, not a προαιρετικὴ ἔξις. The meaning is—'δεινότης resembles φρόνησις in being an intellectual faculty, but differs from it in not involving moral choice.' The Ald. Schol. is wrong in two points in his comment here—κατὰ μὲν τὸν λόγον ἦτοι τὸν ὀρισμὸν ἐγγύς ἐστὶν ἢ φρόνησις καὶ ἢ δεινότης . . . καὶ γὰρ ἢ δεινότης ἔξις ἦν ἐφευρετικὴ τῶν πρὸς τὸ τέλος, διαφέρουσι δὲ κατὰ τὴν προαίρεσιν· τοῦ μὲν γὰρ φρονίμου ἢ προαίρεσις ἀγαθὴ . . . τοῦ δὲ δεινοῦ ἢ προαίρεσις φαῦλη.

a. 14. § 3. οὐδὲ δὴ ὡς ὁ εἰδὼς . . . οἰνωμένος] sc. ἀκρατεύεται Asp., ἠτῶται ὁ ἀκρατὴς Ald. Schol. Notwithstanding his formal possession of a 'good end,' the ἀκρατὴς keeps his intellectual endowment at the level of δύναμις, so far as moral matters are concerned: i. e. he is δεινός, not φρόνιμος, because his good end is otiose, and does not interest him sufficiently to call forth his δεινότης into its service, and transform it into φρόνησις: cf. the Paraphrast's note—καὶ γὰρ εἰ καὶ γινώσκει τὸ δέον (ὁ ἀκρατὴς) ἀλλ' οὐχ ὥσπερ ὁ φρόνιμος ἐνεργεῖα θεωρῶν καὶ χρώμενος τῇ ἐπιστήμῃ, ἀλλὰ καθάπερ εἴρηται, ὡς ὁ καθεύδων καὶ οἰνωμένος· διὰ ταύτην δὴ τὴν ὁμοιότητα ὁ δεινὸς ἀκρατὴς φρόνιμος ὀνομάζεται, καὶ ἔοικε φρονίμῳ. See Cook Wilson (*Arist. Studies*, p. 27) on the difficulty of connecting the words οὐδὲ δὴ ὡς ὁ εἰδὼς καὶ θεωρῶν with what goes before. He thinks it 'probable that the end of the book (i. e. ch. 10) is made of pieces not belonging to each other.' Bywater connects οὐδὲ δὴ κ.τ.λ. closely with ὁ δ' ἀκρατὴς οὐ πρακτικός § 2, a. 9, making the intervening words τὸν δὲ δεινόν a. 10 . . . προαίρεσιν a. 14 parenthetical.

a. 15. καὶ ἐκὼν μὲν . . . ἢ γὰρ προαίρεσις ἐπιεικῆς] The ἀκρατὴς acts

voluntarily, because ἐπιθυμία is the cause of voluntary actions: see 1152 a. 15. *E. E.* ii. 7. 1223 a. 37 ὁ δ' ἀκρατής ὁ κατὰ τὴν ἐπιθυμίαν παρὰ τὸν λογισμὸν οἷος πράττειν . . . ἐκὼν ἄρα πράξει· καὶ ἐκούσιον τὸ κατ' ἐπιθυμίαν. There is some confusion of language in the statement ἡ γὰρ προαίρεσις ἐπιεικής (as also in the statement τὸ μὲν γὰρ παρὰ προαίρεσιν vii. 8. 3), because προαίρεσις is the *act* of choice, and the ἀκρατής of course does not 'deliberately choose' (προαιρεῖται) what he does, but acts from πάθος. He is, in fact, distinguished as μὴ προαιρούμενος from the ἀκόλυστος, who acts προαιρούμενος. We must suppose that προαίρεσις is used loosely here for 'the good intentions' which are overcome by πάθος in the ἀκρατής. Βούλησις would have been more correct than προαίρεσις: see *E. N.* v. 9. 6 παρὰ τὴν βούλησιν πράττει (ὁ ἀκρατής)· οὔτε γὰρ βούλεται οὐδεὶς ὁ μὴ οἶεται εἶναι σπουδαῖον, ὃ τε ἀκρατής οὐχ ἂ οἶεται δεῖν πράττειν πράττει. Aspasius sees the awkwardness of ἡ γὰρ προαίρεσις ἐπιεικής: he says (141. 6 Heylbut)—προαίρεσιν δὲ πάλιν ἡ τὸν λόγον εἶρηκεν ἢ σὺν αὐτῷ καὶ τὴν βούλευσιν.

καὶ οὐκ ἄδικος· οὐ γὰρ ἐπίβουλος] *Cf. E. N.* v. 8. 8 ὅταν δὲ εἰδῶς a. 17. μὲν μὴ προβουλεύσας δέ, ἀδίκημα, οἷον ὅσα τε διὰ θυμὸν καὶ ἄλλα πάθη, ὅσα ἀναγκαῖα ἢ φυσικὰ συμβαίνει τοῖς ἀνθρώποις· ταῦτα γὰρ βλάπτοντες καὶ ἀμαρτάνοντες ἀδικοῦσι μὲν, καὶ ἀδικήματά ἐστιν, οὐ μὲντοι πῶς ἄδικοι διὰ ταῦτα οὐδέ πονηροί· οὐ γὰρ διὰ μοχθηρίαν ἢ βλάβη· ὅταν δ' ἐκ προαιρέσεως, ἄδικος καὶ μοχθηρός. Again, below (v. 8. 10), the ἄδικος is described as ἐπιβουλεύσας.

· Ὁν οὐ γὰρ ἐπίβουλος here in vii. 10. 3 Grant remarks that 'though lust, as compared with anger, is called ἐπίβουλος (*cf.* ch. 6. § 3), yet it is true on the other hand that the incontinent man is not a designing character.'

Ἀναξανδρίδης] a comic poet, a native of Camirus in Rhodes: a. 22. mentioned by Aristotle three times in *Rhet.* iii, viz. 1411 a. 18, 1412 b. 16, 1413 b. 25. Athenaeus preserves (p. 374) the following passage relating to Anaxandrides from the *περὶ κωμῳδίας* of Chamaeleon of Heraclea—Ἀναξανδρίδης διδάσκων ποτὲ διθύραμβον Ἀθηνησιν, εἰσηλθεὶν ἐφ' ἵππου, καὶ ἀπήγγειλέ τι τῶν ἐκ τοῦ ἄσματος. ἦν δὲ τὴν ὄψιν καλὸς καὶ μέγας, καὶ κόμην ἔτρεφε, καὶ ἐφόρει ἀλουργίδα καὶ κράσπεδα χρυσᾶ. πικρὸς δ' ὢν τὸ ἦθος, ἐποίει τι τοιοῦτον περὶ τὰς κωμῳδίας. ὅτε γὰρ μὴ νικῆσθαι, λαμβάνων ἔδωκεν εἰς τὸν λιβανωτὸν κατατεμεῖν, καὶ οὐ μετεσκεύαζεν ὥσπερ οἱ πολλοί. καὶ πολλὰ ἔχοντα κομψῶς τῶν δραμάτων ἠφάνιζε, δυσκολαίων τοῖς θεαταῖς διὰ τὸ γῆρας. λέγεται δ' εἶναι τὸ γένος Ῥόδιος ἐκ Καμείρου. θαυμάζω οὖν πῶς ὁ Τηρεὺς περιεσώθη, μὴ τυχῶν νίκης, καὶ ἄλλα δράματα τῶν

1152 a. 22. *δμοίων τοῦ αὐτοῦ*. Chamaeleon, the writer of this passage, was a Peripatetic philosopher, one of the immediate disciples of Aristotle. Coraes thinks that the line before us is from the *πόλεις* of Anaxandrides. Athenaeus (p. 299) preserves fourteen lines of this play. The present line is quoted also by Cyril, *de Trin.* ii. p. 96 (see Meineke, *Fragm. Com.* vol. iii. p. 200). Anaxandrides seems to have imitated Euripides (apud Aelian, H. A. iv. 54)—*Ὅμηρος μὲν οὖν ἔδωκεν ἵππων φωνήν, ἀσπίδι δὲ ἡ φύσις ἢ νόμων οὐδὲν μέλει, φησὶν Εὐριπίδης*.

a. 27. § 4. *εὐιατοτέρα . . . τελευτῶσαν φύσιν εἶναι*] This passage Wilson (*Arist. Studies*, Table V) places after vii. 7. 8, and regards as a duplicate of vii. 8. 2.

a. 29. *φυσικῶν*] Ramsauer suggests *φύσει*.

a. 31. *τῇ φύσει ἔοικεν*] Zell and Fritzsche quote *de Mem.* 2. 452 a. 27 *ὡσπερ γὰρ φύσις ἦδη τὸ ἔθος. διὸ ἂ πολλὰκις ἐνοοούμεθα ταχὺ ἀναμνησκόμεθα ὡσπερ γὰρ φύσει τότε μετὰ τότε ἐστίν, οὕτω καὶ ἐνεργείᾳ. τὸ δὲ πολλάκις φύσιν ποιῆι*.

Εὐήνος] There seem to have been two elegiac or gnomic poets of this name, natives of Paros. One of them (whether the elder or younger is uncertain) is said to have instructed Socrates in poetry. Plato refers several times to Euenus as a teacher of rhetoric, in somewhat satirical terms—*Apol.* 20 A, *Phaedr.* 267 A, and *Phaedo* 60 D–61 A. In *Met.* Δ. 5. 1015 a. 25 and *E. E.* ii. 7. 1223 a. 31 he is named as the author of the line *πάν γὰρ ἀναγκαῖον πρῶγμ' ἀσπερὶν ἔφν*, which is also quoted in *Rhet.* i. 11. 1370 a. 10 without his name. See Schwegler, *Met.* vol. iii. p. 203. For the verses of Euenus see *Poet. Gnom.* (ed. Tauchn. p. 109).

CHAPTER XI.

ARGUMENT.

The subject of Pleasure and Pain is one which the Political Philosopher must consider; for he is the Architect of Life—he gives us the End to which we refer when we call this good and that bad.

Moreover, it is necessary to consider this subject, because we assigned moral

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1152 b. 1. that their original locus was in the *E. N.*, and that they were transferred thence *en bloc* into the *E. E.* We must rather believe that they were compiled, subsequently to the composition of the *E. N.*, from materials already to hand, and were transferred *en bloc* from the *E. E.* into the *E. N.* by an editor of the *E. N.* who wished to supply an original deficiency in that corpus, or, more probably, to repair a loss which it had suffered. But it may be asked—Why did the editor of the *E. N.* admit the superfluous account of *ἡδονή*? This difficulty suggests the supposition that, when he inserted v, vi, vii, he did not find x attached to the Nicomachean Corpus. It may have attached itself at a later time. That this supposition is not gratuitous seems to be shown by the fact that the writer of the *E. E.* (or perhaps I ought to put myself in order by saying—the writer mainly responsible for the composition of the *E. E.*)—who apparently had Nicomachean materials before him in the following order—

(a) *E. N.* i–iv.

(b) Books on the subjects of *E. E.* iv, v, vi. 1–10 = *E. N.* v, vi, vii. 1–10.

(c) A treatise on *ἡδονή* perhaps identical with that in *E. N.* x.

(d) *E. N.* viii, ix *περὶ φιλίας*—

ends his work with two chapters (appended to his lengthy discussion of *φιλία*)—one on *εὐτυχία*, and the other on *καλοκαγαθία*—written without reference to the contents of *E. N.* x. 6–9. It is difficult to suppose that the Nicomachean work, which he follows very carefully up to the close of its discussion of *φιλία*, can have ended with our *E. N.* x. Even if the Eudemian writer differs from the Nicomachean, as Schleiermacher and Fritzsche suppose (see Fritzsche, *Eth. Eud.* pp. 262, 263), in treating Ethics as a subject distinct from Politics, this does not appear to me to account for the Eudemian writer omitting to reproduce *more suo* much of the latter part of *E. N.* x, had that book been actually before him.

The suggestion, then, which I venture to make is this—When the Eudemian compilation was made, the Nicomachean Corpus ended with part (d); and when, parts (b) and (c) of that corpus having been afterwards lost, an editor supplied the gap by inserting *E. E.* iv, v, vi, the treatise on *ἡδονή*, contained in the last-named book, was inserted with the rest, because the Nicomachean Corpus still ended with (d). Afterwards, however, the missing Nicomachean

treatise on ἡδονή, or one very like it, was recovered, and, its original 1152 b. 1. locus immediately after the discussion of ἀκρασία being now occupied by its Eudemian equivalent, it was placed, together with x. 6–9, at the end of the composite edition, thus completing the *Nic. Eth.*, as we now have the work.

I offer this suggestion for what it is worth. Much uncertainty, I take it, will always remain as to the exact circumstances in which the two treatises on ἡδονή found their way into the *Nic. Ethics*.

To pass then from speculation to facts—it may be useful here, at the outset, to state, without detail, the chief points in which the two treatises on ἡδονή differ and agree.

In the first place, it may be noticed that the present treatise gives somewhat more prominence to *bodily* pleasures than that in x. This I do not attribute, as some do (*e.g.* Bendixen, *Bemerkungen zum Siebenten Buch der Nik. Eth.* *Philologus*, vol. x. pp. 270–92), to the difference between the positions of the two treatises—that which has more to say about the σωματικαὶ ἡδοναὶ following immediately after the discussion of ἀκρασία, and that which has less to say about them leading up to the discussion of εὐδαιμονία: for I think it probable that the original position of the treatise in x (or of its archetype) was that now occupied by the treatise in vii—viz. immediately after the discussion of ἀκρασία. It seems better to explain the greater prominence of the σωματικαὶ ἡδοναὶ in the last-mentioned treatise simply by the preference of the writer. The subject of ἀκρασία, involving as it does that of the σωματικαὶ ἡδοναὶ, had a greater interest for the writer (or writers) of the Eudemian Corpus, than it had for the writer of the *E. N.* This is very evident, for instance, if we compare the Eudemian treatment of τὸ ἐκούσιον with the Nicomachean¹. It is not necessary, then, to go to the position which the Eudemian treatise on ἡδονή occupies after the detailed discussion of ἀκρασία to account for the greater prominence given in it to the σωματικαὶ ἡδοναὶ. That the subject of ἡδονή is closely connected with that of ἀκρασία in the mind of the Eudemian writer, and that his special interest is in the σωματικαὶ ἡδοναὶ, is shown by a passage, *E. E.* iii. 2. 1231 b. 2 (referred to by Fritzsche, *E. E.* Prolegom. p. xlv, and Spengel, *Arist. Stud.* p. 197), which promises a more accurate account of the ἡδοναὶ when ἐγκράτεια and ἀκρασία come up for special

¹ See introductory note to vii.

1152 b. 1. discussion—ἀκριβέστερον δὲ περὶ τοῦ γένους τῶν ἡδονῶν ἔσται διατριβὴ ἐν τοῖς λεγομένοις ὑστερον περὶ ἐγκρατείας καὶ ἀκρασίας¹.

It would be a mistake, however, to think that, because the present treatise has more to say about the *σωματικαὶ ἡδοναί* than that in x has, its connexion with the subject of *εὐδαιμονία* is less vital. The words with which the present treatise opens (vii. 11. §§ 1, 2) are as explicit as those with which the treatise in x opens, in declaring the intimate connexion of the two subjects of *ἡδονή* and *εὐδαιμονία*. Moreover, there is a highly interesting passage in an earlier part of the *E. E.* (quoted by Fritzsche, *E. E.* p. 179, and by Grant on vii. 11. 1), in which the writer promises to discuss the relation of *ἡδονή* to *εὐδαιμονία*, with special reference to the *σωματικαὶ ἡδοναί*. It is *E. E.* i. 5. 1216 a. 30–36 *τούτων δ' ἡ μὲν περὶ τὰ σώματα καὶ τὰς² ἀπολαύσεις ἡδονή, καὶ τίς καὶ ποία τις γίνεται καὶ διὰ τίνων, οὐκ ἄδηλον, ὥστ' οὗ τίνες εἰσὶ δεῖ ζητεῖν αὐτάς, ἀλλ' εἰ συντείνουσί τι πρὸς εὐδαιμονίαν ἢ μὴ, καὶ πῶς συντείνουσι, καὶ πότερον εἰ δεῖ προσάπτειν τῇ ζῆν καλῶς ἡδονάς τινεσ, ταύτας δεῖ προσάπτειν, ἢ τούτων μὲν ἄλλον τινὰ τρόπον ἀνάγκη κοινωσῆν, ἕτεραι δ' εἰσὶν ἡδοναί δι' ἃς εὐλόγως οἴονται τὸν εὐδαίμονα ζῆν ἡδέως καὶ μὴ μόνον ἀλύπως.* It is worth noticing, too, that the writer of the *M. M.* introduces his account of *ἡδονή* in the following terms—*M. M.* ii. 7. 1204 a. 19 *μετὰ δὲ ταῦτα λεκτέον ἂν εἴη περὶ ἡδονῆς ἐπειδήπερ ὑπὲρ εὐδαιμονίας ἐστὶν ὁ λόγος κ.τ.λ.* I accordingly disagree entirely with the view that the two treatises on *ἡδονή* in vii and x respectively were written with different objects—that in vii *ἡδονή* is considered merely as the material of continence and incontinence, in x as sweetening *εὐδαιμονία*: see Coraes *ἄλλοι δὲ φασιν ἐκ προνοίας δις τὸν φιλόσοφον περὶ αὐτῆς γράψαι, ἐνθάδε μὲν οἶον ὕλην περὶ ἣν ἡ ἐγκράτεια καὶ ἡ ἀκρασία τὴν ἡδονὴν ὑποτιθέμενον· ἐν δὲ τοῖς ἐξῆς (i. e. x) ὡς φκειωμένην εἶναι τῇ εὐδαιμονίᾳ θεωροῦντα.* The object of both treatises is one—to show how *ἡδονή* is related to *εὐδαιμονία* or the *ἀγαθόν*—how it hinders, and how it furthers, the performance of duty. Thus, after a few introductory remarks, the treatise in x opens its subject with the words *οἱ μὲν γὰρ τὰγαθὸν ἡδονὴν λέγουσι*, and that in vii with *τοῖς μὲν οὐ δοκεῖ οὐδεμία ἡδονὴ εἶναι ἀγαθόν.* 'Is Pleasure good?' then, is the chief question for both treatises. The answers, however, seem, at

¹ Perhaps, however, we ought to read, for *τοῦ γένους*, *τούτου τοῦ γένους*, referring to *τὰ ἡδέα τὰ εἰρημένα τῶν αἰσθητῶν* 1231 a. 38. If so, the passage would not promise a treatment of *ἡδονή* generally.

² For *τὰ σώματα καὶ τὰς ἀπολαύσεις* ought we not to read *τὰς σωματικὰς ἀπολαύσεις*?

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1159 b. 1. this that Aspasius (151 Heylbut)—who turns out to be the writer of the ‘notable scholium’ discovered by Brandis in the Vatican (quoted by Fritzsche, *E. E.* p. 189, and by Grant on vii. 13. 2) —thinks of ‘Eudemus’ (to whom he conjecturally attributes the treatise *περὶ ἡδονῆς* in vii) as merely airing ‘a probable opinion’ (*ἐπιχειρεῖ ἐνδόξως ὡς εἶδεν αὐτὴν τὸ ἀριστον λέγειν*), and not giving his own real view, in the statement (vii. 13. 2) *ὥστε εἴη ἂν τις ἡδονὴ τὸ ἀριστον.*

‘*Ἡδονή*’ then, is discussed here in the seventh, as it is in the tenth book, *in relation to the good*—i. e. not theoretically, as interesting from a physiological or psychological point of view, but with a practical reference. In other words, the object of the enquiry is not to tell us what pleasure *is*, but to tell us what it *does*—how it hinders, and how it helps virtuous action—in short, to place its relation to the practical end in a true light, as against the erroneous views of others—extreme Platonists, on the one side, who held that pleasure can only hinder morality, and hedonists of the Cyrenaic stamp, on the other side, who held that passive enjoyment is the chief good. It is true that the following chapters abound with extremely abstract considerations, which might easily be mistaken for what a barren scholasticism has to offer as physiology and psychology; but we must remember that an abstract treatment of the subject is, in part, forced upon the writer by the nature of the arguments which he has to meet—and the remark applies to the writer of the treatise in x. If, however, we turn to the doctrine concerning *ἡδονή* which may be extracted from the *E. N.* and *E. E.* elsewhere than from the treatises in vii and x, we find that, not being advanced in a polemical form, it is free from the subtleties which mark (and, it may be thought, mark) the discussions in vii, and also, though perhaps in a less degree, in x. We must be careful, then, not to pronounce the doctrine of vii and x worthless, because verbal difficulties so cleverly exposed

taching great importance to the *ἐνέργεια* and *ἡδονή* closely to Platonists, who connect the hedonists, because it suits Platonists, because it and (2) in regarding *ἀνεμπόδιον ἐνέργειαν*

from and x. as free (or) the doctrine of us in the 1st chapter

f his *Examination of Sir W. Hamilton's Philosophy*. Mill's 1152 b criticism is relevant only against writers who profess to give an answer to the purely scientific question—'What is Pleasure, as a physiological or psychological phenomenon?' Mill has little difficulty in showing that the formula *ἐνέργεια ἀνεμπόδιτος*, as reduced to 'Pleasure is the result of a pleasurable state of the sense and a pleasure-giving quality in the object presented to it,' is scientifically worthless. But he fails to see that the real object of the writers is, as has been said, to explain what pleasure *does*—how it helps or hinders the attainment of the ethical end—ἡ κατ' ἀρετὴν ἐνέργεια. It is inseparable from *ἐνέργεια*, enhances *ἐνέργεια*, and *ἐνέργεια*, was the formula in which Aristotle and his school summed up the results of their practical enquiry. This formula cannot be taken out of its setting in the practical enquiry, as it is by Mill, without being entirely misrepresented. Its true significance, missed by Mill, is that it asserts the opposite of 'Pleasure is *γένεσις* or *ἀναπλήρωσις*'—that it maintains the paramount importance, in human life, of the pleasures of active function, against those who ignored them—the hedonists, because they wished to recognise only the pleasures of *ἀναπλήρωσις*, or passive reception, as worth anything—the ascetic Platonists because they wished, in their argument against the hedonists, to dwell on pleasures which could only be shown to be unsatisfactory.

[ἀπλῶς] Things are called *good* or *bad* in the strict sense, when b. 8. regarded as means, or hindrances, respectively, to the attainment of *εὐδαιμονία*. When they are called good or bad in relation to *ends*, the ends have to be specified; the terms good and bad in that case, be used by themselves—*ἀπλῶς* or *simpliciter*—without specification.

[ἀπλῶς] E. ii. 4. 1221 b. 38.

b. 6.

[ἀπλῶς] Muretus conjectured ἀπὸ τοῦ μάλα χαίρειν, and b. 7. ἀπὸ τοῦ χαίρειν. The Ald. Schol. has ἀπὸ τοῦ χαίρειν. The Ald. Schol. has ἀπὸ τοῦ χαίρειν. The Ald. Schol. has ἀπὸ τοῦ χαίρειν. Asp. has τὸν εὐδαιμόνα ἀπὸ τοῦ εἶποις μάλα χαίροντα.

[ἀπλῶς] No pleasure is good. This was the view b. 8. (as Asp. notes): see Aul. Gell. ix. 5. Seneca summum malum dicit esse voluptu-
sum est μανείην μᾶλλον ἢ ἡσθείην. Cf.

1152 b. 8. Euseb. *Præp. Evang.* xv. 13 (quoted by Mullach *Frag. Phil.* vol. ii. p. 286) 'Ἀντισθένης Ἡρακλείτειός τις ἀνὴρ τὸ φρόνημα, δεῖξαι τοῦ ἡδεσθαι τὸ μαίνεσθαι κρεῖττον εἶναι· διὸ καὶ παρήγει τοῖς γυναιμοῖσι, μηδέποτε χάριν ἡδονῆς δάκτυλον ἐκτεῖναι. Speusippus (nephew and successor of Plato) also held that no pleasure is good. See vii. 13. 1 for the argument with which he maintained this position: cf. Aul. Gell. ix. 5 (quoted by Fritzsche) 'Speusippus vetusque omnis Academia voluptatem et dolorem duo mala esse dicunt opposita inter sese.'

b. 10. τοῖς δ' εἶναι κ.τ.λ.] This, as Fritzsche observes, is the view of Plato (*Phileb.* 48 A, sqq., where ἀληθεῖς, καθαροί, ἀμικτοί are distinguished from μικτοί and ἀκάθαρτοι ἡδοναί).

b. 11. εἶτι κ.τ.λ.] Plato's view, expressed in the *Philebus*, and referred to in *E. N.* x. 2. 3 τοιοῦτον δὲ λόγον καὶ Πλάτων ἀναίρει ὅτι οὐκ ἔστι ἡδονὴ τἀγαθόν. The view of *E. N.* x is also μὴ ἐνδέχεσθαι εἶναι τὸν ἀριστον ἡδονήν.

For Bekker's ἀγαθόν in b. 9, Bywater reads τὸ ἀγαθόν with K^b. This is not to be understood as the *summum bonum*, but simply as 'that which is good.' 'They think that no pleasure is good, either in itself (as the ἀρεταί are good in themselves), or relatively (as ἰατρεῖαι are relatively good); for "good" and "pleasant" are not the same.'

b. 12. § 4.] The Paraph. explains the connexion between this § and § 3—τὰ μὲν οὖν δοκοῦντα περὶ τῆς ἡδονῆς ταῦτά ἐστι· ῥητίων δὲ οὐκ ἰδούκει.

ὅπως μὲν οὖν οὐκ ἀγαθόν] i. e. οὐδεμία ἡδονὴ εἶναι ἀγαθόν b. 8.

b. 13. ὅτι . . . οἰκία] The reference here cannot (or, in justice, ought not to) be to Plato himself, for he did not regard *all* pleasures as γενέσεις: see below note on vii. 12. 3, a. 8. The phrase γένεσις εἰς φύσιν αἰσθητή does not occur *verbatim* in Plato's writings (although ἀναπλήρωσις αἰσθητή does in *Phileb.* 51 B: see Fritzsche, *E. E.* p. 181); it was probably used in the Platonic school, however; perhaps, Fritzsche thinks, by Speusippus. It may have been borrowed from Aristippus (who is probably referred to in *Phileb.* 53 C ἄρα περὶ ἡδονῆς οὐκ ἀκηκόαμεν ὡς αἰεὶ γένεσις ἐστίν, οὐσία δὲ οὐκ ἔστι τὸ παρὲν ἡδονῆς): an expression of his preserved by Diog. Laert. ii. 8. 6. 85 (quoted by Fritzsche, *E. E.* p. 181) resembles it—'Ἀριστιππος τῆσδε ἀπέφαινε τὴν λείαν κίνησιν εἰς αἰσθησιν ἀναδιδομένην.

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1152 b. 19. ἔτι παῖδιά κ.τ.λ.] Children and brutes seek pleasure by an *irrational* impulse (ἀλόγως φερόμενα Paraph.), and that which is thus sought cannot be *good*. From this very fact, that children and brutes seek pleasure, the Cyrenaics, Fritzsche observes, drew the opposite conclusion—that it is good.

b. 20. § 5. τοῦ δὲ μὴ πάσας σπουδαίας] sc. αἰτιον εἶναι τινες ἐδόξαζον (Ald. Schol.).

b. 22. νοσώδη] 'unhealthy.'

CHAPTER XII.

ARGUMENT.

The arguments mentioned in chapter 11. §§ 4, 5 do not prove that pleasure is not good, or even that it is not the Chief Good: for (1) they ignore the fact that a thing may be 'good' in either of two senses—either 'good absolutely,' or 'good relatively.' There are doubtless many pleasures which are good relatively to bad or impaired states and natures, and which are consequently bad; but there are also pleasures which are good absolutely.

(2) They ignore the fact that the term 'good' may be applied to an actual function, as well as to a state or condition. It is argued that pleasure is 'not good' because it is only a 'process towards' goodness—i. e. towards the perfect restoration of an impaired state: but the pleasures of thinking are forgotten, which are not 'processes towards the restoration of impaired states,' but functions put forth by a perfect state. Even the pleasure attending the satisfaction of a bodily want is really a 'function put forth' by an unimpaired nucleus in the state requiring restoration.

The 'goodness' of a state, then, is not the only or the highest 'goodness': there is also the 'goodness' of function proceeding from state, and this is the higher kind of 'goodness.'

Thus it is not necessary to suppose that there is something better than pleasure, as the end is 'better than' the process towards the end; for pleasure is not a 'process towards' (nor are all pleasures even associated with 'process'): it is rather a 'function proceeding from'; it is an end realised by the subject quâ doing something, not quâ undergoing a process; and is to be defined, not as a 'process of which one is conscious,' but as 'unimpeded function.'

There are some again, who, giving another meaning to 'process,' identify pleasure and 'process,' because, they argue, pleasure is absolutely good. They confound 'process' and 'function.'

To argue that pleasures are bad because some pleasant things are bad for health, is absurd—for even thinking is sometimes bad for health. Neither thought nor any faculty is hindered by its own pleasure, only by alien pleasures;

may, the pleasure of thinking and learning makes us think and learn all the better.

As for there being 'no art of pleasure'—that is just what one might expect: art deals with the conditions of the performance of a function, not with the actual function itself, as such.

As for the argument that the temperate man shuns pleasure, and the prudent man seeks the life devoid of pain rather than the life of pleasure—we answer it, as above, by distinguishing pleasures: the pleasures which are associated with painful craving—the excessive bodily pleasures—the temperate or prudent man indeed shuns; but he has his own pleasures—those of the good life.

§ 1. μὴ εἶναι ἀγαθὸν μηδὲ τὸ ἄριστον] As Michelet notes, the 1152 b. 25. present chapter deals with μὴ εἶναι ἀγαθόν, and ch. 13 with μηδὲ τὸ ἄριστον.

πρῶτον μὲν . . . καμνόντων] The apodosis begins b. 27 with καὶ αἱ b. 26. φύσεις. The term ἀκολουθήσουσιν must be understood to mean, not only that the general distinction, formulated in the protasis, between τὸ ἀπλῶς ἀγαθόν and τὸ τινί will be found applicable to ἀγαθαὶ φύσεις καὶ ἔξεις, with their κινήσεις and γενέσεις, but also that a corresponding general distinction between τὸ ἀπλῶς φαῦλον and τὸ τινί may be inferred (on the principle laid down in *E. N.* v. 1. 6 ἀκολουθεῖ δ' ὡς ἐπὶ τὸ πολὺ, εἰάν τι πλεοναχῶς λέγεται, καὶ θάτερον πλεοναχῶς λέγεσθαι), and that it will be found applicable to φαῦλαι φύσεις καὶ ἔξεις, with their κινήσεις and γενέσεις. The Paraphrast sees this—
 Ὅτι γὰρ οὐκ ἀνάγκη διὰ τοὺς εἰρημένους λόγους μὴ εἶναι τὴν ἡδονὴν ἀγαθόν, μηδὲ τὸ ἄριστον, ἐκ τῶνδε δῆλον. ἐπεὶ γὰρ τὸ ἀγαθὸν διχῶς λέγεται, τὸ μὲν ἀπλῶς καὶ καθ' αὐτὸ καὶ κυρίως, ὡς ἡ ἀρετή, τὸ δὲ οὐχ ἀπλῶς μὲν ἀγαθόν, τινὶ δὲ ἀγαθόν, ὡς τὸ λωποδυτεῖν τῷ λωποδύτῃ ἀγαθόν, ἀκόλουθόν ἐστιν ὅτι καὶ φύσεις πᾶσα, καὶ ἔξεις, καὶ πᾶσα κινήσεις, καὶ γενέσεις, ἡ μὲν ἔσται ἀπλῶς ἀγαθὴ, ἡ δὲ τινί. ὁμοίως καὶ ἐπὶ τοῦ κακοῦ. κινήσεις γάρ, καὶ γενέσεις, καὶ ἔξεις, αἱ μὲν φαῦλαι ἀπλῶς, αἱ δὲ τινί, καὶ τῶν φαύλων τινί· καὶ αἱ μὲν καὶ αἰεὶ φαῦλαί τινί, αἱ δὲ κατὰ τινα τρόπον, καὶ ὀλίγον χρόνον.

The argument in this §, directed against οἱ λέγοντες μὴ εἶναι ἀγαθόν τὴν ἡδονήν, may be explained as follows—When we say that a thing is 'good,' we mean, either that it is good without qualification—good in itself: thus Wisdom is good in itself, without qualification—or that it is good in a qualified sense—not in itself, but in relation to something else: thus the venom of a snake is good in relation to the welfare of the snake, the amputation of a limb is good in relation to the survival of the patient, but they are 'bad' in themselves—*cf. M. M.* ii. 7. 1205 a. 29 ἔστι γὰρ ἡ φύσις φαῦλη, οἷον ἡ τῶν

1152 b. 28. σκολήκων καὶ ἢ τῶν καθάρων καὶ ὅλως ἢ τῶν ἀτίμων ζῆον . . . σπουδαία, οἷον ἢ ἀνθρώπου.

Now, those who say roundly that 'no pleasures are good' regard exclusively motions and processes (κινήσεις καὶ γενέσεις), which are 'good' only in a relative sense, and 'bad' in themselves—viz. the motions and processes which belong to bad or impaired natures (φύσεις) and states (ἕξεις). The motions and processes (equivalent in the view of the philosophers here criticised, to the pleasures) of bad natures are good for the possessors of the bad natures (being *their own* pleasures, see *E. N.* i. 8. 10), but are in themselves bad *i.e.* unworthy of human nature: the motions and processes of remedial kind, which restore impaired natures and states to their normal condition, are good for the possessors of the impaired natures or states, but bad in themselves—*i.e.* not characteristic of healthy human nature: indeed they are often not even felt as pleasures by the patients, but are only thought to be pleasures because they remove pain. It is from looking exclusively, then, at these 'pleasures'—the 'relatively good' but 'intrinsically bad' motions and processes of (1) bad, and (2) impaired natures and states, that they draw the sweeping conclusion—'no pleasures are good.' They ignore the existence of pleasures (indicated in the next §) belonging to the free activities of the rational nature of man, which, as rational, is good in itself, and suffers no losses needing painful repair. The argument of this §, as given above, is summed up later on by the writer himself—vii. 14. 4 καὶ οὐ σπουδαῖον δὴ δοκεῖ ἢ ἡδονὴ διὰ δύο ταῦτα, ὡς περ εἶρηται, ὅτι αἱ μὲν φαῦλαι φύσεώς εἰσι πράξεις . . . αἱ δ' ἰατρεῖαι ἐνδεοῦς.

On the ground that the φαῦλαι κινήσεις ought to be subdivided in the same manner as the σπουδαῖαι, Rasso (Forsch. pp. 81, 82) conjectures that after αἱ μὲν ἀπλῶς φαῦλαι b. 29 the words αἱ δὲ τῶν μὲν φαῦλαι have fallen out; and instead of understanding ἀπλῶς with αἵρεται δ' οὐ b. 31 (as Bekker's χρόνον, αἵρεται δ' οὐ requires—*cf.* Ald. Schol. αὐταὶ δὲ καθ' αὐτὰς αἵρεται οὐκ εἰσὶν), he conjectures χρόνον αἵρεται, αἱ δ' οὐ. This last conjecture (accepted by Sus.) gives, I think, a good meaning, and is palaeographically probable. Bywater's αἵρεται, (ἀπλῶς) δ' οὐ b. 31 does not seem to me to bring out so well the contrast intended, which is between the ἀπλῶς φαῦλαι ἀλλ' αἵρεται τῆδε ὀλίγον χρόνον, and the ἀπλῶς φαῦλαι ἀλλ' αἵρεται τῆδε πάντα τὸν βίον. So far as the authority of Asp. goes, I think that it is quite as much in favour of supplying αἱ as ἀπλῶς—αἱ δὲ οὐδὲ αἵρεται τῆδε, ἀλλὰ τῶν

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1152 b. 33. 'good' they have to consider in this connexion is that of the *ἔξις*. They argue—the *ἔξις*, as end, is 'good' and 'real': therefore pleasure, which is *ἡ γένεσις ἢ καθιστάσα εἰς τὴν φυσικὴν ἔξιν*, is not 'good' or 'real' in its own right. This is the argument for which Socrates gives thanks in *Phileb.* 54 C, D οὐκοῦν ἡδονὴ γε, εἴπερ γένεσις ἐστίν, ἔνεκά τινος οὐσίας ἐξ ἀνάγκης γίγνοιτ' ἂν . . . οὐκοῦν τῷ μνηύσαντι τῆς ἡδονῆς περὶ τὸ γένεσιν μὲν, οὐσίαν δὲ μηδ' ἠντινοῦν αὐτῆς εἶναι χάριον εἶναι δεῖ· δῆλον γὰρ ὅτι οὗτος τῶν φασκόντων ἡδονὴν ἀγαθὸν εἶναι καταγελάσκει. But the 'good' of the *ἔξις* is not the only 'good' to be considered in this connexion. The *ἔξις* is for the sake of the *ἐνέργεια* which proceeds from it, and the *ἐνέργεια* is 'good' in a more eminent sense than the *ἔξις*. What, if pleasure be, not a 'motion' which generates (*κίνησις*=*γένεσις*) the *ἔξις*, but a function which proceeds from it—*ἡ τῆς φυσικῆς ἔξεως ἐνέργεια*, and so the true *οὐσία* of the *ἔξις*? This, it is suggested, is a point which is overlooked by οἱ λέγοντες μὴ εἶναι ἀγαθὸν τὴν ἡδονήν.

It is thus in the form of criticism that the writer introduces his own theory of pleasure as *ἐνέργεια τῆς κατὰ φύσιν ἔξεως*. And it is to be noted how completely he makes his own theory occupy the ground from the very first. Not only are the *ἡδοναί* of thought, which involve no pain or craving, *ἐνέργειαι τῆς κατὰ φύσιν ἔξεως*, but even αἱ κινήσεις καὶ αἱ γενέσεις αἱ καθιστάσαι εἰς τὴν φυσικὴν ἔξιν—the generative motions which restore a *ἔξις*—depend on the unimpaired part of the *ἔξις*—or the *ἔξις* *quod* unimpaired (*ἡ ὑπόλοιπος ἔξις*)—performing an *ἐνέργεια*: and it is this *ἐνέργεια* of the unimpaired part of the *ἔξις*, or of the *ἔξις* *quod* unimpaired, which is the pleasure—therefore no merely secondary and apparent pleasure—experienced in connexion with the *γένεσις*, *ἀναπλήρωσις*, or *ἰατρεία*, by which a want is satisfied. If the *ἔξις* were entirely destroyed—had no remnant of vitality left in it, it could not be restored. *Ἰατρεία* implies the *vis medicatrix naturae*. The pleasure experienced in restoration is thus the *reaction* of the organism, *quod* unimpaired, against the pain and want of its partially impaired condition. There are, however, other pleasures which are the spontaneous *actions* of their *ἔξεις*.

The passage (*ἔρι* b. 33 . . . *οὐσης* a. 2) may be paraphrased as follows—'Again, the term "good" is applicable to a function and to a state:—the natural state being "good," the motions which restore a man to it are, of course, "good," and "pleasant" derivatively. If these "motions" are what we are to understand by "pleasures," then our opponents have made out their case—no

pleasures are "good." But we must not allow them to stop short 1152 b. 33. at the "goodness" of the mere state. The "goodness" of its function is higher; and when desire for restoration is being satisfied, the state, in so far as it remains partly unimpaired, performs a function: it is this function which is the pleasure experienced in the restorative process—not but that there are pleasures without accompanying pain and desire—for instance the functions of thought, proceeding from a state, or faculty, which lacks nothing to the fulness of its nature.' Aspasius has a good commentary (145. 1 Heylbut)—ἐπεὶ δὲ τοῦ ἀγαθοῦ τὸ μὲν ἐνέργεια τὸ δὲ ἕξις, ὡς ἕξις μὲν ἀγαθὸν ἀρετῆ, ὡς ἐνέργεια δὲ ἢ κατ' ἀρετὴν ἐνέργεια, καὶ αἰσθησις μὲν ἀγαθὸν ὡς ἕξις (λέγω δὲ αἰσθησιν τὴν δύναμιν, ἢ δὲ κατ' ἐνέργειαν αἰσθησις ἀγαθὸν ὡς ἐνέργεια), ἢ ἡδονὴ ἀγαθὸν ἐστὶν οὐχ ὡς ἕξις ἀλλ' ὡς ἐνέργεια τῆς φύσεως. κατὰ συμβεβηκὸς δὲ αἱ ἀναπληρώσεις καὶ ἀποκαταστάσεις, αἱ εἰσὶν εἰς τὴν φύσιν, ἡδεῖαι. προηγουμένως μὲν γὰρ ἡδόμεθα διὰ τὸ ἐνεργεῖν τὴν φύσιν τρεφομένων ἡμῶν· λέγω δὲ φύσιν τὴν ψυχὴν. ἐνεργεῖ γὰρ τότε ἢ θρεπτικῆ, καὶ διὰ τοῦτο ἡδόμεθα. συμβαίνει δὲ τὸ τηρικαῦτα καὶ ἀναπλήρωσις γενέσθαι. ἔστι δὲ ἡ ἡδονὴ ἐνέργεια τῆς ὑπολοίπου ἐν ἡμῖν φύσεως καὶ ἕξεως. κἄν γὰρ ἐνδεεῖς ὦμεν κατὰ τὸ σῶμα τὴν γε φύσιν ὑπολελειμμένην καὶ δυναμένην ἐν αὐτῇ ἐνεργεῖν ἔχομεν (ὥστε Diels) αὐτὴν συμπρόστων αὐτῇ τῶν σιτίων καὶ τῶν ποτῶν ἐνεργεῖν. καὶ ἡ μὲν ἡδονὴ κατ' ἐνέργειαν, κατὰ συμβεβηκὸς δέ, ὡς φησιν, ἀναπλήρωσις γίνεται τοῦ ἐνδίουτος ἐν τῷ σώματι.

αἱ καθιστᾶσαι] sc. αἱ κινήσεις καὶ αἱ γενέσεις—(a sort of hendiadys) b. 34. = 'the κινήσεις which produce and restore ἕξεις' to be carefully distinguished, as ἀτελεῖς (see vii. 11. 4 οὐδεμία γένεσις συγγενῆς τοῖς τέλεισι), from the ἐνέργειαι, or functions, which proceed from the ἕξεις. The writer's point is that his opponents, not looking beyond 'the good of the ἕξις,' forget that there are ἐνέργειαι proceeding from the ἕξις (which are 'better than' the ἕξις), as well as κινήσεις (=γενέσεις) leading up to it. The tendency to acquiesce in 'the good of the mere ἕξις' is one to which the Aristotelian school offers opposition all along the line—cf. *E. N.* i. 8. 9 τὴν μὲν γὰρ ἕξιν ἐνδέχεται μηδὲν ἀγαθὸν ἀποτελεῖν ὑπάρχουσαν κ.τ.λ. For the phrase αἱ καθιστᾶσαι εἰς τὴν φυσικὴν ἕξιν Fritzsche quotes *Phileb.* 42 D εἰς δὲ γε τὴν αὐτῶν φύσιν ὅταν καθιστῆται, ταύτην αὐτὴν τὴν κατάστυσιν ἡδονὴν ἀπεδεξάμεθα παρ' ἡμῶν αὐτῶν.

ἔστι δ' ἡ ἐνέργεια ἐν ταῖς ἐπιθυμίαις τῆς ὑπολοίπου ἕξεως καὶ b. 35. φύσεως] 'but what performs the function (i. e. actually experiences

1152 b. 35. *pleasure*), when the desires are being satisfied, is that which — is left of the natural state.' 'Ενέργεια is used here in a way which seems to anticipate the identification made in § 3.

Υπολοίπου (K^b, NC, Asp.) means 'remaining,' 'left untouched' by the decay which has destroyed the rest of the state: *cf.* vii. 14. 7, which is a complete commentary on the present passage—~~λ~~ ~~ή~~ ~~γα~~ ~~δ~~ ~~ε~~ ~~κ~~ ~~α~~ ~~τ~~ ~~α~~ ~~σ~~ ~~υ~~ ~~μ~~ ~~β~~ ~~ε~~ ~~β~~ ~~η~~ ~~κ~~ ~~ὸ~~ ~~ς~~ ~~ἤ~~ ~~δ~~ ~~ε~~ ~~ἴ~~ ~~α~~ ~~τ~~ ~~α~~ ~~ῖ~~ ~~α~~ ~~τ~~ ~~α~~ ~~ῖ~~ ~~ν~~ ~~τ~~ ~~α~~ ~~·~~ ~~ὅ~~ ~~τ~~ ~~ι~~ ~~γ~~ ~~ὰ~~ ~~ρ~~ ~~σ~~ ~~υ~~ ~~μ~~ ~~β~~ ~~α~~ ~~ῖ~~ ~~ν~~ ~~ε~~ ~~ἴ~~ ~~ν~~ ~~ε~~ ~~ἴ~~ ~~ν~~ ~~ε~~ ~~ι~~ ~~σ~~ ~~θ~~ ~~α~~ ~~ι~~ ~~·~~ ~~τ~~ ~~ο~~ ~~ῦ~~ ~~ὑ~~ ~~π~~ ~~ο~~ ~~μ~~ ~~έ~~ ~~ν~~ ~~ο~~ ~~ν~~ ~~τ~~ ~~ο~~ ~~ς~~ ~~ὑ~~ ~~γ~~ ~~ι~~ ~~ο~~ ~~ῦ~~ ~~ς~~ ~~π~~ ~~ρ~~ ~~ά~~ ~~τ~~ ~~τ~~ ~~ο~~ ~~ν~~ ~~τ~~ ~~ὸ~~ ~~ς~~ ~~τ~~ ~~ι~~, ~~δι~~ ~~ὰ~~ ~~τ~~ ~~ο~~ ~~ῦ~~ ~~τ~~ ~~ο~~ ~~·~~ ~~ἤ~~ ~~δ~~ ~~ὁ~~ ~~κ~~ ~~ε~~ ~~ῖ~~ ~~ε~~ ~~ἴ~~ ~~ν~~ ~~α~~ ~~ι~~ ~~·~~ ~~φ~~ ~~ύ~~ ~~σ~~ ~~ε~~ ~~ι~~ ~~δ~~ ~~᾽~~ ~~ἡ~~ ~~ἄ~~ ~~λ~~ ~~ο~~ ~~γ~~ ~~ῖ~~ ~~α~~, ~~ἃ~~ ~~π~~ ~~ο~~ ~~ι~~ ~~ε~~ ~~ῖ~~ ~~π~~ ~~ρ~~ ~~ά~~ ~~ξ~~ ~~ι~~ ~~ν~~ ~~τ~~ ~~ῆ~~ ~~ς~~ ~~τ~~ ~~ο~~ ~~ι~~ ~~ᾶ~~ ~~σ~~ ~~θ~~ ~~ε~~ ~~φ~~ ~~ύ~~ ~~σ~~ ~~ε~~ ~~ω~~ ~~ς~~. The reading of M^b, CCC, ~~and~~ Cambr.—*ὑπολύπου* (adopted by Zell, Coraes, and Michelet), is plausible on account of *λύπη* in the line below, but must be dismissed, as inconsistent with the *τοῦ ὑπομένουτος ὑγιούς* of vii. 14. 7. Nor can the meaning given by the Ald. Schol. and others *10 ὑπολοίπου*, viz. 'defective' (*ἦτοι τῆς λοιπαζομένης φύσεως καὶ ἐν ἐνδείξει οὐσης βρωμάτων* Ald. Sch.)—suggested apparently by *οἶκ ἐνδοῦτε οὐσας* 1153 a. 1—be defended: *ὑπόλοιπος* can mean only 'left behind,' 'left untouched,' 'remaining.' L^b and O^b have *ἐπιλοίπου*, and *Γ* apparently *ἐπιλιπούς* (*indigentis et imperfecti*).

Grant gives the gist of § 2 excellently when he says—'The argument is that it is only life, and the vital action (*φυσική ἔξις ἐπὶ ταύτης ἐνέργεια*) which is good and pleasant: the restorative processes are only secondarily, non-essentially, and by a sort of inference pleasant. . . . The argument goes on to add that, even in these restorative processes, there is vital action (*ἐνέργεια*), namely of those organs that remain unimpaired.'

b. 36. *ἐπεὶ*] The transition marked by *ἐπεὶ* here may be brought out thus—'In restorative processes the pleasure is the *reaction* of the vitality left in the *ἔξις*: but it must not be supposed that all pleasure is reaction, for there are pleasures which are spontaneous actions.' For this use of *ἐπεὶ* (= 'although,' 'not but that') *cf.* vii. 12. 7 *ὁ σώφρων φεύγει ταύτας, ἐπεὶ εἰσὶν ἡδοναὶ καὶ σώφρονες.*

1153 a. 2. *σημεῖον δ'*] *sc.* τοῦ καὶ ἄνευ λύπης καὶ ἐπιθυμίας εἶναι ἡδονῆς (Fritzsche). *Cf.* *M. M.* ii. 7. 1205 b. 20 *ἐπεὶ δ' οὐκ ἔστιν ἡ ἡδονὴ ἐπὶ καθισταμένης τῆς φύσεως καὶ καθεστηκυίας, οἷον καθισταμένης μὲν αἱ ἐξ ἐνδείας ἀναπληρώσεις, καθεστηκυίας δὲ αἱ ἀπὸ τῆς ὄψεως καὶ τῆς ἀκοῆς καὶ τῶν τοιούτων οὔσαι, βελτίους ἂν εἴησαν αἱ καθεστηκυίας τῆς φύσεως ἐνέργειαι· αἱ γὰρ ἡδοναὶ κατ' ἀμφοτέρους λεγόμεναι τοὺς τρόπους ἐνέργειαι εἰσὶν ὥστε δῆλον ὅτι αἱ ἀπὸ τῆς ὄψεως ἡδοναὶ καὶ τῆς ἀκοῆς καὶ τοῦ διαπορεύεσθαι βέλτισται ἂν εἴησαν, ἐπεὶ αἱ γὰρ σωματικαὶ ἐξ ἀναπληρώσεως.*

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1153 a. 2. ψυχῆς ἐνεργεῖν, ἢ διὰ τὴν αὐτοῦ ἐνέργειαν, οἴονται γένησιν εἶναι τὴν ἡδονήν τῷ τὴν προσφορὰν δῆλην εἶναι, τὸ δὲ τῆς ψυχῆς μέρισον δῆλον. ὁμοίως οὐκ εἴ τις τὸν ἄνθρωπον οἶεται εἶναι σῶμα, ὅτι τοῦτο μὲν αἰσθητὸν ἐστίν, ἢ δὲ ψυχὴ οὐ· ἔστι δέ γε καὶ [ἡ] ψυχὴ. ὁμοίως δὲ καὶ ἐπὶ τούτου ἔστιν γὰρ μέρισον τι τῆς ψυχῆς ἢ ἡδόμεθα, ὃ ἅμα τῇ προσφορᾷ ἐνεργεῖ. διὸ οὐκ ἔστι οὐδεμία ἡδονὴ γένησις.

a. 7. διέστηκεν] The MSS. have συνέστηκεν, but a correction in CCC anticipates the conjecture of Bonitz—διέστηκεν, adopted by Bywater.

§ 3. ἔτι οὐκ ἀνάγκη ἕτερόν τι εἶναι βέλτιον τῆς ἡδονῆς] The Paraph. is wrong in thinking that the writer passes on here to discuss the second of the two points indicated at the beginning of this chapter—ὅτι δ' οὐ συμβαίνει διὰ ταῦτα μὴ εἶναι ἀγαθὸν μηδὲ τὸ ἀριστον, ἐκ τῶνδε δῆλον. He is still concerned with the first point, and does not deal with the second till vii. 13. 2.

a. 8. ὡς περ τινὲς φασὶ κ.τ.λ.] The argument 'that there is something "better than" pleasure, i. e. something for the sake of which pleasure is chosen, because pleasure is only a γένησις,' falls to the ground, for pleasure is not a γένησις. For the distinction between the τέλος (or οὐσία) and the γένησις, on which this argument relies, see *Phileb.* 54 C (quoted by Zell and Fritzsche) φημι ἐκάστην γένησιν ἄλλην ἄλλης οὐσίας τινὸς ἐκάστης ἕνεκα γίνεσθαι, ζύμπασαν δὲ γένησιν οὐσίας ἕνεκα γίνεσθαι ζυμπάσης. οὐκοῦν ἡδονὴ γε, εἴπερ γένησις ἐστίν, ἕνεκα τινος οὐσίας ἐξ ἀνάγκης γίγνεται ἄν. τό γε μὴν οὐ ἕνεκα τὸ ἕνεκά του γιγνώμενον ἀεὶ γίγνεται ἄν, ἐν τῇ τοῦ ἀγαθοῦ μοίρᾳ ἐκεῖνό ἐστι· τὸ δὲ τινὸς ἕνεκα γιγνώμενον εἰς ἄλλην μοῖραν βετέον. ἀρ' οὐν ἡδονὴ γε, εἴπερ γένησις ἐστίν, εἰς ἄλλην ἢ τὴν τοῦ ἀγαθοῦ μοῖραν αὐτὴν τιθέντες ὀρθῶς θήσομεν; ὀρθότατα μὲν οὐν. οὐκοῦν τῷ μηνύσαντι τῆς ἡδονῆς περὶ τὸ γένησιν μὲν, οὐσίας δὲ μηδ' ἠντινοῦν αὐτῆς εἶναι, χάριον ἔχειν δεῖ. δῆλον γὰρ ὅτι οὗτος τῶν φασκεύτων ἡδονὴν ἀγαθὸν εἶναι καταγελά. Here Plato thanks others for the formula γένησις ἐστίν ἢ ἡδονή. See also *Phileb.* 53 C ἀρα περὶ ἡδονῆς οὐκ ἀκηκόαμεν ὡς ἀεὶ γένησις ἐστίν οὐσία δὲ οὐκ ἔστι τὸ παράπαν ἡδονῆς; καμφεὶ γὰρ δὴ τινες [generally thought to be the Cyrenaics: see Grant, *Ethics* vol. i. p. 176, Essay ii] αὐτὸν τὸν λόγον ἐπιχειροῦσι μηδέω ἡμῖν οἷς δεῖ χάριον ἔχειν. The formula then was not invented by Plato, and he did not apply it to the pleasures of thought and of the higher senses, except in a way which deprives it of the significance which it has as applied to those of eating and

drinking: for, although he thinks of the former pleasures as ἀσπληρώσεις, he distinguishes them, as καθαροὶ καὶ ἄνευ λύπης, from the latter, which are ἀπαλλαγὰι λύπης: see *Rep.* 584, and *Phileb.* 51, 53.

Grant may be right when he says, speaking of the argument βέλτιον τὸ τέλος τῆς γενέσεως criticised in the present section—‘In all probability the school, and perhaps the actual writings, of Speusippus are here alluded to.’

οὐ γὰρ γενέσεις εἰσὶν οὐδὲ μετὰ γενέσεως πᾶσαι] πᾶσαι, of course, a. 8. refers to οὐδὲ μετὰ γενέσεως only. No pleasures are γενέσεις, although some are μετὰ γενέσεως. The words οὐδὲ γινομένων συμβαίνοσι, equivalent to οὐ γὰρ γενέσεις εἰσὶν, must be translated so as not to contradict the truth—μετὰ γενέσεως τιναὶ ἡδοναὶ εἶναι. Συμβαίνειν, as in the formula of the syllogism *Top.* i. 1, and as one sense of the term is defined in *Mel.* Δ. 30. 1025 a. 30 (λέγεται δὲ καὶ ἄλλως συμβεβηκός· οἷον ὅσα ἵπάρχει καθ’ αὐτὸ ἐκάστῳ μὴ ἐν τῇ οὐσίᾳ ὄντα· οἷον τῷ τριγώνῳ τὸ δύο ὀρθὰς ἔχειν), marks *necessary consequence*, as of the effect from its cause, the property from the essence. It is in this sense, and not in that of accidental concomitance, that it must be understood here. Grant’s ‘result from’ brings this out well—‘they do not result from our coming to our powers (γινομένων), but from our using those powers (χρωμένων).’ The subject of γινομένων and χρωμένων is ἡμῶν. Γένεσις is sometimes materially necessary to the χρῆσις (e.g. the ἵπλοισις ἔξις of the hungry man feels pleasure, on the occasion of eating), but is not to be identified with it.

ἀλλὰ τῶν εἰς τὴν τελείωσιν ἀγομένων τῆς φύσεως] = τῶν καθιστασῶν a. 12. εἰς τὴν φυσικὴν ἔξιν, according to Ramsauer: i. e. ἀγομένων is middle, and its subject is κινήσεων understood. This is the view of the Paraph. also, who has—Καὶ γὰρ τῶν ἐνεργειῶν ὅσαι μὲν εἰς τελείωσιν ἀγούσι φύσεως, οὐκ αὐταὶ εἰσι τέλος, ὥσπερ ἡ καθ’ ἑξὶν ἰατρικὴν ἐνέργεια τέλος ἔχει τὴν ὑγίειαν· ὅσαι δὲ οὐκ ἀγούσιν εἰς φυσικὴν τελείωσιν, ἀλλ’ αὐταὶ εἰσιν ἡ φυσικὴ τελείωσις, δῆλον ὡς οὐκ ἔχουσιν ἄλλο τέλος, ἀλλὰ ἄλλων αὐταὶ εἰσι τέλη· ὥσπερ εἴ τις κατὰ τὴν τελείαν ἔξω τῆς ἀρετῆς ἐνεργεῖ.

I am inclined to think that the writing is very careless, and that ἀγομένων is passive, its subject being the persons whose nature (τῆς φύσεως) is in question. I think that it is easier to suppose carelessness of this kind, than to take ἀγομένων = ἀγουσῶν.

12. διὸ καὶ οὐ καλῶς κ.τ.λ.] The definition rejected on philosophic grounds here (and, so far as γέσεις is involved, also in x. 3. 5) is ~~not~~ very different from that accepted by Aristotle as adequate for the more popular purpose of the student of rhetoric—*Rhet.* i. 11. 1369 b. 33 ὑποκείσθω δ' ἡμῖν εἶναι τὴν ἡδονὴν κίνησιν τινα τῆς ψυχῆς καὶ κατάστασιν ἀθρόαν καὶ αἰσθητὴν εἰς τὴν ὑπάρχουσαν φύσιν, λύπην δὲ τούτων. Ramsauer (p. 487) quotes two other passages in which Aristotle describes pleasure in terms which recall those of the definition here condemned, viz. *Probl.* 878 b. 11 ἢ εἰς τὸ κατὰ φύσιν ὁδὸς ἡδύ, εἰάν ᾗ αἰσθητῇ, and *E. N.* ix. 9. 9 τὸ δ' αἰσθάνεσθαι ὅτι ζῆ, τῶν ἡδέων καθ' αὐτὸ (φύσει γὰρ ἀγαθὸν ζῶν, τὸ δ' ἀγαθὸν ὑπάρχον ἐν αὐτῷ αἰσθάνεσθαι ἡδύ).
- n. 14. ἀλλὰ μᾶλλον λεκτέον ἐνέργειαν κ.τ.λ.] 'Aristotle,' says Grant, 'when writing accurately distinguishes pleasure from the moments of life and consciousness (ἐνέργειαι) from which it is inseparable. Cf. x. 5. 6. He, however, does not more specifically define it than as ἐπιγιγνώμενόν τι τέλος (τῇ ἐνεργείᾳ) *Eth.* x. 4. 8. Eudemus does not preserve the distinction, but simply says that pleasure should be defined as "the unimpeded play of life." Aristotle himself occasionally writes in this way: cf. *Met.* xi. 7. 7 (Λ. 7. 1072 b. 16) ἐπεὶ καὶ ἡδονὴ ἢ ἐνέργεια τούτου.'¹
- n. 15. ἀνεμπόδιστον] ἀνεμπόδιστος occurs nowhere in the *E. N.*, and only here and in ch. 13. § 2 in the *E. E.*; but in *Pol.* Δ. 9. 1295 a. 35 the following words occur—εἰ γὰρ καλῶς ἐν τοῖς ἠθικοῖς εἴρηται τὸ τὸν εὐδαιμόνα βίον εἶναι τὸν κατ' ἀρετὴν ἀνεμπόδιστον κ.τ.λ. Hence Bendixen (*Bemerkungen zum siebenten Buch der Nicomachischen Ethik: Philolog.* x. 199–210, 263–292) maintains that Aristotle must refer to *E. N.* vii, because it is only in *E. N.* vii that the term ἀνεμπόδιστος occurs: consequently, that *E. N.* vii is by Aristotle. Against this view Spengel (*Arist. Stud.* pp. 189 sqq.) has little difficulty in showing that the reference in the *Politics* is not to the definition of ἡδονή given in vii, but to the doctrine of *E. N.* i and x, according to which εὐδαιμονία is ἐνέργεια ψυχῆς κατ' ἀρετὴν τελείαν ἐν βίῳ τελείῳ καὶ τοῖς ἐκτὸς ἀγαθοῖς ἰκανῶς κεχορηγημένῳ, the term ἀνεμπόδιστος being employed to sum up what is there expressed by ἐν βίῳ τελείῳ and τοῖς ἐκτὸς ἀγαθοῖς ἰκανῶς κεχορηγημένῳ—cf. *E. N.* i. 10. 12 τὰ δὲ μεγάλα (τῶν ἀτυχημάτων) . . . ἐμποδίζει πολλαῖς ἐνεργείαις. See also Grant, *Ethics*, Essay i. vol. i. pp. 55, 56.

¹ *Met.* Λ is post-Aristotelian: see Rose, *de Arist. libr. ord. et auctor.* p. 242.

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1153 a. 15. (*E. N.* x. 4. 11). All living beings striving after fulness of life according to their kinds, it is in the consciousness of successful life—*i. e.* in pleasure—that, for man and the other animals, the fulness of life is actually given. Life and Pleasure therefore cannot be separated as outer and inner—

Natur hat weder Kern noch Schale:
Alles ist sie mit einem Male.

The high position thus assigned to Pleasure by the side of, or rather in implication with, Life, or the Chief Good, marks the theory contained in vii and x as one to be viewed in a practical, or moral, rather than in a scientific light. The question, as I have said, which the theory sets itself to answer is (in spite of superficial appearances to the contrary) not 'What is pleasure as a physiological or psychological phenomenon?' but 'Is it good? And if so, how?'—*i. e.* 'What are the relations of the various pleasures to the good life?' Some of them doubtless hinder it; but others again sustain and heighten it. The hedonists placed the wrong pleasures—those of passive enjoyment—highest; the Platonists unduly depreciated pleasure. To show, as against both schools, that the pleasures of virtuous function, or Duty, crown life with perfection, seems to me to be the object of the Aristotelian theory—a practical, or moral, object, which is misrepresented by Mill when he points out (truly enough) that the object of a scientific psychology has not been attained—that no answer, or worse than no answer, has been given to its question, 'What is pleasure?' See Mill, *Examination of Sir W. Hamilton's Philosophy*, ch. 25. p. 486: 'Aristotle's theory, which, as understood by our author, differs little from his own, is presented by Sir W. Hamilton in the following words (*Lectures on Met.* ii. 452): "When a sense, for example, is in perfect health, and it is presented with a suitable object of the most perfect kind, there is elicited the most perfect energy, which at every instant of its continuance is accompanied with pleasure¹. The same holds good with the function of Imagination, Thought, &c. Pleasure is the concomitant in every case where powers and objects are in themselves perfect, and between which there subsists a suitable relation." The conditions whereon upon this showing pleasure depends are the healthiness of the sense, and the perfection of the object presented to it. This is simply making the fact its

¹ This is the theory of *E. N.* x rather than of vii.

own theory. When is a sense in perfect health, and its object perfect? The function of a sense is twofold—as a source of cognition and of feeling. If the perfection meant be in the function of cognition, the doctrine that pleasure depends on this is manifestly erroneous: according to Sir W. Hamilton it is even the reverse of the truth, for he holds that the knowledge given by an act of sense and the feeling accompanying it are in an inverse proportion to one another. Remains the supposition that the perfection of which Aristotle spoke was perfection not in respect of cognition but of feeling. It cannot, however, consist in acuteness of feeling, for our acutest feelings are pains. What, then, constitutes it? Pleasurableness of feeling: and the theory only tells us that pleasure is the result of a pleasurable state of the sense and a pleasure-giving quality in the object presented to it. Aristotle and Sir W. Hamilton did not certainly state the doctrine to themselves in this manner; but they reduced it to this by affirming pleasure or pain to depend on the perfect or imperfect action of the sense, when there was no criterion of imperfect or perfect action except that it produced pain or pleasure.' Mill is perhaps right in his contention that our scientific knowledge of the nature of pleasure is not enriched by the statement that 'it is the concomitant of perfect action.' But as a protest against those who said 'all pleasure is evil,' and those who made passive enjoyment the end, the statement is of great ethical importance. An interesting account of the Platonic and Aristotelian theories of pleasure, and notices of later theories, notably of Kant's, will be found in Hamilton's *Lectures on Met.* Lect. 43. Kant's theory of pleasure and pain is thus stated in his *Anthropologic* § 60, as rendered by Hamilton, *Met.* ii. 472—'Pleasure is the feeling of the furtherance (Beförderung), pain of the hindrance of life. Under pleasure is not to be understood the feeling of life; for in pain we feel life no less than in pleasure, nay perhaps even more strongly. In a state of pain life appears long, in a state of pleasure it seems brief; it is only, therefore, the feeling of promotion—the furtherance of life which constitutes pleasure. On the other hand, it is not the mere hindrance of life which constitutes pain; the hindrance must not only exist, it must be felt to exist.' 'These definitions of pleasure and pain,' Hamilton observes, 'are virtually identical with those of Aristotle, only far less clear and explicit.' But Kant's theory soon parts company from Aristotle's, as may be seen from another passage

1158 a. 15. in the *Anthropologie*, which, however, I quote to show that Kant, though differing from Aristotle in important respects, is at one with him in having a practical purpose to serve with his theory of pleasure; and I would suggest that the Kantian theory of pleasure is as likely to be misrepresented as the Aristotelian, if treated as a contribution to 'scientific psychology.' The passage is given by Hamilton (*Mel.* ii. 472) as follows—'If pleasure be a feeling of the promotion of life, this presupposes a hindrance of life; for there can be no promotion if there be no foregoing hindrance to overcome. Since, therefore, the hindrance of life is pain, pleasure must presuppose pain. . . . When we cast our eyes on the progress of things, we discover in ourselves a ceaseless tendency to escape from our present state. To this we are compelled by a physical stimulus. . . . But in the intellectual nature of man there is also a stimulus which operates to the same end. In thought man is always dissatisfied with the actual; he is ever looking forward from the present to the future. . . . Man is urged on by a necessity of his nature to go out of the present as a state of pain, in order to find in the future one less irksome. Man thus finds himself in a never-ceasing pain; and this is the spur for the activity of human nature. Our lot is so cast that there is nothing enduring for us but pain. . . . Pleasure is nothing positive; it is only a liberation of pain, and therefore only something negative. . . . It is certainly the intention of Providence that by the alternation of pain we should be urged on to activity. [Here Kant applies his theory; and its significance lies in the practical application he makes of it, not in the scientific meaning which may be extracted from the terms in which it is couched.] No one can find pleasure in the continual enjoyment of delights; these soon pall upon us. . . . There is no permanent pleasure to be reaped except in labour alone. . . . Labour is irksome, labour has its annoyances, but these are fewer than those we should experience were we without labour. As man, therefore, must seek even his recreation in toil itself, his life is at best one of vexation and sorrow. . . . Men think that it is ungrateful to the Creator to say that it is the design of Providence to keep us in a state of constant pain; but this is a wise provision in order to urge human nature on to exertion. Were our joys permanent, we should never undertake aught new. That life we may call happy which is furnished with all the means by which pain can be overcome; we have, in fact, no other conception of human happiness.'

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1153 a. 15. δοκεῖ δὲ γένεσις τισιν εἶναι, ὅτι κυρίως ἀγαθόν] This refers not to the Platonists hitherto criticised, but probably to the Cyrenaics; and γένεσις must be here understood to mean the *outcome* or *operation* of a εἶσις, not the *process* by which a εἶσις is formed or restored, as the term was understood by the Platonists. The hedonists here referred to maintain that Pleasure is *really* or *perfectly* good (κυρίως ἀγαθόν); hence that it cannot be a εἶσις, which is only *potentially* or *imperfectly* good, but must be a γένεσις—the realisation or operation of a εἶσις: *cf. E. N. i. 7. 13* (quoted here by Ramsauer) τὴν κατ' ἐνέργειαν θετέον· κυριώτερον γὰρ αὕτη δοκεῖ λέγεσθαι. Instead of the term γένεσις, the writer suggests the term ἐνέργεια as better fitted to signify 'the operation of a εἶσις.' Kassow (*Forsch.* p. 100) reads τισιν for the τις of the MSS. after γένεσις, on the ground that the clause mentions a view which has not hitherto been alluded to. His words are 'Diese Worte sind völlig unverstündlich, wenn man sie auf die in dem vorhergehenden Satze bestrittene Platonische Lehre bezieht. Man hat daher wohl mit Grant an die Cyrenaiker zu denken. Damit es aber erkennbar wird, dass man es mit einer neuen und noch nicht besprochenen Ansicht zu thun hat, ist wie ich glaube, das ohne dies auffällige τις nach γένεσις in τισίν zu ändern. Diese von mir schon, *Observ. Crit.* p. 28, vorgeschlagene Aenderung ist von Bekker in der kleineren Ausgabe von 1861 [and by Susemihl and Bywater] aufgenommen worden. Der Paraphrast, der die Stelle richtig erklärt, hat vielleicht τισίν gelesen: γένεσις δὲ ἔδοξέ τισιν εἶναι ἡδονὴ ὅτι φῶντο τὴν ἡδονὴν εἶναι τὸ κυρίως ἀγαθόν καὶ τὸ ἀριστον· τὸ δὲ κυρίως ἀγαθὸν ἐνέργειαν εἶναι· ἐνέργεια δὲ καὶ γένεσιν μηδὲν ἀλλήλων διαφέρειν· τὸ δὲ οὐχ οὕτως ἔχει.'

a. 18. § 4. τὸ αὐτὸ καὶ ὅτι ὑγιεινὰ ἔνια φαῦλα πρὸς χρηματισμόν] elliptical: = τὸ αὐτὸ καὶ τὸ τὰ ὑγιεινὰ εἶναι φαῦλα, ὅτι ὑγιεινὰ ἔνια πρὸς χρηματισμόν.—'To say that pleasures are bad, because some pleasant things are unhealthy, is like saying that healthy things are bad, because some of them are bad, for money-making': *cf. the Paraph.* εἰ φαῦλη λέγεται ἡ ἡδονὴ ὅτι ἔνια ἡδέα νοσώδη, ἔσονται καὶ τὰ ὑγιεινὰ φαῦλα, ὅτι τινὰ ὑγιεινὰ ἐμποδῶν ἴσταται τῷ πλουτεῖν, ὅτι πολλὰ χρημάτων ἐστὶν ἀναλωτικά. Peters, I think, is wrong with '... is like arguing that some things that are healthy are bad for money-making.' I take ὅτι in a. 18, as in a. 17, to mean, not *that*, but *because*.

a. 19. ταύτῃ] πρὸς χρηματισμόν. He means that both ἡδέα and ὑγιεινὰ may be bad κατὰ συμβεβηκός—in some particular relation; but they

are not, on this account (κατά γε τοῦτο) bad in themselves—φαῦλα 1153 a. 10. ἀπλῶς.

§ 5] answers vii. 11. 4 ἔτι ἐμπόδιον τῷ φρονεῖν αἱ ἡδοναί, on the a. 20. lines of *E. N.* x. 5. §§ 1-7, where it is laid down that every function has its own (οὐκεία) pleasure, which stimulates and perfects it, and that if a function is good (as judged, we must assume, not by the subjective standard of pleasurable feeling, but by the objective standard of correspondence with environment) its pleasure is good. It is by thus connecting pleasure with function, or correspondence with environment, that Aristotelianism meets hedonism and asceticism. It is to be observed that the writer here speaks of the ἕξις being impeded or stimulated by ἡδονή: whereas the writer of *E. N.* x. 5 speaks consistently of the ἐνέργεια (distinguished by him from the ἡδονή) being impeded or stimulated.

Φροήσει, as Grant remarks, is used here generically for 'thought,' and not in the restricted sense given to it in Book vi.

§ 6] refers to vii. 11. 4 ἔτι τέχνη οὐδεμία ἡδονῆς· καίτοι πᾶν ἀγαθὸν a. 23. τέχνης ἔργον.

εὐλόγως συμβέβηκεν] 'is but natural' (Peters): 'is just what one might expect to find.' Τέχνη is concerned with the ordering of the conditions (τῆς δυνάμεως ἐστὶ) of a performance (ἐνέργεια), but not with the performance itself. See the Paraph. οὐδεμία ἐνέργεια τέχνης ἐστὶν ἀποτέλεσμα· ἀλλὰ τὴν μὲν δύναμιν ἢ τέχνη, ἢ δὲ δύναμις προάγει τὴν ἐνέργειαν. ἢ μὲν γὰρ περὶ τὴν κυβερνητικὴν τέχνη αἰτία ἐστὶ τοῦ δύνασθαι κυβερνᾶν· τὸ δὲ δύνασθαι κυβερνᾶν αἰτίον ἐστὶ τῆς κατὰ τὴν κυβερνητικὴν ἐνεργείας. So close is the connexion between τέχνη and δύναμις, that such τέχναι as ῥητορικὴ, ἰατρικὴ and διαλεκτικὴ are often simply called δυνάμεις. They are the δυνάμεις αἱ μετὰ λόγου of *Met. Θ.* 2. 1046 b. 1, which are said to be concerned with contraries—καὶ αἱ μὲν μετὰ λόγου πᾶσαι τῶν ἐναντίων αἱ αὐταί. So long as alternatives are open—so long as this possible arrangement, or that, may be preferred—so long as preparations have to be made, τέχνη rules; but the result of these preparations,—that for the sake of which they have been made, when once it is realised, is something definite, which τέχνη cannot modify. Art may instruct a man how to hold his bow and point his arrow straight for the mark; but the ἐνέργεια of all this instruction—the flying arrow—has already escaped beyond the reach of art. Cf. *M. M.* ii. 10. 1208 b. 1 οὐδὲ γὰρ ἄλλη ἐπιστήμη οὐδεμία τὴν χρῆσιν παραδίδωσιν ἀλλὰ τὴν ἕξιν.

1153 a. 26. καίτοι καί κ.τ.λ.] We have here what the Ald. Schol. describes as an *ἔνστασις* brought against the *πρότασις*—*ἡδονῆς οὐκ ἔστι τέχνη* advanced by the opponent. It is submitted that arts of pleasure are popularly recognised. This *ἔνστασις* however is obviously not so seriously meant as the *ἀντιπαράστασις* (Ald. Sc.), or rejoinder contained in the first part of the §. The writer of *M. M.* ii. 7. 1206 a. 26 oddly omits entirely the weighty rejoinder *οὐδέ γάρ ἑτέρας ἡδονῆς ἐνεργείας οὐδεμῶς τέχνη ἐστίν, ἀλλὰ τῆς δυνάμεως*, and confine himself to the captious *ἔνστασις*. His words are *ἄλλος ἦν λόγος ὅτι οὐδεμία ἐπιστήμη ποιεῖ ἡδονήν. ἔστι δὲ οὐδὲ τοῦτο ἀληθές· οἱ γὰρ δευτεροποιοὶ καὶ στεφανοποιοὶ καὶ οἱ μυρεψοὶ ἡδονῆς εἰσὶ ποιητικοί. ἀλλὰ δὴ τοιαύταις ἄλλαις ἐπιστήμαις οὐκ ἔστιν ἡ ἡδονὴ ὡς τέλος ἀλλὰ μεθ' ἡδονῆς τε καὶ οὐκ ἄνευ ἡδονῆς. ἔστιν οὖν ἐπιστήμη ποιητικὴ ἡδονῆς.* This is all that the writer has to say in answer to the thesis *οὐδεμία ἐπιστήμη ποιεῖ ἡδονήν*.

a. 27. § 7.] 'Most of the arguments,' says Grant *ad loc.*, 'against pleasure ignore the distinction between different kinds of pleasures, the one kind being of the nature of life, and the end, and therefore good in themselves (§ 3); the other kind being connected with inferior conditions of our nature, with pain, want, etc., and being therefore only secondarily and accidentally good (§ 2). This latter kind of pleasures, and excess in them, are made the ground of reproaches against pleasure in general.'

