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## THE

## RHETORIC OF ARISTOTLE.



## THE

## RHETORIC OF ARISTOTLE

WITH A

## COMMENTARY

BY THE LATE
EDWARD MEREDITH COPE, M.A. FORMERLY SENIOR PELLOW AND TUTOR OF TEINITY COLLEGE;

REVISED AND EDITED FOR THE SYNDICS OF THE UNIVERSITY PRESS

BY
JOHN EDWIN SANDYS, M.A.
FELLOW AND TUTOR OF ST JOHN'S COLLEGE, AND PUBLIC ORATOR IN THE UNIVERSITY OF CAKBRIDGE.

VOLUME I.

## Cambriuge:

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## CONTENTS OF VOLUME 1.

PAGES
Editor's Preface ..... vii-xi
Edward Meredith Cope,
A biographical notice by the Rev. H. A. F. Munro ..... xiii-xx
Text and Commentary, Book I. ..... 1-291
Appendix (A) ON A 11 § 17.
 ..... 292-296
APPENDIX (B) ON A $12 \$ 22$, фOowídat.
On an irregular formation of the Greek passive verb ..... 297-300
Appendix (C) on A is § 23. On al ai... ..... 301-303

## EDITOR'S PREFACE.

It is just ten years since the lamented Author of this Commentary gave to the world of scholars an Introduction to Aristotle's Rhetoric, containing, amongst other valuable matter, a general outline of the contents of the treatise and paraphrases of the more difficult portions. In the preface to that book, which is an almost indispensable companion to the present edition and renders any special prolegomena to these volumes unnecessary, the Author describes the Introduction as preparatory to the detailed explanation of the work itself in an edition of the Greek text which had been long in preparation and was to appear as soon as it could be got ready. This promise is now at last fulfilled, under circumstances however in which the pathetic interest naturally attending the publication of any posthumous work like the present, is in this particular instance, if I may judge of the feelings of others by my own, intensified into a sense of more than usually deep regret that the labours of a large portion of an eminent scholar's life-time must now see the light without the advantage of his own editorial care.

Mr Cope died in the year 1873, but during the last four years of his life his work on the Rhetoric, though it had nearly approached completion, unhappily but unavoidably remained untouched. He was actively engaged upon it during the two years that succeeded the publication of the Introduction in 1867 ;-a year that was also marked by the appearance of a long-expected edition of the Rhetoric by Spengel, which, AR. I.
by the critical acumen and maturity of judgment generally displayed in its pages, and in particular by its wealth of illustration from the remains of Greek Oratory and the technical treatises of the later Greek rhetoricians, proved the most important aid to the study of the subject that had been published since the time of Victorius. With Spengel's earlier contributions to the criticism of his author, as also with those of Brandis and Bonitz and Vahlen and other eminent Aristotelian scholars on the continent, Mr Cope was of course familiar, as the pages of these volumes abundantly testify; but while preparing his own Commentary, he appears during the last two years of his active work to have only occarionally consulted and quoted Spengel's edition, refraining purposely from incurring any such indebtedness as would prevent his own edition remaining a perfectly independent work.

In June, 1874, the year after Mr Cope's death, his brothers took into consideration the desirability of publishing his Commentary; and, acting under the advice of two distinguished members of his own College, Mr Munro and Mr Jebb, did me the honour to invite me to undertake its completion and revision. The manuscript, so far as it was finished, consisted of nearly seven hundred closely written pages requiring a certain amount of general revision before they could be sent to press; and, owing to other engagements, I found it impracticable to arrange for the printing of the work to commence till June, 1875. During the progress of the work through the press in the last two years, my duties as reviser have proved more laborious than I had anticipated; as even apart from the necessity of reading several times over at various stages of progress not far from a thousand pages of printed matter, I have found it requisite to consult the reader's convenience by rearranging many of the paragraphs, by recasting many of the more complicated sentences, and by endeavouring to prevent the sense from being obscured by the partiality for parenthesis, which, in this case, happens to be characteristic of the commentator and his author alike. In a work of this compass, accidental repetitions of nearly identical notes in various parts of the Commentary are almost unavoidable, and though I have succeeded in detecting and
striking out some of these repetitions, others still remain unremoved.

It will probably occur to some of those who use this book that, in the way of retrenchment of matter and condensation of style, something might without disadvantage have been done by the original writer; but such correction, I may remark, was the very thing from which he consciously shrank; and as a mere reviser I felt that I had no right to assume the responsibility of abridging, still less of rejecting, what the writer himself clearly intended to leave standing. In the case of verbal alterations, however, which I was morally certain would not have been disapproved by the original writer, I have used such slight discretion as appeared to fall within my province; this kind of revision cannot of course generally appear on the surface, but wherever it is practicable any additional matter for which I am alone responsible is indicated by the use of square brackets with or (as the work proceeded) without my initial. Such insertions are generally very brief, and often take the form of simple reference to important works that have appeared since the Commentary was prepared; as it seemed only due to the readers of this edition and to the writers of the works in question, that I should endeavour to bring it up to date by referring as occasion served to books such as Dr Thompson's edition of the Gorgias of Plato (1871); Grote's Aristotle (1872); Volkmann, die Rhetorik der Griechen und Römer, ed. 2, 1874; Blass, die Attische Beredsamkeit, 1868, '74; and Professor Jebb's Attic Orators, 1876. In testing the references to other parts of Aristotle, I have made frequent use of the great Index Aristotelicus of Bonitz, which appeared in 1870, and was therefore not available when Mr Cope's notes were written;-a fact that only increases one's admiration at the wide and minute acquaintance with all the Aristotelian writings which he had acquired by his own independent reading.

In any trifling additions of my own, I have seldom gone beyond the briefest annotations, but in the case of the third book, which was left in a less finished state, and on which I had happened to have lectured on several occasions during the last ten years, I felt myself somewhat less restricted; and indeed, as Mr Cope's manuscript unfortunately comes to an
abrupt conclusion in the course of Chapter xvir of that book, I was compelled, for the convenience of those who use this edition and in accordance with the wishes of Mr Cope's representatives and the Syndics of the University Press, to endeavour to supply the deficiency in the three concluding Chapters by writing the notes that occupy the last twenty pages of the Commentary.

In so doing, I have tried to follow the general plan of Mr Cope's own work, and in particular have paid attention to such slight indications of his intended treatment of that portion as I could glean from the memoranda in the margin of his own copy of Bekker's Oxford text of 1837. This volume and an interleaved copy of earlier date, and of somewhat less valué for this purpose, were kindly placed at my disposal by the authorities of Trinity College, and, as they contain part of the first rough material for the Commentary, they have proved of some use in verifying doubtful references and also in ascertaining Mr Cope's intentions with regard to the text on points of detail such as punctuation and various readings. But, holding as he did that an editor's main duty was explanation in its widest sense and accordingly devoting himself mainly to questions of exegesis, th elucidation of subject matter, to illustration of verbal expression, and to matters of grammatical and lexicographical interest, he was content on the whole to accept the text as he found it in the earlier editions with which he was familiar. Under these circumstances, in the absence of any intention on his part to make an independent recension of the text, I have thought it best to adopt as the text of the present Commentary the last reprint (1873) of Bekker's third edition (octavo, 1859); and instead of impairing the integrity of that text by altering it here and there to suit what I gathered to be Mr Cope's intentions, I have briefly indicated the instances in which the evidence of his translation or notes, or again the memoranda in his own copy of the Rhetoric already mentioned, pointed clearly to some other reading as the one which he deliberately preferred to that of Bekker's third edition, or in which he was at any rate content to acquiesce. In the margin, beside the references to Book, Chapter and Section at the top of each page, is marked the beginning of each page of Bekker's last
octavo edition, and also of that published in quarto in 1831: the former will, it is trusted, malee this work easy to refer to side by side with the plain text in ordinary use; the latter, though it involves a cumbersome method of notation, is worth recording, as it is the mode of reference adopted in the Index Aristotelicus, in Spengel's edition, and often elsewhere.

In an Appendix to the third volume, I have added Mr Shilleto's Adversaria on the Rhetoric, which I have transcribed almost exclusively from one of his two copies of the book, lately acquired (with a selection of his other books) by the Syndicate of the University Library. I have also constructed what I hope may be found to be a fairly comprehensive Greek index to the text and notes; and to this I have subjoined a supplementary index to the notes and subject matter, including amongst other miscellaneous items, almost all the passages in the rhetorical writings of Cicero and Quintilian referred to in the Commentary; the passages of Homer and other authors quoted in the text, and the illustrations from Shakespeare in the notes, and also (under the head of 'lexicographical notes') a series of references to Mr Cope's incidental contributions to Greek lexicography. In the transcription of both these indexes for the press, I have had much assistance from my brother, James Stuart Sandys, one of the undergraduates of St John's College.

I cannot close these few prefatory explanations of what I have attempted to do in discharging however imperfectly the editorial duty with which it has been my privilege to be entrusted, without recording the fact that Mr Cope (as I am assured by his surviving brother) fully intended, had he lived to see his work through the press, to dedicate it to one of his most intimate friends, Mr Munro. The latter, however, has kindly supplied a short biographical notice by which I am glad to feel that he will be as inseparably associated with the crowning work of his friend's career as if it had appeared inscribed by that friend himself with the honoured name of the Editor of Lucretius.

> J. E. S.

## CORRIGENDA.

(In the motes.)
VoL. I.
p. 40, line 14, for ' this deety', this special excellence', and on p. 49, last line, read 'the' for 'this' in all three cases.
p. 56, line 10, read trando日wна.
p. 76, line 29, read veveanutiow.
p. 93, line 1 , for 'in' read ' is.'
p. 105, line 28, read drulvoca.
p. 153, line 30, read dxcyapxlas.
p. 161, line 23, read 'fortitude.'
p. 173, line 31, for ' be ' read ' the.'
p. 190, below text, read $\rho \phi \theta{ }^{\prime} \mu \mathrm{ma}$.
p. 239, line 32, insert (3) before dià $\lambda 6$ б $\mathbf{w v .}$

Vol. II.
p. 56, note 1, 1. 3, read 'Gorg. 522 D.'

VoL. III.
p. 12, line 21, read 'II 4. 9.'
p. 30, line I, for 'by ' read ' at.'
p. 62, line 19, read ' writings.

## EDWARD MEREDITH COPE.

Many of Cope's friends having expressed an opinion that it would be well if a short memoir of him were prefixed to this posthumous work, and his sole surviving brother having written to me that he and his nieces would rather leave it in my hands than in those of anybody else, I could not hesitate to undertake the task.

Edward Meredith Cope was born in Birmingham on the 28th of July 1818. He was for some time at the Grammar School of Ludlow under Mr Hinde, and then for about five years at Shrewsbury, where he remained until October 1837, when he commenced residence at Trinity College Cambridge.

During the first years of his Shrewsbury life Dr Butler, late Bishop of Lichfield, was Headmaster; for the last year and quarter Dr Kennedy. Cope throughout his school career was always first or among the first of boys of his own age and standing. For to a great natural aptitude for study and scholarship he joined a strong will and a determination to use his best efforts to excel in whatever was given him to do. Not that he was a bookworm by any means : for he enjoyed extremely the society of his friends and loved innocent recreation in almost any form. Thus though he was not made, and never sought, to distinguish himself in any of them, he thoroughly enjoyed nearly all the usual games and amusements of the place. This taste he retained for years after he took his degree at the University, and Mr Essington, Vicar of Shenstone, and many other friends will bear me witness that he was a consistent votary of Hockey up to the time when the Great Western Railway extinguished this pleasant game first at Eton and then at Cambridge.

The last year and quarter of his residence at Shrewsbury was of vital importance for Cope's future career. Greek was the main and favourite study of his life; and in the summer of 1836 Greek scholarship at Shrewsbury was, if not in comparison with other schools of the day, yet absolutely at a very low ebb. Boys were left in great measure to their own natural lights. Now the light of nature seems capable in favourable circumstances of doing a good
deal for Latin; but in the case of Greek it fosters often the conceit of knowledge, but rarely indeed can impart the knowledge itself.

When Dr Kennedy came to Shrewsbury in the autumn of 1836 , he proved himself equal to the task that was before him. Knowledge and method, united with kindness and enthusiasm, effected at once a marvellous change; and all who were able and willing to learn felt in a few months that they had gotten such an insight into the language and such a hold of its true principles and idiom, as to render further progress both easy and agreeable. I would appeal to those who were high in the school at the time when the change in question took place, and ask them whether I have at all overstated the facts of the case; I would refer to Henry Thring and John Bather who came next to Cope in the Classical Tripos; to Francis Morse and others of the same year with myself, and to many others.

But none was more conscious of what he owed to Dr Kennedy, or was more ready to acknowledge it, than Cope himself. The judicious training and the well-directed reading of that year and quarter had an incalculable effect on his future career as a scholar; and, when he went to Cambridge in the October of 1837, he was prepared, as few are, to profit by the advantages the place afforded for classical study. There during his undergraduate days he led a blameless, industrious, and, I believe from what I observed myself and what he often told me, a thoroughly contented and happy life, enjoying the esteem and friendship of many of his worthiest contemporaries, some of them his old schoolfellows, others new acquaintances both in Trinity and in other Colleges, whose names are too numerous to mention. All the while his studies were pursued with a constant and uniform diligence; for none knew better than he to make a good and judicious disposition of his time. He became Scholar of his College as soon as the statutes permitted him to be a candidate, and, after taking his degree in the Mathematical Tripos of January 1841, he gained, as was generally expected, the first place in the Classical. For a year or two after this success he read with a few private pupils, though this employment was never very greatly to his taste. He was elected Fellow of Trinity in 1842: this Fellowship he retained till the day of his death. During the summer of 1843 he resided for some months in Jersey with a few pupils; and in the autumn of that year he made a short tour in Normandy, where he first imbibed, or first tried to satisfy, that intense love for Continental travel which exercised so marked an influence on his future tastes and development.

The moment he had been created Master of Arts at the beginning of July 1844, he threw off for a time the trammels of

Academical life and on the 4th of that month started for a continuous tour of more than fourteer months, never setting foot again in England before the 11 th of September 1845. At the commencement of this tour he had for companions two friends, both of them now dead, James Hemery, Dean of Jersey, and Richard Pike Mate, Fellow of Trinity. He always dearly loved and would sacrifice much for the companionship of intimate friends in his travels. But for the greater part of the time he was moving about by himself. In these fourteen months he traversed Switzerland almost from end to end, being a good and indefatigable walker; saw Italy thoroughly, with its thousand objects of interest, as far South as Naples; made a short excursion to Greece in November 1844, seeing Athens well and visiting a part of the Peloponnese and landing in Malta and in Sicily on his return to Italy. I have before me now a full and precise Journal which he kept of the occurrences of every day during this 14 months' peregrination. The whole would make a goodsized printed volume. Here we find minutely recorded where he slept on each succeeding night; what he ate and drank; how many miles he walked each day and the number of hours spent in valking them. He was passionately fond of mountain scenery, and of mediaeval and Italian architecture and art. In this Journal all the varying phases of Swiss scenery are described; the buildings, the pictures and other works of art of every Italian town, great or small.

Cope possessed in a high degree the happy faculty, which does not by any means always accompany general power of mind, of readily picking up a foreign language by. ear and conversation; and in the course of this journey he made himself an excellent Italian scholar, acquiring such a mastery over the idiom, as is seldom possessed by Englishmen who have not resided many years in the country. On this and his many subsequent tours he attained to no less facility in colloquial French. German seemed to give him more trouble, although by continued exertion he gained a sufficient acquaintance with it too. He never appeared to me to care very much for Italian literature, with however the very important exception of Dante; nor did the great French classics seem to have any very absorbing interest for him. German he made large use of for purposes of study and critical research, while at the same time Goethe and the other classics of the language were enjoyed for their own sakes.

This first comprehensive tour imbued him with a passion for foreign travel, which he indulged without stint until permanent illhealth brought it to a close. External circumstances compelled him however to confine and modify it in future years. While he was
on his travels in 1845, he was offered and accepted an AssistantTutorship at Trinity, the duties of which formed the main occupation of his subsequent life. These duties compelled him to be in residence for most of the year between October and June, and left only the summer months for travel, a time not the most suitable for some of the countries which he would have most liked to see. Palestine for instance and Egypt he never set his foot in; Greece he saw only for a few weeks in 1844; nor did he ever get again to Rome or Naples after his first visit. Between. June and October however he continued to be a most indefatigable traveller, confining himself almost entirely to a few favoured lands, first and foremost his first loves, Switzerland and North Italy, next France, then Belgium, Germany, Austria, and the Tirol I should calculate that, in the twenty-four years between 1844 and 1868 when he was compelled to give up travelling, he must have spent at least six years in the countries just enumerated. With the exception of 1848, an ominous time for continental travel, during the summer of which he visited the North of England and Scotland; of 1865 when he was again in Scotland, and of one other summer when he travelled in Ireland, he was on the Continent every one of these years.

Thus in 1846 he was abroad from June the 12 th to October the 5th, traversing assiduously the South West and South East of France, the Pyrenees from end to end, the Tirol and South Germany, and finally crossing through France to Paris. In 1847 he was on the Continent from June the 25 th to October the 6th, passing by the Rhine and Switzerland into North Italy and to Florence, in which place he found me to my delight and profit, and accompanied me home by Bologna, Milan, Como, Switzerland, the Rhine and Belgium. I have now in my hands twenty manuscript volumes of various sizes, filled with the most minute writing, in which he describes at length the proceedings of every day and almost every hour during all these years' travel, with the exception of the six years from 1854 to 1859 . That he was abroad all or most of these years I know, and that he kept equally minute journals of them I have no doubt; but whether they are lost or where they now are, I cannot ascertain. In 1855 I well remember I was with him for some time in Germany and France and in Paris, seeing the great Exhibition of that year. The moment he quits the Continent, his Journals come to an end. So far as I know or can learn, he never kept any diary of his life at home. Had he done so on any thing like the scale which he has adopted in his Journals of travel, he would have accounted for almost every hour of his life.

His social disposition greatly enjoyed the companionship of intimate friends in these travels; and this he was sometimes able to have during his earlier journeyings. In the first of them he had for a time the society of the friends who have been already spoken of. In 1847 I can remember how thoroughly happy he was in Florence together with W. G. Clark and myself. He writes in his Journal of September the roth, the evening before he left that city: 'Altogether I dont think I ever enjoyed a visit to any foreign town more than this last three weeks at Florence. First I had very pleasant society of intimate friends which has rarely been my lot before-men that take an interest in the same things that please me; the weather has been delightful,' and so on. Again in 185 r he had a long tour, from July 2 to October 16, in Switzerland and North Italy with two intimate friends and brother Fellows, H. R. Luard, now Registrary of the University, and C. B. Scott, the present Headmaster of Westminster. I joined them for a time in Venice and found him thoroughly happy.

But as time went on and he continued year after year to pursue his travels with unabated energy, it was not so easy for him to get his old friends for companions. They did not care to walk for twenty or thirty miles over an Alpine pass under pouring rain, or to defy the summer heats of the Pyrenees, or of the sweltering cities and dust-tormented plains of North Italy. For he hated to pass a single day in inaction, looking upon this as a dereliction of duty and an ignoble concession to laziness. His Journals, as years go on, become more and more instructive, as his taste grew more refined and his discrimination keener; and the ordinary guidebooks of the countries he so often visited might gain greatly by a judicious study of these volumes. At the same time I feel convinced that these later journeys overtaxed his strength and energies, created in him an unnatural excitement and irritation, and fostered the seeds of that malady by which he was subsequently struck down.

In October 1845 Cope commenced the work of what might be called his future profession as Lecturer at Trinity, and continued to perform the duties attached to this office, with energy and success and without the intermission of a single term, for twenty-four years, until the failure of his health put a final stop to all intellectual effort in the summer of $\mathbf{8 6 6 9}$.

For some years his favourite subjects of lecture were the Greek Tragedians, the two elder of whom he very decidedly preferred to Euripides. In fact until the very end of his career one or other of their plays was almost invariably the subject of his lecture for the Michaelmas term. And thus by constant repetition and careful pre-
paration he gained a thorough insight into the texts themselves and a very extensive acquaintance with the voluminous literature connected with the Greek drama. But often one or other of the two great historians, Herodotus or Thucydides, or else Demosthenes or another of the orators supplied the text on which he discoursed.

If the best scholars in any of the twenty-four generations of Freshmen who listened to his teaching were consulted, I believe they would one and all avow that their knowledge of the language and of its literature was very greatly furthered by his learned and elaborate lectures.

He gradually established his reputation in the College and the University as one of the very best and soundest Greek scholars of his time : I could cite, if it were necessary, many distinguished names to bear me out in this assertion. In his efforts to be thorough, he would collect a great mass of materials, which he did not always take sufficient pains to mould into shape and symmetry. Indeed he often avowed to me that, when he had once put on paper his thoughts and collections on any question-and this he was in the habit of doing with very great rapidity-, he found it quite impossible to rearrange and rewrite what he had prepared. Hence no doubt there was often a great diffuseness and some want of clearness in his work,-defects with which I have most frequently heard him charged by his auditors. He was by nature too very mistrustful of his own powers, and consequently a great stickler for authority. He seemed to think there was something sacred in the printed text, as it presented itself to him, and was sometimes determined to explain the inexplicable and see a meaning in that which had none. But with all this he was an admirable Greek scholar and a most valuable and highly valued lecturer.

Sometimes, though rarely, he lectured on a Latin writer ; but for Latin literature, especially poetry, he did not greatly care; though he quite felt and freely admitted the surpassing merits of style in the great prose authors. After a time however he almost entirely dropped the Classical Latin writers, except for purposes not connected with the study of the language, and took up a position of benevolent neutrality with regard to the whole literature. He treated the Latin in much the same way as he treated their compeers, the great French Classics.

When he had been Assistant Tutor about ten years, he undertook the College lecture on Plato, and afterwards on Aristotle as well; and these two philosophers he resolved to make the main object of his study henceforth. For a long time his great natural diffidence seemed to give him a disinclination to commit anything to the press. One of his earliest essays in print were his criticisms, in the Journal
of Classical and Sacred Philology, of Grote's famous dissertation on the Sophists. There is a good deal to be learnt from what he has written; but, if I am not mistaken, he has hardly caught Grote's point of view, which in this country at all events has I believe now gained very general acceptance among the best judges. In 1864 he published a translation of Plato's Gorgias. His translation is strikingly literal and very excellent in its kind; but this kind is peculiar. Mr Henry Jackson in his introductory remarks to Cope's translation of the Phaedo, a posthumous work which Mr Jackson has edited with great skill and diligence, has given a short and trenchant exposition of the principle which Cope has followed out in both these translations. A more elaborate effort is the Introduction to Aristotle's Rhetoric, published in 1867 and designed to serve as a preliminary study to the present edition of that work. We find in this dissertation a very full exposition of Aristotle's principles, set forth with learning and research; but one feels perhaps here too that want of concentration and careful revision, which, as I have said, Cope used himself to acknowledge with regret as a peculiar feature of his style which he was quite unable to remedy. Anyhow I fancy a reader would have liked to have seen it incorporated in the present edition as an essential portion of it, neither of the two being a complete whole without the other. This edition it is not for me to offer an opinion upon : suffice it here to say that it was the main occupation of the latest and most mature years of his working life, and bears witness in every page to unsparing labour and genuine scholarship.

Cope was ordained Deacon in November 1848 and Priest in September 1850 by Dr Turton, late Bishop of Ely. A short experience with his friend Mate, then Vicar of Wymeswold, convinced him that, as he had already for some years devoted himself to a life of study, Parish work was not the sphere for which his tastes and habits were best adapted; and he contented himself afterwards with occasionally assisting one or other of his clerical friends, when he would make them a visit during a vacation.

Perhaps the most important crisis in the even tenour of his laborious College life was occasioned by the Greek Professorship becoming vacant in 1866, when he came forward as one of three candidates for that office. The votes of the electors, the Council of the Senate, having been equally divided between him and Dr Kennedy, the appointment finally devolved by statute on the Chancellor of the University who gave it to Dr Kennedy. There is no doubt that this result was a poignant disappointment to Cope at the time ; it is no less certain that his strength and the tone of his mind
were already a good deal affected by ill-health. This I could illustrate from my own knowledge, if many considerations did not counsel silence on matters which neither his friends nor the public would care to know, or see paraded before them.

Every one, they say, has the defects of his virtues; and it cannot be denied that in his later years, when health became uncertain, Cope was too prompt to take offence and conceive causeless suspicions against his most intimate friends. But they could understand that this arose from excess of susceptibility and perversion of tender feeling; and the offence was forgotten as readily as it was conceived.

In August 1869 he was seized with that malady from which he never rallied during the four remaining years of his life. He died on the 5th of August 1873, and on the 14th of that month he was followed to his grave in the Church of England Cemetery at Birmingham by his two brothers, his nephew and a few of his oldest and dearest friends.

I never knew a kinder-hearted or more charitable man than Cope. Suffering of any sort excited in him an uncontrollable longing to relieve it, whether the relief were to be afforded by sympathy and personal attention, or by money. Many indeed are the acts of charity on his part which fell under my own observation; and I am sure that I never learnt but a small portion of them, for he loved to do good by stealth. Whenever a friend needed care and sympathy, none so prompt as he to offer them. When Robert Leslie Ellis, for whom he felt an unbounded admiration, was seized with fever at San Remo in 1849, off hurried Cope at once to render him all the assistance it was in his power to give. So when his poor friend Mate was struck down by crushing disease, Cope hastened at once to lavish on him his affectionate care. It was always among the chief pleasures of his existence to make a round of visits to his old friends who lived away from Cambridge. One of the oldest of them, R. W. Essington, Vicar of Shenstone, writes to me as follows : 'Of all my old friends of King's and Trinity he alone from 1848 to the year of his sad seizure visited me regularly at Shenstone. He preached in my Church, he taught in my schools, and rarely left me without contributing liberally to some Parochial charity, never without wishing to do so'. 'No one living', he adds with good reason, 'is more capable than I am of testifying to the warmth, the steadiness and depth of his friendship'.
H. A. J. M.

# APIETOTEAOYE 

## TEXNHE PHTOPIKHE

A.
-O bioc Bpaxyc, a dè texnh makpht


Hippocratis.

## APIETOTENOY

## TEXNH $\mathbf{S}$ PHTOPIKH $\mathbf{A}$.

 ex altera parte respondere dialecticae, Orat. Xxxil 114 'Vox a scena ducta videtur. Chori antistrophe strophae ad assem respondet, eiusque motus ita fit, ut posterior in prioris locum succedat...Significat ex altera parte respondere et quasi ex adverso oppositum esse; id quod etiam
quarto edition 183I. p. ${ }^{5}$ octavo edition 1873. in antistrophen cadit.' Trendel. EL. Log. Arist. § 14 p. 74: and to the same effect, Comment. ad Arist. de Anima, II II 5 p. 408. 'quyi. orpopoy dicitur guod alius rei quasi partes agit eamque repraesentat;' Waitz, Comm. ad Anal. Pr. I 2, 25 a 6.

The term is borrowed from the manoeurres of the chorus in the recitation of the choral odes. Erpodí denotes its movement in one direction, to which the eivratpod the counter-movement, the wheeling in the opposite direction, exactly corresponds, the same movements being repeated. Müller, Díss. Eumen. p. 41. Hist. Gr. Lit. c. XIv § 4 Mure, Fist. Gk. Lit. Bk. III. C. 1 § 15 . Hence it is extended to the words sung by the chorus during the latter of these evolutions, and signifies a set of verses precisely parallel or answering in all their details to the verses of the orpoфin. And thus, when applied in its strict and proper sense, it denotes an exact correspondence in detail, as a fac-simile or counterpart.

Hence in Logic avriorpé申ecy is used to express terms and propositions which are convertible, and therefore identical in meaning, precisely similar in all respects. On the various senses of dertorpéфecv and its derivatives in Logic, see Waitz, u. s. In this signification, however, deriorpoфos does not properly represent the relation actually subsisting between the two arts, the differences between them being too numerous to admit of its being described as an exact correspondence in detail; as I have already pointed out in the paraphrase (Introd. p. 134).

It also represents Rhetoric as an art, independent of, though analogous to, Dialectics, but not growing out of it, nor included_under it. The word is of very frequent occurrence in Plato (Gorgias, Republic, Philebus, Timaeus, Theaetetus, Leges), who joins it indifferently with the genitive and dative; and he employs it in this latter sense; as likewise Isocrates, $\pi \in \rho i$ dvrto. § 182 ; and Aristotle himself in several places; Polit. VI (Iv) 5, 129267 , kal ë̃тıv diviorpoфos (corresponding)
aity dy raís dìcyapxinus sianep it rupavis dv rais movapxlacs．c． 6 ult． 1293 a 33．c．10， 1295 a 18．de part．anim．II 17 ult．dy miv oüv roúrous roís \＄̧̧ors
入入ефа́धтөу．

Lastly，Waitz，u．s．，points out a peculiar signification of it，＇res contraria alteri quam potestate aequiparat，＇in de Gen．Anim．II 6， 743628.
 кapolay ròv d́yné申a入ov．Trendelenburg，Comm．ad de Anima u．s．，after defining dertorpíфecv as above，adds，derlorpotos ex eadem chori similitu－ dine significat ex altera parte respondere（this is from Cicero，u．s．）Arist． Rhet．I 1；quod non significat，rhetoricam in dialecticae locum succedere （i．e．can be substituted for it，step into its place，as a convertible term）， sed quasi ex adverso esse oppositam（stands over against it，as a corre－ sponding opposite in a ovoroxic，two parallel rows of coordinate opposites， like the partners in a country dance）．Quintilian，Inst．Orat．II 17，42， specie magis quam genere differunt．

The term arriorpoфos therefore applied to the two arts，seems to re－ present them as two coordinate opposites，or opposites in the same row （see Spengel on the study of Rhetoric，Munich 1842，p．21）．They are sister arts，with general resemblances and specific differences ；two species under one genus，proof：both modes of proof，both dealing with probable materials，but distinguished by the difference of the two instruments of proof employed：the one concluding by the formal syllogism，and by the regular induction，assumed complete；the other drawing its inferences by the abbreviated，imperfect，conversationa enthymeme，never complete in form，and by the single example in the place of the general induction．

Rhetoric is afterwards described as mapaфvís，$\mu$ opeov and jмоluma（infra c．II §7）．жapaфuís and mópcoy both express in different ways the relation that Rhetoric bears to Dialectics as the offeshoot，branch，or part；a species or variety of the general art of probable reasoning：sapapués as a subordinate shoot，growing out of the same root with the farger plant or tree．－${ }^{-2}$ term so far corresponding with doriorpopos，but differing from it in making estetoric sukordinate．moptoy reduces it to a still lower level in comparison with the other．o ooiona implies no more than a mere general resemblance．

In Sext．Empir．adv．Math．viI 6，occurs an explanation of derlorpodor， quite in character with the ordinary Greek etymologies，$\dot{\rho} \eta r o p u r i v, ~ i f ~$ aisriotpoфoy elvat rivy dualekтикiv，（not referring apparently to this passage，

 durl ${ }^{2}$ roy instead of lró $\theta$ eoy．Alexander（infr．）gives the same explanation．

Bacon Adv．of learning Bk．II IX 3，has antistrophe for＇corre－ spondence＇，＂and it hath the same relation or antistrophe that the former hath．＂

The mints of correspondence and difference between the two arts have been already fully explained in the Introduction，p． 90 foll．：I will here give a summary of them from Alexander＇s Commentary on the



Topics_p. 4. They are I. that both of them are my nepl iv ri yévor dheopeonimp: that is, that neither of them has any special subject-matter, like the sciences, but argues or perorates upon any thesis or subject whatso-
 conclusion, or principle, that they employ is more than probable; exact demonstration and necessary conclusions are excluded from both alike; siorcs, belief, the result of mere persuasion, and not drocoivn, the infallible result of scientific demonstration, being the object aimed at. 3. mil 8 ' olccing doxinn they have no 'special appropriate' first principles, such as those from which the special sciences are deduced; though they likewise appeal to the rà soyd, the notval doxai, the ultimate axioms and principles common to all reasoning, which are above those of the special sciences, and from which the latter must be deduced. And, 4 they are
 sides of the same question, and conclude the positive or negative of any proposition or problem; unlike science and demonstration, which can only arrive at one conclusion. Where the materials and the method are alike only probable, every question has, or may be made to appear to have, two sides, either of which may be maintained on probable principles ; in Dialectics and Rhetoric no certainty is either attained or attainable. The chief points of difference between them are, that Dialectics deals practically as well as theoretically with every kind of problem or question that can be submitted to it ; proceeds by question and answer, in the way of debate, and its discussions are of a more general or universal character; whereas the subjects of Rhetoric are practically though yot theoretically almost absolutely_limited to Politics; it follows a method of continuous narration or explanation (8esfodscis), and deals in its conclusions rather with individual cases than with general principles or. universal rules, maxims and axioms.