τὸν σώφρονα φεύγειν] *sc.* τὰς ἡδονάς.

a. 28. τὰ θηρία διώκειν] *sc.* τὰς ἡδονάς.

a. 30. ἀπλῶς] Fritzsche believes that this word has crept into the text from a scholium; thus the Ald. Schol. has *πῶς ἀγαθαὶ ἦτοι ἀπλῶς καὶ κυρίως*.

τὰς τοιαύτας] τὰς μὴ ἀπλῶς ἀγαθὰς Παρ.

a. 31. καὶ τὴν τούτων ἀλυπίαν ὁ φρόνιμος] *sc.* διώκει. These words seem to form a parenthesis. The φρόνιμος tries not to be pained by the absence of these bodily pleasures. *ὁ γὰρ φρόνιμος τῇ ἀπουσίᾳ τῶν σωματικῶν ἡδονῶν βούλεται μὴ λυπεῖσθαι* (Ald. Schol.).

a. 35. ἡδοναὶ καὶ σώφρονος] τῷ γὰρ δικαίῳ ἡδονὴ ἐκ τοῦ τὰ δίκαια πράττειν καὶ τῷ ἀνδρείῳ ἐκ τοῦ τὰ ἀνδρεία, καὶ τῷ σώφρονι ἐκ τοῦ πράττειν τὰ σώφρονα ἡδονὴ γίνεται (Ald. Schol.). *Cf. E. N.* ii. 3. 1 ὁ μὲν γὰρ ἀπεχόμενος τῶν σωματικῶν ἡδονῶν καὶ αὐτῷ τούτῳ χαίρων σώφρων.

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1153 b. 2. Stahr—'theils ist er (der Schmerz) es (ein Uebel), insofern er uns irgendwie behindert':—τῷ πῆ ἐμποδιστική (sc. εἶναι) forming a single expression in which πῆ qualifies ἐμποδιστική = 'as hindering in some way or other.' But the balance of the clause requires ἡ δὲ πῆ, τῷ ἐμποδιστική (εἶναι)—'Pain is partly bad in itself (ἀπλῶς), partly bad in relation to something else (πῆ=κατὰ τι) i. e. inasmuch as it hinders good activities'—τῷ ἐμποδιστική (εἶναι) being exegetical of πῆ. Πῆ is frequently opposed to ἀπλῶς by Aristotle, but the *Index* gives no instance of τῷ πῆ where πῆ alone would be sufficient. Of course πῆ, like ἀπλῶς, or any such term, can be converted into a substantive by means of the article; but this use of the article would plainly be out of place here, where the meaning of the formula πῆ is not explained, but the formula is used. The Paraphrast seems to have read πῆ τῷ. His version is—ἡ μὲν καθ' αἰνὸν ἐστὶ φευκτή, ὡς ἡ ἐπὶ ἀρετῇ λύπη, ἡ δὲ πῆ, ὡς ἡ ἐπὶ ζημίᾳ τινὶ λύπη, ἥτις φευκτή ἐστὶ κατὰ τι, ὅτι ἐμποδίζει τῇ θεωρίᾳ. Similarly the Ald. Schol. ἡ δὲ οὐκ ἔστιν ἀπλῶς κακόν, ἀλλὰ πῆ κακόν καὶ φευκτὸν ἦτοι καθὸ ἐμποδιστική.

b. 4. ὡς γὰρ Σπεύσιππος κ.τ.λ.] The best commentary on this obscurely brief reference is *E. N.* x. 2. 5, where the argument is given more fully but without the name of Speusippus.

The Paraph. explains the present reference thus—οὐ γὰρ ἡ τοῦ Σπευσίππου λύσις καθ' ἣν ἐνιστάμενος λύειν ἐπιχειρεῖ τόνδε τὸν λόγον συμβαίνει τῇ ἀληθείᾳ. φησὶ γὰρ ὅτι καθάπερ τὸ μείζον καὶ τὸ ἔλαττον ἐναντία ἐστὶ τῷ ἴσῳ, καὶ ἐπὶ τῶν ἀρετῶν τὰ παρ' ἐκάτερα ἐναντία, τὸν αὐτὸν δὲ τρόπον καὶ τῇ ἀλυπία ἀντίκειται ἡ ἡδονὴ καὶ λύπη, ἡ μὲν ὡς μείζον ἡ δὲ λύπη ὡς ἔλαττον καὶ ἐστὶ ἡ μὲν ἀλυπία ἀγαθόν, ἡ δὲ ἡδονὴ καὶ ἡ λύπη οὐκ οὗτος γὰρ ὁ λόγος παντελῶς ἀδοξός ἐστιν· οὐδενὶ γὰρ ἡ ἡδονὴ κακὸν δοκεῖ. Similarly the Ald. Schol. ἔλεγεν ὁ Σπεύσιππος ὅτι ὡς τὸ μείζον ἀντίκειται τῷ ἔλαττονι καὶ τῷ ἴσῳ, καὶ τὰ μὲν ἄκρα ἦτοι τὸ μείζον καὶ τὸ ἔλαττον ἢ κακά, τὸ δὲ μέσον ἦτοι τὸ ἴσον ἀγαθόν ἢ, οὕτως καὶ ἡ ἡδονὴ ἀντίκειται τῇ ἀλυπία καὶ τῇ λύπῃ, καὶ τὰ μὲν ἄκρα ἦτοι ἡ λύπη καὶ ἡ ἡδονὴ εἰσὶ κακά, τὸ δὲ μέσον ἦτοι ἡ ἀλυπία ἀγαθόν ἢ:—i. e. Speusippus argued that, 'as greater and less are both contrary to equal, and therefore both unequal, so pleasure and pain are both contrary to the neutral state which is good, and therefore are both evil.' To this the writer of x, and the present writer, reply—'Pleasure is not in itself (ὑπερ) evil. We appeal to universal experience against you. You make a wrong application of a useful formula (ὅσπερ τὸ μείζον

τῷ εὐαίτιον καὶ τῷ ἴσῳ ἐναντίον) to Pleasure: *cf.* *E. N.* x. 2. 5 1158 b. 4. λέγοντες ταῦτα οὐ κακῶς, οὐ μὴν ἐπὶ γε τῶν εἰρημένων ἀληθεύοντες.

The formula thus misapplied by Speusippus is given in *Cat.* 11. 13 b. 36, with the *caveat* that it is applicable only within narrow limits, ἐναντίον δὲ ἐστὶν ἀγαθῷ μὲν ἐξ ἀνάγκης κακόν· τοῦτο δὲ δῆλον τῇ καθ' ἑκάστον ἐπαγωγῇ· οἷον ὑγεία νόσος καὶ δικαιοσύνη ἀδικία, καὶ ἀσθρεια δειλία· ὁμοίως δὲ καὶ ἐπὶ τῶν ἄλλων. κακῷ δὲ ὅτε μὲν ἀγαθόν ἐστὶν ἐναντίον ὅτε δὲ κακόν. τῇ γὰρ ἐνδεία κακῷ ὄντι ἡ ὑπερβολὴ ἐναντίον κακόν ἂν ὁμοίως δὲ καὶ ἡ μεσότης ἐναντία ἑκατέρῃ οὖσα, ἀγαθόν ἐστὶν ἐπ' ὀλίγων δ' ἂν τὸ τοιοῦτον ἴδοι τις· ἐπὶ δὲ τῶν πλείστων αἰεὶ τῷ κακῷ τὸ ἀγαθόν ἐναντίον ἐστίν. Speusippus neglected the caution conveyed in these words. On Speusippus see Grant, *Ethics*, Essay iii. vol. i. pp. 217, 218, and Ritter and Preller, *Hist. Phil.* §§ 289–294. His theory of Pleasure is thus stated by Aul. Gell. ix. 5—Speusippus, vetusque omnis Academia, voluptatem et dolorem duo mala esse dicunt opposita inter se: bonum autem esse quod utriusque medium foret.

οὐ γὰρ ἂν φαίη ὅπερ κακόν τι εἶναι τὴν ἡδονήν] Grant says— b. 6. 'We are probably to understand τις, with the Par. and Schol. Speusippus would have said that pleasure is an evil: *cf.* *Eth.* x. 2. 5.' I am not sure that Grant is right here. Speusippus would certainly have said that pleasure is an evil accidentally—probably he would have said that being evil is an 'inseparable accident' of pleasure; but would he have said that it is *essentially* evil? It seems to me that the word ὅπερ (see next note) makes it possible to understand Speusippus as the subject of φαίη—which is, of course, what the run of the sentence naturally suggests.

ὅπερ] 'For no one would say (or, Speusippus would not say) that pleasure is *in itself and essentially* an evil.' Eustratius in his note on *E. N.* vi. 4. 3 ἐπεὶ δ' ἡ οἰκονομικὴ τέχνη τίς ἐστι, καὶ ὅπερ ἕξις τις μετὰ λόγου ποιητικὴ explains correctly the technical meaning of ὅπερ—τὸ δὲ ὅπερ δηλοῦν κείται τὸ οὐσιωδῶς κατηγορεῖσθαι τῆς οἰκονομικῆς τῆς τέχνης. See Alex. ad *Top.* iii. 1. 273 a. 14 (quoted by Bonitz, *Met.* p. 176. q. v. on the use of ὅπερ) τὸ ὅπερ αὐτῷ τοῦ κυρίως ἐστὶ δηλωτικόν, καὶ ᾧ ἂν προστεθῇ τὸ ὅπερ τὸ κυρίως ἐκεῖνο εἶναι σημαίνει, οἷον ὅπερ ἄνθρωπος ὁ κυρίως ἄνθρωπος. On which Bonitz remarks— 'excludit igitur pronomen ὅπερ quaecunque rei accidunt, includit unice ea quae in substantia, ἐν τῷ τί ἐστὶν ejus, insunt . . . omnino eo (*i. e.* by ὅπερ) denotatur id ipsum quod res est, τὸ τί ἐστὶ, vel ἡ

1153 b. 6. οὐσία τοῦ πράγματος.' Κυρίως, or 'essentially,' being the fundamental meaning of ὅπερ, the term is often used as synonymous with γένος, as in *Top.* iv. 1. 120 b. 23 οὔτε γὰρ ἡ χιών ὅπερ λευκόν, διόπερ οὐ γένος τὸ λευκόν τῆς χιόνος, οὐδ' ἡ ψυχὴ ὅπερ κινούμενον· συμβέβηκε δ' αὐτῇ κινεῖσθαι: but this only, as Bonitz points out, and as is plain from the terms of the passage just quoted *Top.* 120 b. 23, because τὸ γένος βούλεται τὸ τί ἐστὶ σημαίνειν καὶ πρῶτον ὑποτίθεται τῶν ἐν τῷ ὀρισμῷ λεγομένων *Top.* iv. 5. 142 b. 27. Accordingly, with Waitz (*Organon*, vol. i. p. 467) simply to say that ὅπερ and γένος are synonymous is unduly to narrow the use of the former term. It may be noted that the Ald. Schol. on the present passage narrows the sense of ὅπερ in the way deprecated by Bonitz: his words are—οἶδεῖς ἂν φαίη τὴν ἡδονὴν εἶναι ὅπερ κακόν, ἤτοι ὡς ἐν γένει ἀνάγεσθαι τῷ κακῷ καὶ εἶδος τοῦ κακοῦ τὴν ἡδονὴν εἶναι. The Paraphrast brings out the fundamental sense of the term better—οὐδεὶς γὰρ ἂν φαίη τὴν ἡδονὴν αὐτὴν ὅπερ ἐστὶ κακόν εἶναι.

b. 7. § 2. τᾶριστόν τ'] The MSS. have ἄριστόν τ', or ἄριστόν δ'.

The conclusion εἴη ἂν τις ἡδονὴ τὸ ἄριστον formulated in this § is logically necessitated (ἴσως δὲ καὶ ἀναγκαῖον κ.τ.λ.) by the identification of ἡδονή with ἐνέργεια: but, as I have tried to show, it does not involve any departure from Aristotelian principles, in the direction of 'hedonism.'

b. 8. ὡςπερ καὶ ἐπιστήμην τινὰ ἐνίων φαύλων οὐσῶν] *Cf. M. M.* ii. 7. 1205 a. 31 ὁμοίως δ' εἰσὶ καὶ ἐπιστήμαι φαῦλαι, οἷον αἱ βάνανσοι· ἀλλ' ὅμως οὐ διὰ τοῦτο φαῦλον ἡ ἐπιστήμη, ἀλλ' ἀγαθὸν τῷ γένει. But the parallel drawn in the passage before us requires us to think of a certain ἐπιστήμη (φιλοσοφία Ald. Schol.) not as merely good, but as possibly the *summum bonum*. This is seen by the Paraph., who says—καὶ γὰρ πολλῶν φαύλων οὐσῶν ἐπιστημῶν οὐδὲν κωλύει τὸ ἄριστον εἶναι τὴν ἐπιστήμην. If, then, a certain ἐπιστήμη is the ἄριστον, how it may be asked, can a certain ἡδονή also be the ἄριστον? Grant it is probably right in thinking that we need not take the parallel very strictly: but the writer, if asked to defend the apparent inconsistency, would not have much difficulty in doing so, for θεωρία is ἡδονή on his principles.

b. 9. ἴσως δὲ . . . τοῦτο δ' ἐστὶν ἡδονή] It is only if unimpeded (ἀνεμπόδιστος) that the ψυχῆς ἐνέργεια κατ' ἀρετὴν, which we call εὐδαιμονία, can be described as αἰρετωτάτη: for, as he says below,

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- 1153 b.10. looking at the Happy Life, and the clause εἴτε ἡ τυχὸς αὐτῶν the more formal philosophical way which sees it in its true nature : see *Mel.* 2. 6 quoted above, and *cf.* *E.N.* ix. 8. 6 ὥσπερ δὲ καὶ πόλις τὸ κυριώτατον μάλιστα εἶναι δοκεῖ καὶ πᾶν ἄλλο σύστημα, οὕτω καὶ ἄνθρωπος. It is *quod rational* that man so organises the exercise of all his powers, intellectual, moral and bodily, as to be Happy : we may therefore say that Happiness is an employment of Reason — θεωρία τις.
- b. 13. φαύλων οὐσῶν, εἰ ἔτυχεν, ἀπλῶς] ‘Even if most pleasures are bad, and, if you like, bad in themselves.’
- b. 17. διὸ προσδεῖται κ.τ.λ.] *Cf.* *E.N.* i. 8. 16, x. 8. 9. Fritzsche quotes *Cic. de Fin.* ii. 6. 19 Aristoteles virtutis usum cum vitae perfectae prosperitate coniunxit : and *Alex. περὶ ψυχῆς* (β) p. 157 Ald. describes εὐδαιμονία as συμπλήρωσις τῶν ἀγαθῶν.
- b. 18. ὅπως μὴ ἐμποδίζηται ταῦτα] The Ald. Schol. makes ταῦτα the subject—ὅπως καὶ ταῦτα ἴητοι τὰ ἐκτὸς ἀγαθὰ, ἀπόντα μὴ παρεμποδίσωσι τὴν ἐνέργειαν τοῦ εὐδαιμόνου : but it is better to take ὁ εὐδαιμόνων as the subject, and make ταῦτα=κατὰ ταῦτα, ‘in respect of body, or estate, or fortune.’
- b. 19. § 3. τροχιζόμενον] Zell quotes *Cic. Tusc.* v. 9 In eo libro quem scripsit (Theophrastus) de vita beata in quo multa disputat quam-obrem is qui torqueatur qui crucietur beatus esse non possit. In eo etiam putatur dicere in rotam beatam vitam non escendere : non usquam id quidem dicit omnino ; sed quae dicit idem valent. The τροχός is described by the Schol. ap. Suidas as ξύλιον τι ἐν φῶδεσμούμενοι οἱ οἰκέται ἐκολάζοντο.
- b. 20. φάσκοντες] The Cynics. Thus Antisthenes *Fr.* 58 apud Mullach, ii. p. 284 αὐτάρκη γὰρ τὴν ἀρετὴν εἶναι πρὸς εὐδαιμονίαν, μηδενὸς προσδοκίμην ὅτι μὴ Σωκρατικῆς ἰσχύος (*Diog. L.* vii. 11-12).
- b. 24. § 4. πρὸς γὰρ τὴν εὐδαιμονίαν ὁ ὄρος αὐτῆς] ‘For good fortune can only be defined by its relation to happiness’ (Peters). τὸ γὰρ εἶναι τῆς εὐτυχίας ἐστὶν ἐν τῇ συμβάλλεσθαι πρὸς εὐδαιμονίαν (Paragraph).
- b. 25. § 5. καὶ τὸ διώκειν δ’ ἅπαντα κ.τ.λ.] The argument of Eudoxus quoted in x. 2. 1.
- b. 27. φήμη κ.τ.λ.] Hesiod, *ἔργ. καὶ ἡμ.* 763. The second line continues—φημίζουσι θεός νυ τις ἐστὶ καὶ αὐτή. Here, as Stahr remarks, we have the origin of *vox populi vox Dei*.

§ 6. ἀλλ' ἐπεὶ οὐχ ἡ αὐτὴ οὔτε φύσις οὔθ' ἕξις ἢ ἀρίστη οὔτ' ἔστιν 1153 b. 29. οὔτε δοκεῖ] 'since however there is no one nature or state which is, or is thought to be, the best for all, so neither do they all pursue the same pleasure . . . ' (Grant): *πᾶσιν*, necessary in the protasis, is carelessly omitted, perhaps because the writer looked forward to *πάντες* in the apodosis.

ἀλλὰ τὴν αὐτὴν πάντα γὰρ φύσει ἔχει τι θεῖον] If all pursue b. 32. 'the same pleasure,' it must be because they have 'the same nature' fundamentally. In man this is *νοῦς*, resulting in the function of *νόησις* or *θεωρία*, often characterised as 'divine.' But the same organising principle, which appears in man as *νοῦς*, appears in the irrational animals (and in plants) as a *nisus* impelling them to purify the specific form, or *εἶδος*, from the incidents of individual decay and death, and make it eternal in the race (see *de An.* ii. 4. 415 a. 29). While individual animals seem to live *κατὰ πάθος*, for themselves, and to satisfy merely their own immediate wants, there is all the while at work within them 'an eternal principle not themselves' (*θεῖόν τι*), by which their behaviour is regulated in conformity with a plan which includes all Nature: *ἐκ τοιαύτης ἀρχῆς ἤρτηται ὁ οὐρανὸς καὶ ἡ φύσις* (*Met.* Λ. 7. 1072 b. 13). The Aristotelian God is the abstract of all the various modes of the organising *nisus* in Nature. He is described as *ἐνέργεια αἰδῖος*—eternal function; and this eternal function is also said to be *ἡδονή* (*Met.* Λ. 7. 1072 b. 16). Inasmuch, then, as the lives, or *ἐνέργειαι*, of all creatures are particular cases of this one *ἐνέργεια αἰδῖος*, which is *ἡδονή*, all creatures may be said *τὴν αὐτὴν διώκειν ἡδονήν*.

θεῖον] *Cf.* *de An.* ii. 4. 415 a. 29, where it is said that living creatures propagate their kinds *ἵνα τοῦ ἀεὶ καὶ τοῦ θεοῦ μετέχωσιν ἢ δύνανται*.

παραβάλλειν εἰς αὐτάς] *sc.* *ἑαυτούς* according to Michelet: but b. 34. the *Index* takes it intransitively = 'to pass over to' 'to incline to': so the *Ald. Schol.* *οἱ πλείονες πρὸς τὰς σωματικὰς μᾶλλον ῥέπουσι*.

διὰ τὸ μόνως οὐδὲν γνωρίμους κ.τ.λ.] *Cf.* the simile *M. M.* ii. 7. 1205 b. 85. b. 13 ἀλλ' οἱ φάσκοντες εἶναι τὴν ἡδονὴν οὐ σπουδαίαν, πεπόνθασιν οἷον οἱ μὴ εἰδότες τὸ νέκταρ οἷονται τοὺς θεοὺς οἶνον πίνειν, καὶ οὐκ εἶναι τούτου ἡδῶν οὐθέν τοῦτο πάσχουσιν διὰ τὴν ἀγνοίαν· οἷς ὅμοιον πεπόνθασιν οἱ πάσας τὰς ἡδονὰς γενίσεις φάσκοντες εἶναι καὶ οὐκ ἀγαθόν. διὰ γὰρ τὸ μὴ

1153 b. 35. εἰδέναι πᾶσας ἡδονὰς ἀλλ' ἢ τὰς σωματικὰς ταύτας τε ὄραν γενέσθαι τε οὖσας
καὶ μὴ σπουδαίας ὅλως οὐκ οἴονται εἶναι τὴν ἡδονὴν ἀγαθόν.

1154 a. 1. § 7. εἰ μὴ ἡδονὴ ἀγαθόν καὶ ἡ ἐνέργεια] The subject is ἡδονὴ
καὶ ἡ ἐνέργεια, and the predicate is ἀγαθόν: so the Paraph. and Ald.
Schol. Susemihl and Ramsauer, on what appears to be weak MS
authority, read εἰ μὴ ἡ (M^b O^b Asp.) ἡδονὴ ἀγαθόν καὶ ἐνέργεια (M^b O^b Asp.)
seems to be the only authority for the omission of ἡ before ἐνέργεια,
making ἀγαθόν and ἐνέργεια both predicates.

CHAPTER XIV.

ARGUMENT.

Those who so discriminate between 'noble pleasures' and 'bodily pleasures'
as to maintain that, while the former are good, the latter—for they are the
temperate man's pleasures—are not, must be asked to explain why the pains
contrary to these bodily pleasures are bad. 'Bad' implies 'good' as its contrary.
The truth is that the bodily pleasures partake of the nature of the bodily states
and motions with which they are associated—states and motions which are good
up to a certain point, but bad beyond that point; for where a state or motion
cannot pass beyond the point of absolute perfection, the corresponding pleasure
does not admit of excess. Bodily pleasures are good, and necessary up to
certain point; bad as pursued to excess by the intemperate man, who, it may
further observed, avoids, not excessive pain, but pain simply—notably the pain
which is opposed to excessive pleasure (i. e. the pain caused by the absence
of excessive pleasure)—a pain which only intemperate people feel.

Let us now try to make the truth about the bodily pleasures more convincing
by showing how an erroneous view about them has naturally recommended
itself. The erroneous view is that the bodily pleasures are more desirable than
other pleasures. Why does this view recommend itself as true? Because (1)
the excessive bodily pleasures banish pain: they are eagerly sought after
anodynes and restoratives; (2) because they are the only pleasures known
to inferior natures—and here we are reminded of what was mentioned above
ch. 12—that these are the two points—(1) certain pleasures belong to
natures, and (2) certain other pleasures are restorative of impaired natures—
which are brought forward by some to support the equally erroneous view that
pleasure is not good. Both views—that which makes the bodily pleasures the
most desirable, and that which maintains that pleasure is not good—ignore the
existence of pleasures which do not admit of excess and are associated with
no pains. These pleasures are related, not to things 'pleasant per accidens'—

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1184 a. 10. promised (*E. E.* i. 5. 1216 a. 30) to examine the *σωματικὰ ἡδοναί*: and he recommends those who say roundly that they are bad to consider their nature a little more carefully. If they are bad, as they say, then how are the contrary pains also bad? The truth is that it is only in excess that the bodily pleasures are bad.

a. 12. αἱ ἀναγκαῖαι] *i. e.* αἱ σωματικαί: *cf.* vii. 4. 2. The Ald. Schol. has ἀναγκαῖαι δὲ εἰσι τὰ σύμμετρα ποτὰ καὶ σιτία.

Of the two suggestions introduced by ἡ (a. 11 and a. 13), the latter gives the writer's opinion. The bodily pleasures are not merely negatively good—'good in the sense in which the absence of evil is good'; but positively good up to a certain point, beyond which, however, they become bad.

a. 18. τῶν μὲν γὰρ ἕξεων καὶ κινήσεων] οἷον τῆς ἕξεως τῆς θεωρητικῆς ὑπερβολὴ οὐκ ἔστιν (Ald. Schol.); and the same may be said of any ἀρετή, as such: its notion involves definite form, and excludes excess or the negation of form. *Cf.* *E. N.* ii. 6. 20 σωφροσύνης καὶ ἀνδρείας οὐκ ἔστιν ὑπερβολὴ καὶ ἔλλειψις διὰ τὸ τὸ μέσον εἶναι πῶς ἄκρον . . . ὅλας γὰρ οὐθ' ὑπερβολῆς καὶ ἔλλειψεως μεσότης ἔστιν, οὔτε μεσότητος ὑπερβολὴ καὶ ἔλλειψις.

a. 18. ἐναντίως δ' . . . διώκοντι τὴν ὑπερβολήν] 'But with pain the case is reversed: not merely the excess of pain, but pain generally is to be avoided; for the opposite of excessive pleasure is not painful except to the man who pursues the excess' (Peters). Similarly Stahr—'Entgegengesetzt ist es mit dem Schmerz, denn hier flieht der Mensch nicht das Uebermass, sondern den Schmerz überhaupt; der Schmerz ist nämlich nicht das dem Uebermasse Entgegengesetzte, ausser für den, der dem Uebermasse nachtrachtet.'

Grant, after translating to the same effect, adds—'This argument goes to prove that bodily pleasure is, in itself, good; only when in excess is it evil. On the other hand, all pain is evil. Pleasure and pain, then, are opposite terms, the one being good and the other evil. To make the doctrine of Speusippus (ch. 13 § 1) hold good, it would be necessary to make pain and the excess of pleasure opposite terms. But they are not so, except perhaps in the mind of the intemperate man, who thinks that the only alternative is between excessive pleasure and a painful sensation.' Fritzsche has—'Contra se res habet in dolore: nam hujus non fugimus quod nimium est: sed hunc fugimus in universum.

Itaque contraria sunt dolor, qua dolor est, et voluptas, qua voluptas 1164 a. 18. est, non qua nimia est.'

According to these interpretations (which agree substantially with those of the Ald. Schol., Zell, and Michelet), *τις* understood is the subject of *φεύγει* a. 19. I think that *ὁ φαῦλος* a. 16 (= *ὁ ἀκόλαστος*) is the subject: see note on vii. 4. 3. 1148 a. 7. This is the view of the Paraphrast, whose comment seems to me very good—
 Ὅσαι τοίνυν ὑπερβάλλουσι τὸ δέον φαῦλαί εἰσι, καὶ κατὰ ταύτας ὁ ἀκόλαστος ἐστὶ, καὶ ὁ ἀκρατής· κατὰ τὰς δὲ ἐναντίας λύπας ἀκόλαστος οὐ περὶ τὰς ὑπερβολικὰς ἐστίν, ἀλλὰ τὰς μὲν ὑπερβαλλούσας ἡδονὰς διώκει, τὰς δὲ μικρὰς λύπας φεύγει· ὥστε φανερόν ὅτι ταῖς ὑπερβαλλούσαις ἡδοναῖς αἱ ἐν τῷ ἀκολάστῳ ἀντικείμεναι λύπαι οὐχ ὑπερβολικαὶ εἰσιν, ἀλλὰ μέτριαι, καὶ ὡς οὐδεὶς ἂν φύγοι τῶν σπουδαίων, ὅτι οὐδὲ λύπαι εἰσὶν· ἀλλὰ τῷ διώκοντι τὴν ὑπερβολὴν τῶν ἡδονῶν ἀλγεινὸν δοκεῖ τὸ μετρίως καὶ κατὰ λόγον αὐταῖς χρῆσασθαι. The *φαῦλος* is assumed to err both in his pursuit of pleasure and in his avoidance of pain. The unnatural contrary which he sets up to excessive pleasure—the pain which those who pursue moderate pleasures do not feel at all—helps us to appreciate the moral difference—ignored by *οἱ λέγοντες μὴ εἶναι ἀγαθὰς τὰς σωματικὰς ἡδονὰς*—between the excessive and the moderate pursuit of bodily pleasures.

§ 3. Ἐπεὶ . . . αἰρετώτεραι] The apodosis of this sentence begins a. 22. with ὥστε a. 25.

τοῦ ψεύδους] The view that the bodily pleasures are better than a. 23. those of the ἐνέργειαι κατ' ἀρετήν. That the latter are better than the bodily pleasures is τὰληθές which the writer seeks to corroborate by pointing out how τὸ ψεῦδος came to be believed—διὰ τί φαίνονται αἱ σωματικαὶ ἡδοναὶ αἰρετώτεραι. 'This section,' as Grant says, 'no longer deals with the opinion of the Platonists [Ramsauer erroneously supposes that it does] that bodily pleasure is an evil, but takes up another question already partly anticipated ch. 13. § 6: namely, How is the vulgar error to be accounted for, which gives so much prominence to physical pleasure in the scale of pleasures?'—i.e. this § returns to the εἰλήφασι τὴν τοῦ ὀνόματος κληρονομίαν αἱ σωματικαὶ ἡδοναὶ κ.τ.λ. of 13. § 6.

§ 4. διὰ τὸ παρὰ τὸ ἐναντίον φαίνεσθαι] sc. αἰρετάς, suggested by a. 30. διώκονται. 'They seem good by contrast.'

καὶ οὐ σπουδαῖον . . . οὐκ σπουδαῖαι] These words, suspected by a. 31.

1154 a. 31. Zell, are bracketed by Ramsauer, as interrupting the flow of the argument; Ramsauer says—'et quae ante ista praecedunt, et quae insequuntur, eo spectant ut intellegatur διὰ τί διώκονται αἱ σωματικαὶ αἱ: haec vero ipsa fere in contrariam sententiam disputata sunt ὅτι τῶν σωματικῶν ἔνεκα ἢ ἡδονῇ ὅλως φαύλη εἶναι δοκεῖ. Nec dubito equidem quin e medio tollenda sint.' Grant observes—'This paragraph reverts parenthetically to the opinion of the Platonists.' I am inclined to take the paragraph as the writer's parenthesis suggested by the mention of *ιατρῆαι* immediately preceding. ὡς περ εἴρηται a. 32 refers to ch. 12. § 1, and the δύο ταῦτα a. 31 are (1) ὅτι αἱ φαύλης κ.τ.λ. a. 32, and (2) αἱ δ' *ιατρῆαι* ἐνδεοῦς a. 34. Ramsauer, I think, does injustice to the writer of the paragraph, when he accuses him of saying, first, that there are two reasons, and then enumerating three, viz. (3) αἱ δὲ συμβαίνουσι τελευμένων b. 1. The words αἱ δὲ συμβαίνουσι τελευμένων merely expand what is said of the *ιατρῆαι* in the sentence immediately preceding, and do not introduce a third class of pleasures: see Coraes *ad loc.* αἱ *ιατρῆαι* ὅμοιαι τῶν ἡδονῶν οὐδ' αἵται σπουδαῖαι δοκοῦσιν εἶναι διότι ἐνδεοῦς εἰσὶν ἀναπληρώσεις . . . αἱ γὰρ τοιαῦται πληρώσεις συμβαίνουσι τοῖς τελειουμένοις, τουτέστι τοῖς ἀπὸ τῆς ἐνδείας εἰς τὴν πλήρωσιν προϊούσι καὶ οὐ τοῖς τετελειωμένοις¹.

Admitting, then, that the paragraph is parenthetical and very loosely attached to the context, I think the connexion of the writer's thought may be satisfactorily traced as follows—'Bodily pleasures, though inferior, are sought after more than other pleasures. Why? Because they are good remedies of pain by reason of their excessive character. And, in passing, it is interesting to observe, that the very qualities which recommend them to the vulgar—their excessive character (in the *φαύλη φύσις*), and their suitability as remedies, are seized upon by certain theorists, mentioned before, to establish the sweeping generalisation that Pleasure is not good.'

a. 34. αἱ δ' *ιατρῆαι* [ὅτι] ἐνδεοῦς] Bywater's omission of ὅτι removes a great difficulty: but how ὅτι got into the MSS. (and I do not think that we can be sure that it was not in the MS. used by Aspasius) still remains a difficulty.

ἔχειν] to be in a natural state (ἔξις).

¹ Bywater (*Contrib.* p. 58), taking this view of the position of αἱ δὲ συμβαίνουσι, suggests δὴ for δέ.

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1154 b. 9. youth is represented as producing the same results as the humours (χυμὸς ὁ μελαγχολικός—ἡ τῆς μελαίνης χολῆς κρᾶσις) in the bilious temperament.'

The account which the Ald. Schol. gives of the operation of the μέλαινα χολή in arousing desire is as follows: οἱ δὲ μελαγχολικοὶ κατὰ τὴν φύσιν . . . ἔχουσι τὴν χολὴν θερμοτάτην οὔσαν, συντόμως καταναλίσκουσιν τὰ ἐν τῇ γαστρὶ βρώματα, καὶ ἵνα μὴ τῆς γαστρὸς κενωθείσης διακαύσῃ πάντα ἐντόσθια ἡ χολή ἢ μέλαινα διὰ τὸ μὴ ἔχειν ἕτερόν τι καταναλίσκειν, διὰ τοῦτο δεῖται ἀεὶ ὁ μελαγχολικός ἰατρύειν ἥτοι ἀναπληροῦν βρωμάτων τὴν γαστέρα αὐτοῦ. On the μελαγχολικοὶ see note on vii. 7. 8, b. 25.

b. 14. ἡ τ' ἐναντία καὶ ἡ τυχοῦσα] Aspasius (156. 16 Heylbut) has the following comment—καὶ τὸν Ἀναξαγόραν αἰτιάται Θεόφραστος ἐν Ἠθικοῖς λέγων ὅτι ἐξελαύνει ἡδονὴ λύπην ἢ γε ἐναντία, οἷον ἡ ἀπὸ τοῦ πίνειν τὴν ἀπὸ τοῦ διψῆν, καὶ ἡ τυχοῦσα, τουτέστιν ἥτις οὖν ἂν εἴη ἰσχυρά, ὅτε ἐνίοτε πείναν ἐξελαύνει καὶ ἀκοῆς ἡδονή, ὅταν ᾄσματος ἢ ἄλλοις τισὶν ἀκούσμασι διαφερόντως χαίρωμεν.

b. 15. ἀκόλαστοι καὶ φαῦλοι γίνονται] It is natural to suppose that οἱ μελαγχολικοὶ are specially intended: but it is possible, with Aspasius (καὶ διὰ ταῦτα ἀκόλαστοι γίνονται ἄνθρωποι), to understand the remark generally.

b. 16. § 7. τῶν φύσει ἡδέων] See note on i. 8. 11.

b. 19. ἡδὺ δοκεῖ εἶναι] sc. τὸ ἰατρύεσθαι: 'the restoration itself seems pleasant' (Peters).

b. 20. φύσει δ' ἡδέα, ἃ ποιεῖ πρᾶξιν τῆς τοιαύτης φύσεως] Those things which effect ἀναπλήρωσις, οἱ τὸ ἰατρύεσθαι, are pleasant indirectly—i.e. relatively to the nature which is being restored: this nature must have a sound part left in it (τοῦ ὑπομένουτος ἰγίουσ: cf. ὑπολοιπὸν vii. 12. 2), otherwise it could not be restored at all. But those things which stimulate the functions of a completely sound nature (τῆς τοιαύτης φύσεως) are in themselves pleasant—as the Paraph. puts it φύσει δὲ ἡδέα οὐ τὰ ἀναπληροῦντα τὴν ἔνδειαν τῆς φύσεως, ἀλλὰ τὰ ποιοῦντα πρᾶξιν αὐτῆς: οἷά ἐστι τὰ θεωρητά: τελειοῦσι γὰρ τῆς ψυχῆς τὴν ἐνέργειαν. Ramsauer gives the correct meaning of τῆς τοιαύτης φύσεως—'quae talis est qualis est, nec corrupta nec egens.' Peters has an instructive note here, which I take the liberty of quoting—'I am sick and take medicine, hungry and take food (which seems

to be here included under medicine); but neither the drug nor the 1154 v. 20. food can of themselves cure me and restore the balance of my system—they must be assimilated (for the body is not like a jar that can be filled merely by pouring water from another jar), *i. e.* part of my system must remain in its normal state and operate in its normal manner. But this operation, this *ἐνέργεια τῆς κατὰ φύσιν ἔξεως*, is pleasure (by the definition given above 12. 3), and in ignorance of the process we transfer the pleasure to the medicine and call it pleasant. The weakness of this account is that it overlooks the fact that, though the medicine cannot itself cure without the operation of *τῆς κατὰ φύσιν ἔξεως*, yet on the other hand this *ἔξις*, this faculty, cannot operate in this manner without this stimulus; so that there seems to be no reason why the medicine, as setting up an *ἐνέργεια τῆς κατὰ φύσιν ἔξεως*, should not itself be called *φύσει ἡδύ*. But the whole passage rests on the assumption that there can be activity without stimulus, *i. e.* without want—an assumption which has become inconceivable to us.'

It is perhaps true that, on the whole, Aristotelianism takes too little account of stimulus, where the higher functions are concerned: but I think that the present passage, with its *φύσει ἡδέα, ἃ ποιεῖ πρᾶξι τῆς τοιαύτης φύσεως*, cannot be said to ignore it. *Τὰ φύσει ἡδέα* constitute the environment with which the healthy organism corresponds; *τὰ κατὰ συμβεβηκὸς ἡδέα, ὅτ τὰ ἰατρειύοντα*, are the circumstances in which an impaired, but not ruined organism, recovers its health.

§ 8. *μὴ ἀπλήν*] *τὸ σύνθετον* of *E. N.* x. 7. 8. In man's composite b. 21. nature the principle of Form asserts itself with difficulty against Matter. *Νόησις*, the purest expression of this principle, cannot be long kept up, for it is soon checked, and the pleasure attending it destroyed, by the resistance of the material part of his nature. Before *νόησις* can be resumed, and its attendant pleasure experienced again, the material resistance must have had time to subside—matter must have its own way, for a while, and be allowed its own pleasure. Thus the life of the individual man is broken up into short periods of *νόησις*, properly so called, alternating with times during which the material vehicle asserts itself on its own account: and this experience of the individual is paralleled, on a great scale, in the life of the race, the specific form of which is not realised in one immortal individual, but asserts itself, more or

1154 b. 21. less perfectly, for a short time in the adults of one generation, is eclipsed by their decay and death, regains force in their young descendants, and again asserts itself, more or less perfectly, in these when they reach adult age. But God is not thus discrete, like the higher moments of man, or the individuals of a species. He is continuous—ζωή καὶ αἰὼν συνεχῆς καὶ αἰδῖος ὑπάρχει τῷ θεῷ (*Met.* Δ. 7. 1072 b. 29). His nature is ἀπλή: it is ἐνέργεια ἄνευ δυνάμεως—Form not confronted by Matter—Form *in itself*, always actually achieved, not again and again to be imposed, by fatiguing efforts, upon τὸ δεκτικόν. His ἡδονή therefore is ἀπλή. Thus, the contrast between the immutability of God, as pure Form, and the mutability of the individual man, as compounded of Form and Matter, is the burden of the closing sentences of this treatise on Pleasure. But we must remember that Aristotelianism does not really acquiesce in this contrast. Man has—if I may venture to use the expression—his eternal and immutable moments—the moments of νόησις which he enjoys, when his Form—God's Form—asserts itself victoriously in his Matter. These moments have immeasurable worth and dignity—διαγωγὴ δέ ἐστιν οἷα τε ἡ ἀρίστη μικρὸν χρόνον ἡμῖν (*Met.* Δ. 7. 1072 b. 14): or, as Alexander (*Met.* p. 671 ed. Bonitz) says (in a passage which shows how easily Aristotle's theology lends itself to neo-Platonic doctrine)—ὁ ἡμέτερος νοῦς δυνάμει ὄν τὰ νοητά, ὅταν ἐκ τῆς ἄκρας ἐπιστήμης καὶ τῆς ἀγαν εὐζωίας ἐνεργείᾳ γένηται τὰ νοητά, τότε ζῶμεν τὴν ἀρίστην καὶ μακαριωτάτην καὶ πάσης ἡδονῆς ἐπέκεινα ζωὴν, ἣτις λόγῳ μὲν ἐστὶν ἀνερμήνευτος, γινώσκειται δὲ τοῦτο τὸ μακάριον τουτὶ παθοῦσι πάθος.

b. 23. ὅταν δ' ἰσάζῃ . . . τὸ πραττόμενον] ἰσάζῃ intransitive—'And when the two elements are balanced, the result appears neither painful nor pleasant' (Grant). The Paraph. (followed by Coraes, Michelet, and Fritzsche) is wrong in thinking that the 'balance' mentioned, is the ὁμόνοια of the virtuous character, in which reason rules, and sense cheerfully obeys. The actions of the virtuous character are pleasant, not neutral. The writer is thinking rather of the effect which custom has in dulling the pleasure and pain of acts: see above § 5, b. 6.

b. 27. ἀκινήσιος] God, or ἐνέργεια ἄνευ δυνάμεως, is described as ἀκίνητος in *Met.* Δ. 7. 1072 a. 25 ἔστι τι ὃ οὐ κινούμενον κινεῖ, αἰδῖον καὶ οὐσίς καὶ ἐνέργεια οὐσα . . . ἔστι τι κινοῦν αὐτὸ ἀκίνητον δι' ἐνεργείᾳ δὲ. The First Cause of the motion of material things in space is not itself

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BOOK VIII.

Introductory Note.] The space given to *φιλία* in the *Ethics* is very large, and doubtless indicates by its extent the importance of the subject to Aristotle's moral system¹. It must be remembered, however, that Aristotle's *φιλία* is a wider term than *Friendship*, and that, although the latter is discussed at considerable length, these two Books treat also of other subjects under the general head of *φιλία*.

The width of the field covered by the treatise may be estimated from the range of the two questions propounded respecting *φιλία*. These are (1) What is its Natural History? and (2) What may be done with it in the interests of the Higher Life? As discussing the first of these questions the treatise amounts to 'an enquiry concerning the Principles of Sociology'; as discussing the second question it is 'an Essay in the Metaphysic of Ethics.'

Examining the Natural History of *φιλία*, Aristotle finds that there are various forms of it, all more or less obvious phases of the gregarious instinct, to which, rather than to a perception of the advantages of co-operation and division of labour, society owes its origin and its maintenance—see *Pol.* iii. 4. 1278 b. 20 φύσει μὲν ἐστὶν ὁ ἄνθρωπος ζῶον πολιτικόν. διὸ καὶ μηδὲν δεόμενοι τῆς παρ' ἀλλήλων βοηθείας οὐκ ἔλαττον ὀρέγονται τοῦ συζῆν' οὐ μὴν ἀλλὰ καὶ τὸ κοινὸν συμφέρον συνάγει, καθ' ὅσον ἐπιβάλλει μέρος ἐκάστῳ τοῦ ζῆν καλῶς.

The earliest form of the gregarious instinct in man, as in the lower animals, is that natural affection, or *στοργή*, which unites parents and offspring, and generally those closely related by blood.

¹ I do not wish to commit myself to Grant's view (*Ethics*, vol. ii. p. 249) that 'nothing is more clear than that [the present treatise on Friendship] was written to form a part of Aristotle's work on Ethics'; but I readily admit that it might have been, so far as subject and treatment are concerned. At any rate, if originally an independent treatise among Aristotle's *moralia*, it soon had a definite position assigned to it immediately after the Books on the *ἀρεταί*, *ἀκρασία*, and *ἡδονή*. It must be assumed, I take it, that the writer of the *E. E.* found it in this position.

Ἡ συγγενική φιλία (viii. 12. 2) is the primitive φιλία. As the Family grows into the Village, and Villages are organised into the City, persons more and more distantly akin are thrown together, and find pleasure and advantage in association. The aggregates so produced not only crystallise, as wholes, into political forms (βασιλεία, ἀριστοκρατία, τυμοκρατική) which retain traces of the original family relationships, but the individuals composing the aggregates contract, as individuals, mutual relations in which either social pleasure or private advantage is the more prominent feature. Where social pleasure is the more prominent feature the mutual relation is called ἐταιρική φιλία (viii. 5. 3); where private advantage, ἡ φιλία ἢ διὰ τὸ χρήσιμον. Aristotle's method is thus to generalise the notion of φιλία. Not only is there ἐταιρική φιλία, but there are also συγγενική φιλία, πολιτική φιλία (ix. 6. 2), and ἡ φιλία ἢ διὰ τὸ χρήσιμον (viii. 3. 1-4). Two men become friends, or enter into a business contract, not only or principally because they now agree, as individuals, to be friends, or to make this particular bargain, but essentially because they are members of a social order or community which was constituted and is held together by fellow-feeling—by ὁμόνοια or πολιτική φιλία. Πολιτική φιλία in its turn may be traced back to συγγενική φιλία—the natural affection binding together parents and offspring, and kinsmen generally; while συγγενική φιλία itself touches the First Principle of Nature, being the consciousness of that endeavour after τὸ ἀεὶ καὶ τὸ θεῖον, which Aristotle recognises as φυσικώτατον in all creatures. Contract and the division of labour, effecting public and private advantage (τὸ χρήσιμον, τὸ συμφέρον), can operate only among persons who already occupy the status of members of an established community, and feel confidence in one another. The expression ἡ φιλία ἢ διὰ τὸ χρήσιμον marks Aristotle's recognition of the truth that the individual cannot secure his own private advantage except in so far as he is the φίλος of those with whom he deals. He cannot secure his own advantage in a state of 'war of every man against every other.' Men are naturally 'friendly' to one another, and therefore secure advantages to themselves by fair dealing, not by plunder and murder. The thought of the private advantage which he buys reacts upon a man's 'friendly' feelings, and gives these the colour described by Aristotle in his account of ἡ φιλία ἢ διὰ τὸ χρήσιμον: yet, save in a society ultimately held together by 'friendly' feelings, private advantage could not be bought at all.

def. Justice
 The rules of Justice express the various ways in which my advantage may be reconciled with yours in such a society. Justice, as a habit of the mind, is a preparedness to act according to rules which are established to secure the good of the community, and, through it, the good of its individual members. But the existence of such rules, and of the preparedness to observe them, imply that, on the whole, the good of the community is desired, although individual members may be often tempted to disregard it. In other words, there would be no δικαιοσύνη without φιλία. Φιλία, which is ἡ τοῦ συζήν προαίρεσις (*Pol.* iii. 5. 1280 b. 39), is the individual's interest in τὸ κοινῆ συμφέρον, and τὸ κοινῆ συμφέρον is the standard of Justice—see *Pol.* iii. 4. 1279 a. 17 ὅσαι μὲν πολιτεῖαι τὸ κοινῆ συμφέρον σκοποῦσιν, αὗται μὲν ὀρθαὶ τυγχάνουσιν οὕσαι κατὰ τὸ ἀπλῶς δίκαιον.

From one point of view, then, Aristotle's treatise περὶ φιλίας is 'an Enquiry concerning the Principles of Sociology,' containing, as it does, his whole theory of the natural evolution of the State with its political forms and institutions, its rules of universal and particular justice, its economic laws, and its various associations for pleasure, business, and culture.

From another point of view, however, this treatise is 'an Essay in the Metaphysic of Ethics.' The end or final cause of the social evolution which has been traced is the friendship between good men. This beautiful relationship is the highest product of social life. In it the chief end of man—θεωρητικὴ ἐνέργεια—is most fully realised. Each friend sees in the other a 'second self,' in whom he can 'contemplate' the law of excellence more clearly and continuously than he can do if he regards it only in himself.

One recognises in this view of friendship the influence of Plato's doctrine of διαλεκτικὴ. In the conversation (διαλέγεσθαι) of sympathetic friends, Plato held, the truth is touched, as it can be in no other way. Νόησις is called forth, and the Idea of the Good is seen. Similarly, Aristotle's Perfect Friendship is a Dialectic (like Plato's Dialectic, the last product of culture) by which a few virtuous and fortunate men in each generation are enabled to see the Chief End (what Eudemus calls ὁ σκοπὸς ὁ τῆς καλοκαγαθίας) more clearly, and keep it in view more continuously than their contemporaries. It is for the sake of these 'dialecticians' that the City exists.

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1155 a. 3. Justice (§ 4). But not only is it thus necessary to the existence of human society (representing, as it does, the force which, originating in the family, caused the evolution of society), but it is also *καλόν* (§ 5). The higher life requires what may be called the Dialectic of Friendship.

§ 1. ἔστι γὰρ ἀρετή τις ἢ μετ' ἀρετῆς] *φιλία* in the wide acceptance of the term is not itself an ἀρετή: it is that sense of being a member of the body politic without which the individual could not have the various ἀρεταί included under the general designation of ἡ ὅλη δικαιοσύνη. But ἡ τελεία φιλία (viii. 3. 6), in which the *communis sensus* is displayed in the most eminent way, may be described as ἀρετή τις—and also as μετ' ἀρετῆς, because it manifests itself in association with τελεία ἀρετή. Of course the disposition described in iv. 6 is not alluded to here.

a. 14. § 2. βοηθείας] So Sus. and Byw. instead of *βοηθεῖ* preferred by Bekker. The weight of MS. authority is in favour of *βοηθείας*, which is given by K^b, L^b, O^b, Cambr., NC, CCC, B¹, B^a; but the construction suffers. Perhaps we ought to read *βοηθεῖν* and make it depend on οἴονται, the subject of *βοηθεῖν* being τοὺς φίλους.

a. 15. σύν τε δὺ ἐρχομένω] *Il. x. 224.*

a. 17. § 3. πρὸς τὸ γεγενημένον τῷ γεννησάντι καί] om. K^b, which, however, reads *πρὸς τὸ γεννησαν τῷ γεννηθέντι*. Ald. and CCC margin (hand, I think, which wrote the text) agree with K^b in giving *τὸ γεννησαν τῷ γεννηθέντι* (they omit *πρὸς* before *τὸ γεννησαν*), but read the words omitted by K^b—(CCC omits the first *πρὸς* in line 17). All other authorities, it would seem, omit the words (καί) *πρὸς τὸ γεννησαν τῷ γεννηθέντι*. Susemihl brackets them.

a. 26. § 4. καὶ φίλων μὲν ὄντων οὐδὲν δεῖ δικαιοσύνης, δίκαιοι δ' ὄντες προσδέονται φιλίας, καὶ τῶν δικαίων τὸ μάλιστα φιλικὸν εἶναι δοκεῖ] When men are friends, no pressure is required to make them act justly towards each other; they rather vie with each other in beneficence. Indeed, mere pressure could never succeed, in the long run, in making men act justly. Friendly feeling made men invent the rules of justice at first, and must always be present if they are to be applied rightly; for to be applied rightly, just rules must be *equitably* applied, and equity, which is the perfection of justice (τῶν δικαίων τὸ μάλιστα), involves friendship (φιλίας τῶν δικαίων) and fellow-feeling (*cf. vi. 11. 1 ἐπιεικὲς τὸ ἔχειν περὶ ἑνα συγγνώμη*).

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p. 5.

It is better, with Zell, Coraes, Fritzsche, Grant, and Peters, thus 1155 a. 20. to understand τῶν δικαίων τὸ μάλιστα ὡς τὸ ἐπιεικὲς (*cf.* *E. N.* v. 10. 2 ταῦτόν ἄρα δίκαιον καὶ ἐπιεικὲς, καὶ ἀμφοῖν σπουδαίον ὄντων κρείττον τὸ ἐπιεικὲς, and vi. 11. 2, quoted by Peters, τὰ γὰρ ἐπιεικῆ κοινὰ τῶν ἀγαθῶν ἀπάντων ἐστὶν ἐν τῷ πρὸς ἄλλον), than, with Aspasius, Lambinus, and Gifanius, ὡς τὸ πολιτικὸν δίκαιον. Aspasius writes—πολλὰ γὰρ εἶδη τοῦ δικαίου, καθάπερ ἐλίχθη ἐν τοῖς περὶ δικαιοσύνης, οἷον τὸ πολιτικὸν καὶ τὸ πατρικόν, καὶ τὸ δεσποτικόν· τούτων δὲ τὸ μάλιστα δίκαιόν ἐστὶ τὸ πολιτικόν, ὅπερ ὁμοίον τί ἐστὶ τῷ φιλικῷ· κατ' ἰσότητα γὰρ ἐστὶ τῶν κοινωνῶν. Aristotle has, indeed, just used the words ζοικε δὲ καὶ τὰς πόλεις συνέχειν ἢ φιλία, but we are not therefore obliged to identify τῶν δικαίων τὸ μάλιστα with τὸ πολιτικὸν δίκαιον. Indeed, to do so would be to make Aristotle merely repeat himself; whereas, if we understand him to refer to τὸ ἐπιεικὲς, something is added to what has been said. He begins § 4 by pointing out generally that Justice in the State—that system of νόμοι which we call τὸ πολιτικὸν δίκαιον—was produced and is upheld by φιλία or ὁμόνοια: he ends it by intimating that the highest manifestation of this justice—the application of the general rule in its spirit and not in its letter to the particular case—τὸ ἐπιεικὲς, involves a special degree of φιλία, or fellow-feeling, elsewhere called συγγνώμη—*E. N.* vi. 11. 1 τὸν γὰρ ἐπιεικῆ μάλιστα φάμεν εἶναι συγγνωμονικόν, καὶ ἐπιεικὲς τὸ ἔχειν περὶ ἕνια συγγνώμην. It is only the continued working in us of the constitutive principle of fellow-feeling which can preserve the habit of justice against our inclination to take too formal a view of the rights of others, and to make too much of our own rights; and he realises best the spirit of justice (τῶν δικαίων τὸ μάλιστα) who, from regard for others (φιλία or συγγνώμη), often declines to press his own strict rights—*E. N.* v. 10. 8 ὁ μὴ ἀκριβοδίκαιος ἐπὶ τὸ χεῖρον ἀλλ' ἐλαττωτικός, καίπερ ἔχων τὸν νόμον βοηθόν, ἐπιεικὴς ἐστὶ.

§ 5. οὐ μόνον δ' ἀναγκαῖόν ἐστὶν ἀλλὰ καὶ καλόν] 'This is repeating in other words that friendship is ἀρετὴ τις' (Grant). Fritzsche *ad loc.* quotes *E. N.* iii. 7. 2 τὸ καλὸν τέλος τῆς ἀρετῆς. The clause τοὺς γὰρ φιλοφίλους (Γ, L^b, Ald., and CCC read φιλοφίλους, other authorities φίλους) ἐπαινοῦμεν adds a reason for regarding φιλία as an ἀρετὴ: *cf.* *E. N.* i. 13. 19 τῶν ἕξεων δὲ τὰς ἐπαινετάς ἀρετάς λέγομεν. On the opposition between ἀναγκαῖον (that which is materially necessary) and καλόν (the beautiful result) see notes on viii. 12. 7 and ix. 11. 1.

1155 a. 31. καὶ ἔτι τοὺς αὐτοὺς οἴονται ἀνδρας ἀγαθοὺς εἶναι καὶ φίλους] Bekker reads καὶ ἔτιοι for καὶ ἔτι with M^b, Γ, Cambr., and NC. Peters *ad loc.* compares *Rep.* 334 φίλος μὲν δὴ, ὡς εἶκε, τούτῳ τῷ λόγῳ ὁ ἀγαθὸς ἔσται, ἐχθρὸς δὲ ὁ πονηρὸς; καί.

a. 32. § 6. διαμφισβητεῖται κ.τ.λ.] Taken from Plato, *Lysis* 214 sqq.: see the notes of Zell and Grant. Both quotations—ὡς αἰεὶ τὸν ὁμοῖον ἀγει θεὸς ὡς τὸν ὁμοῖον (*Odys.* xvii. 218), and καὶ κεραμεὺς κεραμεῖ κοτέει καὶ ἀοιδὸς ἀοιδῷ | καὶ πτωχὸς πτωχῷ (*Hes. ἔργ. καὶ ἡμ.* 25), occur in the passage in the *Lysis*. In *M. M.* ii. 11. 1208 b. 9 the proverb κολοῖος παρὰ κολοῖον ἰζάνει is given. Ramsauer is of opinion that Aristotle, who uses ποτί not παρά, has in view another and an older proverb than that given by the writer of the *M. M.* It is to be noted, however, that L^b reads παρ, and O^b παρά. In *E. E.* vii. 1. 1235 a. 8 (the parallel passage) παρά is the reading.

b. 2. ἀνώτερον καὶ φυσικώτερον] ‘φυσικῶς ζητεῖν etiam per se utrumque valet: tum ita disputare ut ad rei veritatem penetretur opp. imprim. λογικῶς, tum ita ut naturalia in quaestionem vocentur opp. e. g. ἠθικῶς’ (Ramsauer *ad loc.*). ‘Others go deeper into these questions and into the causes of the phenomena’ (Peters).

Φυσικῶς ἐπιζητεῖν, as opposed to λογικῶς ἐπιζητεῖν, is to investigate a subject in a concrete way with special reference to proximate causes; while λογικῶς ἐπιζητεῖν is to investigate it in the light of general formal principles: see *de Gen. et Corrump.* ii. 9. 335 b. 25 sqq., where φυσικώτερον λέγειν means to state the efficient cause—εἰ δὲ τὴν ὕλην τις φήσειε γεννᾶν διὰ τὴν κίνησιν φυσικώτερον μὲν ἂν λέγοι τῶν οὕτω λεγόντων (i. e. than those who make the εἶδη causes of γένεσις and φθορά): τὸ γὰρ ἀλλοιοῦν καὶ τὸ μετασχηματίζειν αἰτιώτερόν τε τοῦ γεννᾶν, καὶ ἐν ἀπασιν εἰώθαμεν τοῦτο λέγειν τὸ ποιοῦν, ὁμοίως ἐν τε τοῖς φύσει καὶ ἐν τοῖς ἀπὸ τέχνης, ὃ ἂν ἦ κινητικόν. Cf. *de Coelo* 283 b. 17 φυσικῶς δὲ καὶ μὴ καθόλου σκοποῦσι (see also note on *E. N.* i. 3. 4, b. 23). But in the passage before us the special opposition is rather that between τὸ φυσικῶς ἐπιζητεῖν and τὸ ἠθικῶς ἐπιζητεῖν, as may be seen from the words with which § 7 opens. The result is that here τὸ φυσικῶς ἐπιζητεῖν, ‘bringing in,’ as Grant says, ‘the analogies of the whole of nature,’ is, as contrasted with the narrower ethical enquiry, indistinguishable from τὸ λογικῶς καὶ καθόλου ἐπισκοπεῖν. Hence the Paraphrast *ad loc.*—τὸ μὲν οὖν ἀνάγειν τὸν λόγον εἰς καθολικοὺς τινὰς καὶ φυσικοὺς λόγους, καὶ ζητεῖν ἀπλῶς πῶς τὰ ἐναντία τῶν

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1155 b. 11. § 7. πότερον ἐν πᾶσι γίνεται φιλία ἢ οὐχ οἷόν τε μοχθηροῦς ὄντες φίλους εἶναι] This question, as Grant points out, is started in the *Lysis* 214 D τοῦτο τοίνυν αἰνέττονται, ὡς ἐμοὶ δοκοῦσιν, ὃ ἴταίη, οἱ τὸ ὁμοιον τῷ ὁμοίῳ φίλον λέγοντες, ὡς ὁ ἀγαθὸς τῷ ἀγαθῷ μόνος μόνῳ φίλος, ὁ δὲ κακὸς οὐτ' ἀγαθῷ οὔτε κακῷ οὐδέποτε εἰς ἀληθῆ φιλίαν ἔρχεται. Aristotle's answer is conveyed in viii. 4. 2 δι' ἡδονῆν μὲν οὖν καὶ διὰ τὸ χρήσιμον καὶ φαύλους ἐνδέχεται φίλους ἀλλήλοις εἶναι καὶ ἐπισκεῖσθαι φαύλοις καὶ μηδέτερον ὁποιεῖν, δι' αὐτοὺς δὲ δῆλον ὅτι μόνους τοὺς ἀγαθοὺς· οἱ γὰρ κακοὶ οὐ χαίρουσιν ἑαυτοῖς, εἰ μὴ τις ὠφέλεια γένοιτο.

b. 13. οἱ μὲν γὰρ ἐν οἴόμενοι . . . σημείῳ] Michelet says—'contendant unam tantum speciem amicitiae esse, quia quae quantitate tantum differunt (ἐπιδέχεται τὸ μᾶλλον καὶ τὸ ἥττον), qualitate vel genere diversa esse non possint; quantitate autem diversas esse amicitias, quia, ut dicit Aspasius, μᾶλλον μὲν ἐστὶν ἢ τῶν ἀγαθῶν, ἥττον δὲ ἢ τῶν πονηρῶν. Hoc argumentum refutat Aristoteles optimo jure, dicens hanc quantitatis differentiam aliam etiam qualitatem et speciem efficere, cum nihil impediatur quominus diversae species ita inter se distinguantur ut altera sit amplificatio, altera deminutio (δέχεται γὰρ τὸ μᾶλλον καὶ τὸ ἥττον καὶ τὰ ἕτερα τῷ εἶδει).' Michelet's 'hanc quantitatis differentiam aliam etiam qualitatem et speciem efficere' is hardly to the point here. It cannot be said that the three species of Friendship distinguished by Aristotle (viii. 3. 1) are constituted by mere differences of degree. There are profound qualitative differences between the ἀγαθόν, the ἡδύ, and the χρήσιμον (viii. 2. 1). But these are all φιλητά, and this general attribute may enter in various degrees into the specific forms, although the degree in which it enters into a given form has nothing to do with the specific differentiation of that form from another form. The friendship for pleasure differs qualitatively from the friendship for the good, because the good differs qualitatively from pleasure; but nevertheless we can say that the friendship for pleasure is less friendship than that for the good. The specific characteristics make it an inferior form, just as those of the ape place him beneath man. Οἱ ἐν οἴόμενοι forget that it is possible to distinguish species, and to arrange those species so as to exhibit the quantitative variation of a given quality throughout the series of species taken as a whole. That however τὸ μᾶλλον καὶ ἥττον is not itself εἰδοποιόν is shown by *Pol.* i. 5. 1259 b. 32 καθάλου δὴ τοῦτ' ἐστὶν ἐπισκεπτίον περὶ ἀρχομένου φύσει καὶ ἀρχοντος, πότερον

ἢ αὐτὴ ἀρετὴ ἢ ἕτερα. εἰ μὲν γὰρ δεῖ ἀμφοτέρους μετέχειν καλοκαγαθίας, 1155 b. 18. διὰ τί τὸν μὲν ἀρχειν δέοι ἂν τὸν δὲ ἀρχεσθαι καθάπαξ; οὐδὲ γὰρ τῷ μᾶλλον καὶ ἥττον οἷόν τε διαφέρειν· τὸ μὲν γὰρ ἀρχεσθαι καὶ ἀρχειν εἶδει διαφέρει, τὸ δὲ μᾶλλον καὶ ἥττον οὐδέν. The species of Friendship are like the various ἀρεταί, which are specifically distinct, and yet may be compared with one another in respect of the degree in which they conduce to the Noble Life: thus ἀνδρεία is *more* of a virtue than εὐτραπεία, but it is not this *more* which differentiates them specifically: or, to take the Paraphrast's example—ἡ γὰρ οὐσία καὶ τὸ συμβεβηκὸς ἕτερα ὄντα τῷ εἶδει, τὸ μᾶλλον καὶ τὸ ἥττον ἐπιδέχονται· οὐ γὰρ ὁμοίως εἰσὶν ὄντα.

εἴρηται δ' ὑπὲρ αὐτῶν ἔμπροσθεν] The commentators refer us b. 15. to *E. N.* ii. 8, where the ὑπερβολή and ἔλλειψις opposed to a virtue are presented as specifically distinct from it, although they are only the amplification or diminution of the πῖθος which is held in moderation by the virtue: see Michelet *ad loc.* Aspasius, not finding any passage in the *E. N.* exactly answering to the present reference, suggests—ἔοικε δὲ εἰρησθαι ἐν τοῖς ἐκπεπτωκόσι τῶν Νικομαχεῶν. But the view of Grant and Ramsauer (supported apparently by Sus.) that the words εἴρηται . . . ἔμπροσθεν are spurious seems to be correct; for ὑπὲρ αὐτῶν must be equivalent to περὶ τοῦ ἐπιδέχεσθαι τὸ μᾶλλον καὶ ἥττον καὶ τὰ ἕτερα τῷ εἶδει, while περὶ αὐτῶν in the next line (b. 17) refers to τὰ τῆς φιλίας εἶδη: and further, as Ramsauer points out, ὑπὲρ αὐτῶν = περὶ αὐτῶν is unusual in the *Ethics*: see Eucken *über den Sprachgebrauch des Arist.*—*die Praepositionen*, p. 47—'Im allgemeinen nun ist dies (ὑπὲρ = περὶ with gen.) bei Aristoteles nicht häufig, in einigen Schriften und zwar in der Ethik¹, Rhetorik und Topik findet es sich öfter als in den andern.' It is to be noted that in the *M. M.* and *Rhet. ad Alex.* ὑπὲρ = περὶ with gen. is almost universal: see *Ind. Arist.* and Eucken, o. c. p. 47.

¹ The six passages in which it does occur in the *E. N.* (see note on iii. 3. 2 and add iv. 2. 4 to the passages there quoted) are, with the exception of the second, short connecting clauses which might have been inserted by an editor.

CHAPTER II.

ARGUMENT.

But this question as to whether there are several species of Friendship may be settled by reference to the objects of Friendship—i. e. the things which occasion it. Now these are three—the good, the pleasant, and the useful—the first two being ends for the sake of which the third is chosen as means. The good or pleasant thus loved as an end by a particular individual is what that particular individual thinks good or pleasant for himself. What he thinks good or pleasant for himself may or may not be really good or pleasant—that is another question which does not here concern us.

The term 'Friendship' is not applied to the affection which we may have for a lifeless object: for a lifeless object cannot return affection, and we do not wish its good for its own sake, as we wish the good of our friend for his own sake. Where, however, the person whose good we thus wish does not reciprocate, our feeling towards him is well-wishing rather than Friendship: for Friendship is reciprocal well-wishing—or, more accurately, reciprocal well-wishing of which the parties are aware: for A might wish well to B whom he had never seen, and B might wish well to A, and yet each be ignorant of how he is regarded by the other. In that case A and B would not be friends, but merely well-wishers.

1155 b. 17. § 1. *περὶ αὐτῶν]* *περὶ τῶν τῆς φιλίας εἰδῶν.*

b. 18. *φιλητόν]* The author of *M. M.* (ii. 11. 1208 b. 37) distinguishes between τὸ φιλητόν which is τὸ ἀπλῶς ἀγαθόν and τὸ φιλητέον which is τὸ αὐτῷ ἀγαθόν. Similarly τὸ βουλευτόν is τὸ ἀπλῶς, and τὸ βουλευτέον τὸ ἐκάστῳ ἀγαθόν. *Cf. E. N.* iii. 4: as there the σπουδαῖος wishes τὸ κατ' ἀλήθειαν ἀγαθόν, so in the treatise on φιλία, he loves that which is ἀπλῶς ἀγαθόν—human nature as a rational system.

The ἀγαθόν and the ἡδύ are loved as ends while the χρήσιμα is only a means—as the Paraphrast says *χρήσιμα φιλητά ἐστὶ ἀπὸ τὰ δοκοῦντα ἡδέα καὶ ἀγαθὰ φέρει.*

b. 21. § 2.] Three objects of love are distinguished in this section: (1) τὸ ἀγαθόν, (2) τὸ δὲ αὐτῷ ἀγαθόν, (3) τὸ φαινόμενον αὐτῷ ἀγαθόν. See the Paraph. *ad loc.* ὥστε ἀπλῶς μὲν φιλητόν τὸ ἀγαθόν ἐστὶ τὸ δὲ φιλητόν τὸ τισιν ἀγαθόν φαινόμενον δὲ φιλητόν τὸ δοκοῦν τισὶ ἀγαθόν εἶναι. The words ὁμοίως δὲ καὶ περὶ τὸ ἡδύ imply that a similar threefold division obtains also where τὸ φιλητόν is τὸ ἡδύ. Raimond compares vii. 12. 1 αἱ μὲν ἀπλῶς φαῦλαι τινὲ δ' οὐδ' ἀλλ' εἰσὶ τῆδε . . . αἱ δ' οὐδ' ἡδοναί, ἀλλὰ φαίνονται.

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1155 b. 29. gods—ἴστι γάρ, ὡς οἴονται, φιλία καὶ πρὸς θεὸν καὶ τὰ δῖψυχα, οἷ ὀρθῶς. τὴν γὰρ φιλίαν ἐνταῦθά φαμεν εἶναι οὐ ἔστι τὸ ἀντιφιλεῖσθαι, ἢ δὲ πρὸς θεὸν φιλία οὔτε ἀντιφιλεῖσθαι δέχεται, οὐδ' ὅλως τὸ φιλεῖν. ἄτοπον γὰρ ἂν εἴη εἴ τις φαίη φιλεῖν τὸν Δία.

b. 32. τοὺς δὲ βουλομένους . . . λανθάνουσιν ;] If A wishes good to B for B's sake, but B does not reciprocate, A is said to be 'well-disposed' to B—not to be B's 'friend'; for the notion of 'friends' is that of two persons reciprocally well-disposed towards each other. This definition, however, is not complete—they must *both know* that they are reciprocally well-disposed towards each other.

According to §§ 3 and 4 φιλία requires (1) τὸ τὸν φιλοῦντα τῷ φιλούμενῳ βούλεσθαι τὰγαθὰ ἐκείνου ἕνεκα—i. e. ἢ ἔστιν ὅσπερ ἔστιν ὁ φιλούμενος (ch. 3. § 2): (2) τὸ ἀντιφιλεῖσθαι: (3) τὸ μὴ λανθάνειν.

1158 a. 5. § 4. δι' ἕν τι τῶν εἰρημένων] i. e. διὰ τὸ ἀγαθόν, ἢ τὸ ἡδύ, ἢ τὸ χρήσιμον. This is added somewhat irrelevantly, for it is obvious that in the friendships διὰ τὸ ἡδύ and διὰ τὸ χρήσιμον the first requirement of friendship, viz. τὸ βούλεσθαι τὰγαθὰ ἐκείνου ἕνεκα, is not strictly satisfied: as he says in ch. 3. § 2 οἳ τε δὴ διὰ τὸ χρήσιμον φιλοῦντες διὰ τὸ αὐτοῖς ἀγαθὸν στέργουσι, καὶ οἳ δι' ἡδονὴν διὰ τὸ αὐτοῖς ἡδύ, καὶ οὐχ ὅ ὁ φιλούμενός ἐστιν, ἀλλ' ἢ χρήσιμος ἢ ἡδύς. κατὰ συμβεβηκός τε δὴ αἱ φιλίαι αὗται εἰσιν. These friendships for profit and pleasure, however, satisfy the first requirement after a certain fashion. A person who is merely a means to profit or pleasure may, like money, come to be regarded after a certain fashion as an end. This seems to be what is meant by the statement made below in viii. 3. 1 αἱ δὲ φιλοῦντες ἀλλήλους βούλονται τὰγαθὰ ἀλλήλοις ταύτη ἢ φιλοῦσιν. We may perhaps suppose that the 'friendship' of the dog for his master satisfies the first requirement of friendship in this way.

CHAPTER III.

ARGUMENT.

There being three objects of friendship, there will be three species of friendship, each involving reciprocal liking known to both parties.

Friends wish good to each other in respect of that which is the ground of their friendship—virtue, pleasure, or utility: i. e. they wish each other to be as virtuous, as pleasant, or as useful as possible. In the first case only do we know

our friend for what he is in himself; but where utility is the ground of friendship, we love our friend not as an end in himself, but as a means to our own advantage; similarly, where pleasure is the ground of friendship—we do not love an amusing companion for himself, i. e. for what he is, but because he gives us pleasure. The friendships then which are based on pleasure and utility are friendships *per accidens*: men are loved, not for being themselves what they are, but for happening to be pleasant or useful to other people. Such friendships are easily dissolved, depending as they do on accidental relations—the friendship of utility, which exists chiefly between elderly people, who do not care to see much of each other or take much pleasure in the society of each other, except in so far as some advantage is hoped for—the friendship for pleasure, which is chiefly between young people who live as feeling rather than as interest dictates, and get the immediate pleasure, which they want, by close companionship, or, it may be, by falling in love; therefore cannot see too much of each other, so long as close companionship is pleasant, but when it ceases to be pleasant, cease to be friends—sometimes as suddenly as they became friends, sometimes by ‘growing out of’ their friendship.

Perfect Friendship is that between men who, being good, are of like character. In such friendship A wishes the same good for B as B wishes for A, i. e. each wishes for the other that he may remain what he is—a good man. Such friendship is lasting, for goodness is a lasting quality. Moreover, each of the friends is good in himself, and good in relation to the other, i. e. useful. He is also pleasant in himself, and to the other: for one’s own actions and those like one’s own always give one pleasure; and the actions of good men are the same or like. Thus in the similar goodness of the friends, upon which this friendship is based, are involved their similar pleasantness and their similar utility—for each friend, being really good (not good in some temporary relation), is also really pleasant and really useful—which means that he is pleasant and useful in the same way that the other is. Friendship like this then is naturally lasting; but it is rare, for good men are rare; it takes them a long time to test each other and gain each other’s confidence and fit their characters together. People may all at once wish to be friends; but they do not become friends all at once. They must have time to know each other’s characters.

§ 1. διαφέρει δὲ ταῦτα κ.τ.λ.] i. e. ἀγαθόν, ἡδύ, χρήσιμον.

1156 a. 6.

ταύτη ἢ φιλοῦσιν] ‘in relation to that which is the ground of their friendship’—e. g. those whose friendship is for profit do not love each other for ‘what they are’ (Peters), but for what they hope to get out of each other. As Ramsauer notes, ἀγαθόν a. 12 = ὠφελιμὸν τι (χρήσιμον).

οὐ καθ’ αὐτοῦς φιλοῦσιν] Grant has a good note—“Do not love each other for their very selves.” This phrase καθ’ αὐτοῦς is rather a logical formula than an ordinary grammatical combination. It seems to have arisen from καθ’ αἰρό, “the absolute.” καθ’ αὐτοῦς is opposed to κατὰ συμβεβηκός § 2.

1156 a. 12. τῷ ποιούσ τινας εἶναι] ‘for their quality simply.’ An ἀρετή (e.g. εὐτραπέλεια) is a ποιότης: see note on ii. 5. 1, b. 20. Having all the ἀρεταί—being good—is the ποιότης par excellence; see *E. N.* i. 9. 8 (referred to by Fritzsche) ἡ πολιτικὴ πλείστην ἐπιμέλειαν ποιεῖ τοῦ ποιούσ τινας καὶ ἀγαθοῦσ τοῦσ πολίτασ ποιῆσαι καὶ πρακτικῶσ τῶν καλῶν.

a. 16. § 2. οὐχ ἢ ὁ φιλούμενός ἐστιν] = ἐστὶν ὅσπερ ἐστὶν, two lines below. Fritzsche, omitting ὁ with K^b, makes φιλούμενος a predicate like χρήσιμος and ἡδύς¹: but the omission in K^b is probably a mere blunder. Susemihl, following Bonitz, inserts ὅσπερ ἐστὶν after φιλούμενός ἐστιν, line 16. I think that it is unnecessary to do so.