Alexander, in a preceding passage, gives the following very extraordinary account of the derivation and original meaning of derlorpopos: rd
 mínp $\lambda$ éren.

adnopionivgs] 'marked off, separated by a limit', from every thing else about iti and so 'definite, special' ( 8 7). 1, 2, 1 перi rt yévos idcov dфoupur-
 Dovגeiav (a definite, limited, kind of slavery). Ib. IV (vi) 4, 1290625
 tpye roviry, "this capacity of the soul is marked off, separated, distinguished, from all the rest by this function," de Anima II 4, 9, 416 a 20. The preposition is similarly used in the compound dmoß入éretv, which is 'to look away, or off', from all surrounding objects, so as to fix the attention on one particular thing, or turn it in one particular direction. Comp. Lat. definire, determinare.

Parallel passages, in which this same characteristic of Rhetoric and







Dialectics is noticed, are cited in the Introd. p. 75. See also Quintilian, II 21, 16-19, on the province of the orator.
 A 2, 1OI 63.
§ 2. ovvi日ccav] ' habituation, familiarity, practice', acquired by associazion (prop. that of living or herding together). Top. A 14, 105627 ग in $\delta u \dot{d}$
 See also on I 10, 18. This ovvi日esg is derived from the constant operation or activity, the ivepyecar, of the developed and acquired and settled

 blished confirmed habit, and its évépyecau, is produced by association that familiarity, or habituation, or practice, which secures success even to the empirical unartistic use of Dialectics or Rhetoric.
elk in raûra $\delta \rho \bar{q} \nu$ is the use of them antecedent to practice, and without previously acquired familiarity : àmò raùropcirov, by a mere spontaneous impulse, and therefore 'at random.'
'Est autem dialectica,' says John of Salisbury, Metalogicus, II 4, 'ut Augustino placet, bene disputandi scientia : quod quidem ita accipiendam est ut vis habeatur in verbs; ne scilicet dialectici credantur, quo casus iuvat artis beneficio destitutos.'
aúcá] Rhetoric and its processes.
didonouir] 'to make a way'; to trace a path to be followed, which will lead you without unnecessary deviations to the place at which you wish to arrive. id of therefore, in this metaphorical usage, is not merely $a$ way, but the way, the best way ; the way which will lead you most surely and expeditiously to the end proposed. Hence it denotes a regular, systematic, or scientific method; the best and easiest way of attaining the end desired in any intellectual pursuit or branch of study. And thus it is
 scientific or systematic procedure in the pursuit of truth as a philosophical 'method', or in any art or study. Hence we find od off dıppīбOah Plat. Phaedr. 263 B, of a systematic methodical scientific division; and Rep. vil 533 D: raf odors, in the same sense, Rep. Iv 435 A, and Crate. 425 B. In













 the more usual $\mu$ é $\theta_{0} \delta o s:$ and again $\dot{0} \delta \dot{\varphi}$, de Comp. Verb. c. 4 sub fin. From this usage of the Greek word the Latins seem to have borrowed their via or via et ratione, which frequently occurs in precisely the same sense. See Cicero de Fin. III 5, 18, IV 4, 10; Orat. III 10, XXXIII 116; de Orat. 1 25, 113. Quint. 11 17, 41 esse certe viam atgue ordinem in bene dicendo nemo dubitaverit; and x 7, 6 via dicere.

The verb idowouiv is found in the same sense, Met. A 3, 984 a 180
 and Rhet. III 12, 3 (according to MS $A^{c}$ and some others); and the substantive ódorolyots, III 14, 1.
mpoodowoviv, which occurs several times in Aristotle (as Rhet. II 2, 10, II 13, 7, III 12, 3, Prob. XXX 1, 954 6 12, de part. Anim. II 4, §§ 4, 5, 6, III 9, 8, de gen. anim. IV 4,9, тepi Mavtuojs, 1 i1. Polit. II 9 , 1270 a 4 , IV (vil) 17,
 fering from the preceding. The metaphor is now taken from the office of pioneers, who precede an advancing army, and prepare, clear, or 'pave the way' for them.

8i o....riv airiav] pivairlav is here grammatically the antecedent to \& the cause, alicia, being in the relative pronoun expressed as an abstract notion ('the cause, which thing') in the neuter. A similar change from feminine to neuter, in antecedent and relative, occurs in de Anima 13 ,



 see Hermann on v. 1038.


 appeals to the feelings and other indirect proofs addressed to the judges personally, which were usually introduced into the spooimoov.
sioress chetorical not demonstrative pronfs; modes of belief, of things probable; all the materials and arguments of Rhetoric being probable merely, none of them certain. See Introd. p. 136 note.
spooөîkch...бஸ̂رa rîs пiorews] All kinds of indirect proof are secondary, subordinate, non-essential, mere ' adjuncts' or 'appendages', like dress or ornaments to the body: 'the body' being the actual, logical, direct and substantial proof of the case. What is here called 'the body', meaning
the substance as opposed to accidents, we usually represent by 'the soul' in this same relation ; the body in its turn now standine for the accidents and non-essentials of a thing, So the Scholiast on Hermogenes, Proleg. (quoted by Ernesti, Lexicon Technologiae Graecae p. 110, Art.'ivtirpua)


 elobaror al idéa. And Cicero, Orat. XIV 44 nam et invenire ef ixdicare quid dicas magna illa quidem suntst tamouram anzmi instar in corpare.

Qumntian describes the views of some of those who thus rigorously
 to the employment of the 'enthymeme', the rhetorical representative of the logical and demonstrative 'syllogism'; with the exclusion of all that is, strictly speaking, 'beside the subject or real issue', all that is beside the facts of the case and the direct proof of them ; all indirect proof, namely, from the assumed character of the speaker himself, or appeals to the feelings of the judges or audience, and also all ornaments and graces of style and delivery. Aristotle here assumes this to be theoretically the only true and proper method, though he by no means consistently adheres to it in his actual treatment of the subject. Quintilian's description is as follows, though, as the reasons for the exclusion of these indirect proofs are somewhat different from those assigned by Aristotle, he probably does not refer immediately to him : Fuerunt et clari quidem oratores guibus solum videretur oratoris officium docere. Namque et affectus duplici ratione excludendos putabant: primum quia vitium esset omnis animi perturbatio; deinde quia iudicem a veritate depelli misericordia vel ira similibusque non oporteret: et voluptatem audientium petere, quum vincendi tantum gratia diceretur, non modo agenti supervacuum sed vix etiam viro dignum arbitrabantur. Inst. Orat. V. Prooem. I.

On the general question of appeals to the feelings, Quint. II 17, 26 seq. : and on the prevailing practice, Isocr. $\pi$ epi dyrto. § 32 I.
mpayuarever $\theta_{\text {gr }}$ is well explained by Bonitz on Metaph. A 6, 987 a 30.
 tiganda et cognoscenda aliqua re via ac ratione procedit; itaque con-
 sense of doing business, or occupying oneself about anything, passes into the more limited or special signification of an intellectual pursuit, and thence of 'a special study' 'a systematic treatment of a particular subject of investigation, or practice' (as in this present case, of Rhetoric,
 and many other words, is used to express not only the intellectual process of investigation, but also the resulting science, art, treatise, or written work, or part of such work. See on this point, Introd. p. 17, note 2. Also, on the general meaning of the term, Waitz on Anal. Post. Il 13,96 6 15. Trendel. de Anima p. 199. Elem. Log. Arist. \& ;8, p. 135.

84 8eaßohí from daßaindecu 'to sunder or set at variance', and so








'to make hostile, to engender a mutual dislike between two parties', in its technical application to Rhetoric, of which it is a potent instrument; and with its opposite dedication 'to absolve oneself, clear array from oneself ill-reeling and suspicion', forms one of the principal topics of the ppoormon (see Introd. pp. 343,4). It denotes the exciting of suspicion and ill-will in the minds of the judges or audience, in order to prejudice them against the opponent with whom you are in controversy : and is therefore improperly classed with the wíay or emotions such as $\lambda_{\text {eos }}$ and dey'. This has been already noticed by Victorius and Muretus: the latter says, ' daßoht̀ non est_cólos_sed pertinet_ad_iudicem_ponendum hadith
 noceî rows d lows. These words, which seem to be a mere gloss upon $^{2}$ duáßodoy in the text of the Topics, occur apparently in one ms only, marked $u$ by Waits, and inserted by him in the critical notes of his edition, Vol. II p. 144 Bekker altogether omits to notice them. Though of no authority they will equally well answer the purpose for which they are here employed, of helping, namely, to define the meaning of draco $\lambda \%$.

 zpáyuaros: they are 'beside the proper subject, the real question, the direct issue', which is the fact and the proof of it ; and 'directed to the judge', intended to bias and pervert his judgment, to incline him to our side in the contest, and so to have the effect of a secondary or indirect kind of proof of the justice of our case.
 of the ornaments of style, and declamation in general, as of appeals to the feelings here, that they are only allowed to be employed did rip moxAppiay rîv ro入ırecôy; in well-governed states they would not be permitted at all.
85. ot miv...ot of] 'either...or'. The one only think that the laws ought to be so framed, hold the opinion as a theory; the others, as the Court of Areopagus, actually (ri, also, besides the-mere-theory)_carry it into practice, kail xoèmra.




## 


入érovats к.т. $\lambda$.

Lucian, Hermotimes, c. 64, has something similar about the practice

 (Lucian ed. Hemsterh. I p. 805), and again, A racharsis s. de Gymm. c. 10,




 There are several allusions to the same in Quintilian, II 16, 4, VI I, 7 , X 1,107, XII 10, 26. Spalding in his note on the first of these passages calls attention to-what indeed is sufficiently apparent on the face of the statements-Quintilian's carelessness in extending to all the lawcourts of Athens, a practice actually prevailing at the most only in one of them ; in spite of the direct evidence to the contrary in the extant orations of the Athenian orators, and the story of Hyperides and Phryne which he himself tells in II 15,9
ouacrpíфew] to wapp_ or distort to wrest out of the straight ('right') line or proper direction, to pervert or 'denrave the judgment. The same metaphor is repeated in $\sigma$ т $\beta \beta \lambda \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{v}_{v}$. The metaphor which compares wrong, the deviation from the 'right' line or path, to the crooked or twisted, the divergence from the straight, and represents wrong judgment as the warping of the moral rule, occurs in various languages; oxo $\lambda$ oos, and opOós, citives de dixas oxodés, Solon ap. Dem. de F. L. p. 423, бкadcầs i̇oîs narôy, Pind. Pyth. II 156, PL. Theaet. 173 A \&c. \&c. So
 So Plato of the good and bad horse in the human chariot, Phaedr. 253


So also rectum and pravum or varum or curvum, right and wrong (wrung or twisted out of shape, distorted, similarly intortus) tort, Fr. (tortum), torto, Ital. Compare Lucretius, IV 5 16, denique ut in fabrica, si prava est fabrica prima Normaque si fallax rectis regiomibus exit,-Omnia mendose fieri, \&oc. Cic. Acad. Pr. II II, 33, interesse oportet, ut inter rectum et pravum, sic inter verum et falsum. Hor. Ep. II 2, 44, curvo dignoscere rectum, ('virtutem distinguere a vitio'. Orelli). Pers. Sat. III 52, haud tibi inexpertum curvos deprendere mores. IV 11, rectum discernis ubi inter curva subit, vel cum fallit pede regula varo. V 38, apposita intortos extendit regula mores.
'Crooked' for perverse, immoral, wrong, is very common in the earlier writers of our own language. Deut. xxxii 5, a perverse and crooked generation. Ps. cxxv 5, Prov. ii 15, whose ways are crooked, and they froward in their paths. Ep. ad Phil. ii 15, and in many other places and authors. For examples of the latter, see Richardson's Dict. Art. 'crooked'.

Very different to this are the principles laid down by the author_of

## PHTOPIKHE A 1 §5. <br>  <br> p. 2.




 dywa. The judges are to be flattered, and the opponent represented in the darkest colours, whether his alleged defects have-ar-have-not-any

 contradictory of the course prescribed by Aristotle in 86 as alike fair and in accordance with the true principles of the art.
xpoáyoutas els] Comp. III 14, 7, and note.

 and the like-has lost its force, become inactive, (consofituru, 'gone-to sleep', Buttm., in the sentence, is explained by Buttmann in his note on Dem. Mid. \& 15, P. 530. The conditional äy belongs to some verb in the apodosis, originally expressed, afterwards left to be understood, as in the clause before us. The expression at full length would be, kav, of tus sonjoce, noon'бece, ' as one would do, if he were to do'. Still, though the particle has lost its direct and active force in this sentence, some latent notion of conditionality alrrays remains, exen when the verb which ay supposes cannot actually be supplied. This is the case in such phrases as фo pounceos बनтep ay al rais, Pl. Gorg. 479 A 'fearing as a child would':
 ioruv, 'whose natural habit is, as it might be (av), talkative'; de Anima I 5,
 ${ }_{a b} y$ is retained by habit and association, when the sense no longer requires it. The parase accordingly is not found in the earlier forms of the language, and does not become common till the time of Plato and Aristotle, with whom, the latter especially, it is very frequent. The association required time before it was established as a fixed habit. I believe that it does not occur in Thucydides, and that it makes its first appearance in Xenophon; that is, in the forms above given; for as an unnecessary appendage to a participle, or in cases analogous, any is thus used by earlier writers. See Hermann on Soph. Phil. 491, and Jelf, Gr. Gr. 8430 , 1,for some instances [Kühner's $A$ usführliche Grammatik \& 398 p. 209 sq. S.].

Aristotle seems to be the earliest writer who assumed the license of joining kap al with the subjunctive mood, as in Pol. II 1 init. ad̃y el rovx ${ }^{\dot{\alpha}}$

 reading in Plat. Rep. IX 579 D, and defended by Schneider (not. ad loc.); but rejected by Ast, Bek., Stallb. and the Zurich Editors who substitute doxfi. I subjoin a few examples of the usage in its various forms.
 Xenophon, Symp. II 20, IX 4, Cyrop. I 3, 1, Memor. III 6, 4 and $10,12$. Plato, Apol. 23 B, Phaed. 72 C, 109 C, and elsewhere, Men. 97 B, Gorg. 479 A, Rep. vi 493 A, Isocr. Paneg. ${ }^{5}$ 69, 148, Aristotle in addition to










those already quoted, Rhet. II 20, 4, ©oxep à ai ris, Eth. N. v 7, 1132, II. Ib. V 12, 1137,2 ; vi 13 sub. fin., 1145,2 and 10; vil 8, 1150 , 16 , , 4 ,
 Anim. IV 2, 1G, Iv 11, if, vili 2, io, de part. Anim. IV 5, 26, de Gen. Anim. III 9,7 . In Aristote it has become habitual. The analogous use of av with the participle is exemplified by Pol. II 2, 1261 ${ }^{6} 4$ dनтep av aldoc yevópevoc; and Theophrastus, Hist. Plant. I 5, 1, dis ay kaOódov $\lambda_{\text {érouras, and } 1} 6,6$, ©is ay kard $\lambda$ dórov, where à may be considered as redundant. [Vahlen, Beitrige su Ar. Poet. 1 P. 35-37; Eucken, de Ar. dicendi ratione I p. 61-64 s.]
 remarks, are here tacitly referred to, see Introd. p. 397, Appendix E to Bk. iII.
 convertible with the passive of retivan ssiar $\theta a$ itself' to be placed, fixed,



[keinat is constantly borrowed as a perfect passive to rilnus, while riecutear is almost invariably used as a deponent perfect. Thus the usage of the perfect in the best writers would be: o y оро日étrs ri $\theta$ ecke ròp yompy.




roîs kpivoout, kpigets, rowis kpivouras] On the different senses of kpisety and courric as applied to the different branches of Rhetoric, see Introd. p. 137 note 1: and on the necessary imperfections of laws in their application to particular cases, the consequent introduction of incuineta to modify them and adapt them to the circumstances of the case, and Plato's opinion, on the authority of laws, see p. 138 note I .
 the power of, at the discretion of. § $8 \mathbf{d} \boldsymbol{\pi}$ rois kpiraís karàeifeus.

This primary, literal, and physical sense of imi, (in this application of it,




 which represents the object of the preposition as the basis on which something stands or rests, and therefore depends upon), of the half dozen Grammars and Lexicons, which, after forming my own opinion, 1 have consulted on the point, is to be found distinctly stated only in that of Rost and Palm, where it lurks hardly discoverable, amidst the enormous mass of illustrations of the various usages of $d \pi i$ accumulated in Vol. I pp. 1032 -1045 , in p. 1038, col. 2.
 from (is the work of men after) long previous consideration'. Thuc. I 58,

df vimopulov] (retained by Bekker; Gaisford not. var. prefers imoyiov, and so L. Dindorf, on Xen. Cyr. vi 1, 43.) vimórucov apd $\mu \mathrm{kxpov}$ yeyovós,
 By the Scholiast on Arist. Nub. 145, in Suidas v. apri (Gaisf.), dॄ isroyuiou $\lambda$ érecr is interpreted by aúrooxedá̧eur; and in Eustath. (ap. eund.) it is said to be derived from yuioy in the sense of xele. (compare Theocr. Idyl. XXII8I and 121; the 'hand' is the member, par excellence), from


 bearing much the same sense, in Koch's note on Moeris Lex. p. 343, and a still larger list in Rost and Palm's Lex. s. v., to which add Rhet. II 22, II; Pol. viI (vi) 8, 13216 17. vimopvóraroy (the readiest way or means) «pds aùтápкecay. Isocr. Paneg. § 13. Menand. ap. Spengel, Rhet. Gr. III 391. In Isocr. repl derto. § 4 , and Epist. 6. 2, p. 418 B, it stands for 'close



It appears from all this that inoyviov means 'under the hand', as an unfinished or iust finished work, fresh and recent, $\pi$ оóन्батoy (so Rhet. II 3, 12) as Moeris explains it: and ef vinoyviov, 'from under the hand', corresponds to our 'off-hand' or out of hand', and is used to express anything 'sudden and unexpected' or 'unpremeditated' 'extemporaneous' a signification which appears in all the examples. Similarly ik xetpós, dimè zepof off-hand'
drobidonal a - word of very frequent use in Aristotle, has for one of its elementary senses that of 'to give back', reddere; aimo' as in drovípew,
 which all the other senses in which at least Aristotle employs it may be deduced. Another of the original senses of the word is 'to give forth', or 'produce', as the earth produces her fruits, and this also might be applied to the interpretation of it in several of its various uses. But as this signification is likewise deducible from the other-for production, as
when the earth produces her fruits, may be regarded as a payment or restoration, or 'return' of something as due-it may perhaps be better to refer them all to the one original signification, reddere. So in Eth. N. II I, 1103, a 27, 6 22, ràs eveprelas dizobróvan is not simply 'to produce', but to produce energies that are due to the system, energies corresponding to the faculties from which they spring. So Trendelenburg, El. Log. Arist \& 55, p. 132, 'ánodioóval proprie est reddere, unde ex suum cuique tribuendi significatione facile orta est declarandi vis (declarare is the sense which the word bears in the passage specially referred to, Top. A 5, 102 a 3) nihil enim est aliud quam logice suam cuique naturam reddere.'
djrobidóvan is therefore (1) to give back, restore, repay, render, always implying some kind of obligation, (2) to render ar a due 'assign', which best represents it in the majority of cases in Aristotle); of due distribution, suum cuigue; hence ( 3 ) of the due fulfilment of any office or duty as añodióvar $\lambda$ óyov, 'to render an account', to explain, or set forth, any statement or doctrine, droф aiverdan, declararf. To one or the other of these I believe all the multifarious uses of the word may be referred.

I will add a few examples in the way of illustration :-Dem. c. Aristocr.
 as a due) $\dot{o}$ yónos; and elsewhere. Plat. Phaed. 71 e (a good example),
 $\chi^{\omega} \lambda \dot{j}$ (mutilated, defective, lopsided, single where all the rest are pairs)

 which is the thing in question, to which it assigns matter as the sole ele-

 parison, Rhet. III II, 13. dं̃od. 入ciroupyiay de part. An. III 14, 9, 'duly to

 нópıoy. Top. $\Delta$ 1, 121 a 15, et passim, rò àmodotiv yivos, àmodidớvau yívos.
 ration, production, of definitions : and so elsewhere. de part. An. III 7, 18,
 jo $\sigma$ roìv ri' ícru, to state, give a sufficient account or explanation. Phys. I

 pádov dंтoठoûvau, to give an account, explain.

So here $\dot{\text { antodèóvar }}$ is 'duly to assign, distribute, or apportion' and again 12,5 , àmodidopev ràs кpiбets 'we render our judgments'. These same applications of the word occur. likewise in Plato, as Rep. 379 A, (to represent), Ib. 472 D, VI 508 E, Phaedr. 237 C, Theaet. 175 D, Polit.

 as a due'; see for instance Eth. Nic. IV 7, 1123618 , $\dot{\text { o }}$ rois $\theta$ eois dro-




EDon...kpivovaty] by this time, now that we have come to them, 'they
 in theircase, not in the former, of something new, special, and marked. $\bar{\eta} \partial \eta$ therefore in these cases is often translatable by a mere emphasis. The word is repeated so soon after, applied to the same persons, and expressing almost identically the same thing, that it is not improbable that Spengel may be right in his conjecture that the one or the other should be erased. Rhet. Gr. Vol. i. Pref. p. v. 'paulo post alterutrum ${ }^{\eta} \delta \eta$ abundat, puto prius.' However there are two still closer together, II 25, 14

It may be worth while to say a few words on this very common usage of $\bar{\eta} \partial \eta$ and analogous particles of time, in the way of illustration and exemplification. " $\mathrm{H} \partial \eta$ and its analogues \%'rı, oviкít, oïrce, are used empphatically to mark a critical point, climax, degree attained, as deserving of special and particular attention, at the moment, and in reference to something else which is not equally remarkable. They are all particles of time, and derive this their secondary sense from the metaphorical application of this notion of 'already' a definite time which we have just reached: 'point', or 'stage', or 'degree' attained being substituted by the metaphor for 'time' in the original sense of the word.

This will be best illustrated by a few examples. Arist. ssepl $\mu \nu y^{\prime} \mu \eta s$
 time, now that we have reached this point, has become a second nature. Met. $\triangle$ 21, 1022 b 18, iva de [rpómoy máOos $\lambda$ éyeral] roúruy
 and changes of these'. $\quad j 0 \eta$, by the time that they have reached this stage or state, and have actually become what they are. Categ. c. 8, 9,

 dripay, ou $\mu$ írot $\bar{y} \delta \eta$ (not yet actually, not quite, not yet arrived at the


 all oligarchies, when we come to the $\delta \mu o v o$, at this stage, by this time,

 to be a ruler, he must then...' in the case of others this perhaps is not necessarily true, but the ruler must, actually, live or act in relation to


 bis. I have confined myself in these illustrations to examples from Aristotle; from the ordinary language, in which this usage is at least equally

 $\alpha$ ко.

It is found also in French, Italian and German-deja, gia, schon. C'est

##  

dejd quelque chose, 'and that's something'. das ist schon etwas. The Italian gia, when used as an expression of assent, may be similarly explained.

The use of demum is precisely similar, and common in most Latin writers. Sallust, Cat. XX idem velle atque idem nolle ea demum (that. and that alone) firma amicitia est. Quint. II 5, 1, artemque de qua loquimur bonis demum (to the good, and to them alone) tribui volunt. vII Praef. init. neque enim ea demum quae ad docendum pertinent exsecuti sumks. viI 2, 21, vili Prooem. 3, IV 5, 7, XI I § 44, 3 § 68, et passim. Cic. Tusc. Disp. 1 19, 43, eaque ei demum naturalis est sedes, et seq., de Orat. II 30, 13i, hi loci ci demum oratori prodesse possunt. Rarer is the analogous use of denique and tandem: Cic. de Orat. II 30, 131, c. 34, 146, tum denique scrutari locos, c. 75, 304, quantum est in eo tandem mali! c. 77, 315, hisce omnibus rebus consideratis, tum denique id... Hor. Ep. 1 17, 2, quo tandem pacto... On iam in this same usage, see Munro, on Lucr. I 600, 613, II 314, 426; add, II 974, and Virg. Aen. v 179, iam senior, VI 304, VII 46, 735.

Similarly in a negative sentence, ovinco sometimes introduces the notion of time in estimating the amount or degree, Eth. Nic. V 10, 1135 a 11 ,

 -in the two former cases the unjust habit of mind is distinguished as ' not yet amounting to' the actual crime or unjust act; and in the third case this distinction is applied to the djapripa, which, though a wrong in itself, has not yet reached the stage or degree of the vice, confirmed



So also oukít, 'no longer; not as before; not, now that we have reached this point'. Pol. v (viii) 3, 1338 a 6. Rhet. 1 2, 21, avy $\gamma \mathrm{d} p$
 II 9, 3. de gen. et corr. I 2, 3, 315 6 3, $\pi \hat{\omega}$ s dè roûro oủkért, Hist. Anim.



 ad Mid. 13 a p. 528, ' ${ }^{\prime}{ }^{\prime} к$ étı proprie valet non ut antea, hinc non ut alias, non item, non iam.'
ovvípnrap] (Betker and Spengel. Alii curqipcopas) ' with whom are connected...' In $\pi$ pods ovis, $x$ poos expresses a mere general reference, 'with respect to whom', 'in whose case'; and ovyppyras 'are often taken into, embraced in, the account', oiv, together with their proper business, the mere facts of the case and the proof of them. I can find no sufficient authority for ouvacpeiv in this sense; the nearest approach to it is in Plat.
 different. Vater makes a similar observation. The interpretation also of spós is certainly rather strained. Probably qungiproruis right.












rd $\lambda_{\eta}{ }_{\eta} \theta^{\prime}$ s] No one is a fair judge, where his own passions or interests are concerned. Gaisford quotes appositely, Pol. III 16, 1287 a ult. d $1 \lambda \mathrm{~d}$



dx. $\sigma$ кorsiv] 'to bring darkness, throw a shadow over, overshadow'.


 word. It seems to mean that Euthydemus, by bending forward and setting in the way, obscured or darkened Ctesippus= not however in the ordinary sense of the word, but in that of intercepting the object, and so darkening by throwing a cloud over, and thereby depriving him of his view (is lias gen. of deprivation, implied in the verb).

In a metaphorical sense it occurs in Dem. Olynth. B 23, 26, Isocr. ad Dem. § 6, and in several fragments of the Comic Poets, (Ind. ad Meineke, Fr. Com. Gr. Vol. v Pt. 1 p. 393,) for instance, Eubul. inert. Fr. 11 (Main. III 267) dob olvoy req фpovị̂y driororsiv; and in other authors. See also Victorius : and Gaisford in not. var. p. 18.


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drop $[c x y]$ to separate by a limit or boundary line. Herodot. Iv 42
 mark off as a special province or domain, and so of 'the definition', which includes all that is essential to, or characteristic of, the thing defined, and excludes everything else. The word here of course means something more than a bare definition; it expresses the limitation or 'determination' of the proper contents of the $\pi \rho o o i \mu \mathrm{cov}$.


 $\mu \in$ Єódov $\pi \epsilon \rho i ̀ ~ \tau a ̀ ~ \delta ̀ \eta \mu \eta \gamma о \rho ı к \grave{\alpha} к а i ~ \delta ı к а \nu ı к \alpha ́, ~ к а i ~ к а \lambda-~$


Ierexpos mioreirl are the regular systematic proofs by enthymeme and example, the $\sigma \omega \bar{\mu} \mu$ rîs $\pi i \sigma \tau \cos 8$ 83, ${ }^{3}$, and opposed here, not merely to the grexpos miores of c. 15, the witnesses, documents, torture, oaths and such like, which we do not invent, but find ready to our hand to be employed in the support of our case; but also to the irregular appeals to the reelings (radoos) and to evidence from character ( $\hat{y} \theta o s)$.
 plied to the study and practice of one of the departments of Rhetoric ; sec
 'more worthy of, more becoming to, a citizen', more agreeable to the position and duties of a citizen, 'better and worthier'; secondly, 'more suitable to a public man, statesman, or politician', larger, more comprehensive, and liberal; as opposed to the comparatively trifling and petty occupations of private citizens : thirdly, more public and common, wider, more general ; kowory, as opposed to tocoy and olxeiov: the second seens to be the most appropriate here, and so Thave' rendered it in the paraphrase. [p. 141 of the Introduction: "nobler and larger and more liberal (or 'statesmanlike', or 'more worthy of a citizen',) vid. not. ad loc.']
 druceucuruóv, is here omitted, but afterwards supplied, c. 3 § I.
 general expression which the Athenians have for a contract is ouval-
 p. 494. The difference usually taken between ouvojikn and ovvalacy
 (ordinary dealings, buying and selling and such like transactiont), kat fa dkovjuca kard ouvorkas (in the way of, by contracts): we are concerned here only with the first and third of these, $\sigma v \sigma^{2} \lambda \lambda a \gamma \mu a$ and $\sigma u \mu \beta{ }_{0} \lambda a v y$.

The ordinary signification of both of these is a contract, or covenant, or mutual agreement, or interchange (ovvà $\lambda a \gamma \mu a)$, between two or more parties. They are thence extended to any dealings, especially business transactions, or even any circumstances of ordinary intercourse between man and man, and more particularly any of those which may give rise to



 oumßodaiov. The former of these two seems to refer rather to dealings in general, the second to special contracts. Areop. §§ 33, 34 Arist. Eth.








 גoyiats．

That the meaning of the terms is not confined to contracts proper，is plain also from Eth．N．V 1131 a 2．（This passage is quoted at length
 ＇voluntary＇being illustrated by buying and selling，lending and＿horrow－ ing，whereas＇involuntary＇are all of them crimes，$\lambda$ a $\theta$ paia or $\beta$ iaua：all of them cases in which the breach of the supposed contract，private or public，entitles the aggrieved party to a legal remedy）．Opposed to
 commercial treaties，$\sigma \dot{v} \mu \beta$ o $\lambda a$ ．See further on $\sigma \dot{\nu} \mu \beta_{\circ} \lambda a$ ，note on c． 4 § i1．
oupßoiata is also employed in a wider and more general sense，as
 kai oupßodaion．Other examples may be found in Plat．Gorg． 484 D

 à хр
 Lexicon．Arist．Polit．IV（VI） 16,13006 22，and $32 \pi e \rho i$ rồ $\mu$ uxpồ $\sigma u v a \lambda-$


 and elsewhere．

Epò＇ppou］＇to the purpose＇；anything＇for＇，or＇in favour of＇，and therefore＇likely to promote＇，any＇work＇we may have in hand；and hence generatly＇serviceable＇or＇profitable＇to any purposes．$\pi \rho o$＇pyou （which also occurs infra $14 \S 3,7$ ）is the Aristotelian mode of writing what in Xenophon，Plato，Demosthenes，and indeed ordinary Greek in general，appears as $\pi$ poípyov．Some examples in Fritsche ad Eth．Eud． A 3， 1215 a 8.
kakoûpyov］As a special variety of the general conception of dis－ honesty，fraud，knavery，this adjective is applied in a peculiar sense

 Gorg． 483 A．Dem．Lept．491．Stallb．ad Rep．I 338 D．Similarly ouko－ фavreiv is used for cheating in argument，bringing fallacious objections， Top．日 2， 157 a 32． 1 （ide Soph．El．）15，17．4．69．Both of them represent the knavish tricks and fallacies which may be employed in rhetorical and dialectical reasoning．Plat．Rep． 341 в тpòs raûra kakoúpyet kal ouko－ фа́⿱宀тен．

A debate in a political assembly，which turns upon questions of public and national concern（кotyö́tepoy），in which accordingly the audience，who






 are all members of it, have a strong personal interest, and are therefore impatient of anything that would divert them from the direct proof of the expediency or inexpediency of the policy recommended or condemned, affords much less room for these deceptive arts ad captandum, rd $8 \mathrm{f} \mathrm{\omega}$ rove mpdymatos, than the practice of the law-courts, where the judges who decide the case are usually not personally interested in the issue, and the pleader has therefore to create an interest in them by these irregular methods: this is on the principle so pithily stated by the Corinthian envoys,
 rect mode of stating the argument than that adopted in the paraphrase, Introd. p. 141.)

This contrast of the two kinds of audiences, in respect of their several dispositions to keep the speakers to the point, does not hold of our own law-courts and parliaments. The Athenian dicasts, careless, ignorant, and unprofessional, selected at random from the population of the city, with their sense of responsibility diminished or destroyed by the large number of those who had to decide, might very likely be indifferent to the issue of the case before them, and require a stimulus to their attention from the parties immediately concerned: but this is not true of the professional judges of our courts, who regard the right decision of the case as a business and a duty.
 'critic' of the question or arguments employed; supp. § 7. Introd. p. 137, note I.
dya入aBeiv] is to 'bring back', 'recover'; hence to 'gain over', 'con-
 - Membrane Balliolenses, captare: Muretus, accurate, excipere: Portus, reficere, recreare, in $\mu$ eraфopá ab aegrotis; vel conciliate. Ones hae notiones a primaria resumendi, ad se recipiendi, facile deducuntur.' Gaisford. The order is, ( 1 ) to 'get or bring back'; thence, ( 2 ) to 'bring back into the proper and normal state', as of 'recovery' from a disease-the notion of something as due being again implied as in dmodióóvat, note on \% 7and thence again, (3) as here, to 'restore', as it were, the audience to their proper state of mind, conciliate them to your views and interests. Hence, lastly, the senses of reparare, reficere, recreare, and the like; abundantly illustrated in Steph. The. ed. Did. Vol. II pp. 43I-2.
duobacul ('iaytoús) see dint 'lend themselves', os 8 jojovin doves, Eur. Phoen. 21. Valck. Dial. p. 233. And so, many of its compounds,











 (Herod.). The process is the usual one by which transitive verbs become intransitive, viz. by the ellipse of the reflexive pronoun.
 highest senses, is exact scientific demonstrative proof, by syllogism leading from and to universal and necessary conclusions. And therefore,






 ad Anal. Post. Vol il p. 293 seq. riotis therefore, whose premisses and conclusions are never more than 'probable', cannot_properly be said to be. fa kind of demonstration'. It resembles it however, and may be regarded as a 'sort of demonstration' in this; that probable proof often produces a belief or conviction as strong and certain as that which follows from demonstration. It is therefore to be undersiood here, as often elsewhere, as a general term including proof of eyery kind. A similar misapplication of dmódeçss to rhetorical proof is found in Rhet.
 general ; Rhet. I $6 \S 17,10 \S 1$ I 11 § 23 and II 22 § 4 , where $\sigma v \lambda \lambda o y \iota \sigma \mu n i$ stands



 F cal n $\boldsymbol{\pi}$ ors. A still more remarkable example of this looseness of expression occurs I 4, 5, where Dialectics is called id evadurcxì dreorniug. The ruetoncal enthymeme, again. 'a kind of ámódecks', is subsequently and this time correctly, called кuplóíaiò̀ rây riбrewv. See Introd. p. 92.









dîגov 89 def, omitted by one MS, and rejected by Bubble, Schrader, Bekker, and Spengel, is retained and defended by Victorius and Vater. It is justified not only by the common usage of the Greek language (see Butte. Exc. XII on Dem. c. Mid. de particula of e in apodosis, p. 150; the passages which he thus quotes might be multiplied indefinitely), but also by the special usage of Aristotle himself. Waitz, on Organ. 176 1, Vol. I p. 335, comp. Rel ad Eth. Nic. I I §4, Vol. II p. 5, who quotes examples from Aristotle, to which add Rhet. I 4 § 2,110 § 4, I 11 §§ 6 and 11, II 25 § 10 , an exact parallel, the protasis here also commencing with
 several clauses intervenes, and the apodosis begins with) deil 8 iv tais ríxpats к.r.入. de Anima I 3, 406 a 4 and 10. Phys. vi 8, 2, ai rd mev... ioraotat \&é. See also Stall. on Phædo 78 c. The particle is thus used in the apodosis generally, not always, as a repetition of a preceding $8 f$, and in these cases may be translated by "I say". It repeats in order to recal the attention to the connexion of the apodosis with the foregoing protasis, which might be overlooked after a long parenthesis: in cases where this would not be necessary, it may be accounted for by the influence of habit or association. Of the many illustrative passages I had collected from other writers as well as Aristotle, I will content myself with citing two or three apposite ones from Thucydides. I II, sub init.,


 IV 132, $\delta$ de Iepoickas к.т. $\lambda$. and VIII 29 (three of these are referred to by Arnold, note 2 on 1 11). Paley on Asch. P. V. 952, 994, and ed. gives some instances from Aeschylus. I may also add Plat. Phaedo 78 C , rà di
 example may be found in Phaedo 87 A, b, doùs dé-al de roûro...
roùs $\lambda_{\text {oyıkoùs }} \sigma \boldsymbol{\lambda} \lambda \lambda_{\text {oyer }}$ oús] Waitz on Anal. Post. I 21, 826 35, p. 353,
 demonstratio, quale veris ipsius ret principiis nititur, ai quale probabili quadam ration contenta est....Unde fit ut $\lambda$ oyuxóv idem fere sit quod סıa入eкruóv.' And this is its usual signification...' Quamquam' (he adds,
 hic et in ias que proxime sequuntur opponatur rhetorico syllogismo (ever$\mu$ ai mart), veram demonstrationem significare videatur.' To the same effect is what follows, where rod di $\eta$ iss exact truth and knowledge, scientific cr-









as the object of the enthymeme．And as both are apprehended by the same faculty this faculty will be cultivated by the study and exercise of both alike，and the processes that lead to them，syllogicm andenthymeme ： and therefore the knowledge of the materials and modes of constructing syllogisms，and the practical application of them，equally in all their varieties，demonstrative，dialectical，and rhetorical（enthymeme），are ser－ viceable to the rhetorician as a training and preparation for the practice of his art．
mpos rd tedoEal＇things probable，matters of opinion，not certainty＇； the materials，objects，and results of Rhetoric，as of Dialectics．Top．A


 de Orat． 1 23，108，sunt enim varia et ad vulgarem popularemque sensum accommodata omnia genera huius forensis nostrae dictionis．

8córc］＇that＇，$=$ öTh．The earliest instance of this use of dére appears to be in Herod．II 50．It occurs in Xenophon（add Symp．I II，to the exatupiés tr Sturiz＇s Lexicon），Plato，Ep． 1309 D，Dem．de Cor．§§ 155，167， 184，but each time in a document．Isocr．Paneg．§ 48，Phil．§ 1，Archid．
 $\S \S 1,31$ ．（Some of these referring to Isocrates are derived from Benseler＇s note，Praef．p．v note 4 ，who has the following remark，from Baiter on Paneg．§ 48，＇Isocrates ubicunque סcórt usurpavit，id fecisse videtur hiatus evitandi causa＇［see esp．Isocr．Lochit．§ 7，where ivelupounévous ö is followed by kai $\delta$ tonc．．．s．］．It is found several times in the Rhet．ad Alex．as c． 17 p． 1432 a 16，c． 3 m p． 1437 a 19，and elsewhere，but it．is in Aristotle that it first becomes common；too common to need further illustration．See however Waitz on Anal．Pr． 58 \＆7，Camm．I p． 495. For 8 ćót $=$ örth Steph．Thes．Vol．II 1544 cites Crito．Com．ap．Athen．4，
 ктjodat doxei．Its ordinary sense is＇because＇．

It has also a third signification，＇why．＇；the indirect interrogative， corresponding to the direct，ठid $\tau i$ ，as ö öws to $\pi \omega \hat{s}$ ，ö öre to nóre，öros to mó⿱宀八犬s，änov to $\pi 0 \hat{v}$, \＆c．In this sense it occurs in Plato，Phaedo 100 C ， （four other examples in Ast＇s Lex．），Xen．Cyrop．viII 4，7，in kai＇Xots âv circeī déórt ；Demosth．Phil．A 46， 10 ；Isocr．Archid．§ 16，and in Aris－ totle，Rhet．II 23，24，（where it is explained by the preceding tivy alriay）， Polit．IV（VI）11， 1296 a 22．Met．A 1，981 a 29，where again it is ex－ plained by rìv alriav）．$\pi \in \rho i$ àvarvévoceos 14，ult．and elsewhere，e．g．Ar．de




 фdporya．In Rhet．III 11，14，it is explained by rò aitrov．Cf．Amphis Dith． Fragm． 1 ap．Meineke，Comm．Fragm．III 306；B．dic̀ ri 8＇oùx äyets els


With diórs＇that＇，compare oivera and íooúveca in Sophocles，as Philoct． 634，the reasor，the what for，passes into a mere statement of fact； because，into that．See Ellendt，Lex．Soph．soovivera．
drovevect，to bend the head away from something else and turn the attention to a particular object；hence，to incline to，fix the attention upon：dंло́ as in droß入émect，（supr．\＆I）．Plat．Theaet． 165 A ，ik rôy
 \％xvevors $\pi \lambda_{\eta} \gamma^{\omega} \nu$ nal $\beta$ o $\lambda \omega \hat{y}$ ，is declinatio，the bending of the head aside to avoid a blow．（In Eur．Iph．T． 1186 v． 1155 Herm．où 8 is rì rîs $\theta e o v ̂$
 followed by Paley，derives it from droeiv evadere，referring to Valckenaer on Hippol．469，and 822．It seems however at least equally probable that the aorist belongs to ixvevect abnuere，opposed to druvevecy anmwere， and that the meaning of the line is＂It was natural，or reasonable，for thee to decline，reject，their offer，els rò rîs $\theta$ eov̂ $\boldsymbol{\gamma}^{\prime}$ ，looking to，in respect of， in regard of，thy duty to the goddess＂．This sense of the word seems to be more in conformity with what precedes；and it occurs again in line 1330 Dind．，with the same sense and derivation， $\mathbf{\ell \xi \in i v e v a ' ~ a ̀ \pi o \sigma r i ̂ v a u , ~}$ beckoned us off，＂gave us a sign to stand aloof＂．）
 Epist．ad Amm．I c．6．He reads dtá ye for dıá re，and dıठacka入ia for sidaoka入ias（six lines below）．

On the defence of Rhetoric，compare Quint．Inst．Orat．II 17；26，seq． （in II 16 he sums up the arguments against the use of it），Isocr．dyrld． § 251 seq．and Id．Nicocles，$\S(1-9$ ，also Gorgias，in Plato＇s dialogue，c．xI 456 a－457 C．On the true office and functions of the orator，Cic．de Orat．I 46，202－a striking passage．Id．de Invent． 13 and 4

8có rel re is answered by the（irregular）correlative $\delta e$ in＂̈rt $\delta e ́$ at the beginning of the next sentence．de Anima II 4，7， 416 a 2－6，oữ （parentic．）．．．трór de roútots．
 intrumfecos，is summed up in two lines of Euripides，Alex．Fragm． 55 （12） Dind．dy фíper．It is to the effect，that truth and right－having a natural superiority over falsehood and wrong，the proper use of Rhetoric is to enable them to assert and enforce that superiority；to bring truth to light，and detect and expose deceit and sophistry．If the opposites of truth and right do ever prevail over these，it must be the fault of the parties concerned








of this powerful instrument. Rhetoric is therefore 'corrective' or 'reImedtat of the perversion of truth and right to which legal decisions are always more or less liable from misrepresentation of facts, fallacious arguments, or the blinding of the judgment by appeals to the feelings.

According to this translation of $8 i^{\prime}$ avirôy, it is correctly and lopically said that it is a consequence (wore) of the natural superiority of truth spd right to their opposites, that if those who have truth-and_xight on their side are defeated, their defeat must be due to themselves, to their ovn neglect of Rhetoric, which would have enabled them to eayfarce this their natyral superiority. Whereas if we follow Victorius (and Spengel who assents to his view, Arist. Ars Rhet. Vol. II p. 26) in explaining $88^{2}$ àjrồ by $8 i^{\prime}$ ivavriov, むore becomes incorrect or meaningless: for there is neither truth nor sense in saying that it follows from the natural superiority of truth and justice that these, in the case of a wrong judgment, are defeated by their opposites; and not only so, but with this interpretation dváyk $\eta$ is also wrong-the consequence, if there


In the Introd. p. 144 note, I have referred to Waitz's note on Anal. Pr. 55 a 14 , who gives examples of avitôy \&c. for the reflexive autêy \&c. The usage is however so constant in Aristotle as hardly to need illus-

 'in their own power'.
spòs ivious] ' in dealing with some'.
dedarranias] de Soph. El. c. 2, 161 6 1, quoted in Introd. p. 75. Genuine and complete instruction' by demonstrative proofs. Top. A c. 14, 105630 ,






iv roís roтuкois] A 2 rol a 30.

 déovrat, ol de $\beta$ las, where in line 20, dлávinots is substituted for furcusts.
 intercourse) ruxuds roîs aúroís. Alex. ad Top. 1. c. drreṽgecs $\lambda$ éret rds










 $\epsilon i$ тẹ̀ $\sigma \omega ́ \mu a \tau \iota ~ \mu e ̀ \nu ~ a i \sigma \chi \rho o ̀ v ~ \mu \eta ̀ ~ \delta u ́ v a \sigma \theta a t ~ \beta o \eta \theta \epsilon i ̂ \nu ~$




ifrouEc is therefore a lighting upon, or, meeting; hence a meeting which leads to a 'conversation'; or, as arising casually out of that, a dialectical'encounter'.




 ol ìvartioc äduxò rt alroûvres toùs duá̧ovtas.

テwis 'Xec]' the true state of the case' (how things really are).
$\lambda$ piesr] solvere, diluere, 'to loose, untie, the knot of a fallacy', or difficulty ; and so to 'solve' as a problem. ì yàp vierepon sinsopia hejots
 Met. B I, 995 a 28. $\lambda$ úrts opposed to \&éers, Poet. c. 18, $\$ \xi_{1}$ 2. On $\lambda \hat{v} \sigma t s$ and $\lambda \dot{v}$ evv see Introd. on II 25, p. 267, note.

 Eth. Nic. I I, 10946 12. тò vimoxeinevoy, 'the logical subject', of which other things are 'predicated', кurryopeîra.. See Waitz, Comm. ad Organ. 1 a 20, Vol. I p. 274 Trendel. El. Log. Ar. § i, note p. 52. Id. Catego rienlehre § 10, p. 53 seq. Bonitz ad Met. z 3, 1028 b 36.
 (EngL. TransL.) § 149, p. 396. Id. not. on Mid. § 7 a, 49 d, 56 d.
 arts and natural gifts, and the answers to the argument from the abuse to the use of them, see Quint. Inst. Orat. II 16, 5, Isocr. $\pi$ epl dertóórecos




 סıкаíws каi $\beta \lambda \alpha ́ \psi \in \epsilon \epsilon \nu$ ádíkcws.



§252, Plato, Gorg. u. s., Bacon, Nov. Org. P 129. Comp. Eth. Nic. III 3


roûró ye knuóv] Ovid. Trist. II 266, Dil prodest quod non laedere possit idem. Schrader.
$\pi \lambda \grave{y} \boldsymbol{y}$ aperîs] Gaisford refers in illustration to Archytas ap. Stob. I p. 15. Xen. Cyrop. Iv 1, 15 - Ph. Meno, 87 E and Isocy. Nicocles, init.
 dcalecruri] See note and reff. on § ip. 3.-
oủ rò reíves ïpyov aùtins к.r. $\lambda$.] on Axistotle's alteration and improvement of the original definition of Rhetoric by the Sophistical school of Rhetoricians, see Introd. D. 32 seq-
T'Non dubium est quin verba illa dirigantur adversus id quod apud

 follows that of Aristotle, de Opat. F 61, 260, accommodäte ad persuadendum posse dicere.

The notion of art, or proceeding by rule of art, gonsists not in the result, or success of the process, which is often unattainable, but in the Correctness of the method followed. Top. Z 12, 1496 25. rotov̂ros ${ }^{\text {f' }}$



 ioriv. The art of doing asything is distinguished from the mere fact that the thing is done (as accidentally for instance), by the intention of the agent systematically carried out, but not necessarily realised in success.

 result of the artistic process), ald' ov rifs émiotinugs. Eth. Nic. III 5, 1112 612.

 «̀dexo


















 т $\dot{\alpha}$ 入oıт́́．

Quint．II 17， 23 seq．Cic．de Inventione 15，6．Bacon，Adv．of learning， Bk．II $\times 2$ ．＇For almost all other arts and sciences are judged by acts or masterpieces，as I may term them，and not by the successes and events．The lawyer is judged by the virtue of his pleading，and not by the issue of the cause．The master in the ship is judged by the directing his course aright，and not by the fortune of the voyage．＇
 connexion are given in the Paraphrase，Introd．p．148，and note 3.

Comp．Met． 1 2， 10046 17，ol yap dea入eктuкol kal бoфиarai．．．d入hd da－





$\pi \lambda \eta_{p}{ }^{2}$ ］＇except that，－only＇，a reservation．Soph．Oed．Col． 1639 （Herm．）， Trach．4r，Arist．Equit．1397，Dem．de Cor．p．281 init．，Arist．An．Pr． II 27， 70 a 29，Top．B 8， 114 a 8，r 4，I19 6 22，© 3， 158 b 37 ；I（de Soph． El．）c．4， 166 a 4，Eth．N．IV 12， 1126 b 27，Polit．II 6， 1266 a 16，Rhet． $112,10$.
$\mu \mathrm{CO}$ ózov］Note on obotroteiv，§ 2.
 start，and so first define it，and then proceed to the rest＇．







 ค̆ $\boldsymbol{\text { п }}$

## CHAP, II.

5 1. On this definition of Rhetoric, see Introd. pp. 33-4; and note on paraphrase, p. 149 : on the other current definitions of it, Ib. pp. 27-36. On Rhetoric as a divapus, Ib. p. 14 seq.

ขшткеірешоу] on II, 12 p. 24 supra.
úpucsóv] Three different senses of this word are distinguished, Top. A


 Bnxóra raf aưrá in Aristotle's terminology, i. e. absolute, necessary conequences (rather than accidents) of the essence or definition of a thing.
 which do not form part of this essence of the subject, or consequently of its definition ; with or without which the essence of the subject, (that which constitutes its being, or makes it to be what it is,) remains the same. The ovpßeßŋкóra caff' avitá are distinguished from the ordinary
 therefore do not enter into the definition, still they are immediately deducible from it, and inseparable from the subject, and are therefore the proper objects of study. They are in fact identifiable with the tola or
 the text are accordingly 'the inseparable properties of magnitudes'; as 'the equality of the interior angles of a triangle to two right angles' is a necessary property of the triangle, though not included in the definition, which is 'a plane figure bounded by three straight lines': still the properry is deducible from the definition, and thus is inseparable from the notion of it : the triangle cannot exist without this property, though it is not of its essence, and therefore not part of the definition. This example is given in de Anima I 1 § 8, 4026 19. See the whole section. And again
 dpoaís ions Execs rds yoollas. See further in Trend. ad de Anima I 1, I, Comm. p. 188 seq. Bonitz ad Metaph. $\Delta$ 30, 1025 a 30. Anal. Post.




On anion see Untrod. p. 114









§ 2. On ìrexpot and ärexvou rícrecs, see Untrod. p. 150 (paraphrase), and on the general subject, analysis of I c. $15, \mathrm{pp}$. 193-207.
roîs $\mu \dot{i} \nu$ xp require only to be employed ; the latter, proofs of all kinds, direct and indirect, $\pi$ forests, $\bar{\eta} \theta o s, \pi \dot{\prime}{ }^{\prime} \theta o s$, must be 'discovered' or 'invented' for this occasion by the speaker himself. Hence the distinction of invention from the other parts of Rhetoric by the Latin Rhetoricians. So Cicero, de Inventione (this title is adopted to represent the whole domain of Rhetoric, because 'invention' or proof of one kind or another is the $\sigma \hat{\omega} \mu a$ Tins $\pi$ boreas, I 183, by far the most prominent and important part of the entire art) vil 9, quare materia quidem nobis rhetorical videtur ea, quam Aristoteli visam esse diximus; partes autem hae quas plerique dixerunt, invention, dispositio, elocutio, memoria, pronunciatio (invention, order and arrangement of parts, style, memory, and delivery including action). Inventio est excogitatio rerum verarum ant veri similium quae causam probabilem reddant \&c. Similarly Quintilian, Inst. Or. 1 12, 4, Quid? nos agendi subita necessitate deprehensi none alia dicimus alia providemus, gum pariter invention rerum, election verborum (style in single words), compositio (combination of words in sentences), gestus, pronunciation, vultus, motusque desiderentur? XII 1, 30, bono nunquam honestus. sermo (style) deficiet, nunquam rerum optimarum inventio.
§ 3. $\pi i \sigma r e \omega \nu$ apia cion] Compare Rhet. III 1, I. This threefold division of rhetorical proofs, due to Aristotle, is recognized by Dionysius,


 Orate. I 19, 87, where only the $\bar{j}$ Hos and $\pi$ a bOos are directly mentioned, but the other, which is absolutely indispensable, must of course be assumed as a third division: by Cicero himself, de Orate. II 27, 115, it omanis ratio dicendi tribus ad persuadendum rebus est nixa; ut probemus vera esse quale defendimus; ut conciliemus nobis eos qui audiunt; ut animos corm ad quemcunque caus postulabit motum vocemus. This is repeated in $\oint \S 121$ and 128 and the $\eta \theta_{o s}$ and $\pi \dot{\theta} \theta_{0}$ described at length in c. 43 and the following. These two latter are again referred to Orat. xXXVII 128; and again in Partitions Oratoriae XIII 46 the three $\pi$ torts are thus ingeniously distinguished in a twofold division. Argumentandi duo


sunt genera, quorum alterum ad fidem directe spectat, alterum se inflectit ad motum. (These are the 'direct' and 'indirect' proofs and arguments.) Dirigitur cum proposuit aliquid quod probaret, sumpsitque ea quibus nitcretur; atque his confirmatis ad propositum se retulit atque conclusit. Illa autem altera argumentatio, quasi retro et contra, prius sumit quae vult eaque confirmat, deinde id quod proponendum fuit permotis animis iacit ad extremum.

Quintilian touches on this subject in many places of his work; the most detailed account of $\dot{j} \theta$ os and $\pi \dot{d} \theta_{0}$ os is given in the second chapter of his sixth book: the description and distinction of them occur in $\$ \S 18$, 19. They are both referred, as subordinate species, to the general head of 'affectus', §8, comp. § 12 ; and these are again distinguished from the direct and logical arguments, 83 . In this and the following section he compares these two classes of arguments together in respect of their rhetorical value and importance, and comes to a conclusion precisely opposite to that of Aristotle. For Aristotle holds that these indirect proofs, though necessary to the orator by reason of
 piav, III 1 §5, and therefore not to be excluded from the theory or practice of Rhetoric, yet are to be regarded as merely auxiliary and subordinate, standing in the same relation to the direct proofs as dress and personal ornaments to the body, serviceable but not essential. Quintilian on the contrary pronounces that these in comparison with the overpowering force of the appeals to the feelings are only not contemptible in respect of their power of persuasion; quos equidem non contemno, sed hactenus wtiles credo ne quid per cos indici sit ignotum; atque ut dicam quod sentio, dignos a quibus causas diserti docerentur § 3: that those that use them therefore are only fit to lay before the judges the facts of the case, not to influence their decision, and to instruct the real advocate, who can sway their minds and feelings at his will, and force them to decide in favour of his client: ubi vero animis indicum vis afferenda est, et ab ipsa veri contemplatione abducenda mens, ibi proprium oratoris opus est § 5.

It may be observed in concluding this note, that there is a somewhat important difference, which I have already pointed out in the Introduction, between Aristotle's view of the use to be made of $\boldsymbol{j 0 o s}$ in the practice of Rhetoric, and that of the Latin Rhetoricians, as well as the author of the Rhet. ad Alex.; see c. 39 (38) 2. Quintilian's auctoritas-and compare Cicero in de Oratore, 11 43-expresses the influence of character upon opinion, in general: but in Anstude's system the fioss means something more; the effect must be prodưced immeatateiy by the speech dei de kal
 cova for $x$ 'youra, Rhet. I 2 , 4 ; and hence it finds a place in Rhetoric.as in Art? whereas in the other view the auctoritas exercised may have been




ently of any artistic or systematic process, in the way of reasoning or proving.
§4. On $\ddagger$ Oos, as auctoritas, see Introd. p. 151 note.
rois $\mathbf{i m c e u x i ́ c t ] ~}^{\text {] }}$ worthy and respectable people'. Eth. Nic. v. 14 sub


 one who has a leaning to the merciful side and of an indulgent disposition, as opposed to one who takes a strict and rigorous view of an offence, puts a harsh construction on men's motives and actions, is inclined to enforce on all occasions the letter of the law. From this, and because we think this the better disposition of the two, Inteuvis is 'transferred' by metaphor (i.e. the $\mu$ eraфopd $\dot{\alpha} \pi \dot{\delta}$ rov cildous $\dot{d \pi} \boldsymbol{i}$ ro yivos, the second of the four species of metaphors, Poet. XXI 7) to the general (or generic) signification of 'good'.
dं $\pi \lambda \lambda_{\text {© }}$ ] has various usages. It may for instance mean ( 1 ) 'simply', opposed to $\sigma 0 v \theta$ écet or кard $\sigma \nu \mu \pi \lambda o к \dot{\eta} v:$ and this appears to be the primary sense of the word, in accordance with the derivation. Thus as the elements of nature are often called $\dot{a} \pi \lambda \hat{a} \sigma \dot{\sigma} \mu a \tau a$ in their simple, uncombined state, so we have $\dot{a} \pi \lambda{ }^{\omega}{ }^{\circ}$ s, de Anima II 14, 8, to denote 'singly, or simply, by itself' (naf \&avríy Themistius), without the admixture of any
 Tîs avi character, it denotes 'simplicify' (of composition), 'singleness' of heart and purpose, as opposed to 'duplicity', (Plat., Rep. III 397 E , ov่ dirinoûs



The commonest signification however is that of (2) simpliciter et sine exceprzone 'generally' or 'universally', as opposed to rat' ixaorov, 'speci-

 in general terms-we must now come to particulars. Hence it signifies

 abundance of examples of this usage. See also Waitz, Comm. on Organ. Vol. I p. 354, who exemplifies it from Aristotle.

From this again may be distinguished a third sense (3), in which it is equivalent to кaf aíróv, and opposed to xpóc.rn. 'the relative'. In

 Soph. El. c. $5,166 b 22$ and 637 , where rò $\dot{\alpha} \pi \lambda \omega \hat{s}$ and $\mu \dot{\lambda} \dot{\alpha} \pi \lambda \omega \hat{s}$ are opposed as the absolute and relative in a paralogism of the substitution of

 1323617 , кal $\dot{a} \pi \lambda \omega \hat{s}$ (absolutely, in itself) кai $\dot{\eta} \mu i \nu$ (relatively to us).