κατὰ συμβεβηκός τε δὴ κ.τ.λ.] Fritzsche (*E. N.* viii, ix) has an important note here—‘consociatae particulae τε δὴ ad concludendam rationem ita faciunt, ut cum barbara dictione *und also* comparari possint . . . Nam utitur auctor particula δὴ ad rem antea exploratam aut necessario ex superioribus consequentem indicandam . . . Jam vero ante hanc particulam quum insuper ponatur τέ, causa haec videtur esse, quod, pronunciata voce τέ, sententiam novam, subjecta voce δὴ, conclusionem aliquam se addituram superioribus declarat auctor.’ Zell says to the same effect—‘Particula τε pleonastice superaddita est, vel potius particula mere copulativa conclusivae conjuncta, quo aetius orationis membra cohaereant.’ Eucken (*de Aristotelis dicendi ratione: pars prima: de particularum usu*, pp. 21, 22) opposes this view on the grounds that the meaning *und also* is expressed by καὶ δὴ, and that in almost all places in which τε δὴ occurs the τέ is followed by another copulative particle. In the present passage, Eucken reads δέ with M^b instead of δὴ after εὐδιάλυτοι a. 19, and makes this δέ answer per anacoluthiam to τε a. 17. He thinks that two conclusions are thus drawn from the fact that οἱ τε δὴ διὰ τὸ χρήσιμον φιλοῦντες διὰ τὸ εἶναι ἀγαθὸν στέργουσι, καὶ οἱ δὲ ἡδονὴν διὰ τὸ αὐτοῖσ ἡδύ, καὶ οὐχ ἢ ὁ φιλούμενός ἐστιν, ἀλλ’ ἢ χρήσιμος ἢ ἡδύς—viz. (1) κατὰ συμβεβηκός αἱ φύλασ εἶναι εἰσιν, and (2) εὐδιάλυτοι αἱ τοιαῦταί εἰσιν—these two conclusions being coupled, per anacoluthiam, by τε—δέ. In the parallel passages adduced by Fritzsche, viz. *Phys.* 186 a. 4, *de Animal. gen.* 729 b. 8, and *Pol.* 1263 b. 7, the τε before δὴ is, Eucken points out, taken up

¹ So apparently Bywater, *Contributions*, p. 59.

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1156 a. 29. τῆς τοιαύτης ὁμιλίας] the constant and pleasant intercourse τοῦ συζῆν.

a. 30. εἰς ταύτας δὲ καὶ τὴν ξενικὴν τιθέασιν.] ξενικὴ φιλία subsisting e. g. between an Athenian and a Spartan, does not imply τὸ συζῆν, and rests merely on mutual convenience. Ramsauer, admitting the correctness of classing ξενικὴ φιλία under ἡ φιλία ἢ διὰ τὸ χρῆσιμον, thinks these words out of place here, and brackets them. The pronoun ταύτας, he urges, has nothing to which it can be grammatically referred, and the clause is almost a transcript of viii. 12.

i. 1161 b. 15 εἰς ταύτας δὲ τάξειεν ἄν τις καὶ τὴν ξενικὴν. I think that ταύτας (viii. 3. 4) may easily be taken to relate to the various utilitarian φιλίαι mentioned above—those of πρεσβῦται, οἱ ἐν ἀκρῇ, and νέοι. The writer of the *M. M.* ii. 11. 1211 a. 12 looks at ξενικὴ φιλία from a different point of view—βιβαιοτάτη δ' ἂν δόξειεν εἶναι τῶν φιλιῶν ἡ ξενικὴ· οὐ γὰρ ἔστιν οὐδὲν αὐτοῖς τέλος κοινὸν ὑπὲρ οὗ ἀμφισβητοῦσιν, οἷον ἐν τοῖς πολίταις· διαμφισβητοῦντες γὰρ πρὸς ἀλλήλους κατὰ τὴν ὑπεροχὴν οὐ μένουσιν φίλοι ὄντες.

a. 31. § 5.] Zell, Coraes, and Fritzsche quote *Rhet.* ii. 12. 1389 a. οἱ μὲν οὖν νέοι τὰ ἤθη εἰσὶν ἐπιθυμητικοί, καὶ οἷοι ποιεῖν ἃ ἂν ἐπιθυμήσωσι . . . καὶ μᾶλλον αἰροῦνται πράττειν τὰ καλὰ τῶν συμφερόντων τῷ γὰρ ἤθει ζῶσι μᾶλλον ἢ τῷ λογισμῷ, ἔστι δὲ ὁ μὲν λογισμὸς τοῦ συμφέροντος ἢ ἀρετῆ τοῦ καλοῦ. καὶ φιλόφιλοι καὶ φιλοίκειοι καὶ φιλέταιροι μᾶλλον τῶν ἄλλων ἡλικιῶν διὰ τὸ χαίρειν τῷ συζῆν καὶ μήπω πρὸς τὸ συμφέρον κρίνειν μηδὲν, ὥστε μηδὲ τοὺς φίλους.

b. 3. διόπερ φιλοῦσι καὶ ταχέως παύονται] Rassow (*Forsch.* pp. 33, 34) suggests διόπερ ταχέως φιλοῦσι καὶ παύονται, comparing διὸ ταχέως γίνονται φίλοι καὶ παύονται above 1156 a. 34. But there is a difference between φιλοῦσι and γίνονται φίλοι which perhaps sufficiently accounts for the different position of ταχέως. Bywater's note on καὶ ταχέως b. 3 is 'fort. ταχέως καὶ.'

b. 5. τὴν φιλίαν] 'their friendship'—is the reading of K^b, Ob, Camb, CCC, B¹, B², and seems preferable to Bekker's φιλίαν, the reading of L^b, M^b, NC, Ald.

b. 7. § 6. τελεία . . . b. 11 συμβεβηκός] 'The friendship between those who are good and alike in excellence is perfect; for in it each friend, being good in himself [*i. e.* not merely good for another, or useful], wishes alike the good of the other *quod* good in himself:

and those who thus wish each the good of the other for the other's 1156 b. 7. sake are friends in the truest sense, each being the friend of the other for what he is essentially, not for what he is accidentally.' This friendship between those who are both good *in themselves* (καθ' αὐτούς) is here shown to be τελεία, because in it each friend loves the other for what that other is himself (δι' αὐτούς)—i. e. loves him as ἕτερος αὐτός (ix. 9. 10)—'treats Humanity in him as an end, not as a means.' In line b. 10 δι' αὐτούς οὕτως ἔχουσι means ἐκάτερος φιλικῶς ἔχει πρὸς ἐκάτερον δι' ἐκείνον—i. e. the expression δι' αὐτούς marks the two friends regarded as each the *final object* (hence διὰ) of the other's love, not regarded as *subjects* each of whom has the feeling of love for the other—in that case we should have had καθ' αὐτούς. It is to be observed that the Paraphrast reads δι' αὐτούς, ποί δι' αὐτούς: his comment is—οἱ δὲ βουλόμενοι τὰ ἀγαθὰ τοῖς φίλοις, οὐχ ἑαυτῶν ἕνεκα, ἀλλὰ τῶν φίλων, οὗτοι εἰσιν οἱ μάλιστα φίλοι δι' αὐτούς γὰρ τοὺς φίλους φιλοῦσι, καὶ βούλονται αὐτοῖς τὰ ἀγαθὰ, καὶ οὐ δι' ἄλλο καὶ κατὰ συμβεβηκός.

ἡ δ' ἀρετὴ μόνιμον] Cf. E. N. i. 10. 10. b. 12.

οἱ γὰρ ἀγαθοὶ καὶ ἀπλῶς ἀγαθοὶ καὶ ἀλλήλοις ὠφελίμοι] Here b. 13. ἀλλήλοις ὠφελίμοι explains τῷ φίλῳ ἀγαθός of the preceding clause. These words are quoted by Rassow (*Forsch.* p. 83) in support of his remark—'die Erklärer des achten Buches sind oft zu Irrthümern verleitet durch das Wort ἀγαθός, das bald im Sinne von καλός bald im Sinne von χρήσιμος gebraucht wird.' Cf. the use of ἀγαθόν τι in viii. 3. 1, 2 = χρήσιμον or ὠφέλιμον.

καὶ γὰρ ἀπλῶς οἱ ἀγαθοὶ ἡδεῖς καὶ ἀλλήλοις] οἱ ἀπλῶς ἡδεῖς are b. 15. those who, living the rational life, therefore give pleasure by their society to others who live the same life. It is the fact that the rational life is one for all men who live it that makes οἱ ἀπλῶς ἡδεῖς also ἡδεῖς ἀλλήλοις. In the life of reason man derives from man true pleasure and true profit—pleasure which can never bring pain afterwards—profit which never results in loss to oneself or to others. The common consciousness of a noble life lived together is pure pleasure; and to live this life together is the highest good. Accordingly in the life of Reason there is no conflict of pleasures or utilities, but all men necessarily agree. As Spinoza says (*Eth.* iv. 35) 'quia unus quisque ex suae naturae legibus id appetit quod bonum et id amovere conatur quod malum esse judicat; et quum praeterea id quod ex dictamine rationis bonum aut malum esse

1156 b. 15. *judicamus necessario bonum aut malum sit, ergo homines quatenus ex ductu rationis vivunt eatenus tantum ea necessario agunt quae humanae naturae et consequenter unicuique homini necessario bona sunt, hoc est quae cum natura uniuscujusque hominis conveniunt. Atque adeo homines etiam inter se, quatenus ex ductu rationis vivunt, necessario semper conveniunt. Nihil singulare in rerum natura datur quod homini sit utilius quam homo qui ex ductu rationis vivit. Nam id homini utilissimum est quod cum sua natura maxime convenit, hoc est homo. At homo ex legibus suae naturae absolute agit quando ex ductu rationis vivit, et eatenus tantum cum natura alterius hominis necessario semper convenit. Ergo homini nihil inter res singulares utilius datur quam homo.'*

b. 16. αἱ οἰκεῖαι πράξεις καὶ αἱ τοιαῦται] 'his own actions and those that resemble them.'

b. 17. αἱ αὐταὶ ἢ ὅμοιαι] This is the reading of L^b M^b (K^b has αὐτὰ ὅμοιαι) and seems preferable to τοιαῦται ἢ ὅμοιαι, the reading of Γ, O^b, CCC, NC, Cambr., Ald. Thus αἱ αὐταὶ corresponds to οἰκεῖαι (line b. 16), and ὅμοιαι to αἱ τοιαῦται.

§ 7. ἡ τοιαύτη δὲ φιλία κ.τ.λ.] Stahr (*E. N.*, p. 280, note 1) and Rassow (*Forsch.* p. 24) regard this section as merely a repetition of § 6, b. 11 διαμένει οὖν . . . b. 17 ἢ ὅμοιαι. Stahr accordingly brackets the whole section; and Ramsauer brackets down to b. 23 ἀπλῶς ἐστίν.

b. 18. συνάπτει] intransitive—'meet together.' The editors refer to viii. 4. 5 οὐ πάνυ δ' αὐταὶ συνάπτουσιν. Cf. also *Cat.* 6. 4 b. 36.

b. 20. καὶ καθ' ὁμοιότητά τινα] This is generally taken (e.g. by the Paraph., Zell, Fritzsche, Williams, Peters) to mean that all friendship 'implies some similarity between the friends.' But Grant would omit the comma after φιλοῦντι and take the phrase to mean that a friendship which is for the sake of a relative good or pleasure, i. e. relative τῷ φιλοῦντι, is a friendship only καθ' ὁμοιότητα τῆς τελείας φιλίας—so called because it resembles the perfect friendship. In support of this rendering of καθ' ὁμοιότητα he refers to viii. 4. 4 καὶ δὲ τῆς φιλίας πλείω, καὶ πρῶτως μὲν καὶ κυρίως τὴν τῶν ἀγαθῶν ἢ ἀγαθῶν, τὰς δὲ λοιπὰς καθ' ὁμοιότητα. He also refers to viii. 6. 7 δοκοῦσι δὲ καὶ δι' ὁμοιότητα καὶ ἀνομοιότητα ταύτου εἶναι τε καὶ οὐκ εἶναι φιλίας.

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1158 b. 22. pronoun for τῇ τελείᾳ φιλίᾳ. But can ταύτῃ γὰρ ὁμοία καὶ τὰ λοιπὰ not be interpreted otherwise than as above? Zell suggests the following interpretation—'Potest autem lectio vulgata alio modo sic quoque explicari: Huic bonorum virorum amicitiae sive in hac bonorum amicitia similia sunt, id est morum similitudo et reliqua, id est, reliqua quae ad firmam et veram amicitiam requiruntur, id est, absolute bonum et absolute jucundum¹.' Peters, apparently following Zell, translates—'for here there is similarity and the rest, viz. what is good simply and pleasant simply.' Surely ὁμοία cannot mean 'similarity,' as distinguished from τὰ λοιπὰ, 'the rest': and is it not better to regard ἡδύ without the article as the predicate of a clause introduced by the 'τί adjunctivum' so common in Books viii, ix, x?—see note on viii. 3. 2, and Eucken, *de Arist. dic. rat.* p. 14, where this case is quoted.

Reading ὁμοία I venture to offer the following rendering—'every friendship is for good or pleasure (the good or pleasure being such either in itself or in relation to the person who has the friendly feeling), and implies some similarity between the parties; but true friendship possesses all the aforesaid characteristics in virtue of the essential nature of the friends—I say *all*, for in this friendship the other characteristics also (καὶ τὰ λοιπὰ, *i. e.* the pleasantness and usefulness of the friends to each other, as distinguished from their goodness) are similar (ὁμοία), the truly good being also truly pleasant.' True friends have a similar, or indeed identical, pleasantness and usefulness, as well as goodness—*cf.* below ch. 4. § 1, b. 34 κατὰ πάντα ταῦτα γίνεται καὶ ὁμοία ἑκατέρῳ παρ' ἑκατέρου, ὅπερ δεῖ τοῖς φίλοις ὑπάρχειν—the qualities which the one friend really has the other truly loves, because they are similar to, or identical with, his own real qualities reciprocally loved by his friend. This means that these qualities exist ἀπλῶς, or that friends between whom this perfect ὁμοιότης subsists are ἡδεις καθ' αὐτούς, &c. Where all qualities are ποῖ ὁμοία, the one is not the other's *alter ego*, and, if called his 'friend,' must be so called because loved for some quality not inherent essentially in his character, but attaching to the special relation in which the two happen to be placed. The leading idea of my rendering is that where κατὰ πάντα ταῦτα γίνεται καὶ ὁμοία ἑκατέρῳ παρ' ἑκατέρου, there the good pleasant and useful qualities of each friend must be absolute—ἀπλῶς, καθ' αὐτούς, not relative; for

¹ I have not altered the punctuation of the above quotation, but what I take to be Zell's meaning would be made clearer by a comma after *similitudo*.

if they were relative, then a dissimilarity between the friends would 1158 b. 22. be implied, whereas good men cannot be dissimilar: *cf.* *M. M.* ii. 11. 1210 a. 8 ἡ μὲν γὰρ καθ' ὁμοιότητα ἢ τῶν σπουδαίων καὶ ἡ τελεία φιλία· ἡ δὲ κατ' ἀνομοιότητα ἢ κατὰ τὸ συμφέρον.

μάλιστα δέ] The weight of MS. authority is in favour of δῆ here, b. 23. and all MSS. seem to have δέ in b. 24: but I think that Bywater's δέ in b. 23 and δῆ in b. 24 make the passage run better.

§ 8. ἔτι δὲ προσδεῖται χρόνου καὶ συνηθείας] οὐ μόνον δὲ ἀρετῆς b. 25. δεῖται ἡ τοιαύτη φιλία καὶ τρόπων ἀγαθῶν, ἀλλὰ καὶ χρόνου καὶ συνηθείας (Paragraph.).

τοὺς λεγομένους ἄλλας] *Cf.* *E. E.* H. 2. 1238 a. 2 διὸ εἰς παροιμίαν b. 27. ἐλήλυθεν ὁ μέδιμος τῶν ἄλλων.

οὐδ' ἀποδέξασθαι δῆ πρότερον οὐδ' εἶναι φίλους] 'nor can they b. 28. accept one another as friends, or be friends' (Peters). *Cf.* viii. 5. 3 οἱ δ' ἀποδεχόμενοι ἀλλήλους: *cf.* also *E. N.* ix. 8. 7 τοὺς μὲν οὖν περὶ τὰς καλὰς πράξεις διαφερόντως σπουδάζοντας πάντες ἀποδέχονται καὶ ἐπαινοῦσιν.

For δῆ L^b, M^b, Γ, Cambr. read δεῖ.

CHAPTER IV.

ARGUMENT.

This Friendship, then—that between good men—is perfect in duration and in all other respects, the friends always returning each other's offices in the same kind.

The friendship which is for the sake of pleasure, and that which is based on utility, are like this Friendship between good men; for good men, as friends, are pleasant and useful to each other. These imperfect friendships are most durable when, as in the Perfect Friendship, the return which each friend makes to each is in the same kind—such as pleasure, and that derived from the same thing—e. g. the pleasure derived from witty conversation which is the same for both talkers if both be witty, as distinguished from the pleasure of lover and beloved. Lover and beloved do not derive their pleasure from the same thing: the lover's pleasure is derived from seeing the beauty of the beloved; the beloved's pleasure from being courted by the lover; but when the beauty fades, the friendship too sometimes ceases, unless the two, from long familiarity, have come to love each other's dispositions. Where mere utility, however, is the ground of association

on one side, lover and beloved can scarcely be called friends, and the friendship between them cannot last long. Where utility, as distinguished from pleasure, is the ground of association on both sides, the so-called friendship ceases as soon as the parties cease to be useful to each other.

It will be seen then that for the sake of pleasure and utility bad men may be friends of bad men, good men of bad men, and men neither good nor bad of others, neither good nor bad: but for the sake of each other, as such, only good men can be friends; for bad men do not delight in each other as such, but only in so far as some advantage is desired.

The friendship between good men is the only friendship which is proof against slander: such friends have known each other too long and too well to believe evil of each other.

It must be understood that we make a concession to popular usage when we call those who associate for utility friends—(in the same way we speak of allied states as friendly states—utility is the bond of alliance between states): we also make a concession to popular usage when we call those who associate for pleasure friends (as we speak of childish playmates as friends): it is only good men who love each other for their goodness who are friends in the primary and strict sense of the word. The other friendships are only metaphorically so called, because, while they are based on that which is good, it is not on that which is absolutely good, but on that which is only relatively good that they are based: for pleasant things are good in relation to the man who takes pleasure in them.

The two metaphorically called Friendships, or Friendships per accidens, seldom subsist together: there is no law by which accidents are conjoined—the parties to a 'friendship' for utility seldom happen to be the same as the parties to a 'friendship' for pleasure.

1156 b. 34. § 1. ταῦτά] This is Bekker's reading (after Muretus) for the ταῦτα of most MSS.

1157 a. 10. πολλοὶ δ' αὖ διαμένουσιν] Zell very appositely compares *Symplos.* 183 E πονηρὸς δ' ἔστιν ἐκείνος ὁ ἐραστής ὁ πάνδημος, ὁ τοῦ σώματος μᾶλλον ἢ τῆς ψυχῆς ἐρῶν. καὶ γὰρ οὐδὲ μόνιμός ἐστιν ἄτε οὐδὲ μοίρου ἐρῶν πράγματος· ἅμα γὰρ τῷ τοῦ σώματος ἄνθει λήγοντι οὐπερ ἤρα, οἴχεται ἀποπτάμενος, πολλοὺς λόγους καὶ ὑποσχέσεις κατασχύνας. ὁ δὲ τοῦ ἤθους χρηστοῦ ὄντος ἐραστής διὰ βίου μένει ἄτε μόνιμος συντακείς.

a. 13. § 2. καὶ εἰσὶν ἡττον φίλοι καὶ διαμένουσιν] supply ἡττον with διαμένουσιν.

a. 18. μηδέτερον ὁποιουῦν] i. e. one who is neither good nor bad may be a friend to a man of any sort, good, bad, or indifferent.

δι' αὐτοὺς δὲ δῆλον ὅτι μόνους τοὺς ἀγαθοὺς] Only good men can each love the other for the other's sake, because only good men

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1157 a. 32. ἀγαθῷ ἴσκειν, ὅτι αὐτοῖς ἀγαθὸν δοκεῖ καὶ τὸ χρήσιμον ἀγαθὸν δοκεῖ τῷ χρωμένῳ· διὰ τοῦτο καθ' ὁμοιότητα τῆς ἀληθοῦς φιλίας αἱ τοιαῦται φιλίαι λέγονται. So also Michelet, with ὁμοίων τι sc. ἀγαθῷ, and Grant. The emendation ἢ γὰρ ἀγαθῷ τινὶ ὁμοιον suggested by Coraes, although, I think, inadmissible as an emendation, gives the sense correctly. His note is—ἢ γὰρ ἀγαθόν τι καὶ ὁμοίων τι κ.τ.λ.] γραφὴ ὑποπτος, ὡς δηλοῦσι καὶ αἱ μεταφράσεις. ἢ μὲν γὰρ APΓ [Argyropylos] παρέλιπε τὸ τελευταῖον ἐγκλινόμενον, τι [i. e. after ὁμοιον: so Bek. and Sus.]: ἢ δὲ AP (Aretinus) τοῦτο παραλείψασα καὶ τὸν συμπλεκτικὸν εἰς τὸν διαζευκτικὸν ἔτρεψεν, ἢ ὁμοιον, αὐτὴ σίμιλε. ἴσ. γρ. ἢ γὰρ ἀγαθῷ τινὶ ὁμοιον, ἴσ' ἢ ὁ νοῦς, καθ' ὃ γὰρ τὸ συνδέον αὐτοῖς εἰς φιλίαν (ἠδὲ ἢ χρήσιμον) ὁμοίωται πως τῷ ἀγαθῷ, κατὰ τοῦτό εἰσι φίλοι.

a. 33. § 5. οὐ πάνυ δ' αὐται συνάπτουσιν] 'But these two latter kinds are not apt to coincide' (Peters). μικτὴ δὲ φιλία ἀπὸ χρησίμου καὶ ἡδέος οὐ πάνυ γίνεται, ὅστε τῶν φίλων τὸν μὲν διὰ τὸ ἠδὲ φιλεῖν τὸν δὲ διὰ τὸ χρήσιμον (Paraph.). The Paraph. is hardly right here. Mixed friendships in which one party supplies pleasure and the other recompenses him by profit are not very rare. The kind of mixed friendship here alluded to by Aristotle is that in which both friends are mutually pleasant and useful. This seems to be sufficiently recognised by the editors—Fritzsche, Stahr, Ramsauer, Williams. Ramsauer's note is good—'Quantum differat ἢ πρότερον καὶ κυρίως λεγομένη a reliquis, exponitur ut non possit melius. Quod enim per illius naturam ultro efficitur ut boni et utiles inter se iidemque suaves sint, id in his vel casu vix semel contingit: alii utiles, alii suaves.'

a. 35. τὰ κατὰ συμβεβηκός] The sense of τὰ κατὰ συμβεβηκός here is clearly given in a passage (*Met.* Δ. 30. 1025 a. 14) quoted by Fritzsche and Grant—συμβεβηκός δὲ λέγεται ὃ ὑπάρχει μὲν τινι, καὶ ἀληθῆς εἰπεῖν, οὐ μέντοι οὔτε ἐξ ἀνάγκης, οὔτε ἐπὶ τὸ πολὺ· οἷον εἰ τις ὀρύττων φυτῷ βόθρον εὖρε θησαυρόν. τοῦτο τοίον συμβεβηκός τῷ ὀρύττοντι τὸν βόθρον τὸ εὖρεῖν θησαυρόν· οὔτε γὰρ ἐξ ἀνάγκης τοῦτο ἐκ τούτου ἢ μετὰ τοῦτο· οὐθ' ὡς ἐπὶ τὸ πολὺ ἂν τις φυτεύῃ θησαυρόν εὐρίσκει καὶ μουσικός γ' ἂν τις εἴη λευκός· ἀλλ' ἐπεὶ οὔτε ἐξ ἀνάγκης οὐθ' ὡς ἐπὶ τὸ πολὺ τοῦτο γίνεται, συμβεβηκός αὐτὸ λέγομεν.

b. 2. § 8. ταύτη ὁμοιοὶ ὄντες] Here Grant seems to fall into error from a desire to be perfectly consistent in his rendering of ὁμοιοὶ

as it occurs in this and the previous chapter. His rendering is 1157 b. 2. 'In this respect (*i. e.* as affording and seeking pleasure or utility) being like (the good).' Peters adopts Grant's view, translating—'resembling true friends in this respect.' Aspasius gives the correct interpretation when he says ταύτη φησιν ὅμοιοι ὄντες τουτέστι κατὰ τοῦτο, ὅμοιοι ὄντες καθὸ ἡδεῖς ἢ χρήσιμοι ἀλλήλοις καὶ ἢ παρέχουσιν ἀλλήλοις ἡδονὴν καὶ δι' ἡδονὴν φίλοι εἰσίν. ἀπλῶς δὲ οὐκ εἰσὶν ὅμοιοι. This interpretation is followed by Michelet, Fritzsche, Stahr, Williams, and Ramsauer. The reference is to viii. 4. 2, where the difference between true friendship and the other kinds turns on the essential similarity of good men, as distinguished from the merely superficial similarity of bad men; but it must be admitted that the words καὶ τῷ ὁμοιωσθαι τούτοις following immediately (b. 5) are awkward, and might be thought to favour Grant's rendering of ταύτη ὅμοιοι ὄντες.

CHAPTER V.

ARGUMENT.

Just as we may look at the virtuous man either as 'having a virtuous disposition' or as 'acting virtuously,' so we may look at Friends either as having the disposition of friendship, or as actively manifesting it. A and B may have constant opportunities of enjoying each other's society: C and D may live at a distance from each other and merely be so mutually disposed as to meet as friends when they do meet: for separation—unless it be very long—does not destroy the disposition of friendship, only prevents the active manifestation of the disposition.

Seeing much of each other and taking pleasure in each other's society is the great mark of friends. Hence old and morose people do not make friendships easily, because little pleasure is to be had from such people, and nobody cares to spend his days with people who are unpleasant.

Those who are on good terms, but do not see much of each other, are well-wishers rather than friends. Seeing much of each other, as we said, is the great mark of friends—whether they be those who depend on each other for assistance, or fortunate persons who love each other's society for its own sake. But people cannot see much of each other whose companionship is not mutually pleasant.

The friendship between good men is the truest friendship. Each is loved by each both for what he is in himself and for what he is to the other, what each is to the other being, in fact, what each is in himself. The nature of each is the same: accordingly each finds and loves his own good in the goodness of the

other: each gives to each and derives from each the same advantage and pleasure. The proverbial 'equality of friends' is thus realised most truly in the friendship of good men.

1157 b. 9. § 1. ὅστ' ἐνεργεῖν] Ramsauer and Susemihl read ὅστ' ἀν ἐνεργεῖν, which the sense seems to require—'they do not perform friendly acts, but their state is such that they *would* perform them,' if circumstances permitted. L^b reads ὅστε καὶ ἐνεργεῖν, which perhaps points to κῆν, as Ramsauer suggests.

b. 10. οὐ διαλύουσι τὴν φιλίαν ἀπλῶς, ἀλλὰ τὴν ἐνέργειαν] not the friendship regarded as such, *i. e.* as ἕξις, but its manifestation or ἐνέργεια: *cf. E. N. v. 1. 20 ἧ δὲ τοιάδε ἕξις ἀπλῶς.*

b. 13. πολλὰς δὴ φιλίας ἀπροσηγορία διέλυσεν] *Cf. Athenaeus v. p. 187,* where τηλοῦ φίλοι ναίοντες οὐκ εἰσὶν φίλοι is characterised as μισανθρωποπάτη τῶν παροιμιῶν—πῶς γὰρ οὐκ ἄλογον τότῳ τὴν φιλίαν καὶ οὐ τρόπῳ κρίνεσθαι;

§§ 2, 3.] The passage οὐ φαίνονται b. 13 . . . b. 24 ἔχειν is regarded by Fritzsche and Kassow (*Forsch.* pp. 24, 25) as the first of *gemini loci*, the other passage being ch. 6. § 1 ἐν δὲ τοῖς στρυφνοῖς 1158 a. 1 . . . φιλικὰ a. 10. See note on ch. 6. § 1.

b. 18. § 3. ἀποδεχόμενοι ἀλλήλους] 'are on good terms'—or 'know each other': see note on viii. 3. 8, b. 28.

b. 19. οὐδὲν γὰρ οὕτως ἐστὶ φίλων ὡς τὸ συζῆν] Peters has a useful note here—'To a Greek of course this does not necessarily imply living under the same roof, as it does to us with our very different conditions of life.'

b. 21. καὶ οἱ μακάριοι] 'even the happy.' It seems better to take μακάριοι here, with the Paraph. and Asp., as equivalent to εὐδαίμων and ἀγαθοί than, with Zell and Coraes, as meaning 'rich' like the Latin *beati*. Coraes' note is—μακάριοι] ἐπὶ τοῦ πλούσιου ἐστὶν ὁ δὲ νοῦς, ὀρέγονται δὲ καὶ οἱ πλούσιοι συνημερεύειν τοῖς φίλοις, καί τινες οὐ χρίζοντες τῆς παρ' αὐτῶν ὠφελείας, ὡς περ οἱ ἐνδεεῖς. This is plausible; but rendered improbable by the words immediately following ποσὶταις μὲν γὰρ κ. τ. λ. which suggest ix. 9. 3 ἀτοπον δ' ἴσως καὶ τὸ μονώτην ποιεῖν τὸν μακάριον, where the μακάριος is the εὐδαίμων = ὁ κατ' ἀρετὴν τελείαν ἐνεργῶν.

b. 23. ἡ ἐταιρική (φιλα)] 'comradeship' (Peters). The friendship of

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1157 b. 28. *amicitia*. In *E. N.* ii. 5. 2 *φιλία* is enumerated among the *εἶδη*. But too much must not be made of a merely popular enumeration. Aristotle's fully considered theory of *φιλία* makes it a *ἔξω*, i. e. the result of the rational formation, or *εἰδοποίησις*, of certain natural affections, many of which may be conveniently brought under the general designation of *φίλησις*. See the notes of Zell, Fritzsche, Michelet, and Grant.

b. 30. ἀντιφιλοῦσι δὲ μετὰ προαιρέσεως] This is not a very true or relevant remark if intended merely to bring out the difference between *φιλία* and *φίλησις*: *ἄψυχα* indeed cannot love in return, but there are many other objects of mere *φίλησις* which render *φίλησις* in return, *ἄνευ προαιρέσεως*, and even in many *φιλίας* so called, viz. in many of those *δι' ἡδονήν* (cf. especially viii. 3. 5), love is mutually given *ἄνευ προαιρέσεως*. The words *ἀντιφιλοῦσι μετὰ προαιρέσεως* serve to distinguish not so much between *φιλία* and *φίλησις*, as between *ἡ τελεία φιλία* and the inferior kinds; and may well be intended as another argument in support of *μάλιστα μὲν οὖν ἐστὶ φιλία ἢ τῶν ἀγαθῶν* § 4. The latter half of § 5 is also in favour of making the subject of *ἀντιφιλοῦσι* especially of *ἀγαθοὶ φίλοι*. Friends of the inferior kinds never indeed properly acquire a *ἔξω* of friendship at all. This is shown by the fact that their friendships come to an end as circumstances alter. A good *ἔξω* is that by which a man corresponds with his permanent environment—the world as reason apprehends it, which is the same for all men, and has a place for every man. The friendship of the good, as based on the recognition of an orderly system of life, is the only friendship which can be properly described as a *ἔξω*. The friendships for pleasure and profit, based as they are on the feelings of the isolated individual irrationally seeking his own gratification without regard for others who are as truly persons in a kingdom of ends as himself, may be characterised as friendships *κατὰ πάθος*.

b. 31. καὶ τὰγαθὰ βούλονται τοῖς φιλουμένοις ἐκείνων ἕνεκα, οὐ κατὰ πάθος ἀλλὰ καθ' ἕξιν] *Βούλησις* is of the *τέλος* (iii. 2. 9), as distinguished from *τὰ πρὸς τὸ τέλος*. But such a *τέλος*, being *good*, can be apprehended only by reason, not by sense or feeling. See Themistius, vol. ii. 208 (ed. Spengel) *ἀγαθοῦ γὰρ ἢ αἰσθησις ἢ αἰσθησις ἀντιλαμβάνεσθαι οὐχ οἷα τε οὐδέ κακοῦ, ἀλλὰ μόνου τοῦ τίρσευται ἢ*

ἀπῶντος, τὸ δὲ ἀγαθὸν καὶ τὸ κακὸν τοῦ νοῦ μόνου κρίνειν ἐστὶ. The 1157 b. 31. *apprehension* of a good end requiring reason, the *wish* to realise it, or the moral *interest* in it, requires a *ῥῆσις* or rational disposition of the desires. In the life of mere desire there is no such thing as an *end* in the true sense of the term.

τῇ βουλήσει καὶ τῷ ἡδεῖ] Williams brings out the meaning of b. 38. this passage in its context correctly, I think, as follows—‘And hence each friend not only loves that which is his own good, but also makes a perfectly equivalent return in the good which he wishes his friend, and in the pleasure which he yields him.’ Here *βουλήσει* = ‘the wish for the *good*’ (*cf.* καὶ τὰγαθὰ βούλονται above) naturally suggests ἡδεῖ, *i. e.* τῷ ἀπλῶς ἡδεῖ, which is always associated with τὸ ἀπλῶς ἀγαθόν. *Cf.* viii. 3. 7. τὸ τε ἀπλῶς ἀγαθὸν καὶ ἡδὺ ἀπλῶς ἐστὶ.

The *Vet. Tr.* and *pr.* L^b read εἶδει, which Zell, Fritzsche, Stahr, and Kassow (*Forsch.* p. 32) adopt. Zell writes—‘Non enim solum amicus amico par omnino pari refert, ut uterque eandem alterum demerendi voluntatem habeat, sed genere et specie quoque paria refert, id est, bona pro bonis, suavia pro suavis, pro utilibus utilia’: and Stahr has—‘Mithin liebt auf beiden Seiten jeder das für ihn selbst Gute und gewährt seinerseits durch seine Willensbestrebung das Gleiche auch in derselben Gattung.’ Susemihl now reads ἡθεῖ after Zeller (see Susemihl, *Eth. Eud.* append. p. 173). The MSS. perhaps do not help us to come to a decision in the case of two forms so similar in sound and appearance as ἡδεῖ and εἶδει: but apart from MSS., the weight of probability seems to me to be greatly in favour of ἡδεῖ, which would naturally occur to the writer as the constant concomitant of ἀγαθόν, the object of βούλησις. Grant’s point too that ἴσον εἶδει would not be a natural expression, as confounding degree with kind, is worth noticing.

The Paraph. has ἐκάτερος οὖν φιλεῖ ἐκάτερον, ὡς ἀγαθὸν οἰκεῖον, καὶ βούλεται τὰ ἀγαθὰ, καὶ ἡδύς ἐστιν ὁμοίως: and Aspasius has words to the same effect.

φιλότης ἰσότης] This is the reading of K^b adopted by Bywater. All other MSS. apparently read ἡ before ἰσότης. In *E. N.* ix. 8. 2 the proverb is given as ἰσότης φιλότης, and in *E. E. H.* 6. 1240 b. 2. In *E. N.* viii. 8. 5, however, we have ἡ δ’ ἰσότης καὶ ὁμοιότης φιλότης.

1157 b. 80. As Ramsauer remarks, the old proverb was doubtless *ἰσότης φιλίης* or *φιλίης ἰσότης* without the article: but Aristotle allowed himself to alter a proverb to suit his purpose; and it would be a mistake to suppose that here the sense makes it impossible to take *ἰσότης* as the subject. It is the predicate however, I take it, in the passage quoted by Fritzsche from Diog. L. viii. 1. 8 *πρῶτος εἶναι Πυθίητος κοινὰ τὰ τῶν φίλων καὶ φιλίαν ἰσότητα.*

CHAPTER VI.

ARGUMENT.

As for stiff-tempered and elderly people—the more difficult they are to get on with, and the less pleasure they take in one another's society, the less likely is friendship to spring up between them: for nothing is so characteristic of friendship and so productive of it, as taking pleasure in one another's society: this is what young people do: and therefore they become friends quickly: but not so old people—nor stiff-tempered people: nevertheless such people may be well disposed to one another (wishing one another good and helping one another in need); but they cannot properly be called friends, since they do not spend their time together or take pleasure in one another—thus failing to realise the two most characteristic traits of friendship.

To be a friend to many in the way of Perfect Friendship is impossible, just as it is impossible to be in love with many at the same time: for Perfect Friendship is an exalted state of feeling, and, as such, has naturally one person as its object; also it is not easy for many to afford the highest satisfaction to the same person: not to mention the difficulty of finding many who are good: moreover, there cannot be perfect friendship unless the friends know each other well, and have come to enter familiarly into each other's dispositions—a hard thing to do where only two persons are concerned, and much harder where many are concerned.

Where, however, the object of friendship is utility or pleasure, it is possible to have many friends; for useful and pleasant people are numerous, and the services rendered are quickly rendered.

Of the two inferior friendships that for pleasure resembles Perfect Friendship most when the same services are rendered by both parties, and they take pleasure in each other or in the same things—as young people do in their friendships: there is something liberal in these friendships, which distinguishes them from the friendship for utility—the friendship of business. Further, the Happy need, not useful friends (since their material wants are already otherwise provided for), but pleasant friends—i. e. they wish for persons with whom to associate intimately: pain and ennui they can bear for a little while; but not

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1158 a. 2. as Aristotle in this passage (as distinguished from 5. § 2) regards the disposition rather than the years of the old men in question—
'neque enim cuncti hujus aetatis sunt difficiles.'

- a. 3. ταῦτα γὰρ δοκεῖ μάλιστα εἶναι φιλικὰ καὶ ποιητικὰ φιλίας] Ramsauer regards these words as spurious, finding nothing to which ταῦτα can be satisfactorily referred. Fritzsche refers ταῦτα to ὁμιλίαις by a loose construction not uncommon in Aristotle's writings. Ramsauer notices the circumstance that the words ἄθ' μάλιστα εἶναι δοκεῖ φιλικὰ at the end of this § say the same thing as the words which he brackets as spurious. I would call attention to the circumstance (whatever it may indicate) that *three* passages end with similar expressions—viz. ch. 5. § 3 μηδὲ χαίροντας τοῖς αὐτοῖς, ὅπερ ἡ ἑταιρική δοκεῖ ἔχειν, ch. 6. § 1. 1158 a. 3 ἦσαν τοῖς ὁμιλίαις χαίρουσιν ταῦτα γὰρ δοκεῖ μάλιστα εἶναι φιλικὰ καὶ ποιητικὰ φιλίας, and ch. 6. § 1. 1158 a. 9 μηδὲ χαίρειν ἀλλήλοις, ἄθ' ἄθ' μάλιστα εἶναι δοκεῖ φιλικὰ.
- a. 8. φίλοι δ' οὐ πάνυ εἰσὶ] 'They cannot properly be called *friends*.'
- a. 12. § 2. ζοικε γὰρ ὑπερβολῇ] Fritzsche is wrong, I think, in making τὸ ἐρᾶν the subject of ζοικε. The Paraph. gives the sense of the passage rightly—πολλοῖς δὲ φίλον εἶναι τὸν σπουδαῖον κατὰ τὴν τελείαν φιλίαν οὐκ ἐνδέχεται, ὥσπερ οὐδὲ τὸ ἐρᾶν πολλῶν ἅμα δυνατὸν. ὑπερβολὴ γὰρ τίς ἐστὶ φιλίας ἢ τελεία φιλία. τὸ δὲ τοιοῦτον πρὸς ἓνα πῶποτε γίνεσθαι. In keeping with this interpretation Aspasius says λεπτὸν δ' ὑπερβολὴν τὴν κατὰ τὸ εὖ. Cf. *E. N.* ii. 6. 17, where ἀρετὴ is said to be κατὰ τὸ ἀριστον καὶ τὸ εὖ ἀκρότης. As Coraes says, ἡ γὰρ τελεία φιλία . . . φιλῶν ἐστὶν ἡ ἀκροτάτη, καὶ οὐκ ἔστιν αὐτῆς ὑπερτέρα ἄλλη φιλία. Perfect friendship is 'an exalted state.' In ix. 10. 5, however, which resembles this passage closely, τὸ ἐρᾶν is ὑπερβολὴ τις φιλίας.
- a. 14. ἴσως δ' οὐδ' ἀγαθοὺς εἶναι] sc. πολλοὺς ῥάδιον.
- a. 16. § 3. πολλοῖς ἀρέσκειν] Ramsauer conjectures πολλοὺς: unnecessarily, for πολλοῖς ἀρέσκειν means simply, as Aspasius says, πολλοὶ εἶναι φίλους. His commentary is—διὰ τὸ χρήσιμον ἢ καὶ τὸ ἐπὶ ἐνδέχεται πολλοῖς εἶναι φίλους· καὶ γὰρ πολὺ τὸ τῶν τοιοῦτων γίνος, ἢ οὐδὲ πολλοῦ χρόνου δεῖ οὐδ' ἐξετάσεως· ἐν ὀλίγῳ γὰρ χρόνῳ εὐθείαι φανεραὶ γίνονται αἱ περὶ τῶν χρησίμων καὶ τῶν ἡδίων ὑπηρεσίαι, καὶ καταμάθοι ἂν τις ταχέως τὸν αὐτῷ ἡδὺν ἢ χρήσιμον. ὅταν δὲ μᾶλλον γίνηται τούτων ὀποτεροῦν, λύεται ἡ φιλία· ἐν ὀλίγῳ γὰρ χρόνῳ συστάσει, καὶ τὴν ὑπαρξιν ἔχει ὀλιγοχρόνιον.

§ 4. ἴσικε φιλίᾳ] The MSS. read φιλία, but Asp. and the Paraph. 1158 a. 18. φιλίᾳ, which is adopted by Victorius, Ramsauer, and Bywater.

τὸ εὐθέριον] ‘a generous spirit’ (Peters). a. 21.

καὶ οἱ μακάριοι δέ] On καὶ—δέ see Eucken, *de Arist. dic. rat.* a. 22. p. 32—‘adjungit autem καὶ—δέ rem novam, saepe tam leni modo ut idem fere valeat atque τε.’ It is most frequent in *E. N.* iv, viii, ix, x.

οὐδ’ αὐτὸ τὸ ἀγαθόν] ‘If Aristotle had been capable of a joke, we must have considered this to be meant as such’ (Grant). a. 24.

δεῖ δ’ ἴσως καὶ ἀγαθοῦς τοιούτους ὄντας, καὶ ἔτι αὐτοῖς] ‘The μακάριοι require their friends to be *pleasant*: but they ought to require them to be *good* too, as well as pleasant (τοιούτους ὄντας = ἡδεῖς ὄντας), and also *useful* (lit. good for themselves); for thus they will have *all* that belongs to true friendship.’ This rendering represents Rassow’s (*Forsch.* p. 83) view of the interpretation of these words. With ἔτι καὶ αὐτοῖς he supplies ἀγαθοῦς, regarding the phrase as equivalent to χρησίμους. Thus to supply ἀγαθοῦς after ἔτι καὶ αὐτοῖς (*cf.* the Paraph. τοὺς φίλους οἱ σπουδαῖοι ἡδεῖς ζητοῦσιν εἶναι, ἀγαθοῦς ὄντας, καὶ αὐτοῖς ἀγαθοῦς, with whom Ramsauer, Williams and Peters agree) is obviously correct, although I think it would not be right to press (if indeed Kassow does so) the identity of αὐτοῖς ἀγαθοῦς with χρησίμους in the more material sense of the latter term. It has just been stated that the material wants of the μακάριοι are fully supplied—that they do not need merely useful friends, χρησίμων μὲν οὐδὲν δέονται. Stahr seems to give the true sense of the passage when he writes—‘Freilich sollten sie wohl auch dazu Menschen nehmen, die nicht nur an sich gute, sondern auch für sie selbst sittlich fördernd sind.’ To supply ἡδεῖς after ἔτι αὐτοῖς with Fritzsche and Grant is, I think, quite inadmissible; ἀγαθοῦς evidently being the dominating thought of the clause beginning δεῖ δ’ ἴσως, as ἡδεῖς was of the clause beginning διό a. 25. After ἀγαθοῦς a. 26 Kassow (*Forsch.* p. 84) supplies καθ’ ἑαυτοῦς, which he considers necessary to bring out the opposition to αὐτοῖς (ἀγαθοῦς), and Susemihl introduces καθ’ ἑαυτοῦς into his text.

§ 5. οἱ δ’ ἐν ταῖς ἐξουσίαις] λέγει δ’ ἐν ἐξουσίαις τοὺς τυράννους a. 27. (Asp.).

χρησίμους εἰς τὰ καλά] οἱ ἐνάριτοι (Asp.). a. 30.

1158 a. 32. δεινούς] After δεινούς Kassow (*Forsch.* p. 84) conjectures that εἰς τό has fallen out. Bywater's suggestion however (*Contrib.* p. 60)—to 'take τοὺς δέ to mean "others," and understand δεινούς πρᾶξι τὸ ἐπιταχθεῖν to be a kind of predicate after ζητοῦσι'—seems to meet the difficulty.

a. 34. § 8. ἄλλ' ὑπερέχοντι κ.τ.λ.] Aspasius gives the more generally accepted interpretation of this passage—ὑπερέχοντος οὐ γίνεται φίλος ὁ σπουδαῖος ἢ μὴ καὶ τῇ ἀρετῇ ὑπερέχεται ὁ ὑπερέχων κατὰ τὴν δύναμιν. δεῖ δὲ οὕτως ἀκούειν τοῦ ὑπερέχεσθαι τὸν δυνάστην, ὥστε καὶ εἶδεναι, καὶ ἔχειν πρὸς τὸν σπουδαῖον ὡς πρὸς κρείττονα· οὕτω γὰρ ἔσται ἢ κατὰ ἀναλογίαν ἰσότητος, ἂν οἴηται μὲν πλούτῳ καὶ δυνάμει ὑπερέχειν, θαυμάζει δὲ τὸν ἀγαθὸν ὡς κατ' ἀρετὴν αὐτοῦ διαφέροντα. This view, according to which the subject of ὑπερέχεται is ὁ ὑπερέχων (κατὰ τὴν δύναμιν), is accepted by the Paraphrast, Victorius, Lambinus, Zell, Coraes, Fritzsche, Michelet, Stahr, Williams, and Peters.

As for ὑπερεχόμενος a. 36—some of these commentators make it the great man or prince, and others the good man: the Paraphrast. *e. g.* makes it the good man—οὕτω γὰρ ἐξισάζει ὁ σπουδαῖος τῷ κατ' ἐξουσίαν ὑπερέχοντι, ἀνάλογον ὑπερέχων καὶ ὑπερεχόμενος.¹ Coraes on the other hand makes ὑπερεχόμενος the great man or prince—εἰ δὲ μὴ ὑπερέχαιτο ὁ ἐν ἐξουσίᾳ κατ' ἀρετὴν ὑπὸ τοῦ σπουδαίου, οὐκ ἰσάζει τῷ σπουδαίῳ (οὐ γίνεται φίλος δηλαδή, εἴ γε ἐν ἰσότητι ἢ φιλίᾳ) ἀνάλογον ὑπερεχόμενος, τουτέστι τοσοῦτον ἀρετῇ ὑπερεχόμενος ὑπὸ τοῦ σπουδαίου, ὅσον ἐκείνου ὑπερέχει κατ' ἐξουσίαν.

According, then, to the view of Aspasius and most other commentators, Aristotle means to tell us here that the good man will not become the friend of a superior in rank and power unless that superior is his inferior in goodness—or, to use Grant's words, 'a good man would not be a friend to a potentate, if that potentate had superior moral qualities.' This cannot be Aristotle's meaning. Grant, Ramsauer, and Jackson (*Arist. Nic. Eth. Book v, p. 91*) are undoubtedly right in making ὁ σπουδαῖος, not ὁ ὑπερέχων, the subject of ὑπερέχεται, and rendering—'the good man does not become the friend of a superior in rank and power unless he is surpassed in goodness, as well as in rank and power, by that superior.' The awkwardness of making the subject of ὑπερέχεται different from that of γίνεται is thus avoided, and account is taken of the force of καί before τῇ ἀρετῇ, ignored by the other rendering.

¹ So also Fritzsche, reading ὁ ὑπερεχόμενος without MS. authority.

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1158 b. 10. ἄλλοις τε διαφέρειν πολλοῖς] e. g. they may subsist between bad men, they may include many persons.

CHAPTER VII.

ARGUMENT.

Another class of friendships is that of the friendships between unequals—between father and son—and generally between elder and younger; between husband and wife—and generally between ruler and ruled. These friendships differ from each other—that of parents for children is not the same as that of rulers for ruled; and, further, the friendship of father for son is not the same as that of son for father, or of husband for wife the same as that of wife for husband; for the goodness and the function of the husband or father are not the same as the goodness and the function of the wife or son, and the reasons for which each feels friendship to each are different. The services rendered by each differing, there will be a fair and lasting friendship when children render to parents, and parents to children, those things which are due to parents and children respectively. The affection also in all these friendships between unequals ought to be ‘in proportion’ on each side—i. e. the better or the more useful ought to be loved more than he loves: for when there is affection in proportion to desert then, in a way, equality is produced—equality the great mark of friendship.

Equality is not the same in Justice and in Friendship. In justice proportionate equality is of primary, and absolute equality of secondary importance; in friendship absolute equality comes first, and proportionate equality takes the second place. This is shown by the fact that if the distance, e. g. in goodness or wealth, between the parties becomes great, they cease to be friends, or even to think of each other as friends. The clearest case is the relation between the gods and men; other cases are the relation between kings and their subjects, and that between men who are very good and very wise and those who are good for nothing. It is impossible to define exactly the distance at which people may still be friends: they may still be friends though the distance is considerable; but not if it be that at which the gods stand from men. Hence the question—Whether friends really wish for their friends the greatest good? Surely they do not wish them to become gods, and to cease to be their friends, i. e. their good. If we were right in saying that a friend wishes good things for his friend for his friend's sake, then his friend must remain what he is: a friend will wish the greatest of good things for his friend as a man; but perhaps not all these good things; the very greatest of them he will wish for himself.

b. 12. § 1. τὸ καθ' ὑπεροχὴν] ‘another kind of friendship in which the persons are unequal’—Peters.

διαφέρουσι δ' αὐται καὶ ἀλλήλων] *i. e.* as well as generally from 1158 b. 14. αἱ ἐν ἰσότητι.

§ 2. καὶ τὴν φίλησιν] Aspasius notices the καὶ before φίλησιν, b. 24. but scarcely helps us to understand its force—ἐν πάσαις ταῖς ἀρχαῖς καὶ ταῖς καθ' ὑπερβολὴν φιλίαις οὐ μόνον τὴν φιλίαν δεῖ εἶναι ἀνάλογον, ἀλλὰ καὶ τὴν φίλησιν καὶ σχεδὸν διὰ τὴν φίλησιν καὶ ἡ φιλία ἔξει ἀνάλογον. I would explain as follows—The ἰσότης realised in these φιλῖαι καθ' ὑπεροχὴν is not merely that of a fair commercial *συναλλαγμᾶ*, in which equivalent amounts of different wares are exchanged; it is the ἰσότης of φιλία—the superior does not give merely assistance in return for the equivalent amount of respect which he receives from the inferior; he gives φίλησις as well—since he is the other's φίλος—and expects a proper return of φίλησις. The mutual exchange of φίλησις between the superior and inferior is indeed more characteristic of their friendship than the exchange of assistance and respect—materially necessary though the latter exchange may be to their 'friendship.' But in this mutual exchange of φίλησις the difference between superior and inferior must not be lost sight of—οἷον (here = *i. e.* not *e. g.*) τὸν ἀμείνω (sc. δεῖ) μᾶλλον φιλεῖσθαι ἢ φιλεῖν.

§ 3.] The essential thing in Justice is that every man shall b. 29. get his due whatever that happens to be; the essential thing in Friendship is equality. Justice does not care how unequal the persons are, but gives them their due shares; whereas strict equality between the persons is required by the highest kind of Friendship, and although there are Friendships so-called in a secondary sense (*δευτέρως* b. 33), viz. αἱ καθ' ὑπεροχὴν in which the absence of strict equality is compensated for by 'proportionate equality,' yet this compensation is possible only within certain limits. If the real inequality becomes very great φιλία also becomes impossible. See the Par. *ad loc.* εἰάν κατ' ἀξίαν καὶ ἀνάλογον γίνηται ἡ διανομὴ δικαία ἴστί, κἂν σφόδρα τῷ πρὸς ἑαυτὸν διαφέρει οὐδὲν κωλύει τὸν τοῦ δικαίου σώζεσθαι λόγον, εἰ δὲ κατὰ τὸ ποσὸν ἴση εἶη καὶ μὴ ἀνάλογον οὐ δύναται εἶναι δικαία· ἐπὶ δὲ τῆς φιλίας ἀνάπαλιον κ.τ.λ. Cf. Grant's good note *ad loc.*

§ 4. διάστημα] τὸ κατὰ ποσὸν ἴσον is primary in Friendship, b. 33. otherwise Friendship would not be destroyed by διάστημα.

1158 b. 35. ἐπὶ τῶν θεῶν] Fritzsche compares *M. M.* ii. 11. 1208 b. 30 ἄτοπον γὰρ ἂν εἶη, εἴ τις φαίη φιλεῖν τὸν Δία.

1159 a. 4. § 5. οἱ φίλοι] Ramsauer and Susemihl bracket οἱ. The former however suspects the words ἕως τίνος οἱ φίλοι. Byw. suggests ἡ φιλία for οἱ φίλοι, thus getting a subject for μῖνει; see *Contrib.* p. 60.

a. 8. § 6. οἱ γὰρ φίλοι ἀγαθά] sc. εἰσι, not as Zell and Fritzsche suggest, βούλονται. See Kassow, *Forsch.* p. 67. Kassow (followed by Sus. and Byw.) reads οὐ (with K^b, M^b, r) for οὐδέ before γὰρ εἶτι a. 7.

a. 12. αὐτῷ γὰρ μάλισθ' κ.τ.λ.] Asp. says ἀ δ' ἐξῆς λέγει φάσκων τὸν φίλον αὐτῷ μάλιστα βούλεσθαι τὰγαθά, οὐ περὶ τῶν τὴν πρώτην φίλων ἔχόντων εἶρηται, ἀλλὰ περὶ τῶν ὁμωνύμως λεγομένων φίλων λέγει δ' ἐξῆς τὴν πῖτιαν δι' ἣν οἱ πολλοὶ βούλονται φιλεῖσθαι μᾶλλον ἢ φιλεῖν κ.τ.λ. Fritzsche also thinks that the inferior friendships are here referred to. But see *E. N.* ix. 8, where the conclusion is reached—τὸ μὲν ἀγαθὸν δεῖ φίλουτον εἶναι.

CHAPTER VIII.

ARGUMENT.

Most men are ambitious of the honour of being loved more than they love (this is why the majority of men love flatterers); being loved is very nearly the same thing, in their view, as being honoured; and to be honoured is what the majority of men strive after. But honour is not sought for itself. The majority of men take pleasure in receiving it from persons who have much in their power, because they recognise it as the sign of the advantages which they hope for; while others seek to be honoured by good men who are connoisseurs of goodness, in order that they may have confirmation of their own good opinion about themselves. To be loved, on the other hand, gives men pleasure in itself. Accordingly to be loved is a better thing, it would seem, than to be honoured, and friendship is something in itself choiceworthy. But by 'friendship' we mean 'loving' rather than 'being loved.' The love of mothers for their young children by whom they cannot be loved in return may help us to see that friendship consists in loving rather than in being loved: this being so, and those who 'love their friends' being praised, it follows that 'loving one another' is the virtue of friends; and those who do this in proportion to desert are lasting friends. It is by this loving in proportion to desert that those who are not

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1159 a. 25. φιλουμένῳ ἐνέργεια γίνεται· ἔτι δὲ βέλτιον τὸ γνωρίζειν ἢ γνωρίζεσθαι . . . ἔτι τὸ εὐποιητικὸν εἶναι βέλτιον ἢ μή· ὁ μὲν οὖν φίλων εὐποιητικὸς ἢ φιλεῖ, ὁ δὲ φιλούμενος ἢ φιλεῖται οὐ. Cf. Aspasius on viii. 8. 3 ἔστι μὲν οὖν ἡ φιλία ἐν τῷ φιλεῖν καὶ φιλεῖσθαι· μᾶλλον δὲ δοκεῖ ἐν τῷ φιλεῖν εἶναι ἢ ἐν τῷ φιλεῖσθαι· ἡ γὰρ ἐνέργεια ἐκατέρων τῶν φίλων ἐν τῷ φιλεῖν, τὸ δὲ φιλεῖσθαι οὐκ ἔστιν αὐτοῦ ἐνέργεια· ἕκαστος δὲ περὶ ἐκείνῳ ἔστι περὶ ὃ ἔχει τὴν ἐνέργειαν.

a. 33. § 4.] Those who actively love their friends are *praised*; so, loving is the true *virtue* of friends. See *E. N.* i. 13. 19 τῶν ἔξεων δὲ τὰς ἐπαινετὰς ἀρετὰς λέγομεν.

b. 1. § 5. οὕτω δ' ἂν κ.τ.λ.] ἀνισοὶ are equalised τῷ φιλεῖν ἀνάλογον—thus

ὑπερέχων : ὑπερεχόμενος :: ἡ τοῦ ὑπερεχομένου φιλῆσις : ἡ τοῦ ὑπερέχοντος φιλῆσις.

b. 3. τῶν κατ' ἀρετὴν] 'sc. φίλων' (Ramsauer): but it seems better to understand ὁμοίων.

b. 6. ἀλλ' ὡς εἰπεῖν καί] 'nay rather, I ought to say . . .'

b. 20. § 7. ἀλλὰ κατὰ συμβεβηκός] οὐ γάρ, καθὼς φιλοῦσιν ἀλλήλα, ἐναντία ἔστιν, ἀλλὰ συμβέβηκεν αὐτοῖς ἐναντίους εἶναι· καὶ γὰρ ὁ πένης ἐρᾷ τοῦ πλουσίου ὅτι ὠφέλιμός ἐστιν αὐτῷ καὶ χρήσιμος (Paragraph).

ἡ δ' ὄρεξις τοῦ μέσου ἔστιν· τοῦτο γὰρ ἀγαθόν] Cf. *E. N.* ii. 6. 9 ἡ ἀρετὴ . . . ὥσπερ καὶ ἡ φύσις, τοῦ μέσου ἂν εἴη στοχαστικὴ. 'Correspondence with environment' is the law of life.

CHAPTER IX.

ARGUMENT.

The sphere of justice and of friendship is the same. Every association or common undertaking has its kind of justice, and consequently its kind of friendship. Thus men speak of their fellow-soldiers as their 'friends.' As far as their common undertaking extends, so far does their friendship extend. Thus the proverb 'Friends have things in common' is true.

Brothers and comrades have all things in common: other friends have more or less in common, for some friendships are greater than others; and as the friendships vary, so does the justice in each case. The justice which a parent

owes to his child differs from that which brothers owe one another—or, again, comrades—or fellow-citizens: injustice is aggravated in proportion as it is done to a nearer friend. This shows that justice and friendship have the same sphere.

All associations or common undertakings are parts of the great association of the Commonwealth. As the association of the Commonwealth sprang up and is maintained in order to secure the common good of its members, so each of these particular associations exists in order to secure some particular good. It is the common good (identical with that which is just) which legislators aim at; the minor associations aim at some particular good—e. g. business associations at wealth, military associations at victory. There are other associations again which are for pleasure—clubs, and guilds, and festivals in which the worship of the gods is combined with relaxation: it is to be noted that the ancient religious assemblies were harvest festivals, for the time immediately after harvest was the time at which people had most leisure. These associations then for worship and relaxation are parts of the great association of the Commonwealth which looks not to the advantage of the day but to that of the whole of life. Each of these associations has its own kind of friendship.

§ 1. ἐν ἀρχῇ] viii. 1. 4, according to Asp.

1159 b. 25.

ἐν τοῖς αὐτοῖς] 'between the same persons': see Asp.—ἐν τοῖς b. 26. αὐτοῖς· ὅλον φιλία ἐστὶν ἐν τοῖς (συσ)στρατιώταις . . . ἀλλὰ καὶ περὶ (τὰ) αὐτά· περὶ τὰ στρατιωτικὰ γάρ κ.τ.λ.

καὶ γὰρ τὸ δίκαιον] sc. ἐπὶ τοσοῦτόν ἐστι καθ' ὅσον κοινωνοῦσι b. 30. (Fritzsche).

§ 3. τῷ μᾶλλον πρὸς φίλους εἶναι] πρωθυστερώς ἀντὶ τοῦ τῷ πρὸς 1160 a. 4. φίλους μᾶλλον εἶναι (Cogaes).

αὔξεσθαι δὲ πέφυκεν ἅμα τῇ φιλίᾳ καὶ τὸ δίκαιον] διαφέρει τὸ ἐν a. 7. τοῖς ἀδελφοῖς δίκαιον καὶ τὸ ἐν τοῖς λοιποῖς, αὔξησιν δὲ λαμβάνει τὸ δίκαιον τῷ μᾶλλον πρὸς φίλους γίνεσθαι· βουλόμενος δὲ τοῦτο δεῖξαι ἐκ τοῦ ἐναντίου ἐπιχειρεῖ· εἰ γὰρ δεινότερον τὸ χρημάτων ἀποστερηῆσαι ἑταῖρον ἢ πολίτην, καὶ τὸ πρὸς φίλους γινόμενον δίκαιον καὶ κρεῖττόν ἐστιν, εἰ δ' αὔξεται ἡ φιλία, αὔξεται καὶ τὸ δίκαιον ὡς ἐν τοῖς αὐτοῖς ὄντα (Asp.).

§§ 4, 5, 6.] Since, ἐν κοινωνίᾳ ἡ φιλία (§ 1), the various associations a. 8. (κοινωνίαι) included in the commonwealth (πολιτικὴ κοινωνία), all of them subserving its end—the public good, by means of their own special ends (whether these special ends be described as useful or pleasant), involve their corresponding friendships.

§ 4. καὶ ἡ πολιτικὴ δὲ κοινωνία τοῦ συμφέροντος χάριν δοκεῖ καὶ ἐξ a. 11. ἀρχῆς συνελθεῖν καὶ διαμένειν] Zell and Fritzsche remind us that this

1160 a. 11. is not a complete statement of Aristotle's theory of the origin and maintenance of society, and refer to *Pol.* iii. 4. 1278 b. 20 φύσει μὲν ἔστιν ἄνθρωπος ζῶν πολιτικόν διὸ καὶ μηδὲν δεόμενοι τῆς παρ' ἀλλήλων βοήθειας οὐκ ἔλαττον ὀρέγονται τοῦ συζῆν' οὐ μὴν ἀλλὰ καὶ τὸ κοινῇ συμφέρον συνίγει, καθ' ὅσον ἐπιβάλλει μέρος ἐκάστῳ τοῦ ζῆν καλῶς. Ramsauer refers to *Pol.* i. 1. 1252 b. 29 γινόμενη τοῦ ζῆν ἕνεκεν, οὐσα δὲ τοῦ εὖ ζῆν. Cf. also *Pol.* iii. 5. 1280 a. 25 εἰ μὲν γὰρ τῶν κτημάτων χάρις ἐκοινωνήσῃ καὶ συνῆλθον, τοσοῦτον μετέχουσι τῆς πόλεως ὅσον περὶ τὸ τῆς κτήσεως ὥσθ' ὁ τῶν ὀλιγαρχικῶν λόγος δόξειεν ἂν ἰσχύειν . . . εἰ δὲ μήτε τοῦ ζῆν μόνου ἕνεκεν, ἀλλὰ μᾶλλον τοῦ εὖ ζῆν . . . μήτε συμμαχίας ἕνεκεν, ὅπως ὑπὸ μηδενὸς ἀδικῶνται, μήτε διὰ τὰς ἀλλαγὰς καὶ τὴν χρῆσιν τὴν πρὸς ἀλλήλους . . . περὶ δ' ἀρετῆς καὶ κακίας πολιτικῆς διασκοποῦσιν, ὅτι φροσίζουσιν εὐνομίας κ.τ.λ. Comparing the passage before us (*E. N.* viii. 9. 4) with the passages quoted from the *Politics* we observe (1) that according to Aristotle's complete theory other and more powerful causes than the perception of material advantage brought men into social union, and keep them in it; and (2) that τὸ κοινῇ συμφέρον is a wide expression including τὸ καλόν, and not to be identified with the 'useful' as distinguished from the 'noble and good.'

a. 13. οἱ νομοθέται στοχάζονται] Cf. *E. N.* v. 1. 13.

φασιν] so Aristotle himself—*Pol.* iii. 4. 1279 a. 17 φανερόν τοίνυν ὡς ὅσαι μὲν πολιτεῖαι τὸ κοινῇ συμφέρον σκοποῦσιν, αὗται μὲν ὀρθαί τυγχάνουσιν οὐσαι κατὰ τὸ ἀπλῶς δίκαιον.

a. 17. § 5. πόλεως ὀρεγόμενοι] as colonists or as exiles—Ramsauer.

a. 19. ἔναι δὲ τῶν κοινωνιῶν δι' ἡδονὴν δοκοῦσι γίνεσθαι] The Par. takes pains to show that even those associations which seem to have pleasure as their end, ultimately subserve τὸ κοινῇ συμφέρον, because ἀναπαύσεις μεθ' ἡδονῆς are necessary to the proper performance of earnest work. τινὲς δὲ τῶν κοινωνιῶν τοῦ ἡδέος ἐφίστανται . . . ὥσπερ ἡ τῶν θιασωτῶν κοινωνία καὶ ἡ τῶν ἐρανιστῶν . . . καὶ αὗται δὲ μέρη εἰσὶ τῆς πολιτικῆς· τάττονται γὰρ καὶ αὗται πρὸς τὸ κοινῇ συμφέρον ὑπὸ τῆς πολιτικῆς· καὶ γὰρ οὐ μόνον ὁ νῦν ἐστὶ συμφέρον ζητεῖ· ἀλλὰ καὶ ὁ νῦν μὲν οὐ συμφέρει, συνοίσει δέ, καὶ τοῦτο διώκει . . . διὰ τοῦτο θυσίας τε εἰσήγαγε καὶ συνόδους καὶ συνουσίας μεθ' ἡδονῆς καὶ πόνων ἀναπαύσεις· μετὰ γὰρ τὰς τῶν καρπῶν συγκομιδὰς αἱ τε σύνοδοι ἐγίνοντο καὶ αἱ θυσίαι, ἀπαρχαί τινας οὐσαι· μάλιστα γὰρ ἐν τούτοις ἐσχόλαζον τοῖς καιροῖς· διὰ δὲ τούτων τῶν κοινωνιῶν τό τε θείον ἴλεων αὐτοῖς ἐγίνετο, ὃ συνοίσειν ἐθέλει, καὶ αὗται ἀναπαυόμενοι, κισσοὶ τῶν ὑπὲρ τοῦ συμφέροντος πόσεων ἤπτοντο. Διὰ τοῦτο

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advantage; oligarchy, of aristocracy—the few, who are rich, rule in the interest of their own class; and democracy, of timocracy—the moderate property qualification recognised in timocracy is abolished. Of these degraded forms tyranny is the worst, because it is the contrary of the best—kingly rule; and democracy is the least bad, for it does not involve a very great declension from timocracy, since timocracy itself is the rule of the many—i. e. of those who are equals in virtue of coming up to a moderate property qualification.

Of all these constitutional forms we have analogues in the Family. The relation of the father to his children corresponds to kingly rule—thus, Homer calls Zeus, Father; and where, as in Persia, a father treats his children as slaves we have a relation which corresponds to tyranny. The relation between husband and wife corresponds to aristocracy, for the husband rules the wife in those things in which his superiority entitles him to rule her; where he takes all power into his own hands his rule becomes like oligarchy: sometimes again the domestic oligarchy is that of the wife, if she be an heiress. The relation between brothers corresponds to timocracy: brothers are equals except in so far as age makes a difference. The analogue of democracy is, for the most part, found in households which are without a head or where the ruler is weak and the members are allowed to do as they please.

1160 a. 31. § 1. πολιτείας δ' ἐστὶν εἶδη τρία, ἴσαι δὲ καὶ παρεκβάσεις] See *Pol.* iii. 5. 1279 a. 22 sqq. and *Pol.* iv. 2. 1289 a. 26. Grant and Ramsauer think that this chapter can hardly have been written after the *Politics*: see their notes *ad loc.*

a. 34. πολιτείαν δ' αὐτὴν κ.τ.λ.] 'constitutional government' (Peters). Ἡ ἐκ τμημάτων is called πλουτοκρατία in *Xen. Mem.* iv. 6. 12.

b. 6. § 2. μὴ τοιοῦτος] μὴ αὐτάρκης.

κληρωτὸς ἂν τις εἴη βασιλεύς] Fritzsche supposes the reference to be to the αἰσυμνήτης mentioned in *Pol.* iii. 9. 1285 a. 31, ὁ αἰρετὸς τύραννος. But Coraes is more probably right with κληρωτὸς ἂν τις εἴη βασιλεύς, καθάπερ ὁ πρῶτος τῶν ἐννέα κληρωτῶν ἀρχόντων Ἀθήνησιν ἐπωνομάζετο βασιλεύς. Peters and Ramsauer adopt this interpretation, the latter quoting Plato, *Polit.* 291 A τούτους τε τοῖσιν τοῖς κληρωτοῖς βασιλείας ἅμα καὶ ἱερείας, and 290 E καὶ δὴ καὶ παρ' ὑμῶν . . . τῷ λαχόντι βασιλείᾳ φασὶ τῆδε τὰ σεμνότατα καὶ μάλιστα πάσης τῶν ἀρχαίων θυσῶν ἀποδεδόσθαι.

All recorded sources except Ob and NC read ἢ after εἴη: this reading requires μάλλον to be supplied: see the *Paraph.* ὁ δὲ μὴ οὕτως ἔχων κληρωτὸς μάλλον ἂν τις εἴη ἢ βασιλεύς.

b. 8. καὶ φανερώτερον ἐπὶ ταύτης διὰ χειρίστη] According to Ramsauer and Peters this means that it is more evident from an inspection of

τυραννίς that it is the worst, than it is evident from an inspection of 1160 b. 8. βασιλεία that it is the best form of government. Surely this is not the meaning. Nothing can be more evident, on Aristotle's principles, than that βασιλεία is the best form of government. The comparison in φανερότερον is between the worst of the ὀρθαὶ πολιτεῖαι, viz. τιμοκρατία (see above, 1160 a. 36 χειρίστη δ' ἡ τιμοκρατία), and the worst of the παρεκβάσεις, viz. τυραννίς. The latter is quite plainly the worst on its side because it is ἐναντίον to βασιλεία which is the best of all forms; whereas it is not so plain that τιμοκρατία is the worst on its side, because the difference between it and βασιλεία does not amount to ἐναντιότης.

§ 3. μεταβαίνει] impersonal = ἡ μεταβολὴ γίνεται, according to b. 10. Ramsauer; but the Paraph. makes ἡ πολιτεία the subject—a construction supported by ῥᾶστα μεταβαίνουσιν at the end of the present section.

καὶ ἡ τιμοκρατία] i.e. timocracy, as well as democracy, is a b. 18. government of the many: see *Pol.* iii. 5. 1279 a. 37 ὅταν δὲ τὸ πλῆθος πρὸς τὸ κοινὸν πολιτεύηται συμφέρον, καλεῖται τὸ κοινὸν ὄνομα πασῶν τῶν πολιτειῶν, πολιτεία.

παρεκβαίνει] taken transitively in the *Ind. Arist.*, and by the b. 20. Paraph., Ramsauer, and Fritzsche. The term παρέκβασις seems to have been derived from the terminology of music: see *E. E.* H. 9. 1241 b. 28 πολιτεῖαι . . . καὶ αἱ ὀρθαὶ καὶ αἱ παρεκβάσεις· ἔστι γὰρ τὸ αὐτὸ ὡς περ ἐπὶ τῶν ἁρμονιῶν καὶ τῶν ἐν ταῖς πολιτεῖαις: and *Pol.* Θ. 7. 1342 a. 22 εἰσὶ δ' ὡς περ αὐτῶν αἱ ψυχαὶ παρεστραμμένα τῆς κατὰ φύσιν ἕξεως, οὕτω καὶ τῶν ἁρμονιῶν παρεκβάσεις εἰσὶ, καὶ τῶν μελῶν τὰ σύστονα καὶ παρακεχρωσμένα: on which see Susemihl's *Arist. Politik*, note 1098.

Democracy is the least evil of the debased forms (ἡκιστα δὲ μοχθηρόν ἐστὶ ἡ δημοκρατία), because it arises out of a form in which the governing body is large. In timocracy the governing body, being the majority of the people, governs for the good not of itself—the majority—but for the good of the whole State, the minority included. In democracy the majority governs for its own good, and neglects the rights of the minority. But still in democracy the rights and interests of the majority, at least, are attended to; whereas in tyranny and oligarchy, where the governing body is very small, the majority is oppressed. On the principle there-

1160 b. 20. fore of 'the greatest good of the greatest number,' the deflection implied in tyranny or oligarchy is a much more serious evil than that implied in democracy. But extremes meet. There is a form of Democracy in which everything is determined by ψηφίσματα, and not by νόμος. This form of Democracy, which Aristotle (*Pol.* Δ. 4. 1292 a. 4 sqq.) compares to tyranny, must be excepted from the application of the judgment *ἡκιστα δὲ μαχθηρὸν ἐστὶ ἡ δημοκρατία*, and may have been present to the mind of Aspasia when he wrote—*εἰ καθ' αὐτὸ σκοπήσεις, χεῖρον δὲ εὐρήσεις τῆς δημοκρατίαν τῶν ἐτέρων· εἰ γὰρ ἐν τῇ δημοκρατίᾳ πάντες ἀρχοῦσιν, ἐν τῇ τυραννίδι καὶ ὀλιγαρχίᾳ, τῇ μὲν ὀλίγοι, τῇ δὲ εἰς χεῖρον δὲ ἐστὶ τὸ πολλοὺς φαύλους ἀρχεῖν ἢ καὶ ὀλίγους ἢ καὶ ἓνα.*

b. 21. *μάλιστα οὕτως*] 'These then are the ways in which the several constitutions are most apt to change' (Peters); 'most apt,' for, there are other ways, as Aristotle himself points out in *Pol.* θ, e.g. tyrannies sometimes arise directly out of oligarchies or democracies: democracies directly out of tyrannies. See Ramsauer *ad loc.*

b. 22. § 4. *ὁμοιώματα δ' αὐτῶν καὶ οἷον παραδείγματα*] 'analogues and as it were, patterns.'

The parallels drawn in §§ 4, 5 and 6 differ in value and suggestiveness. Those drawn between the normal conjugal relation and aristocracy, and the abnormal conjugal relation and oligarchy are perhaps more ingenious than useful; but on the other hand, those drawn between the father and the king, between the master and the tyrant, between brothers and the members of a timocracy or democracy, rest upon a true view of the natural history of society.

The clan or village-community with its Chief (*βασιλεὺς*) is the expansion of the house with its Father: see *Pol.* i. 1. 1252 b. 17 *ἡ κόμη ἀποικία οἰκίας . . . οὗς καλοῦσιν τινες ὁμογάλακτας παῖδας τε καὶ παίδων παῖδας. διὸ καὶ τὸ πρῶτον ἐβασιλεύοντο αἱ πόλεις, καὶ νῦν ἐτι τὸ ἔθνη· ἐκ βασιλευμένων γὰρ συνῆλθον· πᾶσα γὰρ οἰκία βασιλεύεται ἐπὶ τοῦ πρεσβυτίτου· ὥστε καὶ αἱ ἀποικίαι διὰ τὴν συγγένειαν. Cf. *Pol.* i. 5. 1259 b. 10 *ἡ δὲ τῶν τέκνων ἀρχὴ βασιλική· τὸ γὰρ γενεῆσιν καὶ κατὰ φύσιν ἀρχον καὶ κατὰ πρεσβειάν ἐστίν, ὅπερ ἐστὶ βασιλικῆς εἶδος ἀρχῆς. διὸ καλῶς Ὅμηρος τὸν Δία προσηγόρευσεν, εἰπὼν**

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1160 b. 22. to be those of the patriarchal or the early aristocratic period. Timocracy becomes democracy chiefly under stress of population and poverty, when the old customs fail to meet the new circumstances, and the many poor take it into their own hands to alter the old customs more or less rudely. But a democracy which springs from timocracy, the development of aristocracy, is obviously much better than one which springs from oligarchy, the *παρέκβασις* of aristocracy. The former democracy is after all of the nature of an inevitable development; the latter implies a break in continuity and a revolution, followed soon by a 'Saviour of Society' in the shape of a tyrant.

b. 31. *διαφερόντων*] The slave is φύσει a slave: he differs from the free man as the body differs from the soul; see *Pol.* i. 2. 1254 b. 16 ὅσοι μὲν οὖν τοσοῦτον διεστᾶσιν ὅσον ψυχὴ σώματος καὶ ἀθροῦσι θηρίου, διάκεινται τοῦτον τὸν τρόπον. ὅσων ἐστὶν ἔργον ἢ τοῦ σώματος χρῆσις, καὶ τοῦτ' ἐστ' ἀπ' αὐτῶν βέλτιστον, οὗτοι μὲν εἰσὶ φύσει δούλοις βέλτιόν ἐστιν ἄρχεσθαι ταύτην τὴν ἀρχήν, εἴπερ καὶ τοῖς ἀφροῦσι. ἐστὶ γὰρ φύσει δούλος ὁ δυνάμενος ἄλλου εἶναι· διὸ καὶ ἄλλου ἐστὶ (i. e. he is not a Person): καὶ ὁ κοινωνῶν λόγου τοσοῦτον ὅσον αἰσθάνεσθαι, ἀλλὰ μὴ ἔχειν· τὰ γὰρ ἄλλα ζῷα οὐ λόγου αἰσθανόμενα, ἀλλὰ παθόμενα ὑπηρετεῖ. καὶ ἡ χρεία δὲ παραλλάττει μικρόν· ἡ γὰρ πρὸς τὰ σώματα τῷ σώματι βοήθεια γίνεται παρ' ἰμφοῖν, παρά τε τῶν δούλων καὶ παρ' τῶν ἡμέρων ζῷων. βούλεται μὲν οὖν ἡ φύσις καὶ τὰ σώματα διαφέρειν πρὸς τὰ τῶν ἐλευθέρων καὶ τῶν δούλων, τὰ μὲν ἰσχυρὰ πρὸς τὴν ἐπιτηδεύουσαν χρῆσιν, τὰ δ' ὀρθὰ καὶ ἄχρηστα πρὸς τὰς τοιαύτας ἐργασίας, ἀλλὰ χρεῖται πρὸς πολιτικὸν βίον . . . συμβαίνει δὲ πολλάκις καὶ τούτωντιον κ.τ.λ.

b. 32. § 5. ἀνδρὸς δὲ καὶ γυναικός] *sc.* κοινωνία.

b. 36. μεθίστησιν] *sc.* τὴν κοινωνίαν.

1161 a. 1. ἐπὶ κληροῖ] Zell, Fritzsche, and Grant quote Menander in illustration of the Greek feeling about heiresses—

ὅστις γυναῖκ' ἐπὶ κληρον ἐπιθυμεῖ λαβεῖν
πλουτοῦσαν, ἦτοι μῆτιν ἐκτίνει θεῶν,
ἢ βούλετ' ἀτυχεῖν, μακάριος καλούμενος.

In *Pol.* ii. 6. 1270 a. 23 the evil consequences arising to the Spartan state from the heiresses are noticed—ἐστὶ δὲ καὶ τῶν γυναικῶν σχεδὸν τῆς πάσης χώρας τῶν πέντε μερῶν τὰ δύο, τῶν γ' ἐπικληρῶν πολλὰς γινομένων κ.τ.λ.: see Newman's note on 1270 a. 21.

§ 6. οικήσεων] 'Dicuntur autem haud male οικήσεις quae non 1161 a. 7. sunt οίκιαi nedum οίκοι' (Ramsauer). The habitations of wild animals are οικήσεις: see *Ind. Arist.* s. v.

CHAPTER XI.

ARGUMENT.

In each of the constitutional forms we find a friendship coextensive with the justice involved in the particular form. The friendship of a king for his subjects is that of one who confers the greater benefits. The king tends his people. Thus Homer calls Agamemnon 'The shepherd of the people.' The friendship of a father is of this kind—only, a father confers greater benefits than a king: he confers existence—thought to be the greatest of all—nurture and education: forefathers too are thought of as conferring these benefits. The father has a natural right to rule over his children. The king also has a natural right to rule over his people, because he represents the forefather.

These friendships, being between unequals, involve, like the kinds of justice corresponding to them, 'return in proportion to desert': this is why parents receive honour—the only thing which children can return in an amount proportionate to the benefits which they receive.

The friendship of husband and wife is the same as that between rulers and ruled in an aristocracy. The friendship between brothers resembles that between comrades—for they are equals and belong to the same generation; and those who are such generally feel and are disposed alike. Now the friendship found in a timocracy is of this kind—its members stand on an equal footing, and take turns in holding office. But in the degraded forms, as justice exists to a small extent, so does friendship. When ruler and ruled have nothing in common there is no friendship between them, for there is no justice: the relation between them is like that between workman and tool, soul and body, master and slave: the slave is a living tool: one cannot make a slave, quâ slave, a 'friend,' any more than one can be 'just' to him: although quâ man he may be the object of friendship and justice.

In tyrannies there is very little friendship and very little justice: in democracies more than in the other degraded forms: for in democracies men are equal, and so have much in common.

§ 1. φιλία φαίνεται, ἐφ' ὅσον καὶ τὸ δίκαιον] *i. e.* φιλία subsists 1161 a. 10. between those only whose relations to one another are regulated by νόμος: *cf.* *E. N.* v. 6. 4 τοῦτο δ' (*i. e.* τὸ πολιτικὸν δίκαιον) ἔστιν ἐπὶ κοινῶν βίου πρὸς τὸ εἶναι αὐτάρκειαν, ἐλευθέρων καὶ ἴσων ἢ κατ' ἀναλογίαν ἢ κατ' ἀριθμὸν· ὥστε ὅσοις μὴ ἔστι τοῦτο, οὐκ ἔστι τούτοις πρὸς

1161 a. 10. ἀλλήλους τὸ πολιτικὸν δίκαιον, ἀλλὰ τι δίκαιον καὶ καθ' ὁμοίτητα. ἴση γὰρ δίκαιον, οἷς καὶ νόμος πρὸς αὐτούς. Cf. below viii. 11. 7 δοκεῖ γὰρ εἶναι τι δίκαιον παντὶ ἀνθρώπῳ πρὸς πάντα τὸν δυνάμενον κοινωνῆσαι νόμου καὶ συνθήκης· καὶ φιλία δὴ, καθ' ὅσον ἄνθρωπος. By νόμος we are to understand the social system of laws and customs into which individuals are born, and in which they as it were inherit, being thus not mere individuals—separate centres of force and caprice, but members of a body politic or commonwealth, having in common (cf. κοινόν § 6) a general rule of life which they are of one mind (ὁμονοοῦσι ix. 6) to observe in their various positions. But as men and beasts belong to different worlds, and cannot agree to live together under one system of general rules, so master and slave, *qua* slave, belong to different worlds between which force is the only intermediary. The slave indeed belongs with his master to one great social system—the brotherhood of speaking men; and so far, just and friendly relations may subsist between a master and his slave; but *political* justice and its corresponding friendship cannot. The tyrant, again, as such, and oligarchs, as such, are external to any social system or body politic regulated by law and custom. They rule by mere force; there is no *ὁμότιμος* between them and their subjects. Hence justice and friendship are equally absent from the relation subsisting between them and their subjects. The action of their rule is, if the metaphor be allowed, mechanical, not physiological; they do violence to the 'social organism' from without; they do not preside within over its natural functions.

a. 11. βασιλεῖ μὲν πρὸς τοὺς βασιλευμένους] As Ramsauer notes, the friendships corresponding to the various πολιτεῖαι are presented in this chapter as friendships between the rulers and the ruled. It is to be observed however that in a timocracy the distinction between the rulers and the ruled is very different from that in the two other ὀρθαὶ πολιτεῖαι. In a timocracy the *same persons* rule and are ruled in rotation. There is therefore a certain ambiguity in the use of the term φιλία in this chapter. Ἡ φιλία ἢ κατὰ τὴν βασιλείαν is between one man—ἢ κατὰ τὴν ἀριστοκρατίαν between a few men, on the one hand, and the great body of the people on the other hand; whereas ἡ φιλία ἢ κατὰ τὴν τιμοκρατίαν has no reference external to the popular body, but is complete within it, uniting its equal members man to man. Indeed, it is not in

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1161 a. 18. εἶναι—in which the father resembles the king, the other point of resemblance being τὸ εὐεργετικὸν εἶναι, ἢ αἴτιος τοῦ εἶναι καὶ τροφῆς καὶ παιδείας. The sense of the section may be stated as follows—The positions of the father and of the family ancestor are of the same kind. The father *benefits* his children by giving them existence, sustenance, and education; so also ancestors benefit their descendants. The father has a natural right to *rule* his children; so also the hereditary king, representing an ancestor, has a natural right to rule his people who represent the descendants of that ancestor. Accordingly, although I agree with Ramsauer that γὰρ ought not to be read before ἀρχικόν, I cannot agree with him that the clause καὶ τοῖς προγόνοις δὲ ταῦτα ἀπονέμεται (οἱ προσνέμεται) is superfluous. I regard it as occupying a place in the first part of the section similar to that occupied by καὶ πρόγονοι ἐκγόσων in the second part.

a. 20. § 3. καὶ τιμῶνται] Καὶ emphasizes τιμῶνται. Τιμή is the proper due of such superiority as that of parents and gods. Ramsauer compares iv. 3. 19 ἐν ὑπεροχῇ γάρ, τὸ δ' ἀγαθῷ ὑπερέχον πᾶν ἐτιμώτερον: viii. 14. 2 τῷ μὲν ὑπερέχοντι τιμῆς (πλείον δεῖ νέμειν) . . . τῆς μὲν γὰρ ἀρετῆς καὶ τῆς εὐεργεσίας ἢ τιμῆ γέρας: cf. also viii. 14. 4 τὸ δυνατὸν γὰρ ἢ φιλία ἐπιζητεῖ, οὐ τὸ κατ' ἀξίαν· οὐδὲ γὰρ ἔστιν ἐν πᾶσι, καθὼς ἐν ταῖς πρὸς τοὺς θεοὺς τιμαῖς καὶ τοὺς γόνους· οὐδεὶς γὰρ τὴν ἀξίαν ποτ' ἐκ ἀποδοίῃ, εἰς δύναμιν δὲ ὁ θεραπεύων ἐπιεικῆς εἶναι δοκεῖ.

a. 21. οὐ ταῦτό] Williams brings out the meaning of this expression correctly—'Neither are the claims of justice in these . . . relations equally balanced on either side, but rather, as is also the friendship, proportioned to the benefits received.' The Paraph. has—οἷσι δὲ πᾶσαι αἱ τοιαῦται φιλίαι ἐν ὑπεροχῇ· διὸ καὶ τιμῶνται οἱ γόνους· καὶ τὸ δίκαιον δὲ ἀκολουθῶς τῇ φιλίᾳ οὐ τὸ αὐτό, ἀλλ' ἐν ὑπεροχῇ. τὸ γὰρ πρὸς πατέρα δίκαιον ὑπερέχει τοῦ πρὸς υἱόν· τὸ γὰρ κατ' ἀξίαν ἀποδοῦσαι δεῖ. Cf. E. E. H. 9. 1241 b. 37 οὐ γὰρ ταῦτόν δίκαιον τῷ ὑπερέχοντι καὶ ὑπερεχομένῳ, ἀλλὰ τὸ ἀνάλογον.

a. 23. § 4. ἢ αὐτῇ φιλία κ.τ.λ.] A comparison more ingenious than instructive.

a. 25. § 5. ἐταιρικῇ] ἢ ἐταιρικῇ φιλία answers most nearly to what in modern times we understand by friendship. It subsists between those who, without being necessarily kinsmen, are of one age, have

been brought up in close companionship, and have common tastes 1161 a. 25. and pursuits.

ἔοικε δέ] Bekker reads δή. I prefer δέ, which Ramsauer, Suse- a. 27. mihl, and Bywater read, following K^b, M^b.

ἴσοι γὰρ οἱ πολῖται βούλονται καὶ ἐπιεικεῖς εἶναι] *i.e.* in a a. 28. timocracy 'the citizens wish to be equal and fair' (Peters), or perhaps better—'in a timocracy it is characteristic of (βούλονται) the citizens to be equal and fair.'

ἐν μέρει δὴ κ.τ.λ.] *Cf. Pol. iii. 2. 1277 b. 13* δεῖ δὲ τὸν πολίτην τὸν a. 29. ἀγαθὸν ἐπίστασθαι καὶ δύνασθαι καὶ ἄρχεσθαι καὶ ἄρχειν, καὶ αὕτη ἀρετὴ πολίτου τὸ τῆν τῶν ἐλευθέρων ἀρχὴν ἐπίστασθαι ἐπ' ἀμφοτέρω.

§ 6. μηδὲν κοινόν] *i.e.* they do not participate in a common a. 33. νόμος, or belong to the same social organism. In an ὀρθὴ πολιτεία every member, whether ruler or ruled, acts *within* the social organism in a manner conducive to the good of the whole. This is to act *justly*—see *Pol. iii. 7. 1282 b. 16* ἐστὶ δὲ πολιτικὸν ἀγαθὸν τὸ δίκαιον, τοῦτο δ' ἐστὶ τὸ κοινῇ συμφέρον. But the tyrant's acts are not thus *functions* of the social organism. They are *assaults* from without upon that organism. Again, the social organism, like the physical organism, requires for its subsistence many things which are not part of itself: see *Pol. H. 7. 1328 a. 21* ἐπεὶ δ' ὡσπερ τῶν ἄλλων τῶν κατὰ φύσιν συκιστώτων οὐ ταῦτά ἐστι μέρη τῆς ὅλης συστάσεως, ὡς ἄνευ τὸ ὅλον οὐκ ἂν εἴη, δῆλον ὡς οὐδὲ πόλεως μέρη θετίον ὅσα ταῖς πόλεσιν ἀναγκαῖον ὑπάρχειν, οὐδ' ἄλλης κοινωνίας οὐδεμιᾶς . . . κτήσεως μὲν δεῖ ταῖς πόλεσιν, οὐδὲν δ' ἐστὶν ἢ κτήσις μέρος τῆς πόλεως· πολλὰ δ' ἔμψυχα μέρη τῆς κτήσεως ἐστίν· ἢ δὲ πόλις κοινωνία τίς ἐστὶ τῶν ὁμοίων, ἕνεκεν δὲ ζωῆς τῆς ἐνδεχομένης ἀρίστης. Slaves, who are ἔμψυχα ὄργανα τῆς ἀναγκαίας κτήσεως ἕνεκα, are not parts of the social organism, between the 'parts' or *members* of which alone just and friendly relations can subsist.

ὠφελεῖται μὲν γὰρ πάντα ταῦτα ὑπὸ τῶν χρωμένων] Fritzsche and a. 35. Grant compare *E. E. H. 10. 1242 a. 13* ἄλλον γὰρ τρόπον συνῆλθον πρίων καὶ τέχνη, οὐχ ἕνεκα κοινῆς τιμῆς (οἷον γὰρ ὄργανον καὶ ψυχὴ) ἀλλὰ τοῦ χρωμένου ἕνεκεν. συμβαίνει δὲ καὶ αὐτὸ τὸ ὄργανον ἐπιμελείας τυγχάνειν, ἧς δίκαιον πρὸς τὸ ἔργον· ἐκείνου γὰρ ἕνεκέν ἐστι. 'The instrument,' says Grant, 'receives just so much care from its master, as will

1161 a. 35. keep it in proper condition for the exercise of its functions. The slave, who is treated not as a person but as a thing, receives the same kind of attention. Friendship and justice imply the recognition of personality; they imply treating men not as instruments, but as ends in themselves.'

The benefit received by slaves is thus, as Ramsauer remarks, an *ὠφέλεια κατὰ συμβεβηκός*.

b. 4. ἔμψυχον ὄργανον] See *Pol.* i. 2. 1253 b. 32.

b. 5. § 7. ἢ δ' ἄνθρωπος] Aristotle, writing in a reflective age, attempted to explain and excuse the historical institution of slavery by means of the abstract notion—*φύσει δοῦλος*: but the political and ethical difficulties encountered in the attempt were so great that he was obliged to admit the distinction *ἢ δοῦλος—ἢ ἄνθρωπος*, a distinction which the Roman jurists, with their theory of the 'natural equality of all men,' afterwards brought into prominence: see Ulpian, quoted by Zell *ad loc.*—*Quod attinet ad jus civile servi pro nullis habentur, non tamen jure naturali: quia, quod ad jus naturale pertinet, omnes homines sunt aequales: cf. Justinian Inst. i. Tit. 1. § 2 jure naturali ab initio omnes homines liberi nascebantur.* But this distinction between the *slave* and the *man* is presented by Aristotle and the jurists in too abstract a manner to furnish material for answering the questions—'In what sense then is he a man? What is meant by his *capacity* (*τὸ δυνάμενον* b. 7) for participating in *νόμος* and *συνθήκη*? Can there be a capacity of this kind which is not *actualised* in some definite way?' Aristotle, mainly concerned to find in the institution of slavery, as it existed, an economic basis for his brilliant Hellenic life, did not trouble himself much with the history of the institution. It suited his purpose to represent the slave as a *thing*. If, following his usual method in social enquiries, he had examined the history of slavery, he would have found that the slave is essentially a *person*—i. e. a member of the *particular* social organism to which the master belongs, not merely a 'human being'—*ἄνθρωπος*, as he vaguely admits, in much the same way as nowadays we admit that the lower animals are 'fellow-creatures.' Aristotle had little appreciation of the 'dignity of labour'; he did not see clearly that industry is an essential *function* of the social organism—something *valuable* and not merely *ἀναγκαῖον*—and that the *δοῦλος*, the organ of this function, is as much a *member* of the organism as his master, who,

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1161 b. 8. however slightly advanced in the cultivation of its moral instincts. The compunction which ancient communities almost unconsciously experienced appears to have always resulted in the adoption of some imaginary principle upon which a defence, or at least a rationale, of slavery could be plausibly founded. Very early in their history the Greeks explained the institution as grounded on the intellectual inferiority of certain races and their consequent natural aptitude for the servile condition. The Romans, in a spirit equally characteristic, derived it from a supposed agreement between the victor and the vanquished, in which the first stipulated for the perpetual services of his foe; and the other gained in consideration the life which he had legitimately forfeited. Such theories were not only unsound but plainly unequal to the case for which they affected to account. Still they exercised a powerful influence in many ways. They satisfied the conscience of the master. They perpetuated and probably increased the debasement of the slave. And they naturally tended to put out of sight the relation in which servitude had originally stood to the rest of the domestic system. This relation, though not clearly exhibited, is casually indicated in many parts of primitive law, and more particularly in the typical system—that of ancient Rome. . . . It is clear, from the testimony both of ancient law and of many primeval histories, that the slave might under certain conditions be made the heir, or universal successor, of the master, and this significant faculty . . . implies that the government and representation of the family might, in a particular state of circumstances, devolve on the bondman. . . . What then is meant by saying that the slave was originally included in the family? . . . When we speak of the slave as anciently included in the family, we intend to assert nothing as to the motives of those who brought him into it, or kept him there; we merely imply that the tie which bound him to his master was regarded as one of the same general character with that which united every other member of the group to the chieftain. This consequence is in fact carried in the general assertion already made that the primitive ideas of mankind were unequal to comprehending any basis of the connexion *inter se* of individuals, apart from the relations of family. The Family consisted primarily of those who belonged to it by consanguinity, and next of those who had been engrafted on it by adoption; but there was still a third class of persons who were only joined to it by

common subjection to its head, and these were the slaves. The 1161 b. 5. horn and adopted subjects of the chief were raised above the slave by the certainty that in the ordinary course of events they would be relieved from bondage and entitled to exercise powers of their own; but that the inferiority of the slave was not such as to place him outside the pale of the family, or such as to degrade him to the footing of inanimate property, is clearly proved, I think, by the many traces which remain of his ancient capacity for inheritance in the last resort. . . . The Roman law was arrested in its growing tendency to look upon him more and more as an article of property by the theory of the Law of Nature; and hence it is that, wherever servitude is sanctioned by institutions which have been deeply affected by Roman jurisprudence, the servile condition is never intolerably wretched.'

φιλία] So Ramsauer, Susemihl, and Bywater. Bekker reads b. 8. φιλίας with the codd.

§ 8. ἐπὶ πλείον] K^b and Asp.; the other authorities, followed by b. 10. Bekker, read πλείστον. Aspasius gives the meaning correctly—ἐν δὲ ταῖς δημοκρατίαις ἐπὶ πλέον ἐστὶν ἢ φιλία καὶ τὸ δίκαιον ἤπερ ἐν ταῖς ἄλλαις παρεκβάσεισι.

CHAPTER XII.

ARGUMENT.

It is always between those, then, who are joined together in some association or other, in which they meet on common ground, that friendship, in whatever form, subsists: although perhaps the friendship of kinsmen and comrades may be distinguished from the other forms; at any rate such friendships as those of citizens, tribesmen and fellow-voyagers seem to have more of the character of associations—i. e. they seem to involve a sort of agreement entered into to associate, while friendship between kinsmen and comrades subsists without any such agreement. To the class of friendships which seem to involve an agreement may be assigned also the guest-friendship between two men who are citizens of different states.

The friendship of kinsmen has many forms, but can always be traced back to that involved in the relation between parents and children. Parents and children, as stock and offspring, are bound together by ties of mutual affection:

parents, however, have a deeper consciousness than children have of the common nature which unites stock and offspring—a consciousness too which dates from the birth of the children, whereas children do not become conscious of union with the parent stock till they arrive at the years of intelligence. This explains the greater love of mothers. Brothers love one another because they spring from the same parents. Hence we speak of 'the same blood'—'the same stock.' Of course, their being of about the same age and being brought up together must also be taken as contributing largely to the friendship of brothers, which in these respects resembles the friendship of comrades. The friendship which unites cousins and other kinsmen is to be explained likewise by their common origin: it is greater or less as the common ancestor is near or remote.

The friendship of children for parents (like that of men for the gods) is a friendship which has the good, as presented by a superior, for its object—parents confer on their children the greatest of all good things—existence, nurture, education. This friendship is also more useful, in the ordinary sense of the term, and more pleasant than that with strangers, in so far as the common life to which it belongs is more intimate. The friendship between brothers has the characteristics of that between comrades—and if the brothers are good, is a comradeship of the best and most lasting kind. The friendship between husband and wife is natural, for man is naturally first a conjugal being, and only afterwards a political being, since the family is chronologically prior to the state, being materially necessary to it, and procreation is common to man with all other animals. Human beings, however, differ from other animals in not pairing merely for the sake of procreation, but also for objects which have to do with the proper conduct of life. Husband and wife have their separate functions and their separate virtues, and both contribute by division of labour to the common good. Thus the friendship between them is both useful and pleasant, and, if they are virtuous persons, has, as manifested by each, the goodness peculiar to the other for its object. But children are a great bond of union, being something common. Childless couples are more quickly estranged than those with children. To ask how a husband should regulate his life with his wife, and generally how one friend should behave to another, is to ask how justice requires the husband or friend to behave in the circumstances.

1161 b. 11. § 1.] 'All friendship, as we have already said, implies association; but we may separate from the rest the friendship of kinsmen and that of comrades. The friendships of fellow citizens, of fellow tribesmen, of fellow sailors, &c., seem, as opposed to these, to have more to do with association; for they appear to be founded on some sort of compact. The friendship of host and guest might also be included in this class' (Peters). All friendship is ἐν κοινῷ, or κοινωνική in the generic sense. There are three species under the genus—(1) συγγενική, (2) ἑταιρική, (3) κοινωνική in the narrower, specific sense, where a more or less express ὁμολογία exists. Thus in *E. E. N.* 10. 1242 a. 1 we have λέγονται δὲ φιλίαι, συγγενική, ἑταιρική,

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1161 b. 28. quia separati sunt.' The object of the clause is not to show how children, being αὐτοί, are at the same time ἕτεροι, but to state the paradox that, being ἕτεροι καὶ κεχωρισμένοι, they are yet αὐτοί. Peters too misses, I think, the exact force of the clause with—'for what proceeds from them is as it were a second self when it is severed.'

Ramsauer *ad loc.* remarks that, while Justice is πρὸς ἕτερον, Love is πρὸς ἕτερον αὐτόν.

b. 31. πρὸς ἐκεῖνα] 'sunt haec, unde generati sunt, parentes: id quod neutro genere propter superius ἐκ τῶν αὐτῶν (quo item neutro parentes indicantur) positum est' (Fritzsche).

b. 34. § 4. ἤλιξ γὰρ ἤλικα] *sc.* τέρπει, see *Rhet.* i. 11. 1371 b. 15, *E. E.* H. 2. 1238 a. 33.

1162 a. 1. ἐκ τούτων] 'Verba ἐκ τούτων intellige: *ex his causis, propter hoc.* Nam alias sequens γὰρ languet' (Zell). Peters seems to agree with Zell in making τούτων neuter. He has—'Cousins and other kinsfolk become attached to each other for the same reason—I mean because they come of the same stock.' But it is better, I think, to refer τούτων to ἀδελφοί understood from the previous ἀδελφική. This is the view of Asp., the Paraph., Grant, Stahr, Williams, and Ramsauer.

a. 5. § 5. πρὸς θεούς] Zell and Fritzsche quote *E. E.* H. 10. 1241 a. 32 πατρὸς δὲ καὶ υἱοῦ ἢ αὐτῆ [φιλία ἐστίν] ἤπερ θεοῦ πρὸς ἀνθρώπου καὶ τοῦ εὖ ποιήσαντος πρὸς τὸν παθόντα καὶ ὄλωσ τοῦ φύσει ἀρχαιότες πρὸς τὸ φύσει ἀρχόμενον. Ramsauer brackets the words καὶ ἀνθρώποις πρὸς θεούς as probably spurious, on account of their inconsistency with Aristotle's doctrine (viii. 7. 4) that friendship cannot subsist between gods and men.

a. 8. § 6. μᾶλλον τῶν ὀθνείων] *i. e.* μᾶλλον τῆς τῶν ὀθνείων φιλίας.

a. 10. καὶ μᾶλλον] 'The friendship of brothers has all the characteristics of the friendship of comrades, and has them in a greater degree (provided they are good and generally resemble one another)' Peters. So Stahr 'und in noch höherem Grade.'

a. 12. ὑπάρχουσι στέργοντες ἀλλήλους] 'Have an original love for one another.'

a. 15. § 7. ἀνάλογον κ.τ.λ.] αἱ δὲ ἄλλαι (συγγενικαὶ φιλίαι) ἀνάλογον ἔχουσι τῇ κατὰ γένος οικειότητι (Paraph.).

ὄσω πρότερον καὶ ἀναγκαιότερον οἰκία πόλεως] See Grant's note 1162 a. 18. *ad loc.* 'In point of time the family is prior to the state, but in point of idea (λόγῳ) and essentially (φύσει) the state is prior. Cf. *Ar. Pol.* i. 2. 12 (i. 1. 1253 a. 19) καὶ πρότερον δὴ τῇ φύσει πόλις ἢ οἰκία καὶ ἕκαστος ἡμῶν ἐστίν. τὸ γὰρ ὅλον πρότερον ἀναγκαῖον εἶναι τοῦ μέρους· ἀπαιρουμένου γὰρ τοῦ ὅλου οὐκ ἔσται πούς οὐδὲ χεῖρ, εἰ μὴ ὁμωνύμως. Aristotle argues that without the idea of the "state," the terms "man" and "family" would lose their meaning. Thus the idea of family presupposes that of the state, which will accordingly be prior. In the same way the family is more necessary as a means, the state as an end.' A thing is ἀναγκαῖον which is a means: cf. *Pol.* Θ. 2. 1338 a. 12 τὰς μὲν μαθήσεις ἑαυτῶν εἶναι χάριν, τὰς δὲ πρὸς τὴν ἀσχολίαν ὡς ἀναγκαῖας καὶ χάριν ἄλλων. The ἀναγκαῖον is thus opposed to the καλόν, which is choiceworthy on its own account; cf. *Pol.* Θ. 2. 1338 a. 31 ὅτι μὲν τοίνυν ἔστι παιδεία τις ἣν οὐχ ὡς χρησίμην παιδευτέον τοὺς υἱεῖς, οὐδ' ὡς ἀναγκαῖαν ἀλλ' ὡς ἐλευθέριον καὶ καλήν, φανερόν ἐστίν. Hence ἀναγκαῖον is descriptive of ὕλη, as distinguished from εἶδος, or λόγος, which is καλόν. See *Phys.* ii. 9. 200 a. 12 ἀνάγκη ἄρα σιδηροῦν εἶναι, εἰ πρίων ἔσται καὶ τὸ ἔργον αὐτοῦ. ἐξ ὑποθέσεως οὖν τὸ ἀναγκαῖον, ἀλλ' οὐχ ὡς τέλος. ἐν γὰρ τῇ ὕλη τὸ ἀναγκαῖον, τὸ δ' οὐ ἔνεκα ἐν τῷ λόγῳ. The statement, then, ἀναγκαιότερον οἰκία πόλεως means that the family belongs to the matter of which the state is the form.

ἐπὶ τοσοῦτον] sc. ἐφ' ὅσον ἐνι τεκνοποιῆσαι (Paraph.). Zell and a. 20. Fritzsche compare *Oecon.* i. 3. 1343 b. 13.

§ 8. ταῦτόν] καὶ οὐ ταῦτόν φαίνεται εἶναι δίκαιον φίλον πρὸς φίλον καὶ a. 31. τὸν ὀθνεῖον ἢ τὸν ἀδελφόν κ.τ.λ. (Paraph.).

συμφοιτητήν] 'condiscipulus' (Victorius). Peters can hardly be a. 33. right with 'Travelling companion.'

CHAPTER XIII.

ARGUMENT.

We have seen that there are three species of friendship, and that each may subsist between those who are equal, or those who are unequal—that those who are equally or unequally good, useful, or pleasant may be friends. Those then who are equal must love each other equally, and render other services equally;

those who are not equal must put themselves on an equality by loving and otherwise remunerating each other in proportion to desert.

It is only, or chiefly, in the friendship for profit that friends bring charges against each other, and find fault with each other. Those whose friendship is based on virtue have no reason to find fault with each other or quarrel, for their object is to benefit each other, and each tries to outdo the other in this: nor is fault-finding common in the friendship for pleasure. The friends take pleasure in each other's society: it would be ridiculous to find fault with one's friend because his society does not give one pleasure, when one is at liberty to drop him. But in the friendship for profit fault-finding is very common. People are not easily satisfied with what is done for them.

As justice is either unwritten or embodied in written law, so friendship for profit relies either on character or on law. That which relies on law is concluded on express terms—a certain service is rendered for a return expressly stated; the return being made either at once or after a time: in the latter case, although a debt has been contracted about which there is no doubt, yet the element of friendship comes in with the permission to defer payment: and this is why in some states actions for recovery of such debts are not allowed.

In that form of friendship for profit which relies on character no terms are mentioned: A makes a present of something to B as to a friend, but expects (from his general knowledge of B's character) to receive in return as much, or more, for what is really not a gift but a loan; and if he does not come out of the transaction in the way he expected when he entered into it, he is sure to find fault with his 'friend'; for all, or most, men have a general wish to do the handsome thing, but, when it comes to the particular case, choose the profitable thing.

Accordingly, if one can, one must voluntarily make a return equivalent to that which one has received: one must act as though one had made a mistake at first about the service being rendered out of pure friendship, and make a return just as if there had been an express bargain: for one must not treat a man as a disinterested friend against his will. But of course it is advisable to consider at the beginning who it is who confers the service and in expectation of what return, and decide whether one will accept it in the circumstances or not.

The question arises whether the amount of the return should be measured by the benefit actually experienced by the receiver, or by the trouble, money, etc. expended by the giver. Where the friendship is for profit the standard according to which return ought to be made (sc. in the absence of an express agreement) is the benefit actually experienced by the receiver; but where the ground of the friendship is virtue, the intention of the giver is the standard: for intention, or deliberate choice, is the criterion of virtue and character.

1162 a. 34. § 1. φιλιῶν] Asp. has τῶν φιλιῶν which Byw. (*Contrib.* p. 61) thinks is probably right.

ἐν ἀρχῇ] viii. 3. 1.

b. 1. ὁμοίως δὲ καὶ ἡδεῖς] 'and a similar remark applies to friendships

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1162 b. 11. (ἀμιλλωμένων b. 8), succeeds in conferring superior benefits, gets what he desires, viz. the good of his friend, and has no reason to complain. The other again who is defeated in the competition cannot dislike one who confers such benefits upon him—τὸ γὰρ φιλοῦντα καὶ εὖ ποιῶντα οὐδεὶς δυσχεραίνει, ἀλλ' . . . ἀμύνεται εὖ δρῶν.

b. 13. § 3. οὐ πάνυ δ' οὐδ' ἐν τοῖς δι' ἡδονήν] sc. γίνεται ἐγκλήματα.

b. 21. § 5. τὸ δίκαιόν ἐστι διττόν, τὸ μὲν ἄγραφον τὸ δὲ κατὰ νόμον] Ramsauer contends (without stating the reasons for his opinion, but merely giving certain references to the *Rhet.*) that this distinction is not (as Zell and Fritzsche take for granted) exactly that between τὸ φυσικὸν δίκαιον and τὸ νομικὸν δίκαιον of *E. N.* v. 7. Bonitz however (*Ind. Arist.* sub v. δίκαιος) makes τὸ ἄγραφον δίκαιον synonymous with τὸ φυσικὸν δίκαιον. The following passages in the *Rhet.* (referred to by Ramsauer) will enable us to decide between these two views.—*Rhet.* i. 14. 1374 a. 18 sqq. ἐπεὶ δὲ τῶν δικαίων καὶ τῶν ἀδίκων ἦν δύο εἶδη (τὰ μὲν γὰρ γεγραμμένα τὰ δ' ἄγραφα), περὶ ἃ μὲν οἱ νόμοι ἀγορεύουσιν εἶρηται, τῶν δ' ἀγράφων δύο ἐστὶν εἶδη· ταῦτα δ' ἐστὶ τὰ μὲν καθ' ὑπερβολὴν ἀρετῆς καὶ κακίας, ἐφ' οἷς ὀνειδῆ καὶ ἔπαισι καὶ ἀτιμίαι καὶ τιμαὶ καὶ δωρεαί (the moral and social sanctions, as distinguished from the legal sanction), οἷον τὸ χάριον ἔχειν τῇ πενήσαντι εὖ καὶ ἀντευποιεῖν τὸν εὖ ποιήσαντα καὶ βοηθητικὸν εἶναι τοῖς φίλοις καὶ ὅσα ἄλλα τοιαῦτα, τὰ δὲ τοῦ ἰδίου νόμου καὶ γεγραμμένου ἑλλείπει τὸ γὰρ ἐπιεικὲς δοκεῖ δίκαιον εἶναι, ἔστι δὲ ἐπιεικὲς τὸ παρὰ τὸν γεγραμμένον νόμον δίκαιον. συμβαίνει δὲ τοῦτο τὰ μὲν ἀκόντων τὰ δὲ ἐκόντων τῶν νομοθετῶν, ἀκόντων μὲν ὅταν λάθῃ, ἐκόντων δ' ὅταν μὴ δύναται διορίσαι, ἀλλ' ἀναγκαῖον μὲν ἢ καθόλου εἰπεῖν, μὴ ἢ δέ, ἀλλ' ὡς ἐπὶ τὸ καλὸν καὶ ὅσα μὴ ῥάδιον διορίσαι δι' ἀπειρίαν, οἷον τὸ τρώσαι σιδήρῳ πηλίπυ καὶ ποίῃ τινί· ὑπολείπει γὰρ ἂν ὁ αἰὼν διαριθμοῦντα· ἂν οὖν ἢ ἀδιόριστον, δέη δὲ νομοθετῆσαι, ἀνάγκη ἀπλῶς εἰπεῖν, ὥστε κἂν δακτύλιον ἔχων ἐπάρηται τὴν χεῖρα ἢ πατάξῃ, κατὰ μὲν τὸν γεγραμμένον νόμον ἔνοχος ἐστὶ ἐπὶ ἀδικεῖ, κατὰ δὲ τὸ ἀληθὲς οὐκ ἀδικεῖ, καὶ τὸ ἐπιεικὲς τοῦτό ἐστι. Cf. *Rhet.* i. 14. 1375 a. 17 τὰ μὲν οὖν γεγραμμένα ἐξ ἀνάγκης τὰ δ' ἄγραφα οὐ, and *Rhet.* i. 15. 1375 a. 31 . . . τὸ μὲν ἐπιεικὲς αἰεὶ μένει καὶ οὐδέποτε μεταβάλλει, οὐδ' ὁ κοινὸς (κατὰ φύσιν γὰρ ἐστίν), οἱ δὲ γεγραμμένοι πολλάκις. ὅθεν εἴρηται τὰ ἐν τῇ Σοφοκλείου 'Λυσιγόνῃ' ἀπολογεῖσθαι γὰρ ὅτι ἔθαψε παρὰ τὸν τοῦ Κρέοντος νόμον, ἀλλ' οὐ παρὰ τὸν ἄγραφον

οὐ γὰρ τι νῦν γε κάχθεις, ἀλλ' αἰεὶ ποτε.

These passages seem to me to support the view that the distinction

between τὸ ἀγραφὸν δίκαιον and τὸ κατὰ νόμον is not identical with 1162 b. 21. that between τὸ φυσικὸν δίκαιον and τὸ νομικὸν δίκαιον. Τὸ ἀγραφὸν δίκαιον and τὸ κατὰ νόμον are of course mutually exclusive. The δίκαια and ἀδίκαια recognised under the first εἶδος of τὸ ἀγραφὸν δίκαιον—viz. τὰ ἐφ' οἷς ὀνειδῆ καὶ ἔπιωροι, where the sanctions are merely 'social,' cannot, from their nature, be brought within the scope of the written law. They belong essentially to the unwritten law. They cannot be enforced by 'legal sanctions.' The ἐπιεικῆ again included under the second εἶδος of the ἀγραφὸν δίκαιον cannot be embodied in the written law. The particular issues involved in them must be determined independently of, and even in spite of, the written law. But it does not follow from this that τὸ ἀγραφὸν δίκαιον is identical with τὸ φυσικὸν δίκαιον. In a good state much of τὸ φυσικὸν δίκαιον (τὸ πανταχοῦ τὴν αὐτὴν ἔχον δύναμιν *E. N.* v. 7. 1) is embodied in the written law. Τὸ ἀγραφὸν δίκαιον is, in part, that residuum of τὸ φυσικὸν δίκαιον which either cannot be, or has not hitherto been, embodied in the written code; in part, it consists of νομιζόμενα—local customs and etiquettes, which, so far from falling under the φυσικὸν δίκαιον, may conflict with it.

I take it, then, that we must not identify the distinction before us here with that between τὸ φυσικὸν δίκαιον and τὸ νομικὸν δίκαιον, as described in *E. N.* v. 7. We have to think simply of 'unwritten' and 'written' regulations. The unwritten regulations may be 'naturally' just, or they may be only 'conventionally' just; they may be such as can, or such as cannot, be embodied in a written code. The distinction before us indeed seems to answer exactly to that between the Lacedaemonian and the Athenian δίκαια noted in the following passage of Justinian's *Instit.*—i. 2. § 9 'ex non scripto jus venit quod usus comprobavit. nam diuturni mores consensu utentium comprobati legem imitantur. et non ineleganter in duas species jus civile distributum videtur. nam origo ejus ab institutis duarum civitatum, Athenarum scilicet et Lacedaemonis, fluxisse videtur. in his enim civitatibus ita agi solitum erat, ut Lacedaemonii quidem magis ea quae pro legibus observarent memoriae mandarent: Athenienses vero ea quae in legibus scripta reprehendissent [comprehendissent?] custodirent.'

ἡ μὲν ἠθικὴ ἡ δὲ νομικὴ] Williams brings out the force of this b. 23. distinction very well with—'the friendship of confidence and the friendship of covenant.' Cf. *E. E. H.* 10. 1242 b. 31 ἔστι δὲ τῆς

1162 b. 23. χρησίμου φιλίας εἶδη δύο· ἡ μὲν νομικὴ ἢ δ' ἠθικὴ. βλέπει δ' ἢ μὲν πολιτικὴ εἰς τὸ ἴσον καὶ εἰς τὸ πρῶγμα, ὥσπερ οἱ πωλοῦντες καὶ οἱ ἄνούμενοι. διὸ εἴρηται· μισθὸς ἀνδρὶ φίλῳ. ὅταν μὲν οὖν κατ' ὁμολογίαν (ἢ Spengel, Fritzsche, Susemihl) ἡ πολιτικὴ αὕτη φιλία καὶ νομική· ὅταν δ' ἐπιτρέψωσιν αὐτοῖς, ἠθικὴ βούλεται εἶναι φιλία καὶ ἑταιρικὴ.

b. 24. ὅταν μὴ κατὰ κ.τ.λ.] 'complaints arise when a transaction is not ended in the spirit in which it was begun,' or in which at least one of the parties thought it was begun: e.g. A lends B a sum of money. When B repays it he does so without interest, thinking that A lent it as a friend; but A, it appears, lent it as a matter of business and expected the usual interest: see Ἀπρ. ἐγκαλυῖσιν οὖν ὅταν μὴ διαλυθῶσιν ὡς καὶ συνήλλαξαν· εἰ γάρ τις ὡς φίλῳ δέῃ τινὶ πενήκοντα νομίσματα, μηδὲν περὶ τόκου εἰπών, ἀλλ' ἀγράφως συναλλάξας, εἴθ' ὕστερον ἀπαιτεῖ τόκον, ἄλλως μὲν συνήλλαξεν, ἄλλως δὲ σπεύδει διαλυθῆναι. We have here an illustration of the truth of the saying that 'understandings are misunderstandings.'

b. 29. § 6. διόπερ ἐνίοις κ.τ.λ.] In addition to the passage quoted by Fritzsche from Nic. Damasc. (p. 314 Tauchn. παρ' Ἰουδαίοις ἐάν τις ἀπουτερηθῆ δανείου ἢ παρακαταθήκης, οὐκ ἔστι κρίσις, ἀλλ' αὐτὸν αἰτεῖται ὁ πιστεύσας), see Theophrastus περὶ συμβολαίων apud Stob. Flor. vol. ii. p. 168 ed. Meineke, Χαρόνδας καὶ Πλάτων (apparently Legg. 915 D and E) . . . παραχρῆμα κελεύουσι δίδόναι καὶ λαμβάνειν, ἐὰν δέ τις πιστεύσῃ, μὴ εἶναι δίκην, αὐτὸν γὰρ αἴτιον εἶναι τῆς ἀδικίας. Charondas made laws for Catana and other cities.

b. 32. § 7. ἢ ὅτιδήποτε ἄλλο] δωρεῖται τι, ἢ ἄλλην τιὰ ὠφέλειαν ὠφελεῖ (Paragraph).

κομίξασθαι δέ κ.τ.λ.] i.e. the motive of this ἠθικὴ φιλία, no less than of νομικὴ φιλία, is after all τὸ χρήσιμον.

b. 35. § 8. βούλεσθαι μὲν . . . τὰ καλὰ, προαιρεῖσθαι δὲ τὰ ἀφῆλμα] We have here the difference between *the wish* for something remote and perhaps unattainable, and *the definite choice* of something immediately before us. The ideal of a noble life, though present intellectually to most civilized men, is practically too weak to regulate their conduct in the midst of objects appealing immediately to their desire for pleasure or profit. Therefore 'to choose profit' — προαιρεῖσθαι τὰ ἀφῆλμα — is here tantamount to acting παρὰ τὸν ὀρθὸν λόγον, i.e. κατὰ πάθος.

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1163 a. 6. have begun by expecting repayment from one obviously unable ever to make it.' In short, the fact of a benefit having been conferred raises the presumption that the giver expected, when he conferred it, to be eventually repaid. He believed that the receiver would be able to repay it; otherwise he would not have conferred it. There is no reference here, it seems to me, to the case of a friend *διὰ τὸ χρήσιμον*, or creditor, finding out in course of time that the debtor is insolvent, and making him a present of the sum owed.

a. 9. ὑπομένη ἢ μή] *sc.* εὐεργετούμενος Rams., τὴν εὐεργεσίαν Cornes.
'Consent to receive the benefit on these terms, or decline it.'

§ 10. ἀμφισβήτησιν κ.τ.λ.] We must repay benefits *καθὼς ἐπὶ ῥητοῖς εὐεργετηθέντας* when no *ῥητά* exist. How are we then to determine what the *ῥητά* would have been had they existed? We must put ourselves back into the position we occupied before the benefit was conferred, and suppose ourselves to be making an express bargain for an advantage which we wish to get, but of course should be unwilling to pay too dear for. The price for which we could have got the advantage, supposing the question of price to have been raised, is what at least we ought to pay now in return. It is of course very difficult thus to construct *ῥητά* after an interval of time. The giver will maintain that the circumstances were exceptional and enhanced the value of the benefit, and that he would not have conferred it if he had known that so small a return would be offered for it. The receiver on the other hand will point out that the benefit has not come to much, and will maintain that he never thought that it would. The standard however which must be found, if an agreement between the parties is to be reached, is—What did the receiver think it worth *before he got it*? The giver cannot expect more than this: see ix. 1. 9 ἢ ἀμοιβὴ γίνεται πρὸς τοσοῦτον ὅσον ἂν τάττωσιν οἱ λαμβάνοντες. δεῖ δ' ἴσως οὐ τοσοῦτου τιμᾶν ὅσου ἔχοντι φαίνεται ἄξιον, ἀλλ' ὅσου πρὸν ἔχων ἐτίμα.

From Theoph. *περὶ συμβολαίων* (apud Stob. *Flor.* vol. ii. 166 sqq. ed. Meineke) we learn that understandings likely to develop into misunderstandings of the kind indicated in the section before us (viii. 13. 10) were discouraged by many Greek codes, which contained provisions for the payment on the spot of an ἀρραβίον proportioned to the amount to be afterwards paid in full.

§ 11. ἐπαρκεί] *sc.* ὁ εὐεργέτης. In the friendship of Profit equal 1163 a. 18. advantages are exchanged: the question is—What is the amount of the advantage received? for an equal advantage must be given in exchange for it. But the Friendship of Virtue is not a συναλλαγμα, but a Life in which the friends stimulate each other to the manifestation of that which proceeds from virtue.

τῆς ἀρετῆς . . . κύριον] ‘for in choice lies that which is essential a. 22. to virtue and character.’ It is προαίρεσις which converts the δύναμις τῶν ἐναντίων into the ἔξις (*Met.* Θ. 2 and 5), and ἀρετή is defined as a ἔξις προαιρετική (*E. N.* ii. 6. 15). In *E. N.* x. 8. 5 we read ἀμφισβητεῖται τε πότερον κυριώτερον τῆς ἀρετῆς ἢ προαίρεσις ἢ αἱ πράξεις. The answer had been given in iii. 2. 1 οἰκειότατον εἶναι δοκεῖ (ἢ προαίρεσις) τῇ ἀρετῇ καὶ μᾶλλον τὰ ἦθη κρίνειν τῶν πράξεων. Taking these passages in connexion, we can see that in the section before us (viii. 13. 11) τὸ κύριον means that which, being essential to virtue, serves also as a κριτήριον, by means of which we may determine whether virtue is present in a given case. Accordingly in the friendship of virtue, the standard by which we measure the worth of a friendly office is the choice or intention of the agent, for this is a true expression of his virtuous character, to manifest which in fellowship with a ἕτερος αὐτός is the one object of the friendship.

CHAPTER XIV.

ARGUMENT.

People fall out in the unequal as well as in the equal friendships: for each of the unequal ‘friends’ thinks that he ought to get ‘the larger share’: the ‘friend’ who is better or more useful thinks that, as in a joint-stock business the larger contributor gets the larger share of the profits, so in friendship the better or more useful ‘friend’ should get a larger share of remuneration, unless the ‘friendship’ is to become a burden or tax. On the other hand, the needy and inferior ‘friend’ thinks that the only use of a good and powerful ‘friend’ is to help the needy. Each seems to be right—each ought to get out of the friendship ‘a larger share’—but not, of course, of the same thing: the superior friend ought to get his larger share in honour, and the needy friend his larger share in material advantage. The same rule holds in public life as in friendship: it is in honour that those who spend money for the common good get their reward,

honour being what the community has to give for benefits received. A man cannot get at the same time both money and honour out of the community: and as no one cares to be a loser all round, if money is spent for the common good, honour is expected in return.

It is proportion, as we have said, which introduces equality into unequal friendships and preserves them: the friend who does more for the moral and material advantage of the other must get honour—this is what the other has to give: even honour is not really equivalent to the greatest benefits (such as those conferred by the gods and by parents): but it is the best thing which the other can give, and as such meets the requirements of friendship. We have said that the benefits conferred by parents have no real equivalent. This is why a father may disown his son (of course natural affection and interest will restrain him from doing so unless his son is very bad); but a son may never disown his father (if the son is bad he may think it his interest to disown his father), for he can never clear off the debt which he owes to his father.

1163 a. 24. §§ 1, 2.] These sections are best illustrated by the parallel passage *E. E. H.* 10. 1242 b. 6 ἐν μὲν τῇ καθ' ὑπεροχὴν ἀφούτων τὸ ἀνάλογον, ἀλλ' οὐκ ὡσαύτως, ἀλλ' ὁ μὲν ὑπερέχων ἀνεστραμμένως τὸ ἀνάλογον, ὡς αὐτὸς πρὸς τὸν ἐλάττω, οὕτω τὸ παρὰ τοῦ ἐλάττωτος γινόμενον πρὸς τὸ παρ' αὐτοῦ, διακείμενος ὡπερ ἀρχων πρὸς ἀρχόμενον εἰ δὲ μὴ τοῦτο, ἀλλὰ τὸ ἴσον κατ' ἀριθμὸν ἀξιοῖ. καὶ γὰρ δὴ καὶ ἐπὶ τῶν ἄλλων κοινωνιῶν οὕτω συμβαίνει· ὅτι μὲν γὰρ ἀριθμῶ τοῦ ἴσου μετέχουσιν, ὅτι δὲ λόγῳ. . . . ὁ δ' ὑπερεχόμενος τούναντίον στρέφει τὸ ἀνάλογον, καὶ κατὰ διάμετρον συζεύγνυσιν (on this see Jackson, *Book v*, pp. 95 sqq.). δόξειε δ' ἂν οὕτως ἐλαττοῦσθαι ὁ ὑπερέχων καὶ λειτουργία ἢ φιλία καὶ ἢ κοινωνία. δεῖ ἄρα τιμὴν ἐτέρῳ ἀνιστάσαι, καὶ ποιῆσαι ἀνάλογον. τοῦτο δ' ἐστὶν ἡ τιμὴ, ὅπερ καὶ τῷ ἀρχοντι φύσει καὶ θεῷ πρὸς τὸ ἀρχόμενον. οὗ δ' ἴσασθῆναι τὸ κέρδος πρὸς τὴν τιμὴν.

a. 29. § 1. λειτουργίαν] properly a public service defrayed by a private citizen—a τριηραρχία, χορηγία, or ἀρχιθεωρία.

b. 7. § 8. ἡ τιμὴ δὲ κοινόν] Fritzsche quotes i. 5. 4 τιμὴ τοῦ πολιτικοῦ βίου σχεδὸν τέλος.

b. 8. οὐ γὰρ ἔστιν ἄμα χρηματίζεσθαι ἀπὸ τῶν κοινῶν καὶ τιμᾶσθαι] Rassow (*Forsch.* p. 26) brackets these words as merely a repetition of the words οὐ γὰρ τιμᾶται κ.τ.λ. b. 6. The clause ἐν εἶναι γὰρ κ.τ.λ. b. 9 has no causal connexion, he thinks, with the bracketed words. Susemihl places the words οὐ γὰρ τιμᾶται . . . ἢ τιμὴ δὲ κοινόν after the words bracketed by Rassow. I think that the received text is satisfactory, and that the connexion may be

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BOOK IX.



Introductory Note] The Ninth Book may be described as a not very systematic collection of ἀπορίαι regarding Friendship, which are discussed and answered on the general principles laid down in the Eighth Book. Michelet (pp. 281 sqq.) thinks that this collection did not originally belong to the *Ethics*, and he identifies it with the θέσεις φιλικαί β, in the list of Diog. Laert. (No. 72, Rose), the περί φιλίας α of the same list (No. 24) being the Eighth Book. But although the Ninth Book undoubtedly consists, in main part, of ἀπορίαι, there are certain chapters (4-6, 1166 a. 1-1167 b. 16) of an expository character which seem out of place in a collection of ἀπορίαι. Spengel (*Arist. Stud.* i. pp. 215 sqq.) calls attention to the fact that the Eudemian equivalent of these chapters, and of chapter 7—*E. E.* H. 6-8, 1240 a. 8-1241 b. 12 (= *E. N.* ix. 4-7, 1166 a. 1-1168 a. 27)—is inserted at a point which corresponds in the *E. E.* to that between chapter 8 and chapter 9 of *E. N.* viii—1159 b. 25. Whether the writer of the *E. E.* found *E. N.* ix. 4-7 in *E. N.* viii between chapter 8 and chapter 9, or merely altered the arrangement in his own version, is a question which, in Spengel's opinion, cannot be answered.

The writer of the *M. M.*, without following exactly the order observed by the writer of the *E. E.*, does not, in Spengel's view, deviate seriously from it. Susemihl however (*Nic. Eth.* p. 203) is of opinion that the writer of the *M. M.* must have read ix. 4-6 where we find them, and not in viii, because the order of his discussion (*M. M.* 1210 b. 32-1212 b. 23) is partly that of the *E. E.* and partly that of our *E. N.*

Why and how ix. 4–6 stand where we find them, whether the writer or editor of the Book intentionally placed them there, or they came there by some accident, are questions which, I think, cannot now be answered, and therefore need not be asked. As a whole however Book ix has a distinctive character of its own, and I see no reason for doubting that it was written to follow Book viii. As Spengel (*Arist. Stud.* i. pp. 215 sqq.) says, ‘Das neunte Buch besteht aus Aporien: es sind Zweifel und Bedenken, die, nachdem die Erklärung von der φιλία im vorausgehenden Buche gegeben ist, entstehen können und gelöst werden müssen, wie etwa bei der διανομή.’

CHAPTER I.

ARGUMENT.

The proportion which equalises persons who are dissimilar and maintains friendship between them is the same as that which regulates the exchanges by which the shoemaker, weaver, and other members of the community receive due returns for their products. In commerce, however, the dissimilar products exchanged are all referred to a common measure—money: whereas the dissimilar services rendered by such ‘friends’ as lover and beloved have no common measure: hence recriminations, and dissolution of ‘friendship.’ The liking of such ‘friends’ is not for each other as persons, but for the stock of pleasure or profit which each has at his disposal; and if this comes to an end, or turns out to be different from what it was supposed to be—as when the musician found out that his patron had already paid him with the pleasure of expected payment—their friendship comes to an end.

Who ought to decide what is the worth of a service rendered, where no bargain has been made beforehand? The person who confers the service, or the person who receives it? The receiver surely, for the person who confers a service, without making a bargain, leaves the remuneration to the pleasure of the receiver. This is what Protagoras did: he let the pupil fix the amount of the fee: but in such matters some people like better the principle of ‘fixed fees.’ As for the teacher who begins by ‘receiving’ the fee, and then fails to fulfil the extravagant promises by which he induced his pupils to pay in advance—he naturally becomes the object of complaint: this is what the sophists have to do, for under no other system would people pay them anything for their knowledge. But those who confer benefits for the sake of the persons benefited (this is what they do in the friendship based on virtue), are, as we have said, never objects of complaint, and ought to get a return equivalent to their good intention, for

intention is the measure of true friendship and of virtue. The service rendered by a true teacher of philosophy must be estimated in the same way as that rendered by a true friend. It cannot be measured by the standard of money; honour cannot be weighed in the balance against it; but perhaps enough is done if the disciple gives in return what he can, as to the gods and to parents.

Where the service is rendered, not for the sake of the person to whom it is rendered, but in view of some return (which, however, has not been agreed upon beforehand), it is, of course, best that the return made should be one which both parties think adequate: failing unanimity on this point, it would seem to be not only necessary but fair that the receiver should fix the amount of the return, he being the only judge of how much benefit he has derived from the service: and this rule does not apply only in 'friendship,' for the price even of a thing that is bought is what the buyer will give for it: and in some states there is no legal recovery of debts—on the principle that if you begin by trusting a man you ought not to end by suing him.

When a service, then, is rendered without any arrangement as to the return, it is for the receiver to fix the amount of the return—the giver cannot be allowed to do so, for people put too high a value on the things which they give: but in fixing the amount the receiver must go, not by what he thinks the service worth now that he has received it, but by what he thought it worth before he received it: for people generally do not put the same value on a thing when they have it as they did when they wished to get it.

1168 b. 32. § 1. ἀνομοιοιδέσι] These 'heterogeneous friendships,' as Ramsauer points out, have not been previously referred to under this name. They are not the same as αἱ καθ' ὑπεροχὴν, but exist where the object of the association is not the same on both sides, one party seeking for instance pleasure, and the other money in return for pleasure provided. Cf. viii. 4. Ἰ μάλιστα δὲ καὶ ἐν τοῖτοι αἱ φιλίαι μένουσιν, ὅταν τὸ αὐτὸ γίνηται παρ' ἀλλήλων, οἷον ἡδονή, καὶ μὴ μόνον οὕτως ἀλλὰ καὶ ἀπὸ τοῦ αὐτοῦ, οἷον τοῖς εἰτραπέλοις, καὶ μὴ ἐς ἐραστῆ καὶ ἐρωμένῳ· οὐ γὰρ ἐπὶ τοῖς αὐτοῖς ἡδονταὶ οὗτοι, ἀλλ' ὁ μὲν ἐρᾷ ἐκείνον, ὁ δὲ θεραπευόμενος ὑπὸ τοῦ ἐραστοῦ. It is obvious that persons whom it would be impossible to distinguish as ὑπερέχων καὶ ὑπερεχόμενος may be ἀνομοιοιδεῖς φίλοι.

b. 38. καθάπερ εἴρηται] It has been said before (e.g. viii. 14. 3) that proportion equalises the difference between the superior and inferior, and so preserves friendship between them: but it has not been said (expressly at least) that it preserves friendship between those whose difference is not quantitative, but qualitative (ἀνομοιοιδεῖς). See Ramsauer *ad loc.* Grant's reference to viii. 13. 1 is thus hardly relevant.

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1164 a. 8. is right with συμβαίνει δὲ τὰ τοιαῦτα, ὅταν ὁ μὲν δι' ἡδονὴν ἐρῶν, ὁ δὲ διὰ τὸ χρήσιμον, εἴτα μήτε οὗτος πάνυ ἡδύς ἦ, μήτε ἐκεῖνος χρήσιμος.

a. 10. ἀλλὰ τὰ ὑπάρχοντα] Mich. Eph. has συμβαίνει . . . τῆς φιλίας διάλυσις . . . διὰ τὸ ἀπολιπεῖν τὸν μὲν ἐραστὴν τὰ χρήματα, ἐνίστε δὲ καὶ τὴν ἀκμήν, τὸν δ' ἐρώμενον τὸ κάλλος· οὐ γὰρ αὐτοὺς φησὶν ἐφίλων ὡς οἱ σπουδαῖοι ἀλλὰ τὰ ὑπάρχοντα αὐτοῖς· ταῦτα δ' ἦσαν τὸ κάλλος καὶ τὰ χρήματα οὐ μόνιμα ὄντα.

a. 12. ἡ δὲ τῶν ἡθῶν] Mich. Eph., the Paraph., Stahr., Rams., and Grant take this as equivalent to ἡ κατ' ἀρετὴν φιλία, or perfect friendship. Victorius however refers to viii. 4. 1, where, speaking of the instability of the friendship between ἐραστής and ἐρώμενος, Aristotle says πολλοὶ δ' αὐτὸ διαμένουσιν, εἴαν ἐκ τῆς συνηθείας τὸ φθὴ στέρξωσιν, ὁμοίθεις ὄντες. The words of Victorius are 'quod sequitur apud auctorem ἡ δὲ τῶν ἡθῶν καθ' αὐτὴν οὕσα μῆτις ita accipio ut pertineat ad eandem amicitiam declarandam qua juncti sunt inter se amator deliciaeque ipsius: usu enim venit aliquando ut ipsa quoque maneat, cum pura atque integra est: neque colitur propter explendam libidinem, aut fructum inde aliquem commodumque auferendum: sed propter morum ingeniique similitudinem: nam quod addidit nunc hoc a se antea dictum fuisse, intelligit locum eum in quo primum superiore in libro de ipsa praecepit: usus enim quoque illic est in aliis iisdem quibus hic verbis, quae sunt haec πολλοὶ δ' αὐτὸ κ.τ.λ. viii. 4. 1.' Zell takes the same view as Victorius, referring the words ἡ δὲ τῶν ἡθῶν κ.τ.λ. to the ἐρωτικὴ φιλία of the immediate context and quoting viii. 4. 1. 'Ἐρωτικὴ φιλία (as Victorius and Zell understand the present passage) is peculiarly unstable unless it happen that similarity of character (ἡθῆ whether good or indifferent) establishes a more lasting bond between the lovers.

Against this interpretation are the words καθ' αὐτὴν οὕσα, which can scarcely be anything but an abbreviated expression for ὅ ἢ (i. e. ἐν τῇ τῶν καθ' αὐτοὺς ἀγαθῶν) δι' αὐτοὺς φίλοι εἰσὶ: see *E. N.* viii. 3. 6—the passage, I take it, referred to here (ix. 1. 3) in the words καθάπερ εἴρηται. Of course ἡ τῶν ἡθῶν φιλία has, in any case, nothing to do with the ἡθικὴ φιλία of *E. N.* viii. 13. 5, which falls under the head of ἡ διὰ τὸ χρήσιμον.

a. 15. § 4. καθαρωδῶ] See the notes of Zell, Michelet, and Grant, for the story.

κακείνου γε χάριν ταῦτα δώσει] ἐκείνου is *ἐν* a. 20 and ταῦτα what 1184 a. 21. he has to offer in return: *ἐν γὰρ ἕκαστος δεῖται τούτων ἕνεκα δίδωσιν ἃ τυγχάνει κεκτημένος αὐτός* (Paraph.). The reading τὰ αὐτά (*O^b*, and an authority known to Mich. Eph.) is accepted by Michelet with the sense—‘he will be ready to give of his own an amount equal to that which he receives.’ Coraes reads τὰ αὐτοῦ—the conjecture of Muretus. The change of number (*ἐν—ἐκείνου*) hardly calls for notice in a writer like Aristotle: at any rate I cannot think that Fritzsche’s explanation adopted by Grant is satisfactory—‘*Pronomen ἐκείνου singulari numero ad priorem multitudinis numerum (ἐν δεόμενος τυγχάνει) refertur propterea quod una res, singulari desiderata occasione, exprimitur.*’ The passage viii. 3. 3 referred to by Fritzsche in illustration seems to me rather to be a good example of a change of number carelessly made without any reason.

§§ 5-9. τὴν ἀξίαν κ.τ.λ.] When a service has been rendered a. 22. without any previous *διομολογία*, or understanding between the parties respecting its value and the remuneration to be given in return for it, *διαφοραί* and *ἐγκλήματα* naturally arise. With whom, in such a case, does it rest to put an end to them by fixing the value or remuneration? With the recipient: for the other party cannot force a service (or whatever else), at his own price, on an unwilling recipient, and if (without an express *διομολογία*) he performs it, he evidently does so leaving the remuneration to be settled by the recipient. This is what Protagoras did; but what ordinary sophists do not venture to do. They even collect their fees in advance. It is to be carefully noted that, in these sections, Aristotle is speaking only of those cases in which no previous *διομολογία* exists. The *εὐεργεσία ἀνευ διομολογίας* of these sections may be compared with the *ἠθικὴ φιλία* of viii. 13. 7. When, in viii. 13. 11, Aristotle says generally that the standard of value in *ἡ διὰ τὸ χρήσιμον φιλία* is *ἡ τοῦ παθόντος ὠφέλεια*, he states the basis indeed on which the question of price must be discussed by *εὐεργέτης* and *παθών*, but does not of course mean it to be understood that the latter can (except in the absence of a *διομολογία*) fix the price of the *ὠφέλεια*. The unwillingness, due to various causes, of the prospective *εὐεργέτης* to perform the service has the effect of making the (prospective) *παθών* estimate the *ὠφέλεια* more highly. The unwillingness of the one to perform the service below a certain price, has as much to do with the result of the *διομολογία*, as

1184 a. 22. the unwillingness of the other to receive it above a certain price : or otherwise.—The *ᾠφέλεια* of the buyer is the ultimate standard of value, but the application of this standard to a particular case, resulting in the naming of a price, is not left to the buyer alone. If it were possible for him to fix the price as low as he liked, it would be possible for the seller to go on always selling at a loss. It is therefore only of *αἱ ἄνευ διομολογίας εἰργασίαι*, or of transactions falling under the head of *ἠθικὴ φιλία*, that Aristotle's answer to the question asked here at the beginning of § 5 applies.

a. 23. § 5. προἰεμένου . . . προλαβόντος] Zell thinks that *προλαβόντος* is simply equivalent to *λαβόντος* : but Coraes is right, I think, with τοῦ πρώτου λαβόντος, ἀντιδιασταλτικῶς πρὸς τὸν ἀντιλαμβάνοντα καὶ ἀπικομιζόμενον τὸ ὑπηρετηθῆν.

a. 24. Πρωταγόραν] Coraes, Michelet, and Stahr quote Plato, *Protag.* 328 B ἐπειδὴν γὰρ τις παρ' ἐμοῦ μύθη εἴαν μὲν βούληται, ἀποδίδωκεν ἢ ἡὸ πράττομαι ἀργύριον, εἴαν δὲ μὴ, ἐλθὼν εἰς κερὸν, ὁμόσας, ὅσου ἐν φῆ ἄρα εἶναι τὰ μαθήματα, τοσοῦτον κατέθηκεν. But perhaps the pressure exercised by means of this method was more considerable than Protagoras wished it to be thought.

a. 26. ἐν τοῖς τοιούτοις δ' ἐνίοις ἀρέσκει τὸ "μισθὸς δ' ἀνδρὶ"] Ramsauer brackets these words as out of place. The context in which the quotation occurs in the *Eth. Eud.* (H. 10. 1242 b. 34)—viz. where *πολιτικὴ φιλία*, i. e. ἡ τῶν πωλούντων καὶ ἄνουμένων, is discussed—he considers more natural. But if we remember what the *line* (Hesiod *ἔργ.* κ. ἡμ. 368) is in full, and what its context is, it will appear, I think, that Ramsauer is wrong in bracketing the words before us.

μισθὸς δ' ἀνδρὶ φίλῳ εἰρημένος ἄρκιος ἔστω,
καὶ τε κασιγνήτῳ γέλασας ἐπὶ μάρτυρα θέσθαι·
πίστεις δ' ἄρα ὁμῶς καὶ ἀπιστίαι ἔλεσαν ἀνδρας—

i. e. even with a friend, nay even with a brother, let there be no 'mere understandings'; let every contract be entered into ἐπὶ ῥητοῖς. This is the advice of Hesiod. After mentioning that Protagoras allowed his pupils to fix the fee, Aristotle proceeds to say that in the matter of fees to be paid for philosophical instruction (ἐν τοῖς τοιούτοις), some teachers (ἐνίοις) are of the opinion of Hesiod, that there should be a stated fee (to be paid after the instruction has been received), although the relation of teacher and pupil is one of friendship rather than of business.

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- 4 b. 1. τὴν ἀμοιβὴν τε ποιητέον κατὰ τὴν προαίρεσιν (αὕτη γὰρ τοῦ φίλου καὶ τῆς ἀρετῆς)] 'The return made must be for what the giver intended; for it is the intention which is the significant thing in a friend and in virtue.'
- b. 2. οὕτω δ' ἔοικε κ.τ.λ.] *sc.* ποιητέον εἶναι according to the commentators; but Ramsauer suspects the passage. As we shall see later, the highest friendship is of the nature of philosophical intercourse—a kind of Dialectic.
- b. 6. § 8. μὴ τοιαύτης] *i. e.* μὴ δι' αὐτοῦς.
ἐπὶ τινι] 'for some return'—*i. e.* not δι' αὐτοῦς, 'for the friends' sake.' The expression ἐπὶ τινι does not necessarily imply that the transaction is ἐπὶ ῥητοῖς, or founded on a definite *διομολογία*, as Mich. Eph. seems to take for granted—ἀλλ' ἐπὶ τινι, τουτέστι δι' ἀντίδοσιν καὶ ἀντενποιίαν τῆς διὰ χρημάτων τοῦτο γὰρ ἐστὶν ἢ δι' ὁμολογίας. An adequate return is expected by the giver, but no definite bargain has been made in the case which the section has in view—a case answering to the description of ἠθικὴ φιλία given in viii. 13. 7 ἢ δ' ἠθικὴ οἷα ἐπὶ ῥητοῖς, ἀλλ' ὡς φίλοι δωρεῖται ἢ ὀτιδήποτε ἄλλο· κομίζεσθαι δὲ ἐφ' ἑαυτὸν τὸ ἴσον ἢ πλεόν, ὡς οὐ δεδωκὼς ἀλλὰ χρήσας. There being no previous agreement, or *διομολογία*, the recipient, as an honest man, must try, if possible, to meet the expectations of the giver—*μάλιστα μὲν ἴσως κ.τ.λ.* b. 7; but if this be not possible, he has the matter in his own power, and must make what payment he thinks equivalent to the benefit received.
- b. 9. προέχοντα] = *προλαβόντος* of § 5.
- b. 12. καὶ γὰρ ἐν τοῖς ὀνίοις οὕτω φαίνεται γινόμενον] 'for even when a thing is offered for sale, this rule holds good'—*i. e.* the buyer fixes the price: *a fortiori*, then, in the cases just mentioned, where a more or less friendly gift or loan has been made ἐπὶ τινι, but *ἀνευ διομολογίας*, the receiver fixes the amount of the return. It is not necessary to think, with Ramsauer, of a thing being bought *ἀνευ διομολογίας*—this would surely be an unusual case—but rather of the 'higgling of the market,' by which a *διομολογία* as to price is arrived at. Where things are not offered for sale 'at fixed prices,' the buyer rather than the seller seems to 'fix the price,' when he beats down the seller. Again, at an auction the highest bidder seems to fix the price. The Paraph. and Mich. Eph. both seem to understand the reference to be to the 'higgling of the

market': the Paraphrast has καὶ ἐν τοῖς ὠνίοις οὕτω φαίνεται γινόμενον 1164 b. 12. ὁ γὰρ ὠνούμενος τάττει τὴν τιμὴν καὶ μετρεῖ τῇ ἑαυτοῦ ὠφελείᾳ ἢ τῇ ἡδονῇ, καὶ τοσοῦτου ἄξιον εἶναι λέγει τὸ ζητούμενον ὠνιον: and Mich. Eph. has—ὁ γὰρ πιπράσκων πλέον αἰεὶ ζητεῖ τῆς ἀξίας, ὁ δὲ ὠνούμενος τοσοῦτον δίδωσιν ὅσον ἐν οἴηται γενέσθαι τὴν ἀπὸ τοῦ ὠνίου ὠφέλειαν.

§ 9. ἐνιαχοῦ τ' εἰσὶ νόμοι τῶν ἐκουσίων συμβολαίων δίκας μὴ εἶναι b. 13. κ.τ.λ.] Having instanced the 'higgling of the market' to show how much power rests with the 'receiver' even as prospective *buyer*, Aristotle now adds that in some states the law declines to interfere with him as *debtor*—it may be even as fraudulent debtor.

The expression ἐκούσια συμβόλαια (*cf.* Plato, *Rep.* 556 A) seems to be equivalent to the ἐκούσια συναλλάγματα of *E. N.* v. 2. 13, viz. πρᾶσις, ὠνή, δανισμός, κ.τ.λ., with this difference perhaps that it calls special attention to *credit* given in these transactions. In Athenian law συμβόλαια (plur.) is a *bond* or *covenant*—more particularly with regard to money lent. Where credit was given, even ἐπὶ ῥητοῖς, it would appear from this and the parallel passage viii. 13. 6 (where see note), that in some states there was no legal remedy against one who declined to fulfil the contract. See Newman's notes on *Pol.* 1263 b. 21 and 1267 b. 37, where he quotes Strabo 702—δίκην δὲ μὴ εἶναι (among certain Indians) πλὴν φόνου καὶ ὕβρεως· οὐκ ἐπ' αὐτῷ γὰρ τὸ μὴ παθεῖν ταῦτα, τὰ δ' ἐν τοῖς συμβολαίοις ἐπ' αὐτῷ ἐκάστω, ὥστε ἀνέχεσθαι δεῖ εἴαν τις παραβῇ τὴν πίστιν, ἀλλὰ καὶ προσέχειν ὄφρ' πιστευτίον, καὶ μὴ δικῶν πληροῦν τὴν πόλιν.

ᾧ γὰρ . . . b. 20 λαμβάνοντες] Ramsauer regards these words as b. 15. out of place here, and in themselves confused, and brackets them: νόμος, οἱ νομοθέτης (suggested by Mich. Eph.), is scarcely satisfactory, he thinks, as subject of οἴεται: and the comparison begun by δικαιότερον is not completed—*i. e.* the reason for the failure of the giver to make a just estimate of the value of the benefaction is indeed stated, but evidently the writer intended to go on to point out that the receiver's estimate is also prejudiced, though not to the same extent as the giver's, for he adds ἀλλ' ὁμοῦ κ.τ.λ. In addition to these points noted by Ramsauer, I would call attention to the point that οἱ ἔχοντες in the suspected passage is used of οἱ προΐεμενοι, whereas in § 8 προέχοντα is the receiver, and

1164 b. 15. ἔχοντι and ἔχειν at the end of the present § also refer to the receiver.