 $\pi \rho o ̀ s$ ò̀ каi $\mu o ́ v o \nu ~ \pi \epsilon є \rho a ̄ \sigma \theta a i ́ ~ ф а \mu \epsilon \nu ~ т \rho а \gamma \mu а т \epsilon \grave{́} \epsilon \sigma \theta a \iota ~$ тoùs vû̀ $\tau \epsilon \chi \nu 0 \lambda$ оуoûvтas. $\pi \epsilon \rho i ̀ ~ \mu \epsilon ̀ \nu ~ o u ̃ v ~ \tau o u ́ \tau \omega \nu ~ \delta \eta-~$


From these three may perhaps be distinguished a fourth sense (4) in which it occurs; for instance, in Met. A 6, 987 a 21, of Ireayópecor... $\lambda$ iay aindês inpayparevengay "treated the subject too simply", i. e. toa carelessig; whthout takitry sufficient pains with it, with insüficient etaboration's ${ }^{4}$ regtigenter', Bonitz ad loc. q. v. On the various modes in which ax $\lambda \omega \bar{s}$ is opposed to the relative and particular see Schrader on $19,17$.
 instrument of persuasion'. On the influence of character on the judgment add to the passages already quoted, Rhet. ad Alex. c. 38 (39), 2, and Isocr. deridoats ss 276-280.

The oratorical artifice here described is well illustrated by Marc Antony's speech in fulius Caesar, Act III Sc. 2, "I come not, friends, to steal away your hearts," \&c.

кupos in this and similar cases seems to derive its meaning from the 'authonity' or 'influence' exercised by any one_or any thing that has the power or doing so, of which general notion it, is s specin application. It corresponds to our's soverefin'ras when me_speak ofa sovereign remedy. Trendelenburg, on de Anima II 5, 7, Comm. p. 368, would connect this signification with the kúpos yópos, 'ratio e iudiciis et foro tracta videtur. kúpos yópos, qui àxíp¢ oppositus est, lex est quae rata viget \&c.-ita hic kúpua ìópara, quatenus eorum auctoritas valet.' This is perhaps unnecessarily narrowing the signification. Other persons and things, besides laws, exercise authority. A good instance of suphos in this general sense, implying superiority, authority, mastery,
 rd $\mathbf{u} d \mathrm{mp}$, where кúpoos may be interpreted 'absolute master', the air and water are not absolute masters of sound: some other conditions are
 áxovecu.




 wiorets or rhetorical proofs, which are conveyed through the channel or medium-(dia-with the genitive) of the speech .These_three are then

 diè rồ $\lambda$ oboov, plainly in the sense of the direct riorets or arguments

 but this, as an unnecessary and unaccountable departure from the con-
 and afterwards did roúroy, seems to be self-condemned.

By these $\lambda$ opone may understand either the actual words which are the instruments or medium of the reasonings, or better the reasonings or arguments themselves which the words convey. This explanation appears to De süfficiently rational and consistent, and in accordance with the ordinary usages of the language. Spengel, however, in his paper über die Rhet. des Arist. (Trans. Bav. Acad. 1851) p. 26, and again in his edition of the Rhetoric, Vol. II p. 46, thinks that the text requires altera-
 which seems to be totally unnecessary. The explanation above given is confirmed by the rendering of the Vetus Translatio 'per orationes autem credimus', where 'orationes' plainly stands for the 'words of the speeches in which these arguments are expressed'.
 lacious branch of Rhetoric, 'the apparent;' uñreal, "sham' arguments, exemplified in II 24, and corfesponding to the spurious branch of Dia-
 The illustration of these is allowed to enter into a scientific treatise only for the purpose of detecting and exposing these fallacies, and enabling the pleader or dialectician to confute them when employed by an
 1, 165 a 21 .
§ 7. drei di al niorets-кal mîs] "seeing then that these are the channels, or modes of communication of rhetorical proofs, it is plain that to grasp, or get possession, or make himself master of them (Aafeiv) is a task for one who has a capacity for logical reasoning, and for the contemplation or study of characters, and thirdly [for the discernment] of the emotions ;-and of the latter, what each is in itself, and what are its qualities and properties (moióy ri), and from what sources (what motives and impulses, ix rivov,) it may be excited, and in what modes ( $\pi \omega \hat{s}$ )."-
 of logic to get hold of them'.

Of these the logical branch belongs to Dialectics, which teaches the habit of reasoning and discussion, the other two to the study of Ethics,






which deals with human beings as individuals, and investigates the fixed habits, virtuous or vicious ( $(\xi \in t s)$, which constitute their characters ( $; \eta \theta_{\eta}$ ), and the moral $\pi a^{\prime} \theta_{\eta}$ or 'emotions', which when developed by exercise, according to the direction which they take, become virtues and vices. The consequence is, むore $\sigma v \mu \beta a i v e t$, that Rhetoric may be considered a scion or offshoot of the study of Dialectics and Ethics, the latter 'which may fairly be called Politics' (because it treats of men in society and

 them in the relation of the offshoot to the parent plant. Sed idem (Aristoteles) et de arte rhetorica tres libros scripsil, et in corum primo non artim solum eam fatetur, sed ei particulam civilitatis sicut dialectices assignat. Quint. Inst. Orat. II 17, 4.
 rhetorical reasoning. But as there the rhetorical niorets are called a kind of 'demonstration, 'a sort of', or subordinate variety of, demonstration in a general sense, so here the syllogistic process is allowed to stand for reasoning in general, to which even rhetorical reasoning, though not syllogistic in the strict sense, but enthymematic, of course belongs.
sapaфvés] which usually appears under the form mapaфvás in Aristotle and Theophrastus, properly denotes either a branch or a separate plant 'growing alongside' of the parent plant, and proceeding either from the stem or the root, as a scton or offshoot. In the latter of these two senses
 фvàs $\bar{\eta}$, though here also the hypothetical éáv admits the other possibility.
 фvieral (grows from the root) kal divaß入aorável. This word and its cognates, парафv́єбӨau, парáфvбıs, ḋтофvás (Hist. An. II 1, 53, de part. An. 1115 § 1,10 § 5,14 § 14 , Theophr. Hist. Plant. I 6, 6, viI 2, 5 and 8,
 his pupil Theophrastus primarily to plants, and by analogy to the corresponding parts of animals.

It occurs again as a metaphor in Eth. Nic. I 4, 1096 a 21, $\pi$ apaфvádı
 stand to 'the relative', ro $\pi$ poós $r t$, in the same relation as parent plant to offshoot. 'Similitudo, explicante Giphanio, a pullis arborum desumta, qui Graecis dicuntur mapaфuádes'. Zell, ad loc. So that Rhetoric is represented by this metaphor as a scion derived from two stocks or plants, Dialectics and Ethics, not identical with either, but with a general or inherited family resemblance to both. (The analogy will not bear





pressing: one does not see, for example, how a young plant can be the scion or offspring of two others, but this general meaning is clear, that it bears a likeness to both, though differing from each of them)
vinodúerau vind ro $\sigma x$ gipal 'creeps under, insinuates itself into, the form or figtre'; 'assumes the mask or disguise of (for the purpose of acting a






ajagonela implies both presumption and imposture; either a character between both and a mixture of both (as Theophrastus' dhafór, 'the breggart', of which Pyrgopolinices in the Miles Gloriosus, Thraso in the Ewnuchus, and Captain Bobadil in Every Man in his Hwmour, are the three types, ancient and modern ; and probably also the Sophistical Rhetoricians here referred to): or again a character in which cither presumption or imposture is characteristic and predominant. For example, the insolent assumption, arrogance, and swagger appear more prominently in this picture of the dhafóy drawn by Xenophon, Cyrop. II
 кal $\pi \lambda$ о
 кal кepdâvau " where in the character of the diagoiv. In Aristotle, Eth. Nic. II 7, IV 13, empty pretension, ostentation and swagger are the leading characteristics of the diafor. The vice is one of the extremes of which diffecea, the social virtue of frankness, sincerity, and plain dealing is the mean, the opposite extreme being cipowia, 'mock' in conversation, Socrates'
 is the mean state. Whereas in Aristophanes it usually represents rather the other side of the character, its quackery and imposture; and drafor is 'a quack or a humbug'. Of course Socrates and his brother Sophists are the great representatives of the class. Nubes 102, 1494, et passim. And this is also the side of the character which is generally uppermost in Plato's view of it. See Rep. vi 486 b, 490 A, viII 560 C, Phaedo 92 D, it
 Platonic opon p. 416, is that of undue pretension, assumption, imposture
 imposture are also predominant in the application of it, Rhet. II 6, in.
 infirmities, imperfections, frailties, miseries, and especially errors to which


入óyous.





d, and from which the divine nature, this conception, is exempt, "The other are any other defects or imperfections ble. Thuc. III 40 drepminimet duaprients,

 10xia est erroribus, Uti apud Latinos secillitatis humanae excusatio' (Heindorf kaì tria nal dodpeiruac ef cefl.). Demosth.
 di rảvop inturn-Id, c. Lept. p. 506, 15 , cot. de Nomine p. 998, saldi yde lowi 7 , kal rod rais dyopenirove ouyprioxerv 31, dudpernuirupov (more hemance) ydp

uy dréxcotas rép deopworion, it has this affarrs, business and enjoyments': with

human soclety or durlis in bineral) Srroúrwy didacmane m.i.d. So Virgil, Jn I 462, swnt lacrimae rerwm; it mewtem mortalia tangwnt: and in the second sense, Ecl. VIII 35, nec curare dewm credis mortalia ywarguan.
38. The eighth and ninth and part of the tenth sections of this chapter are quoted by Dionynius, Ep. ad Amm. I c. 7, from riw dd did to



 Ift for ön ach, further rd omitted before siloor, and yip after matiserp, and lattly deropefar for foropurin.

\&\% rois tankexкois] Dionyain hac dundypurois, which Spengel has introduced into the text, with the remark, certe Aritloteles vid oulentuxg sriptritet (Rhetores Graeci p. 5, Praef. p. 5); and again, wber dif Rhed des Arist. Trans. Bav. Acad. 1851, p. 44, Aristoteles sagt nay bo fī 8uanewruxp, micht dy rois andearmoit ; in reply to which I will merely quote Rhet. II 22, 14, where dy rois sualemumoit again occurs. Even without this evidence









1 putty aws.
I can see no reason why an author who speaks habitually of others of his
 denied that privilege in the special case of the Topics. Nor do I see why the single testimony of Dionysius should override the authority of all the Aristotelian mSS. I have therefore retained the old reading.







 unmistakeably to the opening words of the Anal. Post, an additional evidence, against Brandis (see the succeeding note), that the reference in ix räy àvadurukêy is either directly and exclusively to this passage of the Analytics or at any rate includes it with the others.
in ivrcuouv] is rejected by Spengel on the authority of Dionysius, who omits it and against that of the Aristotelian mSS, which, as appears from Becker's revision, all agree in retaining it. It is not merely perfectly intelligible, and absolutely unexceptionable on all critical grounds, but when compared with the commencement of the Anal. Post., to which reference is immediately after made, it seems to tally so precisely with what is there stated, that it might almost be regarded as a necessary addition. In the passage of the Analytics we are told that every kind of instruction and learning, proof scientific and popular, mathematical or dialectical knowledge, is conveyed by way of syllogism or induction :

 a statement with which the $\bar{\eta} \dot{j}$ óruvoùy of the Rhetoric seems to correspond to a nicety. And for the same reason I hold that this passage is referred to in ink rôv àva入urıк凶ิv, as well as Anal. Pr. II 23, 68 6 9, (quoted in the preceding note,) and the continuation of the subject there suggested in chapters 24 and 27 , (which contain the logical description of induction and example, and the enthymeme), though Brandis, in his tract on the Rhetoric in Schneidewin's Philologus IV 1, p. 24, would confine the reference to the latter passage.





 о́ $\mu \mathbf{i} \omega \nu$ deík






${ }^{1}$ дrcoûy ทi derwoû.
 p. 154, and note on II 25, 3 , in this Commentary. The reference to the Topics there made is precisely similar to this : that is, it is made to the work in general and its contents, and not to any particular passage : what is stated here may be gathered or inferred from the Topics.

 нarixiv) has good in it', that each of them has its own particular virtue and excellence, or advantage. Buhle construes the words ro eldos rîs
 memate et exemplo. (He takes rò eloos tîs $\dot{\rho}$. for a mere periphrasis. So in fact it does occur in Pol I 4, 12536 28, dv ipyávov eidec "in the shape of an instrument", de gen. et corr. I 3, 10, iv vilys eidec-but allos in this usage does not seem to admit the definite article.) We have a
 kal èxoūty dyäòv roûro, ötc к.т. $\lambda$.
dv roîs $\mu$ e日oduois] 'Scheint eine mittelstellung swischen analytik und dialektik eingenommen su haben', Brandis, u.s. p. 13. The work is mentioned twice by Dionysius, Ep. ad Amm. I cc. 6 and 8, each time in company with Analytics and Topics. From this circumstance and from the reference here, it is natural to conclude that its subject was connected in some way with Logic. Diogenes Laert. $V$ 1, 23, includes in his list of Aristotle's writings $\mu$ OOodka in eight books, and § 25,
 the Thetorical "works. It appears also in the list of the 'Anonymous' author of the life of Aristotle (in Buhle, Vol. 1 p. 62), again in near
 Hesychius Milesius in his life of Aristotle (Buhle, Vol. I p. 72), describes





 cumopriv : classing it, like Dionysius and Diogenes, with the Topics and Analytics, the latter $8 f$ which is mentioned immediately after. Simplicius ad Categ. fol 7 a (quoted by Buhle) speaks of it as one of Aristotle's

 Brandis, uss., adds a reference to the School. in Arist. p. 47 b 40.
pipropeiau] 'rhetorical exhibitions or displays' Probl. xviII 3. The word. is a rare one, and as-diotinguished from onropung denotes rather the practice and results of Rhetoric; speaking and speeches, than the system and theory of it as embodied in the 'art'. It is found in Plato, Polit. 304 A, where Stall baum notes, 'vax $\dot{\text { ṕntopela a Patine ficta videtur ut tars }}$ oratoria nobilior et generosior distingueretur a varia ill $\dot{\rho} \eta r o p u k \hat{y}$ cuius nomen profanaverant qui ad explendas suss cupiditates abusi erant.' The fact, that the word was a Platonic invention, and the ground assigned for the distinction, seem equally unauthenticated. It occurs also in Isocrates, nard rôy Zoфuorîy § 21 , for 'the practice of rhetoric' in general, also Panath. § 2, Phil. § 26 ; and amongst the later writers, in Plutarch and Lucian : 户́ $\eta$ ropevect, in Plato, Isocrates, and Rhet. ad Alex. 36 (37), 35.
witavol mev oivwoi ivtupquaruxol] Anal. Pr. II 23, ult. фviget min ouse
 id du Tins ímayoypfs. The objects of sense and observation from which we derive our inductions and examples are 'nearer to us', more readily apprehensible by us, than the universals of the syllogism: and therefore,

 oruкdrepov kail тро̀s roìs àrriloyukoùs ivepréorepoy, 'induction is a mode of reasoning which is clearer (to us) and more persuasive, because its materials are better known to us', the example must be familiar and well known or it will not produce its effect in the way of proof; also some kind of induccion is constantly used by every one, rois mod and enthymeme are more 'cogent' and 'effective' against an adversary in a debate, and are therefore 'more applauded', $\theta$ opußoûvrat $\delta \dot{\text { e }} \mu \hat{a} \lambda \lambda \frac{1}{}$ of induцпиатикol.

There is no real contradiction between what is here said and in Probl. xviiI 3. In the Problem the question is why people in general are better pleased with examples than with enthymemes, the fact being assumed. The answer is, that they learn more from them, and are therefore more amused, and the facts which are adduced by way of exapples are more familiar and interesting; the enthymeme (as the syllogism in the Topics) proceeds from universals, which we are less acquainted with than with particulars. Consequently, examples are more pleasing and therefore plausible (x. $\theta$ ava), whilst the conclusive


 $\tau \omega \nu ~ \mu a ̄ \lambda \lambda o \nu ~ \delta ı о \rho i ́ \sigma \omega \mu \epsilon \nu ~ к а Ө a \rho \bar{\omega}$.









 argument, the enthymeme which leaves the adversary without reply, is more striking, and therefore more applauded.

Oopußeiodau, 'to be applauded', is a regular formation of the passive. For although the usual construction of oopvßeir is with ini and the dative, many examples of the transitive use of it are found. See the examples of both, and of the passive, in Ast's Lex. Plat. Isocr. Panath.

 quoted in Introd. p. 155.

S II. dpoûmev viorepov] II chapters 20-24
$\pi$ reanóy] 'plausible', that which readily persuades; $\pi$ roróv, 'credible', that which is to be relied on ; the latter represents the higher degree of


Tine connexion of the argument of this section is given in the paraphrase, Introduction p. 155.

Art and science deal with universals, art prescribes rules for classes, not individuals; practice, immetpia, follows the opposite method. Rhet.















 каì év тoîs toıoútoıs ảкроатаîs oĭ oủ dúvavtaı סıà mo入-p. \&
 ${ }^{1}$ guvopq̊y infra.
 ${ }^{1} 3$, quoted in Introd. p. 156, note.
 taken at random, any chance propositions'. So Rhet. I 5, II, dià rò $\mu \boldsymbol{r}$
 proper case after the verb to that of its antecedent, see Matth. Gr. Gr. §473, and note on Rhet. I 5, 1 I.
§ 12. rd "pyov. aviriss] The proper office, the special funct:on, business, 'work', tpyoy, of Rhetoric, is exercised in such things as we are obliged to take advice about, where there are no definite rules of art ready laid down to guide us.

The toyou of anything is that which it is specially appointed (by nature) 20 do, ite-proper special work. It is in the execution, the carrying out or fulfilment of this $\mathbf{z}^{p}$ yov, that this dperi, this special excellence of everything, resides. Nature always works intelligently with a purpose in view, rpòs reגos $\pi$,h everything has its own special ipyov. This is especially manifest in all 'instruments', ofpyava (things in which the purpose is apparent); as of an axe or knife the office or purpose is to cut (large and small things', of a horse to run, of an eye to see, of the mind to think, and so on ; and the purpose or office being the same in kind and differing only in degree, in doing a thing at all and in doing it well, the deerí is shewn in and measured by the performance of this special work; sharpness in the knife to cut well, swiftness in the horse to run well, is the due fulfilment of its ipyov. Eth. N. vi 2, II 39 a 16 , $\boldsymbol{j}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{d}^{\circ}$
 Rep. I 352 E seq. and borrowed by Aristotle, Eth. Nic. I 6, and 11 5, where the theory of moral virtue is based upon it. Hence Pol. 12,1253

 ioti ris xpinots in épyov, which is there illustrated at length.
 along the line, of many steps of proof or syllogisms', 'to take in a long chain of arguments at one view'.
 ouvopăy, to deduce or string together syllogisms in a chain from a long way off or back, 'to string together a long chain of connected syllogisms'. With $\pi \dot{o} \rho \dot{\rho} \oplus \dot{\rho}^{\circ} \theta \in \nu$ here, compare the similar use of it in II 22, 3, and Top.










 and oos ${ }^{2} \chi$ cuv．We deliberate and act only in cases where the event or issue is uncertain（may be in either of two ways，d $\mu \phi$ orípos）；where the event is necessarily this or that，i．e．certainly one way，and not the other， or where it is not in our own power，where we have no control over it，no one either deliberates whether or no anything is to be done or tries to do
 anders ${ }^{1} \times \iota \nu$ ，things contingent and uncertain in their issue；opposed to
 only in one way，which have only one possible issue，and cannot be in one way or another，indifferently．
oviroos viro入außávon］＇on that supposition＇，i．e．if he actually supposes them to be necessary and unalterable：because it is possible that he may have deliberated or even attempted in action things which he did not know were beyond his control，in mere ignorance．
avidey $\pi \lambda$ éov］＇there is nothing to be gained by it，no advantage in it＇． Valckenaer，Diatr．in Eur．Fragm．p．150（156），supplies numerous examples． In three MSS（Bekker）the words ovidiv rap $\pi \lambda e o v$ are followed immedi－ ately by ì oüras indéxeras oumßovicúetv．They were first omitted by Bekker，though previously suspected by Muretus．The origin of this interpolation，for such it seems to be，may be thus accounted for．The words $\sigma v \lambda \lambda o y i \zeta c \sigma \theta a t$ and $\sigma v y a ́ y e c v$ being very nearly synonymous，some one may have added in the margin $\boldsymbol{\eta}$ ovícos ivoíxerat dè oumßoviev́eo－ meaning that we might read ourßounevicus in place of $\sigma 0 \lambda \lambda$ oyi§codac to avoid the tautology，$\sigma u \mu \beta$ ovicivety referring to the deliberative branch of Rhetoric，or public speaking：$\hat{\eta}$ oviroc，＇or thus＇，merely expressing the possibility of a various reading，ievéx erau de $\sigma u \mu \beta$ ovicúev．The essential stop after oíros was then omitted or overlooked，and the words finally introduced into the text as an appendage to $\pi \lambda^{i}$ oy，with the sense，as rendered by Gaisford，＇nihil enim amplius profici potest，quam quod sic deliberatur：i．e．incassum enim instituitur ista（altera）consultatio＇．
§ 13．ouváyeuv，（ratione）colligere．Rhet．II 22， 3 and 15．The oiv in words of this kind，which denote a process of reasoning or understand－
 Scodat itself，denotes the bringing of things together in the mind for the purpose of comparison，upon which either a judgment is founded and a conclusion drawn，or the understanding itself developed or enlightened． oundyeuv and $\sigma v \lambda \lambda o \gamma i \zeta \in \sigma \theta a t$ are found again together as synonyms，Met．
 тò кeфá入aıov rềos ìmırı日ívat．













 syllogisms', which serve as major premisses to new syllogisms, and so on through the entire chain of demonstration.
dmious] 'a simple, uncultivated person', Germ. einfach. This use of the word belongs to the first of the three varieties abovè distinguished (note on dimecos, § 4 p. 30). It is opposed here rather to the 'complications' of an advanced stage of civilization and refinement, than to duplicity of character, and expresses 'an elementary state of cultivation'. Similarly
 kovis 'rude and barbarous.
inAj $\mu \eta \mu a-\pi а р a ́ d e \gamma \mu a]$ On enthymeme and example see Introd. pp. 99-108.




 II 2I, 6.
 ind́ßovieve k.r.i. and c. 1 § 13.

Aepocis'] the type of an Olympic victor; son of Diagoras of Rhodes, to whom Pindar's seventh Olympian ode is inscribed. See Introt. p. 158, note I .
oreфavitpy dy $\left.{ }^{2} \nu a\right]$ This is the title distinctive of the four great games, of which honour was in reality the prize, the garland being merely a symbol or external sign. They were hereby distinguished from dyowes xppuarirau or dopypirau (Plut.) in which the prize was money, and in wnich therefore mercenary motives might possibly enter into the competition. Pausanias X 7, 3 tells us that it was not till the 2nd Pythiad that the Pythian games became an dydv oreфoxifrys. Add to the instances












from Xen. Mem., Demosth., and Lycurg., Aesch. c. Ctes. § 179, and Isocr. Antid. § 301, roùs donjrès rovs ìv roîs ore申aviraus àyoiot vucôrras.


 or 'equivalent' of a cognate accusative. Jelf, Gr. Gr. $\$ 564$.
§ 14. A summary repetition of the contents of the following sections, 14-19, is given in the chapter on $\lambda \dot{\sigma} \sigma t s$, II $25,8-9$.


'riexqueva] 'things possible', as opposed to things necessary, not here to things zmporsible. On dióxer duwarby in Äristotle, see Waitz on Anal. Pr. I 3, 25 a 37, (Vol. I p. 375 seq.) and Bonitz on Metaph. $\Theta$ 3, 1047 a 26, p. 387. \$vearóy according to Waits where the two are distinguished, expresses physical, poexpuevon logical, possibility: the latter implies the possible truth of an assertion, viz. Wat wherwe 火essert anything we do not contradict ourselves. ivde$x^{\text {opeva }}$ are therefore here 'possibilities' as opposed to certainties; things and events which are only conceived as possible, which may be in one way or in another. In the ordinary language ivoéxcodat and indexópevov
 something similar, added to them in the way of a definition or limitation. With the absolute use of it in this passage (and the general sense in which it appears in Waitz's and Bonitz's Commentaries) comp. 14, 3,







 $\mu \eta \dot{\eta} \mu \tau \alpha$ є́ $\xi$ єiкóт $\omega \nu$ каi $\sigma \eta \mu \epsilon i ́ \omega \nu, ~ \ddot{\sigma} \sigma \tau \epsilon \dot{\alpha} \nu \alpha ́ \gamma \kappa \eta ~ \tau о и ́ \tau \omega \nu$














 indexomévay. Anal. Pr. I 13, $32 b 4$, where two kinds of possibility, to è ivde-
 nary uniformity makes a near approach to the necessary, and the other, the indefinite, the purely accidental, rò àm rúx $\begin{aligned} \\ \text { s, in which there is no }\end{aligned}$ natural order at all.
 the materials of enthymemes, the propositions or premisses of which they are constructed, though they may be necessary, are most of them no more than probabilities, or things that usually happen'. [On mév-dé, see the references above given in note on 1 § 12 p. 24]
 rapaঠ̈eiүнara are added. Anal. Pr. II 27, 70 a 10.

On elkóra and $\sigma \eta \mu e i a$, Introd. p. 160-163. The meaning and connexion of the following sections on the rhetorical instruments of proof are explained in full detail in the paraphrase, to which the reader is referred (Introd. p. 163-168).
 and note I .


 quam mox commemorat Aristoteles, non erat ab Homeri dialecto diversa.












 1 пทevatiq̣v infra.
Vide Il. N. 20. Od. 8. 373, et alibi. Homeric carmina ea aetate qua visit Aristoteles proper vetustatem apud vulgus obscuriora fuisse aliunde
 sex: Olympiade amen clii qua orationem c. Aristocratem habit Demosthenes, ea Athenis prorsus obsoleverat. Dignus est Demosthenis locus quit hic proponatur. Vetarat scilicet antiqua lex roil avopoopóvovs


 Adeo universe verum est quod de Homeri tantum geographia scripsit

 Gaisford.
§ 18. rò dé, oioy ell res...àayкaîov.] The auctor ad Heren. II 25, 39, gives two 'signs' of an opposite, fallacious, or refutable character, derived from the same sources, Necesse est quoniam pallet aegrotasse: ant, necase est peperisse, quoniam sustinet puerum infantem. These illustrations had doubtless become traditional, and commonplaces in the rhetorcal books.
nvevorầ] 'to have an affection or disease of the breath'. A large class of verbs in and and are either desiderative (like those in eave and in Latin in urio) or expressive of an affection, usually some form of disease; the latter can be extended to a 'mental' affection. Jell, Gr. Gr. § 330, Obs. 3 e and Obs. 4 , would separate these into two classes ( 1 ) desideratives in an and cam, and (2) verbs in caw, which express a state of sickness [Kühner's Ausfïhrliche Grammatik § 328. 8]. Buttmann also in his Gr. Gr. § 119 and p. 294 (Engl. TransL) assumes a distinction between some varieties of them, which is not very clearly made out. They fall under three heads, first desideratives, second imitatives (as

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rupamquv, to play the tyrant); "but," he adds, "it is improper to rank
 the same class (as the imitatives);" these belong rather to a preceding division, viz. verbs in aw formed from nouns, "and expressing, chiefly, the
 roăp, roג $\mu \bar{q}$, ."

A much better and more exact account of these forms of verbs, in respect of the connexion and distinction of their senses, is to be found in Lobeck's learned note on Phrynichus, p. 79-83. "Verbs in $\hat{\varphi} \nu$ and $\dot{\mu}, \overline{, n}$ (this is not true of all these verbs and requires qualification; dapqu, yectrî̀, sepâ, for instance, can hardly be said to denote cither a bodily, or mental affection. It should be "some verbs" or "a large class of verbs in $a^{\omega}$ ") "in both forms, are properly used of affections of mind and

 have either of these terminations) express some affections of the mind, either as a malady, a longing, or in some other form." This is an amplification of what Lobeck actually says: and it is also I think implied that the bodily affection is the primary signification, which is extended by metaphor to the mental A long list of examples is there given, chiefly of rarer words. I have collected some examples from various Greek writers, which, as most of them do not appear in Lobeck's list, or in the grammars, I will here add.