If the passage suspected by Ramsauer be allowed to stand as it is, ἀλλ' ὁμως will mean, I suppose, 'notwithstanding the extravagant value attached by the giver to his gift, it is the receiver's estimate that he has after all to accept as final.'

b. 20. δεῖ δ' ἴσως κ.τ.λ.] The statement that the receiver, in estimating the value of a service, must keep in view the distinction between ἔχοντι and πρὶν ἔχειν shows that the case here contemplated is one in which the service has already been rendered without previous διομολογία, and it devolves upon the receiver alone to determine as an honest man what return he will make. Ramsauer's suggestion to read the sentence τὰ πολλὰ γὰρ οὐ τοῦ ἴσου τιμῶν οἱ ἔχοντες καὶ οἱ βουλόμενοι λαβεῖν after εἶμα b. 21 seems to me an excellent one, and enables us to give οἱ ἔχοντες its proper meaning, which, as I have pointed out, we cannot give it where it now stands. I offer the following rearrangement, which not only allows us consistently to refer ἔχοντι, ἔχειν, and οἱ ἔχοντες to the receiver, but meets Ramsauer's difficulty about δικαιότερον, and places ἀλλ' ὁμως where its force is felt:—ὃ γὰρ ἐπιτρέφθη, τοῦτον οἶται δικαιότερον τάξαι τοῦ ἐπιτρέψαντος· τὰ γὰρ αἰεὶ καὶ ἐν διδασίᾳ ἑκάστοις φαίνεται πολλοῦ ἀξία· δεῖ δ' ἴσως οὐ τοσοῦτον τιμῶν ὅσον ἔχοντι φαίνεται ἀξίον, ἀλλ' ὅσον πρὶν ἔχειν εἶμα τὰ πολλὰ γὰρ οὐ τοῦ ἴσου τιμῶν οἱ ἔχοντες καὶ οἱ βουλόμενοι λαβεῖν· ἀλλ' ὁμοῖα ἢ ἀμοιβὴ γίνεται πρὸς τοσοῦτον ὅσον ἂν τάττωσιν οἱ λαμβάνοντες. The difficulty of finding a subject for οἶται, points, I think, to a lacuna between ἐκοινώνησεν and ὃ γὰρ b. 15.

CHAPTER II.

ARGUMENT.

The following also are difficult questions.—Ought a man always to give the preference to his father, and obey him in all things? Or ought he, when sick, to obey his doctor rather than his father, and, in electing a general, vote for the candidate who has military experience? And again—should one do a service to a friend rather than to a good man? Should one recompense a benefactor

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the form in which some of them are presented reminds one of the Debating Society. They are cases with which an honest man might find himself confronted—cases in which he has to choose between two courses of conduct, each of which alternately ‘common sense’ presents as a ‘duty’—if it seems right to choose the one, it then seems wrong not to choose the other.

Common sense takes out of their real context certain points of view, presented by imagination, and recommended to the attention by feeling, and makes them into absolute and self-subsistent ‘entities,’ incapable, naturally, of reconciliation as parts of a rationally consistent system. To attempt to solve for himself ‘the problems of casuistry’ from the level of ‘common sense’ can accordingly only weaken the moral nature of the man who attempts it. He has to believe in ‘two duties’ in the same circumstances, to one of which he must needs be unfaithful. Haunted by the thought of unfaithfulness to a ‘duty,’ every time he is forced to make a choice in circumstances of moral perplexity he does violence to an honestly entertained moral sentiment, and brings himself gradually nearer a point at which it is no longer doubtful that his decisions have become dishonest.

‘The problems of Casuistry’ are only for the man who has risen above ‘common sense’ to the height of reason; who can see life clearly as a single organic whole. Of course the practical difficulties of distinguishing between the right and the wrong, and of choosing the right, remain for such a man; but the fallacy of the ‘two duties in the same circumstances’—of the moral *imperium in imperio*—no longer imposes upon him. He now perceives that there can be only the one duty, however hard to find, in the one set of circumstances. His attitude towards the perplexities of life is a resolute and objective one. He is not paralysed by the thought that, when he does what is right, he is also doing what is wrong. His philosophy has not made life less perplexing in detail, but it has given him the great idea of the organic unity of the world—an idea which inspires him with fortitude and resignation. It is the clearness with which Aristotle presents life as a rational whole that makes the discussion of ‘the problems of Casuistry’ so satisfactory in his system. *ἑρραρία* and *πίθος* break Duty into a multitude of ‘cases of conscience’—Life, into a chaos of separate and repugnant items, making it ‘a series of episodes, like a bad play.’ The perplexities of ‘Casuistry’ represent the work of

φαντασία and πάθος. The resolution of these perplexities is the work of Reason. On the relation of Philosophy to Casuistry, see Green's *Prolegomena*, §§ 314-328.

§ 2. τῷ καλῷ καὶ ἀναγκαίῳ] τῷ καλῷ marks the claims of the 1164 b. 29. Form or Ideal which the good man strives to realize; τῷ ἀναγκαίῳ, the limitations imposed upon him by the *matter* of his circumstances. 'For the different cases differ in all sorts of ways, according to the importance or unimportance, the nobility or necessity of the act' (Peters).

§ 4. ἀπαιτοῦντι δέ] τὰ λύτρα (Coraes). 1165 a. 1.

§ 5. προὔπαρχήν] 'the primary obligation' (Grant). a. 5.

δ μὲν . . . τῷ δέ] Both refer to the same person, viewed first as a. 6. προϊέμενος, and then as ἀντιλαμβάνων.

οὐκ ἴσον τὸ ἀξίωμα] 'the claim is not equal' (Grant): cf. Mich. a. 10. Eph.—οὐδὲ γὰρ ἴσον τὸ ἀξίωμα, ἀλλὰ τὸν μὲν ποιητὸν δανείζειν ἐπιεικεῖ ἀξίον, τὸν δ' ἐπιεικῆ τὰ ἴσα καὶ τὰ αὐτὰ πρὸς τὸν μοχθητὸν ποιεῖν οὐδεὶς ἀν ἀξιώσειε. Victorius has—Non est par postulatum.

οἴονται] Coraes reads οἶται, which the Paraph. seems to support a. 11. with—εἴτε τοίνυν ἀληθῆ περὶ τοῦ μοχθηροῦ νομίζει ὁ ἀγαθός, ὡς καὶ τοῦτο μοχθηρὸς ἔσται, καὶ οὐκ ἀποδώσει, εἰκότα ποιῆ μὴ δανείζων· εἴτε μὴ οὕτως ἔχει, οἶται δέ, καὶ διὰ τοῦτο οὐκ ἀμείβεται τοῖς ἴσοις, καὶ οὕτως οὐ πόρρω ποιῆ τοῦ δικαίου. Coraes also reads δόξειεν with Γ, Mb, Ob, Ald., instead of δόξαιεν given by Kb, Lb, Cambr., the subject of οἶται and δόξειεν being the σπουδαῖος. There can be no doubt, however, that if we read οἴονται and δόξαιεν, their real subject is still the σπουδαῖος, not both parties. Ramsauer sees this, for on the words οὐκ ἀν δόξαιεν ἄτοπα ποιεῖν he has—'sc. οἱ ἐνίοτε τὴν προὔπαρχήν οὐκ ἀμειβόμενοι.' The change from the singular ἐλπίζει to the plural οἴονται need not surprise us in Aristotle.

§ 6. πολλάκις] i. 3. 1, ii. 2. 3. a. 12.

τῷ Διί] Grant refers to v. 7. 1. a. 15.

§ 7. κήδη] 'funerals.' Mich. Eph. is certainly wrong with κήδη a. 20. δ' εἰσι τὰ πρὸ τοῦ γάμου συναλλάγματα. Why, as Michelet asks, if this is the meaning, are τὰ κήδη mentioned separately from and after

1165 a. 20. the γάμοι? According to the *Ind. Arist.* the word occurs only here in Aristotle.

a. 22. § 8. τροφῆς . . . γονεῦσι . . . ἐπαρκεῖν] The genitive is partitive—'to supply one's parents with their due share of sustenance.' Zell and Coraes, following the Paraph., conjecture τροφήν. The regular construction of ἐπαρκεῖν is dat. of the person and acc. of the thing. The dat. of the thing however occurs. Perhaps we should read τροφή.

a. 24. τιμήν] sc. ἀπονεμητέον.

a. 27. § 9.] Fritzsche, Grant, and Ramsauer quote Plato, *Rep.* 425 A σιγὰς τε τῶν νεωτέρων παρὰ πρεσβυτέροις, ὡς πρέπει, καὶ κατακλίσεις καὶ ὑπαναστάσεις.

a. 32. συγκρίνειν τὰ ἐκάστοις ὑπάρχοντα] 'to assign to each what is properly due on the ground of relationship, goodness, or usefulness.'

a. 33. χρῆσιν] Williams very plausibly translates this by 'intimacy'—cf. Latin *usus*; but the commentators are probably right with 'usefulness': χρῆσις is not quoted in the *Ind. Arist.* in the sense of 'intimacy.'

a. 34. § 10. ἡ σύγκρισις] So Bywater after Ruelle (*Rev. de Phil.* 12, p. 175), for the κρίσις of the MSS. 'The question,' says Bywater (*Contributions*, p. 62), 'here is not of "judgment" or "distinction" or any thing of that sort, but rather of combining the persons and their respective dues'—and he quotes *de Gen. et Corr.* 329 b. 26 for the usage, and compares σύγκρισις here with σύζευξις in *E. N.* v. 3. 12.

CHAPTER III.

ARGUMENT.

Another difficult question is about the dissolution of friendship with those who do not remain the same.

Where friendship is for profit or pleasure, of course it is quite natural that it should be broken off when the profit or pleasure ceases: no fault can be found with the friend who then breaks it off, unless he has been pretending to like the

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- 1165 b. 15. with a text before him like Bekker's, accidentally omitted *οὔτε δι φιλοπόνηρον*, because of the similarity of these words to *οὔτε δι φιλητέον πονηρόν* which he had already transcribed. They are very similar; and a reason for their similarity may be given as follows—The original text being *ἀρ' ἔτι φιλητέον; ἢ οὐ δυνατόν, εἴπερ μὴ πῶ φιλητόν ἀλλὰ τὰγαθόν, οὐδὲ δεῖ; φιλοπόνηρον γάρ κ.τ.λ.*, an early blunder repeated the words *οὐδὲ δεῖ φιλοπόνηρον*. The blunder was then rationalised by the alteration of the first member of the dittograph into *οὔτε δὲ φιλ[ητέ]ο[ν] πονηρόν*, and of *οὐδέ* in the second into *οὔτε*. The scribe of K^b, with this rationalised dittograph before him (as we have it in Bekker's text), was led by the similarity between *οὔτε δὲ φιλητέον πονηρόν* and *οὔτε δεῖ φιλοπόνηρον* accidentally to omit the latter. Fritzsche omits *οὔτε δὲ φιλητέον πονηρόν οὔτε δι*, supposing that these words represent two glosses on *φιλοπόνηρον γάρ οὐ χρὴ εἶναι*, viz. *οὐ φιλητέον πονηρόν* and *οὐ δεῖ φιλεῖν πονηρόν*.
- b. 16. *φιλοπόνηρον*] Zell and Coraes quote Theophrastus, *Char.* 14 (29) *περὶ φιλοπονηρίας. καὶ τὸ ὄλον φιλοπονηρία ἀδελφή ἐστὶ τῆς παρησίας καὶ ἀληθές ἐστὶ τὸ τῆς παρομιίας τὸ ὅμοιον πρὸς τὸ ὅμοιον πορεύεσθαι.*
- b. 21. *τῷ τοιούτῳ*] *τούτῳ ἢ τοιούτῳ* is the reading adopted by Coraes, Fritzsche, and Susemihl, and found in Par. 1417, corr.^s K^b, Cambr., and γρ. O^b. *Τούτῳ ἢ τοιούτῳ* is the reading of K^b, M^b, B^s, B^s, γ, Ald. Bekker's and Bywater's *τῷ τοιούτῳ* is the reading of L^b, O^b, CCC, and B¹. See Bywater's *Contributions*, p. 63.
- b. 29. § 4. *οὐδὲ γὰρ περὶ ἀλλήλους ταῦθ' ὑπάρξει αὐτοῖς*] i. e. *τὸ ἀρέσκεσθαι τοῖς αὐτοῖς*, &c. 'for not even in regard to each other's character will their tastes agree' (Peters).
- b. 31. *εἴρηται*] *Cf.* viii. 5. 3, and viii. 7. 4.
- § 5. *ἀρ' οὖν οὐθὲν ἀλλοιότερον κ.τ.λ.*] 'ought he then to place himself in no other relation towards him than towards one who had never been his friend?'

CHAPTER IV.

ARGUMENT.

The characteristic marks of our friendship for others seem to be copies of those which belong to the feelings with which we regard ourselves. The marks popularly recognised as characteristic of our friendship for others are that we wish and try to effect the good of our friends, or what we think to be their good—that we wish them to exist for their own sakes (this is what mothers wish for their children, and friends who have had a difference wish for each other)—that we spend our time with them and choose the same things as they do, sympathising with their joys and sorrows (as, again, mothers especially do as regards their children). Now these are the marks which characterise the feelings of the good man towards himself, and the feelings of other men towards themselves, in so far as they suppose themselves to be good—for the good man, or his virtue, as we have seen, is always the standard. The good man is in concord with himself, and seeks after the same things with all parts of his soul. He wishes and tries to effect his own good for his own sake—that is, for the sake of the rational part of his nature: he also wishes to exist, and continue in existence, for to him existence is a good thing—that is, his own existence within the limits of human nature, for he does not wish to leave his old self behind, and become another being—not even God with all the good which God as God possesses. Such a man wishes to spend his life with himself: for what could be more pleasant! his life is full of happy memories and good hopes: his mind is richly stored with things worth thinking about. Moreover, he sympathises to the full with his own pains and pleasures. The same things always give him pain, and the same things always give him pleasure, without exception: for he never, we may say, feels regret.

Such, then, being the good man's relation to himself, his relation to his friend—his other self—will be similar. Whether his relation to himself is 'friendship' is a question which need not be discussed at present: thus much however may be said, that it seems to be friendship in so far as it has two or more of the characteristic marks of friendship just mentioned. Also, the expression, 'He loves his friend as himself'—meaning that his friendship for him is very great—seems to imply that a man can be his own 'friend.'

The characteristic marks of friendship which have been mentioned seem to belong even to the feelings with which men who are bad regard themselves; only, however, in so far as such men are pleased with themselves and think themselves good. The feelings with which those who are so utterly bad as not to be able to think themselves good regard themselves have certainly none of the characteristics of friendship; and, perhaps we ought to say, even the feelings of those who are bad without being utterly bad are destitute of these characteristics; for such men are at variance with themselves; their desires and wishes

conflict like those of the incontinent: instead of that which they recognise as good, they choose that which is pleasant and brings harm: or through cowardice and sloth they hold aloof from doing what they think right; and sometimes the thought of the evil deeds they have done, and the detestation in which they are held for their vice, make them flee life and destroy themselves. Also, the wicked seek associates, fleeing from themselves. When they are by themselves they remember and look forward to much that is disagreeable which they do not think about when they are with others. There is nothing in them to attract friendship, and so they have no friendly feelings towards themselves. They do not enter in a friendly way even into their own joys and sorrows. Their souls are broken up into factions; one part is grieved because it cannot get something, and another part is glad thereof: they are soon sorry that they have been glad: they are full of regrets. This is the state of the wicked—surely a wretched state: it behoves us therefore to flee wickedness, and try with all our might to be good, and so become friends to ourselves and others.

[See *Introductory Note* to Book ix for the relation of Chapters 4-6 to the rest of the Book.]

1166 a. 1. §§ 1, 2.] Five φιλικά, or characteristics of Friendship, are enumerated in § 1, all of which are to be found in the good man's relations to himself, § 2. These are—

1. τὸ βούλεσθαι καὶ πράττειν τὰγαθὰ ἢ τὰ φαινόμενα ἐκείνου ἕνεκα.
2. τὸ βούλεσθαι εἶναι καὶ ζῆν τὸν φίλον αὐτοῦ χάριν.
3. τὸ συνδιάγειν.
4. τὸ τὰ αὐτὰ αἰρεῖσθαι.
5. τὸ συναλγεῖν καὶ συγχαίρειν τῷ φίλῳ.

The good man (§§ 3-5) (1) wishes good to himself for his own sake—*i. e.* for the sake of his Reason which is himself; (2) he wishes his own continued existence; (3) he dwells with himself in the pleasant memories of the past, and the good hopes of the future; (4) he is of one mind, always seeking the same things with all parts of his soul; and (5) the same things are always distasteful to him, and the same things pleasant; he does not now fail to sympathise with feelings which he entertained then; he has no cause for repenting. Bad men on the other hand (§§ 8-10) flee from themselves, even to the length of suicide. Their souls are full of disorder and regrets. As Eudemus says (*E. E. H.* 6. 1240 b. 16, a chapter to be read in connexion with the chapter before us)—ὁ γε μοχθηρὸς οὐχ εἰς ἀλλὰ πολλοί, καὶ τῆς αὐτῆς ἡμέρας ἕτραπε καὶ ἔμπληκτος (unstable).

These feelings, then, with which the good man regards himself

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1106 a. 1. writes (ix. 4. 1) τὰ φιλικὰ δὲ τὰ πρὸς τοὺς πέλας, καὶ οἷς οἱ φιλίαι ὀρίζονται, ἔπειτα ἐκ τῶν πρὸς ἑαυτὸν ἐληλυθέναι. Just as the State is said in the *Politics* to be logically or metaphysically prior to the individual, though chronologically subsequent, so here Reason is represented as prior to the State itself—the harmony of the rational soul within itself is represented as the source of those friendly relations which bind men together in the State. This is the logical or metaphysical, not the chronological order: and Coraes is, I think, much mistaken when, on the strength of this passage, he ascribes to Aristotle the view which derives the altruistic feelings in time from egoistic feelings—ὄλον δὲ τοῦτο τὸ κεφάλαιον τῶν ἀριστα πεφιλοσοφημένων ἐστὶ περιέχει γὰρ ἐν συντόμῳ τὰ τοῖς νεωτέροις τῶν φιλοσόφων διὰ μακρῶν τεπραγματευμένα περὶ τῆς λεγομένης πρὸς τοὺς ὁμοίους συμπαθείας. ἐκ τῆς περὶ ἑαυτὸν γὰρ φιλικῆς διαθέσεως ἢ φιλαυτίας, ὡς ἀπὸ πηγῆς, ἐξέρχεται λέγει τὴν πρὸς τοὺς ἄλλους φιλίαν. Here, as I have said, Coraes is much mistaken. Aristotle is not concerned, in this chapter, with the Natural History of φιλία. This is one of the most metaphysical contexts in the whole of his writings. He insists exclusively on the metaphysical priority of τὰ πρὸς ἑαυτὸν το τὰ φιλικὰ τὰ πρὸς τοὺς πέλας, because he wishes us to regard the Friendship of Good Men towards each other as the *mise en scène* of Reason. To know oneself, to be able to contemplate with the eye of Reason the System of Human Nature, and, in contemplating it, to maintain it as καλόν in the midst of the ὕλη of our passions and necessities, is Happiness or the Chief Good. But how shall a man 'know himself'? Only by seeing himself in his friends—*i. e.* by having friends towards whom he can act, and so realise himself; for he is what he is to his friends. As Eudemus puts it (*E. E. N.* 12. 1245 b. 18) ἡμῖν μὲν τὸ εὖ καθ' ἕτερον, ἑκάστῳ δὲ (*i. e.* θεῶ) αὐτὸς αὐτοῦ τὸ εὖ ἐστίν. It is in strict conformity therefore with the metaphysical basis of his ethical philosophy and in the interest of the development of his ethical philosophy on that basis, that Aristotle here derives τὰ φιλικὰ τὰ πρὸς τοὺς φίλους from τὰ πρὸς ἑαυτὸν.

§ 1. τὰ πρὸς τοὺς πέλας] Bywater's reading for τὰ πρὸς τοὺς φίλους. These words are omitted by Spengel (*Arist. Stud.* i. 217), after Muretus and Scaliger, as superfluous. It seems to me that the antithesis to ἐκ τῶν πρὸς ἑαυτὸν requires us to retain them. I do not agree with Ramsauer, whose note on ἐκ τῶν πρὸς ἑαυτὸν is—'ne addas

cogitatione φιλικῶν. Rei prima sedes τὰ πρὸς ἑαυτὸν dicuntur esse: 1166 a. 1. nomina a duorum societate petita sunt.' Surely we ought to supply φιλικῶν here—*cf.* ix. 4. 10 οὕτω γὰρ καὶ πρὸς ἑαυτὸν φιλικῶς ἂν ἔχοι καὶ ἑτέρῳ φίλος γένοιτο.

καὶ οἷς] Spengel (*Arist. Studien* i. 217) suggests οἷς καί.

οἱ προσκεκρουκότες] 'friends who have had a difference' (Peters), a. 6. but still are well disposed to each other at a distance. Mich. Eph. has ἀλλὰ καὶ τῶν φίλων, φησί, οἱ προσκεκρουκότες, καίπερ μηδὲ συζῶντες, μηδὲ συνδημερεύοντες, μηδὲ ἀλλήλοις συνόντες διὰ τὴν γεγνηκυῖαν διαφορὰν καὶ πρόσκρουσιν, καὶ οὗτοι τοιοῦτως ἔχοντες βούλονται ἀλλήλους καὶ ζῆν καὶ καλῶς διάγειν. Ramsauer regards the words καὶ τῶν φίλων οἱ προσκεκρουκότες as spurious, on the ground that οἱ προσκεκρουκότες, who have omitted that which is most characteristic of friendship, viz. τὸ συζῆν, can hardly be adduced in support of a definition of friendship—'vereor ne absurdum sit, ad probandam aliquam amici definitionem eos laudare qui τὸ μάλιστα φιλικόν (τὸ συζῆν) sane parum amanter omiserint et εὔνοι, potius quam amici, appellandi sint.' To this it may be replied that Aristotle is here immediately concerned with only *one aspect* of friendship, viz. τὸ βούλεσθαι εἶναι καὶ ζῆν τὸν φίλον αὐτοῦ χάριν, and οἱ προσκεκρουκότες are specially fitted to illustrate this one aspect, which they, as it were, isolate from the other aspects for separate examination. It is not implied that οἱ προσκεκρουκότες are perfect friends, any more than that the relation of a mother to her young child (to which Ramsauer does not object as an illustration) is, in the absence of ἀντιφιλησις, perfect friendship.

καὶ τὴν φιλίαν] ἀπὸ τούτων δὲ καὶ ὁ τῆς φιλίας ὀρισμός, ἀπὸ τοῦ a. 9. ὀρισμοῦ τῶν ἐχόντων· καὶ ὁ ὀρισμός τοῦ σώφρονος τὸν τῆς σωφροσύνης ὀρισμὸν παρέχει (Paragraph). *Cf.* E. N. vi. 5. 1 περὶ δὲ φρονήσεως οὕτως ἂν λάβοιμεν, θεωρήσαντες τίνας λέγομεν τοὺς φρονίμους.

§ 2. ἡ τοιοῦτοι ὑπολαμβάνουσιν εἶναι] The effect of this false a. 11. ὑπόληψις is explained below in § 7; they think that they are good, and so are pleased with themselves—φαίνεται δὲ τὰ εἰρημῆνα (i. e. τὰ φιλικά) καὶ τοῖς πολλοῖς ὑπάρχειν, καίπερ οὔσι φαύλοις. ἄρ' οὖν ἡ τ' ἀρέσκουσιν ἑαυτοῖς καὶ ὑπολαμβάνουσιν ἐπικεικῆς εἶναι, ταύτη μετέχουσιν αὐτῶν; it is only by deceiving himself into the belief that his life has the unity of the good man's, that a bad man can feel on 'friendly terms' with himself. I think that Bywater's δέ, line 12, for γάρ is an improvement! see *Contrib.* p. 63.

1166 a. 12. καθάπερ εἴρηται] *e.g.* iii. 4. §§ 4, 5.

ἐκάστων] Bywater's reading after K^b for Bekker's ἐκάστῳ. This is easier than Spengel's conjecture ἐκάστου neut., for which he quotes (*Arist. Stud.* i. 217) iii. 4. 5 ὁ σπουδαῖος τῷ ἀληθείᾳ ἐν ἐκάστῳ ὁρᾶν, ὡσπερ κανὼν καὶ μέτρον αὐτῶν ὄν, and x. 5. 10 εἰ δὲ τοῦτο καλῶς λέγεται, καθάπερ δοκεῖ, καὶ ἔστιν ἐκάστου μέτρον ἡ ἀρετὴ καὶ ὁ ἀγαθός.

a. 14. § 3. κατὰ πᾶσαν τὴν ψυχὴν] τῶν αὐτῶν ὁρέγεται κατὰ τε λογικῆν ψυχὴν καὶ κατὰ τὴν ἄλογον· καὶ οὐ καθάπερ ὁ ἀκρατὴς τᾶσασι ζῆνι καὶ τὸ παθητικὸν αὐτῷ τῷ λογιστικῷ πολεμεῖ (Paraph.). *Cf.* *E. N.* i. 13. §§ 16, 17 καὶ ἐν τῇ ψυχῇ νομιστέον εἶναί τι παρὰ τὸν λόγον, ἐσωτικώμενος τοῦτο καὶ ἀντιβαῖνον . . . λόγου δὲ καὶ τοῦτο φαίνεται μετέχειν . . . πειθερχέου γοῦν τῷ λόγῳ τὸ τοῦ ἐγκρατοῦς—ἔτι δ' ἴσως εὐηκοώτερόν ἐστι τὸ τοῦ σώφρονος καὶ ἀνδρείου· πάντα γὰρ ὁμοφρονεῖ τῷ λόγῳ.

Τὸ τῶν αὐτῶν ὁρέγεσθαι κατὰ πᾶσαν τὴν ψυχὴν ἰς σπουδαία προαίρεσις—*cf.* *E. N.* vi. 2. 2 ὡστ' ἐπειδὴ ἡ ἠθικὴ ἀρετὴ εἴς τι προαιρητική, ἢ δὲ προαίρεσις ὄρεξις βουλευτική, δεῖ διὰ ταῦτα τὸν τε λόγον ἀληθῆ εἶναι καὶ τὴν ὄρεξιν ὀρθήν, εἴπερ ἡ προαίρεσις σπουδαία, καὶ τὰ αὐτὰ τὸν μὲν φέρει, τὴν δὲ διώκειν. αὕτη μὲν οὖν ἡ διάνοια καὶ ἡ ἀλήθεια πρακτική.

ψυχὴν καὶ βούλεται δὴ] Rams. and Susemihl put a full stop after ψυχὴν instead of Bekker's comma, and write δὲ for δέ. This seems right. Having implied that the good man's προαίρεσις is σπουδαία, Aristotle proceeds (καὶ—δέ) to describe his βούλησις. His ὄρεξεις being κατὰ τὸν ὀρθὸν λόγον, the λόγος will be ὀρθός in relation to a rationally apprehended end which he wishes for (βούλεται). This rationally apprehended end which the good man wishes for is the perfection of his own nature as an organic whole—or as a rational system (τὸ διανοητικόν), *i.e.* as a system of harmonious relations not liable to be disturbed by passion. The good man, as the Paraph. expresses it, τὴν θεωρίαν ἔχει τοῦ τελοῦ τῶν ἐαυτοῦ πράξεων, whereas the bad man has only φαῦλη ἡδονή.

a. 15. τάγαθὰ καὶ τὰ φαινόμενα] Explained by viii. 2. 2 φιλεῖ δ' ἕσται οὐ τὸ ὄν αὐτῷ ἀγαθόν ἀλλὰ τὸ φαινόμενον. διοίσει δ' οὐδέν· ἔσται γὰρ τὸ φιλητὸν φαινόμενον. In the case of the good man, however, the difference between τὸ ἀγαθόν and τὸ φαινόμενον ἀγαθόν is merely a formal one; for ἐν ἐκάστοις τᾶληθις αὐτῷ φαίνεται (*E. N.* iii. 4. 4).

(τοῦ γὰρ ἀγαθοῦ τάγαθόν διαπονεῖν)] added to explain καὶ κρῖναι. The good man does not stop at βούλησις, but goes on to πράξει.

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1100 a. 10. man's 'relations to himself.' I transcribe Stahr's translation, as fairly representing the interpretation given by those commentators (the majority) who do not make the words *ἔχει γὰρ καὶ νῦν ὁ θεὸς τὰγαθόν* parenthetical, but refer *ὡς ὅτι ποτ' ἐστίν* to *ὁ θεός*.—'Ein Jeder wünscht sich aber das, was für ihn ein Gut ist; wird er aber ein Anderer, so wird kein Mensch wünschen, dass das neue, so entstandene Wesen noch Alles das fortbehalte, was es in seinem früheren Zustande besass. Freilich hat die Gottheit auch heute noch das absolut Gute in sich, aber eben nur darum, weil sie ewig ist, was sie ihrem Wesen nach ist; dies Wesen ist für Jeden das denkende, entweder schlechthin oder doch vorzugsweise.'

Grant and Bywater (see Bywater's text as quoted at the head of this note) differ from other commentators in making the words *ἔχει γὰρ καὶ νῦν ὁ θεὸς τὰγαθόν* parenthetical, and referring *ἀλλ' ὡς ὅτι ποτ' ἐστίν*, not to *ὁ θεός*, but to *ἕκαστος*. See Grant's note. Susemihl prints the passage thus—*ἕκαστος δ' ἑαυτῷ βούλεται τὰγαθὰ, γινόμενος δ' ἄλλος οὐδεὶς αἰρεῖται πάντ' ἔχειν ἐκεῖνο τὸ γινόμενον· ἔχει γὰρ καὶ νῦν ὁ θεὸς τὰγαθόν, ἀλλ' ὡς ὅτι ποτ' ἐστίν. δόξειε δ' ἂν τὸ νοῦν ἕκαστος εἶναι, ἢ μάλιστα.*

If we are to assume, with Susemihl and Ramsauer, that the passage is an interpolation, we must, at the same time, recognise it (punctuated as in Susemihl's text) as the work of an 'interpolator' who understood well the metaphysical drift of the context which he thus ventured to interrupt in its even flow. We cannot help seeing that the present context, with its *τῶν τε γὰρ πεπραγμένων ἐπιτερπεῖς αἱ μνήμαι, καὶ τῶν μελλόντων ἐλπίδες ἀγαθαί, αἱ τοιαῦται δ' ἡδεῖαι* (§ 5), and its *θεωρημάτων δ' εὐπορεῖ τῇ διανοίᾳ* (§ 5), reminds this 'interpolator' of other descriptions of man's *ἀρίστη διαγωγή*, in which its shortness, and yet immeasurable worth, are pressed on our notice by the comparison with it of the life of God: perhaps we may suppose that *Mel. A. 7* (1072 b. 14–18), with its *διαγωγή δ' ἐστίν οἷα ἡ ἀρίστη μικρὸν χρόνον ἡμῖν· οὕτως γὰρ αἰεὶ ἐκεῖνο (ἡμῖν μὲν γὰρ ἀδύνατον), ἐπεὶ καὶ ἡδονὴ ἢ ἐνέργεια τούτου· καὶ διὰ τοῦτο ἐγγύγορσι αἰσθησις νόησις ἡδιστον, ἐλπίδες δὲ καὶ μνήμαι διὰ ταῦτα*—was specially in his mind, and that his 'interpolation' means that 'every man *wishes* good things for himself: for himself, as he is, not as having become another being: *wishes*—God, indeed, now and for ever *possesses* the good, but possesses it as being what He is.' The two points which the comparison of man's estate with God's brings out elsewhere (e.g. in *Mel. A. 7*) would thus appear to be

brought out in this 'interpolation':—(1) Man touches the good 1166 a. 19. in so far as he is a self-identical being, *i.e.* rational; and God also touches the good as a self-identical rational being. This is the point in which God and Man are alike: (2) Man, however, differs from God in the manner in which he touches the good. Man's good lies in the future, and he touches it after reaching forward to it in βούλησις. God's good is always present with Him in His continuous μετάληψις τοῦ νοητοῦ. The time which intervenes between Man's βούλησις and its realisation may change him (for he is immersed in ὕλη), and may make his βούλησις vain. He may not be present in his old person to welcome the good wished for, when at last it comes. God ἐνεργεῖ ἔχων (*Met.* A. 7. 1072 b. 22); time does not elapse during which He possesses a capacity which is not yet actualised (on the expression ἐνεργεῖ ἔχων see Rosmini, *Opere* vol. viii. p. 525, Torino, 1857, and Schwegler, *Met.* vol. iv. p. 267). He has not an ideal, held up by βούλησις, of future good never fully realised. Capacity and actuality, the ideal and its realisation are one in Him: see *Met.* A. 7. 1072 b. 20 εἰαυτὸν δὲ νοεῖ ὁ νοῦς κατὰ μετάληψιν τοῦ νοητοῦ· νοητὸς γὰρ γίγνεται θιγγάνων καὶ νοῶν, ὥστε ταῦτόν νοῦς καὶ νοητόν. τὸ γὰρ δεκτικὸν τοῦ νοητοῦ καὶ τῆς οὐσίας νοῦς. ἐνεργεῖ δὲ ἔχων. (Here νοῦς is explained by Alexander *ad loc.* as ὁ πρῶτος νοῦς—God.) Cf. Plotinus, *Enn.* 3. 7. 4 (vol. ii. p. 286, ed. Kirchhoff)—ταῖς δὲ πρώτοις καὶ μακαρίοις οὐδὲ ἔφεσις ἐστὶ τοῦ μέλλοντος· ἤδη γὰρ ἐστὶ τὸ ὅλον καὶ ὅπερ αὐτοῖς ὅλον ὀφείλεται ζῆν ἔχουσι πᾶν ὥστε ζητοῦσιν οὐδέν, διότι τὸ μέλλον αὐτοῖς οὐδέν ἐστίν, οὐδ' ἄρα ἐκεῖνο ἐν ᾧ τὸ μέλλον.

I have tried, then, to show that the section before us (punctuated as in Susemihl's text), *if an interpolation*, is in perfect keeping with the philosophical associations of the context. The only reason, I venture to think, which can be fairly alleged for regarding it as an interpolation, and not as written by Aristotle to stand where it does, is that it interrupts somewhat (perhaps as a 'duplicate' of § 3) the even flow of the passage in which it occurs. But I do not think that it interrupts the sense seriously; and I should be unwilling to regard it as an interpolation, even if I could suggest no other excuse for its appearance here than that it contains a characteristically Aristotelian remark, which is not unnatural—though perhaps not strictly necessary—in the present context. I go further however than this: I think that it is not an interpolation, because I understand it to say about the good man's wish

1166 a. 19. for his own good what has already been said elsewhere about his wish for his friend's good, and the purport of the present chapter is precisely to show how closely the good man's feelings towards himself resemble his feelings towards his friend. The passage with which I compare the section before us is *E. N.* viii. 7. 6 ἄν καὶ ἀπορεῖται, μή ποτ' οὐ βούλονται οἱ φίλοι τοῖς φίλοις τὰ μέγιστα τῶν ἀγαθῶν, οἷον θεοὺς εἶναι· οὐ γὰρ ἔτι φίλοι ἴσονται αὐτοῖς, οἷδὲ δὴ ἀγαθὸί οἱ γὰρ φίλοι ἀγαθά. εἰ δὴ καλῶς εἴρηται ὅτι ὁ φίλος τῷ φίλῳ βούλεται τὰγαθὰ ἐκείνου ἕνεκα, μένιν ἂν δέοι οἷός ποτ' ἐστὶν ἐκεῖνος ἄνθρωπος ἢ ὄντι βουλήσεται τὰ μέγιστα ἀγαθά. ἴσως δ' οὐ πάντα· αὐτῷ γὰρ μάλιστα ἕκαστος βούλεται τὰγαθά. In the light of the above passage I would explain the section before us as follows—'Every man wishes good things for himself, that is, for himself as remaining the same person; no man desires to become another being, and let that other being possess all good things—thus, no man desires to become God, in order to possess the absolute good which God possesses now and for ever in virtue of being what He is.' God's possession of the good depends on His self-identity; the good man's wish for his own good cannot overpass the limits of his self-identity—he cannot wish good for himself as having become God; nor (as we have seen viii. 7. 6) can he wish good for his friend—his second-self—as having become God. My explanation may be shortly described as consisting in the insertion after γετόμενος δ' ἄλλος a. 20 of οἷον θεός as a mentally supplied gloss; indeed, although on the whole I prefer Susemihl's punctuation to Grant's and Bywater's, I cannot help thinking that it is just possible that the words ἔχει γὰρ καὶ νῦν ὁ θεὸς τὰγαθόν were originally a marginal note explanatory of οἷον θεός, and that οἷον θεός once stood in the text after γετόμενος δ' ἄλλος, and afterwards fell out. On that hypothesis, of course, ἀλλ' ἄν ὁ τι ποτ' ἐστίν would refer to ἕκαστος. Viewed as an original part of the text, however, the words ἔχει γὰρ καὶ νῦν ὁ θεὸς τὰγαθόν, I confess, appear to me pointless, unless ἀλλ' ἄν ὁ τι ποτ' ἐστίν be referred to ὁ θεός, and taken closely with them.

The Paraphrast's explanation is peculiar. He thinks that the transformation marked by γετόμενος ἄλλος takes place when one identifies one's good with τὸ ἀλογον μέρος. His words are—'Ὁ δὲ σπουδαῖος βούλεται ἑαυτῷ ζῆν ἀγαθόν γὰρ τῷ σπουδαίῳ τὸ εἶναι· τῷ γὰρ θεωρητικῇ διέκει ζῶν· ἐν γὰρ τῷ νοεῖν ἢ ἐκάστου οὐσίας συνίσταται, ἢ ἐν τοίτῳ μάλιστα. Ὅς δὲ τῷ ἀλόγῳ βούλεται τὸ εἶναι καὶ σέζεσθαι, καὶ

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1166 a. 27. personal element which makes the experience of the bad man a source, not of pure 'views,' but of unhappy recollections and miserable forebodings. The good man's life is the *θεωρητικὴ βίη*.

a. 29. ὡς εἰπεῖν] 'in one word'—see Fritzsche, *E. N.* viii. 8. 5, on the use of the expression.

a. 34. § 6. δόξειε δ' . . . ὁμοιοῦται] These words are bracketed by Ramsauer as the interpolation of a scribe who had in his mind *E. E.* H. 6. 1240 a. 8 sqq. and *M. M.* ii. 11. 1211 a. 33, where ἡ πρὸς αὐτὸν φιλία is said to exist in so far as, there being different μέρη τῆς ψυχῆς, these agree—ἐπεὶ οὖν ἐστὶ τῆς ψυχῆς πλείω μέρη, τότ' ἔσται μία ψυχὴ ὅταν συμφωνῶσι πρὸς ἀλλήλα δ τε λόγος καὶ τὰ πάθη, οὕτω γὰρ μία ἔσται. ὥστε μιᾶς γενομένης, ἔσται πρὸς αὐτὸν φιλία (*M. M.*). If the words δόξειε . . . ὁμοιοῦται are an interpolation suggested by these passages in the *E. E.* and *M. M.*, as Ramsauer thinks, then it will be right to accept the explanation given by Mich. Eph., the Paraph., and others (e.g. Stahr and Peters), according to which ἡ ἐστὶ δύο ἢ πλείω means 'in so far as man, or the soul, consists of two or more parts,' ἐκ τῶν εἰρημένων being 'in accordance with what has been said'¹—e.g. in *E. N.* i. 13. 9. The clause being an interpolation, the occurrence of τὰ εἰρημένα in a different sense immediately afterwards (§ 7. 1166 b. 2) need cause no surprise. If, however, the clause is not an interpolation, no other interpretation seems possible than that of Victorius, Michelet, Grant, and Williams—'But whether friendship towards oneself is or is not possible, we may leave undecided for the present. It would seem to be possible in so far as two or more of the above-mentioned conditions (*i. e.* τὸ βούλεσθαι τὰ ἀγαθὰ—τὸ βούλεσθαι τὸ ζῆν—τὸ συνδιάγειν—τὸ συναλγεῖν καὶ συγχαίρειν) exist, and because the extreme of friendship resembles one's feelings towards oneself' (Grant). Against Ramsauer's view (that the passage is an interpolation) is the fact (noticed by Michelet, and apparently observed by Ramsauer himself) that the writer of the *M. M.* gives *both* interpretations, beginning with that adopted by Grant: see *M. M.* ii. 11. 1210 b. 33 πρότερον δ' ἐστὶν αὐτῆ καὶ πρὸς αὐτὸν φιλία ἢ οὐ νῦν μὲν ἀφείσθω, ὕστερον δ' ἐροῦμεν πάντα δι βουλόμεθα ἡμῖν αὐτοῖς, καὶ γὰρ συζῆν μεθ' ἡμῶν αὐτῶν βουλόμεθα κ.τ.λ.

¹ Bywater, placing a comma after πλείω, adopts this interpretation, and suggests the insertion of τε after ἐκ: see *Contrib.* p. 63.

After dismissing the question thus (*νῦν μὲν ἀφείσθω*), the writer 1186 a. 34 almost immediately resumes it (1211 a. 16) with *ἐχόμενον δ' ἂν εἶη νῦν τοῦτ' εἰπεῖν, πότερόν ἐστι πρὸς αὐτὸν φιλία ἢ οὐ*, and answers it, as Eudemus had done, by reference to the parts of the soul. We seem to have the compilation of one who had before him the text of the *Nic. Eth.* as we have it, *i. e. with δόξειε δ' . . . ὁμοιοῦται*, and the text of the *Eud. Eth.* I therefore see no reason for bracketing the clause in question with Ramsauer and Susemihl.

§ 7. *ἢ τ' ἀρέσκουσιν ἑαυτοῖς*] see note on § 2, a. 11, above. Mich. b. 9. Eph. has the following comment here—*ὁ δὲ λέγει τοιοῦτον ἂν εἶη· ὁ μὲν ἄλλων ἐπιθυμῶν ἄλλα δὲ βουλόμενος δηλὸς ἐστὶν ὡς οὐκ ὑρέσκειται ἑαυτῷ· ὁ δὲ τῶν αὐτῶν ὀρεγόμενος καὶ τὰ αὐτὰ θέλων καὶ βουλόμενος ἑαυτῷ ἀρέσκει· τοιοῦτοι δὲ οἱ πολλοί. ἀρέσκουσι γὰρ ἑαυτοῖς διὰ τὸ τῶν αὐτῶν ἐπιθυμεῖν καὶ τὰ αὐτὰ βούλεσθαι· καὶ γὰρ τοῦτο καὶ ἐπὶ τῶν ἄλλων ὀρώμεν γινόμενον· ὅσοι μὲν γὰρ τῶν αὐτῶν ὀρίγονται καὶ τὰ αὐτὰ βούλονται καὶ θέλουσιν ἀρέσκουσιν ἀλλήλοις· ἀπαρέσκονται δὲ καὶ διαφέρονται ὅταν ὁ μὲν τῶνδε ἐπιθυμῇ καὶ τάδε βούληται, ὁ δὲ ἄλλων καὶ ἄλλα καὶ μὴ τῶν αὐτῶν μηδὲ τὰ αὐτά· ἐπεὶ οὖν οἱ σπουδαῖοι ἑαυτοῖς ἀρέσκουσιν, ὑπολαμβάνουσιν οἱ πολλοὶ σπουδαῖοι εἶναι ὅτι ἀρέσκονται ἑαυτοῖς, διχῶς ἀμαρτάνοντες· πρῶτον μὲν γὰρ οὐχ ἑαυτοῖς ἀρέσκονται· οὐ γὰρ ἐστὶν ὁ ἄνθρωπος τὸ ἄλογον ἢ τὰ ἀρεστὰ πράττουσιν, ἀλλ' ὁ λόγος· ἔπειτα ὅτι μὴ ἀληθῶς ἀντιστρέφουσιν· ὁ μὲν γὰρ σπουδαῖος ἀρέσκει ἑαυτῷ, ὅτι τὰ ἀρέσκοντα τῷ λόγῳ πράττει· οὐ μὴν καὶ ὁ δοκῶν ἀρεσκεῖν ἑαυτῷ σπουδαῖός ἐστιν.*

§ 8. *ἐτέρων μὲν ἐπιθυμοῦσιν ἄλλα δὲ βούλονται*] 'The "desire" b. 7. of the wicked as being of the particular, and subject to the domination of the senses (*Eth.* vii. 3. 9), is at variance with their "wish," which is of the universal and implies a conception of the good' (Grant).

οἷον οἱ ἀκρατεῖς] The description of the φαῦλοι (as distinguished b. 8. from the κομῶν φαῦλοι § 7) given in §§ 8 and 9, corresponds with sufficient accuracy to that of the ἀκρατεῖς, as distinguished from the ἀκόλαστοι, in Book vii. Cf. vii. 8. 5 *ἔστι δὲ τις διὰ πάθος ἐκστατικὸς παρὰ τὸν ὀρθὸν λόγον, ὃν ὥστε μὲν μὴ πράττειν κατὰ τὸν ὀρθὸν λόγον κρατεῖ τὸ πάθος, ὥστε δ' εἶναι τοιοῦτον οἷον πεπεῖσθαι διώκειν ἀνέδην δεῖν τῆς τοιαύτης ἡδονᾶς οὐ κρατεῖ· οὗτός ἐστιν ὁ ἀκρατής, βελτίων (<ὄν> τοῦ ἀκόλαστου, οὐδὲ φαῦλος ἀπλῶς· σφίζεται γὰρ τὸ βέλτιστον, ἡ ἀρχή.* Similarly the φαῦλοι here αἰροῦνται ἀντὶ τῶν δοκούντων ἑαυτοῖς ἀγαθῶν εἶναι τὰ ἡδέα βλαβερά

1166 b. 8. ὄντα, and in § 10 are said to be a prey to μεταμέλεια: so in vii. 8. 1 the ἀκρατής is described as μεταμελητικός. The ἀκόλαστος on the other hand is οὐ μεταμελητικός, in this respect resembling (for extremes meet) the σπουδαῖος who is ἀμεταμέλητος ὡς εἰπεῖν (ix. 4. 5).

b. 19. § 9. στασιάζει] 'This picture,' says Grant, 'of the mental struggles of the bad does not recall either the phraseology or the doctrines of Book vii, where μοχθηρία is contrasted with and opposed to ἀκρασία (cf. vii. 8. 1).' Grant here, I think, overlooks the fact that Aristotle is speaking of οἱ φαῦλοι = οἱ ἀκρατεῖς (b. 8 οἶον οἱ ἀκρατεῖς, where οἶον = *scilicet*) as distinguished from οἱ κατὰ φαῦλοι = οἱ ἀκόλαστοι or μοχθηροί of Book vii. The word μοχθηρία occurring in this § is evidently used loosely and not in the more technical sense in which it is used in Book vii; for τὸ μὲν διὰ μοχθηρίαν κ.τ.λ. is opposed to τὸ δὲ ἡθεταί which is the λόγος ἔχον μέρος, as the Paraph. explains—καὶ τὸ μὲν διλογον ἀγαθὴ τῶν μοχθηρῶν ἀπεχόμενον, τῆνκαῦτα δὲ οὐ συναγαθὴ τὸ λογιστικόν, ἀλλὰ χαίρει. Thus, notwithstanding the use of the term μοχθηρία, the ἀκρατής (in whom a struggle between λόγος and πάθος goes on), not the μοχθηρός of Book vii, is here described.

For the expression στασιάζει in this connexion compare Plato, *Rep.* 352 A, quoted by Fritzsche and Grant—ἡ ἀδικία ἐν ἐπὶ ἐνοῦσε πρῶτον ἀδύνατον αὐτὸν πράττειν ποιήσει στασιάζοντα καὶ οὐχ ὁμοουσίῳ αὐτὸν αὐτῷ, ἔπειτα ἐχθρὸν καὶ ἑαυτῷ καὶ τοῖς δικαίοις. Cf. *E. N.* i. 13. 15 φαίνεται δ' ἐν αὐτοῖς καὶ ἄλλο τι παρὰ τὸν λόγον πεφυκός, ὃ μάχεται καὶ ἀντιτείνει τῷ λόγῳ.

b. 20. § 10. εἰ δὴ κ.τ.λ.] Aristotle seldom addresses his reader, as here, in the language of direct exhortation.

CHAPTER V.

ARGUMENT.

Well-wishing must be distinguished from friendship, which it resembles. We wish well to people whom we do not know, and who are not aware that we wish them well; but in friendship the parties must know each other, and be aware of each other's feelings. This however has been pointed out before. Now is well-wishing affection, for it has not the intensity and desire which cho-

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- a. 10. διὰ μεταφέρων φαίη τις ἂν αὐτὴν ἀργὴν εἶναι φιλίαν] Mich. Frh., CCC marg. γρ., and Argyropylus read ἀρχὴν εἶναι φιλίας. But what μεταφορά (defined *Poet.* 21. 1457 b. 6 μεταφορά ἐστὶν δυνάμει ἀλλοτρίου ἐπιφορά ἢ ἀπὸ τοῦ γένους ἐπὶ εἶδος, ἢ ἀπὸ τοῦ εἶδους ἐπὶ γένος, ἢ ἀπὸ τοῦ εἶδους ἐπὶ εἶδος, ἢ κατὰ τὸ ἀνάλογον) is implied in merely stating the truth that εὐνοια is the ἀρχὴ φιλίας? Whereas there is a μεταφορά of the term φιλία when it is taken over from its proper place, where it denotes a relation characterised by the φιλικὰ enumerated in ch. 4. § 1, and applied to an otiose state like εὐνοια. There is a μεταφορά of the term φιλία, when it is qualified as ἀργή, just as there is of ἀκρασία when it is qualified by θυροῦ—*cf.* *E. N.* vii. 5. 9.

Victorius has a good note here, in support of ἀργή against ἀρχήν — 'qui dicit benevolentiam esse principium, non transfert verbum è sua in alienam sedem, quod manifesto facit qui concedit ipsam amicitiam esse, sed inchoatam et ignavam; indicatque quod non sinit eam absolutam perfectamque esse: caret enim eo quod requiritur in plena amicitia: id autem est quod non studet prodesse et opitulari benevolo.'

- a. 12. οὐ τὴν διὰ τὸ χρήσιμον οὐδέ τὴν διὰ τὸ ἡδύ] *Cf.* *E. E. H.* 7. 1241 a. 10 δῆλον ὅτι περὶ τὴν ἠθικὴν φιλίαν (to be distinguished from the ἠθικὴ φιλία of *E. N.* viii. 13. 5) ἡ εὐνοια ἐστίν· ἀλλὰ τοῦ μὲν εὐνοοῦντος βούλεσθαι μόνον ἐστὶ, τοῦ δὲ φίλου πράττειν ἂ βούλεται. ἐστὶ γὰρ ἡ εὐνοια ἀρχὴ φιλίας· ὁ μὲν γὰρ φίλος πᾶς εὐνοος, ὁ δ' εὐνοος οὐ πᾶς φίλος· ἀρχομένη γὰρ ἔοικεν ὁ εὐνοῶν μόνον, διὸ ἀρχὴ φιλίας ἀλλ' οὐ φιλία.

Ramsauer points out the seeming variance between the doctrine laid down here (ix. 5. 3) and that of viii. 2. 4 πολλοὶ γὰρ εἰσι εὐνοοὶ οἷς οὐχ ἐωράκασιν, ὑπολαμβάνουσι δὲ ἐπιεικεῖς εἶναι ἢ χρησίμους: either, he argues, if we may speak of φιλία for the χρήσιμον, we may speak of εὐνοια for the same; or both terms—φιλία and εὐνοια—should be reserved for relations δι' ἀρετήν.

- a. 14. ὁ μὲν γὰρ εὐεργετηθεὶς κ.τ.λ.] This gives the reasons for refusing to recognise εὐνοια in the 'friendship' of Profit. (1) The man who has been benefited οὐκ εὐνοια. But εὐνοια thus οὐκ εὐνοια, and not

arising spontaneously is not properly εὐνοια. (2) The man who expects to be benefited, though he may seem to wish well to his prospective benefactor, really does not wish well to *him*, but to *himself*; and this is not εὐνοια. Mich. Eph. describes Aristotle, in the words ὁ μὲν γὰρ εὐεργετηθεὶς . . . δρῶν, as χωρίσας τὴν εὐνοίαν ἀπὸ τῆς ἀντενουίας—εὐνοῦς μὲν οὐκ ἂν ῥηθείη διότι εὖ δρᾷ, δίκαιος δέ· δίκαιον γὰρ τὸ τὰ ἴσα ἀπονέμειν.

§ 4. 'Der ganze Schluss,' says Stahr (note *ad loc.*), 'dieses schönen Kapitels zeigt, dass Aristoteles unter dem Wohlwollen, welches der Ursprung (ἀρχή) der wahren Freundschaft ist, jenes rein menschliche, *uneigennützig*e, nur durch das Schöne und Gute in der menschlichen Brust erweckte Empfinden versteht. Das Wohlwollen, das eines Anderen Glück und Erfolg wünscht, weil es davon zu profitiren hofft, ist gemeiner Egoismus, Gesinnung gemeiner Menschen.'

CHAPTER VI.

ARGUMENT.

Unanimity also seems to be allied to Friendship. Accordingly it is not mere identity of opinion, for that may subsist between those who do not know one another, and between students of astronomy and other subjects in which agreement of views has nothing to do with the persons who agree being 'friends.' Unanimity subsists between citizens who are of one mind about important political questions which can be settled in a way pleasing to those who are said to be 'of one mind' about them. Thus, there was unanimity between the Mitylenaeans who wished Pittacus to rule over them and Pittacus, when he was willing to do so: there is unanimity between the lower and upper classes in a city when both agree that the best men should hold office: so unanimity may be described as the friendship of citizens. Now, there is unanimity like this in the soul of the good man, and between good men. The wishes of good men stand fast; they do not fluctuate like the Euripus. But bad men cannot be of one mind, any more than they can be friends, except for a little way, inasmuch as they are always seeking to get for themselves the larger share of advantages, and to put the burden of their duties on other people.

[On ὁμόνοια see *E. E. H.* 7 and *M. M.* ii. 12.]

§ 1. περὶ ὁμοῦν] Cf. *E. E. H.* 7. 1241 a. 16 ἴσσι δ' οὐ περὶ πάντι 1167 a. 24.

1167 a. 24. ἡ ὁμόνοια ἢ φιλική, ἀλλὰ περὶ τὰ πρακτὰ τοῖς ὁμοουῶσι, καὶ ὅσα εἰς τὴν συζῆν συντείνει.

a. 26. τὰς πόλεις] Fritzsche and Ramsauer point out that we are not to think here of the concord of several cities, but of the unanimity between the πολῖται of one city.

a. 28. § 2.] There are three characteristics of ὁμόνοια mentioned here, (1) it is περὶ τὰ πρακτά, (2) περὶ τὰ ἐν μεγέθει, (3) περὶ τὰ ἐνδεχόμενα ἀμφοῖν ὑπάρχειν ἢ πᾶσι.

Ὁν τὰ ἐν μεγέθει the Paraph. has—τοῖς ἀξιολόγοις . . . περὶ γὰρ τῶν ἐν τῷ βίῳ μικρῶν οὐ λέγονται ὁμοουῶν ἀλλήλοις οὔτε πόλεις (πόλεις;) οὔτε φίλοι, οἷον οἴκοι μένειν, ἢ βαδίζειν εἰς ἀγοράν, ἢ τόδε εἰπεῖν ἢ δράσαι, δι' ἃ οὔτε ὠφέλειά τις μεγάλῃ οὔτε βλάβη ἀκολουθεῖ.

The meaning of ἐνδεχόμενα ἀμφοῖν ὑπάρχειν ἢ πᾶσι is explained below by the words οὕτω γὰρ πᾶσι γίνεται οὐ ἐφίενται b. 1. Unanimity is concerned with important practical questions which admit of a solution agreeable to the wishes of both parties, if there are only two, or of all the citizens where public interests are involved. Cf. E. E. H. 7. 1241 a. 27 οὕτω δὲ δεῖ τῶν αὐτῶν ἐρέεσθαι, ὥστ' ἐνδέχεσθαι ἀμφοτέρους ὑπάρχειν οὐ ὀρέγονται· ἀν γὰρ τοιούτου ἐρέγονται ὁ μὴ ἐνδέχεται ἀμφοῖν, μαχοῦνται· οἱ ὁμοουῶντες δ' οὐ μαχοῦνται. In this and the Nicomachean passage the word ὑπάρχειν is somewhat misleading as suggesting that both or all parties actually get the same thing, and that therefore the objects of ὁμόνοια are things which both or all can share in alike. But the examples given show that ὁμόνοια may exist with regard to the possession by one of the parties of an office which the other or others cannot hold. What is meant is that ὁμόνοια is concerned with things *about which* both or all parties, having the same wishes, may have these wishes satisfied. The People and Pittacus agree in wishing Pittacus to rule; Pittacus rules, and everybody, Pittacus included, gets what he wishes. Peters therefore is hardly right with 'people are said to be of one mind, especially with regard to matters of importance and things that *may be given* to both persons or to all the persons concerned.'

a. 32. ἢ ἄρχειν Πιπτακὸν ὅτε καὶ αὐτὸς ἤθελεν] Pittacus was elected Dictator by the Mitylenaeans. He ruled for ten years, and, having restored order into the affairs of the city, voluntarily laid down his office, although the Mitylenaeans wished him to retain it: see

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1167 b. 8. φαῦλοι of the next §; although the narrower sense of ἐπιείκεια, as fairness causing its possessor to put himself on an equality with others, seems also to be present to Aristotle's mind; for he describes the ἐπιεικείς as ἐπὶ τῶν αὐτῶν ὄντες, i. e. as 'standing on the same footing,' and in § 4 contrasts them with τοὺς πλεονεξίας ἐφιεμένους. Cf. viii. 11. 5 ἴσοι γὰρ οἱ πολῖται βούλοσθαι καὶ ἐπιεικῆ εἶναι.

b. 8. ἐπὶ τῶν αὐτῶν ὄντες] This phrase seems strictly parallel to ἐπὶ τῶν ἴσων μένειν of *Pol.* E. 3. 1304 a. 38 . . . στάσει κινουῖσιν ἢ γὰρ οἱ τούτοις φθονοῦντες τιμωμένοις ἄρχουσι τῆς στάσεως ἢ οὔτοι διὰ τῆς ἰσροχῆν οὐ θέλουσι μένειν ἐπὶ τῶν ἴσων.

Lambinus however gives a different meaning to ἐπὶ τῶν αὐτῶν ὄντες, which he translates—'Cum in iisdem (paene dicam) consiliis et factis versentur ac perseverent': and Stahr takes the same view, with 'da sie, so zu sagen, immer bei und mit denselben Dingen beschäftigt sind': and Fritzsche follows, quoting *Dem. Phil.* ii. p. 66. 15 ὡς καλύσαι' ἂν Φίλιππον πράττειν ταῦτα ἐφ' ἃ ἐστὶ νῦν, i. e. 'on which he is now intent.'

Grant (followed by Williams) adopts an entirely different view. His note is "Being on the same moorings, as it were," as opposed to the ebbings and flowings of a Euripus. Cf. *Dem. de Cor.* p. 319, § 281 οὐκ ἐπὶ τῆς αὐτῆς ὀρμῆι τοῖς πολλοῖς κ. ἀγῆραι. Surely, if Aristotle had intended to use this nautical metaphor, he would have employed the proverbial expression, which seems to have been a very definite one.

b. 10. § 4. καθάπερ καὶ φίλους εἶναι] = καθάπερ οὐχ οἷόν τε φίλους εἶναι πλὴν ἐπὶ μικρόν.

b. 13. ἐξετάζει] τὸν ἕτερον εὐθύνει, περὶ τῶν λειτουργιῶν ἀκριβολογούμεναι (Paragraph.).

CHAPTER VII.

ARGUMENT.

Why do benefactors love those whom they benefit more than the latter love them? The answer generally given is that benefactors are like lenders, and the benefited like borrowers; and that lenders are anxious about the welfare of borrowers, whereas borrowers do not care what becomes of lenders. Epicharmus would perhaps say that this is to look at the matter from a bad point of view; and yet, it might be replied, the explanation seems to be true enough to human nature, for the majority of men are ungrateful, and more anxious to receive benefits than to confer them. The cause, however, lies deeper. The analogy of lenders and borrowers is misleading. Lenders do not feel any affection for borrowers—only wish them to live, and flourish, and repay; whereas benefactors love those whom they have benefited, even when the latter can be of no use to them. The analogy to help us here is that of the artist and the thing which he makes, not that of the lender and borrower. The artist loves the thing which he himself makes more than the thing, if it were endowed with life, would love him: poets are perhaps the best instances—they are excessively pleased with their own works, loving them as parents love their children. Similarly, the object of his beneficence, quâ benefited, is the work of the benefactor, and he loves this object more than this object loves him. The cause of this is that a work is its maker actualised. A maker loves his work because he loves his own actual existence. Again, what the benefactor does is beautiful in his own eyes, and therefore he rejoices in it; but in the eyes of the person benefited it is, at best, only useful, not something beautiful for which he takes pleasure in the benefactor and loves him. His work therefore abides for the doer—the beautiful is lasting; but the profit of the receiver is soon a thing of the past. Further, a benefit is received without labour, but to confer it effort is needed, and men always love those things more which have cost them labour—e. g. money made, more than money inherited. For the same reason mothers are fonder of their children than fathers.

§ 1. ἐκ πονηροῦ θεωμένους] 'Looking at the matter from a bad point of view'—as from a bad seat in the theatre. This expression doubtless used by Epicharmus occurs only here; and it is impossible to determine with certainty its exact force; but Coraes' suggestion that it refers to a bad place at the play is very plausible. His note is—οὐ ῥάδιον ἀκριβῶς γνῶναι τί λέγειν ἠβούλετο Ἐπίχαρμος, μόνου τοῦ φιλοσόφου, καὶ ἐν μόνῃ τῇ χωρίῳ τῇδε χρησαμένου τῇ ῥησειδίῳ

1167 b. 26. ἡ ἡμιστιχίῳ τοῦ Ἐπιχάρμου, ἐκ πονηροῦ θεωμένου· εἰκὸς δὲ ἀπὸ τῆς σκηνῆς μετενεγκεῖν τὴν φράσιν τὸν Ἐπίχαρμον (εἴ γε ἐπὶ τῶν ἡθῶν ἐχρήσατο) ἔλλειπτικῶς τοῦ τόπου. ὡσπερ γὰρ ἐν τοῖς θεάτροις, οἱ μὴ καταλαμβάνοντες χώραν ἐπιτήδειον, οὔτε τὸ δράμα οὔτε τοὺς ὑποκρουομένους κρίνου ὀρθῶς ἔχουσιν, ὡς ἐκ πονηροῦ τόπου θεώμενοι, τὸν αὐτὸν δὴ τρόπον καὶ ἐν τῇ τοῦ βίου σκηνῇ, εἴ τις ὑπὸ πονηρᾶς περὶ ἀνθρώπων δόξης προσηλωμένος κρίνειν ἐπιχειροῖ τὰς ἀνθρωπίνας πράξεις, οὐκ ἔσται κριτῆς ἀδίκουτος, ὡς ἐκ πονηροῦ θεώμενος.

b. 29. § 2. φυσικώτερον] 'a deeper reason.'

καὶ οὐδ' ὁμοιον τὸ περὶ τοὺς δανείσαντας] Byw. for Bekker's καὶ οὐχ ὁμοιον τῷ περὶ κ.τ.λ. For οὐδ' (K^b) he compares 1105 a. 26: see *Contrib.* p. 64.

b. 30. οὐ γὰρ ἔστι φίλησις περὶ ἐκείνους] i. e. οὐ γὰρ ἔστι φίλησις τῶν δανεισάντων περὶ τοὺς ὀφειλοντας. Mich. Eph. has οὐ γὰρ ἔστι φίλησις τῶν δανειστῶν πρὸς τοὺς ὀφειλέτας. This seems better than, as Stahl apparently does, to take ἐκείνους of *both* δανείσαντας and ὀφειλοντας—'meiner Ansicht nach dürfte . . . die Ursache . . . keineswegs dem Verhältnisse zwischen Gläubigern und Schuldnern entsprechen; denn zwischen diesen letztern findet überhaupt gar kein Verhältniss der Liebe statt, sondern nur auf der Seite des Gläubigers der Wunsch,' &c.

1168 a. 1. § 3. ποιητής] *Cf.* iv. 1. 20.

a. 6. § 4. ἔσμεν δ' ἐνεργεία] *Cf.* i. 7. 13, 14 διττῶς δὲ καὶ ταύτης (i. e. τῆς πρακτικῆς ζωῆς) λεγομένης τὴν κατ' ἐνέργειαν θετίον κυριώτερον γὰρ αὕτη δοκεῖ λέγεσθαι . . . ἀνθρώπου δὲ τίθεμεν ἔργον ζωὴν τῶν, ταύτην δὲ ψυχῆς ἐνέργειαν καὶ πράξεις μετὰ λόγου.

a. 7. ἐνεργεία δὲ ὁ ποιήσας τὸ ἔργον ἔστι πως] Mich. Eph. gives the true interpretation of these words—ἔστι δέ, φέρε εἰπεῖν, τὸ τοῦ Σωκράτους ἔργον οὐδὲν ἄλλο ἢ ἐνεργεία αὐτὸς ὁ Σωκράτης, the subject being ἔργον, and the predicate ὁ ποιήσας. 'The work is in a sense the realisation of the workman.' Bekker's ἔστι (retained by Bywater) should accordingly be corrected (as by Susemihl) to ἐστὶ. For other renderings (which agree in making τὸ ἔργον acc. after ποιήσας) see the notes of Victorius, Zell, Grant, and Fritzsche. Ramsauer, Susemihl, and Bywater read δέ for Bekker's δὲ, rightly I think: there is no inference.

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1168 a. 10. μᾶλλον ἢ ἐν τῷ πάσχοντι· καὶ ἔστι πάσχον τὸ δυνάμει ὄν, ποιοῖν δὲ τὸ ἐνεργεῖα ὄν.

a. 13. § 6. ἡδεῖα κ.τ.λ.] Every ἐνέργεια has its own pleasure—see x. 5. 6 καθ' ἐκάστην ἐνέργειαν οἰκεία ἡδονὴ ἐστίν, or pleasure and ἐνέργεια are identical—see vii. 12. 3. Hence ἐλπίς and μνήμη are pleasant, and suggesting ἐνέργεια. See *Mel.* A. 7. 1072 b. 13 ἐκ τῆς αἰτίας (i. e. ἀναγκαῖον οὕτως, ὅτι ἄνευ αὐτοῦ οὐκ ἔστι τὸ εὖ Alex.) ἄρα ἀρχῆς ἡρηται ὁ οὐρανὸς καὶ ἡ φύσις. διαγωγὴ δ' ἐστίν οἷα ἡ ἀρίστη μικρὸν χρόνον ἡμῖν. οὕτω γὰρ αἰεὶ ἐκεῖνό ἐστιν. ἡμῖν μὲν γὰρ ἀδύνατον· ἐπεὶ καὶ ἡδονὴ ἢ ἐνέργεια τούτου· καὶ διὰ τοῦτο ἐγρήγορσις αἰσθησις νόησις ἡδιστε, ἐλπίδες δὲ καὶ μνήμαι διὰ ταῦτα: on which Alex. has the following commentary: λέγει οὖν ὅτι οἷα ἐστίν ἡ ἀρίστη ἡμῖν διαγωγὴ ἐπὶ μικρὸν χρόνον (οὐ γὰρ αἰεὶ, ἀλλ' ὅταν ἐνεργεῖα γένηται ὁ ἡμέτερος νοῦς τὰ νοητά) ταύτην τὴν ζωὴν αἰεὶ ἔχει τὸ πρῶτον αἴτιον ἐπεὶ γὰρ ἡ ἐνέργεια αὐτοῦ οὐδὲν ἄλλο ἐστίν ἢ τὸ νοεῖν ἑαυτόν, ἡ δὲ ἐνέργεια αὐτοῦ ἡδονὴ αὐτοῦ ἐστίν, ἐπὶ τούτῳ ἄρα ταύτην αἰεὶ ζῆ τὴν ζωὴν, λέγω δὲ τῷ νοεῖν ἑαυτόν . . . καὶ διὰ τοῦτο, φησί, καὶ τὴν αἰσθησιν καὶ τὴν ἐγρήγορσιν καὶ τὴν νόησιν ἡδιστέ φαμεν, ὅτι ἐνεργεῖαι τινες οὐσαι ἰσθάλματά τινα καὶ σικαί εἰσιν ἢ ἐνεργεῖμεν ἐνεργείας καὶ ἡν ζῶμεν ζωὴν, ὅταν ὁ ἡμέτερος νοῦς γένηται πρὸς τὰ νοητά. τὰς δὲ ἐλπίδας πάλιν καὶ μνήμας φιλοῦμεν διὰ τὰς ἐνεργείας· μεμνημένοι γὰρ τινος ἐνεργείας ἢ ἐλπίζοντες ἐνεργῆσαι φιλοῦμεν τὴν ἐλπίδα καὶ τὴν μνήμη.

a. 18. ἡ προσδοκία δ' ἀνάπαλιν] τούτέστι, τῶν μὲν χρησίμων ἡδεῖα, τῶν δὲ καλῶν οὐ πάνυ (Coraes). If καλά as well as χρήσιμα are referred to here, the inferiority of the pleasure attending the anticipation of the former will be due to the fact that they are χαλεπά: but perhaps only τὰ χρήσιμα are referred to.

a. 20. τοῖς ὑπερέχουσι δὲ περὶ τὴν πράξιν] i. e. τοῖς ἐνεργεταῖς.

a. 21. ἔπεται] 'are attributes of,' see note on vii. 9. 6, b. 34, and Bonitz on *Mel.* A. 1. 981 a. 27.

a. 25. § 7. φιλοτεκνότεραι] sc. τῶν πατέρων: cf. *E. E.* H. 8. 1241 b. 7 καὶ (μᾶλλον φιλοῦσιν) αἱ μητέρες τῶν πατέρων. Hence the Paph. is wrong with αἱ μητέρες φιλοτεκνότεραι μᾶλλον . . ἢ οἱ παῖδες φιλομήτερες.

a. 26. καὶ μᾶλλον ἴσασι δτι αὐτῶν] Ramsauer brackets these words as out of place here, where Aristotle is concerned to show why benefactors love more. Surely, he argues, those who receive know as well what they receive as those who give know what they give,

while the connexion in which the similar words occur in viii. 12. 2 1168 a. 26. is quite different. The parallel passage, however, *E. E. H.* 8. 1241 b. 7, which Ramsauer does not regard as making against his view, seems to me to indicate that the writer had the text of the *E. N.* with καὶ μᾶλλον ἴσασιν ὅτι αὐτῶν before him. His words are καὶ αἱ μητέρες τῶν πατέρων ὅτι μᾶλλον οἴονται αὐτῶν εἶναι ἔργον τὰ τέκνα. τὸ γὰρ ἔργον τῷ χαλεπῷ διορίζουσι, πλείω δὲ λυπεῖται περὶ τὴν γένεσιν μήτηρ. See note on αἱ μητέρες viii. 12. 2, b. 27.

CHAPTER VIII.

ARGUMENT.

Another question is, whether a man ought to love himself or some other most. Not himself, some argue, for 'self-love' is bad: bad men are noted for their 'self-love'; good men for their love of what is beautiful and right, which makes them forgetful of 'self,' and devoted to their friends. But facts, it may be urged, are against this view. Self-love is not bad: a man is his own truest friend, if a true friend is one who wishes the good of the object of his friendship disinterestedly, or for that object's own sake; and if it is his truest friend whom a man ought to love most—whom ought he to love more than himself, his own truest, most disinterested friend? Our statement that a man's love for his friend is merely an extension of his love for himself may be taken as favouring this contention; and all the proverbs about friendship accord with it—'one soul'—'things in common'—'equality'—'knee nearer than shin'—these are all most truly applicable to a man's friendship for himself. Which of these two opposite views then must we follow? Both are plausible.

In dealing with such views we must draw distinctions, and try to see how far, and in what sense, each is true. Let us see then in what sense each view understands 'self-love.' The view which understands it in a bad sense takes it to mean the habit of assigning to oneself the larger share, where money, honour, and bodily pleasure are concerned. These are the things which the majority of men think best, and compete keenly for—in their selfish pursuit of them living for the satisfaction of their desires and the irrational part of their nature. The 'self-love' of such men then is justly held up to contempt; and it is it which those who say that a man ought not to love himself most, have in view.

But if a man were seen to be always bent on acting virtuously and identifying himself with all that is beautiful and good, no one would blame him for this kind of 'self-love'—'self-love' too, in the truest sense, inasmuch as it is the true

'self'—the governing principle in him—which such a man obeys and lives for. That Reason is the True Self is shown by the use of the terms 'continent' and 'incontinent'—i. e. able and unable to 'contain himself,' or govern his passions; also by the fact that the most rational acts are thought to be the most voluntary; and by the fact that the good man loves his Reason most.

There would seem, then, to be two kinds of self-love, which differ as widely as the life according to Reason and the life according to Impulse. The good man therefore ought to love himself. In so doing he will benefit both himself and others; but the 'self-love' of the wicked man is hurtful both to himself and to his neighbour, for it consists in following evil passions. The wicked man does what he ought not to do; the good man does what he ought to do, for Reason always chooses that which is best for itself, and the good man obeys the rule of Reason. For his friends too the good man will do much, and for his country—even laying down his life, if need be. He will give up wealth, and station, and all the good things which men compete for, so that he may make the glory of well-doing his own. He will prefer the great joy of a short time to feeble satisfactions continued throughout a long time: he will prefer one glorious year to a long lifetime of ordinary doings—*one great and glorious deed to many small performances*—dying, it may be, for his country, and winning what he chooses for himself—to be the doer of a glorious deed. Or, he will let his chance of making money slip, that so his friend may come in for a larger share; for thus he secures for himself what is better than money—the glory of performing a virtuous action. Similarly, he will let honours and offices go past him in favour of his friend; nay, it may be that he will sometimes leave even good actions to be performed by his friend, where there is more virtue in being the cause of his friend's performing them than in performing them himself. In short, where virtuous actions are concerned the good man will always take to himself the larger share. This is the sense in which he loves himself most—rightly, we have seen, not as the many 'love themselves.'

[Cf. *M. M.* ii. 13, 14, where $\acute{\omicron}$ $\phi\lambda\alpha\nu\tau\omicron\varsigma$ is discussed in much the same way as here; but there is no corresponding discussion in the *E. E.*, H. 6 $\pi\epsilon\rho\iota$ $\tau\omicron\upsilon$ $\alpha\upsilon\tau\omicron\nu$ $\alpha\upsilon\tau\omicron$ $\phi\acute{\iota}\lambda\omicron\nu$ $\epsilon\acute{\iota}\nu\alpha\iota$ η $\mu\acute{\eta}$ going over the same ground as *E. N.* ix. 4. Indeed the term $\phi\acute{\iota}\lambda\alpha\nu\tau\omicron\varsigma$ does not occur in the *E. E.* It is pretty evident that Eudemus had not *E. N.* ix in exactly its present shape before him.]

1168 a. 32. § 1. $\omicron\lambda\omicron\nu$] introduced into the text by Susemihl and Bywater, is given by Cambr. and CCC, as well as by K^b and Γ .

a. 38. $\acute{\alpha}\phi'$ $\acute{\epsilon}\alpha\upsilon\tau\omicron\upsilon$] $\pi\acute{\omicron}\rho\omicron\upsilon$ $\acute{\epsilon}\alpha\upsilon\tau\omicron\upsilon$ (Mich. Eph.); 'without thinking of self.'

b. 2. § 2. δ $\beta\omicron\upsilon\lambda\acute{\omicron}\mu\epsilon\omicron\varsigma$ ψ $\beta\omicron\upsilon\lambda\epsilon\tau\alpha\iota$] For ψ K^b and Cambr. have ψ & Bywater's conjecture $\eta\nu$ ψ is very likely. The ψ would refer to 1155 b. 31: see *Contrib.* p. 64.