In Aristophanes, as was to be expected, they most abound. odoan-行 Ran .192, ,
 rurụ̂p (quoted by Schol. on Ran. 965, Xen. Anab. vii c. 33, Dem. de F.L. § 337 "to have an itch or mania for commanding an army"), supuriquy


 ad Phil L. c., बavarầ (to long for death) Plut. Phaed. 64 B, yautiồ Theaet.
 Eccles. 919), rodaypap Alcib. II 139 E, 140 A. In Aristotle we have orovdapxapy (to be infected with the disease of office-hunting), Pol. viII (v) 5 sub fin., dyourqu, of mental distress or anxiety, Rhet. I 9, 2I. Many in
 implying a sexual impulse, Hist. An. VI 18 §§ $12,14,17$, VI 20,4 ; xodayp̣̣̂
 ib. $\mathbf{v}$ 20, 5 , $\sigma$ т $\rho$ appovpıй (also Arist. Thesm. 616, Plat. Legg. XI 2, 916 A,


 mגáruv), " бoi $\partial \dot{\gamma} \gamma$ revpavvǘvu". (If this is the passage referred to by Buttm. in quoting the verb ruparvịy in his Grammar, above cited-no reference is given-he is wrong both in attributing to it the sense of "imitation", and in assigning it to a separate class.)
$\kappa \alpha i ̀ \pi \in \rho i ̀ \tau о u ́ \tau \omega \nu, ~ к \alpha i ~ \delta \iota a ̀ ~ \tau i ́ \nu ’ ~ \alpha i \tau i a \nu ~ \tau a ̀ ~ \mu \epsilon ̀ \nu ~ a ́ \sigma v \lambda-~$












${ }_{6}$ roîs deadurinoís] Anal. Pr. 1127.
§ 19. ä $\mu \phi \infty$ i.] This union of neuter dual with verb singular, following the analogy of neuter plural in the same construction, is illustrated in Jelf, Gr. Gr. § 384, Obs. 1. [Kühner's Ausf. Gram. §364]
 Dionysius actually succeeded in obtaining his body-guard ( 496 B.C.) contrary to the wishes of the majority of the Syracusan citizens is related by Diodorus, xIII 95. See Grote, Hist. Gr. Vol. x. p. 610-614. Aristotle again refers to the attempt, Pol. III 15 ult. On the similar, and equally successful attempt of Pisistratus, Grote, H. G. Vol. III p. 208, 209. This occurred at his first usurpation of government B.C. 560. (Grote, Clinforr) Theagenes of Megara (Grote, H. G. Vol. III p. 59,60) is mentioned by Aristotle, Pol. viII (v) 5 sub fin., together with Pisistratus and Dionysius, as one of those who had succeeded in making themselves tyrants of their native countries, by imposing upon the popular party; Aristotle notices the stratagem by which he effected his purpose (rầ evinópon rd
 1 126, mentions him as having assisted Cylon in the attempt which he also made on the tyranny at Athens; Herod. v. 71. Cylon was his son-in-law, Thuc. u.s. Cylon's attempt was made in 620 B.C. (Clint. F. H. sub anno), and Theagenes kar' íkeivoy ròy xpóvoy drupavecúat Mryápary (Thuc.). Cylon's attempt (and consequently the tyranny of Theagenes) took place, says Herodotus u.s., "before the age of Pisistratus." Theagenes was contemporary with Periander of Corinth, whose reign lasted from B.C. 625-585 (Grote u.s. p. 58).
 тò то入uөpù入
 BonOós. Herod. 1 59, of Pisistratus. Infr. ad 18,4

 филакウ̀̀ aitcí．









 which stand to the species or individuals subordinate to each respec－ tively，in the relation of universal to particular．ro kaOódov is that which is universally predicable，or predicable of every member of a class．




 rós re vimápxp kal кaf＇avird kal ì av̉ró（see Waitz，Comm．p．315），of which the triangle is given as an exemplification，as the universal notion of all three－sided figures；applicable to any one of them，rò ruxón，and $\pi \rho \omega \hat{-}$ rov，the highest or primary conception of triangles（the loorke入 és，for ex－

 valent to the fivos under which all the species and individuals of the entire class are included，：kard̀ $\pi$ rárcoy karnpopsiral，and is opposed to nat Iraoroy and kard $\mu$ épos．
§ 20 ．катє $\lambda$ ддиц́nas］＇fixed，established，settled＇．кgra入apßánety is ＇to lay hold of，to get into one＇s possession＇，or＇to occupy＇，as an army occupies a conquered city or country．See the Lexicon for examples of this，the primary sense of the word．Thence it passes into the significa－ tion of＇binding＇as by an oath，Herod．IX．106，ォlotı te кata入aßóvres nal
 $\lambda \eta \mu \mu$ évas（settled or concluded，＇confirmed＇，SchoI．Tō̃̄upás）viII 63，3，rà
 or confirmed their interest in the army，Arnold）．Plat．Legg．vil 23， 823 A，












rov̀s axpoarás] should be omitted, with Muretus, Vater, and Spengel. The 'oversight' in question applies only to the rhetoricians, not to the audience.

 according to the 'appropriate method', the more they pass out of, or stray beyond, transgress the limits of, the true province of Rhetoric". катà тоо́тоу is equivalentor nearly so to deórcos, 'duly', 'in the right and proper way';
 Schol. ad Theaet. 143 C. Gaisford from Steph. Thesaurus supplies examples from Plato and Isocrates, and others will be found in Stallbaum's note on Rep. v 16, 470 B. סfóvros itself appears in three mss after rpórov, being doubtless, as Gaisford supposes, a gloss on the preceding. I have followed Mr Poste, Introd. to Transl. of Post. Anal. p. 20, n. 3, in translating kard тpómoy, 'the appropriate method', 'in the right way, or in due order', and it may very well bear that meaning. It will therefore be equivalent to кarà $\operatorname{rìv}$ oikeiay $\mu^{\prime} \theta_{0} \delta_{o v}$, the method which confines itself to the peculiar principles, the idiat or oikciat doxai, of the special science which it investigates. رäג入oy dimтónevot кarà тpónoy is equivalent to, and explained by,
 § 21 ; and the $\begin{gathered}\text { ap } \bar{x} a i t, ~ w h i c h ~ a r e ~ s p o k e n ~ o f ~ i m m e d i a t e l y ~ a f t e r w a r d s, ~ a ̀ v ~ y a ̀ ~ \\ p\end{gathered}$ drvíx d $\rho$ xais, are the $\boldsymbol{i d r a s}$ ápxai, the special principles of each particular science above mentioned. Dialectics and Rhetoric have no such special principles, and their method is the 'inappropriate'. Gaisford follows Muretus in inserting $\dagger$ before кarà tpónon 'by handling them too properly'. The other interpretation seems preferable in itself, and requires no alteration. लeraßaivecv is $\mu$ eraßaivecv eis ä $\lambda \lambda$ do yévos, technically used of passing from one science to another, and illicitly transferring its appropriate principles. Comp. 14, 6. See Poste, u.s. p. 51, note 1, for examples from the Organon. Add Top. $\Theta$ 11, 161 a 33. Anal. Post. 17 treats of this subject.

On кovval and oikeia dpxai see Introd. p. 73 note and the references there given.
 apply the term 'the rónot', par excellence; the кovol rónot, namely. Sec below, § 22 ; and for this treatment of them, il 19.
AR. I.















[^0]
## PHTOPIKHE A 3 § 1.













 (ie. rề eidôy) locorumque differentia sit, quantam ipse supra demonstravit: ut scilicet illae fraud dialectics et oratori, non recte usurpatae ab isis, esse possint, loci nullum tale periculum secum portent : aliaque etiam discriming sins, affirmant oportere distinguere enthymematum species appellatas ab his qui loci vocantur, ex quibus ill ipsa promuntur: ut in Topicis factum est, ta etiam in his quit oratorem instruunt libris.' Victorius. 'We must here also, as well as in Dialectics, carefully distinguish the sources and materials ( $\delta \xi \delta \nu \eta \pi r i o v)$ from which the special and the general topics are to be derived'.
«póraous, a logical or rhetorical premiss or proposition, in syllogism or enthymeme : proposition praemissa; esse anim tiporaviv. (Top. $\theta$ i,
 constituere unde conclusio efficiatur.' Trendel. El. Log. Arista. § 2, p. 53.
rd oroxxica] On oroxcica, 'the elements' of rhetorical reasoning, see Introd. p. 127. Add to the illustrations there given Rhet. ad Alex. c. 36 (37) 9, oroxxcia mound card $\pi d o r e v$, apparently in this sense.

## CHAP. III.

 is, as we learn from Quintilian, II 21, 23, III 4, 1 , and 7,1 , due to Aristotle : Anaximenes, his predecessor, had admitted only two genera, with seven species subordinate to these, III 4,9 .

Almost all writers (probe omnes) on the subject, subsequent to Aristotle, had accepted his division, as proceeding from the 'highest authority' (utique summat apud antiques auctoritatis) mil 4, 1. Quintilian in this fourth chapter mentions, besides Aristotle's division, those which were adopted by Anaximenes, Protagoras, Plato (in the Sophist), and Isocrates. He decides in favour of Aristotle's, as the safest to follow, both because the preponderance of authority is on its side, and also because it is the most reasonable.







 'audience' is made for the purpose of determining the divisions of Retoric; because, the audience being the end and object of the speech, that to which every speech is ultimately referred, and everything being defined or determined by its end (rios, Eth. Nit. III Io, 1115 63), the number of the varieties of audiences must fix the number of the divisions or branches of Rhetoric. Audiences are of two kinds ; either mere ' spectaters', like the $\theta$ carat in a theatre, at the games, or in any exhibition where amusement is the object, or at all events where there is no interest of a practical character or tendency'; or else 'judges', where some real interest is at stake, and they are called upon to pronounce a decision (pars negotialis, pay $\mu a r u o f$ Quint.). But these decisions, and those who pronounce them, again fall into two classes, according as they are referred to questions, ( 1 ) of political expediency and look to the future, or (2) of right or wrong in respect of past acts or facts.

So that we have three kinds of audiences, and consequently three branches of Rhetoric. The public or national assembly, to which the deliberative kind of rhetoric is addressed ; the law-courts and their 'judges', properly so called, the object of the forensic or judicial branch of the art ; and thirdly the 'spectators', those who go to be amused or interested by the show-speeches, or imedelfas, the Panegyrics (in two senses), funeral orations, burlesques, or whatever other form may be taken by speeches composed merely to display skill in composition without practical interest (where the divapus, the faculty, or skill shewn, is only in question) ; or, if they please, to criticise them, and so become 'critics'.

The term kpirins, 'judge', which belongs properly only to the second of the three branches, may also be extended to the other two, since they all have to 'decide' in some sense, to choose between opposite views, either on questions of expediency in matters of state, or right and wrong in legal questions, or the merits of a composition as 'critics'. Comp. II 18, I, III 12, 5, and also Rhet. at Alex c.- 18 (ry), 14, where (comp. § 10) kporai seems to be used in this general sense for all kinds of dkpoarai.

 к.т. $\lambda$. "You go to the public assembly as you go to the theatre, merely in quest of intellectual excitement. You go as $\theta$ earal or $\theta$ ecol, that is, merely for your amusement ; and not as spiral, that is, carefully weighing the matter of what is said, in order to adopt it in your practice or reject it." Arnold.
















§3. ítcòeneкór]' 'ea quac constat laude ac vituperatione. Quod genus videtur Aristoteles, atque eum secutus Theophrastus, a parte negotiali, hoc est праүнатмпิ, removisse, totamque ad solos anditores relegasse; et id cius nominis, quod ab ostentatione ducitur, proprixm est.' Quint. III 7, I.



ітогерокой»] Append. [Tbis Appendix was apparently never written. s.]
 out, Introd. p. 120, that Demosthenes adds rè $\pi$ rapóv, 'present time', to the 'future' of Aristotle, as characteristic of the deliberative branch of Rhetoric; and Aristotie himself, in two subsequent passages of this treatise, 16 § 1 , and $8 \$ 7$.

кupcóíaros] On kúpros, in its secondary and metaphorical application, see note on I II §4. The kind of 'authority' which this 'present time' is here said to carry with it in the epideictic branch is, that it has of all the three the best right to be there ; that it is most 'proper' or appropriate in that place. It has here very much the same sense as in the phrases кupia ${ }^{\prime} \mu i ́ \rho a, ~ к u p l a ~ i x \kappa \lambda \eta \sigma i a, ~ a ~ d a y ~ o r ~ a s s e m b l y ~ w h i c h ~ h a s ~ a ~ s p e c i a l ~ a u t h o-~$ rity, as 'fixed' and 'appointed' for a certain purpose; opposed to all ordinary days, and irregular assemblies, which are oóyrijron, called together at a moment's notice on special emergencies.
 participles, instead of following the principal verb in the dative.
$\pi \rho o e$ uxálovers] 'with, in the way of, an anticipatory guess or presentiment', of future honours and distinctions of the subject of the encomium.












 verbesserung as xciponos findet cinige bestaitigung in den ungrammatischen worten der paraphrase: ¿iлогрéret di tî xelpow' (Brandis, ap. Schneid. Philol. p. 45). This alteration seems to me to be totally unnecessary. It is true that the ordinary construction of the verb in the sense here intended is d彳orpéretv ruxé ramos, or dino ramos, as § 6, 'to divert or dissuade some one from something'. But it is plain it can equally well be adapted to the other form of expression adopted here, 'to divert the thing from the person-in the way of dissuasion-to turn it away from him, as (being) worse', i.e. 'to dissuade him from it (as the Greeks as well as ourselves usually say) as the less expedient course'. An author like Aristotle, always regardless of the ordinary usages of language, may very well be allowed such a liberty of expression. If, however, this be still objected to, we may, without alteration of the text-to be admitted I think, as a general rule, only as a last resource-understand dis xcipoy as an absolute case, nomin. or accuse., od de drorpémery es xcipoy (öv rt),

spots roûro] 'with a view to, with reference to, this'; all the rest (rd $\left.{ }^{\mathbf{a}} \lambda \lambda a\right)$ as supplementary and subordinate to this.
 subordinate_and subsidiary, to his main purpose'; de Anima A 2, 1, rds

 Ib. 84 D, Leach. 179 e. Spengel ad Rhet. ad Alex. Xxv 8; p. 192.

imavadépovat] 'reefer' (d̀vaфípelv) 'to' (inti).

 and Lawyers), comp. 113, 9; III 15, 2; 16, 6; 17, 1, and Introd. p. 397, Append. E to Bk. III.
 $\epsilon \nu \tau \alpha l$, $\omega$ s $\delta \dot{\epsilon} \dot{\alpha} \dot{\alpha} \sigma v_{\mu} \phi о \rho a \quad \sigma \nu \mu \beta o v \lambda \epsilon u ́ o v \sigma \iota \nu \hat{\eta} \alpha^{\prime} \pi^{\prime} \dot{\omega} \phi \epsilon-$











 $\phi \rho o u r i \zeta o v \sigma c y$. On the necessary limitation and qualification of this position of Aristotle, see Introd. p. 170.
 people, iv inaive ri $\eta_{\eta} \sigma \omega$, for this kind of disinterested policy, in a passage

 "Eктора, $\mu$ गे тои





 (Hom. II. $\Sigma 98$ et infra aùrika reӨvaín k.r.ג. v. 104) ì dè raûr' ákov́бas к.r.ג. comp. Il. I 410 seq. Aeschines likewise, c. Timarch. §§ 145, 150 , refers to (in the one) and quotes (in the other) this same passage of Hom. Il. 2. u. s., but with a totally different purpose.




§ 7. The argument of this and the two following sections of this chapter will be found in a more connected shape in the paraphrase of the Introd. pp. 171-2. The sum of it is simply this : each of the two kinds of rónot is equally necessary in all the three branches of Rhetoric;
 premisses, the eixóra, onueia, and тeкцipla are necessarily derived, § 7 : and (2) the four nowol rómoи, here apparently reduced to three, the possible











 тоитєs каi àтотрє́тоутєs каi катทүоройитеs каi








and impossible', 'fact past and future', and 'the great and small (the topic of magnitude or importance) either ( 1 ) absolute or (2) comparative (degree)'. §§ 8, 9.
§ 9. סuxalouna] is used here and in c. 13 Ss 1,3 , as the opposite to doiк₹ $\mu$ a, in the sense of 'an act of justice'. So Eth. Nic. V Io, 1135 a 8,




 it is used in its ordinary acceptation as 'a just act', $=8$ oxacorpáyqua, and contrasted with $\dot{d} \delta \kappa \bar{n} \mu a$, and afterwards distinguished from it in the more correct sense of 'a rectification of an act of injustice'. It is in this
 máros d́фeiode, 'all other penalties', which are as it were 'amendments of a wrong or injustice'. In Thuc. 141 init. it stands for 'just claims', 'rechtsgrïnde', Poppo ; rechtsanspruch', Heitz, l. c. In Arist. de Caelo,



 $\delta \dot{\epsilon} \pi \epsilon \rho i \stackrel{\omega}{\omega} \nu a i \delta^{\prime} \kappa \alpha \iota$.







I 10, 1 , it has a sense either derived from that rectification or amendment,

 rather, as in Thucydides, it denotes a justification or just claim, meaning what the conflicting arguments have each of them to say for themselves. desaioma ' action iuris, exsecutio uris, iustificatio, ex qua (per arbitrum) status iustus qua eat violatus restituitur : nam ouxacồ est facere ut quid sit dixatov'. Fritsche ad Eth. Eudem. $\Delta$ 10, 1135 a 13 (p. 109) q. v., Heitz, Vert. Schrift. Arist. p. 253.
olav] 'for example', one of several, is used here, as constantly elsewhere, loosely and carelessly, by Aristotle, in the place cf rout' ioctl, id est, videlicet, as a more explanatory repetition.

## CHAP. IV.

§ 1. On the first of the three branches of Rhetoric, rò $\sigma 0 \mu \beta$ ou入euruxòv or $\begin{aligned} \\ \eta\end{aligned}$ mpopisì yívos.
§ 2. civau y yeviotat] This 'fundamental antithesis' and cardinal distinction of ancient philosophy is noticed by Gaisford, incredible as it may appear, for the sole purpose of making merry with it as a sophistical quibble! 'Has Sophistarum ineptias facete ridet Antiphanes apud Athenaeum, III 99 A.'

 goods naturally and accidentally accruing to us, is found in Eth. End. I

 advantages and objects of desire the acquisition of which depends upon



 result from accident cannot be included amongst the possible advantages,




 $\mu \epsilon ́ \chi \rho \iota$ रà $\frac{\tau}{}$



the 'profitable' or 'expedient', which are the object and aim of the deliberative speaker, because they are not attainable by any exertions of our own ; and so for the purposes of Rhetoric are just as useless as things necessary and impossible. The subjects of Rhetoric are the subjects of deliberation, and no one deliberates about anything which is beyond the sphere of his influence.
rpò epyou] Note on c. 1 § 10 p. 17.

§ 4 The following passage, §§ $4-6$, descriptive of the rhetorical method and its necessary limitations, and the distinction between it and the method of scientific demonstration, one of the most important in the entire work, will be found almost literally translated in the Introduction, pp. 173-4, to which the reader is referred.
 enumerate in an exact division or analysis'. Plat. Phaed. 273 E, Crat. 437 D , Gorg. 501 A , Legg. 1633 A , et alibi. It is used in a general sense of 'accurate distinction'.
dca入aßeiv] 'to part, separate, divide, distinguish', is also familiar to

 numerous examples in Ast's Index, s. v. ; and still more so deapeiv in the same sense, and draípects, Sophist. 225 A, draبeív aúrì dixa, Polit. 262 D,

 species'. Similarly dopíSav.
$\pi e p l$ \&v eicioaat xpnuari§euv] 'the subjects of ordinary business, i.e. deliberation (in the assembly)'. xppuari(Sctv, which is properly to 'transact ypingara or business' in general, is here 'transferred'by metaphor (of
 the particular kind of business which is transacted in the general assembly, its debates and consultations ; so Pol. vi (IV), 14,1298 6 29, kal mepl


 and discusces everything). Also to the consultations of the law-courts,


 rifetv：and again，v．28，to the deliberations of the assembly．Æschin． c．Timarch．§ 23，of the прóedpor．Lastly，Demosth．de F．L．p．430，24， $\$ 317$ ，applies it to the intrigues of individuals，ovitot 8 ovidiv ènav́天avto 20if xpyuariforres．
 method which has＇certainty＇or necessary truth for its aim and object， as opposed to the popular method of Dialectics and Rhetoric，which has no higher aim than probable opinion，mpos dofav．Top．A 14， 1056 30，





 Comm．ad Org．p． 444 On 4 фроweotípas，＇more intelligent，wiser，more instructive＇，see above，note on c． 2 § 21 p． 50.
 course the more regular and strictly grammatical usage．On the general question of the meaning and distinctions of kah，$\partial f$, and $r e$ ，with and with－ out the negative，see Hermann＇s excellent dissertation in his Review of Elmsley＇s Medea，on lines 4，5．Porson，Elmsley，and their English fot lowers were in the habit of laying down rigorous and inflexible rules of Greek grammar，which were supposed to admit of no exception；any apparent violation of them was to be summarily emended：one of the great services rendered by Hermann to the study of the Greek language is the relaxation of these over exact rules，and the substitution of a rational and logical explanation of these differences of expression，and the analysis of their distinctions，for these often unwarranted alterations of the text．＇Kal particula est coniunctiva＇，says Hermann ；＇ re adiunc－
 several things are subordinated to，and included under，one negative con－ ception，the one or the other（ $\delta$ or or re）is used according as the writer had or had not any notion of a difference between them．If the things under the general negative conception are represented merely as subordinate and with no expression of difference or opposition between them，the adnexive re is employed，and the formula is ovi．．．re．．．re，or ovi．．．ovire．．．ov̌re， and similarly with $\mu \boldsymbol{j}$ ：on the other hand，if some difference between any of the subordinate members of the division is to be marked，re must be replaced by $\delta f$ ，and the formula will be ovi．．．ovidé，or oviठé．．．ovidi，or ovi．．． ©urc．．．．0゙re．．．ovibé，and so on for other similar cases．And the change of re into $\delta f$ in the second clause of the sentence before us，represents the sudden occurrence to the writer＇s mind of the thought that there is an important difference between the two things that are assigned as reasons for not introducing a regular scientific division into the treatment of Rhetoric（viz．its necessarily unscientific character，and the fact that its





 ${ }^{1}$ rod $\lambda \hat{\varphi}$ है (see note).
province has already been unduly extended by previous professors), which requires to be marked, and accordingly is marked by the change of the particle. This, however, is not the only irregularity in Aristotle's sentence; for, evidently intending at the commencement to include both the subordinate members under the original negative, he introduces in the second clause a positive conception ; contributing perhaps to enforce the distinction of the two, but in violation of grammatical accuracy.
 assigned to it than its own proper subjects of inquiry', refers doubtless to the sophistical professors of Rhetoric, his predecessors and contem-
 whole extent of the field of Politics, Rhet. I 2,7. What this assumption of







 Waitz on Anal. Post. 826 35, p. 353, Poste, u. s., $\overline{\text { p. }}$ ig), properly implies scientific demonstration; and 'analytical' reasoning follows that method: see Anal. Post. I 22, 84 a 7 seq. It is there said to be exercised iv rais

 Waitz Comm. ad Anal. Pr. p. 366, 7. When Dialectics is here called an 'analytical' science, either 'analytical' stands for 'logical' in general (which is Mr Poste's view, l. c.), or else it represents and includes methodical systematic reasoning of all kinds, which proceeds by way of 'analysis', 'resolving' the objects of knowledge into their ultimate elements, to discover their causes (Trendelenburg, l. c.); and the latter is the explanation that I should prefer.
 the more general and comprehensive science of Politics, Eth. Nic. I I,
 the end of both being the same, viz. human good, v. 6. Ib. $\cdot 110,1029$ b 29, and c. 13, init. Ib. X 10, 1180 b 31, móploy yd̀p idóxet Tîs по入ıtuкīs civa. So that the two together make up the 'philosophy of humanity', of
 1181 616.

 $\dot{\epsilon} \pi \iota \sigma \tau \dot{\eta} \mu a s \quad \pi \epsilon \iota \rho a ̄ \tau \alpha \iota ~ к а т \alpha \sigma \kappa \epsilon \cup \alpha ́ \zeta \epsilon \iota \nu, ~ \lambda \tilde{\sigma} \sigma \epsilon \tau \alpha \iota ~ \tau \dot{\eta} \nu$


## 

 I 1, 5 p. 9. faculty, see Introd. pp. 14-19.

It may be as well here to sum up the characteristics of Rhetoric which respectively entitle it to the name of 'art' and 'faculty'. In so far as it is systematic, and follows a method-a logical method-and can look forward to results (implying a knowledge of causes and effects) in persuading its hearers, it is an art ; as a practical exercise, not admitting of absolute exactness, or universal conclusions, employing the propositions of all arts and sciences, and the axioms common to them all, only as probable and popular, and having itself no special subject-matter, taking opposite sides of the same question indifferently and arriving at opposite conclusions (so Alexander Aphrodisiensis), it is a dúvaus, a faculty, capable of development and to be exercised in practice.

дeraßaiven] See on 12,20. Vater (who seems to have misunderstood the passage), without reason or authority, would omit the words $\tau \hat{\varphi} \mu \mathrm{era-}$
 And his view is so far supported by the Paraphrast, who also rejects them. Brandis, u. s. p. 46. No one but himself, however, would prefer
 more natural construction, though this often is certainly admissible-and secondly, the two words, though not absolutely necessary to the sense, are at least in perfect accordance with it when the passage is properly interpreted. 'In proportion as...he will be unconsciously, unintentionally, effacing their real nature by passing over, in his attempt to reconstruct them (alter their formation or system), into sciences of definite special subjects, instead of those ('ं $\pi$ เorijuas) which deal with mere words', i.e. instead of confining himself to these latter. This is in fact a case of that very common violation of an ordinary grammatical rule which is called the 'figure', 「eûy $a^{1}$ (a mere carelessness of expression dignified by

[^1]
#   

that name), 'a figure of speech', as it is briefly expressed in Liddell and Scott's Lexicon, 'wherein two subjects are used jointly with the same predicate, which strictly belongs only to one, as in IL. A 533, where $\boldsymbol{\pi} \beta \boldsymbol{\eta}$ must
 where of course $\lambda$ íyety is required with $\boldsymbol{7} \pi$ rea. Under this head comes the case before us, where to complete the intended sense we must supply

 grevicelve The latter is 'to lay down (kard), settle or establish a system'; the former, 'to construct anew or arresh, to renew'. $\frac{\pi}{} \boldsymbol{\pi} i$, from the primary sense of direction to, in place, passes into a secondary one of direction or succession in time, 'after'; bence, thirdly, it takes the meaning of repetition, as anew, afresh, re- (in comp.), and of development in the way
 properly to 'refit', 'renew', 'repair', 'restore', as walls, ships, bridges, roads (Thucyd., Xenoph., Demosth., see the Lexx.), and thence transferred to 'reconstruction' of a science or study. A similar sense of ind appears in the verbs, inecreiv ' to say after, or add the words', 'imayeipecy 'to collect after or in addition', drumandáveuv, draxodou*eiv, draveriv, drt$\beta \iota o v y$ (to live after, outlive), intavafeâodau (Xen. Cyr. v. 4, 11, to look at
 dravopoiv̀. Rost. u. Palm, Lex. Art. ini, p. 1046 a.
 of grammatical irregularity and of the 'figure' ̧evypa. $\delta \sigma a$ in the first clause is the accus. after dredeiv : in the second it must be repeated, as

copiis a lactitia. To these I will venture to add from a modern English writer the case of Miss Bolo in Pickwick, who after her defeat at whist in the Bath Assembly Rooms retires 'in a flood of tears and a sedan chair'; to which Eur. Hel. 182, au'yaion ty raîs xpuotaus ty re ofvakos tpveav, is an exact parallel. In secorma proper, this third term will not apply in any sense to both of the others, and some other word or phrase must necessarily be supplied to complete the sense; as in the passage of Herodotus quoted above, and in the text of Aristotle.

Add to the examples collected from Tacitus by Bbtticher, Hor. Od. III 4. It, indo fatigutumque somno. Liv. xxvil 46 sub fin. fessi somno ac vigiliis (fessi
 Urry. Soph. Oed. R. 271, Electr. 72, 435, 6. Eur. Heracl. 312 Elms. ad loc., 839, 1040. Dem. de F. L. $893, \mu \eta$...dâre, d $\lambda \lambda^{\prime}$ wis к.r.ג. Dorvill. ad Charit. p. 394, seq. and Matth. Gr. Gr. 634, Obs. 3, supply examples. Ermesti, in Lex. Techn. Gr. s. v., thus defines gev̂رaa : in qua figura unum ad verbom plures sententiae refc. rosutur, quarum unaquaeque desideraret illud, si sola poneretur. This use of the figure he has not illustrated. It seems to represent something quite different from the other; but what? The jeûrua in fact is a kind of grammatical bracket, under which two heterogeneous expressions are improperly included. Another well-known example of this figure is the truly Irish epitaph on Boyle the Philosopher: 'He was the father of Chemistry, and grand-uncle of the Earl of Cork.'
 $\sigma \tau \eta \eta_{\mu} \eta, \epsilon \notin \pi \omega \mu \epsilon \nu$ каì $\nu \hat{\nu} \nu$.












 between the list here given of the principal subjects of Politics with which the deliberative or public speaker will have to deal, viz. (1) nópon, supplies, ways and means, revenue, finance ; (2) war and peace (possibly including alliances) ; (3) the defence of the country ; (4) exports and imports (commerge, trade) ; and (5) legislation ; with that which is found in Polit. vi; $\mathcal{I}$ ), 4, has been already pointed out in the Introd. p. 176. In the corresponding chapter of the Rhet. ad Alex. 2 (3 Oxf.) § 2, we have seven such subjects
 Oívets, Dem. de Cor. § 309, in a parallel passage); the constitution of the
 ( $\sigma \mu \mu \beta_{0} \lambda a i \omega v$ ) with foreign nations; war; peace; and revenue ( $\pi$; $\rho$ ) $\pi \delta \rho o v$ хрпна́тюи).

In Xenophon, Memory. III 6, a conversation is reported between Socrates and Glaucon, whom the former cross-examines on the subject of his political knowledge, with the view of shewing him that he is not yet ripe for a statesman. The principal objects of a statesman's care there enume-
 with the view of reducing them, rad diva入á $\mu a r a:$ war, and the means of carrying it on : the enemy's forces, naval and military, and your own : the
 silver (this is from the Athenian point of view): and the supply of corn and other food. These details, and in the same order, are all, with the exception of the mines in Aristotle, and the legislation in Xenophon, enumerated by Aristotle in the following sections, 8-11, so that Gaisford may possibly be right in his suspicion, 'respexit fortasse Aristoteles Xenophontis Mem. III 6.'
§ 8. dфaupe $\theta_{\text {j] }}$ ] it may be reduced, curtailed, retrenched',








Xovoty, 'by adding to present resources', but 'with reference to them', as
 65. 'For not only in respect of their existing resources do they become wealthier by adding to them ( $\pi \rho 0 \sigma t$ ©íives avirois)'.
ink rims rept tà tonia in inctpiasl 'from one's own personal experience'. rd tola are the facts which have come under one's own personal observatron, i.e. the resources of our own country, and the system followed and methods adopted in providing, maintaining, and augmenting them, at home ; not these alone are to be 'inquired into', ioropacò cival, by the statesman and public speaker, but also the 'inventions', the practices and policy of other nations in regard of these same matters.
ovvopây] 'to take a comprehensive view', 'to look at together', for the purpose of comparison. See note on ovváyeuv, c. 2 § 13 p. 41.
loropısóv] The termination -cukes corresponds to the English -ives, and denotes a capacity for, or tendency to. Foifrixós productive, aiनGyruxós
 rusós demonstrative, and so on: though in some cases there is no corresponding English word actually in use. According to this analogy igropasós is 'inquisitive', qualified and disposed to inquire into things in general.

When Herodotus at the opening of his work uses the term ioropin, he means no more than the 'inquiries' or 'researches' which he is now col-
 Tropical and the note there.) It is not till we come to Polybius that the word assumes its modern signification, a scientific history, a systematic work that can be employed in education, Hist. I 1, 2 . It is now defined, and distinguished from other departments of study by the addition of $\pi \rho a \gamma \mu a r<\kappa \dot{\prime}, 12,8$, the study of human actions and affairs. Its scientific character, which entitles it to the epithet 'demonstrative', loropia do-
 tracing causes and motives of actions: loropias yàp dàv ai in $\lambda_{\eta}$ res rod one




But it is only the term, not the thing, that is new in Polybius' time. Thucydides' History, though not so called, (Thucydides is called a \&urypapev́s, see Poppo on $1,1,2$,) is at least as scientific in all essential points as that of Polybius, or indeed any other.

On the distinction of $\lambda$ óyoos, $\lambda$ oyorocós, and laropıós, see some good observations in Dahlmann's Life of Herod. c. 6 § 2.