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1188 b. 13. *ρεῖν τούτους, τουτέστι δεῖ διαιρεῖν τὸ τῆς φιλαυτίας ὄνομα ὅπερ ἀμφότεροι προϊσχονται εἰς τὰ σημαινόμενα πράγματα· οὐ γάρ ἐστιν ἀπλοῦν ἡ φιλαυτία ἀλλ' ὁμώνυμον, ὡς ὁ κύων, καὶ διαιροῦντας, λέγειν ὅτι ἀμφότεροι καλῶς λέγουσι οἱ τε φιλεῖν ἑαυτοὺς λέγοντες καὶ οἱ μὴ φιλεῖ(ν). χρή οὖν διαιροῦντας λέγειν ὅτι τὸ φίλαυτον διττόν ἐστιν ὡς εἴρηται ἀγαπᾶν καὶ θεραπεύειν τὸν ἐν ἡμῖν δῆμον τὴν ἀλογίαν . . . ἐν μὲν οὖν τοῦτο τῶν τῆς φιλαυτίας σημαινόμενων ὅπερ ἐστὶ φαῦλον καὶ αἰσχρόν· καὶ ὁ τοιοῦτος φίλαυτος δε οὐδὲ κυρίως φίλαυτός ἐστι κάκιστος τῶ ὄντι καὶ αἰσχροτάτος· οὐ γάρ ἐστιν ὁ ἄνθρωπος ἡ αἰσθησις ἢ αὐτὸς φιλεῖ ἀλλ' ὁ νοῦς ἐν αὐτῷ ἐκτετύφλωται . . . ἄλλο δὲ φιλαυτίας σημαινόμενον τὸ φιλεῖν τὸν ὄντως ἄνθρωπον ὅπερ ἐστὶ τὸ ἐν ἡμῖν φρονεῖν· ὁ τοιοῦτος φίλαυτος οὐκ αἰσχρός ἐστιν ἀλλὲ κάλλιστος.* The Paragraph. has οὕτω τοίνυν ἀμφοτέρων μὲν λόγων ἀληθῶς εἶναι δοκούντων, εἰκότως ἀπορεῖται ποτέρῳ δέον ἀκολουθεῖν. εὐρήσομεν δὲ διελόντες καὶ διορισόμενοι ἐφ' ὅσον καὶ πῶς ἑκάτερος ἀληθεύει (which Heinsius translates, doubtless correctly, *Nos igitur si diligenter dividamus rem ipsam et distinguamus &c.*) κ.τ.λ.—to the same effect as Mich. Eph. above.

b. 15. §§ 4, 5.] The two kinds of φίλαυτοι contrasted in these sections may be compared with those who act from *ideae inadaequales* or are *passionibus obnoxii*, and those who live *ex ductu rationis*, as distinguished by Spinoza. The former are dominated by the abstract and onesided views presented by passion and imagination, which hold up the same thing in different lights to different persons, between whom accordingly dissensions and conflicts arise. But those who live *ex ductu rationis* see nothing partially; they understand everything truly as its nature is determined by the place it occupies in the universal system. Between men who look at things in this way there can be no disagreement. Aristotle's *ἀεὶ τὸ καλὸν ἑαυτῷ περιποιῆσθαι* (§ 5) is Spinoza's 'Acting in a manner suitable to that rationally constituted and apprehended Human Nature in oneself which is common to oneself with all men.' In seeking his own highest good a man seeks *ipso facto* the highest good of all other men; the distinction between 'his own' highest good and that 'of other men' being merely a formal one. See Spinoza *Eth.* iv. 18, Schol.—'Quum ratio nihil contra naturam postulet, postulat ergo ipsa, ut unusquisque se ipsum amet, suum utile, quod revera utile est, quaerat, et id omne, quod hominem ad majorem perfectionem revera ducit, appetat, et absolute ut unusquisque suum esse, quantum in se est, conservare conetur . . . Deinde quandoquidem

virtus nihil aliud est quam ex legibus propriae naturae agere, et 1168 b. 15. nemo suum esse conservare conetur, nisi ex propriae suae naturae legibus; hinc sequitur . . . virtutis fundamentum esse ipsum conatum, proprium esse conservandi, et felicitatem in eo consistere, quod homo suum esse conservare potest.' . . . iv. 35 'Quatenus homines affectibus, qui passiones sunt, conflictantur, possunt esse natura diversi et invicem contrarii . . . sed quia unusquisque ex suae naturae legibus id appetit, quod bonum, et id amovere conatur quod malum esse judicat; et quum praeterea id, quod ex dictamine rationis bonum aut malum esse judicamus, necessario bonum aut malum sit: ergo homines quatenus ex ductu rationis vivunt, eatenus tantum ea necessario agunt, quae humanae naturae, et consequenter unicuique homini necessario bona sunt, hoc est, quae cum natura uniuscujusque hominis conveniunt: atque adeo homines etiam inter se, quatenus ex ductu rationis vivunt, necessario semper conveniunt.'

§ 6. τῷ κυριωτάτῳ] i. e. τῷ νῷ. Cf. x. 7. 9 δόξειε δ' ἄν καὶ εἶναι b. 30. ἕκαστος τοῦτο, εἴπερ τὸ κύριον καὶ ἄμεινον.

ὡς περὶ δὲ καὶ πόλις κ.τ.λ.] 'As the ruling part in it seems to be b. 31. the state, or system, in the truest sense, so his ruling part is the man in the truest sense.' Mich. Eph. says—ὡς πόλις κυρίως ἐστὶν οὐ τὰ τεῖχη οὐδὲ αἱ οἰκίαι, οὐδὲ ἀπλῶς οἱ ἐν αὐτῇ οἰκοῦντες . . . ἀλλὰ πόλις ἐστὶ τὸ ἄρχον καὶ ἐξουσιάζον· οἷον ἐν τοῖς βασιλευμένοις πόλις ἐστὶν ὁ βασιλεύς, (l'état c'est moi) ἐν δὲ τοῖς δημοκρατουμένοις ὁ δῆμος, καὶ ἐν τοῖς ὀλιγαρχουμένοις οἱ εὐποροὶ . . . οὕτω καὶ ὁ ἄνθρωπος κυρίως ἐστὶ τὸ πεφικὸς ἐν ἡμῖν μέρος ἄρχειν τῆς ψυχῆς· ὅπερ ἐστὶ τὸ λογιζόμενον ἡμῶν καὶ φρονοῦν καὶ φίλαντος δὴ κυρίως ἐστὶν . . . ὁ τοῦτο φίλων.

ὡς τούτου ἑκάστου ὄντος] ὥστε τοῦ μὲν νοῦ κρατοῦντος αὐτός τις λέγεται b. 35. κρατεῖν, τῶν δὲ καθῶν κρατούντων, οὐκ αὐτὸς κρατεῖν ἀλλὰ μᾶλλον κρατεῖσθαι. (Paraph.).

καὶ πεπραγῆναι δοκοῦσιν αὐτοὶ καὶ ἐκουσίως τὰ μετὰ λόγου μάλιστα] The acts of the rational agent represent a consistent and single personality to which we always refer them; whereas the acts of the ἀκρατής represent merely the prevalence for the time of certain ἐπιθυμῖαι, and are regretted and as it were disowned, by the man 'when he comes to himself' again. On this ground the acts of the rational agent are spoken of here as *voluntary* in a higher sense

1168 b. 35. than those of the ἀκρατής. But it must be remembered that the doctrine of the Third Book (and we have no reason to suppose that Aristotle wishes to modify it here) makes no *practical* difference between acts done κατὰ λόγον, and those done δι' ἐπιθυμίαν ἢ διὰ θυμόν, *quæ* voluntary. If our good acts are voluntary so are also our bad acts: see iii. 1. 20 τὸ ἐκούσιον δόξειεν ἂν εἶναι οὐδ' ἢ ἀρχὴ ἐν αὐτῷ εἶδότει τὰ καθ' ἕκαστα ἐν οἷς ἡ πράξις. This description applies as well to acts caused by mere πάθος as to those due to βουλευτικὴ ὄρεξις. Πότερον (iii. 1. 23) οὐδὲν ἐκούσιως πράττομεν τῶν δι' ἐπιθυμίαν καὶ θυμόν, ἢ τὰ καλὰ μὲν ἐκούσιως τὰ δ' αἰσχροὶ ἐκούσιως; ἢ γελοῖον ἐστὶ γε αἰτίου ὄντος; We may perhaps say that while this is the *practical* view as it recommends itself to the sociologist, the statement πεπραγῆναι δοκοῦσιν αὐτοὶ καὶ ἐκούσιως τὰ μετὰ λόγου μάλιστα is made in the spirit of 'the *metaphysic* of Ethics.'

1169 a. 5. καὶ ὀρέγεσθαι ἢ τοῦ καλοῦ ἢ τοῦ δοκοῦντος συμφέρειν] Comes, following the Paraph., is doubtless right with ὅσον διαφέρει τὸ ἐπὶ λόγον ζῆν τοῦ κατὰ πάθος, καὶ ἢ τοῦ καλοῦ ὄρεξις τῆς ὀρέξεως τοῦ συμφέροντος. The writer's careless use of ἢ before τοῦ δοκοῦντος has betrayed some MSS. (K^b, M^b, Cambr., CCC, Ald. followed by Bywater) into the insertion of ἢ before τοῦ καλοῦ.

a. 6. § 7.] With this § *cf.* again Spinoza *Eth.* iv. Prop. 36—Summum bonum eorum qui virtutem sectantur, omnibus commune est, eoque omnes aequè gaudere possunt. *Demonstr.* ex virtute agere est ex ductu rationis agere, et quicquid ex ratione conamur agere est intelligere. Atque adeo summum bonum eorum qui virtutem sectantur est Deum cognoscere, hoc est, bonum, quod omnibus hominibus commune est, et ab omnibus hominibus, quatenus ejusdem sunt naturae, possideri aequè potest.

a. 11. εἴπερ ἡ ἀρετὴ τοιοῦτόν ἐστιν] *i. e.* each man individually will have the greatest of good things, 'for such is virtue.'

a. 17. § 8. πᾶς γὰρ νοῦς αἰρεῖται τὸ βέλτιστον ἐαυτῷ] Noûs in its perfect purity, as God, contemplates and eternally realises that which is best and highest—*itself*: see *Mel.* Λ. 9. 1074 b. 25 ὄλον . . . ἐστὶ τὸ θεϊώτατον καὶ τιμιώτατον νοεῖ, καὶ οὐ μεταβάλλει· εἰς χεῖρον γὰρ ἢ μεταβαλή . . . αὐτὸν ἄρα νοεῖ, εἴπερ ἐστὶ τὸ κράτιστον. In man *noûs* is the principle which maintains the ἐνυλον εἶδος of his nature, to maintain which is his chief good; while in the organisms of animals and

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1169 a. 26. lays down his life. Here all the ordinary motives operating within the region of the sensibility are left behind, and the agent rises into the sphere where action is determined by 'reverence for law universal.' Thus the doctrine of *φιλαντία*, which in its highest form amounts to 'self-sacrifice,' belongs to what may well be called 'the Metaphysic of Ethics.' That there is such a 'Metaphysic' is surely a great practical truth, attested by the fact that men are found thus ready to lay down their lives.

a. 32. § 10. ἐνδέχεται δὲ καὶ πράξεις τῷ φίλῳ προτεσθαι] If the *μεγίστη ψυχή*—the form under which the highest excellence is presented in the Fourth Book—be compared with the form under which it is presented here, certain, perhaps not unnatural, misunderstandings will be avoided in connexion with the earlier account.

a. 34. § 11. ἐν πᾶσι δὴ τοῖς ἐπαινετοῖς ὁ σπουδαῖος φαίνεται αὐτῷ πρὸς καλοῦ πλέον νέμων] not at the expense of others, but for the sake of our common Humanity. By ἐπαινετά we are to understand the virtues: see *E. N.* i. 12. 6 ὁ μὲν γὰρ ἔπαινος τῆς ἀρετῆς ἐραται γὰρ τῶν καλῶν ἀπὸ ταύτης. The 'larger share,' then, which the good man 'takes to himself' is a larger share of *καλαὶ πράξεις*, some of them involving the sacrifice of all that is dear to flesh and blood. The good man takes to himself a 'larger share' of 'self-sacrifice.' Great well compares with this account of the *φίλωντος* 'the elevated description of the self-sacrifice of the brave man in *Eth.* iii. 9. 4-5.'

CHAPTER IX.

ARGUMENT.

Another question is whether the Happy Man will need friends or not. No, say some: he is self-sufficient: he has the good: why, then, should he need a second or supplementary self to help him to attain a good which he already has? 'When Heaven is kind, what need of Friends?' To this it is replied that it seems absurd to assign all good things to the Happy Man with the one exception of—friends, the greatest of external good things. Also, since the good man is essentially a benefactor, and it is better to benefit friends than strangers, the good man will need friends to be the objects of his beneficence. Hence another question arises—Whether it is in prosperity or adversity that friends are more needed? In adversity a man will need benefactors; in prosperity, objects for

his beneficence. Again, are we to make the Happy man a Solitary? Surely this would be absurd. Man is naturally social. No one would choose to have all by himself the whole list of good things. The Happy Man, then, must have society, and, plainly, the society of good friends—for that is better than the society of strangers.

What, then, is the truth contained in the first view—that the Happy Man is self-sufficient, and does not need friends? The view is true so far as friendship for profit, and friendship for pleasure are concerned. The Happy Man does not need to make the former kind of friendship, because his material necessities are otherwise sufficiently provided for; nor does he need to make friends for the sake of pleasure, for his life is in itself pleasant, and has no need of imported pleasure. But it is not true to say, without qualification, that he does not need friends, for he must have good friends, since Happiness is a Life—a function performed, not a possession treasured, and this function is good and pleasant in itself for the good man who performs it, and pleasant too, because it is his own function, but he can contemplate the like function in his friend better than he can contemplate his own function. The Happy Man thus needs the mirror of Friendship in which to see clearly that which is his joy—the Life of good action—his own Life. Further, it being admitted that the life of the Happy Man ought to be pleasant, it could hardly be this were he a Solitary, for by himself he could not easily perform his function continuously. With others, and in relation to others, however, he will be able to do so more easily. A function pleasant in itself will thus be more continuously performed; and this accords with our notion of Happiness. Again, a man gets practice in virtue by associating intimately with good men, as Theognis tells us.

But there is a still deeper reason in the nature of things, from which we infer that a good friend is naturally the object of the good man's choice. We have seen that that which is naturally good is good and pleasant in itself for the good man. Now, Life, which is the power of perceiving and thinking—or more strictly, the exercise of the power, actual perception and thought—is good and pleasant in itself, for it is definite; it is therefore good and pleasant for the good man—all men indeed strive after it, but the good man especially strives after it, inasmuch as it is best and most blessed as realised by him. Further, he who sees or hears or walks perceives that he sees or hears or walks: there is a faculty in him which perceives that he exercises the various functions of sense-perception, and of thought: but to perceive that he perceives or thinks is to perceive that he exists (for existence or life, we saw, is perceiving or thinking): now, to perceive that he exists or lives is pleasant in itself, and especially to the good man whose life is especially choiceworthy: since, then, the relation in which the good man stands to his friend is the same as that in which he stands to himself, the good man who, perceiving himself as good, makes his own existence the object of his choice, will necessarily make the existence of his friend also the object of his choice, perceiving his friend's existence and goodness in perceiving his own—for a friend is a second self. This common perception of his own existence and of his friend's the good man will realise in that common-wealth of speech and thought which constitutes the social life of man, as distinguished from the gregarious life of cattle grazing together in the same pastures.

Our conclusion, then, is that the Happy Man must have good friends.

[The subject of this chapter (excellently summarised by Grant *ad loc.*) is discussed in *E. E. N.* 12 (a chapter the interpretation of which labours under great textual difficulties), and in *M. M.* ii. 15.]

- 1169 b. 6. § 1. τὸν δὲ φίλον, ἕτερον αὐτὸν ὄντα, πορίζειν ἂν δι' αὐτοῦ ἀδύναται] *i. e.* the notion of the ἕτερος αὐτός or supplementary self, who supplies what the αὐτός by himself cannot obtain, is inconsistent (*a priori*) with the notion of the αὐτάρκεια of the αὐτός.
- b. 7. ὅταν ὁ δαίμων κ.τ.λ.] Eurip. *Orestes* 667.
- b. 9. § 2. ὁ δοκεῖ τῶν ἐκτὸς ἀγαθῶν μέγιστον εἶναι] I cannot recall any passage in which Aristotle explicitly pledges himself to the view that friends are the greatest of external good things. The value of the ἕτερος αὐτός as he is characterised in the present book is scarcely that of an *external* good; while in *E. N.* i. 8. 15 and *Rhet.* i. 5, friends are simply enumerated among other external good things, without being placed in a position of marked superiority. Thus in *E. N.* i. 8. 15, 16, we have—φαίνεται δ' ἔχει καὶ τῶν ἐκτὸς ἀγαθῶν προσδεομένη, καθάπερ εἶπομεν ἀδύνατον γὰρ ἢ εἰ ῥᾶδιον τὰ καλὰ πράττειν ἀχορήγητον ὄντα. πολλὰ μὲν γὰρ πράττει, καθάπερ δι' ὀργάνων, διὰ φίλων καὶ πλούτου καὶ πολιτικῆς δυσάρτους ὅπως δὲ τητῶμενοι ῥυπαίνουσι τὸ μακάριον, οἷον εὐγενείας εὐτεκνίας κάλλους εἰ πάνυ γὰρ εὐδαιμονικὸς ὁ τὴν ιδίαν παναίσχης ἢ δυσγενῆς ἢ μονότης καὶ ἄπικρος, ἔτι δ' ἴσως ἦγον, εἴ τῳ πάγκακοι παῖδες εἴεν ἢ φίλοι, ἢ ἀγαθοὶ ὅπως τεθνήσκουσιν, and *Rhet.* i. 5. 1360 b. 18 sqq. εἰ δὴ ἐστὶν ἡ εὐδαιμονία τοιοῦτον, ἀνάγκη αὐτῆς εἶναι μέρη εὐγένειαν πολυφιλίαν χρηστοφιλίαν πλοῦτον εὐτεκνίαν πολυτεκνίαν εὐγηρίαν, ἔτι τὰς τοῦ σώματος ἀρετὰς οἷον ὑγίειαν κάλλος ἰσχὺν μέγεθος δύναμιν ἀγωνιστικὴν δόξαν τιμὴν εὐτυχίαν . . . οὕτω γὰρ αὐταρκέστατος εἶη, εἰ ὑπάρχοι αὐτῷ τὰ τ' ἐν αὐτῷ καὶ τὰ ἐκτὸς ἀγαθὰ, οὐ γὰρ ἐστὶν ἄλλα παρὰ ταῦτα· ἐστὶ δ' ἐν αὐτῷ μὲν τὰ περὶ ψυχῆς καὶ τὰ ἐν σώματι, ἔξω δὲ εὐγένεια καὶ φίλοι καὶ χρήματα καὶ τιμὴ. ἔτι δὲ προσήκον οἴομεθα δυνάμεις ὑπάρχειν καὶ τύχην· οὕτω γὰρ ἂν ἀσφαλέστατος ὁ βίος εἶη.
- b. 10. § 3. μονώτην] *Cf.* *E. N.* i. 7. 6 τὸ δ' αὐταρκείας λέγομεν οὐκ αἰτῶν μίση, τῷ ζῶντι βίον μονώτην, ἀλλὰ καὶ γονεῦσι καὶ τέκνοις καὶ γυναικὶ καὶ θίσει τοῖς φίλοις καὶ πολίταις, ἐπειδὴ φύσει πολιτικὸν ὁ ἄνθρωπος.
- b. 22. § 4. οἱ πρῶτοι] οἷς δοκεῖ μὴ δεῖν φίλων τοῖς μακαρίοις (Ραγαρῆ).
- b. 24. τῶν τοιούτων μὲν οὖν οὐδὲν δεήσεται ὁ μακάριος] *Cf.* Menander (apud Plut. *de Aud. Poet.* 13)—
μακάριος ὅστις οὐσίαν καὶ νοῦν ἔχει.

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quod unusquisque qui sectatur virtutem sibi appetit) omnibus commune est, eoque omnes gaudere possunt; conabitur ergo ut omnes eodem gaudeant, et eo magis quo hoc bono magis fruetur.'

b. 35. αἱ τῶν σπουδαίων δέ] I prefer δῆ, beginning the apodosis here. Zell and Michelet, however (and apparently also Susenbühl and Bywater who read δέ with CCC, Cambr., Ald.) make it begin with ὁ μακάριος δῆ 1170 a. 2. It seems to me necessary to state as a conclusion from (1) τοῦ ἀγαθοῦ ἡ ἐνέργεια σπουδαία καὶ ἡδέια, (2) τὸ εἶναι τῶν ἡδέων, and (3) θεωρεῖν δὲ μᾶλλον τοὺς πέλας δυνάμεθα ἢ ἑαυτοὺς καὶ τὰς ἐκείνων πράξεις ἢ τὰς οἰκείας, that 'a good friend's actions are pleasant to the good man': then, from the premisses εἴπερ κ.τ.λ. a. 2, follows the different conclusion that 'the μακάριος will need good friends.'

1170 a. 1. ἄμφω] i. e. τὸ ἐπιεικές (ὅτι τὸ σπουδαῖον) and τὸ αἰσίων. Cf. below εἴπερ θεωρεῖν προαιρεῖται πράξεις ἐπιεικεῖς καὶ οἰκείας. Zell and Fritzsche are evidently wrong in making ἄμφω nominative, i. e. ὁ σπουδαῖος καὶ ὁ φίλος αὐτοῦ σπουδαῖος ᾧν.

a. 6. συνεχῶς] Cf. x. 4. 9 πῶς οὖν οὐδεὶς συνεχῶς ἡδεται; ἢ κἄν; πάντα γὰρ τὰ ἀνθρώπεια ἀδυνατεῖ συνεχῶς ἐνεργεῖν. Cf. Met. Δ. γ. 1072 b.

14 διαγωγή δέ ἐστὶν οἷα ἡ ἀρίστη μικρὸν χρόνον ἡμῶν. οὕτω γὰρ αἰεὶ ἐκείνόν 1170 a. 6.
ἐστὶν. ἡμῶν μὲν γὰρ ἀδύνατον . . . φημὲν δὲ τὸν θεὸν εἶναι ζῶν ἀίδιον
ἀριστον· ὥστε ζῶν καὶ αἰὼν συνεχῆς καὶ ἀίδιος ὑπάρχει τῷ θεῷ· τοῦτο γὰρ
ὁ θεός.

μεθ' ἐτέρων δὲ καὶ πρὸς ἄλλους ῥῆον] The form of God is realised in one Eternal Being: the form of man in a multitude of contemporary and successive examples. Each individual man realises himself only by looking away from his own mere particularity, and assimilating into his consciousness the form of man's reason as other examples—his friends and fellow-citizens—by their cumulative influence impress it more purely upon him. The great embodiment of human reason, the social order into which he has been born, exists independently of himself. It is there already as an object for him to contemplate and identify himself with. It has not to be held up, as it were, in actual existence by his own unaided reason, as the abstractions of Philosophy have to be maintained (and cannot long be maintained at a stretch) by the thinker himself: see *E. E. H.* 12. 1245 b. 16 οὐ γὰρ οὕτως ὁ θεὸς εὖ ἔχει, ἀλλὰ βέλτιον ἢ ὥστε ἄλλό τι νοεῖν αὐτὸς παρ' αὐτόν. αἴτιον δ' ὅτι ἡμῶν μὲν τὸ εὖ καθ' ἕτερον, ἐκείνῳ δὲ αὐτὸς αἰτοῦ τὸ εὖ ἐστὶ. To contemplate, and in contemplating to identify himself with, the social life is a thing which a man can do almost continuously, because his οὐσία or φύσις is to be a person who sees himself in others and lives in others. But to identify himself with νοητά which involve no social reference is a godlike act, which he can only at rare intervals, and for a short time, perform. *Cf. Alex. in Met.* p. 671 (ed. Bonitz)—ὁ ἡμέτερος νοῦς, δυνάμει ὢν τὰ νοητά, ὅταν ἐκ τῆς ἄκρας ἐπιστήμης καὶ τῆς ἀγαν εὐζωίας ἐνεργεία γένηται τὰ νοητά, τότε ζῶμεν τὴν ἀρίστην καὶ μακαριωτάτην καὶ πάσης ἡδονῆς ἐπέκεινα ζωὴν, ἣτις λόγῳ μὲν ἐστὶν ἀνερμήνευτος, γινώσκειται δὲ τοῖς τὸ μακάριον τουτὶ παθοῦσι πάθος. . . . p. 687 οὐκ ἔσται ἐπίπονον αὐτῷ (i.e. τῷ πρώτῳ νῷ) τὸ συνεχὲς τῆς νοήσεως εἰ νοῦς ἐστὶ καὶ νόησις. ἀλλὰ πῶς τῷ ἡμετέρῳ νῷ οὐσιωμένῳ ἐν τῷ νοῦς εἶναι ἐπίπονον ἐστὶ τὸ συνεχὲς τῆς νοήσεως; ἢ οὐκ ἔστιν ὁ ἡμέτερος νοῦς ἐνεργεία νοῦς καὶ ἐνεργεία ὡς ἐκεῖνος, ἀλλὰ δυνάμει; As Alex. quaintly says, it is not difficult for a man to be always a man, ὅτι ἐν τῷ εἶναι ἄνθρωπος οὐσιῶται: but it is difficult for him always to walk, διὰ τὸ μὴ ἐν τῷ βαδίζειν οὐσιῶσθαι (p. 687). So it is difficult for man to think continuously, as God does, because man's νόησις stands to his νοῦς as his walking does to his physical power—it is something which tends to sink

1170 a. 6. back into the potentiality (δύναμις) from which it springs; whereas God's νόησις is an ἐνέργεια ἀνευ δυνάμεως. Cf. Themistius, vol. ii p. 211 (ed. Spengel)—ἡ ἐλάττωσις αὐτῷ (i. e. τῷ ἀνθρώπινῳ νῷ) πρὸς τὸν θεῖον κοῦν οὐχ ὅτι μηδέποτε δύναται νοεῖν τὰ ἀϋλα εἶδη, ἀλλ' ὅτι μὴ συνεχῶς καὶ αἰεὶ. But in his own lower sphere—that of conduct, man is able ἐνεργεῖν συνεχῶς more easily and successfully. The weakness of the individual is aided by the strength of the race; the law of rectitude is embodied in the good men of the race, and in the institutions which have held their ground, and does not depend much for its actuality on the efforts of any single individual. The efforts of the individual are rendered easier and more continuous by the stimulation which they receive from an object which they have not themselves, with pain and weariness, to hold up in actuality.

a. 7. § 6. συνεχεστέρα, ἡδεῖα οὐσα καθ' αὐτήν] These words are to be taken in connexion with οἴονται τε δεῖν ἡδέως ζῆν τὸν εὐδαίμονα a. 4. The μονότης cannot well be εὐδαιμόν on account of the difficulty (as explained in the foregoing note) of an approach in his case to τὸ συνεχῶς ἐνεργεῖν. But, sustained by society, the individual can make an approach to it. The words μονότη . . . ῥῆον a. 5, 6 have thus nothing directly to do with the statement οἴονται τε δεῖν ἡδέως ζῆν τὸν εὐδαίμονα, being rather an assertion of the general truth that εὐδαιμονία as a συνεχῆς ἐνέργεια requires (in man's case) friends and society. But having thus almost parenthetically hit upon τὸ συνεχῶς as distinctive of εὐδαιμονία, Aristotle then proceeds in regular course to point out that the requirement οἴονται τε δεῖν ἡδέως ζῆν τὸν εὐδαίμονα is justified by the law that 'his function, because pleasant in itself, will be more continuous'—συναίξει γὰρ τῆς ἐνέργειας ἢ οὐκ ἡδονῇ (x. 5. 2): and we are to understand that the pleasure of friendship contributes—a good friend making the good man take increased pleasure in his own πράξεις. I understand the τὰ κατ' ἀρετὴν πράξεις a. 9 to be not only those of the good man himself, but also those of his friend; and, although the passage (like other passages in this chapter) is somewhat confused (whether by the fault of Aristotle or his editors it is impossible to say), I do not think it necessary, with Ramsauer, to bracket the words a. 8 ὁ γὰρ σπουδαῖος ἢ σπουδαῖος . . . a. 11 λυπεῖται. They seem to be fairly enough suggested by ἡδεῖα οὐσα καθ' αὐτήν—'The function of the εὐδαίμων is truly pleasant—he rejoices or takes pleasure in τὰ κατ' ἀρετὴν

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1170 a. 18. δύναμις both λόγῳ and τῇ οὐσίᾳ. The priority οὐσία is set forth thus
 1050 a. 7 ἅπαν ἐπ' ἀρχὴν βαδίζει τὸ γινόμενον καὶ τέλος. ἀρχὴ γὰρ τὸ οὐ
 ἔνεκα τοῦ τέλους δὲ ἔνεκα ἢ γένεσις. τέλος δὲ ἢ ἐνέργεια, καὶ τούτου χάριν
 ἢ δύναμις λαμβάνεται. οὐ γὰρ ἵνα ὄψιν ἔχουσιν ὁρῶσι τὰ ζῆα, ἀλλ' ὅσοι
 ὁρῶσι ὄψιν ἔχουσιν.

a. 19. τὸ δὲ ζῆν . . . § 8, a. 25 φανερώτερον] This is a very confused
 passage, which Ramsauer proposes to mend by omitting the half
 of it—viz. from διόπερ a. 22 to φανερώτερον a. 25: indeed he
 practically recommends the omission of the whole of it, for he
 suspects the clause ὠρισμένον γὰρ a. 20 . . . φύσεως a. 21, leaving
 only τὸ δὲ ζῆν τῶν καθ' αὐτὸ ἀγαθῶν (καὶ ἡδέων), τὸ δὲ τῇ φύσει ἀγαθὸν
 καὶ τῷ ἐπιεικεῖ. Of course the argument which proceeds from the
 beginning of § 9 would not suffer if the whole passage, τὸ δὲ ζῆν
 a. 19 . . . a. 25 φανερώτερον, were omitted, for the parenthesis ἵνα
 δὲ καὶ a. 26 . . . a. 29 ζῶν contains all of material importance that
 would be thus lost; and indeed, by making τὸ πάντας ὁρέγεσθαι αἰσῶν,
 καὶ μάλιστα τοὺς ἐπιεικεῖς καὶ μακαρίους α σημεῖον of τὸ εἶναι αὐτὸ τὸ ζῆν
 ἀγαθὸν καὶ ἡδύ, puts the matter much more clearly than it is put in
 § 7, where the corresponding τὸ δὲ τῇ φύσει ἀγαθὸν καὶ τῷ ἐπιεικεῖ
 διόπερ ἔοικε πᾶσιν ἡδὺ εἶναι appears as a *deduction* from τὸ δὲ ζῆν τῶν
 καθ' αὐτὸ ἀγαθῶν καὶ ἡδέων. Notwithstanding all this, I cannot bring
 myself to think that the passage, with its references to τὸ ὠρισμένον
 and to λύπη, ought to be omitted. These references are not of
 material importance to the argument, but are just such as may
 naturally be made in passing without interrupting it.

a. 20. ὠρισμένον] Cf. E. N. ii. 6. 14. Life is unthinkable except as
 the realisation of *definite* forms and functions.

a. 22. § 8. οὐ δεῖ δὲ . . . λύπαις] When we say that life is naturally
 good, because 'definite,' and naturally pleasant, we must remember
 that vice and pain make it 'indefinite' and bad, and that they
 connect it with bad pleasures—for *all* men, not only good men,
 find life *pleasant*—with the pleasures of excessive indulgence and
 of relief from pain.

a. 24. ἐν τοῖς ἐχομένοις δὲ περὶ τῆς λύπης ἔσται φανερώτερον] Grant
 says—'This must be after all (see vol. i. p. 49), undoubtedly an
 interpolation. The editor probably had in his mind a confused

reference to x. 3. z.' Ramsauer urges that there is nothing in 1170 a. 24. x about pain being *ἀόριστος*. It may be replied that there are frequent references to pain in x; and that indeed the promise made here does not pledge Aristotle to speak more fully of pain being *ἀόριστος*: moreover the epithet *ἀόριστος* used here applies to the *μοχθηρά καὶ διεφθαρμένη ζωὴ* as well as to that *ἐν λύπαις*. Vice with its pleasures destroys the *ἀρχή* or *λόγος* of man's nature, and makes it chaotic—*ἀόριστος*: similarly, pain distorts it; although here we do not attach blame; *cf. E. N. iii. 12. 2 καὶ ἡ μὲν λύπη ἐξίστησι καὶ φθείρει τὴν τοῦ ἔχοντος φύσιν.*

§§ 9, 10.] The apodosis of the sentence *εἰ δ' αὐτό κ.τ.λ.* begins a. 25. with *οὕτω* b. 8. See the notes of Fritzsche, Michelet, and Grant: *cf.* also § 10 b. 14 *εἰ δὴ τῷ μακαρίῳ . . .* b. 17 *εἶη*—a sentence which epitomises the sense, and reproduces in skeleton the grammatical construction of the more diffuse reasoning which precedes. The apodosis of this sentence begins with *καὶ ὁ φίλος* b. 16.

§ 9. ὁ δ' ὁρῶν ὅτι ὁρᾷ αἰσθάνεται] *Cf. de An. iii. 2. 425 b. 12 a. 29.* *ἐπεὶ δ' αἰσθανόμεθα ὅτι ὁρῶμεν καὶ ἀκούομεν, ἀνάγκη ἢ τῇ ὄψει αἰσθάνεσθαι ὅτι ὁρᾷ, ἢ ἐτέρᾳ. ἀλλ' ἢ αὐτὴ ἔσται τῆς ὄψεως καὶ τοῦ ὑποκειμένου χρώματος. ὥστε ἢ δύο τοῦ αὐτοῦ ἔσονται ἢ αὐτὴ αὐτῆς. ἔτι δ' εἰ καὶ ἐτέρα εἶη ἢ τῆς ὄψεως αἰσθησις, ἢ εἰς ἀπειρον εἶσω ἢ αὐτὴ τις ἔσται αὐτῆς. ἔστ' ἐπὶ τῆς πρώτης τοῦτο ποιητέον.* See also *de Somno 2. 455 a. 15* *ἔστι δέ τις καὶ κοινὴ δύναμις ἀκολουθοῦσα πάσαις, ἢ καὶ ὅτι ὁρᾷ καὶ ἀκούει αἰσθάνεται: οὐ γὰρ δὴ τῇ γε ὄψει ὁρᾷ ὅτι ὁρᾷ:* see Edwin Wallace's *Aristotle's Psychology*, note on *de An. iii. 2. 425 b. 12*, and *Introduction § ix*, 'common or central sense'—especially his excellent remarks on pp. lxxxi–ii, where he reconciles the passage in *de Somno 2. 445 a. 15* with *de An. iii. 2. 425 b. 12*: 'unless,' he says, 'we are prepared to credit Aristotle with a wonderful amount of inconsistency we must regard the one passage as illustrative of the other. So taking them we cannot but allow that if Aristotle asserts in the one passage "it is not by sight mind sees that it sees," and in the other passage writes "sight perceives that it perceives," he is using sight in the former passage as the mere particular organ, whereas in the other it is identified with that original faculty of sense which serves as basis to the whole system of the senses. The consciousness of sense-perception is then, we may conclude, an attribute of that same central sense

1170 a. 29. which enabled us to compare and distinguish the different reports transmitted by our isolated senses. The two functions are in fact but different aspects of one and the same process; for the comparison of the reports of sense involves as its presupposition the conscious recognition of them as our own, the faculty, in other words, of holding them before the mind.'

In seeing, hearing, walking, etc., a man is conscious of himself—of his own existence: 'he perceives that *he* sees, hears, etc.' This perception of self, however, would hardly be possible to man if his only objects of experience were his own sensations. In that case the sensation and the perception of the sensation as *his* sensation would coalesce, as they practically do, we may suppose, in the experience of the lower animals, or of most of the lower animals. Even his experience of his own actions would be accompanied by only a dim consciousness of a self distinguished from them. But man is not confined to his own actions. He has a 'sympathetic consciousness' of the actions of his friend—of actions which are still in a sense 'his own' (for his friend is a *ἕτερος αὐτός*), and yet are not in such a way 'his own' as to make it difficult for him to distinguish 'himself' from them. The distinction between 'himself' and 'his friend' (for his friend is a *ἕτερος αὐτός*) helps him to the distinction between 'himself' and 'his own sensations and actions.' In other words—it is in the consciousness of the existence of another that a man becomes truly conscious of himself. τὸ αἰσθάνεσθαι αὐτοῦ ἀγαθοῦ δυνταί b. 9 cannot be realised apart from τὸ συναισθάνεσθαι καὶ τοῦ φίλου ὅτι ἔστιν b. 10. Man is distinguished from the brutes by the mental distance, as it were, at which he places his sensations and actions. He stands behind them and observes them: but this he does because he is a social being; because he can recognise, and takes pleasure in the recognition of, acts, thoughts, and feelings, not 'his own' but 'like his own.'

There can be no doubt that the term *συναισθάνεσθαι*, as employed in §§ 9 and 10, is intended to be accurately distinguished from *αἰσθάνεσθαι*¹. The term *αἰσθάνεσθαι* marks a man's consciousness of his own life; *συναισθάνεσθαι* his consciousness of his friend's

¹ The two terms are carefully distinguished in *E. E. H.* 12. 1244 b. 23 ἄλλο δὲ λαβοῦσι τί τὸ ζῆν τὸ κατ' ἐνέργειαν, καὶ ὡς τέλος. φανερόν οὖν ὅτι τὸ αἰσθάνεσθαι καὶ τὸ γνωρίζειν, ὥστε καὶ τὸ συζῆν τὸ συναισθάνεσθαι καὶ τὸ συγγνωρίζεσθαι ἴσως.

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1170 b. 11. πόλις, ἀλλ' ἡ τοῦ εὖ ζῆν κοινωνία καὶ ταῖς οἰκίαις καὶ τοῖς γένοις ζῶνς τελείας χάριν καὶ αὐτάρκους. οὐκ ἔσται μέντοι τοῦτο μὴ τὸν αὐτὸν καὶ εἶνα κατοικοῦντων τόπον καὶ χρωμένων ἐπιγαμίαις· διὸ κηδεῖαί τ' ἐγένεστο κατὰ τὰς πύλεις καὶ φρατρίαι καὶ θυσῖαι καὶ διαγωγαὶ τοῦ συζῆν· τὸ δὲ τοιοῦτον φιλίας ἔργον· ἡ γὰρ τοῦ συζῆν προαίρεσις φιλία. τέλος μὲν εὖ πόλεως τὸ εὖ ζῆν, ταῦτα δὲ τοῦ τέλους χάριν· πόλις δὲ ἡ γενῶν καὶ κερῶν κοινωνία ζῶνς τελείας καὶ αὐτάρκους χάριν. τοῦτο δ' ἐστίν, ὡς φασί, τὸ ζῆν εὐδαιμόνως καὶ καλῶς. τῶν καλῶν ἄρα πράξεων χάριν θετέον εἶναι τὴν πολιτικὴν κοινωνίαν, ἀλλ' οὐ τοῦ συζῆν.

CHAPTER X.

ARGUMENT.

Should a man try to have an indefinitely great number of friends, or must he draw the line somewhere in the number of his friends, as in the number of his guests? As regards useful friends, he must certainly draw the line at the number which he finds useful: to have more is to burden himself with the duty of recompensing supernumeraries, and hinders the life of noble action. As to friends for pleasure—a few will be enough, like a little sweetening in food. But what shall we say about the number of friends chosen because they are good men? Here again there are limits. The circle of true friendship, like the city, must not be too large or too small. Its extent cannot be accurately fixed, any more than the size of a city; it varies according to circumstances, within definite limits. This is the sense in which its extent is definite. Perhaps we may say that it ought to include as many as it is possible to live on intimate terms with; but, plainly, a man cannot live on intimate terms with, and distribute himself among, many: further, one's friends must be friends also to one another, if all are to meet together constantly in one's company; and it is a difficult matter to get many people to be thus all friends of one another. Again, it is hard to make the joys and sorrows of many people one's own, for one would often have to sympathise with the pleasure of this friend, and the distress of that friend at the same time. So perhaps it is best not to try to have a great many friends, but to limit oneself to the number sufficient to make up a circle of intimate friends, for it is impossible to be on terms of intimate friendship with many, as it is impossible to be in love with many. Whenever friendship is strong it is for few: take for example the friendship of comrades—it does not extend to many; and the famous cases of it are between two. Those who have many friends, and treat everybody they meet as 'my dear friend,' are recognised to be nobody's friends. Their friendship, if it is friend-

ship at all—some people call it fawning complaisance—is friendship in the sense in which we speak of a man's 'friendship' for his fellow-citizens. A man may indeed have many citizen 'friends,' without being chargeable with over-complaisance—nay, a truly good man may have many 'friends' of this sort; but it is impossible to have many friends of the sort who are chosen for their goodness, that is, for themselves. We must be satisfied if we have been able to find even a very few friends of this sort.

§ 1. μήτε πολύξεινος κ.τ.λ.] Hesiod. ἔργ. κ. ἡμ. 660.

1170 b. 21.

§ 2.] 'This section may be said to retract upon further consideration what was admitted *Elh.* viii. 6. 3—διὰ τὸ χρήσιμον δὲ καὶ τὸ ἡδὺ πολλοῖς ἰρέσκειν ἐνδέχεται· πολλοὶ γὰρ οἱ τοιοῦτοι, καὶ ἐν ὀλίγῳ χρόνῳ αἱ ὑπηρεσίαι' (Grant). b. 23.

ὁ βίος] may be 'their means,' which seems to be the view of Mich. Eph., who has βίος γὰρ καὶ περιουσία ἐνός οὐχ ἱκανὴ οὕτω πολλοῖς ὑπηρετεῖν: but the more ordinary sense of the word is, I think, preferable. b. 25.

§ 3. ὡς περ πόλεως] *Cf. Pol.* H. 4. 1326 a. 9 sqq. οἴονται μὲν οὖν οἱ πλείστοι προσήκειν μεγάλην εἶναι τὴν εὐδαίμονα πόλιν· εἰ δὲ τοῦτ' ἀληθές, ἀγνοοῦσι ποία μεγάλη καὶ ποία μικρὰ πόλις· κατ' ἀριθμοῦ γὰρ πλῆθος τῶν ἐνοικούντων κρίνουσι τὴν μεγάλην, δεῖ δὲ μᾶλλον μὴ εἰς τὸ πλῆθος, εἰς δὲ δύναμιν ἀποβλέπειν. ἔστι γὰρ τι καὶ πόλεως ἔργον· ὥστε τὴν δυναμένην τοῦτο μάλιστα ἀποτελεῖν, ταύτην οἰητέον εἶναι μεγίστην . . . ἐξ ἧς δὲ βάνασοι μὲν ἐξέρχονται πολλοὶ τὸν ἀριθμόν, ὀπίται δὲ ὀλίγοι, ταύτην ἀδύνατον εἶναι μεγάλην· οὐ γὰρ ταῦτόν ἐστιν μεγάλη τε πόλις καὶ πολυάνθρωπος· ἀλλὰ μὴν καὶ τοῦτό γε ἐκ τῶν ἔργων φανερόν ἐστι χαλεπόν, ἴσως δ' ἀδύνατον εὐνομεῖσθαι τὴν λίαν πολυάνθρωπον . . . ὁμοίως δὲ καὶ πόλις ἢ μὲν ἐξ ὀλίγων λίαν οὐκ αὐτάρκης· ἢ δὲ ἐκ πολλῶν ἄγαν ἐν μὲν τοῖς ἀναγκαίοις αὐτάρκης, ὡς περ ἔθνος, ἀλλ' οὐ πόλις· πολιτείαν γὰρ οὐ ῥῆδιον ὑπάρχειν . . . διὸ πρώτην μὲν εἶναι πόλιν ἀναγκαίων τὴν ἐκ τοσοῦτου πλῆθους ὃ πρῶτον πλῆθος αὐταρκες πρὸς τὸ εὖ ζῆν ἐστὶ κατὰ τὴν πολιτικὴν κοινωνίαν . . . δῆλον τοίνυν ὡς οὗτός ἐστι πόλεως ὄρος ἄριστος, ἢ μεγίστη τοῦ πλῆθους ὑπερβολὴ πρὸς αὐτάρκειαν ζωῆς εὐσύνοπτος. The State is an organism, and like all other organisms must observe definite limits. As realising τὸ καλόν, however, it must be on as great a scale as is consistent with order—see *Poet.* 7. 1450 b. 36 τὸ γὰρ καλόν ἐν μεγέθει καὶ τύξει ἐστὶ: *Pol.* H. 4. 1326 a. 29 ὁ γὰρ νόμος τάξις τίς ἐστι, καὶ τὴν εὐνομίαν ἀναγκαῖον εὐταξίαν εἶναι· ὁ δὲ λίαν ὑπερβάλλον ἀριθμὸς οὐ δύναται μετέχειν τάξεως· θείας γὰρ δὴ τοῦτο b. 30.

1170 b. 30. *δυναμῶς ἔργον, ἧτις καὶ τόδε συνέχει τὸ πᾶν· ἐπεὶ τὸ γε καλὸν ἐν πλήθει καὶ μεγέθει εἴωθε γίνεσθαι· διὸ καὶ πόλις, ἧς μετὰ μεγέθους ὁ λεχθεὶς ὄρος ὑπάρχει ταύτην εἶναι καλλίστην ἀναγκαίον. ἀλλ' ἔστι τε καὶ πόλεσι μεγέθους μέτρον, ὥσπερ καὶ τῶν ἄλλων πάντων, ζῶων, φυτῶν, ὀργάνων. καὶ γὰρ τούτων ἕκαστον οὔτε λίαν μικρὸν οὔτε κατὰ μέγεθος ὑπερβαλλὸν ἔξει τὴν αὐτοῦ δύναμιν κ.τ.λ.* Similarly, the friendly circle is of the nature of an organism, and cannot include an indefinite number of persons.

b. 31. οὔτε γὰρ ἐκ δέκα ἀνθρώπων κ.τ.λ.] Plato, in a passage in which he is concerned with the logical analysis of the present conditions of society, rather than with the natural history of the origin and growth of society, says, εἴη δ' ἂν ἡ γε ἀναγκαιοτάτη πόλις ἐκ τεττάρων ἢ πέντε ἀνδρῶν *Rep.* 369 D.

οὔτ' ἐκ δέκα μυριάδων] *Cf. Pol.* iii. 1. 1276 a. 28 *Βαβυλῶν...* ἧτις ἔχει περιγραφὴν μᾶλλον ἔθνους ἢ πόλεως κ.τ.λ. 'This extremely limited idea of the size of a state,' says Grant, 'is based on the Greek notion that each citizen must personally take part in the administration of affairs. On this hypothesis, a state consisting of a hundred thousand citizens might easily appear unwieldy.'

According to the allegation of the 400 in *Thuc.* viii. 72, the actual attendance at the Athenian Assembly always fell short of 5000. Grote (*Hist. of Greece*, Part 2, ch. 2, vol. v. p. 392 note: ed. 1862) remarks on this—'That no Assembly had ever been attended by so many as 5000 (*οὐδεπώποτε*) I certainly am far from believing. It is not improbable, however, that 5000 was an unusually large number of citizens to attend.' Xenophon (*Mem.* iii. 6. 14) tells us that the city of Athens consisted of more than 10,000 houses—*ἡ μὲν πόλις ἐκ πλειόνων ἢ μυρίων οἰκιῶν συνέστηκε.* Boeck (*Staatshaush. d. Ath.* i. p. 43, quoted by Kühner on *Xen. Mem.* iii. 6. 14) estimates the population of Athens (including the Piraeus) at 180,000—citizens, women, children, and slaves.

b. 32. τὸ δὲ ποσόν] *i. e.* the size of the city.

1171 a. 2. ἔδοκει] viii. 5. 3 οὐδὲν γὰρ οὕτως ἐστὶ φίλων ὡς τὸ συζῆν.

§ 4. δτι] Fritzsche reads *διότι* with *K^b*; but *δι-* is to be explained as a dittograph of the preceding *-αι*.

a. 3. οὐχ οἶόν τε πολλοῖς συζῆν καὶ διανέμειν ἑαυτόν] *Cf. i.* 7. §§ 6, 7

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CHAPTER XI.

ARGUMENT.

We come now to the question, Whether friends are more needed in prosperity or in adversity; for they are sought in both—in adversity, to render assistance, and in prosperity, as associates and recipients of beneficence. Well, our answer is that in adversity it is more necessary to have friends—accordingly in adversity men look out for useful friends; but better to have friends in prosperity—hence men are anxious to have good friends in prosperity, for these are more worthy associates, and recipients of beneficence: not but that the very presence of one's friends is sweet in adversity, as well as in prosperity; for those who are in sorrow are lightened by their friends grieving with them—whether they are lightened because their friends take a share of the burden, as it were, or whether it is because the sorrow is made less by the sweetness of friends' presence and by the thought of sympathetic grief, need not be discussed here: the fact, at any rate, is that the presence of friends lightens sorrow. And yet the sweetness of their presence is a mixed sweetness. The very sight of one's friend, especially when one is in distress, is indeed sweet, and helps one to restrain sorrow; for the sight and word of a friend give one courage, if the friend have tact: he knows one's disposition so well, and the things which give one pleasure or pain. On the other hand, to see another in pain for one's misfortunes is painful. Everybody avoids being the cause of pain to his friends. Hence stout-hearted natures shrink from making their friends share pain with them, unless some great relief be thereby gained: indeed such natures cannot endure companions in lamentation, because they are not themselves given to lamentation. Lamentation they leave to weak women, and men as weak, who delight in it and love as friends those who join with them in their distress. It is these stout-hearted natures that we ought to copy; for we ought to copy, in all things, the better example.

In prosperity, however, the presence of friends gives sweetness to the employment of leisure, and it is sweet to think that they are near to take pleasure in one's well-being: wherefore it would seem right to be forward in calling in one's friends to share one's prosperity, but backward in calling them in to take part in one's adversity—'One for sorrow is enough': but if they are to be called in in adversity, let it be when, with a little trouble, they are likely to do great good. On the other hand, a friend ought to come uncalled, where adversity may be aided; but, unless to help in carrying out some noble work, ought to be slow in coming where there is prosperity, and good things are to be enjoyed: but here again he must be careful not to seem churlish in rejecting advances.

Our conclusion then is, that the presence of friends is always desirable.

§ 1. ἀναγκαιότερον μὲν . . . κάλλιον δέ] In adversity a man 1171 a. 24. struggles with matter which opposes itself to the form of his εὐδαιμονία: in prosperity he realises the beautiful form without hindrance. In the former case friends are means—instruments by means of which he grapples with his difficulties; in the latter case they are ends—persons in whom the object of his contemplation, human nature as a rational system, is adequately represented.

§ 2. ἡδεῖα καὶ ἐν ταῖς εὐτυχίαις καὶ ἐν ταῖς δυστυχίαις] Bekker a. 28. omits the words καὶ ἐν ταῖς εὐτυχίαις. The authorities for their omission are K^b and CCC (CCC omits them in the text, and a later hand supplies them on the margin). They ought to be restored to the text: see Rasso, *Forsch.* pp. 67, 68. For δυστυχίαις L^b, O^b, and Ald. give ἀτυχίαις.

βάρους] Victorius, followed by other editors, quotes Xen. *Mem.* a. 31. ii. 7. Ἰ Σωκράτης Ἀρίσταρχόν ποτε ὀρῶν σκυθρωπῶς ἔχοντα ἔοικας, ἔφη, βαρέως φέρειν τι· χρὴ δὲ τοῦ βάρους μεταδιδόναι τοῖς φίλοις· ἴσως γὰρ ἀντί σε ἡμεῖς κουφίσαιμεν. Fritzsche quotes N. T. *Gal.* vi. 2 ἀλλήλων τὰ βάρη βαστάζετε.

ἢ τοῦτο μὲν οὐ, κ.τ.λ.] Perhaps one's friend does not relieve one of any part of the burden of one's sorrow, but encourages one (παραμυθητικὸν γὰρ ὁ φίλος § 3) to bear the whole weight manfully.

§ 3. παραμυθητικὸν γὰρ ὁ φίλος καὶ τῇ ὄψει καὶ τῷ λόγῳ] Coraes, b. 2. Michelet, and Fritzsche quote Eurip. *Ioni* 732—

εἴ τι τυγχάνοι κακόν,

εἰς ὄμματ' εὐνου φωτὸς ἐμβλέψαι γλυκύ.

Cf. Menander (apud Stob. *Flor.* iv. 65, ed. Meineke)—

ἠδὲ γε φίλου λόγος ἐστὶ τοῖς λυπουμενοῖς.

§ 4. κἂν μὴ ὑπερτείνῃ τῇ ἀλυπία] 'unless there be a great b. 7. balance of relief'—otherwise expressed at the end of the next section, b. 19 ὅταν μέλλωσιν ὀλίγα ὀχληθέντες μεγάλ' αὐτὸν ὠφελήσειν. I cannot agree with the interpretation offered by Grant and most of the editors—'unless he (*i.e.* ὁ ἀνδρώδης) be excessively impassive.' The change from the plural εὐλαβοῦνται b. 7 to the singular ὑπομένει b. 8 is awkward, but need not surprise us. Bywater suggests that the clause b. 6 διόπερ . . . b. 7 αὐτοῖς should be placed after θρηνητικός b. 10.

§ 5. εὐεργετικόν] εὐεργετητικόν given only by O^b is accepted by b. 18.

1171 b. 18. Bekker. The word is a *ἀπαξ εἰρημίνον*. All other MSS. recorded give *εὐεργετικόν*, which is rightly restored to the text by Rasso (Forsch. p. 68).

b. 18. *ἄλις ἐγὼ δυστυχῶν*] The Paraph. says—*ὁ τραγῳδὸς φησὶ*. The words, however, do not occur in any extant play; and Ramsauer is perhaps right in thinking that too much has been made of the Paraphrast's remark, and that we have here a common phrase, which it is not necessary to ascribe to a particular poet. Mich. Eph. refers the words to Euripides, whose *ἄλις ἔχω τοῦ δυστυχίου* (Orest. 240) is quoted by the editors.

b. 22. *§ 8. καὶ [τὸ] μὴ ἀξιῶσαντας*] Kasso (Forsch. pp. 68, 69) advocates *ἀξιῶσαντος* the reading of K^b (and CCC). This reading makes the *τὸ* (which is difficult with *ἀξιῶσαντας*, and is omitted by M^b, and bracketed by Bywater, and gives place in Ald. to *τῶν*) quite natural. Bywater's suggestion, *τὸ* before *εὐ* ~~τῶν~~ b. 21, ought, I think, to be accepted.

b. 26. *διωθεῖσθαι*] *sc. τὴν εἰπάθειαν*.

CHAPTER XII.

ARGUMENT.

As sight is the sense dearest to lovers, being, above all other senses, the seat and origin of their love; so, to spend their lives together is that which for friends is most choiceworthy, for friendship is communion. Now, as a man stands related to himself, so he stands related to his friend. The perception of his own existence is choiceworthy; therefore the perception of his friend's existence. This latter perception he realises in spending his life with his friend. It is natural, then, that he should seek to spend his life with his friend. It follows that, in whatever a man makes his existence to consist, in that he wishes to spend his time with his friend. Wherefore some spend their time in drinking together, others in gambling together, others practise athletics, or hunt, or study philosophy together—all, according to their sorts, spending their days together in the pursuits with which they identify their lives.

Thus the friendship of bad men is an evil thing, for they are unstable, and share in things that are bad, becoming evil and like to one another: the friendship of the good is a good thing, and grows with intercourse; they become better by practice and mutual correction, being moulded to one another's tastes.

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BOOK X.



CHAPTER I.

ARGUMENT.

Our next subject is Pleasure—admittedly a most important one: for Pleasure is inbred in our nature; pleasure and pain are the rudder-bands of education; there is nothing so important for morality, and consequently for the attainment of the Happy Life, as learning to like and dislike aright.

The subject then must by no means be omitted, especially as it is one on which there is great difference of opinion: for some maintain that Pleasure is the Chief Good, while others—whether from conviction, or by way of pious fraud (pious frauds, it may be remarked, are generally found out, and do harm in the end—there is nothing so useful as the plain truth)—maintain that it is utterly bad.

1172 a. 19. § 1. *περὶ ἡδονῆς*] See *Introductory Note* to vii. 11.

a. 20. *συνσκειῶσθαι*] ‘to have an intimate connexion with our nature’ (Peters). Mich. Eph. has—*οἰκεία τῇ φύσει ἡμῶν ἐστὶ καὶ ὡς οἰκείῳ ἀπαντες αἰρούμεθα καὶ διώκομεν.*

a. 21. *πρὸς τὴν τοῦ ἡθους ἀρετὴν*] K^b, M^b, N^b, and Cambr. read *ἀρχῆν*. Mich. Eph., however, seems to have had *ἀρετὴν* before him. His note is—*μέγιστον δὴ φησι καὶ πρὸς τὴν τοῦ ἡθους ἀρετὴν τὸ χαίρειν οἷς δεῖ ἡθους ἀρετὴν εἰπὼν αὐτὴν τὴν ἀρετὴν ὡς εἰ εἶλεγε, δοκεῖ δὲ καὶ πρὸς τὴν τῆς ἠθικῆς ἀρετῆς κτῆσιν μέγιστα συντελεῖν τὸ χαίρειν οἷς δεῖ κ.τ.λ. Cf. Plato, *Legg.* 653, and *E. N.* ii. 3. §§ 1-4, also *Pol. Θ.* 5. 1340 a. 14 sqq., where the principle ἡ δὲ ἀρετὴ περὶ τὸ χαίρειν ἔρως*

καὶ φιλεῖν καὶ μισεῖν is applied to determine the place of Music in 1172 a. 21. education, and the kinds of music that are to be taught.

§ 2. ὑπὲρ δὲ τῶν τοιούτων] For ὑπὲρ=περὶ with gen. in the *Ethics*, a. 28. see notes on i. 5. 7, i. 6. 13, iii. 3. 2, iv. 2. 4.

οἱ μὲν . . . οἱ δέ] Eudoxus . . . Speusippus. 'In all probability,' a. 27. says Grant *ad loc.*, 'Aristotle here alludes immediately to two sections of the Platonists, (1) the party represented by Eudoxus, whose arguments are quoted; (2) that headed by Speusippus, whose antihedonistic arguments were contained in two books mentioned by Diogenes Laertius, under the titles *περὶ ἡδονῆς α'* 'Αρίστιππος α', and which are now passed under review. Under the class of those who "call pleasure the chief good," Aristotle less directly refers to Aristippus, who, though he belonged to a bygone era, still lived in the pages of Plato's *Philebus*, and in the book of Speusippus bearing his name.'

Ramsauer has a pertinent observation—that in the parallel passage vii. 11. 3 οἱ τὰγαθὸν ἡδονὴν λέγοντες are not mentioned. Mich. Eph. has a very interesting note here—Εὐδοξος μὲν τὴν ἡδονὴν ταύτην ᾤετο τὰγαθῷ· εἰδικὴν γὰρ ἀρχὴν καὶ αἰτίαν πάντων τῶν ἀγαθῶν ἐτίθετο, ὡς οἱ τὰς ἰδέας πρεσβεύοντες τὸ αὐτοζῶον τῶν ζῴων καὶ τὸ αὐτοὸν τῶν θντων καὶ τὸν αὐτοάνθρωπον τῶν ἀνθρώπων καὶ τὸ αὐτοκάλλος τῶν καλλῶν¹. According to this account the doctrine of Eudoxus concerning pleasure was a development of, or perhaps only another way of stating, Plato's doctrine of the *ἰδέα τὰγαθοῦ*. If it was this, Aristotle is unfair to it when he insinuates (as he does below ch. 2. § 1) that it was a doctrine of mere hedonism (in the Cyrenaic sense)—a doctrine which was not supposed to be so immoral in tendency as it really was, only on account of the temperate character of its author. Aristotle is too much inclined to criticise Plato and the Platonists *au pied de la lettre*. Is his criticism of Eudoxus a case in point?

οἱ μὲν ἴσως πεπεισμένοι . . . οἱ δέ] Two classes of οἱ ἐξ ἐναντίας a. 20. *καμιδῆ φαῦλον λέγοντες*. So the Paraph.

διὸ δεῖν . . . μέσον] Cf. ii. 9. 5. 'Aristotle does not approve of a. 32. this being done by means of a sacrifice of truth' (Grant).

¹ Cf. the *marginalia* in L^b on i. 12. 5 (where see note) εἶπε γὰρ (ὁ Εὐδοξος) τὴν ἡδονὴν ἐπέκεινα εἶναι πάντων τῶν ἀγαθῶν.

1172 a. 38. § 2. τοῖς κατὰ τὴν αἴσθησιν] 'palpable facts' (Peters).

b. 2. τοιαύτην] *i. e.* ἐφετήν understood from ἐφιέμενος. Mich. Eph. has — λέγοντες τὴν ἡδονὴν φαύλην, εἶτα ἀποφαινόμενοι ἀγαθὴν ἐκ τοῦ ἐπιδιόκειν αὐτήν. The Paragraph. has—ὁ γὰρ ψέγων τὴν ἡδονὴν ἐφθεῖς ποτε ἐφιέμενος αὐτῆς, ἀποκλίνειν δοκεῖ πρὸς αὐτήν καὶ ἀγαθὸν ἡγεῖσθαι καὶ οὕτω δόξαν ἐντίθησι τοῖς ὁρώσιν ὅθ' ἔτινα ἡδονὴν ἀγαθὸν εἶναι, ἀλλ' ἀπλῶς ἀπασαν ἐπαινεῖσθαι· τὸ γὰρ διορίζειν καὶ διαιρεῖν καὶ τὸ μὲν ἀγαθὸν κρίνειν, ἐνδέχεσθαι δὲ ἄλλην φαύλην εἶναι, οὐκ ἔστι τῶν πολλῶν ἀλλ' ἅμα τε εἶδον τὸν νοῦν ἔχοντα ἡδονῇ τινὶ χαίροντα, καὶ πᾶσαν ἡδονὴν ἀγαθὸν καὶ αἰρετὸν φηθήσαν εἶναι, καὶ οὕτως οὐ μόνον ἀ ἐβούλοτο οὐκ ἔπεισεν, ἀλλὰ καὶ τὴν ἀλήθειαν προσεπώλεσαν—*i. e.* they say without qualification, by way of pious fraud, that all pleasure is bad; but when they are seen to seek some pleasures, they are thought to intimate that all pleasure is good. They thus not only fail to get people to enter into their pious fraud—to believe the general proposition 'all pleasure is bad'—but they also discredit the particular proposition 'some pleasures are bad,' which, as their own actions show, is what they really believe to be true, and wish people to act upon. It would have been wiser to say at first that 'some pleasures are bad'—to distinguish for the benefit of those who, unable to distinguish for themselves, generalise hastily from ἔργα. For ὡς τοιαύτην Ald., NC, Paris. 1853, and B^s read ὡς οὐ τοιαύτην (= ψεκτήν).

b. 3. § 4.] But a distinction which is consonant with ἔργα is of great practical use to those who understand it (τοῖς συνίεντας); of course, only those can understand moral distinctions placed before them, who have had the preliminary moral training insisted on in *E. N.* i: *cf.* i. 4. 6 διὸ δεῖ τοῖς ἔθεσιν ἡχθῆαι καλῶς τὸν περὶ καλῶν καὶ δικαίων καὶ ὀλως τῶν πολιτικῶν ἀκουσόμενον ἰκανῶς. Without such moral training no one can display the σύνεσις which consists ἐν τῷ χρῆσθαι τῇ δόξῃ ἐπὶ τὸ κρίνειν περὶ τούτων περὶ ἧς ἡ φρόνησις ἐστίν, ἄλλου λέγοντος, καὶ κρίνειν καλῶς (*E. N.* vi. 10. 3). It is in connexion with the doctrine of σύνεσις thus laid down that we must understand the expression τοὺς συνίεντας in the present passage. For the practical value of λόγοι, or γνῶσις, to those who have received good moral training, see note on i. 3. 7—τοῖς δὲ κατὰ λόγον τὰς ὑρέξεις ποιουμένοις καὶ πράττουσι πολυεφελεῖς ἐν εἴῃ τὸ περὶ τούτων εἶδέναι.

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to the personal character of Eudoxus': but see note on *x. i. 2, a. 27*.

20. § 2. ὁμοίως] *i. e.* καθ' αὐτὸ πᾶσιν (Ramsauer).

δὲ μὴ δι' ἕτερον μηδ' ἑτέρου χάριν] The latter of these expressions seems to be added merely as an alternative for the former. They seem to have exactly the same meaning.

25. αὐξεσθαι δέ] Bekker reads καὶ αὐξεσθαι δὴ. K^b and L^b omit καί. Ramsauer, Susemihl, and Bywater read αὐξεσθαι δέ, the δέ being Ramsauer's conjecture for the δὴ of the codd. Spengel (*Arist. Stud.* 218) asks with some force—How could Eudoxus, who wished to prove that ἡδονή is τὰγαθόν, have used this argument as Aristotle here (§ 3) understands it? What Eudoxus really meant, Spengel thinks, was something very different—viz. When ἡδονή is added to any good thing however small, that good thing surpasses all other good things however great, to which ἡδονή is not added. That which can thus enhance the smallest good above the greatest, must itself stand higher than the greatest—must be, in short, τὰγαθόν. This view of the relation of ἡδονή to ἀγαθά, attributed to Eudoxus by Spengel, agrees substantially with the account of his theory given by Mich. Eph. (see note on *E. N. x. i. 2*), and with the marginal commentary on *i. 12. 5* in L^b (see note *ad loc.*) εἶπε γὰρ τὴν ἡδονὴν ἐπέκεινα εἶναι πάντων τῶν ἀγαθῶν.

28. § 3. Πλάτων] See *Philebus* 60 D, E, where it is shown that the best life for man is ὁ μικτὸς βίος ἡδονῆς τε καὶ φρονήσεως.

31. οὐδενὸς γὰρ προστεθέντος αὐτῷ κ.τ.λ.] 'For the highest good is not made better by the addition of anything.' For αὐτῷ K^b (alone it would seem) gives αὐτό preferred by Bekker and Susemihl.

34. § 4. τί οὖν ἐστὶ τοιοῦτον κ.τ.λ.] 'What good is there, then, which is thus incapable of addition, and at the same time such as men can participate in it?' (Peters.)

οἱ δ' ἐπιστάμενοι κ.τ.λ.] Those who bring against the first 1172 b. 35. argument of Eudoxus the objection, or ἐνστάσις (*An. Prior.* ii. 26, 69 a. 37 ἐνστάσις δ' ἐστὶ πρότασις προτάσει ἐναντία), that 'what all seek is not good,' commit themselves to an untenable position in Aristotle's opinion; ἀ γὰρ πᾶσι δοκεῖ, ταῦτ' εἶναι φάμεν—*securus judicial orbis terrarum*. Their ἐνστάσις is παράδοξος, and, as such, is dialectically inadmissible, dialectic admitting only ἐνδοξα, save when the paradoxes are those of great philosophers (θείσεις); as for the paradoxes of ordinary men, it would be silly to pay attention to them—*Top.* i. 11. 104 b. 22 τὸ γὰρ τοῦ τυχόντος ἐναντία ταῖς δόξαις ἀποφηναιμένου φροντίζω εὐθεῖς.

ὀρέγεται] Bekker's ὀρέγετο is the reading of L^b, Paris. 1853, 1173 a. 2. and apparently of Mich. Eph. and the Paraph. All other authorities (including CCC, Cambr., B¹, B², B³) have ὀρέγεται, adopted by Bywater. For εἰ in this line and in the next, we perhaps ought to follow Michelet in reading ἦ.

αὐτῶν] Cambr. has αὐτῆς. a. 3.

ἦν ἂν τι λεγόμενον] Bekker's τό before λεγόμενον is omitted by K^b, L^b, M^b, O^b, Cambr., NC, Paris. 1853, B³.

φαύλοις] the 'inferior,' or irrational animals—τὰ ἀνόητα. a. 4.

ἔστι τι φυσικὸν ἀγαθόν] Susemihl, following Thurot, brackets ἀγαθόν, and Bywater's note is—'φυσικὸν ἀγαθόν fort. secludenda.' I think that it is likely that both words come from the margin.

τοῦ οἰκείου ἀγαθοῦ] 'their proper good' (Peters): *i. e.* when a. 5. they seem to be indulging merely their own caprices, as individuals, they are really maintaining the εἶδος of their race—striving after τὸ αἰεὶ καὶ τὸ θεῖον. At the end of the *Philebus* (67 B) Socrates says that to go to the lower animals for arguments in favour of pleasure is to trust 'the augury of birds,' instead of 'the Muse of Philosophy—ΣΩ. Οὐκοῦν πέμπτον κατὰ τὴν κρίσιν, ἣν νῦν ὁ λόγος ἀπεφῆνατο γίγνοιτ' ἂν ἢ τῆς ἡδονῆς δύναμις. ΠΡΩ. Ἐοικεν. ΣΩ. Πρῶτον δέ γε οὐδ' ἂν οἱ πάντες βόες τε καὶ ἵπποι καὶ τᾶλλα ζύμπαντα θηρία φῶσι τῷ χαίρειν διώκειν. οἷς πιστεύοντες, ὥσπερ μάντις ὄρνισιν, οἱ πολλοὶ κρίνουσι τὰς ἡδονὰς εἰς τὸ ζῆν ἡμῖν εὖ κρατίστας εἶναι, καὶ τοὺς θηρίων ἔρωτας οἴονται κυρίου εἶναι μάρτυρας μᾶλλον ἢ τοὺς τῶν ἐν Μούσῃ φιλοσόφῳ μεμαρτυμένων ἐκάστοτε λόγων. Aristotle may have had this passage in his mind here.

- 1178 a. 5. § 5. οὐκ ἔοικε δὲ οὐδὲ περὶ τοῦ ἐναντίου καλῶς λέγεσθαι] 'no is what the opponents of Eudoxus say about "the contrary" (i.e. about his argument from the contrary—viz. pain—ὅτι φησὶ ὁ φησὶ εἶναι φανερόν ἐκ τοῦ ἐναντίου § 2 above) satisfactory either.'
- a. 6. οὐ γὰρ φασιν, κ.τ.λ.] See notes on vii. 13. 1. Mich. Eph. has the following commentary here—ὁ ἐκ τοῦ ἐναντίου συριστῶν τῆς ἡδονῆς ἀγαθὸν λόγος τοιοῦτος ἦν· εἰ ἡ λύπη ἐναντία οὖσα τῇ ἡδονῇ κακὸν ἐστίν, ἀγαθὸν ἄρα ἡ ἡδονή. πόθεν δέ;—ὅτι ἡ λύπη κακόν, ἐκ τοῦ πάντι φεύγει αὐτήν. πρὸς τοῦτον τὸν λόγον τὸν ἐκ τοῦ ἐναντίου συριστῶν τὴν ἡδονὴν ἀγαθόν, ἐνίσταται ὁ Σπεύσιππος λέγων, οὐκ ἀνάγκη, ἐπειδὴ κακὸν ἐστίν ἡ λύπη ἀγαθόν εἶναι τὴν ἀντικειμένην αὐτῇ ἡδονῇ· οὐ γὰρ τῷ τὸ ἀντικείμενον κακῷ ἀγαθόν ἐστίν· ἀντίκειται γὰρ τῇ θρασύτητι κακὸν δυνί, ἡ δειλία, καὶ οὐκ ἐστίν ἀγαθόν ἡ δειλία, ἀλλὰ κακόν . . . ἀντίκειται οὖν φησὶ Σπεύσιππος καὶ κακόν κακῷ καὶ ἀμφω τῷ μηδέτερον, τουτέστι καὶ ἀμφοτέρω τὰ κακὰ τῷ ἀγαθῷ· μηδέτερον γὰρ τὸ ἀγαθόν εἶναι. αἱ γὰρ ἀρεταὶ μεσότητες οὖσαι οὐδέτερον τῶν ἄκρων εἰσὶ· ἡ γὰρ ἀσθένεια οὔτε δειλία οὔτε θρασύτης ἐστίν . . . καὶ λέγει ταῦτα καλῶς, ἀληθὲς γὰρ ἐστίν εἰπεῖν ὅτι ἀντίκειται κακόν κακῷ, καὶ ἀμφοτέρω τὰ κακὰ τῷ ἀγαθῷ· τοῦτο μὲν οὖν λέγουσι καλῶς· τὸ δ' ὅτι ἡ ἡδονὴ ὡς κακόν κακῷ ἀντίκειται τῇ λύπῃ λέγουσιν οὐ καλῶς. οὐ γὰρ ἀντίκειται ἡ ἡδονὴ τῇ λύπῃ ὡς κακόν κακῷ ἀλλ' ὡς ἀγαθόν κακῷ· εἰ γὰρ ἦν κακόν ἡ ἡδονὴ ἦν καὶ φευκτόν καὶ μισητόν ὡς ἡ λύπη· νῦν δὲ τὴν μὲν λύπην φεύγει πάντα . . . ὡς κακόν, διώκει δὲ τὴν ἡδονὴν ὡς ἀγαθόν.
- a. 8. ἀμφω τῷ μηδέτερον] τῷ μηδέτερον seems to be the reading only of Γ, Mich. Eph., and Ar. All other authorities apparently read τῷ μηδέτερα (so K^b, L^b, O^b, B¹, B², CCC, NC, Cambr., Ald.) or τῷ μηδέτερον (M^b, B²). The reading τῷ μηδέτερα is strongly supported by Plato, *Rep.* 583 E ἡ καὶ δυνατὸν τὸ μηδέτερα δὲ ἀμφοτέρω γίνεσθαι—words which occur in a context which, I think, Aristotle has in his mind here.
- a. 10. ἀμφοῖν γὰρ ὄντων (τῶν) κακῶν] Bywater adds τῶν—a distinct improvement to the clause. The ὄντων κακῶν of K^b (and B²), accepted by Bekker and Sussemihl, shows us how the original τῶν dropped out.
- a. 11. τῶν μηδετέρων δὲ μηδέτερον ἢ ὁμοίως] The construction apparently is τῶν μηδετέρων δὲ ὄντων (if both pleasure and pain belong to the class of neutral states), μηδέτερον (neither of them) φευκτόν εἶναι, ἢ ὁμοίως ἐκάτερον φευκτόν :—or as Coraes puts it—εἰ φησὶ

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1173 a. 11. ἡδονὴν εἶναι τὴν λύπης ἀπαλλαγὴν, μηδὲ λύπην τὴν ἡδονῆς. Μὴ γάρ. Ἄλλὰ μέντοι, εἶπον, αἱ γὰρ διὰ τοῦ σώματος ἐπὶ τὴν ψυχὴν τείνουσι καὶ λεγόμεναι ἡδοναί, σχεδὸν αἱ πλείστοι τε καὶ μέγισται, τοῦτου τοῦ εἶδους εἰσὶ, λυπῶν τινὲς ἀπαλλαγαί.

It remains only to note that, for μηδέτερον, K^b, γ, CCC, Cambr., B¹, B², B³ read ἢ ἕτερον.

a. 18. οὕτω δὴ καὶ ἀντίκειται] ὡς τὸ μὲν αἰρετὸν τὸ δὲ φευκτὸν εἶναι (Ramsauer). I think that λύπη is the subject of ἀντίκειται: see the Paragraph.—ὅθεν φανερόν ὅτι ὡς κακὸν ἀγαθῷ ἢ λύπη ἡδονῇ ἀντίκειται. M^b gives the easier reading ἀντίκεινται.

CHAPTER III.

ARGUMENT.