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§ 9. útápgat, àpкeiv, Anonymus, ap. Brandis, u. s., p. 44.
The verbs imápXelv, eiva, yiyverӨal, stand to one another in the relation of past, present, and future; to be already in existence, to be (simple and absolute being, independent of time), and to become, to come into being from a state (if that be possible) of non-being. The aorist infin. gives ináp fac here a future sense, 'to become or to be made', which does not naturally, ex vi verbi, belong to it. Hermann, in one of those notes which have thrown so much light upon the niceties of Greek grammar (on Ajax 1061 subsequently referred to without further discussion in the treatise de Part. äv IV, 2, Opuscula, Vol. IV), contends against Elmsley (who had condemned as a solecism this use of the aorist infin. without ay,
 reference to future time) in support of the usage; and distinguishes three modes of expression in which futurity is conveyed by the infinitive : first, the simple future inf. as dokeiv $\pi \in \sigma$ eio $\theta a$, which conveys directly the simple and absolute notion of futurity, without modification or qualifitation; second, the infin., aorist or present, with ä̀, $\pi i \pi r e t \nu \ddot{a} \nu, \pi \in \sigma \in i v$ dy, which indicates a merely conditional futurity might or would fall, under "certàiñ circumstances or conditions; and thirdly, the present or aorist infin. Without äv, nintety, or neveiv, which, corresponding to the indefinite (in point of time) present and aorist, nimtel and ${ }^{2} \pi \in \sigma \epsilon$, denote simply the possitility or inkelinood of the object falling at some uncertain future time; calucum esse. The distinction between the present and a ${ }_{d} \nu \boldsymbol{v}$ sive non, ita utuntur, ut aoristus rei transeunti, praesens duranti adhibeatur.'

Without disputing the truth of this, it is yet possible to explain the difference otherwise. Permanence ('duranti') does not seem to me to be in any way connected with the conception of present time, though the perfect often is; as when we say 'this has been' up to the present time, we often imply our belief in its continuance; and I should rather explain the present infin. in these cases as expressing the mere fact of the existence of the thing named, or the abstract notion of it. The present tense, as it is called, I act, I do, to act, to do, is in reality independent of time: the time present is, I am acting, I am doing; and the present infin. 'to do' is the naked conception of 'doing' without any connotation of time (so the present infinit. with the definite article stands for a substantive; rò clvat is the mere notion of being). The aorist infin. again may derive its notion of futurity and likelihood, either, as Hermann thinks, from the indefiniteness expressed by the tense, or, in other cases, from the connotation of habit, implying liability, which is also one of its acquired senses. The broad distinction will be, doкผ $\pi \in \sigma \in i \sigma \theta a t$, 'I think it will fall', at some future time, and nothing more : ठокळَ пintelv or $\pi \in \sigma \in i \nu$ äv, 'I think it could, would, or might fall', under certain conditions; סок心ิ $\pi$ imтeเv, 'I think the notion of falling belongs to it', 'I think it may fall' ; that is, that it is liable, or likely, to fall, caducum esse: and doswe $\pi \epsilon \sigma$ civ, implying also the liability or likelihood of the preceding, is distinguished from it (according to Hermann) by







representing the act or event as transient and not permanent. But such a distinction as this last, though it be intelligible, is at least untranslatable; as in such a case as noeís opâoun (Soph. Phil. 918), 'what dost thou intend to do', where the expression of the liability must needs be omitted, and still more the transient nature of the proposed act. But we can hardly suppose that any distinction can be seriously intended when Sophocles writes woits opäocu: and then, three lines afterwards, v. 921, opapy voris. The choice between the two seems to be dictated rather by convenience than by any other motive.

With regard to the distinction of the present and aorist infin., it may be observed, that we are often obliged, as the practice of translation shews, to disregard whatever difference there may be conceived to be between them, as either inappreciable or at all events inexpressible, and to render them by the same English words. Take, for example, the ordinary phrase dei $\lambda$ abeiv (it occurs, for instance, 11 8, 12). It is quite certain that in this case past time is not directly signified ; though it may possibly be included as an accessory in the notion of it in the way of an addition to the abstract conception of 'taking up, acquiring'-as representing the previous formation of the opinion, which has been taken before. But at all events no one would think of translating dei $\lambda a \beta e i v$ in any other form than that of the simple verb ' to assume or suppose'.
ì ris iveíxcral] indéxecoat is here used, as is customary with other writers, as a personal verb; Aristotle generally employs it as an impersonal. Comp. note on c. 2, 14






 expressed by imb in composition, inódrkos, virevevros, \&c.
eipquérprau] eipqvérev, though used as a neuter in Plat. Theaet. 180 B, and in other authors, is properly transitive, 'to bring into a state of peace, pacificate, or reconcile' contending parties, and hence employed here as a passive.
 $\tau \hat{\varphi}$ aưT $\varphi \hat{\mathrm{kal}} \dot{\mathrm{a}} \pi \lambda_{\mathrm{\omega}}^{\mathrm{\omega}}$, and note there.












нoven (elou rais olxeious). This rule is well illustrated by Archidamus' comparative estimate of the Athenian and Lacedaemonian forces preparatory to engaging in the war, Thuc. $180,3$.
 'to have too much or too little', 'more or less than your due'. So in
 menoyekreiv) represent the same notion, 'to come by the worse, or to be overreached'. And so here, 'for in this point also we may be at an advantage or disadvantage'.
 lowed by, or naturally give rise to, similar results'.


sepiepyos] is properly said of one 'who troubles himself over much' ( rep ), either about his own aftairs, or those of-athers; (these two significations will be found illustrated in the Lexicons). Hence it acquires the general sense of 'superfluity', as here. Comp. Plat. Polit. 286 C,
 virò yîs cal rà drouparva (of an idle curiosity). Dem. ? Phil. \& 150, 24, dॄ
 spyov кal $\mu$ áracov ávà $\omega \mu$, and elsewhere in Dem. and the otber orators.
 Fragm. Com. Graec. Meineke, Vol. v. Pt. 2.
 'in order that whether the defence (defensive preparation) be too little, addition be made to it, or if superfluous, it be retrenched, and their attention be rather directed to the watching or guarding (fortification) of favourable positions'. 'introbeious rónous are places favourable, defensible, switable to the purpose for which they were intended, viz. for protecting

 x ciploy innweîrau, always apparently of a 'favourable' position, and this seems to be here the natural, as it is the usual, sense of intribecos and of the passage in general. And so Victorius, 'et ut relictis parum opportunis





 12 tous каi $\pi \rho o ̀ s ~ t o u ̀ s ~ \epsilon i s ~ t a u ̂ t a ~ \chi \rho \eta \sigma i ́ \mu o u s . ~ \epsilon i s ~ \delta ' ~$


locis magis idoneos tueantur.' (There is another possible-but I think not probable-interpretation of ímtrnoeious rónovs, viz. loca commoda or opportuna, suitable or convenient to the enemy, easy of access, readily assailable : тпрeiv, as before, being to guard or defend.)
 ble of providing them with that they want.
 on I $\mathrm{I}, 10 \mathrm{p}$. 16 .
ouvOjkn is a general term for a treaty, compact, contract, convention, usually of a public nature, between two states, but also all private con-

 in Pol. III 9, 1280 a 38, $\sigma u v \theta \tilde{\eta} \kappa a, ~ a n d ~ \sigma \dot{\mu} \mu \beta 0 \lambda a$ are contrasted-are technically confined by the grammarians to a particular and special kind of contract, international commercial treaties. Meier ü. Schömann, Att. Process, p. 494, note 49. In the passage referred to, $\sigma \dot{\prime} \mu \beta 0 \lambda a$ first occurs appa-
 as distinguished from ouy日ijkat, which here stand for commercial treaties
 special and subordinate articles of commercial contracts which made provisions against the infliction of mutual damage and wrong, or established a system of compensation which protected the contracting parties against

 members of different states who are connected by international commercial treaties have reciprocal legal rights, so that it cannot be this
 $\mu{ }^{\prime} \boldsymbol{x}^{\prime}$ ous dixat denote the actions at law which arise out of these $\boldsymbol{\xi} \dot{\mu} \mu \beta>\lambda a$.

 between whom and the citizens it is necessary that irreproachable conduct or behaviour, or a thoroughly good understanding, should be steadily, persistently (dıá, thoroughly, throughout), maintained '.
 lation'.

In this section occur several points in common between the Rhetoric






and Politics, which, though they may not be direct references from one to the other; yet serve to illustrate the relation between them. They are noticed by Brandis, in Schneidewin's Philologus, u. s. p. 33. I will compare them in the order in which they stand.
 That the laws ought to be supreme in a state, and not any one or several, or the entire body of citizens, is argued and concluded in Polit. III 15,

 and what is salutary and conservative or destructive of each of them, are treated, for instance, in Pol. III 6, and viII (v) 1 et seq. And not only is
 found in the discussions of the Politics viil (v) 1 , but the very same metaphor, from the tightening and relaxation of the strings of the lyre, is employed there, 1301 b17, as here; and in c.9, 13096 18, the same illustration, derived from the flat and aquiline nose, is used to represent the excessive exaggeration and intensification, or depression and relaxation of the constitution, as of the feature, which altogether effaces its true character.
 relaxation of the strings of the lyre, producing a difference of musical pitch or tone, which it raises or lowers, is a very favourite one both with Plato and Aristotle, and is used to represent, as I have already said, exaggeration or intensification on the one hand, (exactly as we speak of 'screwing up our courage' Macbeth I 7,60), and depression or relaxation on the other. If for example the nose is lowered or depressed to excess in the way of flatness as a snub-nose, or exaggerated in the other direction to excessive sharpness and prominence as an aquiline nose, it ends by losing the character of a nose altogether, and is either altogether effaced or becomes a beak: and so with the constitutions of states.
rd úxò oikeioy $\phi$ Өcipec日as therefore means that forms of government are destroyed or change their character by the exaggeration or relaxation of their own proper and peculiar institutions, and it is in the 'mean' state alone between these two excesses that the constitution can be said to maintain its true character. For instance the öpos, definition or principle, of a democracy is equality ; if this be intensified or exaggerated, or carried to excess, if the thing be logically carried out, and everybody actually becomes equal, the government degenerates into mob-rule or anarchy and thus loses its true democratic character; if it be relaxed and the equality diminished, the democratic principle and its institutions become









so enfeebled, that the inequalities increase until at last it becomes an




 Phaedo 98 C, ota ínıreiveroau kal deleotat, $86 \mathrm{C}, 94 \mathrm{C}$ and elsewhere.

This was transmitted by the master to his disciple. In Aristotle it


 1293 a 26 and 30 vizepreivery, Eth. Nic. VI 1, 1138 b 23, Z̈rtt fis axowòs


 паvouv. Comp. Pol. vi (Iv) 3, ult. dphovias ovvronorípas and aveıuévas; whence ívrovos (intense), бivrovos, diveciévos, deretpivoos, are applied, the two first to braced nerves, vigorous exertion or character; the latter to relaxation or dissoluteness of life and manners, or to slackness, laxity, and effeminacy. In Pol. IV (vii) 17, 1336 a 30, it is said that children's sports should be neither intróvous nor deveıévas; and c. 4, 1326 a 26, that no well-constituted state should be àvecuímp, uncontrolled, slack, loose, relaxed, i. e. allowed to run to excess, in its numbers. Eth. Nic.
 voos $\lceil\bar{\eta} v$, open, easy, careless, dissolute life. Comp. Thuc. I 6, II 39 dvet-
 intendere and remittere, Cic. Orat. §59, Quint. X 3, 24, doubtless borrowed from the Greek.
oürw dariӨcrat wove к.т.入.] 'it assumes such a condition or shape that it seems to be no nose at all'.
 'drawing conclusions or deriving observations from the study of the past'.
di入d kal ràs mapd roîs äl bably, when this was written, supplied the deliberative orators of his time with the means of acquainting themselves with this branch of political study, by his work called Пoגıreia, a collection of the constitutions



 of 158 states existing at that period, and serving apparently as an appendix to the extant Politics. It is included in the lists both of Diogenes, v 27, and of the Anonymus in Buhle, Arist. Vol. I p. 65. Diogenes' title, which is more descriptive than the other, runs thus: Hòireiat wodicon
 крarikal, кai ropavukal. The extant fragments of this work are collected in Rose's Arist. Pseudepigraphus, Pt. 2, p. 391-537 (this collection is much more complete than that of Neumann, which is printed in the Oxf. ed. of Bekker's text, Vol. x p. 234, as an appendix to the Politics). The latest results of the researches on this subject are given by Heitz, Verlor. Schrift. Arist. p. 230, seq.
at ris ris repiodor] 'Travels round the world', 'survey of the earth. These were books of Geography physical and descriptive, containing not only an account of the relative position of cifies and countries, but also observations upon the manners and customs of the inhabitants. Hence they are recommended to the study of the Politician. These were founded either upon personal observation, or upon the reports of travellers; whence the name seplodon Ar. Meteor. 1 13, 13,

 rous $\lambda_{\text {írouras (quoted by Victorius). For a similar reason books of the }}$ same kind were called $\pi$ epini $\lambda$ ot, 'circumnavigations or nautical surveys',

 XXI 552 r.) One of the earliest and best known of them was that of Hecataeus, referred to by Herodotus, iv 36 yeגè di ópéar Гī̀s nepódovs

 v 49 the term is applied to Aristagoras of Miletus' famous map, (by


 k.r... (where the author proceeds to say, following Herodotus, that the circular shape of the earth assigned to it by these writers is impossible), and from Pol i1 3, $1262 a$ 12, sub fin., the general nature of the contents of these works may be gathered. Eudoxus, the mathematician and astronomer, of Cnidos, was the author of one of these works, referred to by Athen. vis 288 c, iv ixтч yîs repiodov (Victorius), also Ctesias, Dionysius, Diodorus, Polemo. An account of Hecataeus' $\pi$ epiodos is given by Mure, Hist. Gk. Lit. iv 144, Bk. Iv ch. 3 § 3.
 The addition 'about men's actions' is still required to define the kind of 'inquiries' in which 'history' engages: laropia has not yet become technical. indicating a special department of study.




 $\tau \rho \epsilon \in \pi \epsilon \iota, \lambda \epsilon \prime \gamma \omega \mu \in \nu \pi \alpha^{\prime} \lambda \iota \nu$.



Exety] 'to be infornred or furnished'. 'The information' which he must 'have' is left to be supplied. Understand ràs тоotárets, which generally stands in Aristotle for the 'materials' of Rhetoric which the speaker must have at his command.
 were, and proceed to state...' Compare the end of the first chapter. This form of expression and use of já入ıy are very familiar to Aristotle in commencing a new subject. See, for example, de Anima II 1 init., c. 2 init.

## CHAPTER V. <br> The analysis of Happiness.

The object of the public or deliberative speaker lies in the future, and is always something attainable; no one deliberates about that which is altogether out of his power. Now happiness or some form or part of it is the universal aim; the complete analysis of happiness, therefore, will include every object of $\pi \rho o r \rho o \pi \dot{\eta}$ and $\dot{a} \pi о т \rho o \pi \dot{\prime}$ which he can suggest to his audience, and every kind of political expediency.













 278 E alibi.
iv кeфадai¢ eineiv] 'to speak summarily', to sum up in one notion, to describe all human ends and aims by the single phrase 'happiness and its parts'.

2 єúdalцоvía каì тà $\mu o ́ \rho i \alpha ~ \alpha u ́ \tau \eta ̂ s . ~ \ddot{\omega} \sigma \tau \epsilon \pi \alpha \rho \alpha \delta \epsilon i ́ \gamma \mu \alpha т о s$

 таútทs каi тढ̄̀ єis таútทע $\sigma \nu \nu \tau \epsilon \iota \nu o ́ v \tau \omega \nu ~ к а i ~ \tau i ̄ ̀ \nu ~$
 $\pi a ̂ \sigma \alpha \iota ~ \epsilon i \sigma i ́ \nu \cdot ~ \tau \dot{\alpha} \mu \in ̀ \nu ~ \gamma \alpha ̀ \rho ~ \pi \alpha \rho \alpha \sigma к \epsilon v \alpha ́ \zeta о \nu \tau \alpha ~ \tau \alpha u ́ \tau \eta \nu$



§ 2. ©s $\dot{a} \pi \lambda \omega \hat{s}$ cineiv] speaking broadly and generally, without descending to particulars. Opposed to кä' ëкаотоу. See note on 12,4 , p. 30.
§ 3. Zore $\delta \grave{\eta}$ evidaunovia] Brandis, u. s. p. 48, note 42, (after Spengel) remarks upon this use of iote as marking the popular character of the definitions that follow-as if it were a matter of indifference whether they are right or not, provided that they are so generally acceptable as to be certain to satisfy the audience. The same form is repeated c. 6,2;7,2; 10,3 ; II 2, 1, and throughout the chapters on the $\pi \dot{d} \theta_{\eta}$. On the definition of Rhetoric, see Introd. p. 13; and on this definition of happiness, p. 176.

Aristotle's own definition of happiness in the Eth. Nic. the result of his inquiries in that work, is something far different, ivépyeit $\psi v x{ }_{j} s$ kar' doscive the fully developed activity or active exercise (implying full consciousness) of the soul in respect of its proper (and therefore highest) excellence: that is contemplation, $\theta$ coopia, the exercise of the highest faculty, the $\nu \overline{0} \bar{s}$, or intuitive reason; the highest faculties being the intellectual. This is the theory; but practically a lower view of happiness is admitted ( $\mathbf{B k} . \mathrm{x}$ ), which consists in the exercise of the moral as well as the intellectual virtues. Of the definitions here given, aủrápkeca (ouis comes nearest to his own: it expresses a self-sufficing life, complete in itself, independent of all external aids and advantages, and is in fact essential to the notion of happiness- See Eth. Nic. I 5 (quoted below).

The essentials of the three first of these definitions are found all united in the conception of happiness, the ultimate end of all human desire and effort, which forms the conclusion of the tenth book of the Nicomachean Ethics, from the sixth chapter to the end. It contains first, the eurnpafia $\mu e r^{\prime}$ ajeryjs, in the exercise of moral and intellectual virtue, the intellectual being the higher and more perfect form of it, and in that the intuitive contemplative energy ; secondly, the aùrápkela rîs 〕oण̀s, the self-sufficiency and independence of everything external, which is necessary to perfection and happiness; and thirdly, the life $\mu c r^{\prime} \dot{\alpha} \sigma \phi a \lambda c i a s$, the happiness residing in Oecopia being most secure because it is most independent and the nearest approach to the happiness of the Gods, who have all their wants and faculties satisfied in themselves, and want nothing mem without (c. 7); and also $\bar{\eta} \delta$ ortos, because pleasure is the necessary accompaniment of


every ivípyeta (active exercise, realisation in exercise, of any divapes or capacity), and $\theta$ copia being the most perfect form of ivipyeca, the pleasure that accompanies it must needs be the highest and most complete; and the exercise of the moral faculties in proportion to their comparative ex-

 ult. (In the popular and lower sense of the words this definition of happiness would belong to the Epicurean school.) The fourth definition,
 roúcoy is only applicable to a state. The Stoic definition of happiness was eüpoua Biou. Sext. Emp. Pyrrh. Hypot. $\Gamma$ § 172, $\pi$ गpds 'H $\theta$ uxovis § 30







 By comparing this latter passage with the definition, it would seem that the sense of eimpafia in the latter must be limited to 'well doing', and not




 тедecos. c. 13, 1332 a 7 .
 rò aưrd oupßaivery (the notion of av̈rapkes leads to the same result, or conception of happiness as that of ridecoy, previously applied to determine


 aviróprope c.7, 1177 a 28, ì re $\lambda e \gamma o \mu e ́ v \eta$ av́ápkeia (which is essential to
 and most perfect happiness must consist in $\theta$ ecopia). A similar aúrdpreia or independence is attributed to the perfect state in the Politics. On the notion of the perfect state or constitution in the second degree, that is, under the necessary limitations incident to a human condition, so far as humanity allows of perfection at all, see Pol. vi (iv) ir init. In Pol. iv
 aürapkes.
cionvia] and eidyveip are Ionic and also late Greek forms belonging to
 a 'flournsnang state', or 'prosperity' in general. 'evं化伩 enim non tam robur (quod verbo evöeveiv subiectum est) quam vigorem et vitalitatem declarat, ut v.c. Aiax aliquis aut Hercules evoderveiv dicatur, sed vel






 tenerrima planta，quum laeto iuventae flore nitet，eveeveiv dici possit．Et maximi quidem proprie de succo sanitatis et corporis incremento deque uberi proventu et auctu，sed non minus apte de prospero rerum publicarum privatarumque successu，deque omni ubertate et affluentia dicitur．＇（From an excellent note by Lobeck on these words，ad Phryn．Erc．p．465－7： Lobeck derives ciUeveiv from $\boldsymbol{N}^{\delta}$ and $\theta_{i c}{ }^{\omega}\left(\tau_{i} \theta_{\eta} \mu\right)$ ，comparing it with other verbs of similar formation．The mSS of Arist．give sometimes ci0evia and ciӨeveiv，but generally citypia and ciApveiv．Lobeck＇s note may be applied as a corrective of Victorius＇ad h．l．）

ктприárov кal $\sigma$ whdrov］＇property＇of all kinds，goods and chattels，in－ cluding especially flocks and herds；and＇population＇，here estimated by ＇bodies＇，not by＇souls＇as Christianity has taught ws to reckon it．
 Euripides），and evjypia，eúrexvos，and ev＇yńpos，＇blessing in children，and in old age＇，are applied by Aristotle to animals，as well as to the human race，in his works on Natural History ：e．g．to birds，in the sense of ＇prolific＇，Hist．An．IX 11，1；12，3；17，1；1X 12，3；eüYnpor 8́putes．
mолифелia，хрүотофı入la，both defined by Aristotle himself in § 16， ＇number of friends，worthiness of friends＇．The latter is defined by Liddell and Scott，＇the love of good men or good deeds＇，［a slip corrected，how－ ever，in a subsequent edition．S．］
rds roû odéparos dperás］The dperif or＇excellence＇of anything is determined by its epyon or special function or business；that which it was made to do．On this notion of ${ }^{\text {ppong}}$ ，see the reff．given in note on c .2 ， § 12．dperif therefore is so far from being confined to moral virtue， though it is applied to this kar $^{\prime}$ d $\xi 0 \times{ }^{\prime}{ }^{\prime}$ ，that it may be extended to every－ tring which has any use or object，animate or inanimate；but in the highest and most appropriate sense is attributed to human faculties bodily mental，and moral．

нíye日os］So Homer and Hesiod reckon size as well as strength and beauty amongst personal advantages．Od．$\zeta 276$ ，ris 8 öde Neyoungap

 Oos．$\sigma$ 218．© 373．Il．B 58，\＆c．Hesiod，Scut．Herc．3，and Plato，Alc．I p． 123 E ，in an enumeration of the personal qualities and other advantages that a young man might be proud of，el oủv $\lambda$ éroçè ötı nál入et te kal
 oròs iфám ró те $\mu$＇́retos кaì rd̀ кaŋ入os．So Ovid＇s Romulus，after his deifi－ cation，pulcer et humano maior．Arist．Eth．Nic．IV 7， 1323 b 7，dy meyédet












8ókav. ' reputation', estimation in men's theughts or opinion. ('Fame is the spur that the clear spirit doth raise, that last infirmity of noble minds, to scorn delights, \&c.' Lycidas).-rumin honours, substantial and externally manifested, which are conferred upon a man, offices, titles, no $\rho$ ebpiat, civil privileges, and such like. See further in § 9. On the value


 dyäஸ̂̀, 1124 a 17.
cu̇ruxiav] distinguished from evidaqovia, Pol. IV (viI) 1,1323620 seq., quoted above in note on $\S 3$.
 words are omitted by MS A', put in brackets as doubtful by Bekker [4to ed. 1831], and rejected by Spengel.
au'rapкє́бтaros] referring to the second definition, §3. See note on § 3, p. 73 .
 there are no others', he includes, as he tells us in the following sentence, the goods of body and mind under the first head, rà iv aùr甲. His usual division of goods, called the Peripatetic division, is into three kinds; goods of 'mind, body, and estate'. This division, however, was not

 тஸ̂̀ фı入oбoфovivrov. Cic. Tusc. v 30, tria genera bonorum, maxima animi, secunda corporis, externa tertia, ut Peripatetici, nec multo ve-




 Cic. de Fin. III 13, 43, et alibi. Schrader ad h. 1. This division cannot be at all events confined to the Peripatetics or derived from them alone, for it

 taken as an argument of the later authorship of the Rhet. ad A lexandrum.
duvápets] either 'power' of various kinds, 'opes ac civilem potentiam',








Muretus, Victorius, 'potentiam', Vet. Transl.; or faculties and capacities, bodily and mental, 'facultates', Riccob. The arst seems to agree better with eviruxiav.
ióфалéoтaros] referring to the third definition of § 3 .
§ 5. cu'yéveca] in an individual or family is defined in Pol. vi (iv) 8,


 rus íntà пám current definition of évéveta at Athens in Plato's time.
aùróx ${ }^{\text {Or as }}$ ] Herod. 1 171, Thus. 1, 2 and 6, Arist. Vesp. 1076, Eur. Ion 29, 589, 737, of Athens ; Isocr. Panath. § 124, also of Athens ; Paneg. § 24, 25, Dem. de F. L. § 296, of the Athenians and Arcadians. Quint. III 7, 26, laudantur autem urbes similiter atque homines. Nam pro parents est conditor; et multum auctoritatis affert vetustas, ut ios quit terra dicuntur orth.
 rulers famous men', like Theseus at Athens.
 their race renowned for things (personal qualities, feats of arms, noble deeds, and strch-1Hes) that are esteemed and admired'. int, 'standing, resting upon', 'upon the basis, terms, or condition of ...',
 may be derived either from the father's or the mother's side', i.e. from famous ancestors on either.






 19; and hence metaphorically 'genuine', real, true, as opposed to spurious,

 vary according to the form of constitution, and the number of the popula-
 cultural labourers, still less slaves, should be admitted to the rights of citizenship. When the number of the $\gamma v \dot{j} \sigma t o t$ пodirat (legitimate by birth) declines, $\boldsymbol{\nu} \dot{\prime} \theta_{0}$ are admitted; in the opposite case a more stringent rule

## PHTOPIKHE A 5 § 6.












 duфoì dorồ $\pi$ ro入íras notoûбu-as was the case at Athens.
 family, liq), the distinction of its founders for virtue or wealth, or anything else that is highly valued, and a number of illustrious members of the race, men and women, young or advanced in years'.
§6. T $\hat{\varphi}$ nov $\hat{\varphi}]$ 'the community, the commonwealth', respublica. rd
 58. 'rî fou $\hat{\varphi}$ communi rect vertit Muretus, Latini enim Graecos mitantes gentem, nationem, rempublicam, civitatem appellant commune. Tic. in Vert. II 46, stature a commmni Siciliae, quemadmodum inscriptum videmus, datae. Item, 128 , quomodo iste commune Miliadum vexarit'. Schrader. Comp. Fr. Commune. Germ. Gemeinde.
 young men ought to be; their character, what they actually are, is minutely analysed and described in II 12, under the second head of $\bar{\eta} \theta \eta$, c. 12-17. dvopia appears as one of their characteristics in § 9.: $\sigma \omega \phi p o-$ dive, self-control, is not characteristic of this age, and is therefore not mentioned.
curenvia] The strong feeling of the blessing of children, implied, though not directly expressed, in curekvia, especially characteristic of the Jews, appears also in the Greek writers, as Euripides, who uses eviruxciv and duoruxeiv to express the possession and the absence of a family, as though the possession of them were happiness, and the want of them misery. See Ion, 699, 772, 775, Androm. 429 (Paley's note), and 713.
rouaṽra] 'such' as above described. On this use of ro九oviros, implying a notion suggested by a previous expression, see Stallbaum's note on Plat.













 same kind, suitable for fishing) $\pi$ poorouroù $\sigma t$. II 4,1262 b 2, beí dè rocoúrous elvat, i.e. (from the preceding) less friendly, viII (v) $10,1310 \mathrm{~b} 12$, тowúrov yivous, 'a similar family' (similar to what had been just described).
$\phi \lambda_{e p y i a}^{a}$ ävev d̀ve入everpías] 'industry, without (mean, sordid, illiberal) umladylike habits'.
rà karà yvvaikas, к.r.ג.] 'the character and conduct of the women',




 the condition of the Spartan women, and the difference in the account given of their moral character by Aristotle, here and in the Politics, on the one hand, and by Xenophon and Plutarch on the other, see Grote, Hist. Gr. Vol. II. p. 516 seq.
 in the more exact and scientific Politics, this is denied of true wealth. Pol.


 кal עó $о$ о лаvтáлaat (an absolute convention, with no reality, no true





 number, of implements or instruments for economical (domestic) and public or political uses'.

This confusion of money and wealth, the foundation of the famous ' Mercantile Theory', is exposed by Adam Smith, Wealth of Nations, Bk. iv. See also J. S. Mill, Pol. Econ. Prelim. Remarks, Vol. I. p. 2 seq. ' To mistake money for wealth, is the same sort of error as to mistake the highway which may be the easiest way of getting to your house or lands, for the house and lands themselves.' p. 8'.
${ }^{1}$ It is well worth while to compare the chapters of the first book of the Politics in which the germs of the supposed invention, the science of Political Economy, already appear, with the corresponding passages of the Wealth of Nations. The





 tries, 'spots'), 'farms', 'estates', 'domains', private properties. Or perhaps rather, $y^{\eta}$ merely 'land' in general, and $\chi$ dopla the divisions of land, the actual private properties.

İ $\pi \pi \lambda a$, (a division of property) 'moveables', moveable furniture or property of all-kinds: opposed to 'fixtures', such as houses and land. Xen. oecon. ix 6 Includes in it all sacrificial furniture or apparatus; and articles of dress, shoes, female ornaments; and of house furniture, as
 stands for household furniture of bronze and iron: everything of this kind which was in the fort, the Laced., after the capture of Plataea, converted into couches (k入ival) and dedicated to "Hpa. In Arist. Pol. II 7 ,
 opposed, first, with money, slaves and cattle, to land, and then, secondly, to the three former. Similarly in the present passage, they are distinguished from catte and slaves as inanimate moveable furniture, or 'plenishing'. Herodotus writes the word $i \pi i \pi \lambda o a$ in I 94 ; elsewhere, as usual,
 superficial'. They are said to be 'superficial', to 'lie on the surface', because they are not fixed or rooted, like land, houses, trees; which are all 'property' nevertheless.
 property just mentioned are 'secure', (in the sense, 'that the use of it is always in your own power', infra), not liable to risk, as money made and employed in trade or commerce; and 'liberal', such as befit a gentleman, a man of 'liberal' education and pursuits, cultivated and accomplished

 therefore a part of genuine wealth (with which money is here included, contrary to the true theory).
inevó́plos, as here applied, expresses the general notion of liberality, in character and habits of mind. In the Ethics, and most frequently in the ordinary language, it is restricted as a moral virtue to a species
 nai $\lambda \bar{j} \psi w$. Eth. Nic. II 7. The sisuefenos represents the gentreman

[^2]
## 

from the democratic point of view; he embodies the notion of 'freedom which is the opos, the principle, and the end and aim of the democratic commonwealth; he is the type of a free citizen, and therefore as expressive of character the term denotes 'that which a model free citizen ought to be'; and connotes or implies those qualifications, particularly education and enlightenment, which enable him efficiently to discharge the proper functions of a free citizen, and those social qualities and habits which fit him for such a society. This is opposed to the aristocratic conception of a gentleman which makes the character or notion depend rather upon birth, wealth and station; and according to which the
 the men of rank, and of good family in a state. See further on this subject, Donaldson, New Cratylus, §§ 321-328.

Another characteristic of Greek feeling, which deserves notice, is brought into view in the application of the term enevoípea to distinguish a particular kind of property; and this is, the contempt for trade and commerce as a profession and a means of acquiring weath, which as B. St Hilaire observes (note on Transl. of Ar. Pol. p. 36) was common to all antiquity. A similar observation is made by Böckh, Publ. Econ. of Athens, Bk. I c. 8 p. 43 (Transl.).

Plato's writings abound with contemptuous_epithets and expressions
 professions of which money-making was the only object; for instance,


 where trade is represented as corrupting and demoralizing. In XI 4,918 D , in the course of a discussion on the legitimate objects and uses of

 aloxpois y'íroyey jovidecty, which results from their general tendency to corrupt the character of those who follow these pursuits, by the immoderate desire of gain which they stimulate and foster. Accordingly no citizen of the model state is allowed to follow any retail trade; this must be confined to metics and strangers, $\mu$ étockoy eivat xpeòv in fivon ds ay

 Plato's general views on this subject, as expressed in the 'Laws', see Grote, Plato, III 43 I.

Aristotle similarly condemns trade and the business and practice of interchanging commodities, so far as its object is mere money-making,
 the only ktind of property or wealth that is natural, $\phi \dot{v} \sigma e t$, is that which can be applied directly to one's own use, $\pi \rho \dot{\rho} s$ x $\rho \hat{\eta} \sigma \omega v_{2}$ and ultimately apos ro ei $S_{0} y_{,}$and falls under the province of olxovapixi, from which
 the one, which may be called oiкovopuri, because it forms part of the science of oconomics (domestic economy) properly understood, is necesAR.I.


 usury，which breeds money out of money，and is thence called roxos，＇is justly reprehended＇and usury＇most reasonably the object of abhorrence＇．




On the character and tendencies of $\boldsymbol{7}_{\mu \pi \boldsymbol{r a p o h}}$ compare Xen．CEcon．xx 27,28 ．In the same treatise，c． 1 12，13，14，a distinction is taken，simi－ lar to that of Aristotie，between $\chi$ pof $\mu a r a$ ，wealth or property which you can use directly，which does you direct service，and money，which is excluded from the notion of property in this sense．Xenophon，like Ari－ stotle，approves of nothing but the agricultural mode of life as the best both for mind and body，and as cultivating and promoting the habits which go to form the best of citizens．See Gecon．c．vI 8， $9,10, c$ XV 9.

These extracts will throw light upon the meaning of the word diow－ Oipla as applied to the land and stock and buildings and moveables of the landed gentleman or country proprietor．They are said to belong to the gentleman or man of cultivation，in contrast with the degrading or corrupting habits engendered by trade and commerce．
 therefore productive，${ }^{1} \phi$＇if al $\pi p \rho^{\sigma} \sigma 00$＇from which one derives one＇s income＇，is more useful，but carries with it the notion of sordidness or meanness；the other，because it produces nothing but the enjoyment ${ }^{2}$ ， which proceeds from using it，because it is not corrupted and degraded by any contact or connexion with money－making，better befits the cul－ tivated man，who should hold himself aloof from such pursuits，and par－ takes more of the notion of кa入óy．Comp．19，25，кal viкn кal ruil rä̀
 dлcuөepcórepa yáp．Eth．N．IV 8 sub fin．（of the meyàóquxos），cal olos
 trast of＇honour＇and＇profit＇．
dंто入avarukd 8 ＇́ к．т． ．］Comp．Metaph．A 1 ， 981617 ，on the ascend－ ing scale of arts，in the order of superiority in knowledge and general

 тípous toùs rowúrous ixeinay ùzo入aцßávo ràs $\grave{\text { drıorinkas aưrồ．The highest in degree are＇sciences＇，the invention }}$ of which is due neither to necessity nor to the mere desire of amusements， and requires＇leisure＇：whence it happened that mathematics were first studied in Egypt by the priestly class．
\％Tt kal akıov］kai emphatic＇which is in fact at all worth mentioning＇．
${ }^{2}$ droidavors is properly＇sensual enjoyment＇．In Eth．N．I 3，where the three
 distinguished and compared，the first is that which has yoond for its sole object， the gratification of the animal appetites and desires，the satisfaction of rd druto $\mu \eta r u x^{\prime} y$ ；the second has dpery moral virtue for its relios；the third，ocopla，the highest activity of the intellect．



 тò $\pi \lambda \frac{1}{}$



${ }^{1}$ re infra. ['scribendum rot be olxeía sivan quod in scriplo Libra, quo Vítorius utchatur, exstat'. Spengel, q.v.]
 of the single word following, and attract special attention to it, is so common in all Greek authors as scarcely to require illustration. It may be worth while to quote one or two prominent examples. Thuc. I 15 , sástes



 thy concern with hunting?), Ion, 241, oft cal $\theta^{\prime \prime} \mu \mathrm{s}, 346$, caîre cal $\mu$ муvevi-
 call y'̛ovev. § 97, 8 cal ocupáto (Schäfer's note). Poison ad Phoen. 1373; in interrogation, Wunder ad Antig. 720.
drrav̂日a cal oüre] 'in such places and in such a way, as to \&cc.'
rout re oikeia sivas if $\mu \dot{\prime}$ к.r. $\lambda$.] The definition of their being our own or not (of ownership), lies in the power of alienation, that is, giving or selling.

id ivipocta] This technical term, and the opposition -of dinaque and inépyeca which pervades Aristotle's entire philosophy_ represents-mairac as a mere dúvapus or dormant faculty or capacity, until it is 'developed' Or'reatised' and 'set in action' (energized) by use (xpîace) by applieatron to the 'service' of its omer. On this 'fundamental antithesis' of ovals and evipyele as a physical, moral, and metaphysical conception, consult Metaph. $\Theta$ 6-9, and Bonitz Comm.; Trendel. El. Log. Arist. §6, p. Gr, Kategorienlehre, p. 157 seq., Comm. ad Ar. de Anima, Lib. II p. 295-312; Grant, Essays on Ethics, Est. Iv. p. 18i seq. (lIst ed.) [p. 23I ( ard ed.)]
58. orovoaion] As drieckis is transferred from the special sense of a particular kind of goodness, i.e. equity, or merciful consideration, to the sense of 'good' in general, (see ante, note on 12,4); so grovdaios (serious, earnest, Ken. Cyrop. II 2. 9, 3. 8, as opposed to rall $\frac{\left.0 \nu^{1}\right]^{1} \text { in jest'), to levity }}{}$ and frivolity; and thence, in the sense of something solid and substantial,
 meed radiâs, cal tov̂ ße入tlovos del cal moplov cal dvopcítov orovdauotipay tiv setprecar.








sound and true, to paĩos, light, empty, trifling and worthless) acquires a moral sense coextensive with áyaOós, and is opposed to daû̀os, Plat. Rep. VII 519 D, Legg. VI 757 A, \&c. as the sound and solid to the light, empty, and unsubstantial. This familiar application of the word is recognized (as in the parallel case of imueki's, Eth. N. v 14) by Aristotle, Categ. c. 8,

 dperff, but not the word itself). Plat. ópor, p. 415 D (ed. Tur. p. 888) onoudaios io re入íes à áaOós.
 onovocolos, that orovoatos is extended to every kind of excellence, like dyabos, whereas eitucikys is confined to the expression of excellence in human character. Also arovodios has another sense distinguishable froni-tho-preeeding-as opposed to $\gamma$ enoios, the 'serious' to the 'jocose' or 'ridiculous'. Xen. Cyrop. II 3. I, rouaũra cal yèoîa kal onoudaía
 and mandia 'jest' and 'earnest', 'serious work' and 'play' ar 'sport', are constantly brought into contrast by Plato.
 honour) of a reputation for beneficence, of a capacity for or tendency-(enòs) towards doing good'. All these 'marks of honour' here specified, being intended for the use of the public speaker, have themselves a public or national character. Eth. Nic. IX 16, 1163 b 4, Tîs $\mu \dot{\nu} \nu$ yà $\rho$ àperîs kal тîs



ovं $\left.\mu \dot{\eta} \nu \boldsymbol{a} \lambda \lambda \lambda_{a}^{\prime}\right]$ ' not but that', 'though at the same time', marks a qualification of, or exception to, too large and unlimited an assertion: ov $\mu \dot{\eta} \nu$ ( $\delta \lambda \omega s$ ) $a \lambda \lambda \grave{a}$ (róde). 'Those who have already done good are fairly and more than all others entitled to such signs of reputation-not however that this need be understood absolutely, so as to exclude the capacity or inclination to do good as a title to honour.'
 places or times'.
 confer honour, on special occasions, under special circumstances of time and place. Thus what is in ordinary cases a very trifling and unimportant action, as the gift of a cup of cold water, becomes under the circum-



stances in which Sir Philip Sidney gave it at the battle of Zutphen a renowned act of self-denial and heroism. And under other and different circumstances the same cup of water may assume an importance which does not naturally belong to it. 'For whosoever shall give you a cup of water to drink in my name, because ye belong to Christ, verily I say unto you, he shall not lose his reward.' Mark ix. 4I, Matth. x. 42.
$\left.\mu^{\prime} \rho_{\eta} \mathrm{r} \mu \mu \mathrm{\eta} \mathrm{~s}\right]$ Some of these are enumerated in Homer, Il. M 310,


 $\theta 16 \mathrm{r}$.

Oyaias] as those that were instituted by the Amphipolitans in honour

 érén quotes from Putarch, Vit. Flam. c. 16, p. 378 B, the honours paid by the

 тайทа тетоппнivov.
 sibly epitaphs; but rather, as these may be included in rádoc, to be understood (as Vict.) of poems and prose compositions in memoriam, such as the English work that bears this title, poems in honour of the illustrious dead, and panegyrics in prose, like some of Isocrates' speeches and Xenophon's Agesilaus. Philosophical dialogues too were sometimes inscribed to the memory of departed friends and named after them, as Aristotle's Gryllus and Eudemus, and Theophrastus' Callisthenes, \&c. Introd. p. 53
$\left.\boldsymbol{y}^{i} \rho a\right]$ gifts of honour; as $\mu \omega \sigma \theta o i$, 'rewards of merit', not money, for mere use; such as privileges conferred on princes and persons of dis-
 Homer, (pars praecipua, donum praecipuum, principi prae aliis datum, Damm, Lex. Homer.) as the prime of the spoils, the fairest of the captives,
 portion of meat, or drink, at the banquet, II. M 312 (quoted above).

 and Legg. XI 922 A.
 tion of land, to the special service of a God or hero; also to chieftains and kings during their lifetime for their own use. Frequent in Homer,
 Y $184,391$.
 seat' at public spectacles, public assemblies, games, the theatre, \&c. (Herod. 1 54, 1x $73 \& c$. .), and 'maintenance at the public expense'; at

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Athens in the Prytaneum or ©oinos (Dem. de F. L. $\$ \$ 279,361$ ), बifnots in IIpuravié, Arist. Ran. 764, Pac. 1084, Acharn. 125, Dem. u. s. and $\$ \oint 35,259$; both of these privileges were conferred in acknowledgment of meritorious public services, and are often named together, Arist. Equit.



 oov rdy IIpuraveíy oitica.
 kiss', denotes the oriental and 'barbarous' custom of saluting by 'kissing the hand to' another, in token of inferiority and subjection, and thence is applied to any act of servile obeisance or homage, or to worship and adoration in general: in the last or metaphorical sense it is found in most of the best Greek writers. This practice may very likely have been accompanied by the analogous one of prostration, as the two are often found associated together in one expression. It was distinctive of Oriental barbarism; and prevailed amongst the Medes, Herod. I 119 , of Harpagus and Astyages, the Persians, Id. I 134, drvorxávorres 8 d danfo-




 varos tivy $\chi^{\text {cípa. Obeisance by prostration, the salam or kotoo, differs from }}$ this, though they probably were often used together. It is the latter that is referred to, as a barbarous practice and unworthy of a free Greek, by Aeschylus, Agam. 919 (Dind.), and Pers. 594, comp. 152. They appear to be confounded by Euripides, Orest. 1507, жробкишí $\sigma^{\circ}$, dxaf, мороиб Bapßápoñt тробтитrồ. Plato distinguishes them, Legg. x 887 E,
 of Plato, cites, in illustration of the $\pi p o r x u \boldsymbol{v} \eta \sigma t s$, Lucian. Encom. De-



 $\kappa_{1} \pi \lambda_{\text {. }}$ S.]

7noravts is the abstract conception of 'getting out of the way'. This 'making way or room' for the passage of a person of rank seems also to have been characteristic of Persian manners. Victorius quotes Plutarch,


 nuvourres. Herodotus, II 80, says of the Egyptians, quифiportas di кal















 Cato Major 18.63. On the deference paid to old age, enjoined by law at Athens, see Asch. c. Tim. § 24. Ken. Symp. 31, vinavioravrai di $\mu$ ot $\bar{\eta} \delta \eta$

 sopor к.r. $\lambda$. Another illustration of \%kotarts is the custom, once generally prevalent, of 'giving the wall' to a superior, as a mark of respect, ceder le haut du pave. (Dict. Acad. Fr.) [Ovid, Fasti, v 67, (senex) et medius iuvenum, non indigmantibus psis, ibat, et interior, si comes unis erat and Horace, Sat. II 5. 17, 'comes exterior'. S.]
 various individual acts or moments or states included under the general conception.
depp rd $\pi a p$ ' 'ixáoross riцca | 'que apus singulas gentes in pretio stunt', Victorius: who illustrates by the olive crown as a prize in the Greek games, and quotes Horace, Ep. II 2. 32, clares ob id factum doris rnafur honestis, of the prize of valour, bearing a special value in the Roman Military service, assigned to 'Lucullus' soldier'. Of the words by themselves this interpretation is perfectly fair and natural; but in connexion with what follows (as Aristotle seems to have intended, cal $\gamma \mathbf{a} \rho$ rom $\delta \omega \rho o v . .$.$) they may be understood somewhat differently, and the rap.$ skáorous referred to 'the individuals of the two classes' mentioned imme-

 sarily implies vigour and the power of active exertion for the fulfilment of the duties of life, without these it is no docrín at all, and no subject of congratulation to the possessor. Health is said to be the derv of the body, in reference to the doctrine of the proper apron of anything; see note on p. 40 c .2 § 12. Life is the special function of the body (Eth. Nic. I 6), and health is life in its best form, as far as the body is concered!
'Hpóduxos] a famous physician, native of Selymbria, in Thrace on the Propontis; to be distinguished from another less known physician, Corglias' brother, of Leontini, Plat. Gorg. 448 B, 456 B. On Herodicus and





his medical practice, see Plat. Phaedr. 227 E, and Heindorf's and Ast's notes; also Rep. III 406 A seq., where an account of him and his system of self-tormenting is given. Protag. $316 \mathrm{E}^{1}$.

§ 11. Personal beauty has no absolute standard or uniform expression, manifesting itself in the same forms at all periods and under all circumstances. It is relative, not only to the three stages of human life, youth, prime ( $\dot{\alpha} \times \mu \boldsymbol{y}$ ) and old age, but also to the habits and functions natural and appropriate to each of those stages; manly and athletic exercises, in the way of traiking, to youth; nilitary service, the imperative duty of an active and able-bodied citizen, to middle age; sedentary and intellectaal pursuits, to old age, yet so that strength and vigour remain adequate to the endurance of ordinary or 'necessary' laboursextraordinaky exertions, as in athletic exercises and service in the field, being no longer required. The habit of body which is fitted to the exercise of these several functions at the corresponding period of life is a constituent element of its personal beauty.
véov $\mu \grave{y} \nu$ oùv кád $\lambda$ os к.r. .] When it is said that the beauty of a young man consists partly in the possession of a body in a serviceable state for undergoing the labours and pains incident to the race and feats of strength, the meaning seems to be that the robust habit of body and the muscular development required for the one, and the indications of activity combined with strength, which appear in the outward form, necessary for the other, are pleasant to the eye, both in themselves and also as suggesting a fitness or adaptation or harmony of the exterior of the person with the habits and pursuits which are appropriate to youth.
$\left.\pi \rho o ̀ s ~ \dot{\alpha} \pi \dot{j} \lambda^{\alpha} a \sigma \sigma v.\right]$ means no more than the mere enjoyment afforded by the sight of personal beauty. Victorius, who suggests another interpretation, concludes finally in favour of this.

${ }^{1}$ Macaulay, in his celebrated Essay on Bacon, Edin. Rev., July, 1837, selects these opinions of Plato, which he describes at length from the passage of the Republic, as to the value of Herodicus' system of medical practice, as one of the illustrations of the contempt for all that is useful and practical which pervades the Platonic philosophy ; contrasting this, much to the disadvantage of the ancient philosopher, with the opposite spirit and tendency of the Baconian system, which aims, as he assumes, exclusively at practical and attainable good, and promotes the investigation of truth solely with a view to the substantial and solid benefit of the human race. Schrader cites Dial. de Orat. xxili 4 Ne in corpore quidem valetudinem medici probant, quae animi anxietate contingat. Parum est uegrum non esse; fortem et laetum et alacrem volo. Prope abist ab infirmitate in qua sola sanilas luudutur.

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 evidenced by success in the various exercises of the $\pi \varepsilon^{\prime} \boldsymbol{y}^{2} a \theta \lambda o \nu$, and the outward expression of these faculties in the configuration of the body, when accompanied with beauty in the shape, symmetry, and expression of the features, is the highest form of personal beauty in the young man. ' Die übung im Pentathlon war wegen der verschiedenartigkeit der fünf wettkämpfe ganz vorziuglich das werk junger rustiger männer mit elastischem leibe. Die Pentathlen zeichneten sich daher durch gleichmässige stärke der glieder, allseitige gewandtheit und körperlich harmomische bildung vor allen iubrigen vortheilhaft aus, und werden daher vom Aristoteles ats die schönsten Agonisten genannt.' Krause, Gymn. u. Agon. der Griechen, Vol. 1, p. 494, abschin. vi § 31. The exercise of
 ing solely to the period of youth ${ }^{1}$.

The $\pi$ évra are enumerated in an epigram of Simonides, Anthol. 67 (73), Bergk, Fragm. Lyr. p. 791,
and in an epigram of unknown authorship quoted by Eustath. ad II. $\Psi$.


The same five are named in the Schol. on Pind. Isthm. I 35, and in

 cit. p. 476 seq. abschnt. vi § 29.

퓌 $\quad$ 向, boxing, was therefore not included in the rivra $0 \lambda_{10 v}$; and we are driven to suppose that the concluding words of $\$ 14$, ì dè mâ $\sigma \iota$ rivra$\boldsymbol{\theta}_{\text {os, }}$ which certainly according to the ordinary laws of the interpretation of language ought to include it with the rest of the foregoing exercises, are one amongst many instances of Aristotle's carelessness in expressing himself, and affirm something which he could not really have meant. rẫı, if it can be said to have any meaning at all, must be understood simply to imply, that the mivra $\begin{aligned} & \lambda / \nu \\ & \text { combines in one the greatest number }\end{aligned}$ and variety of the single and separate exercises. Such is also the opinion of Krause, Op. cit. p. 258, n. 6. He observes that such a conclusion (as would naturally be drawn from the words of Arist.) is opposed to all the
${ }^{1}$ The rivra 0 分os however, though by the number and variety of his accomplishments he is superior to all other athletes, yet in regard of certain special excellences, as compared for instance with the runner or wrestler, he is only second rate. Plat. Erast. 135 E. The philosopher in the popular sense, Aristotle's reraidevelvos, the man of universal attainments, is compared to the all-accom-








notices which we find in the ancient writers．Aristoteles konnte hier in bekannten dingen die mehr worte bedürfende deutlickkeit einer gedrun－ genen präcisen，und in gemessener gradation fortschreitender redeweise， welche ihm eigenthümlich ist，aufopfern，da ja doch jedem Hellenen die fünf bestandtheile des Pentathlon bekannt waren．
dxpájovros 8 é к．т．入．］The simplest way of filling up the elliptical con－ struction seems to be to supply кá入入os after áкpáfovros，and ýpontos in the next clause，and reфuxiva from the immediately preceding reфivaoun
 quired sense may be equally well supplied by repeating（as Victorius）the

 diate proximity of $\pi \in \phi \dot{v}$ кactv seems more in favour of the other．

Lkavóv］fit for，strong enough for，capable of．
 sequence of the absence of all the ordinary deformities or disfigurements incident to old age．
 irregular form of attraction of the relative to the case of its antecedent， where，had the antecedent been expressed，the relative should have been the nominative to a succeeding verb，is exemplified by Matthiae，Gr．Gr．



 And from Aristotle，this passage，and Rhet．1 2，11，if $\delta_{y}$ inuxg．In
 cited as an instance，rarpyópgrat is the irregular passive＇has been ac－ cused＇，and therefore $\pi \varepsilon \rho i \quad \delta \nu$ need not be interpreted as repl ixeinoy d；it

 v．1．），and regards $\boldsymbol{j}^{y}$ as a case of attraction for avirivy $\bar{\eta}$ ．An analogous case of this kind of attraction is Sophocles＇oilas $\boldsymbol{\gamma}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{i}^{\prime} \mu \hat{v}$ ，Trach．443，for oía dyó slu山
§ 12．ioxvis］bodily strength，is defined，in a very superficial and per－ functory manner，with a special view to strength in personal encounter－ as appears in the several forms it takes，though it is afterwards more definitely expressed in ajwvoruxì dंperin－as the power of moving some one else（\％rapon may possibly be neuter，something else，anything whatso－ ever），by pulling，or pushing，or lifting（possibly referring to the encounter of Herakles with Antaeus，who showed his great strength by＇lifting＇ him off the ground into the air ；or，if ifepon be neuter，by lifting any heavy weight），or squeezing，or crushing ；which seems to be intended for









a complete analysis of the different ways in which a person or thing can be 'moved' by another.
§ 13. mil[owl] agrees with rul understood after dperin: the accusative Meifona, with ruwi understood in rò vixepíxecv, would be more usual. Two uss read rel(ova. 'Excellence in size' implies superiority over the average (people in general), in length (height), depth (thickness), and breadth, but only (superior) to such an extent as not to impede the motions (of the body) by the excess (of size), lit. to one being only so much greater as not to make the body's motions (slower than they otherwise would be, or than they ought to be, i.e.) too slow. Minkos, $\beta b b_{0}$, and $\pi \lambda$ dros are the three dimensions of space; but it is not quite certain how they are applied here to the proportions of the human body; mijeos or $\beta$ ádos might possibly represent the abstract height. I have taken $\mu \mathrm{josos}$ in this sense here because it is found in Homer to represent the 'stature' of a man, and $\mu$ dixcoros for 'tallest'. Odys. $\lambda^{\prime}$ ' 309, Otus


 rè öópara. Mīnos therefore is the man's height, $\pi \lambda$ áros the breadth of the body, measuring from right to left, and $\beta \dot{\alpha} \theta$ os the depth or thickness, measuring in the direction backwards and forwards. Bádos, though it can be applied to vertical measure, up and down, yet as in the ordinary language it represents only what is below us, and not what is above, could hardly be applied to the more than average stature of a tall man.
§ 14. is merídous kal loxúos] for boxing and wrestling ; ráxous, for the foot-race.

кal yàp $\dot{\delta}$ raxùs loXupós iotuv] seems to be added as a mere passing observation, or note upon ráxous: and the $\gamma \dot{a}$, which implies that this clause gives a reason for the preceding, must therefore be regarded as due to mere carelessness of writing, there being no logical connexion between the two sentences. (If there were any such connexion between the two, the meaning could only be, that the relation of strength and speed as genus and species, speed being only a variety of strength, is the reason for the introduction of raxos into the list of agonistic virtues: the fact being that this could only be a reason for omitting it.)
pínrev iacere, $\dot{\rho}$ итreiv iactare, of a repeated_action. Hermann ad Aiac.






235, Trach. 776. See also Lobeck, Aj. 239, p. $177^{1}$. This distinction, which has been doubted by some scholars, is now I believe generally accepted. At all events it applies very well here, where the simple notion of flinging or hurling, once for all, from you, as a stone, would be quite inappropriate to the motion of the legs intended to be described. partio rà $\sigma_{\kappa} \lambda_{\eta}$ is to 'toss about' or 'swing the legs', backwards and forwards, again and again.
kuciv $\left.\pi \dot{\prime} \rho \rho \rho_{0}\right]$ ' to take long strides'.
बбau $\left.\bar{\eta} \pi \lambda_{j} \hat{\eta}^{\circ}\right]$ in boxing, to push or thrust away from you by the blow, so as aliquem de statu deicere; as when you knock a man down.
duфgrépots rairocc] These two last. boxing and wrestling; not running.


 $\delta \bar{\eta} \lambda o y$, and Quint. Inst. Orat. u1 8, 13, as confirming Aristotle's statement. Other ancient authorities are given in Krause's notes.

On the pancratium, and the size, strength, and skill required by those who engaged in it, see Krause, u. s. p. 534-538, abschn. vi §4I.

Compare with the four preceding sections the following passage of Plato on the use of athletic exercises. Legg. viil 832 E seq. گ̈סrı yoûv náv-




§ 15 . e'vnpia] supr. § 4, 'fortunate old age, good fortune or happiness in old age'.

Bpadurìs] 'tardiness', i. e. slow approach or progress.
*üypeos] occurs under the form ev̌ynpos in Hippocrates, and Ar. Hist. Anim. IX 12, 3.
${ }^{1}$ Lobeck in his elaborate dissertation on the question seems to leave the matter in doubt; and no doubt, from the uncertainty of the mss readings, the distinction of the two forms of the verb being shewn in most cases merely by the difference of accent, it is difficult to decide in any particular case which of the two forms is to be preferred: and Lobeck shews by examples that (so far as the reading is to be depended on) the same notion of the verb is expressed indifferently by either form. At the same time in the somewhat obscure summing up at the conclusion of his note, he seems (as I understand him) to be in favour, as a general principle, of the hypothesis, that a difference of form in the termination of a verb radically the same (he cites $\lambda \lambda \lambda \omega$ or $e t \lambda \lambda \omega$ and its numerous varieties as a remarkable instance) does express a corresponding variety in the signification; as in the instance given, the various terminations correspond to different varieties of the gencral notion of 'rolling'.










ävev túxps] in Muretus' excellent emendation of v. L. àveviruxís.
Z ort $\delta$ é cis k.r. $\lambda$.] The causes of length and shortness of life in plants and animals are further investigated in the little treatise $\pi$ re pl $\mu$ axpo$\beta$ córpros cal $\beta \rho a x u \beta$ ıórpros, in the collection of tracts called the Parva Naturalia, appended to the work rep $\downarrow v \chi \bar{j} s$. They all belong to the ' Physical' department of philosophy. $\pi$. $\mu$. кal $\beta \rho .1$ § 4
 the treatment of a subject in minute detail, are out of place in a rhetorical treatise. Any further details on the subject of longevity would be useless to the rhetorician. On the various senses of dxpißeca, see Grant on Eth. Vic. I 7, 18 : and on the mode of handling a subject appropriate to Retoric, Introd. on the 'materials of Rhetoric', p. 11 - 14
§16. Torts of rooviros eidos к.r.入.] 'all such are friends, as, when they think anything good for some particular person' (exciny, some one in particular, that particular person, whoever it may be) 'are inclined to do it for his sake'. In this definition, friendship or love is described as a state of mind, a moral habit or disposition, not as a natural affection. The desire of doing our friend good for his own sake is a necessary accompaniment and consequence of the feeling or affection, but not identical with it. The definition is 'rhetorical', and does not give the 'essence' of the thing, as
 in exact conformity with this, and equally deficient. In the Ethics, viII 2, after quoting some of the ordinary current notions of love to be found in the preceding poets and philosophers, he proceeds to the establishment of his own. And here again the same conception of it reappears in the

 procity being essential to true $\phi$ ilia or affection of two human beings to one another. For though we may be 'fond' of wine, $\phi$ inousos, or 'fond' of animals, there is in these cases no true reciprocity of affection. Furthere, since 'fondness' is applicable to three classes of objects, the good, the pleasant, and the useful, three classes of corresponding 'friendships' or 'fondnesses' are hereby determined; but only the first of them, the love of the good, is the basis of true and perfect love ; and consequently





the highest and perfect form of 'love' can only exist between the good,

 In the concluding definition of c. 2 , the feeling or loving disposition is

 the three objects of affection. This is therefore the general conception of love according to Aristotle. The highest form of human love or friendship would be eủvoî̀...ठid rò àyaOóv.
inucueis] Note on c. 2 § 4, p. 30.
§17. ciruxia] 'good fortune or luck', accidental, transitory, fragmentary, is opposed to eidaupvia, complete, permanent, substantial happanes, the essence of which resides in is aúváp eta or independence of all accidental and external conditions. - Eth. Nic. II 5 (Beak.), 109766 seq. X7, ry









in ríx $\eta$ atria] On Aristotle's conception of ríx $\eta$ as 'a cause', with furthar details, see Introd. Appendix C to Bk. I c. 10, p. 218-224. On this passage, p. 223.
 similar cases is properly rendered by 'or'. Aristotle frequently expresses as a combination two things which are not actually, but only hypothetically, combined in the conception, which we therefore more correctly represent as an alternative.




 àmò тéX












u'yıns.' These are illustrated in the text by two examples; health, which may be due to chance as well as art ; and beauty and strength, to chance as well as nature.
dr'íx ${ }^{\infty}$ y] 'independent of art'.
 in the scientific Physics is pointed out in the Introd., u. s., p. 223.
ivoéxerau dì кal пapà фúrov elvat] Most probably a mere occasional and parenthetical note, according to the usual practice of this author (comp. § 14), ' chance may give rise not only to things natural and independent of nature, but also to things unnatural, monstrous, or abnormal', rà mapd $\phi \dot{u} \sigma \boldsymbol{v}$ rípara : on which see the reff. in Introd. p. 225. Compare the def.
 rapà $\phi \dot{v} \sigma \Delta v$. In this case the colon should be retained after elvan, the
 examples, $\dot{\delta} v$ al ríxva, sal in фúots airia, and the note parenthetical.