The argument that 'Pleasure is not good, because it is not a Quality' runs too much:—virtuous actions are not qualities, nor is Happiness a quality.

To those who argue that 'Pleasure is not good, because it is indefinite, and indefinite because it admits of degrees' we answer—(a) Perhaps your conclusion relies on the circumstance that people are pleased in various degrees: but you cannot infer that there are degrees in Pleasure itself because people are pleased in various degrees, any more than you can infer degrees in δικαιοσύνη because δικαίος admits of comparative and superlative degrees—δυνατότερος, δυνατότατος. (b) Perhaps you will reply that you look, not at people pleased, but at pleasures themselves, and find that they admit of degrees: then, we answer, it is at the mixed pleasures you look: they indeed admit of degrees; but it is not to the mixed but to the pure pleasures that you ought to go for evidence. (c) Finally, if you maintain that even the pure pleasures admit of degrees, we may grant that they do, without allowing your inference that therefore they are indefinite and bad: a thing may admit of degrees within definite limits—health, e. g. varies, without ceasing to be the definite thing that it is: so may pleasure too.

The argument that the good is perfect, or has realised the end, whereas Pleasure is only a Motion or a Process which is imperfect, we meet by pointing out that it is unmeaning to speak of Pleasure, which is neither quick nor slow, as a Motion; or as a Process of generation—for what, it may be asked, is generated out of what by the so-called process, and what is resolved back into what by the reverse process, Pain? To say that 'Pain is the dissolution of that of which Pleasure is the generation' is to use words without meaning. Where, it may be asked, are the elements organised by the so-called 'generation,' and separated by the so-called 'dissolution'?

Again, to describe *Pleasure as Repletion* is to confound *Pleasure itself* and a bodily process with which certain pleasures are associated—those lower pleasures which are felt when want is being satisfied; for the higher pleasures—those of thinking and some of the bodily pleasures—are not associated with the repletion of want and the relief of pain.

To those who bring forward the disgraceful pleasures as evidence against *Pleasure in general*, we have to point out that it is only to ill-conditioned natures that the objects of these pleasures are 'pleasant': in short, that there are good pleasures and bad pleasures—those being good which attend good functions, or are raised by good objects, bad, which attend bad functions, or are raised by bad objects.

That pleasures differ specifically as their objects differ is, in short, our final answer to those whose arguments we have been examining. It is unmeaning to say 'Pleasure is good,' or 'Pleasure is bad.' Pleasure in what objects? we ask. There are objects in which we ought not to take pleasure, and there are objects which we should pursue even if no pleasure were connected with them.

We see, then, on the one hand that *Pleasure is neither the Chief Good nor all desirable*, and on the other hand that some pleasures are desirable.

§ 1.] See *Cat.* 8. 8 b. 27, where ἔξεις are given as the first and most important kind of ποιότητες. The ἀρεταί, or virtuous ἔξεις, are, it is true, ποιότητες—and, as possessing such ποιότητες, we are ποιότητες καὶ ἀγαθοί (*E. N.* i. 9. 8); but there are things which are not ποιότητες, and yet are good. The ἐνέργειαι which spring from ἀρετή are not ποιότητες: cf. *Poet.* 6. 1450 a. 18 καὶ γὰρ ἡ εὐδαιμονία ἐν πράξει ἐστὶ, καὶ τὸ τέλος πράξις τις ἐστὶν οὐ ποιότης· εἰσὶ δὲ κατὰ μὲν τὰ ἦθη ποιότητες, κατὰ δὲ τὰς πράξεις εὐδαίμονες ἢ τούναντίον. To be good, a thing need not be a permanent state (ἔξεις), like virtue or health. The act of vision, e.g., is good and perfect within the limits of a moment. So also is the experience of pleasure (see x. 4. 1). The argument which Aristotle here opposes is founded on a very natural feeling—viz. that to be good, and worth having, a thing must endure permanently; especially the conscious life of the individual to be worth having at all, must endure permanently. But Aristotle does not share this feeling. Consciousness, he would tell us, is fully good within the limits of an indivisible moment; its essential goodness is independent of time: let those who maintain that, if the individual consciousness is ever to be extinguished, then it is not worth having at all, look at Nature. Why does Nature produce the individual organisms of plants and animals, and allow them to perish without possibility of revival? Is it not 'good' for these individuals to live while they live, and are their lives less perfect and good, because they are not permanent?

1173 a. 18. Ἄλλὰ μὴν οὐδὲ τῷ αἰδίου εἶναι μᾶλλον ἀγαθὸν ἔσται, εἴπερ μηδὲ λευκώτερον τὸ πολυχρόνιον τοῦ ἐφημέρου.

It will be observed that the position combated in the present § (x. 3. 1) is really that which the writer of vii. 12. 2 attacks—the simple identification of εἶς and ἀγαθόν: see note there on τῷ ἀγαθοῦ τὸ μὲν ἐνέργεια τὸ δ' εἶς 1152 b. 33.

a. 15. § 2. λέγουσι . . . ἦττον] See Plato, *Philebus* 24 E ΣΩ. Νῦν μέντοι ἄθρει τῆς τοῦ ἀπείρου φύσεως εἰ τοῦτο δεξόμεθα σημείον, ἵνα μὴ πᾶσι ἐπεξιόντες μηκύνωμεν. ΠΡΩ. Τὸ ποῖον δὴ λέγεις; ΣΩ. Ὅπως ἐν ἡμῶν φαίνεται μᾶλλον τε καὶ ἦττον γινόμενα καὶ τὸ σφόδρα καὶ ἡρέμα δεχόμενα καὶ τὸ λίαν καὶ ὅσα τοιαῦτα πάντα, εἰς τὸ τοῦ ἀπείρου γένος ὡς εἰς ἐν δεῖ πάντα ταῦτα τιθέναι: see also *Philebus* 31 A τοὺς μὲν αἰτίας ἦν συγγενῆς αἰ τοῦτου σχεδὸν τοῦ γένους, ἡδονὴ δὲ ἀπειρός τε αὐτῆ καὶ τοῦ μήτε ἀρχῆν μήτε μέσα μήτε τέλος ἐν ἑαυτῷ ἀφ' ἑαυτοῦ ἔχοντος μηδὲ ἔξοντός ποτε γένουσι.

a. 17. εἰ μὲν οὖν ἐκ τοῦ ἡδεσθαι τοῦτο κρίνουσι] 'If it is from observing *people pleased* that they come to the conclusion that *pleasure* admits of degrees and is therefore not good, they will have, by parity of reasoning, to conclude that *justice* admits of degrees and is therefore not good, because *people are just* in various degrees.' Cf. *Cat.* 8. 10 b. 33 δικαιοσύνην μὲν γὰρ δικαιοσύνης οὐ πᾶν φασι δεῖν λέγεσθαι μᾶλλον καὶ ἦττον, οὐδὲ ὑγίαιαν ὑγείας ἦττον μέντοι ἔχειν ἕτερον ἑτέρου ὑγίαιαν, καὶ δικαιοσύνην ἕτερον ἑτέρου . . . δικαιοτέρος γὰρ ἕτερος ἑτέρου λέγεται. Thus τὸ ἡδεσθαι, 'the being pleased'—for which we may substitute ὁ ἡδόμενος, 'the man who is pleased,' answers to the adjective δίκαιος in the passage quoted from the *Categories*; and as δίκαιος may become δικαιοτέρος, so ὁ ἡδόμενος may be 'more pleased'; but as we do not infer from δικαιοτέρος that δικαιοσύνη itself is indefinite and bad, so we must not infer from ἡδεσθαι τις μᾶλλον that ἡδονή is indefinite and bad. The Paraph. has ἡ ἐπίτασις καὶ ἡ ἀνεσις ἐν τῷ ἡδεσθαι γίνεται ὅτι ἡδόμενοι μᾶλλον καὶ ἦττον ἡδύονται τοῦτο δὲ καὶ ἐν ταῖς ἀρεταῖς συμβαῖνον φαίνεται: δίκαιοι γὰρ εἰσι μᾶλλον καὶ ἦττον ἀνδρείοι . . . ἀλλ' οὐ διὰ τοῦτο ἀόριστοί εἰσι αἱ ἀρεταὶ τῶν αἰδίων δὴ τρόπον καὶ ἡ ἡδονὴ αὐτῆ μὲν καθ' ἑαυτὴν οὐκ ἔστιν ἀόριστος, ἐν δὲ ταῖς ἡδομένοις τῆν ἐπίτασιν καὶ τῆν ἀνεσιν ἐπιδέχεται. Similarly Mich. Ep̄h. speaks of the εἶδος οἱ τί ἦν εἶναι οἱ ἀνδρεία, σωφροσύνη, οἱ ἡδονή, as being τοῦθ' ὅπερ ἔστιν, and as ἀνεπίτατόν τε καὶ ἀόριστον. The distinction drawn here and in *Cat.* 8. 10 b. 33, between δίκαιος and δικαιοσύνη is now familiar as that between an adjective which admits of 'degrees of comparison,' and an abstract noun which does not.

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1173 a. 22. pleasures of smell, sight, and hearing. Mich. Eph. is, therefore, entirely wrong when he says λέγει δὲ ἀμυγείς μὲν ἡδονὰς αὐτὸ καθ' αὐτὸ χωρὶς τινὸς ὑποκειμένου τὸ εἶδος τῆς ἡδονῆς νοοῦμενον . . . μεμιγμένα δ' αἱ ἐν ἐμοὶ καὶ σοὶ ἐν ἐπιτάσει καὶ ἀνίσει ἴστανται.

a. 23. § 3. καὶ τί κωλύει, κ.τ.λ.] Bekker's τί γὰρ κωλύει is the reading of M^b alone. O^b has τί γὰρ κωλύεται, but γὰρ is not given by any other MS. K^b has καὶ τί κωλύεται, Γ τί δὲ κωλύει, and L^b, CCC, Cambr., B¹, B², NC, P² all have τί κωλύει δέ. The authority therefore for Bekker's γὰρ is of the slightest. Γὰρ seems to have been substituted for καὶ or δέ to make the clause explain the erroneous meaning attached to μικταί, which were taken (as by Mich. Eph. quoted at the end of last note) to be αἱ ἐν ἐμοὶ καὶ σοί, while αἱ ἀμυγείς were thought to stand for τὸ εἶδος τῆς ἡδονῆς. But if we read τί δὲ κωλύει (see Kassow, *Forsch.* pp. 69, 70), the clause is seen to contain not an explanation of a. 22 εἰ δὲ . . . a. 23 μικταί, but a new argument against the view τὴν ἡδονὴν ἀόριστον εἶναι. The first part of § 2 argued that the fact that *people are pleased* more and less does not imply that *pleasure itself* admits of more and less, or is indefinite: the second part of § 2 argued that even though the mixed or lower bodily pleasures may themselves admit of more and less and be indefinite, yet the pure pleasures are not indefinite: while the clause beginning τί δὲ κωλύει goes further, and questions the validity of the inference ἀόριστον εἶναι ὅτι δέχεται τὸ μᾶλλον καὶ [τὸ] ἧττον, and suggests that the εἶδος of even a pure pleasure may display degrees without ceasing to be the εἶδος that it is, or becoming ἀόριστον.

a. 25. οὐ γὰρ ἡ αὐτὴ συμμετρία] These words seem to me to prove that Aristotle is not thinking of the mixed pleasures in this section, as most of the commentators suppose, but of the pure pleasures which involve ἐμμετρία or proportion (*Phil.* 52 C). Aristotle, using for the occasion Platonic language, points out that the definite proportion which constitutes a pure pleasure may be realised and maintained in different ways, just as the balance of health or virtue may be effected by many different arrangements of the elements which are organised. Grant seems to me to be wrong when he says in his note here—'even the mixed pleasures, says Aristotle, admit the idea of proportion (συμμετρία).'

a. 29. § 4. τελειὸν τε πάραθδὸν τιθέντες] Plato, *Philebus* 53 C-54 C: see notes on vii. 12. 3. Aristotle's argument against the view that

pleasure is a *κίνησις* is—If pleasure is a ‘motion,’ it must be *quick* 1173 a. 29. or *slow*. Can we speak of pleasure as quick or slow? We may pass into a pleasurable state quickly or slowly; but the pleasure actually felt is not quick or slow: see *Phys. E. 1. 225 b. 8* for the three kinds of *κίνησις*—(1) *ἡ τοῦ ποιού = ἀλλοίωσις*: (2) *ἡ τοῦ ποσοῦ = αὔξησης καὶ φθίσις*: (3) *ἡ κατὰ τόπον = φορά*.

καὶ εἰ μὴ καθ’ αὐτήν, οἷον τῇ τοῦ κόσμου, πρὸς ἄλλο] The *κόσμος* a. 32. is here the universe, as one whole, moving with the *πρῶτος οὐρανός*, or *ἀπλανῆς σφαῖρα*, the *κυκλοφορία* of which is uniform, and therefore cannot be called either quick or slow, when regarded *per se*—καθ’ αὐτήν, although πρὸς ἄλλο—compared with the proper motions of the inner planetary spheres—it is quick. With *οἷον τῇ τοῦ κόσμου* we must understand *οὐκ ἔστι τάχος καὶ βραδύτης καθ’ αὐτήν*. On the motion of the *πρῶτος οὐρανός* see *de Coelo* ii. 6. 288 a. 13 *περὶ δὲ τῆς κινήσεως αὐτοῦ ὅτι ὁμαλῆς ἐστὶ καὶ οὐκ ἀνώμαλος, ἐφεξῆς τῶν εἰρημένων διελθεῖν λέγω δὲ τοῦτο περὶ τοῦ πρώτου οὐρανοῦ καὶ τῆς πρώτης φοράς*: see notes on iii. 3. 3. The comment of Mich. Eph. on the present passage is—*ὁ δὲ λέγει ἐστὶν εἰ μὴ πᾶσα κίνησις αὐτὴ καθ’ αὐτήν τὸ θάττον ἐπιδέχεται, οἷον ἡ τοῦ κόσμου, λέγων νῦν κόσμον αὐτὴν τὴν ἀπλανῆ σφαῖραν ἀνεπίδεκτος γὰρ ἐστὶ τάχους καὶ βραδύτητος διὰ τὸ ὁμαλῶς κινεῖσθαι τὴν τοιαύτην σφαῖραν, ὡς ἐν τῷ περὶ οὐρανοῦ δέδεικται· ἀλλ’ οὖν πρὸς τὰς τῶν πλασμένων κινήσεις εἴ τις αὐτὴν παραβάλλοι, εὐρήσει θάττονα πάνυ πολλῶ τῶν κινήσεων ἐκείνων*.

τούτων οὐδέτερον] Pleasure has *τάχος καὶ βραδύτης* neither καθ’ α. 33. αὐτήν, ποῖ πρὸς ἄλλο.

ἡσθῆναι] ‘to become pleased’ = *μεταβάλλειν εἰς τὴν ἡδονήν* a. 34. 1173 b. 2.

ἡδεσθαι] ‘to have the feeling of pleasure’ = *ἐνεργεῖν κατ’ αὐτήν* b. 1. b. 3.

§ 5.] In this section Aristotle deals with the view that *ἡδονή* is b. 4. a *γένεσις*, in the same way as he has dealt with the view that it is a *κίνησις*. If it is a *γένεσις*, he argues, there must be certain definite elements which this particular *γένεσις* called *ἡδονή* organises; and the disorganising process, or *φθορά*, contrary to this *γένεσις*—which is *λύπη* according to the Platonists, for they say *οὐ γένεσις ἡ ἡδονή, τούτου ἡ λύπη φθορά*—will leave these same elements in separation for our inspection. Where are the elements in question?

1173 b. 4. They are not to be found. The term *γένεσις* is used with as little regard for its real meaning as the term *κίνησις* is when applied to that which is neither quick nor slow. It is to be carefully noted, that *καὶ οὐ γένεσις ἢ ἡδονή, τούτου ἢ λύπη φθορά* is the statement of the Platonists. See Grant's note *ad loc.* to which I am much indebted. Mich. Eph. has the following comment on this section—*εἰ οὖν καὶ ἢ ἡδονή γένεσις ἦν, ἦν ἂν ὁδός τις καὶ μεταβολή ἔκ τινος εἰς τι, ὡς ἢ μέλας εἰς λευκοῦ εἰς μέλαν . . . οὐκ ἔστι δὲ ἐπὶ τῆς ἡδονῆς οὔτε τὸ ἀφ' οὗ οὔτε τὸ εἰς ὃ, οὐκ ἔστι γὰρ οὔτε τὸ ἀλλοιούμενον καὶ μεταβάλλον καὶ γιγνόμενον τι διὰ ἡδονῆς, οὔτε τέλος τι εἰς ὃ τελευτᾷ ἢ ἡδονή, ὅσπερ ἢ ὑγίανσις εἰς τὴν ὑγίαν καὶ ἢ θέρμανσις εἰς τὸ θερμόν καὶ τοῦτο εἰκότως συμβαίνει, οὐ γὰρ ἔστι γένεσις ἀλλ' ἐνέργεια, ὡς δείξει, καὶ αἱ ἐνέργειαι τέλη εἰσὶν ἀλλ' οὐχ ὁδοὶ πρὸς τέλη . . . οὐκ ἔστι γὰρ μόριόν τε τοῦ χρόνου καθ' ὃν ἡδεται ἐν ᾧ οὐ τέλος ἦν ἐν τῷ ἡδομένῳ ἢ ἡδονή. τὸ δ' ἐν ἀπασιν τοῖς μέρεσι τοῦ χρόνου τελειόν τι καὶ ὁλόκληρον δὲ οὐ γένεσις ἔπιν ἀλλ' ἐνέργεια.* See X. 4. 4.

b. 7. § 6.] The following passage in the *Philebus* (31 E—32 B) presents the doctrine criticised in this section, as well as that disposed of in § 5—ΣΩ. Πείνη μὲν πού λύσις καὶ λύπη; ΠΡΩ. Ναί. ΣΩ. Ἐδωδὴ δέ, πλήρωσις γενομένη πάλιν, ἡδονή; ΠΡΩ. Ναί. ΣΩ. Δίψος δ' εὐ φθορά καὶ λύπη [καὶ λύσις], ἢ δὲ τοῦ ὑγροῦ πάλιν τὸ ξηρανθὲν πληροῦσι δύναμις ἡδονή. διάκρισις δέ γ' αὐ καὶ διάλυσις ἢ παρὰ φύσιν, τοῦ πηγῶσι πάθη, λύπη; κατὰ φύσιν δ' ἢ πάλιν ἀπόδοσις τε καὶ ψύξις ἡδονή. ΠΡΩ. Πάνυ μὲν οὖν. ΣΩ. Καὶ ῥίγους ἢ μὲν παρὰ φύσιν τοῦ ζώου τῆς ὑγρότητος πῆξις λύπη; πάλιν δ' εἰς ταῦτόν ἀπιόντων καὶ διακρινομένων ἢ κατὰ φύσιν ὁδὸς ἡδονή. καὶ ἐνὶ λόγῳ σκόπει εἰ σοι μέτριος ὁ λόγος, ὅς ἂν φῆ τὸ ἐκ τοῦ ἀπείρου καὶ πέρατος κατὰ φύσιν ἐμψυχον γενοδὸς εἶδος, ὅπερ ἔλεγον ἐν τῇ πρόσθεν, ὅταν μὲν τοῦτο φθείρηται, τὴν μὲν φθορὰν λύπην εἶναι, τῆς δ' εἰς τὴν αὐτῶν οὐσίαν ὁδόν, ταύτην δ' αὐ πάλιν τὴν ἀναχώρησιν πάντων ἡδονήν.

b. 11. οὐ δοκεῖ δέ] 'but nobody thinks so.' Aristotle speaks here as if Plato differed. Plato is entirely at one with Aristotle in holding *αἰ* pleasure to be psychical.

b. 12. ἀλλὰ γινομένης μὲν ἀναπληρώσεως ἡδοιτ' ἂν τις]—And this was what Plato meant after all. Any one but a very captious critic can see that when Plato says *ἔδωδὴ δὲ πλήρωσις γενομένη ἡδονή*, he merely uses an abbreviated expression, as when we say 'work is a pleasure to him,' meaning that work gives him pleasure. Again, when Aristotle says b. 13 *ἢ δόξα δ' αὕτη δοκεῖ γεγενησθαι ἐκ τῶν περὶ τὴν τροφήν λυπῶν καὶ ἡδονῶν*, he merely states what Plato himself

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1173 b. 26. in question are in themselves choiceworthy, although not when viewed with reference to the source from which they are derived,' Williams: *i. e.* as *pleasures* they are desirable, but not as *disgraceful*—or, as he puts it more clearly in the next section, there are *good* and *bad* pleasures.

b. 28. § 10. ἡ τῷ εἶδει διαφέρουσιν αἱ ἡδοναί] 'pleasures differ specifically.' This is the best expression of Aristotle's answer to τὸν προφέροντα τὰς ἐπονειδίους τῶν ἡδονῶν: and in support of the doctrine thus expressed he points out (§ 10) that different classes of persons have their own pleasures which others cannot enter into: that (§ 11) the pleasure which the Flatterer aims at giving to his Patron is a very different sort from that which sweetens the intercourse of virtuous Friends; and (§ 12) that when we become men we put away childish pleasures as unworthy of us. To these considerations is added the remark (§ 12) that indeed there are many pleasures which we consider it to be our duty to avoid, and do avoid; for, after all, we are more independent of pleasure than might, on a superficial view, be supposed—there are many actions and functions performed by us independently of the pleasure attending them. This last remark I do not regard as made with the special object (as some commentators suppose) of showing that pleasure is not the *Summum Bonum*, but as flowing naturally from what the writer has just said about the power we have of detaching ourselves from certain pleasures. Our power of detaching ourselves from these particular pleasures is, of course, a special case of the law of our nature, that function is primary and pleasure only attendant.

b. 32. § 11. ὁ φίλος] as described in viii. 3. §§ 6, 7.

1174 a. 8. § 12. ὡς οἶόν τε μάλιστα] CCC, NC, and Cambr. read ~~ὡς οἶόν τε~~ μάλιστα, an obvious blunder (although Zell tries to make sense out of it: 'significat opinari quidem pueros maximis se gaudiis perfici, sed decipi in hoc') which occurs elsewhere—*e. g.* in *E. N. i. 9. 5* K^b reads οἶονται, in iii. 3. 13 M^b reads οἶονται, in iii. 5. 17 K^b and CCC read οἶονται, and in iv. 2. 11 K^b, CCC, and Cambr. read οἶόν τε.

a. 8. § 13. ὅτι μὲν οὖν . . . a. 11 ὄν] bracketed by Ramsauer, who thinks that hitherto Aristotle has argued rather in favour of, than against, the view of Eudoxus which makes pleasure the *Sum-*

sum Bonum, and that if, in §§ 11 and 12, he seems to argue 1174 a. 8. against the view, he merely goes the length of pointing out that not only are some pleasures not good, but some good things are not pleasures. Susemihl follows Ramsauer in bracketing the words before us. I see no sufficient reason for suspecting them. The distinction drawn at the end of § 12 between vital functions and their attendant pleasures is exactly that of which so much is made later on (see x. 5. 7), and which enables Aristotle to distinguish between *εὐδαιμονία*, or the Chief Good, and even the highest experience of *ἡδονή*. Accordingly the abrupt *ὅτι μὲν οὖν οὔτε τὰγαθὸν ἢ ἡδονή* seems to me to be in favour of the genuineness of the clause. The remark § 12, a. 4 *περὶ πολλά τε σπουδήν* a. 8 *ἀπ' αὐτῶν ἡδονή*, though, as I believe, directly suggested by the terms in which the reasons for supposing *ὅτι εἶδει διαφέρουσιν οἱ ἡδοναί* have been stated, is, as soon as made, recognised by the writer as having a bearing on the other question (only incidentally, and as yet insufficiently answered in x. 2. 3), whether *ἡδονή* is the *Summum Bonum*. Hence *οὔτε τὰγαθὸν ἢ ἡδονή* escapes him, although certainly no sufficient proof of it has as yet been brought forward. In a. 9 *τὰγαθόν* which the sense demands is given by L^b and Γ: other authorities (including the Paraph.) read *ἀγαθόν*.

CHAPTER IV.

ARGUMENT.

Now let us start again from the beginning, and try thus to make the true nature of Pleasure plainer.

Pleasure is like Seeing—something indivisible, and perfectly realised at any moment you take it: therefore it is not Motion, for Motion (e. g. that of building) is always in time, and towards an end, and perfect, not in its parts (e. g. not in the processes of fitting the blocks, and fluting the columns—these 'parts' traverse different ground, and thus differ specifically from one another and from the whole Motion to which they belong), or at any moment, but—if to be called 'perfect' at all—only in respect of its whole duration, i. e. only conceived as a process which has at last 'come to its end' in attaining the object (e. g. the completed temple) for which it started. Of Pleasure, on the contrary, the

specific form, or nature, is perfect at any moment you take it—a finished indivisible whole, like seeing, or the mathematical point, of which we cannot say 'it moves towards, or grows up to, the perfection of its nature.'

Every faculty of sense and understanding puts forth its function in relation to an object; perfectly, when, its condition being perfect, it meets with a perfect object; and, if perfectly, then with the fullest pleasure. Every function of sense and understanding has its own pleasure. This pleasure perfects the function—not, however, as organ and object, by their excellence, 'perfect' it—they 'perfect' it as the doctor 'causes' the patient's health; but pleasure 'perfects' function, as the principle of health 'causes' the patient's health. If object and faculty be perfect of their kind, and perfectly suited to each other, there will always be pleasure in the function; the pleasure 'perfecting' the function, not as the faculty does by its permanent subsistence, but as a sort of supervening end, like the bloom of youthful prime.

As long as perfect faculty is perfectly related to perfect object, there will be pleasure in the function. But man's nature is weak. He cannot keep up this perfect relation continuously: function flags, and with it pleasure is dulled.

It may be thought, that the reason why all strive after pleasure is that all seek life—the performance of function, which, as we have seen, is perfected by pleasure. We will not at present go into the question whether it is for the sake of Pleasure that we seek Life, or for the sake of Life that we seek Pleasure: enough has been said to show that the two are so bound up together that they cannot be separated: without function there is no pleasure; and every function is perfected by its pleasure.

1174 a. 18. § 1. τί δ' ἐστὶν ἡ ποιῶν τι] not the same as τί ἐστὶ καὶ ποιῶν τι: see note on i. 7. 19, a. 31.

a. 14. δοκεῖ γὰρ ἡ μὲν δρασις . . . a. 19 εἶδος] Ὁρασις is an ἐνέργεια as distinguished from a κίνησις; see *Mel. Θ.* 6. 1048 b. 18 sqq. and Bonitz's important note, p. 396. Ἐνέργεια, strictly so called, is action or function which contains in itself the end for the sake of which it is performed, and does not, like κίνησις, cease to be when its end has been attained. In the case of a κίνησις such as οἰκοδόμησις, which has an external end, viz. οἰκία, and ceases when that end is attained, we cannot say ἄμα οἰκοδομεῖ καὶ οἰκοδομηκεν, as we can say ὄρᾳ καὶ ἐώρακεν ἄμα in the case of δρασις, which is an ἐνέργεια strictly so called. A κίνησις is ἐνέργεια μὲν τις, ἀτελής μόντοι (*de Ap.* ii. 5, 417 a. 16), whereas in an ἐνέργεια strictly so called ἐνυπάρχει τὸ τέλος (*Mel. Θ.* 6. 1048 b. 22). Such an ἐνέργεια is perfect (τελεία), or realises its end (τέλος) at every moment of its duration—καθ' ὄντοισιν χρόνον τελεία ἐστὶ (*E. N.* x. 4. 1): cf. *Soph. El.* 22, 178 a. 9 ἄρ' ἐνδέχεται τὸ αὐτὸ ἄμα ποιεῖν τε καὶ πεποιηκέναι; οὐ, ἀλλὰ μὴν ὄρᾳ γίγνεται ἄμα καὶ ἐώρακέναι τὸ αὐτὸ καὶ κατὰ ταῦτ' ἐνδέχεται. The passage (*Mel.*

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- 1174 a. 20. M^b has *οικοδομή*—a late form meaning the same thing as *οικοδόμησις* or *οικοδομία*. The Paraph., in explaining the present passage, uses *οικοδομία* and *οικοδόμησις*, but not *οικοδομητή*. I think that *οικοδομητή* (= the *art* of building) is not quite in place here, where we are to think of the *process* of building. Perhaps the *οικοδομητή τελεία* of the MSS. is a corruption of *οικοδομία, καὶ τελεία*.
- a. 21. ἡ ἐν ἅπαντι δὴ τῷ χρόνῳ ἢ τούτῳ] So Bekker, Sussemihl, and Bywater, the meaning being—‘it (*i. e.* motion) is perfect, then, viewed either in the whole time of its duration, or at the moment when it reaches its end.’ This meaning is quite satisfactory; but I am not at all sure that the text on which it relies is sound. L^b, M^b, and B² have ἡ ἐν ἅπαντι δὴ τῷ χρόνῳ τούτῳ. Instead of the second ἢ of Bekker’s text, O^b and Paris. 1417 have δὲ, which they omit after ἅπαντι. This misplaced δὲ was perhaps the origin of the second ἢ. This supposition seems to be supported by K^b, Cambr., and B², which, omitting δὴ with O^b and Paris. 1417 after ἅπαντι, read ἢ not δὴ before τούτῳ. Of recorded MSS. only CCC, NC, and B¹ have *both* δὴ (after ἅπαντι) *and* Bekker’s second ἢ. The MS. authority for ἡ ἐν ἅπαντι δὴ τῷ χρόνῳ ἢ τούτῳ is thus decidedly weak. The reading of L^b, M^b, and B²—ἡ ἐν ἅπαντι δὴ τῷ χρόνῳ τούτῳ—accepted by Michelet, requires us to explain ἢ as = ἦτοι: ‘motion is perfect when it has effected its end—*that is*, it is perfect in respect of the whole time needed for effecting its end,’—τῷ χρόνῳ τούτῳ being, as Michelet explains, equivalent to τῷ χρόνῳ τοῦ ποιῆσαι ἢ οἰκοδομῆσαι.
- a. 22. καὶ τῷ χρόνῳ] introduced into the text by Bywater from K^b instead of the τοῦ χρόνου of the other MSS. It seems to me that we must either retain τοῦ χρόνου, or accept Bywater’s ‘*fort. τῷ χρόνῳ secludendum.*’ I hardly think that one can go the length of saying with Bywater (*Contrib.* p. 67)—‘The vulgate reading *ἐν τοῖς μέρεσι τοῦ χρόνου* may be dismissed at once as implying an erroneous view as to the sense of *μέρεσι*, which stands for the various parts of the *work*, as is shown by the explanation which follows, *ἡ γὰρ τῶν λίθων σύνθεσις . . .*’ Notwithstanding the ‘*explanation*,’ I think that the context, with its contrast between *ἐν ἅπαντι χρόνῳ* and *ἐν ὀρθοῦν χρόνῳ*, allows us to retain (if otherwise desirable) the vulgate *ἐν τοῖς μέρεσι τοῦ χρόνου*.

πᾶσαι] *sc. αἱ κινήσεις.*

ἡ γὰρ τῶν λίθων σύνθεσις] ‘the fitting together of the stones’ 1174 a. 23. after they have been hewn; not, as Grant says, ‘the collection of the stones.’ I believe that here ἡ τῶν λίθων σύνθεσις means the fitting together of the separate drums composing one column.

ράβδώσεως] Coraes’ note here is ‘ράβδωσις κίονός ἐστιν ἡ τῆ τῶν a. 24. Γάλλων φωνῆ *cannelure* (i.e. fluting) λεγομένη, καὶ ράβδωτός κίων ἡ *colonne cannelée*.’ What does Mich. Eph. mean by saying here—*ράβδωσις δὲ κίονος λέγει τὴν κατὰ μῆκος τοῦ κίονος πῆξις ἢ γίγνεται ὅταν πρὸς ὀρθὰς γωνίας ἴσταται?* See *Facciolati* and *Forcellini* s. v. *stria* = πτύξις = ράβδωσις. Hesych. has πτύξις = the act of making a πτύξις or fold. Is the πῆξις of Mich. Eph. a corruption of πτύξις?

τῆς τοῦ ναοῦ ποιήσεως] I think that Stahr is wrong in translating —‘die Herstellung der Tempelcella.’ *Ναός* is indeed sometimes used technically for the cella, or inner part of the *ιερόν*—as perhaps by the Schol. (cod. H) on Thuc. iv. 90 *ιερόν ναοῦ διαφέρει· ἱερόν μὲν αὐτὸς ὁ προσιερωμένος τόπος τῷ θεῷ· νεὸς δὲ ἔνθα ἱδρύεται αὐτὸ τὸ ἄγαλμα τοῦ θεοῦ*. But here since the *ποιήσις τοῦ ναοῦ* is contrasted, as *τελεία*, with the *ποιήσις τοῦ μέρους*, οἷον τῆς κρηπίδος, which is *ἀτελής*, it is necessary to understand by *ναός* the *whole temple*: so the Paraph.—*τῆς γὰρ ὅλης ποιήσεως, φέρε εἰπεῖν, τοῦ ναοῦ ἕτερα ἢ τῶν λίθων σύνθεσις κ.τ.λ.*

ἡ μὲν τοῦ ναοῦ τελεία] At the last moment of the whole *ποιήσις* a. 25. there exists a perfect product, which has just burst into existence as a perfect product; the last touch has been given which makes the *ποιήσις* the *ἑσχάτη ὕλη* of the resultant *μορφή*—and, except as logically distinguished, identical with that *μορφή*, or *εἶδος*—see *Mel.* H. 6. 1045 b. 18. The words *καὶ ἡ μὲν τοῦ ναοῦ ποιήσις τελεία* are thus equivalent to *καὶ ἡ μὲν ὅλη ποιήσις τελεία—τουτέστιν ὅταν ποιήσῃ τὸν νεών*: ‘when the temple is made, the process of building has realised its end; the plan requires nothing more: but the processes of constructing the foundations, and carving the triglyphs, do not realise the end of the work.’

κρηπίδος] ‘the foundation’—lit. ‘the boot.’

a. 26.

τριγλύφου] ‘the triglyphs’ (in the Doric temple)—tablets divided into vertical flat bands by grooves—were placed above the architrave at equal intervals (one over every column, and one between) along the frieze. They probably represent the ends of beams in the old wooden temples. The spaces between them were originally open

4 a. 26. (ὅσαι, hence the term μετόπη), but afterwards filled in and ornamented with sculptures.

a. 27. ἐν ὅτῳ χρόνῳ] 'at any moment' (Peters).

a. 28. ἀλλ' εἴπερ, ἐν τῷ ἅπασιν] 'In the whole time of its duration.' I agree with Grant that these words are against reading ἢ τούτῳ in a. 21.

a. 30. § 3. ἡ φορά] See *Phys.* vii. 2. 243 a. 6 ἐπεὶ δὲ τρεῖς εἰσὶ κινήσεις ἢ τε κατὰ τόπον καὶ κατὰ τὸ ποῖον καὶ κατὰ τὸ ποσόν, ἀνάγκη καὶ τὰ αὐτοῖσι τρία εἶναι· ἡ μὲν οὖν κατὰ τόπον φορά, ἡ δὲ κατὰ τὸ ποῖον ἀλλοίωσις, ἡ δὲ κατὰ τὸ ποσὸν αὐξήσις καὶ φθίσις.

a. 32. τὸ γὰρ πόθεν ποῖ οὐ τὸ αὐτό] 'the whence—whither,' i. e. 'space traversed,' is not the same: and sometimes, of course, κινήσεις will differ as taking place in opposite directions over the same space.

a. 34. γραμμῆν] Ramsauer appositely quotes Eurip. *El.* 953—

ὦδέ τις κακοῦργος ὦν
μή μοι, τὸ πρῶτον βῆμ' εἰς δρᾶμην καλῶς,
νικᾶν δοκείτω τὴν δίκην, πρὶν ἂν πέλας
γραμμῆς ἴκηται καὶ τέλος κάμψῃ βίου.

b. 3. ἐν ἄλλοις] in the *Physics*.

ἔοικε δ' οὐκ ἐν ἅπασιν χρόνῳ τελεία εἶναι, ἀλλ' αἱ πολλαὶ ἀτελεῖς] 'motion is not perfect at any time you take it (ἐν ἅπασιν = ἐν ὅτῳ), but the many motions into which a given motion may be resolved (e.g. the whole motion from starting-point to goal in the course may be resolved into the motion over the first hundred yards, the motion over the second hundred yards, and so on) are imperfect, and differ specifically, since different spaces traversed, or different directions over the same space, make the motions traversing them, or it, specifically different.' So the Paraph.—τούτῳ μὲν οὖν ἀκριβοῦς περὶ κινήσεως λόγος ἐν ἄλλοις ἐποησάμεθα. Τοῦτο δὲ μένον ἐνταῦθα αἰεὶ ἀναγκαῖον, ὅτι οὐκ ἐν παντὶ χρόνῳ τελεία ἐστὶν ἡ κίνησις, ἀλλ' ἐν τῷ ὅλῳ. Αἱ δὲ ἐν τοῖς μέρεσι τοῦ ὅλου χρόνου κινήσεις, ἀτελεῖς εἰσὶ, καὶ διαφέρουσιν ἀλλήλων τῷ εἶδει. This interpretation seems to me to be that required by the context, in which 'a whole motion' and the 'parts' into which it may be resolved have been distinguished. I take it that the clause b. 3 εἴπερ τὸ πόθεν ποῖ εἰδοποιεῖν can be explained only in connexion with a. 32 τὸ γὰρ πόθεν ποῖ οὐ τὸ αὐτό

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1174 b. 10. blunder : οὐδὲ τούτων οὐδενὸς κίνησις οὐδὲ γένησις would merely repeat what has just been said.

οὐ γὰρ πάντων ταῦτα λέγεται] ταῦτα are κίνησις and γένησις.

b. 14. § 5. Αἰσθήσεως δὲ πάσης κ.τ.λ.] The apodosis of this sentence begins b. 18 with καθ' ἑκάστην δὴ (Bekker and Susemihl read καθ' ἑκάστον δέ; Bywater restores ἐκάστην from M^b and Alex.—see Bywater's *Contrib.*, p. 68, and reads δὴ with Lambinus and Rasso—see *Forsch.* p. 102). After αἰσθησιμ b. 16, Γ, L^b, O^b, Ald, B¹, B², CCC, NC, and Cambr. read κειμένων. Of recorded authorities only K^b, M^b, and apparently Alexander Aphrod. (who quotes this passage ἀπορίαι καὶ λύσεις iv. 14. p. 258 sq. Spengel) omit κειμένων.

The doctrine of this section is shortly, that pleasure attends functions which are in correspondence with environment; and that functions which maintain the most perfect correspondence with the best environment open to the organism are the most perfectly pleasant. For J. S. Mill's estimate of this doctrine (*Examination of Sir. W. Hamilton's Philosophy*: ch. 25), see note on vii. 12. 3, a. 15.

b. 17. ἡ ἐν ᾧ ἐστὶ] τὸ ζῶον (Mich. Eph.).

b. 23. § 6.] Pleasure perfects function; but not as the object and faculty of sense (τὸ αἰσθητόν τε καὶ ἡ αἰσθησις), if good, 'perfect' it. The difference between these two modes of 'perfecting' function is like that between the ways in which health is 'caused'—by a healthy constitution, and the doctor respectively. A healthy constitution (*i. e.* the principle of health within a man) is the 'formal cause,' and the doctor is the 'efficient cause' of health. It is by operating as a formal principle, then, that pleasure 'perfects' function; whereas the object and faculty of sensation 'perfect' it by their efficient operation. According to the doctrine of *de An.* iii. 2. 425 b. 25 the sensible object, as actually perceived, is identical with the actual perception exerted by the faculty of sense—the two are only different aspects of the same thing: ἡ δὲ τοῦ αἰσθητοῦ ἐνέργεια καὶ τῆς αἰσθήσεως ἡ αὐτὴ μὲν ἐστὶ καὶ μία, τὸ δ' εἶναι εἰς ταῦτόν αὐταῖς. The αἰσθητόν *per se* is δυνάμει ὄν, and the αἰσθησις (or αἰσθητικόν) *per se* is likewise δυνάμει ὄν: they are two *relata* which have no actual existence, or ἐνέργεια, apart from each other: 'environment' has no meaning except in relation to 'organ,' and

'organ' has no meaning except in relation to 'environment.' The 1174 b. 23. reality of the two is 'correspondence' or 'function.' Τὸ αἰσθητὸν τε καὶ ἡ αἴσθησις, then, 'perfect' ἐνέργεια in the sense of 'effecting' it. It is the outcome of the joint efficiency of these two δυνάμεις. But pleasure does not 'perfect' ἐνέργεια in the sense of 'effecting,' or producing it. Pleasure is that without which the form of ἐνέργεια produced, would not be *perfect*. It is the 'formal perfection' of ἐνέργεια—a perfection, however, which in § 8 is described as supervening (ἐπιγενόμενόν τι τέλος b. 33): which means that it is not the immanent τέλος, or ultimate *raison d'être* of the ἐνέργεια—that lies deeper—but a sort of beauty (ἴρα b. 33) which reveals ἐνέργεια to sense, and may indeed easily be mistaken for the reality of ἐνέργεια itself (§§ 10, 11, and ch. 5, §§ 6, 7); for the illusion of sense—'Beauty is its own excuse for being'—is always powerful within us.

Mich. Eph. has an instructive comment on this section, which he understands as I have explained it above—except that he falls into the error (I think) of making the construction—οὐ τὸν αὐτὸν δὲ τρόπον τελειοῖ τὴν ἐνέργειαν ἢ ἡδονή, καὶ τὴν αἴσθησιν τὸ αἰσθητὸν καὶ ἡ αἴσθησις: after remarking that τὸ αἰσθητὸν 'perfects' the αἴσθησις (or αἰσθητικόν) ὡς ἄγον αὐτὴν ἀπὸ τῆς δυνάμεως εἰς τὸ ἐνεργεῖν, καὶ ποιοῦν αὐτὴν ἐνέργειαν, and referring to *de An.* iii. 2. 425 b. 25, he goes on to draw the parallels αἰσθητὸν—ιατρός (both external to τὸ ἐνεργοῦν), and ἡδονή—ὑγίεια (both in τὸ ἐνεργοῦν)—καὶ ἔστι τὸ αἰσθητὸν ἐκτός αὐτοῦ τοῦ αἰσθανομένου καὶ ἐνεργοῦντος, καὶ πρότερον τῆς κατ' ἐνέργειαν αἰσθήσεως· ἢ δ' ἡδονή οὐχ οὕτως ἔχει πρὸς τὴν ἐνέργειαν· οὐ γὰρ ἐστὶν αὐτῆς ἐκτός, οὐδὲ πρότερον ταύτης, ἀλλ' ἅμα τέ ἐστι καὶ οὐκ ἔστι· καὶ χωρισθῆναι τῆς ἐνεργείας ἐφ' ἣ ἐστὶν οὐ δύναται, τελειοῦν δὲ λέγεται τὴν ἐνέργειαν ἢ ἡδονή ὡς συναύξουσα . . . ὡς γὰρ ὁ ἰατρός φησι καὶ ἡ ὑγίεια· αἴτιον τοῦ ὑγιαίνειν τὸ ζῆλον, ἀλλ' ὁ μὲν ἰατρός ἐκτός ἐστὶ τοῦ ὑγιαίνοντος· καὶ πρότερος ὁ ἰατρός· ὅτε γὰρ ἐνόσει ὁ ὑπ' αὐτοῦ ὑγιασθεῖς, ἰατρός μὲν ἦν ὁ ἰασάμενος τὸν νοσοῦντα, ὁ δὲ ὑγιασθεῖς ὑγιῆς οὐκ ἦν· ἢ δὲ ὑγίεια οὐκ ἐκτός ἐστὶ τοῦ ὑγιαίνοντος, ἀλλ' ἐν αὐτῷ ἐστὶν ὡς μέρος ἢ ἕξις· ἐν γὰρ τῇ συμμετρίᾳ τῶν ἐν αὐτῷ χυμῶν ἢ ὑγίεια καὶ τὸ ὑγιαίνειν ἐστὶ, καὶ σύνεστιν αὐτῇ ἀχωρίστως ἢ ὑγίεια, ἕως ἂν ὑγιαίῃ· οὕτω καὶ ἡ ἡδονὴ συνυπάρχει τῇ ἐνεργείᾳ ἐφ' ἣ γίνεται . . . τὸ μὲν αἰσθητὸν τελειοῖ τὴν αἴσθησιν ὡς ἐκκαλούμενον καὶ ἄγον αὐτὴν ἀπὸ τοῦ δυνάμει εἰς ἐνέργειαν, ἐκτός δὲ καὶ πρότερον τῆς ἐνεργείας . . . ἢ δὲ ἡδονὴ τελειοῖ τὴν ἐνέργειαν ὡς συναύξουσά τε καὶ συντηροῦσα καὶ μένειν οἰονεὶ ἀναπειθούσα.

The Paraphrast falls into the strange error of making the doctor,

1174 b. 23. or efficient cause (§ 6), answer to pleasure in the comparison, thus ignoring the point on which Aristotle's whole theory hinges—that pleasure is a sort of immanent final (or formal) cause—something, at any rate, which can only with difficulty be distinguished from the final cause of the *ἐνέργεια*, and indeed was identified with the *ἐνέργεια* at its best by the writer of Book vii. The Paraphrast's words are—*καθάπερ οὐδὲ ἡ ὑγίεια καὶ ὁ ἰατρός ὁμοίως αἰτιά εἰσι τοῦ ὑγιαίνειν· ἡ μὲν γὰρ αὐτὴ ποιεῖ μὴ οὖσαν τὴν τοῦ ὑγιαίνειν ἐνέργειαν, ὁ δὲ συντηρεῖ καὶ φυλάττει, καὶ ὅπως παραμείνη ζητεῖ. Ἔτι δὲ οὐδ' ὡςπερ τὸ αἰσθητὸν τελειοῖ τὴν αἴσθησιν, ἢ τὸ διανοητὸν τὴν διάνοιαν, οὕτω καὶ ἡ ἡδονὴ τελειοῖ τὴν ἐνέργειαν αὐτῶν. Ἡ μὲν γὰρ ἔξις, καὶ τὸ ἀπτικείμενον, ἀπὸ τοῦ δυνάμει εἰς τὸ ἐνεργεῖα προάγουσι τὴν ἐνεργείαν· ἡ δὲ ἡδονὴ τῇ ἐνεργεῖα γενομένη συμπεφυκυῖα συντηρεῖ καὶ φυλάττει. Πείθει γὰρ ἐνεργεῖν ἢ ἐπ' αὐτῇ ἡδονή. According to this, ἡδονή is 'called in,' like a doctor, by *ἐνέργεια*. Peters seems to understand the relation between ἡδονή and *ἐνέργεια* in the same way, for in a note on p. 329 he says—'the only analogy between pleasure and the doctor is that both "complete the activity" from outside,'—but see *E.N.* i. 8. 12 οὐδὲν δὲ προσδεῖται τῆς ἡδονῆς ὁ βίος αὐτῶν ὡςπερ περιήπτου τινός, ἀλλ' ἔχει τὴν ἡδονὴν ἐν ἑαυτῷ—a statement which the theories of Book x and Book vii merely expand and develop. The reason why the Paraph. falls into the error noticed is that he does not see that the words b. 25 ὡςπερ . . . b. 26 ὑγιαίνειν are merely parenthetical, giving *ὑγίεια* and *ἰατρός* as familiar instances of a formal and an efficient cause respectively. It so happens that *ὑγίεια* is a *ἔξις*; and, as in § 8 ἡδονή is said not to 'perfect' *ἐνέργεια* as *ἔξις* does, the conclusion is drawn by the Paraph. here that it must do so as the *ἰατρός* does! But it is τὸ αἰσθητὸν τε καὶ ἡ αἴσθησις (parallel to the *ἰατρός*) of § 6 to which the *ἔξις* of § 8 corresponds; while ἡδονή, which in § 6 is parallel to *ὑγίεια*, is described in § 8 as ἐπιγινώμενόν τι τέλος, αἴον τοῖς ἀκμαίοις ἢ ὄρα.*

b. 26. § 7.] This section (Susemihl is wrong in saying that it is omitted by the Paraph.—see his *καὶ μάλιστα* p. 216. 34 Heylbut) is bracketed by Zell, Ramsauer, and Susemihl, because it repeats what has already been said in § 5. It may be noted that there is another repetition of the same in the latter part of § 8, b. 33 οὗ ἄν . . . 1175 a. 3 γίνεσθαι. Are the passages § 6, b. 23 οὐ τὸν αἰτίαν . . . § 7, b. 31 πεισομένου and § 8, b. 31 τελειοῖ . . . a. 3 γίνεσθαι 'duplicates?'

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1175 a. 1. experienced as pleasant, remains unchanged, it will continue to be experienced as pleasant.

a. 3. § 9. πῶς οὖν οὐδεὶς συνεχῶς ἡδεται ;] Why then does the relation not remain unchanged? Why is it that no man experiences pleasure continually?

a. 4. ἢ κάμνει ;] 'Is it not that man grows weary?' Grant quotes appositely *Mel.* Θ. 8. 1050 b. 22 διὸ αἰεὶ ἐνεργεῖ ἥλιος καὶ ἀστρα καὶ ἄλλοι οὐρανοῦ, καὶ οὐ φοβερὸν μὴ ποτε στῆ, ὃ φοβοῦνται οἱ περὶ φύσει. οὐδὲ κάμνει τοῦτο δρῶντα· οὐ γὰρ περὶ τὴν δύναμιν τῆς ἀντιφάσεως αὐτοῖς, οἷον τοῖς φθαρτοῖς, ἢ κίνησις, ὥστε ἐπίπονον εἶναι τὴν συνέχειαν τῆς κινήσεως· ἢ γὰρ οὐσία ὕλη καὶ δύναμις οὐσα, οὐκ ἐνέργεια, αἰτία τούτου. See notes on vii. 14. 8.

a. 5. οὐ γίνεται οὖν οὐδ' ἡδονῆ] Ramsauer reads in the text after ἡδονῆ the συνεχῆς required by the sense. The Paraph. has here ἀπορίῃσι δ' ἂν τις εἰ τοῦτο οὕτως ἔχει, πῶς οὐδεὶς οὕτως ἐνεργῶν συνεχῶς ἡδεται. Πρὸς δὲ ῥητέον, ὅτι κάμνει πάντα τὰ ἀνθρώπεια, καὶ οὐ δύναται συνεχῶς ἐνεργεῖν. Διὰ τοῦτο οὐδὲ ἡδισθαὶ δύναται συνεχῶς, ἐπεὶ ἡ ἡδονὴ τῇ ἐνεργείᾳ ἀκολουθεῖ—as if he read in the text:—πῶς οὖν οὐδεὶς συνεχῶς ἡδεται; ἢ κάμνει πάντα τὰ ἀνθρώπεια καὶ ἀδυνατεῖ (οἱ οὐ δύναται) συνεχῶς ἐνεργεῖν; οὐ γίνεται οὖν οὐδ' ἡ ἡδονὴ συνεχῆς· ἔπεται γὰρ τῇ ἐνεργείᾳ. NC omits γὰρ after πάντα a. 4, and reads καὶ οὐ δύναται (sic). Paris. 1853 has καὶ ἀδυνατεῖ. I think that some such reconstruction of the text as that suggested by the Paraphrast's version is necessary.

ἔπεται] see notes on vii. 9. 6, b. 34 and ix. 7. 6, a. 21.

a. 7. διὰ ταῦτό] K^b, O^b—i. e. διὰ τὸ ἡμᾶς ἀδυνατεῖν συνεχῶς ἐνεργεῖν. Other authorities have διὰ ταῦτα or (NC and Paris. 1853) ταῦτα alone.

παρακέκληται] v. l. παρακίκεται.

a. 9. μετέπειτα δ' οὐ] After οὐ CCC, NC, Cambr., and other authorities (see Susemihl and Bywater) read γίνεται.

a. 10. § 10. καὶ τὸ [ἦν δῆ] Bekker, following the codd., has δι. Susemihl and Bywater, following Aretinus, read δῆ.

εὐλόγως οὖν καὶ τῆς ἡδονῆς ἐφίεσθαι] 'All seek after pleasure'—this is only what we might expect from the intimate association of

pleasure with life : it does not prove the position of Eudoxus that 1175 a. 16. 'pleasure is the chief good.'

§ 11. ἀφείσθω ἐν τῷ παρόντι] Of course there can be no doubt a. 19. about the answer. As a biologist, Aristotle would tell us that function is the end, not the pleasure of function. At the bottom of the series of ἔμψυχα we see plants performing function without the inducement of pleasure; and at the top of the series we see the ἀνδρείος doing a last act of duty which involves the renunciation of all that is dear to sense. Mich. Eph. has an interesting comment here—εἰ μὲν ἦν ἡ ἡδονὴ τέλος τῆς ἐνεργείας ὡς ἡ οἰκία τῆς οἰκοδομήσεως καὶ ἡ ὑγίεια τῆς ὑγιάνσεως . . . ἦν ἂν ἡ ἐνέργεια καὶ τὸ ζῆν χάρις τῆς ἡδονῆς . . . ἐπεὶ δ' οὐκ ἔστι τέλος, ἀλλ' οἶον τέλος, ὡς εἴρηται, οὐκ ἂν εἴημεν αἰρούμενοι τὸ ζῆν διὰ τὴν ἡδονήν, ἀλλὰ μᾶλλον ταύτην διὰ τὸ ζῆν. He goes on to argue that ἡδονὴ is not the end, but ἐνέργεια, because there are virtuous actions which we choose to perform, although they are not pleasant, but painful—ὅτι δὲ μᾶλλον τὴν ἡδονὴν διὰ τὰς ἐνεργείας καὶ τὸ ζῆν διώκομεν ἐκ τῶνδε μᾶλλον ἂν τις πιστεύσειε· καὶ πρῶτον ἐκ τῶν κατ' ἀρετὴν ἐνεργειῶν· εἰ γὰρ καὶ ὅτι μάλιστα ἡδεῖαι εἰσιν αὐταί, ἀλλ' οὐ τῆς ἡδονῆς ἕνεκα σπουδάζονται· πολλὰς γὰρ τῶν κατ' ἀρετὴν ἐνεργειῶν αἰρούμεθα καίτοι λύπης καὶ πόνων αἰτίας οὖσας, ὡς ἐπὶ τῶν κατὰ τὴν ἀνδρείαν ἐνεργειῶν· καίτοι ἔδει ταύτας μισεῖν καὶ φεύγειν εἰ τὰς ἐνεργείας χάριν τῆς ἡδονῆς αἰρούμεθα· καὶ ἐκ τοῦ ἐναντίου πᾶσαν ἐνέργειαν μετὰ σπουδῆς ἐνεργεῖν ἢ ἔπεται ἡδονή· ἀλλὰ τίς ἂν εἰ μὴ μαίνοιτο, πράττειν ἂν καὶ ἐνεργεῖν ἀνάσχοιτο, οἷς ἔπονται τῶν ἡδονῶν αἱ ἀσυχρότητες ; . . . ὥστε δῆλον ὅτι τὰς ἡδονὰς αἰρούμεθα διὰ τὰς κατ' ἀρετὴν ἐνεργείας.

CHAPTER V.

ARGUMENT.

Since each function has its own pleasure which perfects and augments it, and since functions differ specifically—e. g. thinking, seeing, hearing, differ, as functions, specifically—it follows that Pleasures also differ specifically.

That this is so is plain, not only from the fact that its own pleasure perfects and augments a function—e. g. pleasure in working out geometrical problems makes one work them out better—but also from the fact that one function is impeded by the presence of the pleasure which belongs to another function—e. g.

a person who is fond of music cannot attend to a philosophical discussion, if he overhear some one playing the flute: indeed an alien pleasure interferes with a function almost as much as its own pain does—by 'its own' (whether describing a pleasure or a pain) I mean that which attends the performance of the function itself.

Functions, then, differing as good and bad, Pleasures will differ as good and bad. The Pleasures which belong to good functions are good, those which belong to bad functions are bad.

Its own Pleasure belongs more intimately to a function than does the appetite which actuates the function: the appetite is distinct in time and in nature from the function, but the pleasure is so closely bound up with the function, that some would identify them—erroneously, of course, for pleasure is not thinking or seeing—but naturally enough, because they always go together.

The senses differ in purity—e.g. sight is purer than touch—so also do their pleasures: and the purest pleasures are those of thought.

Animals have different pleasures, as they have different functions, according to their races: asses prefer hay to gold, as Heraclitus says. Within the human race, however, individuals differ much in the pleasures they prefer. Here our standard must always be the Good Man. The pleasures which he prefers—those which perfect the performance of the good functions in which Happiness consists—are good. They are real—distinctively Human pleasures: those preferred by disordered natures are not really pleasures.

1175 a. 22. § 1. ἐτέρων] sc. τῷ εἶδει.

a. 23. οὕτω γὰρ φαίνεται] sc. τελειούμενα.

a. 24. καὶ γραφή καὶ ἄγαλμα] Bekker has ἀγάλματα. Bywater restores the singular from K^b. Cambr. has καὶ ἄγαλμα καὶ γραφή.

a. 28. § 2. αὐταί] αὐταί, the reading of K^b, is accepted by Bekker and Bywater. All other authorities (except Γ which has αὐταὶ οἷται) give αὐταὶ (=αὶ κατὰ τὰς αἰσθήσεις), accepted by Susemihl. Reading αὐταί, we are to understand that there is a generic difference between αὶ τῆς διανοίας ἐνέργειαι and αὶ κατὰ τὰς αἰσθήσεις, and that under each genus there are specific differences.

a. 29. φανείη δ' ἂν τοῦτο καὶ ἐκ τοῦ συνκειῶσθαι κ.τ.λ.] τοῦτο is τὸ τὰς ἡδονὰς τῷ εἶδει διαφέρειν, and another reason (καὶ) for accepting this statement is that pleasures are 'akin' to (συνκειῶσθαι) those ἐνέργειαι (and ἐνέργειαι differ τῷ εἶδει) which they 'perfect.' That they are 'akin' to them (οἰκείαι) is shown by the fact that they 'augment' them (συναύξουσι a. 36)—the conclusion being a. 36 τὰς εἰδῶν δὲ τῷ εἶδει καὶ τὰ οἰκεία ἕτερα τῷ εἶδει. The distinction between εἰδῶν as τελειοῦσα τὴν ἐνέργειαν and as συναύξουσα τὴν ἐνέργειαν is evidently

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1175 b. 24. quantitatively. It is only when we view them as 'augmenting' functions which put us in relation to the objective order, or environment, that we can distinguish pleasures as differing qualitatively (τῶ εἶδει), and say with Mill, 'It is better to be a human being dissatisfied than a pig satisfied' (*Utilitarianism*, p. 14). It is sometimes urged that Mill has no right 'on his own principles' to say this—to recognise, as he does, a qualitative difference between pleasures. I venture to maintain that few moralists have a better right. His critics seem to forget that his standard of conduct is the public good. His standard of conduct is emphatically not pleasurable feeling. Only an eristic treatment of isolated phrases (phrases which need not surprise any one who looks at Mill's system in its place in the *History of English Ethics*) could represent it as such. Mill's 'hedonism' is pretty much on a par with that of the writer of *E. N.* vii. 11–14.

b. 30. οἰκειότεραι δὲ ταῖς ἐνεργείαις αἱ ἐν αὐταῖς ἡδοναὶ τῶν ὁρέξεων] 'the pleasure involved in (ἐν) a function is more akin to the function than is the appetite which prompts the function (the genitive τῶν ὁρέξεων depends on the comparative οἰκειότεραι: αἱ μὲν b. 31 are the ὁρέξεις, and αἱ δὲ b. 32 the ἡδοναί), for the appetite is separated from the function both in time and in nature, whereas the pleasure is close to the function, and it is so difficult to draw the line between the two (ἀδιόριστοι οὕτως b. 32) that the question may be argued whether the function is not identical with the pleasure.' Ὁρεξίς precedes ἐνέργεια in time (τοῖς χρόνοις), and differs from it in nature (τῇ φύσει), being a πάθος.

b. 34. § 7. διάνοια] regarded here as an ἐνέργεια = διαπόησις: see Ramsauer *ad loc.*

(ἄτοπον γάρ), ἀλλὰ διὰ τὸ μὴ χωρίζεσθαι φαίνεται τισι ταῦτόν] It would appear, then, that the view set forth in vii. 11–14 was held when x. 1–5 was written: also, if we assume that vii. 11–14 was written by one who had x. 1–5 before him, it would appear that he was not deterred by the ἄτοπον γάρ here. The difficulties suggested by these considerations will not escape the student.

b. 36. διαφέρει] here means 'surpasses.'

1176 a. 1. καθαρειότητι] so Bywater for the καθαριότητι of other texts. The codd. for the most part seem to give καθαριότητι—CCC, so far as I know, is the only cod. which gives καθαρειότητι.

Mich. Eph. has the following comment here—*ἡ μὲν ὄψις τῶν 1170 a. 1. εἰδῶν ἐστὶν ἀντιληπτικὴ δίχα τῆς ὕλης ὡς ἐν τῷ δευτέρῳ τῆς περὶ ψυχῆς πραγματείας δέδεικται (i. e. de Anima ii. 12. 424 a. 17) ὡςπερ γὰρ ὁ κηρὸς τὴν σφραγίδα μόνην τὴν ἐν τῷ χρυσίῳ δακτυλίῳ ἀπομάττεται χωρὶς τῆς ὑποκειμένης ὕλης· χρυσὸς γὰρ ἂν ἐγίνετο ὁ κηρὸς εἰ σὺν τῷ ὑποκειμένῳ ὡς ὕλη τῷ χρυσῷ τὴν σφραγίδα ἐδέχετο, οὕτω καὶ ἡ ὄψις τῶν ἡδονῶν ἐστὶν ἀντιληπτικὴ χωρὶς τῆς ὑποκειμένης αὐταῖς ὕλης· ἡ δ' ἀκοὴ καὶ ἡ ὄσφρησις σωματοειδεῖς οὐσαι καὶ παθητικώτεραι μεθ' ὕλης εἰσδέχονται τὰ αἰσθητά. μετὰ γὰρ τοῦ αἵρος καὶ σὺν τῷ αἵρι οὐ πάθος ἐστὶν ὁ ψόφος καὶ ἡ ὀσμὴ, ἀντιλαμβάνονται τῶν οἰκείων αἰσθητῶν . . . καθαρωτέρα ἄρα ἡ ὄψις, ὡς αὐτῶν ἀντιληπτικὴ, ἀκοῆς καὶ ὄσφρήσεως. The least pure is γεῦσις, because its ὕλη or material vehicle, is the crass ὑδατώδες ὑγρόν, which it takes in along with the sensible form: see also notes on iii. 10.*

καὶ τούτων αἱ περὶ τὴν διάνοιαν] *i. e.* καὶ τῶν κατὰ τὰς αἰσθήσεις **a. 2.** διαφέρουσιν αἱ περὶ τὴν διάνοιαν.

καὶ ἐκάτεραι ἀλλήλων] The meaning is that 'within each of the **a. 3.** two classes (pleasures of sense, and intellectual pleasures) the pleasures differ from one another in purity'—*e. g.* in the class of intellectual pleasures, the pleasures of τὸ ἐπίστασθαι are purer than those of τὸ λογίζεσθαι: and among the pleasures of sense, those of sight are purer than those of taste. In all cases the less ὕλη, the greater καθαριότης.

§ 8. καθάπερ Ἡράκλειτός φησιν ὄνους σύρματ' ἂν εἰεσθαι μᾶλλον ἢ **a. 8.** χρυσόν] see Bywater, *Heracliti Reliquiae*, Fr. 51, who gives the fragment as ὄνοι σύρματ' ἂν εἴλουτο μᾶλλον ἢ χρυσόν. This seems to be the only place where the saying is quoted. Bekker and Susemihl read ὄνον: Bywater reads ὄνους, which is given by K^b, Ald., Mich. Eph. (?), B¹, B², CCC, Cambr., NC. Michael Ephesius has an interesting remark here—τὸ δὲ λεγόμενον ὑπὸ τῆς λέξεως Ἡρακλείτου τοῦ Ἐφεσίου καὶ ἐμοῦ πολίτου, τὸ ὄνους σύρματ' ἂν εἰεσθαι μᾶλλον ἢ χρυσόν, σύρματα τὸν χόρτον Ἡράκλειτος λέγει, ὅς κατὰ φύσιν ἡδύς ἐστὶ τῷ ὄνῳ. Σύρματα means 'sweepings': hence litter, or fodder.

§ 9. ἐπὶ γε τῶν ἀνθρώπων] 'in particulâ γε latet vastum illud **a. 10.** discrimen naturae inter homines et inter bestias' (Ramsauer). All the animals of the same species, we may suppose (εὐλογον **a. 9**),

1176 a. 10. find pleasure in the same things: but men do not present such a uniformity of taste. Good men and bad men find pleasure in different things. The distinction of good and bad is not found among the lower animals—οὐδὲ θηρίου ἐστὶ κακία οὐδ' ἀρετή vii. 1. 2.

a. 11. *τέρπει*] The mass of text beginning here with *τέρπει* 1176 a. 11 and ending with *καρῶς* 1177 a. 30 is omitted by K^b. For the quantitative relation between this mass of text and (1) v. 10. 1137 a. 31-1138 a. 3, (2) v. 11. 1138 a. 4-b. 12, (3) v. 9. 1136 a. 9-1137 a. 30, see *Introductory Note* to v. 10.

a. 15. § 10.] See notes on i. 8. 11, iii. 4. 4, and vi. 12. 6.

a. 22. *τούτοις*] For Bywater's explanation of his conjecture 'fort. *ταῖς* vel *τοιούτοις*,' see *Contrib.* p. 68.

a. 27. § 11. *αἱ τοῦ τελείου καὶ μακαρίου ἀνδρός*] 'Transit ad disquisitionem de beatitudine' (Michelet).

a. 28. *κυρίως . . . a. 29 πολλοστῶς*] Peters brings out the force of these terms very well—'. . . will be called "pleasures of man" in the full meaning of the word, and the others in a secondary sense, and with a fraction of that meaning.'

CHAPTER VI.

ARGUMENT.

The Virtues, Friendship, and Pleasure having been discussed, we shall now end our Treatise with a sketch of Happiness.

It will save time, if we recapitulate what we have already said about Happiness. We said that it is not a Habit, but a Function—not one of the functions which are 'necessary as means,' but one desirable for its own sake: we accordingly identified it with the Function of the Good Man—with his virtuous and beautiful actions, which are desirable in themselves.

But why, it may be asked, identify Happiness with virtuous actions? Is not Amusement chosen (often at the cost of health and money) for its own sake—simply for its own pleasure, not for the sake of any thing beyond? To this we answer—Yes, by tyrants, for instance; and this is one of the chief reasons why it is identified with Happiness in people's minds: but tyrants, and those like

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1178 b. 10. βλάπτονται γὰρ ἀπ' αὐτῶν κ.τ.λ.] καὶ τῶν παιδιῶν δὲ αἱ ἡδοναὶ οὐ δι' ἄλλα ζητοῦνται· οἱ γὰρ αἰρούμενοι αὐτὰς οὐδὲν ἐξ αὐτῶν ὠφελοῦνται· βλάπτονται μὲν οὖν μᾶλλον (Paragraph.).

b. 17. ἀποσχολάζειν] ἀπασχολάζειν ('to be entirely engaged with,' 'to make one's business in life') is the reading of H^a, L^b, M^b, NC—a ἀπαξ εἰρημένον apparently, although ἀπασχολεῖν occurs¹. K^b is defective here (see note on x. 5. 9, a. 11); but ἀποσχολάζειν is the reading of Cambr., which has much in common with K^b in Book x (see *Anec. Ox.* vol. i, part i, *English MSS. of the Nicomachean Ethics*, pp. 74-83): also of B¹, B², B³.

b. 20. § 4. ἡδονῆς εἰλικρινουῶς] Mich. Eph. has λέγει δὲ εἰλικρινεῖς ἡδοναὶ οὐ μέμικται ἢ μετὰ βραχὺ ἔπεται λύπη καὶ μετάνοια.

b. 24. § 5. καθάπερ οὖν πολλάκις εἴρηται] e.g. x. 5. 10.

b. 27. καὶ τῷ σπουδαίῳ δὴ] So Ramsauer, Susemihl, and Bywater, for Bekker's δέ.

§ 6. οὐκ ἐν παιδιᾷ ἄρα ἡ εὐδαιμονία κ.τ.λ.] See *Pol. Θ.* 2. 1337 b. 22 sqq.—αἱ μὲν οὖν καταβεβλημένοι νῦν μαθήσεις, καθάπερ εἴρηται πρότερον, ἐπαμφοτερίζουσιν· ἔστι δὲ τέτταρα σχεδὸν ἃ παιδεύειν εἰάθει, γράμματα καὶ γυμναστικὴν καὶ μουσικὴν καὶ τέταρτον ἔτιοι γραφικῆν, τὴν μὲν γραμματικὴν καὶ γραφικὴν ὡς χρησίμους πρὸς τὸν βίον εἶναι καὶ πολυχρήστους, τὴν δὲ γυμναστικὴν ὡς συντείνουσιν πρὸς ἀδριάν· τὴν δὲ μουσικὴν ἤδη διαπορήσειεν ἂν τις. νῦν μὲν γὰρ ὡς ἡδονῆς χάριν αἱ πλείστοι μετέχουσιν αὐτῆς· οἱ δ' ἐξ ἀρχῆς ἔταξαν ἐν παιδίῳ διὰ τὸ τὴν φύσιν αὐτὴν ζητεῖν, ὅπερ πολλάκις εἴρηται, μὴ μόνον ἀσχολεῖν ἀρῆτε ἀλλὰ καὶ σχολάζειν δύνασθαι καλῶς. αὕτη γὰρ ἀρχὴ πάντων, ἔτι καὶ πάλιν εἶπωμεν περὶ αὐτῆς.—εἰ δ' ἄμφω μὲν δεῖ, μᾶλλον δὲ αἰρετέον τὸ σχολάζειν τῆς ἀσχολίας, καὶ τέλος ζητητέον ὃ τι δεῖ ποιοῦσθαι σχολάζειν. οὐ γὰρ δὴ παίζοντας· τέλος γὰρ ἀναγκαῖον εἶναι τοῦ βίου τὴν παιδίῳ ἡδονήν. εἰ δὲ τοῦτο ἀδύνατον, καὶ μᾶλλον ἐν ταῖς ἀσχαλίαις χρηστότερον ταῖς παιδίαις (ὃ γὰρ πονῶν δέεται τῆς ἀναπαύσεως, ἢ δὲ παιδιὰ χάριν ἀναπαύσεως ἀντὶ τὸ δ' ἀσχολεῖν συμβαίνει μετὰ πόνου καὶ συντονίας), διὰ τοῦτο δεῖ παιδίαις εἰσάγεσθαι καιροφυλακοῦντα τὴν χρῆσιν, ὡς προσάγοντα φαρμακίαις χάρμα· ἀνεσις γὰρ ἢ τοιαύτη κίνησις τῆς ψυχῆς, καὶ διὰ τὴν ἡδονὴν ἀνάγκη.

¹ CCC has ἀπασχο[λάζειν] οὐδὲν κ.τ.λ. The letters within [] seem to be later, and the [] represents space between ἀπασχο- and οὐδὲν for only two, or at most, three letters. Was the original reading ἀπασχολεῖν? Cf. text. var. of ἀσχολεῖν *Pol. Θ.* 2. 1337 b. 31.

Cf. also *Pol.* Θ. 5. 1339 b. 11 sqq., where the relation of Music 1176 b. 27. to παιδιὰ is discussed. It is shown that music is not merely useful as a relaxation—πρὸς ἀνάπαυσιν, but that it has also a higher function—τιμιωτέρα δ' ἐστὶν ἢ φύσις αὐτῆς ἢ κατὰ τὴν εἰρημίνην χρῆσιν 1340 a. 1, being a great educational instrument—ποιοὶ τινες τὰ ἤθη γινόμεθα δι' αὐτῆς 1340 a. 7. This point, however, is not before us here, nor its value πρὸς διαγωγὴν—as one of the modes of 'employing and enjoying' that σχολή which is the end (see *Pol.* Θ. 4. 1339 a. 25)¹.

ἀδυνατοῦντες δὲ συνεχῶς πονεῖν ἀναπαύσεως δέονται] *Cf.* x. 4. 9 b. 34. πῶς οὖν οὐδεὶς συνεχῶς ἤθεται; ἢ κάμνει; πάντα γὰρ τὰ ἀνθρώπεια ἀδυνατεῖ συνεχῶς ἐνεργεῖν: *Mel.* Λ. 7. 1072 b. 14 διαγωγὴ δ' ἐστὶν οἷα ἢ ἀρίστη μικρὸν χρόνον ἡμῖν· οὕτω γὰρ αἰεὶ ἐκείνó ἐστίν, ἡμῖν μὲν γὰρ ἀδύνατον.

Παιδιά is a necessity imposed upon man by his composite nature. It is a foolish mistake to make this necessity the end. On εὐτραπελία, as contributing to ἀνάπαυσις, see *Introductory Note* to iv. 8.

§ 8. εἰ μὴ καὶ βίου] βίος is here the life of a citizen, as distinguished from ζωή, animal life. This distinction, however, between the two terms is not always observed. On the position of the δοῦλος, see note on viii. 11, 7, b. 5.

CHAPTER VII.

ARGUMENT.

Happiness consisting in virtuous function, Perfect Happiness will consist in the function which proceeds from the highest virtue—that of the principle which is best in Man, and naturally authoritative in him, and most divine—Reason. That Perfect Happiness is speculative function is a conclusion in accordance with what has already been laid down and with the truth: for speculative function is the highest, most continuous, and most pleasant of all functions: further, the most self-sufficing—for, though the Philosopher and the Just Man both need 'the necessaries of life,' the just man needs other people on whom to

¹ The three functions of music are distinguished in *Pol.* Θ. 5. 1339 b. 13 πότερον παιδείαν, ἢ παιδιάν, ἢ διαγωγὴν· εὐλόγως δ' εἰς πάντα τάττεται καὶ φαίνεται μετέχειν.

exercise his virtue, but the Philosopher, though perhaps it is better for him to have friends to help him in his thinking, can yet think by himself, being of all men the most self-sufficing. Again, speculative function is the only function which is loved for itself alone; thinking, and nothing but thinking, results from it; whereas in the sphere of moral conduct there are objects attained beyond the actions which we perform. Again, Happiness is thought to be realised in leisure: we are busy in order that we may have leisure—we wage war in order that we may enjoy peace. Now, the moral virtues manifest themselves in war and in the performance of civil duties—in actions with which men 'busy themselves'—actions, indeed, of pre-eminent nobility and grandeur, but yet aimed at some end beyond themselves—at the acquisition of power it may be, or of honour, or—of Happiness for oneself and one's fellow-citizens. But to the life of speculative function belong all the prerogatives which we assign to the life of the Blessed—it is its own end, it has a pleasure all its own which augments it, it is self-sufficient, it is the employment of leisure, it is—so far as man's estate allows—unwearied. This life, if it attain to its perfect duration, is Perfect Happiness. It is a life which is higher than human. It is not as concrete men, but as having in us a divine principle, that we shall live this life. Let us not then listen to those who tell us that we are human, and ought to mind human things—that we are mortal, and ought to mind mortal things; but, so far as in us lies, let us bear ourselves as immortals, and do all for the sake of living in accordance with that which is highest in us—that part of us which, though small in bulk, is, in power and worth, exalted far above all the rest. This part—Reason—being his sovereign part, is the man. He, therefore, who lives according to Reason, lives according to what he truly is. His life is his own—therefore naturally the best and sweetest for him: 'his own' in this eminent sense—therefore realises the highest Happiness.

Introductory Note.] Mich. Eph. introduces this chapter with the following comment: ἐπεὶ διττὴ ἡ ἀρετὴ ἢ μὲν ἠθικὴ ἢ δὲ θεωρητικὴ, καὶ διὰ τοῦτο καὶ ἡ εὐδαιμονία διττὴ. ἐν μὲν τῷ πρώτῳ βιβλίῳ εἶπε περὶ πολιτικῆς εὐδαιμονίας . . . ἐν τούτῳ δὲ λέγει περὶ τῆς θεωρητικῆς εὐδαιμονίας καὶ κατ' αὐτὴν εὐδαίμονος, ὅς ἐστιν ὁ πρῶτος καὶ ὄντως ἄνθρωπος καὶ ὁ ἀληθὴς ἄνθρωπος, ὁ ἐν ἡμῖν δηλονότι νοῦς καὶ ἐπιγνώμενος ὁ τοιοῦτος εὐδαίμων τῷ πολιτικῷ εὐδαίμονι· ἀδύνατον γὰρ ἐστὶν ἐν τῷ γενέσθαι νοεῖν (καὶ μὴ μετρήσαντι τὰ πάθη διὰ τῶν ἠθικῶν ἀρετῶν, καὶ κατὰ πολιτικῶν εὐδαιμονίας ζήσαντι· ἀόριστα γὰρ τὰ πάθη τῇ αὐτῶν φύσει καὶ ἀστέβητα . . . εἰ εὖ ἄμετρα τὰ πάθη καὶ ἀόριστα καὶ ὄχλου καὶ ταραχῆς ἐμπορησιᾶ, πῶς εὖ τε νοεῖν ἐνεργεῖν τὸν ὑπὸ τῶν ἀλόγων παθῶν περιελαβόμενον; . . . πολλοὶ δὲ εἶρηται τοῖς εἰποῦσι τὴν πρακτικὴν ἀρετὴν καὶ τὸ τέλος αὐτῆς τῆς εὐδαιμονίας ἐπιτηδειοτάτας τινας εἶναι πρὸς ὑποδοχὴν τῆς θεωρητικῆς εὐδαιμονίας.

1177 a. 18. § 1. κατὰ τὴν κρατίστην] See i. 7. 15 κατὰ τὴν ἀρίστην καὶ ταπεινότητα.

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1177 a. 22. point of view. In ix the good man is viewed as *καταπέθε βίου*, in x as *ὁμοιωθεὶς τῷ θεῷ*.

ἴτιοῦν] Instead of Bekker's comma, Susemihl and Bywater rightly place a full stop after *ἴτιοῦν*.

a. 25. § 3. ἡ φιλοσοφία] σοφία is the reading of P^b, Ald., CCC, Cambr., B¹, B², B³. Of course *φιλοσοφία* is right, the argument being—'if the pursuit of wisdom (*φιλοσοφία*) is so pleasant, how much more pleasant must the possession (*σοφία*) be?'

a. 26. καθαριότητι] L^b, O^b, and CCC give this spelling. Mich. Eph. explains as follows—*ἀυλοτέρων αισθήσεων αἱ ἐνέργειαι καθαρότεροι*: the πολιτικός is immersed in matter, and often repents that he has done this, or not done that: *ὁ δὲ θεωρῶν καὶ τὴν φύσιν τῶν ὄντων ἐπισκεπτόμενος οὐδέποτε ἐν μετανοίᾳ γίνεται*.

εὐλογον δὲ τοῖς εἰδόσι τῶν ζητούντων ἡδὴ τὴν διαγωγὴν εἶναι] The contrast marked by *τοῖς εἰδόσι* and *τῶν ζητούντων* here is not that between the mere *ἔξις* of σοφία as a treasure (*cf.* Grant's note here) and the *ἐνέργεια* of μάθησις by which that treasure is accumulated—for Aristotle would certainly tell us that of these two the μάθησις is the more pleasant; but that between the *ἐνέργεια* *κατὰ τὴν ἔξιν*, and the *ἐνέργεια* by which the *ἔξις* is formed. The σοφός derives more pleasure from the *use* which his trained faculties make of his accumulated knowledge, than the learner derives from the process by which faculties are trained and knowledge is accumulated. Similarly, it is the perfectly formed δίκαιος, and not the man who is becoming δίκαιος, who finds the greater pleasure in the performance of τὰ δίκαια. We must be careful, then, to understand the εἰδότες here as *συνεχῶς ἐνεργοῦντες*, not as merely *εἰς ἔχοντες*. The accumulation of knowledge—in the head, or, more conveniently, in the library—is as false an ideal of life as the accumulation of money. An instructive discussion—partly in relation to academical education—of the question 'Is Truth, or is the mental exercise in the pursuit of Truth, the superior end?' will be found in Sir W. Hamilton's *Lectures on Metaphysics*, Lect. i. vol. i. pp. 8–18. Hamilton describes it as 'perhaps the most curious theoretical, and certainly the most important practical, problem in the whole compass of philosophy. For according to the solution at which we arrive, must we accord the higher or the lower rank to

certain great departments of study; and what is of more impor- 1177 a. 20.
tance, the character of its solution, as it determines the aim, regu-
lates from first to last the method which an enlightened science of
education must adopt.'

§§ 4-7.] In these sections it may perhaps be thought that the a. 27.
θεωρητικὸς βίος is presented as a career distinguished from the
πολιτικὸς βίος—the career of the savant, as distinguished from that
of the man of affairs. That the savant needs less *χορηγία* than the
man of affairs, and so is *αὐταρκέστερος*, is true in a sense—although
we must remember that the savant is himself the highest product
of civil life, and the order and amenity of that life are materially
necessary to his form, being, in a way, his *χορηγία*. That the
career of the savant was partly what Aristotle understood by the
θεωρητικὸς βίος is most likely—it was his own career; but here,
I take it, he asks us to look at the *θεωρητικὸς βίος*, not as a separate
career side by side with other careers in the city, but rather as *the*
form of the πολιτικὸς βίος, that is, of all life in the city. Accord-
ingly, when he distinguishes *ἡ ἐνέργεια ἢ κατὰ τὴν κρατίστην ἀρετὴν*
(x. 7. 1) from *ἡ κατὰ τὴν ἄλλην ἀρετὴν* (x. 8. 1), he does not dis-
tinguish two lives, but rather two points of view. The *εὐδαιμονία* of
the *σοφός* is higher than that of the *ἀνδρεῖος*, as the *ψυχὴ* is higher
than the *σῶμα*—but there is no *ψυχὴ* without *σῶμα*, and no *σῶμα*
without *ψυχὴ*. The 'city' exists for the sake of its 'thinkers,' but
the 'thinkers' are no caste apart: they are the leaven in the mass.
We must remember that it is of *ἡ τελεία εὐδαιμονία* that he is
speaking here. Pure *θεωρία* constitutes *ἡ τελεία εὐδαιμονία*. But
man cannot engage in this *θεωρία* continuously, or, even at inter-
vals, perfectly. Only God can continuously and perfectly. The
life of pure *θεωρία* is too high for man, because he is concrete.
'*Ἡ τελεία εὐδαιμονία*, then, being beyond the reach of man, he is left
with *εὐδαιμονία to the extent of his θεωρία*: see *E. N.* x. 8. 8. This
means that *θεωρία* is the *formal element* in his *εὐδαιμονία*. The *σοφός*,
as distinguished here (x. 7. 4) from the *δίκαιος*, is this formal
element abstracted and personified for the sake of clearer present-
ation. But we must not make 'a material use of a merely formal
principle'—we must not suppose that the *σοφός*, as described here
—*E. N.* x. chapters 7 and 8—*exists as an individual* to bear away
the prize of actual *εὐδαιμονία* from the *δίκαιος*. The *θεωρητικὸς βίος*
is not a separate life coordinate with the *πολιτικὸς βίος*, but a spirit

1177 a. 27. which penetrates and ennobles the latter. When the 'political' life is said to be *ἀσχολος* (x. 7. 6, b. 12), this is doubtless true of the lives of ordinary politicians, who make politics a trade, subjecting themselves to the vicissitudes of party fortune, and placing their end in its domain; but it is not true of the life of the 'good man,' whose *σχολή* consists in the quiet of a well-regulated mind, not in an impossible immunity from the 'interruptions' of practical life. Unless we understand *σχολή* in this sense, we must suppose that in the *Ethics* the life of the good man is depicted as a more or less troubled and unsatisfactory public career, in which he is painfully conscious of the difficulty of finding occasions for the exercise of his temperance, justice, liberality, and other virtues—ending, if he is ever to reach the highest kind of happiness, in withdrawal from social activity, and the attainment of *Nirvana*, such as the Neoplatonists understood the *θεωρητικὸς βίος* to be. Nothing could be more opposed than this to Aristotle's view of life as social from beginning to end.

I take it, then, that when he contrasts the *θεωρητικὸς βίος* and the *πρακτικὸς βίος*, Aristotle sometimes thinks especially of the difference between the life of the student or savant and that of the public man—and sometimes (as here, x. 7, §§ 4-7) wishes rather to call attention to the *τί ἦν εἶναι, ἢ οὐσία ἀνευ ἔλης*, as distinguished from the concrete manifestation, of man's life as a whole. But these two ways of looking at the *βίος θεωρητικός* scarcely present themselves to him as two. The result is a confusion of expression which enabled the mystics of a later age to quote Aristotle's authority for their extravagances—the *δίκαιος* is contrasted, as a man who has difficulty in finding people on whom to exercise his *δικαιοσύνη*, with the *σοφός*, who has something better to do than to exercise *δικαιοσύνη*!

For more on Aristotle's view of the relation of the *θεωρητικὸς βίος* to the *πρακτικὸς βίος*, see note on i. 5. 2, also notes on vi. 1. 1 and vi. 13. 8.

Plutarch discourses on the inseparability of these two *βίοι* in an interesting passage—*de liberis educandis*, 10—*τελείους δὲ ἀνθρώπους ἡγοῦμαι τοὺς δυναμένους τὴν πολιτικὴν δύναμιν μίξαι καὶ κεράσαι τῇ φιλοσοφίᾳ· καὶ δυοῖν ὄντων μεγίστων ἀγαθῶν ἐπηβόλους ὑπάρχειν ὑπολαμβάνει, τοῦ τε κοινωφελοῦς βίου, πολιτευομένου, τοῦ τε ἀκύματος καὶ γαληνοῦ, διατρίβοντας περὶ φιλοσοφίαν. τριῶν γὰρ ὄντων βίων, ἓν δὲ μὲν ἐστὶ πρακτικὸς, ὃ δὲ θεωρητικὸς, ὃ δὲ ἀπολαυστικὸς, ὃ μὲν ἔκλυτος καὶ δοῦλος τῶν ἡδονῶν, ζωῆς καὶ μικροπρεπῆς ἐστὶν· ὃ δὲ θεωρητικὸς, τοῦ πρακτικοῦ δια-*

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1177 b. 2. τῆς σελήνης παθημάτων καὶ τῶν περὶ τὸν ἥλιον [καὶ περὶ ἀστρῶν] καὶ περὶ τῆς τοῦ παντὸς γενέσεως. ὁ δ' ἀπορῶν καὶ θαυμάζων οἶεται ἀγνοεῖν (διὰ καὶ ὁ φιλόμυθος φιλόσοφος πῶς ἐστίν· ὁ γὰρ μῦθος σύγκειται ἐκ θαυμασίων) ὥστ' εἶπερ διὰ τὸ φεύγειν τὴν ἀγνοίαν ἐφιλοσόφησαν, φανερὸν ὅτι διὰ τὸ εἰδέναι τὸ ἐπίστασθαι ἐδίωκον, καὶ οὐ χρήσεώς τινος ἔσκεν. μαρτυρεῖ δ' αὖτὸ τὸ συμβεβηκός· σχεδὸν γὰρ πάντων ὑπαρχόντων τῶν ἀνεγκαίων καὶ πρὸς ῥαστώνην καὶ διαγωγὴν ἢ τοιαύτη φρόνησις ἤρξαστο ζητεῖσθαι. ἄλλων οὖν ἐκ δὲ οὐδεμίαν αὐτὴν ζητοῦμεν χρεῖαν ἑτέραν· ἀλλ' ὅσπερ ἀνθρώπος φανὼν ἐλεύθερος ὁ ἑαυτοῦ ἕνεκα καὶ μὴ ἄλλου ὄν, οὕτω καὶ αὕτη, μόνη ἐλευθέρου οὔσα τῶν ἐπιστημῶν μόνη γὰρ αὕτη ἑαυτῆς ἕνεκὸν ἐστίν. διὰ καὶ διακρίνει ἂν οὐκ ἀνθρωπίνῃ νομίζοιτο αὐτῆς ἢ κτήσεως.

b. 3. πρακτικῶν] so Rassow, Susemihl, and Bywater, for Bekker's πρακτῶν. Besides K^b and Hel., quoted by Susemihl, Cambr. gives πρακτικῶν. Kassow (*Forsch.* 70) describes πρακτικῶν as 'das allein richtige.'

The statement ἀπὸ δὲ τῶν πρακτικῶν . . . b 4 πρᾶξιν does not conflict with the ἢ γὰρ εὐπραξία τέλος of vi. 2. 5, for εὐπραξία is the whole system of καλαὶ πράξεις, whereas the πρακτικαὶ ἐνέργειαι of the present section are actions performed as means: cf. iii. 3. 15 αἱ δὲ πρᾶξεις ἄλλων ἕνεκα.

b. 4. § 6. δοκεῖ τε ἡ εὐδαιμονία ἐν τῇ σχολῇ εἶναι] 'It is a sort of repose, as it were, the fruit of our exertions' (Grant). 'One of the Aristotelian ideas,' says Prof. Jowett (*Politics*, vol. i. p. cxliv), 'which we have a difficulty in translating into English words and modes of thought is σχολή or ἡ ἐν σχολῇ διαγωγή. To us leisure means hardly more than the absence of occupation, the necessary alternation of play with work. By the Greek, σχολή was regarded as the condition of a gentleman. In Aristotle the notion is still further idealized, for he seems to regard it as an internal state in which the intellect, free from the cares of practical life, energizes or reposes in the consciousness of truth.' See also his note on τὴν ἐν τῇ διαγωγῇ σχολήν *Pol.* viii. 2. 1338 a. 10, vol. ii. p. 295, where he says that the expression is nearly equivalent to τὴν ἐν τῇ σχολῇ διαγωγήν 1338 a. 21: the first sense of the word διαγωγή is 'that employment of leisure which becomes a gentleman' . . . 'Further it is joined with φρόνησις (*Pol.* θ. 4. 1339 a. 25), and therefore seems to mean the rational or intellectual employment and enjoyment of leisure. It is always distinguished from παιδιὰ and ἀνάπαυσις, "amusement" and "relaxation," which are properly, not ends, but only means to

renewed exertion (cp. Nic. Eth. x. 6, § 6); and so means to 1177 b. 4. means, whereas *διαγωγή* and *σχολή* are ends in themselves. The idea of "culture," implying a use of the intellect, not for the sake of any further end, but for itself, would so far correspond to *διαγωγή*.'

τῶν μὲν οὖν πρακτικῶν . . . b. 8 παντελῶς] Kassow (*Forsch.* p. 32) b. 6. places this sentence after *φόνου γίνονται* b. 12. Thus b. 9 οὐδεὶς γὰρ αἰρεῖται . . . b. 12 γίνονται immediately follows *πολεμοῦμεν ἰν' εἰρήνην ἄγωμεν* b. 6, which it explains. This is a great improvement to the run of the passage; but perhaps (since transposing sentences is always risky work) we ought to be satisfied with the amount of improvement produced by Bywater's parenthesis οὐδεὶς b. 9 . . . b. 12 γίνονται.

φόνου γίνονται] K^b has γίνηται, and Cambr. has φόνος. b. 12.

ἐτέραν οὖσαν τῆς πολιτικῆς] πολιτικὴ (= αὐτὸ τὸ πολιτεύεσθαι b. 13) b. 14. is itself an ἀτελὴς ἐνέργεια—it results in a τέλος external to itself.

δῆλον ὡς] Ramsauer proposes δὴ ὡς, or δῆλον ὅτι ὡς. I do not b. 15. think that any change is necessary.

§ 7. εἰ δὴ τῶν μὲν κ.τ.λ.] The apodosis of this sentence begins b. 16. with b. 24 ἡ τελεία δὴ εὐδαιμονία.

καὶ παρ' αὐτὴν οὐδενὸς ἐφίεσθαι τέλους] See *Mel.* A. 2. 982 b. 27 b. 20. μόνη γὰρ αὐτὴ αὐτῆς ἐνεκὴν ἐστίν: *Mel.* Θ. 8. 1050 a. 34 ὅσων δὲ μὴ ἔστιν ἄλλο τι ἔργον παρὰ τὴν ἐνέργειαν ἐν αὐτοῖς ὑπάρχει ἡ ἐνέργεια, οἷον ἡ ὄρασις ἐν τῷ ὄρῳ καὶ ἡ θεωρία ἐν τῷ θεωροῦντι, καὶ ἡ ζωὴ ἐν τῇ ψυχῇ, διὸ καὶ ἡ εὐδαιμονία· ζωὴ γὰρ ποιά τις ἐστίν.

καὶ ἔχειν τὴν ἡδονὴν οἰκείαν (αὕτη δὲ συναύξει τὴν ἐνέργειαν)] See x. 5. 2.

δὴ] So Bekker and Bywater. I prefer Susemihl's δέ given by M^b b. 22. and O^b. On καὶ . . . δέ see Eucken *de Arist. dic. rat: Pars 1^a: de particularum usu*, p. 32 'adjungit καί—δέ rem novam saepe tam leni modo ut idem fere valeat atque τε.' He remarks that καί . . . δέ is more frequent in *E. N.* iv, viii, ix, and x, than elsewhere in the Aristotelian writings.

τὰ κατὰ ταύτην] The τὰ is introduced by Bywater from K^b, M^b. b. 28. The sentence seems to me to run better without it.

1177 b. 25. λαβούσα μήκος βίου τελειον] This means that the life of the εὐδαιμών must have a *reasonable* duration; that it must be long enough for him to do his life's work in: see note on *ἔτι δ' ἐν βίῳ τελείῳ* i. 7. 16, a. 18.

b. 26. § 8.] The θεωρητικὸς βίος is an ideal; it cannot be realised by man, for he is concrete. But the effort to realise it, as far as possible, is all-important in human life. The effort to realise it coordinates man's powers, and exalts their vitality—it gives him *έlan*, and carries him on to the attainment of many things within his reach, which he would not otherwise aspire to. Perhaps we may venture to translate the doctrine of this section into the language of modern philosophy, and say that Aristotle makes 'the Idea of God' the 'regulative principle' in man's life. Indeed Eudemus puts the doctrine hardly otherwise in a passage which is the best commentary on this section—*E. E. N.* 15. 1249 b. 6—δει δὲ ὡσπερ καὶ ἐν τοῖς ἄλλοις πρὸς τὸ ἄρχον ζῆν, καὶ πρὸς τὴν ἕξιν κατὰ τὴν ἐνέργειαν τὴν τοῦ ἀρχοντος, οἷον δοῦλον πρὸς δεσπότην καὶ ἕκαστον πρὸς τὴν ἑκάστου καθήκουσαν ἀρχήν. ἐπεὶ δὲ καὶ ἄνθρωπος φύσει συνίσταται ἐξ ἀρχοντος καὶ ἀρχομένου, καὶ ἕκαστον ἀνδρῶν δίοι πρὸς τὴν ἑαυτῶν ἀρχήν (ἡ αὕτη δὲ διττή· ἄλλως γὰρ ἡ ἰατρικὴ ἀρχὴ καὶ ἄλλως ἡ ὑγίεια ταύτης ἐνεκα ἐκείνης)· οὕτω δ' ἔχει κατὰ τὸ θεωρητικόν. οὐ γὰρ ἐπιτακτικῶς ἀρχαὸς ὁ θεός, ἀλλ' οὐ ἐνεκα ἢ φρόνησις ἐπιτάττει (διττὸν δὲ τὸ οὐ ἐνεκα· διαίρεται δ' ἐν ἄλλοις), ἐπεὶ κείνός γε οὐθενὸς δέχεται. ἦτις οὖν αἴρεσις καὶ κτήσις τῶν φύσει ἀγαθῶν ποιήσει μάλιστα τὴν τοῦ θεοῦ θεωρίαν, ἢ σώματος ἢ χρημάτων ἢ φίλων ἢ τῶν ἄλλων ἀγαθῶν, αὕτη ἀρίστη, καὶ οὗτος ὁ ὅρος κάλλιστος· ἦτις δ' ἡ δι' ἐνδειαν ἢ δι' ὑπερβολὴν κωλύει τὸν θεὸν θεραπεύειν καὶ θεωρεῖν, αὕτη δὲ φαύλη. ἔχει δὲ τοῦτο τῇ ψυχῇ, καὶ οὗτος τῆς ψυχῆς ὅρος ἀριστος, τὸ ἥκιστα αἰσθάνεσθαι τοῦ ἀλόγου μέρους τῆς ψυχῆς, ἢ τοιοῦτον. τίς μὲν οὖν ὅρος τῆς καλοκαγαθίας, καὶ τίς ὁ σκοπὸς τῶν ἀπλῶς ἀγαθῶν, ἔστω εἰρημείον.

b. 28. τοῦ συνθέτου] 'man's concrete nature,' 'man as concrete.' Ἡ σύνθετος οὐσία is the concrete thing—the union of ὕλη and μορφή, as distinguished from the μορφή which is οὐσία ἀνευ ὕλης. Thus ζῆν as ψυχὴ ἐν σώματι is a σύνθετος οὐσία of which ψυχὴ is the οὐσία ἀνευ ὕλης or τί ἦν εἶναι: see *Met. N.* 3. 1043 b. 29 sqq.

b. 32. ἀνθρώπινα φρονεῖν κ.τ.λ.] The editors quote *Rhet.* ii. 21. 1394 b. 24 where 'θνατὰ χρὴ τὸν θνατὸν, οὐκ ἀθάνατα τὸν θνατὸν φρονεῖν' is given as a γνώμη, and Pindar, *Isthm.* v. 20 θνατὰ θνατοῖσι πρέσβια: cf. also Antiphanes (apud Stob. *Flor.* vol. i. p. 316 ed. Meineke) of

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to need external equipment to a less extent than that of moral action. The 'necessaries of life' thinker and moral agent may perhaps need to an equal extent: but in what each needs for the performance of his proper function they differ widely. The moral agent needs money for his *Liberality* and *Justice* (good intentions are not enough for the manifestation of these virtues), *power* for his *Courage*, *opportunity* for his *Temperance*: but the thinker needs none of these external things for the performance of his function—nay these things even hinder thinking. It is as concrete man, and member of society, and as choosing to live the life of moral action (for he does not separate himself from the life of moral action), that the thinker will need these external things.

That *Perfect Happiness* is speculative function may be seen also from this—that to the gods, whom we deem most *Blessed* and *Happy*, we do not ascribe moral actions—how ridiculous it would be to think of them as restoring deposits justly, facing danger courageously, expending money liberally, tempted by no bad desires forsooth, and conducting themselves temperately!—no: if we go through the whole list of the moral actions we shall find none worthy of the gods: yet we all hold that they live and therefore put forth some function—they do not sleep like *Endymion*—: what function, then, remains to a living being, when moral action, and with it, of course, the action of the artificer, have been set aside? Only speculative function remains. Such is the function of God. His whole life is blessed; man's life is blessed so far as he realises something like to the function of God; the other animals are outside the pale of *Happiness*, because they have no part in *Speculative Thought*. *Happiness* is co-extensive with *Speculative Thought*. He who has *Speculative Thought* in fuller measure has *Happiness* in fuller measure—not as something following upon *Speculative Thought*, but as involved in the very essence of *Speculative Thought*: for *Speculative Thought* is in its own essence precious—it is an end in itself.

Happiness, then, may be defined as a manifestation of *Speculative Thought*.

But human nature is not self-sufficient as regards the performance of speculative function. The thinker, as concrete man, needs external wellbeing—bodily health, sustenance, service: not that he will need great appliances: nay, the performance of those functions in which *Happiness* consists, is often hindered by too many appliances—a man may do noble deeds without being lord of land and sea: we more often see men in private stations doing that which is good than men in positions of power: *Solon* was right when he declared those to be *Happy* who have been sufficiently furnished with external good things, and have achieved the noblest actions, and lived temperately: *Anaxagoras* too seems to agree with this view that moderate possessions, not great wealth and power, are most conducive to *Happiness*, or the life of good action; for he speaks of the *Happy Man* as 'a strange figure in the eyes of the many' who judge by what alone they can see—a man's external condition. Thus the opinions of the wise men of old seem to agree with our view. Such opinions, of course, have their weight; but after all our ultimate appeal must be to the facts of life: by agreement or non-agreement with these our theories must stand or fall.

The man who lives the life of Reason, and serves Reason seems to be at once the best man and the best beloved by the gods. If the gods care for men—and it is believed that they do—it is natural to suppose that they take pleasure in

Reason, which is best in man, and most akin to themselves, and that they recompense with good those who love and honour it. The Thinker then, will be the best beloved by the Gods—another reason for holding that he is the most Happy.

§ 1. ἀνθρωπικαί] The θεωρητικαὶ ἐνέργειαι are θεῖαι: but we must 1178 a. 10. be careful not to misunderstand Aristotle here. When he contrasts the δίκαιος as πράττων πρὸς ἕτερον, and the σοφός as θεωρῶν καθ' αὐτόν, and declares the life of the latter to be happier, he is really contrasting man in the concrete; and reason the form of man (see note on τοῦ συνθέτου x. 7. 8, b. 28). This form, he would tell us, is realised in the concrete life of the just man, as well as in the concrete life of the savant, the μεσότης of the just man's moral nature being determined in relation to the same σκοπός which regulates the speculation of the savant. Man's concrete life (which, as concrete, is always ἐν κοινωνίᾳ and πρὸς ἑτέρους) is 'happier' in proportion as it realises this σκοπός more purely. The savant, therefore, who realises the σκοπός theoretically as well as practically (he must have realised it as φρόνιμος before he can realise it as σοφός) stands higher than the just man who realises it only practically. But the conditions of human existence make the comparatively withdrawn life of the savant impossible except for a very few. When Aristotle tells us that the life of the savant is 'happier' than the life of the man of affairs, he does not imply that it is open to the bulk of mankind to choose this 'happier' life. The exhortation χρῆ δὲ . . . ἐφ' ὅσον ἐνδέχεται ἀθανατίζειν is addressed to the bulk of mankind, because it is open to every man who is not πεπηρωμένος πρὸς ἀρετῆν to contribute—if not in some brilliant way, as politician, or soldier, or leader of fashion, or athlete—at least as honest man, to the εὐδαιμονία of a city in which savants are produced and held in honour.

τὰ ἄλλα] So Susemihl and Bywater: Bekker has ἄλλα. The τὰ is given by L^b, Ald., CCC, Cambr., NC.

χρεῖαι] 'services.' a. 12.

καὶ πράξει] Rassow (*Forsch.* p. 33) places καὶ (ταῖς) πράξει after πάθει a. 13.

τὸ πρέπον ἐκάστῳ] τὸ πρέπον τῷ πλησίον (Faraph.). a. 13.

§ 2. 'Again, moral virtue seems, in some points, to be actually a. 14.

1178 a. 14. the result of physical constitution, and in many points to be closely connected with the passions' (Peters). Michelet understands ἡ τοῦ ἡθους ἀρετή as that *morum rectitudo*, from which as principle the ἠθικαὶ ἀρεταὶ spring: but in § 3 ἡ τοῦ ἡθους ἀρετή and αἱ ἠθικαὶ ἀρεταὶ seem to have exactly the same meaning. The reference in ἐπεὶ seems to be to φυσικὴ ἀρετή—inherited good tendency, εὐφυΐα—see vi. 13. 1; in πολλά, not only to the general connexion between ἠθικὴ ἀρετή and the πάθη, so often insisted on (e.g. in ii. 6. 10), but also perhaps to those μεσότητες ἐν τοῖς πάθεσιν (ii. 7. 14) which are not strictly ἀρεταὶ—such as αἰδώς.

a. 16. § 3. συνέζευκται a. 17 φρονήσει] See vi. 13. 6 οὐχ οἶόν τε ἀγαθὸν εἶναι κυρίως ἄνευ φρονήσεως, οἰδέ φρόνιμον ἄνευ τῆς ἠθικῆς ἀρετῆς, and note there with references.

a. 17. εἶπερ a. 19 φρόνησιν] See note on ἐτι τὸ ἔργον ἀποτελεῖται κ. τ. λ. vi. 12. 6, a. 6. The Paraphrast's explanation here is—φρόνησις μὲν τὰς ἀρχὰς ἀπὸ τῶν ἠθικῶν ἀρετῶν ἔχει· τὸ γὰρ ὀρθοδοξεῖν περὶ τὸ τέλος ἐκείθεν· ἡ δὲ ἠθικὴ ἀρετὴ πῶς δεῖ τοῦ τέλους τυχεῖν ἀπὸ τῆς φρονήσεως λαμβάνει.

The motive of the present section (which Grant regards as containing 'the germ of much that is expanded in the Eudemian books, cf. *Eth.* vi. 12. 9–10, 13. 4') is thus given by Mich. Eph.—Δείξας τὰς ἠθικὰς ἀρετὰς ἀνθρωπικὰς οὐσας, δείκνυσι καὶ τὴν φρόνησιν αὕτη γὰρ ἀρετὴ οὐσα τοῦ λογιστικοῦ μέρους τῆς ψυχῆς, δόξειεν ἂν εἶναι τοῦ νοῦ ἀρετὴ καὶ οὐ τοῦ συνθέτου· δείκνυσι δὲ καὶ ταύτην ὅτι μὴ τοῦ ὄντος ἀνθρώπου ἐστὶν ἀρετὴ ἀλλὰ τοῦ συνθέτου.

a. 19. συνηρημέναι δ' αὐταὶ καὶ τοῖς πάθεσι] K^b has συνηρημένη (sc. ἡ φρόνησις) δ' αὐταῖς (sc. ταῖς ἠθ. ἀρεταῖς) κ. τ. λ. Ramsauer conjectures συνηρημέναι (sc. αἱ ἠθ. ἀρεταὶ) δὲ ταύτη τε (sc. τῇ τε φρονήσει) κ. τ. λ., οἱ συνηρημέναι (sc. ἡ τε φρόνησις καὶ αἱ ἀρεταὶ) δ' ἀλλήλαις τε κ. τ. λ. Susemihl conjectures συνηρημέναι δ' αὐτῇ τε κ. τ. λ. I think that συνηρημέναι δ' αὐταὶ is right: the ἠθικαὶ ἀρεταὶ, notwithstanding their close connexion with the intellectual faculty φρόνησις, are περὶ τὸ σύνθετον, for they are implicated with the πάθη: καὶ τοῖς πάθεσι means 'not only with φρόνησις, but also with the πάθη.' I think that Grant is wrong in making αὐταὶ take up φρόνησις and the ἠθ. ἀρεταὶ.

a. 22. ἡ δὲ τοῦ νοῦ κεχωρισμένη] We are reminded of *de An.* iii. 5. 430 a. 17 καὶ οὗτος ὁ νοῦς (i. e. the ποιητικὸς νοῦς, οἱ τί ἦν εἶναι οἱ ὁ νοῦς ὁ

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- 1178 b. 4. χορηγία—no well-appointed stage, as it were, for the exercise of his θεωρητικὴ ἐνέργεια: but, *γὰρ ἄνθρωπος*, he chooses to exercise πρακτικαὶ ἐνέργειαι also, and for them he will need χορηγία.

Indeed the qualification '*γὰρ ἄνθρωπος*,' applies to him not only when he exercises πρακτικαὶ ἐνέργειαι, but also when he exercises his θεωρητικὴ ἐνέργεια: if he does not require for the latter an elaborate χορηγία, he requires at least fellow-actors—sympathetic and stimulating friends. See *Introductory Note* to Book viii.

The words b. 6 αἰρεῖται τὰ κατὰ τὴν (sc. ἠθικὴν) ἀρετὴν πράττειν are to be carefully noted, as stating explicitly the inherence of the θεωρητικὸς βίος in the πρακτικὸς βίος. The θεωρῶν is a man, and chooses to live the social life. Aristotle's θεωρητικὸς βίος was travestied by those who afterwards made it a life of actual withdrawal from the flesh. Aristotle's ideal of θεωρία is a 'regulative idea' of which the Neo-aristotelians made a 'constitutive use.'

- b. 7. ἀνθρωπεύεσθαι] Coraes has an interesting note here—τῶν σπαρίων ἡ λέξις, σημαίνουσα τὸ παρὰ τοῖς Γάλλοις *s'humaniser*. ἔσωσε δ' αὐτὴν καὶ ἡ συνήθεια, κατὰ μετοχὴν μάλιστα· ἀνθρωπευμένον γὰρ ἱπαιούντες λέγομεν, τὸν ἀστείον τὰ ἦθη, καὶ ἀγαπητῶς τοῖς ἄλλοις συμπεριφερόμενον.

§ 7.] Grant remarks on this section—'Aristotle argues here that we cannot attribute morality to the Deity without falling into mere anthropomorphism; but it might be replied that there is the same difficulty in conceiving of God as engaged in philosophic thought . . . If it is conceded that the life of God is only *analogous* to that of the philosopher, we might then ask, why not also analogous to the life of the good man?' With this criticism which amounts, as I understand it, to saying that Aristotle's notion of God is not anthropomorphic enough, it is instructive to compare the criticism of Plotinus—that Aristotle errs in attributing νόησις to the First Principle: 'Ἀριστοτέλης δὲ χωριστὸν μὲν τὸ πρῶτον καὶ νοητὸν, νοεῖν δὲ αὐτὸ ἑαυτὸ λέγων πάλιν αὐτὸ οὐ τὸ πρῶτον ποιεῖ (p. 490), for the First Principle is ἐπέκεινα νοῦ (p. 541).

- b. 18. ὑπομένοντας] It seems better simply to accept this bad anacoluthon than to suppose a lacuna after ἀνδρείους—unless indeed we follow Bywater's suggestion (*Contrib.* p. 69) and read ἀλλὰ τὰς ἀνδρείου ὑπομένοντας τὰ φοβερά καὶ κινδυνεύοντας ὅτι καλόν;

- b. 15. αἱ δὲ σύφρονες] To L^b, the only authority quoted by Susemihl for αἱ, may be added Cambr. All other MSS. apparently read αἱ.

μικρὰ καὶ ἀνάξια θεῶν] Muretus (*var. lect.* vii. 22, cited by Zell) 1178 b. 17. quotes Cic. *de nat. deor.* iii. 15 as a passage modelled on this section—*Jam justitia, quae suum cuique distribuit, quid pertinet ad deos? hominum societas et communitas, ut vos dicitis, justitiam procreavit. Temperantia autem constat ex praetermittendis voluptatibus corporis, cui si locus in coelo est, est etiam voluptatibus: nam fortis deus intelligi qui potest? in dolore? an in labore? an in periculo? quorum deum nihil attingit.*

τοῦ ποιεῖν] 'vide quam procul abesse jubeatur dei creatoris b. 21. imago' (Ramsauer).

ᾧστε ἡ τοῦ θεοῦ ἐνέργεια . . . θεωρητικὴ ἂν εἴη] See *Mel.* A. 7.

§ 8. καὶ εὐδαιμονεῖν] Ramsauer's conjecture καὶ τὸ εὐδαιμονεῖν is b. 30. supported by NC, which reads τό.

οὐ κατὰ συμβεβηκὸς ἀλλὰ κατὰ τὴν θεωρίαν αὕτη γὰρ καθ' αὐτὴν τιμία] *θεωρία* is *itself εὐδαιμονία*: it is not a means which produces *εὐδαιμονία*, as the doctor produces health. For the meaning of *τιμία*, see *E. N.* i. 12.

§ 9.] With this section begins a discussion of the relation of ἡ b. 33. ἐκτὸς εἰημερία to εὐδαιμονία. The discussion is not confined strictly to the relation of τὰ ἐκτὸς to the εὐδαιμονία of the θεωρητικὸς βίος. It is suggested that τὰ ἐκτὸς are not nearly so important for the εὐδαιμονία of the πρακτικὸς βίος as is vulgarly supposed; and we are allowed to infer *a fortiori* that their influence in the θεωρητικὸς βίος (so far as that βίος can be distinguished as a separate career in the city) is very small.

εὐδαιμονήσοντα . . . α. 2 μακάριον] I think that these two words 1179 a. 1. are used here with exactly the same meaning.

αὐταρκες οὐδ' ἡ πρᾶξις] This is the reading of K^b, Ald., and B². a. 3. All other authorities recorded, so far as I know (Susemihl gives Γ, L^b, Mich. Eph., Helioid., Aret., M^b, O^b, and I can add B¹, B³, Paris. 1853, CCC, NC, Cambr.) interpolate οὐδ' ἡ κρίσις between αὐταρκες and οὐδ' ἡ πρᾶξις. It has been conjectured that κρίσις represents χρῆσις. Coraes adopts χρῆσις in his text. Mich. Eph. has—οὐδ' ἡ κρίσις τουτέστιν οὐδὲ τὴν αὐτάρκειαν δεῖ κρίνειν ἐκ τῆς τῶν χρημάτων ὑπερβολῆς. I cannot attach much weight to the mere circumstance

1179 a. 8. that K^b omits the words; I believe that they represent something original in the text.

a. 8. § 10. τοσαῦθ'] μέτρια.

a. 9. § 11. Σόλων] See the conversation between Solon and Croesus Herod. i. 30-32, especially ch. 30, where Solon says that Tellus the Athenian was the happiest man he had ever known. Tellus was well-off, he lived to see his children's children, and he died gloriously in battle, and his countrymen erected a monument to him where he fell.

a. 11. πεπραγότας δὲ τὰ κάλλισθ'] K^b omits τὰ: so also do Cambr., NC, and Paris. 1853—thus, apparently, making πεπραγότας intransitive. The intransitive use of πέπραγα, according to Veitch (*Greek Verbs*) is found in Pindar, Euripides, and Plato: but the intransitive use of πέπραγα is late. Accordingly NC—the only MS. which supports Spengel's conj. πεπραχότας, so far as I know—can hardly be right with πεπραχότας δὲ κάλλιστα.

ὡς ᾤετο] om. NC, Paris. 1853. Bywater has an important suggestion here (*Contrib.* p. 69)—'I incline to think that we should revert to the K^b Γ reading, πεπραγότας δὲ κάλλισθ' ᾤετο, and understand ᾤετο in the sense of "he thought" or "meant," so as to mark a certain distinction between the actual words (ἴσως ἀπεφαίνετο καλῶς) and what they meant by implication. Compare E. E. 1215 b. 11 for a similar use of ᾤετο.'

a. 12. σωφρόνως] Mich. Eph. has—εἶπε δὲ σωφρόνως ἀντὶ τοῦ κατὰ πέρας ζῶντα τὰς ἀρετὰς.

a. 13. Ἀναξαγόρας] Cf. E. E. i. 4. 1215 b. 6 Ἀναξαγόρας μὲν ὁ Κλαζομένιος ἐρωτηθεὶς τίς ὁ εὐδαιμονίστατος, 'οὐθείς,' εἶπεν, 'ὡν σὺ νομίζεις' ἀλλ' ἄτοπος ἂν τίς σοι φανείη' τοῦτον δ' ἀπεκρίνατο τὸν τρόπον ἐκεῖνος, ὄρα ὅν τὸν ἐρόμενον ἀδύνατον ὑπολαμβάνοντα μὴ μέγαν ὄντα καὶ καλὸν ἢ πλούσιον ταύτης τυγχάνειν τῆς προσηγορίας, αὐτὸς δ' ἴσως ᾤετο τὸν ζῶντα ἀλύπως καὶ καθαρῶς πρὸς τὸ δίκαιον ἢ τινος θεωρίας κοινωνοῦντα θείας, τοῦτον ὡς ἀνθρώπων εἰσεῖν μακάριον εἶναι.

a. 16. § 12.] The opinions of men like Anaxagoras and Solon are *probably* true; but we must *verify* them by direct reference to the facts of human life, as given in our own experience; if they do not agree with these facts, they may be set down as mere theories—λέγουσιν

a. 22.

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of the young—yes, and of adults too, throughout the whole course of their lives—for the majority of men do what is right, not because it is right, but because they are constrained to do it. Law—expressing the Practical Reason of the community, has that power to constrain obedience which no father—no individual man, who is not an absolute monarch, possesses.

Only in the Spartan State and a few others has the lawgiver given any attention to the nurture and habits of the citizens: most States neglect these matters entirely, and allow each man to rule his wife and children as he pleases, like a Cyclops.

Where the State neglects its duty, it would seem to be incumbent on the individual to do what he can for the moral education of his own children and friends. He will succeed best if he have made himself capable of legislating—if he can educate his own children by unwritten laws as the written laws of the State, did they exist, would educate all the citizens.

This system of paternal education, though only second-best, is not without its peculiar advantages: it has the basis of natural affection in the children to build upon, and it can suit itself to the special needs of individual cases. These special needs may indeed be met, in a way, by merely empirical knowledge; but if they are to be met in the right way, they must be met by a knowledge of general principles—the father must, as we have said, make himself capable of legislating.

How, then, is a man to make himself capable of legislating? Can the practical politicians teach him? It would appear not. The political art is not like the other arts, which are taught by those who practise them. Those who profess to teach the political art are the Sophists, who do not practise the art: and those who practise the art rely on knack and personal experience—the secret of their success they do not attempt to explain in speeches or books, and cannot communicate to their sons or friends—they surely would do so, if they could. Only this seems plain—that experience has not a little to do with their success—for we see that those who live in political surroundings become politicians.

Experience, then, is clearly necessary, as well as theory, to one who would become 'capable of legislating.'

As for the professed teachers of the political art—the Sophists, they are far from being teachers of it: they do not know even what it is, or what it is concerned with: if they knew, they would not identify it with Rhetoric or even place it beneath Rhetoric; and they would not think that it is easy to legislate by making a collection of famous laws, and selecting the best of them—as if the selection did not need intelligence—as if all did not depend on deciding rightly! Who, we would ask, is the intelligent judge of the product of any art—of a musical composition, or a painting? The experienced musician or painter. Now, laws are the products of the political art. How, then, is one to become capable of legislating—capable of deciding which are the best laws—without experience? Collections of constitutions are like collections of medical cases—useless to those who have not got the discerning faculty which comes from the experience of practice: to those who have such experience they are likely to be very useful.

Our predecessors, then, having left the subject of Legislation unexamined, we perhaps ought now ourselves to consider it—and with it the whole subject of the

government of the State—that our Philosophy of Man may be made as complete as we can make it.

First then let us try to recount what is good in the various statements of our predecessors: then, looking at the collected Constitutions let us try to see what things preserve and what destroy States and Constitutions, and what are the causes of good and bad government. When we have seen these causes, we shall be better able to see clearly what sort of Constitution is the best, and how each Constitution may be best ordered, and what laws and customs it is best for it to use.

Let us then begin.

Introductory Note.] The *Ethics* may be said to end with chapter 8. The present chapter introduces the subject of the *Politics*. In the *Ethics* the theory of life has been set forth. But the object of the Treatise was not simply to supply a theory. A theory of life, which is only a theory—which we cannot see our way to realising at all—is not worth setting forth, even as a theory. It is not interesting, to say the least. The theory set forth in the *Ethics* has all along awakened interest, because we have seen that it is set forth in order to be applied in practice; but the Treatise, as a practical manual, would be incomplete, unless it ended by indicating more precisely, to those concerned with moral education, for whose use it is intended, *how* the theory may be applied in practice—how human beings, constituted as they are, may be got to act up to the principles which have been shown in theory to be the true principles of conduct. We accordingly find the *Ethics* ending with a chapter which indicates (for details we must go to the *Politics*) the lines on which practical effect may be given to the theory of life which has been set forth.

The gist of the chapter is this:—It is vain to begin by *preaching* the true theory. The hearers must be first prepared to hear. The moral nature must be trained; and direct appeals to the understanding cannot train the moral nature. Nor can home influences—at least, unaided. They have not sufficient force. *Nómos* alone is strong enough to enforce the dictates of reason. Hence it is *nómos* which those interested in carrying out the true theory into practice must try to enlist in their service. It is not by the ill-directed and feeble agency of individuals, but only by the institutions of the State, that citizens can be trained to live up to the true theory of conduct. Let us, then, try to embody the true theory in Legislation. This has not hitherto been done effectively.

The circumstance that this chapter, written so entirely in the spirit of the First Book (see especially *E. N.* i. 2), follows immediately on the discussion of the θεωρητικὸς βίος is very significant, showing that Aristotle does not regard his doctrine of the supremacy of the θεωρητικὸς βίος as in any way inconsistent with his doctrine of πολιτική as the ἀρχιτεκτονικὴ ἐπιστήμη.

1179 a. 33. § 1. περί τε τούτων] So Susemihl and Bywater, with L^b, O^b, CCC, NC, B¹, B², B³. Bekker reads περί τούτων with K^b, M^b.

With regard to the list given here of subjects which have been discussed in the *Ethics*, see note on x. 6. 1.

a. 34. τοῖς τύποις] This is the only instance, apparently, in Aristotle of the plural = τύπος, or ὡς ἐν τύπῳ: see Eucken, *Ueber den Sprachg. des Arist. (die Praepositionen)* p. 26.

b. 3. § 2. ἢ εἴ πως ἄλλως ἀγαθοὶ γινόμεθα] Mich. Eph. has—εἰ μὲν ἐκ τῆς τῶν ἀρετῶν χρήσεως γινόμεθα ἀγαθοὶ χρηστέρων αὐταῖς· εἰ δὲ τινε ἄλλω τρόπῳ, ἐκείνων ζητητέον· πάντως δὲ χρηστέρων ἐκείνοις δι' ὧν ἀγαθοὶ ἐσόμεθα: e.g. attention to the rules of health contributes indirectly to morality.

b. 6. § 3. θέογιν] The editors quote εἰ δ' Ἀσκληπιάδαις τοῦτό γ' ἔλασε θεὸς | ἰᾶσθαι κακότητα καὶ ἀτηρὰς φρένας ἀνδρῶν, | πολλοὺς δὲ μισθεὶ καὶ μεγάλους ἔφερον. Cf. Plato *Meno* 95 E, where the last line is cited.

b. 8. ἰσχύειν] The construction is—φαίνονται ἰσχύειν προτρέψασθαι τοὺς ἐλευθερίους.

b. 9. κατοκώχμιον] This is the reading of K^b and Ald. adopted by Bekker and Bywater. Susemihl adopts κατακώχμιον, the reading of all other authorities apparently. In *Pol.* ii. 6. 1269 b. 30 we have κατακώχμιον (apparently in all MSS.), on which see Newman's critical note, vol. ii. p. 88. There seems to be no doubt that κατοκώχμιον is a corrupt form. Coraes gives the meaning of the phrase κατοκώχμιον ἐκ τῆς ἀρετῆς as follows—σημαίνει δ' οὖν κατὰ λέξιν ἢ φρένας, οὕτω διαθεῖναι ὥστε κατέχεσθαι ἐκ τῆς ἀρετῆς, ὡς ἐκ θεοῦ, καὶ εἶναι ἐνθουσιᾶν καὶ θεόληπτον γίνεσθαι.

b. 10. καλοκαγαθίαν] This word occurs only twice in the *E. N.*—here, and in iv. 3. 16, in neither place with the technical meaning which it has in the *E. E.*: see notes on *E. N.* vi. 1, §§ 1-3 for the

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- 1179 b. 23. δ δὲ λόγος κ.τ.λ.] On the uselessness of supplying theory to those whose moral natures have not been trained, see i. 3, §§ 5-7. On τὸ καλῶς χαίρειν καὶ μισεῖν b. 25, see ii. 3. 2 and x. 1. 1.
- b. 26. ὡσπερ γῆν τὴν θρέψουσιν τὸ σπέρμα] Coraes quotes Hippocrates Νόμος § 2—ἡ μὲν γὰρ φύσις ἡμέων ὀκοῖον ἢ χῶρη· τὰ δὲ δόγματα τῶν διδασκόντων ὀκοῖον τὰ σπέρματα· ἡ δὲ παιδομαθίη τὸ κατ' ἔρημ αἰτὰ πειθεῖν εἰς τὴν ἄρουραν.
- b. 27. § 7. αὖ] ἄν is the reading of most MSS., but K^b has α἖.
- b. 28. ὅλως τ'] CCC and NC have ὅλως δέ. The Paraphrast may have read ὅλως γάρ: he has δῆλον γὰρ ὡς οὐ λόγῳ δύναται τὸ πάθος ὑπεῖλαιν ἀλλὰ βίῃ τιμί.
- b. 30. § 8. οἰκεῖον] Cf. the οἰκεῖος ἀκροατής of i. 3. 5. Aristotle is perhaps not thinking here so much of the ἦθος εἰγενές (x. 9. 3) which ἔθος, or habituation, presupposes, as of the ἦθος formed by habituation, without which the pupil cannot derive solid profit from λόγος, or an appeal to his σύνεσις (cf. συνεῖη § 7, b. 27).
- b. 31. ἐκ νέου . . . b. 32 νόμοις] Here Aristotle comes to the point. The really potent influence in moral training is that exerted by the rules, written and unwritten, and the institutions of the State as a whole. It is these, then, that we must reform, if we wish to improve the morality of the people.
- 1180 a. 1. § 9. οὐχ ἱκανόν . . . a. 4 βίον] 'In a spirit the very opposite of this remark,' says Grant, 'Pericles is reported (Thucyd. ii. 37) to have boasted of the freedom enjoyed by the Athenians from all vexatious interference with the daily conduct of individuals . . . On the one hand Thucydides praised the free system of Athens; on the other hand Aristotle praised the organised and educational system of Sparta; see below § 13, and cf. *Eth.* i. 13. 3. and note. He was probably led into this political mistake, partly by the state of society in Athens itself, partly by the influence of Plato, from whom he imbibed one of the essential ideas of communism,—namely, that the State should arrange as much as possible, instead of as little as possible.'
- a. 3. αὐτά] ἄττα is an obvious correction (see Susemihl's *E. E.* Append., p. 176) if correction is needed. The αὐτά of the MSS. is explained by most editors, as by Coraes—τὰ ὑπὸ τῆς ὀρθῆς γραφῆς

καὶ ἐπιμελείας προδεδιδασμένα: but the words καὶ ἐθίζεσθαι, and καὶ περὶ 1180 a. 3. ταῦτα, may be thought to refer us to new habits which have to be acquired by adults, as distinguished from those which have been acquired in youth. I think that αὐτά is so obviously the right word after ἐπιτηδεύειν, that we must not make too much of the difficulty of connecting it with καὶ ἐθίζεσθαι, or of explaining καὶ περὶ ταῦτα. I feel that to write ἄττα (which occurred to me independently) after ἐπιτηδεύειν is to credit Aristotle with a rather weak remark. The words § 11 εἴθ' οὕτως ἐν ἐπιτηδεύμασι ἐπικείσιν ζῆν also seem to me to be in favour of αὐτά. The Paraph. has—ἀλλ' ἐπειδὴ καὶ ἀνδρωθέντας ἐπιτηδεύειν δεῖ τὰ καλὰ καὶ πρὸς ἀρετὴν ἑαυτοῦς ἐθίζειν.

§ 10. αἱ μάλιστα ἐναντιοῦνται ταῖς ἀγαπωμέναις ἡδοναῖς] *Cf.* a. 13. Bentham, *Principles of the Penal Code*: Part 3 (of punishments), ch. 6 (the choice of punishments). 'Search out . . . the motives of offences, and generally you will recognise the dominant passion of the offender, and you may punish him, according to the proverbial saying, with the instrument of his sin. Offences of cupidity will be best punished by pecuniary fines, when the wealth of the offender admits it; offences of insolence, by humiliation; offences of idleness, by compulsory labour, or forced rest.'

§ 11. ταῦτα δὲ γίνοιτ' ἄν] The apodosis begins here; on the a. 17. construction, see note on i. 1. 4, a. 14.

§ 12. ἡ μὲν οὖν πατρικὴ πρόσταξις οὐκ ἔχει τὸ ἰσχυρόν] 'Romanus a. 18. antiqui temporis aliter judicasset' (Ramsauer).

λόγος ὢν ἀπὸ τινος φρονήσεως καὶ νοῦ] *Cf.* *Pol.* iii. 11. 1287 a. 28 a. 21. ὁ μὲν οὖν τὸν νόμον κελεύων ἀρχεῖν δοκεῖ κελεύειν ἀρχεῖν τὸν θεὸν καὶ τὸν νοῦν μόνους, ὁ δ' ἄνθρωπον κελεύων πρυστίθησι καὶ θηρίον· ἢ τε γὰρ ἐπιθυμία τοιοῦτον, καὶ ὁ θυμὸς ἀρχοντας καὶ τοὺς ἀρίστους ἄνδρας διαφθείρει. διόπερ ἄνευ ὀρέξεως νοῦς ὁ νόμος ἐστίν.

§ 13. ἐν μόνη δὲ τῇ Λακεδαιμονίων πόλει κ.τ.λ.] *Cf.* *Pol.* θ. 1. a. 24. 1337 a. 31 ἐπαινίσει δ' ἄν τις κατὰ τοῦτο Λακεδαιμονίους· καὶ γὰρ πλείστην ποιοῦνται σπουδὴν περὶ τοὺς παῖδας καὶ κοινῇ ταύτην, and Jowett's note (vol. ii. p. 293)—'Aristotle appears to praise the Lacedaemonians, not for the quality of their education, . . . but for the circumstance that it was established by law. According to Isocrates Panath. 276 d, the Spartans fell so far below the general

1180 a. 24. standard of education in Hellas, that they did not even know their letters, . . . and according to Plato, or rather according to the author of the Platonic *Hippias Major* (285 C), “not many of them could count.”’

a. 25. <ἢ> μετ’ ὀλίγων] The ἢ, inserted by Bywater, is of course logically necessary; at the same time, μόνη μετ’ ὀλίγων does not seem an ungreeks way of saying ‘almost the only.’ The Cretan system is mentioned along with the Spartan in *E. N.* i. 13. 3, where see note.

a. 28. κυκλωπικῶς] *Od.* ix. 114:

θεμιστεύει δὲ ἕκαστος
παιδῶν ἢ δ’ ἀλόχων, οὐδ’ ἀλλήλων ἀλέγουσιν.

a. 29. § 14. κράτιστον μὲν οὖν τὸ γίνεσθαι κοινὴν ἐπιμέλειαν καὶ ὀρθήν] because, as we have seen, only the State can enforce obedience, and because—this has not been actually mentioned, but is implied in the words κοινῇ, νομοθέτης, νόμος—the education of each individual is part of a single system; the individual does not belong to himself, so that his education may be conducted with reference only to himself. He is a member of the body politic; and it is for πολιτική, as ἀρχιτεκτονική ἐπιστήμη, to see that he is educated for his function in the organism to which he belongs: see *Pol.* Θ. i. 1337 a. 21 ἐπεὶ δ’ ἐν τῷ τέλει τῇ πόλει πάση, φανερόν ὅτι καὶ τὴν παιδείαν μίαν καὶ τὴν αὐτὴν ἀναγκαῖον εἶναι πάντων καὶ ταύτης τὴν ἐπιμέλειαν εἶναι κοινὴν καὶ μὴ κατ’ ἰδίαν, ὃν τρόπον ἕκαστος νῦν ἐπιμελεῖται τῶν αὐτοῦ τέκνων ἰδίᾳ τε καὶ μάθησιν ἰδίαν, ἣν ἂν δόξῃ, διδάσκων. δεῖ γὰρ τῶν κοινῶν κοινῶν ποιῆσθαι καὶ τὴν ἀσκησιν. ὅμα δὲ οὐδὲ χρὴ νομίζειν αὐτὸν αὐτοῦ τινὰ εἶναι τῶν πολιτῶν, ἀλλὰ πάντας τῆς πόλεως, μόριον γὰρ ἕκαστος τῆς πόλεως ἢ δ’ ἐπιμέλεια πέφυκεν ἑκάστου μόριου βλέπειν πρὸς τὴν τοῦ ὅλου ἐπιμέλειαν.

a. 30. καὶ δρᾶν αὐτὸ δύνασθαι] Grant translates—‘and that it should have power to effect the object in question’: Stahr translates—‘und dass diese die Kraft habe, sich Geltung zu verschaffen.’ The words are added, like a quoted phrase, with little regard for grammatical connexion. Bywater brackets them here a. 30, suggesting that they should follow συμβάλλεσθαι a. 32. This suggestion has the merit of bringing the words καὶ δρᾶν αὐτὸ δύνασθαι close to μᾶλλον δ’ ἂν τοῦτο δύνασθαι δόξειεν.

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1180 b. 10. is probably the right reading. Where *περι-* and *παρα-* are concerned, we need have little hesitation in neglecting MS. authority, and giving full weight to internal reasons (see note on vii. 3. 14, b. 9). Here *παρατίθησιν* gives the exact meaning required—'the doctor does not prescribe the same treatment to all fever patients; and the boxing-master does not put before all pupils, for their imitation, the same style of defence and attack.'

b. 17. § 18. καὶ ἀνεπιστήμονα δὲ] τὸν μὴ τὸ καθόλου εἰδόντα (Paragraph.).

b. 18. δι' ἐμπειρίαν] The editors quote *Met. A. i. 981 a. 12*—*πρὸς μὲν οὖν τὸ πράττειν ἐμπειρία τέχνης οὐδὲν δοκεῖ διαφέρειν, ἀλλὰ καὶ μᾶλλον ἐπιτυχάνοντας ὁρῶμεν τοὺς ἐμπείρους τῶν ἄνευ τῆς ἐμπειρίας λόγον ἔχοντας. αἴτιον δ' ὅτι ἡ μὲν ἐμπειρία τῶν καθ' ἕκαστόν ἐστι γνῶσις, ἡ δὲ τέχνη τῶν καθόλου, αἱ δὲ πράξεις καὶ αἱ γενέσεις πᾶσαι περὶ τὸ καθ' ἕκαστόν εἰσιν οὐ γὰρ ἄνθρωπον ὑγιάζει ὁ ἰατρεῦσθαι, πλὴν ἀλλ' ἡ κατὰ συμβεβηκός, ἀλλὰ Καλλίαν ἢ Σωκράτη ἢ τῶν ἄλλων τινα τῶν οὕτω λεγομένων, ᾧ συμβέβηκεν ἄνθρωπος εἶναι. εἰάν οὖν ἄνευ τῆς ἐμπειρίας ἔχη τις τὸν λόγον, καὶ τὸ μὲν καθόλου γνωρίζῃ, τὸ δ' ἐν τούτῳ καθ' ἕκαστον ἀγνοῇ, πολλάκις διαμαρτίζεται τῆς θεραπείας· θεραπευτὸν γὰρ τὸ καθ' ἕκαστον. ἀλλ' ὁμοίως τὸ γ' εἶδέναι καὶ τὸ ἐπαίειν τῇ τέχνῃ τῆς ἐμπειρίας ὑπάρχειν οἴομεθα μᾶλλον, καὶ σοφωτέρους τοὺς τεχνίτας τῶν ἐμπείρων ὑπολαμβάνομεν, ὥς κατὰ τὸ εἶδέναι μᾶλλον ἀκολουθοῦσαν τὴν σοφίαν πᾶσιν· τοῦτο δέ, ὅτι οἱ μὲν τῆς αἰτίας ἴσασιν, οἱ δ' οὐ. οἱ μὲν γὰρ ἐμπειροὶ τὸ ὅτι μὲν ἴσασιν, διότι δ' οὐκ ἴσασιν οἱ δὲ τὸ διότι καὶ τὴν αἰτίαν γνωρίζουσιν.*

b. 28. § 17. τάχα δὲ καί] τάχα δ' ἂν καί is the reading of Γ, L^b, Ald., Ob, CCC, Cambr., NC: τάχα δὲ καί, of K^b, M^b, accepted by Bekker and Bywater. I incline to τάχα δὲ καί read by Susemihl after Ramsauer.

b. 30. § 18. παρὰ τῶν πολιτικῶν; μόριον γὰρ ἐδόκει τῆς πολιτικῆς εἶναι] See vi. 8. 2 τῆς δὲ περὶ πόλιν ἡ μὲν ὡς ἀρχιτεκτονικὴ φρόνησις νομοθετικὴ.

b. 31. ἡ οὐχ ὁμοιον κ.τ.λ.] The editors note that Aristotle is indebted here (§§ 18, 19) to Plato, *Meno* 91 A-100 C, where it is shown that if the sophists cannot teach ἀρετή, neither can statesmen themselves, otherwise they would try to teach their own sons. Cf. also *Protag.* 319 D, E, 320 A, B. Aristotle's view, we know, is that a father may, as νομοθετικός, teach his son ἀρετή: it is assumed that, if νομοθετικός, he will be able to do so; but the question formally proposed at the beginning of § 18 πόθεν ἢ πῶς νομοθετικῶς γένοιτ' ἂν

τις; is not distinctly answered here. Indeed, Aristotle seems to 1180 b. 31. forget, in the heat of his attack on the sophists, that this question is before him. The only approach to an answer is (§ 21) that, to people with political experience, the study of codes and constitutions may be profitable.

οἷον ἰατροὶ γραφεῖς] So Susemihl and Bywater following M^b, Γ b. 34. (so also NC and B². Bekker reads οἷον ἰατροὶ καὶ γραφεῖς, because K^b and L^b (also CCC and Cambr.) give ἰατρικοὶ γραφεῖς.

δυνάμει τινὲ . . . καὶ ἐμπειρία μᾶλλον ἢ διανοία] Plato says 1181 a. 2. *Μενο* 99 B, C—εἰ μὴ ἐπιστήμη, εὐδοξία δὴ τὸ λοιπὸν γίγνεται, ἢ οἱ πολιτικοὶ ἄνδρες χρώμενοι τὰς πόλεις ὀρθοῦσιν οὐδὲν διαφερόντως ἔχοντες πρὸς τὸ φρονεῖν ἢ οἱ χρησμοφοὶ τε καὶ οἱ θεομάντις.

καίτοι κάλλιον ἦν ἴσως ἢ λόγους δικανικούς τε καὶ δημηγορικούς] a. 4. The Paraph. seems to have caught the force of κάλλιον here—μείζον γὰρ ἂν ἦν αὐτοῖς εἰς φιλοτιμίαν τοιοῦτους συντιθέναι λόγους ἢ δικανικούς τε καὶ δημηγορικούς. Ambition would urge them to produce such treatises rather than speeches in the law courts and assembly; if they do not produce them, it is because they cannot: just as they do not teach their sons, because they cannot.

§ 19. οὐ μὴν μικρὸν γε ἔοικεν ἢ ἐμπειρία συμβάλλεσθαι] The art a. 9. of statesmanship cannot be formally taught; but this does not mean that it is incommunicable. It can be picked up informally, by those who live constantly in political surroundings: this shows how much 'experience' has to do with its acquirement. We may safely conclude that any one who wishes to become νομοθετικός must have 'experience' in addition to (προσδεῖν a. 12) 'theory.' Aristotle seems here practically to agree with Anytus, in the *Μενο* 92 E-93 A, who says that the young Athenian acquires the ἀρετή of an Athenian citizen by associating with the καλοὶ κἀγαθοὶ of Athens, his elders: see the Paraph.—φανερὸν τοίνυν, εἴπερ ἐδύναντο διδάσκειν τὰ πολιτικά, ὅτι καὶ ἐβουλήθησαν ἂν, καὶ ἐδίδασκον ἐπεὶ δὲ οὐ φαίνονται διδάσκοντες, φανερὸν ὅτι οὔτε ἐδύναντο διδάσκειν, οὔτε αὐτοὶ λόγῳ τινὲ τὰ πολιτικά ποιῶσιν ἢ ἐπιστήμη ἀλλὰ ἐμπειρία: καὶ γὰρ οὐ μικρὸν ἢ ἐμπειρία πρὸς τὸ πράττειν συμβάλλεται: γίνονται γὰρ διὰ τῆς πολιτικῆς συνηθείας μᾶλλον πολιτικοί. Διὰ τοῦτο τοῖς ἐφιεμένοις περὶ τῆς πολιτικῆς εἶδεναι, καὶ ἐμπειρίας τινὸς χρεια καὶ συνηθείας.

§ 20. ὅλως γάρ . . . a. 15 ἐτίθεισαν] See note i. 2, §§ 5-7, a. 27, on a. 14. the position of ῥητορικῆ.

1181 a. 16. νομοθετῆσαι συναγαγόντι τοὺς εὐδοκμοῦντας τῶν νόμων] Spengel (on *Rhet.* 1399 b. 9) thinks that Isocrates (περὶ ἀντιδόσεως, 82, 83) is alluded to here—ἐπειδὴ δ' ἐνταῦθα προεληλύθαμεν ὅστε καὶ τοὺς λόγους τοὺς εἰρημένους καὶ τοὺς νόμους τοὺς κειμένους ἀναριθμήτους εἶναι, καὶ τῶν μὲν νόμων ἐπαινεῖσθαι τοὺς ἀρχαιοτάτους, τῶν δὲ λόγων τοὺς καινοτάτους, οὐκέτι τῆς αὐτῆς διανοίας ἔργον ἐστίν, ἀλλὰ τοῖς μὲν τοὺς νόμους τιθέναι προαιρουμένοις προὔργου γέγοσε τὸ πλῆθος τῶν κειμένων, οὐδὲν γὰρ αὐτοὺς δεῖ ζητεῖν ἑτέρους, ἀλλὰ τοὺς παρὰ τοῖς ἄλλοις εὐδοκμοῦντας πειραθῆναι συναγαγεῖν, ὃ ῥαδίως ὅστις ἂν οὖν βουλευθεῖς ποιήσῃ, τοῖς δὲ περὶ τοὺς λόγους πραγματευομένοις διὰ τὸ προκατειληφθῆναι τὰ πλείιστα τούναντίον συμβέβηκε· λέγοντες μὲν γὰρ ταῦτα τοῖς πρότερον εἰρημένους ἀπαισχυστεῖν καὶ ληρεῖν δόξουσι, καινὰ δὲ ζητοῦντες ἐπιπόνως εὐρήσουσιν. Much that is interesting and suggestive with regard to the personal relations between Aristotle and Isocrates will be found in Teichmüller's *Literarische Fehden im vierten Jahrh. vor Ch.* Dritter Abschnitt: Fehde des Isocrates gegen Aristoteles und Plato. For a vigorous attack on the 'sophists,' however, see Isocrates κατὰ τῶν σοφιστῶν. Grant has a good note here—'Aristotle's account of the sophists' method of teaching politics is precisely analogous to his account of the way in which they taught dialectic. He here speaks of their taking a shallow view of politics and making it an inferior branch of rhetoric; and he adds that they adopted a superficial eclecticism, making collections of laws without touching upon the principles from which legislation must depend. They thus imparted mere results, which to those who are uninstructed in principles are wholly useless. In the same way (*Soph. Elench.* 34. 183 b. 38 sqq.) he says that they gave various specimens of argument to be learnt by heart, and that this was no more use than if a person who undertook to teach shoemaking were to provide his pupils with an assortment of shoes.' The method of the modern 'crammer' could not be better described than it is at the end of the *Soph. El.*

a. 17. ὥσπερ οὐδέ τὴν ἐκλογὴν οὖσαν] acc. abs.

a. 21. τοῖς δ' ἀπείροις ἀγαπητόν κ.τ.λ.] The ἄπειροι here, so far as they are capable of passing a correct judgment on the general result, may be compared with the 'amateurs' mentioned in *Pol.* iii. 11. 1282 a. 1 sqq. quoted (vol. i. p. 36) in note on πεπαιδευμένου i. 3. 4, b. 23. Or perhaps the Spartans of *Pol.* θ. 4. 1339 b. 2 may be thought a closer parallel—ὥσπερ οἱ Λάκωνες; ἐκεῖνοι γὰρ οὐ μαθήσαντες ἄλλοι δύνανται κρίνειν ὀρθῶς, ὡς φασί, τὰ χρηστὰ καὶ τὰ μὴ χρηστὰ τῶν μελῶν.

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1181 b. 11. political life cannot be trusted to arrive at sound practical decisions regarding the laws and institutions which it is best to select from the *compendia*, although perhaps their study of these *compendia* may sharpen their intelligence for political questions. The merely literary study of politics cannot give a man practical insight (τὸ κρίνειν καλῶς), although it may give him a power of superficial appreciation (εἰσυναυσία). I think that it is necessary thus to distinguish between τὸ μὲν κρίνειν καλῶς and εἰσυναυσίτεροι δέ here, although in vi. 10 εἰσυναυσία is simply the faculty τοῦ κρίνειν καλῶς.

b. 12. §§ 22, 23.] These sections, evidently added to connect the *Ethics* with the *Politics*, fall under the *prima facie* suspicion which attaches to all such connecting-passages in the Aristotelian writings.

As was pointed out in the *Introductory Note* to this chapter, the theory of life set forth in the *Ethics*, is set forth as one which can and must be realised in practice. The *Politics*, as describing in detail the way in which the theory of the *Ethics* may be realised, thus logically follows the *Ethics* in Aristotle's system. But we do not know what was the chronological order in which the two treatises were composed. The references in the *Politics* to the *Ethics*, as to a work already in existence, count for little or nothing: they are probably due to later editors. But the question of the order in which the two treatises were written—a question which perhaps cannot be settled—is not before us here. If the *Politics* were written after the *Ethics*, they were evidently not written as a mere continuation, starting from the λέγωμεν οὐν ἀρχάμενοι, with which the *Ethics* now end. The *Politics* begin (in much the same way as the *Ethics*) as an independent work. The first book of the *Politics* has nothing to do with the list of subjects given here in *E.N.* x. 9. 23. According to this list the *Politics* ought rather to begin with the second book (see Susemihl: *Aristoteles' Politik griech. u. deutsch*, vol. i. p. 72). If Aristotle having written, in whatever order, the *Ethics* and *Politics* as separate treatises, afterwards collected his works into a corpus, he might, of course, add a passage to connect the two treatises. It is indeed highly improbable that he ever collected and arranged his works; but if he did, would he have written a connecting-passage like this? With the *Republic*

in existence—not to mention the *Laus*¹—could he have said 1181 b. 12. παραλιπόντων οὖν τῶν προτέρων ἀνερέυνητον τὸ περὶ τῆς νομοθεσίας? Aristotle, I feel sure, could not have said this; whereas the exaggeration would be natural from the pen of an editor in later times anxious to present his Philosopher as the creator of a great self-contained system. A small point may be noticed in passing — it would not perhaps be worth noticing unless suspicion attached otherwise to the passage—the word ἀνερέυνητον is a ἀπαξ εἶρημ. in the Aristotelian writings². Another (perhaps smaller) point noticed by Ramsauer, is that the phrase ἡ περὶ τὰ ἀνθρώπεια (Byw., ἀνθρώπινα Bek. Sus.) φιλοσοφία does not occur in the *Ethics* or *Politics*.

The commentators point out that § 23 is a διαγραφή, or rough table of the contents of the *Politics* (omitting the contents of *Pol. i*), according to the traditional arrangement of Books. Thus

πρῶτον μὲν b. 15 = ii.
 εἶτα b. 17 = iii–vi.
 θεωρηθέντων b. 20 = vii, viii.

The epitome of the *Politics* in Stob. *Ecl.* 2. 6. 17—ascribed to Didymus, the instructor of the Emperor Augustus—seems to follow the traditional order of the Books, at any rate, it puts Books vii and viii at the end. For this epitome, see Mullach *Fragm. Phil.* vol. ii. 100, 101, and Newman's *Politics*, vol. ii. p. xvii.

The circumstance that a διαγραφή of the contents of the *Politics* is given here (*E. N.* x. 9. 23) is, I think, against the genuineness of

¹ Teichmüller (*Lit. Fehden*, pp. 187 sqq.) founds on the words b. 12 παραλιπόντων οὖν τῶν προτέρων ἀνερέυνητον τὸ περὶ τῆς νομοθεσίας, the conclusion that the *E. N.* were published before the *Laus*. He thinks that the *Rep.* is not περὶ νομοθεσίας. I cannot agree: and the words b. 14 καὶ ὅλως δὴ περὶ πολιτείας seem to me to ignore the *Rep.* instead, as Teichmüller argues (p. 188), of recognising it.

² Teichmüller (*Lit. Fehden*, p. 188 note) makes a very ingenious use of this circumstance in the interest of his theory referred to in the foot-note above—'Ramsauer sagt: "ἀνερέυνητον vocabulum apud Aristotelem me legere omnino non memini." Ich meine nun, dass Aristoteles, da er mit den *ol πρότεροι* grade den Plato meinte (i. e. the *Rep.*, as distinguished from the as yet unpublished *Laus*), absichtlich einen Platonischen etwas gesuchten und pretiösen Ausdruck wählte, um damit ironisch auf Plato's tiefe Forschung anzuspähen, dessen Gesetze erwartet wurden, aber noch immer nicht erschienen waren (Vergl. Platon. *Hippias*, p. 298 C). Bei Aristoteles kommt das Wort, wie auch Bonitzens Index zeigt, sonst nicht vor; dagegen ist es Heraclitisch und Platonisch.'

1181 b. 12. the passage. An editor, it seems to me, would be much more likely than Aristotle to give us a *διαγραφή* of this kind.

The last point to notice is b. 17 *ἐκ τῶν συνηγμένων πολιτειῶν*¹. Grant, following other commentators, understands these words to refer to the now lost collection, known in antiquity as *αἱ πολιτεῖαι*, and ascribed to Aristotle, containing, it would appear, descriptions of 158 Constitutions, Hellenic and non-Hellenic—see Berlin Aristotle, p. 1535 sq. for fragments. Rose (*de Arist. libr. ord. et auctor.* pp. 57, 58) brings forward, as it seems to me, conclusive reasons for refusing to ascribe this collection to Aristotle. If, then, the reference in *ἐκ τῶν συνηγμένων πολιτειῶν* is (as Grant and others suppose) to this collection, we have an additional ground for considering the passage before us to be non-Aristotelian. In the *Politics* Aristotle never refers to a collection of *πολιτεῖαι* as having been made by himself—in the *Politics*, if anywhere, he would be likely to do so, if such a collection had existed; and in the present chapter (*E. N.* x. 9) his tone towards *αἱ συναγωγαὶ τῶν πολιτειῶν* (1181 b. 7) is not that of a man who had himself laid a trap for the unwary by making a *συναγωγή*. On the other hand, if the *συνηγμέναι πολιτεῖαι* mentioned here (§ 23) are merely the *πολιτεῖαι* instanced and discussed in *Pol.* iii–vi, then it must be said that these *πολιτεῖαι* are not accurately described as ‘a collection of *πολιτεῖαι*’—*συνηγμέναι πολιτεῖαι*. The writer of this section seems somehow or other to have connected in his mind the *πολιτεῖαι* instanced in *Pol.* iii–vi with the collection known to him as ‘the *πολιτεῖαι* of Aristotle.’ He probably supposed that Aristotle used that collection as a book of reference when he wrote the *Politics*.

I agree, then, with Susemihl (see *Aristoteles' Politik griech. u. deutsch*, vol. i. p. 71 sqq. *Einleitung*) that §§ 22, 23 ought to be bracketed.

¹ This paragraph was written before the publication of the *Ἀθηναίων πολιτεία*, and is printed without alteration.

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Money, its function, i. 416-8, 459-71.

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ἐλευθεριότης, i. 322 sqq.

ἐπιείκεια, notes on Book v. ch. 10 (cf. ii. 86 sq.).

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Philosophers, modern, referred to—

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Schopenhauer, i. 265; ii. 241.

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