Bonitz, however, Aristotel. Stud. I 87, would alter the punctuation, placing a comma at eivas, and connecting this clause closely with the preceding, in the sense, ' of which the cause is nature, but (which) may be also contrary to nature': regarding this as an instance of the Aristotelian custom of 'not repeating the relative in the second of two co-ordinated members', illustrated by Waitz, Organ. 25635 , and certainly common enough in our author. This is further supported by Muretus, who translates, ' quae natura efficiuntur, ita tamen ut etiam praeter naturam evenire possint.'

The words quoted above from I 10, 3 , seem to me to be in favour of the former interpretation : and the practice of introducing ' notes' of this kind is at least as common with Aristotle as that which is noticed by Bonitz.


 aûra, kai $\dot{\eta}$ rúxn dópıotos. See further in Introd. p. 22I.
roû $\pi \lambda \eta \sigma i o v$ ] (övros, iorapivou), 'one's next neighbour', as ó $\pi$ ìas. In
 having a more extended and general sense, 'a fellow-creature'.

 єúтvХท́ $\mu \alpha \tau \alpha$ סокєî єìval.

 भov, то́тє סıopıбтє́ov.



 ov́ $\pi \epsilon \rho i ̀ ~ \tau o u ̂ ~ \tau \epsilon ́ \lambda o u s ~ a ̀ \lambda \lambda a ̀ ~ \pi \epsilon \rho i ̀ ~ \tau \omega ̄ \nu ~ \pi p o ̀ s ~ \tau o ̀ ~ \tau \epsilon ́ \lambda o s, ~$



habit of visiting a certain place ' $(\boldsymbol{\phi}$ ourây, to go backwards and forwards, ever and anon, repeatedly, to frequent, haunt) ${ }^{\circ}$ was the only one that failed to go (on some particular occasion), whilst those that went only once (äraf, once for all) all perished'. It is possible that this sense of repetition in the verbal termination $\hat{q} \nu$ may be the origin of the other signi-
 A too-frequently repeated action might very well be interpreted as a diseased habit.
§ 18. ö́av пері ìmaivov к.т.ג.] i. e. in c. 9 -of this book, the chapter on the topics of encomium and censure, proper to the encomiastic or epideictic branch of Rhetoric.

Chap. VI.
On the purport of this chapter, its principal divisions, and connexion with the general plan of the work, see Introd. p. 177.
§ 1. ì íxapxóvrov] On this addition over and above the theory, see note on c. 3 § 4; and Introd. p. 120.

 the means are within our own powerto attain, the ends are not. Bounceó-
 тоúcov $\beta_{\text {ov }}$ cuó $\mu$ e $\theta a$, Ib. line 12, and this is afterwards repeated.) Oüre yù $\rho$




oroxcia] i.e. tónous, the 'Elements', the primary topics of the subject 'good'. See Introd. p. 127, 8.
$\dot{\alpha} \pi \lambda \omega \bar{\sigma}]$ See note on p. 30, c. 2 § 4. The sense in which $\dot{a} \pi \lambda \omega \hat{\rho}$ is here intended is evidently that of good in general, as a general or abstract
conception, opposed to kaf" ixaotov special and particular goods. Schrader's rendering extra comparationem, if it means, as it seems to do, 'absolute good', 'good in itself, opposed to 'relative' or 'human good'that which cannot be compared with, i.e. has no relation to, any other kind of good, but exists in itself independently-is certainly wrong. ' Absolute good' can have no place in a rhetorical system or in the practice of the rhetorician; such a definition would be in direct violation of the principle so often laid down by Aristotle, that the rhetorical method must be in conformity with the materials of the art, of a popular and practical character, adapted to the understanding of an unlearned and unscientific audience. This is especially the case with definitions. See Introd. p. 12, 13. The general notion of good is first considered in §§ $1-3$, and then this is applied and illustrated in particulars in the remainder of the chapter.
 tions is marked by the introductory ไorow, 'let it be taken for granted'; no demonstration is required, any current notion of good will serve our purpose. The same phraseology occurs again in a similar case, c. 7 § 2,


First, 'Good is anything that is in itself and for its own sake desirable (an object of choice), and that for whose sake we choose something else (which is the ulterior end of our preference for anything); and that which is the universal aim, either of everything or' (as a qualification to exclude inanimate things) 'everything that has sensation or reason, or (would be their aim) if they were to acquire the reasoning faculty' (supposing they have it not yet, as infants and beasts). Comp. c. 7 § 21,


The first of these two definitions, which represents Good as desirable in and for itself, and as.that to obtain which we choose something else, is in fact identical with the second which describes it as the ultimate end or aim of all action and desire, only differing from it in terms. Every thing that we choose or desire, and every act that we perform, is as the means to one universal end, the Good. This view of the nature of Good is laid down and illustrated in the first chapter of the Nic. Eth. mâra





 c. 5. Similarly at the commencement of the Politics, we find that this is the end of states as well as individuals, because toû eival doкоûvtos dyaOoù

[^3]AR. I.




 23－26，A 3,983 a 31，rò oì êvera kal ràyatór．

The sane view of the nature of Good is to be found equally in Plato， from whom Aristote may have derived it．See，for instance，Phileb． 53 E ， seq．particularly 54 C ，where good is proved to be the of iveka，or univer－ sal end．Sympos． 205 A，where happiness，which consists in the posses－ sion of good，is similarly represented．Gorg． 499 E ，rinos civau dracuãy
 où ikcîvo тشิ้ ä入入av．Euthyd．c．8， 278 E，seq．
 would assign to each of us，and all that the individual reason assigns to each of us，that is good to every human being＇．That is，all that this supreme or universal reason or the particular reason of each individual， would assign as suitable to each ；the former what is good for all alike，the latter what is good for each particular individual ；since these sometimes differ：or，as Schrader interprets it，the universal reason that dictates general principles or rules of action，as contrasted with $\dot{\delta}$ vous $\dot{\boldsymbol{o}}$ nepl ikaorov，mens quae de singularibus decernit，which decides in special and individual cases．The reason as an agent is here opposed to mere nature，or to a blind natural impulse ；the choice of good is a reasonable choice，good is what reason universal or individual would necessarily choose．（voüs stands here in a general sense for the special faculty or part of it $\phi \rho^{\circ} v \sigma^{\prime}$ rs $^{1}$ ，the practical reason，the calculating discursive and moral part of the intellect，which directs us in our choice between good and evil．In Eth．Nic．vi，vois in its proper sense，the intuitive and specu－ lative reason，is distinguished from the diávota or discursive intellect，and its special virtue $\phi \rho o ́ v o t s$ or practical wisdom）．
＇Or that，by the presence of which anything（not only man in soul and body，but also things inanimate）is put in a healthy or proper condition （is made what it ought to be，what is best．for it to be）and made self－ sufficing（independent of all external conditions），and self－sufficiency or independence in general＇．On aúrápkea see note on § 3 of Chapter V ， p．74，aürápecta 〔wîs．It is thus briefly defined PoL IV（viI） 5 ，init．rò

＇ Or any thing that is productive or preservative of（tends to produce or preserve）things of that sort，or that which is attended by such，or things that have a tendency to prevent and destroy the opposites of these＇． These forms of good belong to a lower order，subordinate to rà kaf aírd àrafá，as means to the end．Eth．Nic．I 4， $1096 b$ 10，$\lambda$ érectac $8 \dot{e}$ каf $d v$


${ }^{1}$ This is actually substituted for voOs in the corresponding passages c． 7821 ．







 ferent senses, either simultaneous (attendance, accompaniment) or subsequent (consequence), as knowledge attends on learning subsequently, but life on health simultaneously ${ }^{11}$. dkodov $\theta$ eiv and äreatau are both used in logic to denote not merely something that follows, a 'consequence' in the ordinary acceptation of the words, but also an invariable or necessary attendant or concomitant in five different senses: ( 1 ) a preceding con-
 ineral, as learning is always preceded by ignorance; Categ. c. 12, $\boldsymbol{\pi} \rho \boldsymbol{o}^{\prime}-$


 health and life, Rhet. 16,3;7,5. (3) a subsequent concomitant, or 'consequent', vorepov, as learning is followed by knowledge, Rhet. II. cc. (4) סváace, a virtual concomitant, by implication, as sacrilege necessarily implies, includes potentially or virtually the notion of theft or fraud, by the rule omne maius continet in se minus; and (5) reciprocal contra-



 primary sense of darodoveciv were to attend or wait upon, and that that of 'following' is a special and secondary signification under the general notion of accompaniment. Hence dxoiovoos becomes pedissequus, a constant attendant, footman, or 'follower'. The 'simultaneous' kind of accompaniment appears also in this word sometimes even in the ordinary

 Orators ; and Xenophon joins it with oiv. Diog. Laert. vil § 125, ras 8'
 the Stoics. Plutarch, de Repugn. Stoic. c. 27, p. 1045 E, attributes the same doctrine in the same words to Chrysippus.
 conditions is thus explained by Majoragius. 'Ponit tres species rerum conficientium quae ita distingui possunt. Quae conficiunt, aut sunt a
${ }^{1}$ So Quintilian, Inst. Orat. v 10. 75. Sed haec consequentia dico, dxódouta; est enim conseyuens sapientiae bonitos: illa sequentia, таретbцeva, quae postea facta sunt aut futura...hoc temporis, illud naturae.







natura, h. e. intrinsecus, aut extrinsecus adhibentur. A natura sunt, ut temperies humorum, et bona corporis constitutio, conficiens est bonae valetudinis. Quae extrinsecus adhibentur aut sunt tanquam instrumenta, aut sunt actiones; instrumenta, ut cibaria :...actiones, ut exercitatio corporis, et deambulatio, quae frequenter bonam valetudinem efficit.' This account, though correct in the main, requires a little further explanation and modification. The ground of the distinction of the first of the three classes, of which the illustration is to viycaivetv, the healthy state of body, active, actual health, as produced by iyicia, health in itself, we learn from


 Hova. Here vícieca itself represents the formal cause of health, which is internal and essential ( $\mu$ épos, "̈ $\bar{X} \in \sigma \theta a t$ ), and developes, quickens, and stimulates the bodily functions into healthy activity, gives health an active reality (iveprei), and is therefore contrasted with the efficient, and external cause, the physician, who, as the Paraphrast on the parallel passage, $\mathbf{x} 4$, says,




 not 'non-existent') tr̀̀ roû ỳ The second and third divisions represent two kinds of extraneous causes or conditions, distinguished from this formal, intrinsic cause. These are first, necessary conditions, as of health, represented by food; and secondly, probable conditions, as exercise, which, as Aristotle adds, only produces health $\dot{\epsilon} \pi i \boldsymbol{~ r o ̀ ~} \pi 0 \lambda \dot{v}$.
§4. We now proceed to the application or illustration of the general principles laid down in the three first sections, which continues to the end of the chapter; roúrov $8 i$ кeוpévol к.r.ג. Application of the two topics of 'consequents', ä $\mu$ and $\bar{v} \sigma r e \rho o \nu ~ \dot{\alpha} о \lambda o v \theta i \hat{i v}$ : the receipt of all good things is an instance of the latter, because it is followed by the possession of good things; and the loss or riddance of evil things, which is accompanied simultaneously by the relief from what is bad, exemplifies the former. This latter conclusion rests upon the principle, here understood, but stated in § 18 , $\Phi$ ¢ rì èvayrion kakóv, roût' àjaÓv. Comp. also






over the less, the same is the measure of the gain of the one (good) and the loss of the other (evil)'. r(verat, 'becomes', i. e. 'amounts to'. The excess of the greater over the lesser good, and the excess of the greater over the lesser evil, is the measure of the gain in the one case, and the loss in the other; the loss of the evil being a gain, by the same rule as

§ 6. тоитткаі...каi трактика!] virtues, besides being 'productive of good', like many other things, have-also-this-special-peculiarity, that they are effective of good by action. The distinction is, that whereas noseiv tends to some ${ }^{\text {p }}$ pyov or substantial enduring result, as a picture, or statue, or other work of art, the end of mparrecy is action itself, and there is no further result. See the commencement of the Nic. Eth., and what is there said about these two rèn. Ethics and Rhetoric are $\pi \rho a к-$ rukal rixvan, the arts of the painter and statuary mourrixal. Compare Introd pp. 16-19. By the distinction here taken we find brought into view the specially 'practical' character of the virtues, which, like the art that describes them, end in action : though besides this, some of the virtues, at any rate, produce lasting effect, and leave results beyond the mere performance of the act, some positive benefit (as an ipyou) to an individual or the community. But the words here distinguished are elsewhere employed indifferently to express generally the power of producing an effect or result, as appears in the comparison of $5 \$ 3,16 ; 6 \$ 2$. Of the two, rourrusos is most frequently used in the expression of this conception, as may be seen in the following sections.

All moral virtues must necessarily be each a form of good: for they produce a good moral habit, or condition, or constitution in those that possess them, and are besides productive (and effective) of good in their actions and the results of these.
' Each of them, its substance or true nature' (the first Category, ri iori', ovioia, substance what the thing is, really and essentially), 'and qualities' (the third Category), 'must be treated separately, xopis, apart'. This is done in c. 9. The contents of the chapter to which reference is here made shew that dperal are here confined to the jousal or moral virtues, the 'virtues'par excellence, and do not include physical, or any other, 'excellences'.
§ 7. kal rìn ifoovir dyativ eivar] What is here taken for granted, as universally admitted, that pleasure is good (though not necessarily the good) is in both the treatises on pleasure, in the 6th and 1oth books of the Nicomachean Ethics, carefully investigated and discussed, and the opinions held upon the question by preceding philosophers, as Eudoxus


 aipє $\tau \alpha ́ \dot{\epsilon} \sigma \tau \tau \nu$.

and Plato, examined, Bk. vir, c. 12, seq. and X, c. 2. Aristotle's conclusion (in Bk. x ) is that though pleasure may be regarded as good it is not the good, i.e. the supreme good, good in itself, because there are some pleasures which are not proper objects of choice and therefore not good. Eudemus (if the seventh book be his), seems rather to be inclined to the

 elva. And at the beginning of c. 13, in answer to Plato's objection in

 pupil (on the supposition that Eudemus is the author of Bk. vil) is in fact in exact conformity with the difference of their respective definitions of pleasure; Aristotle defining it as the perfecting (redeinots) of the ivépyeca, but not our evepyeta itself, and therefore not 'the supreme good'; whilst Eudemus goes further and describes it as an 'unimpeded energy', diventródoros ivípyeca: and in fact this variation may be regarded as one of the principal arguments for the difference of authorship of the two treatises on pleasure in the Nic. Eth. The principle upon which the fact is here assumed in the Rhetoric, is stated in both treatises of the Ethics; the universal recognition, namely, of the principle that pleasure is desirable.


 into view the physical and moral aspects of it united in the term beauty
 that pleases in nature and art; in caf airio aiperóv we are referred to the moral side of it, that which is 'fair' and right, which is an end in itself, in itself desirable, and to be sought on its own account and with no ulteríor object. It is defined in this latter sense, c. 9, 3, $8 a^{2} \nu i^{\prime}$ aúrò alperivy in draverò $\dot{\eta}_{2}$ (its being the object of 'praise' confers upon it its moral



 кa入ón as a moral end, the ultimate object and motive of human action, to which all action should be directed and all lower interests sacrificed, see the fine passage of Eth. Nic. IX 8, 1169 a 6, seq., particularly 20-27.
§ 8. wis $8 \dot{e} \mathrm{ka}$ ' iv cireiv] 'to describe good things singly', in detail, by an enumeration of particular kinds of good.
cidaunovia] happiness, the universal rinas, aim and end of life and
 סрía, $\sigma \omega ф \rho о \sigma u ́ v \eta, \mu \in \gamma \alpha \lambda о \psi \cup \chi i \alpha, \mu \in \gamma \alpha \lambda о \pi \rho є ́ \pi \epsilon \iota \alpha$ каі


action. See especially Eth. Nic. I 5, where happiness is defined by its three principal characteristics; it must be rè̀єov, aürapkes, rò rêv пракrây rinos. These same characteristics appear in the definition here given in the Rhetoric : rỉctoy corresponds to ró kaf aúrò alperóy, its perfection or completeness being chiefly shewn in its desirability for its own sake.







 of happiness, see c. 5 §3, and note there, p. 74 . The sentences of Eth. Nic. I 5 , following those already quoted, are upon this same subject. The concluding summary of the contents of the chapter is, ríגcov dri rt фat-
 third of the conditions in the Rhetoric. A precisely similar description of happiness is found in Eth. Nic. X, cc. 6 and 7.
§ 9 . The list of virtues here given is very incomplete, and a mere extract or sample of that given in the Nic. Eth. II 7, which is itself anything but a complete or satisfactory enumeration of them. A longer list is to be found in c. 9 § 5 , which includes the two intellectual virtues, oopia and $\phi \rho o ́ v \eta \sigma t s$, but still omits several of those which are distinguished in the table of the Ethics. All the virtues here mentioned are analyzed in detail in Eth. N. III, IV, v, justice being treated separately at great length in the fifth book.
$\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \xi_{\leq s,}$, the genus of the definition of virtue, is an acquired, developed, confirmed habti or state, physical, mental or moral-the last of the three, of course, when applied to virtue. It is properly opposed to $\delta d \theta \theta e \sigma t s$, as a settled and permanent state, opposed to a temporary and changeable disposition. It is developed out of the $\begin{aligned} \\ \text { rat } \\ \text { by }\end{aligned}$ the operation of $2 \theta$ os, habit or association, tillit has acquired a fixed tendency and direction and a confirmed character, which shews itself in the constant exercise of similar vepyeia, and is now no Tonger thatie to change and the opposite tepdency to vice. On the growth of virtue, and the formation of the $\boldsymbol{\xi} \xi \mathrm{s}$, see Eth. Nic. 11 1-5, particularly 4 and 5. Also Sir A. Grant, Ess. on Ethics, I p. 120 seq. (1st Ed.) [=p. 164, 3rd Ed.] Trendel. on de Anima p. 311, and 366. Kategorienlehre, p. 95.
§ ro. ن̛yieca...dptoroy dokei elvat] This is one of many opinions. So the 'Delian inscription', quoted by Aristotle, Eth. N. I 9, and Eudemus, Eth. Eud. I 1, 1, with a slight variation; also in Theogn. Eleg. 255







tıs ípậ rò ruxeî, for which Bergk gives in the sccond line, $\pi \rho \bar{\eta} \gamma \mu a$ dè


 Dithyr. I (ap. Bergk, Fragm. Lyric. Gr. p. 841 [p. 984 Ed.. 2]), úyisca,

 u. s., p. 840 [p. 986 Ed. 2] (a dithyrambic poet and rhetorician, mentioned by Aristotle, Rhet. III 12, 2 ; 13, 5, and quoted, as Bergk supposes, in III 14, 5); Plut. de virt. mor. c. 10, quoting from some poet, ï re roû бळ்цатоs




 that which it was intended by its nature to do, determines the $\dot{\alpha} \rho \in \boldsymbol{r}_{\dot{\eta}}$ or special excellence of anything. If wealth is the object of acquisition, and acquisition fulfils its proper function, its destination, the law of its being, in the accumulation of wealth; then the dectin or special excellence of the art of acquiring is manifested in the attainment of that object, or the wealth amassed. Wealth as a 'good' secims here to be regarded as an end; if so, this is in contradiction to the more scientific doctrine laid down in the Politics I 8, according to which wealth is only an instrument, see nute on p. 79 (c. 5,7 ), and note 1 on the same page. However, as some good things are only instrumental and means to an end, we are not obliged to suppose that Aristotle regards wealth here otherwise than as one of those mediate ends, subordinate and subservient to some other and higher end. On the relation of $\mathbf{7}^{\text {phoy }}$ and deerý, see notes on c. 2, 12 , and 5,4 , and the reff. in the former.
§ 12. кa甘' aúròv aiperòs $\dot{\delta} \phi i \lambda o s]$ This is an application of the general principle in § 2, that good in general is in itself desirable, to the special case of friendship. That a good friend, or the friendship of the good, is desirable in itself is made to appear in the course of a long and subtle argument in Eth. N. IX 9, of which the conclusion is (at the end of the




§ 13. Tı $\mu \dot{\eta}, ~ \delta o \xi a]$ The distinction between these two is stated in note on c. 5, 4, p. 76. These are not only 'pleasant' and therefore good in them-




sclves, but also productive of various advantages which accrue to them from the respect of others, and so 'good' in this secondary or subordinate sense likewise.

кai àко入ovecí aúrois к.r. $\lambda_{\text {.] ' 'and they are accompanied for the most }}$ part by the actual possession of the things ' (natural gifts, qualities, accomplishments, acquirements, military distinction, rank and fortune, and such like) ' which the honours paid them (these supposed possessors) imply', i $\phi$ ' is remêrat, on the basis of which, on account of, for which, they receive the honour paid, or 'on which the honours paid them rest, are grounded, or based'. ' $\phi$ ' ois r. might possibly be rendered 'for which they (the henour and reputation) are valued'; on which their value depends, or, by which it is measured; but the other interpretation seems more direct and natural.

The rule here tacitly referred to, as warranting the inference that, when honour is conferred, those so honoured are generally worthy of it, is that a gencrally received opinion, or popularly current maxim, or the expression of these in the ordinary language, may be for the most part depended
 must be supplied.
§ 15. eviфuta] is a happy natural constitution of mind or body or
 ET. c. I, 165 a 5 , we have ev'фuévтatos applied to 'a topic', in the sense (apparently) of 'naturally best adapted to a certain purpose'. And in the spurious addition to the Rhet. ad Alex. c. 38 (Bekk. 39), 19, cúdvia rómev occurs to denote the ' natural advantages of situation', opportunitas locorum. The word is however applied here, as it usually is, to the mental faculties, and signifies cleverness, quickness of intellect, intellectual dexterity, differing very little from dipxivoca. And so, infr. § 29 and it


 gain the reputation of cleverness'. In Top. $\Theta$ 14, $163613, \eta$ кar' ${ }^{\prime} \lambda \boldsymbol{\eta}^{\prime}-$

 Nic. III 7, 111469 , it is used similarly to denote sagacity in aiming
 $\dot{d} \lambda_{\eta} \theta_{i v \eta}$ äv eï cúguia. Rhet. III 2, 10 init. In Poet. 22, 17 it stands for readiness in poetical invention. idov's, the opposite, is 'dull' and 'stupid', Plat. Phaed. 96 C. In the Platonic öpot, p. 413 D, it is defined,

${ }^{1}$ This principle is in fact constantly appealed to by Aristotle, and is one of the ordinary arguments to which he has recourse in the establishment of the doctrines of his philosophy.





$\mu \nu i \mu a t]$ Victorius, Dater and Vahlen (in Trans. of Vienna Acad. Oct. 1861, p. 105) object to the plural of this word, on the ground either that abstract nouns do not admit of the plural formation, or (as Vahlen) that as it is the faculty of memory that is here in question the plural is inadmissible. As to the former, such is no doubt the rule, but the exceptons are abundant. Parallel to this is àvauviouts, 'acts of recollection', de Memory. 2, 6 and io. We have already noticed reoorvvigess and inotagas as examples in c. 5, 9 ; three more occur together in c. 11, 4,


 kali douncias. The plural expresses the several acts or moments of these abstract conceptions when carried into operation, or particular cases or instances of the manifestation of them. M Mijuat therefore means here, any ordinary examples of retentive memory. It occurs itself, Metaph. A 1, 980 6 29, and Anal. Post. II 19, 100 a 5. [Also, in Eth. N. IX 4, 1166 a 25; X 2, 1173 6 19, Index Aristotelicus. S.]
címíieca] which is equivalent to cíduía $\pi \rho o ̀ s ~ \mu i ̀ \theta \eta \sigma o v$, is a particular kind of natural sagacity and readiness directed to learning. ciфvia $\downarrow u x$ ins тpòs ráxos $\mu$ а
arxivora] 'ready wit', 'quickness of apprehension', is mentioned as a kind of evoroxia and distinguished from củbandia right fragment), but

 very well with the preceding. It is therefore an intellectual (not moral) 'presence of mind', the faculty of seeing the point at once, or 'ready wit'.
 (intuitive, immediate) rout $\mu$ ícov (the middle term of the syllogism, which


 which expresses in a logical form precisely the same characteristic of the faculty, rapidity of apprehension, raxì ivónoe.
 mentioned of the three, fro $\zeta_{j} \nu$, to which alone it is strictly appropriate. Sciences and arts are avowedly 'productive of good', and rest their claims upon that alone.
 it promotes the public interest, it is advantageous or expedient to society, whose interest it is that the laws should be duly observed and the rights of its citizens maintained, and evildoers punished, and all this is the effect of rod dixatoy: but that which is useful or expedient is good, § I ,



because it is the means to an end, that end being happiness, the ultimate and universal aim.
§ 17. So far the good things treated of are universally acknowledged to be such, and we may therefore take it for granted that they are so. We now come to cases of doubtful good things, which are or may be disputed, and which therefore require argument for their support. $\sigma v \lambda$ גoyıfoos here stands for the rhetorical enthymeme, or rather, perhaps, for any kind of regular inference or ratiocination in general. See note on c. 2,11 , and c. 4,5 .
oxe\&óv] 'pretty nearly', 'about'. Used in qualification of a too general expression, just like wis $\begin{gathered}\text { inos cineiv. The author means to say that }\end{gathered}$ he has given a tolerably complete list, or exact account of them; he does not profess perfect accuracy.
§ 18. $\dot{\Phi}$ rò ìvaytion kaxóv, roût' àyaOóv] If, for instance, you can shew that vice and folly are bad, you may infer at once that their opposites, virtue and wisdom, are good. This is not universally true ; Aristotle himself places it amongst the topics which are 'open to question'. So Bacon, Cuius contrarium malum bonum; cuius bonum malum. Non tenet (this does not hold) is the 'redargutio', in iis rebus quarum vis in temperamento et mensura sita est. Dum vitant stulti vitia in contraria currunt. Pref. to Colours of Good and Evil. Bacon's Works, ed. Ellis and Spedding, Vol. vil p. 67. According to Aristotle, Eth. N. II 8, there is double opposition in the case of virtue and vice, al $\mu \mathrm{i} y$ y $\mathrm{y} \boldsymbol{\rho}$
 virtue, the mean disposition, is opposed to either of the extremes or vices, the rule holds; when the extremes or vices are considered as opposed








 trario dicitur. Contrariorum autem genera sunt plura: unum corum quae in eodem genere plurimum differunt (Aristotle's évauria, in his ordinary usage of the term. Good and bad however are different genera, not extremes of the same genus), ut sapientia et stultitia. Eodem autem genere dicuntur quibus propositis occurrunt tamquam e regione quaedam contraria, ut celeritati tarditas, non debilitas: ex quibus argumenta talia existunt: si stultitiam fugimus sapientiam sequamur: et bonitatem si malitiam. The dialectical topics of tà èvavia, in which this is not included, are analysed in Topic. B cc. 7,8. To this head may also be referred the topic of orépyots, privatio, criticised by Bacon, Colours of Good









and Evil, No. 6, cuius privatio bona, malum: cuius privatio mala, bonusm. orippots and $\mathbf{8} \mathrm{Ecs}$, one of the forms of contraricty or opposition, Met. 14 ,
 a 7 (though in a different application), ípoios dè roîs ivavriots kal dal rầ arepioceov кai ikean oxemrioy. Erip four (Categ. 10, 116 17) or five (Metaph. $\Delta$ 10, 1018 a 20) kinds of opposition, àruкeíधat. Comp. supr. § 4 , in which this is implied.
§ 19. Victorius quotes in illustration, Cic. pro Muren. c. 39, Si L. Catilina cum suo consilio nefariorum hominum quos secum eduxit hac de re posset iudicare, condemnaret L. Murenam: si interficere posset, occiderct...Idemne igitur delecti amplissimis ex ordinibus honestissimi atque sapientissimi viri iudicabant quod ille importunissimus gladiator hostis rcipublicae iudicaret?
ov ivavrion] The gen. immediately following the ordinary construction $\$$ ivavriov, is remarkable. The genitive after the adjective is accounted for by the comparison implied in it, just as it follows ïrepos, ä $1 \lambda 0$ os, $\delta$ cad $^{-}$
 Gr. Gr. 366, on ivavrios, Obs. 2.
 homo Sinon apud Virgilium (Aen. II 104) et ab hoc loco praesidium petivit, cum salutem suam callide procurans, quam abiecisse videri volebat, inquit, Hoc Ithacus velit, et magno mercentur Alridae.' Victorius.
tort $8^{\prime}$ ovk dei roûto к.r.ג.] This last rule is liable to exceptions, as in the case where the same thing, the same course of action or policy, happens to be for the interest of two adversaries : a common misfortune has often this effect of 'bringing' enemies 'together', or uniting them, as when the Athenians were forced into alliance with the Thebans by their common dread and hatred of Philip. ouváyet yàp roùs ¿xOiorous ó кowòs фóßos, Polit. vill (v), sub init. 'Misery acquaints a man with strange bedfellows', says Trinculo in the Tempest (Act II Sc. 2), which illustrates the proverb. However, the ordinary rule is, that it is common interests that produce sympathy, ouvíxer rò kowóv, Eth. Nic. 14, ult.; and the example of Athens and Thebes is only an apparent exception, because in the given case the common danger had altered their original relations and engendered common interests and common sympathies and antipathies.



kai

 health, life, virtue, and all that lies in a mean state, happiness, are all ends in themselves, and desirable in and for themselves. Pleasure by this rule, which does admit of being carried to excess, is properly speaking no 'good'.

 been incurred'.
yor ] note on c. 1,7, p. 13 'already', for that reason alone, and without looking any farther. The time, trouble, and expense which we have spent in the pursuit of an object shews already, without any further consideration, or without our knowing whether it is really good or not, that it secms at any rate good to us: it consequently becomes an end to us, and all ends are good. diyaOóy, of '’申ierac $\pi$ ávra, $6,2$.
rò ridos dya0óv] because 'every art, science, action, and purpose has some good in view at which it aims, and which is therefore its end in every case'. Eth. Nic. init.

The two quotations from Homer are taken from II. B 176, and 298. Vater observes that the half line quoted of the first does not convey the intention of the quotation ; the 'boast to Priam' is not in point. The


 III 2, 6 (of the result of his son's studies at Athens), ad quos cum tamquam ad mercaturam bonarum artium sis profectus, inanem redire turpissimum est.

 intervening-is inserted as something additional to the preceding, which it enforces or emphasizes, and has in these, as in all other cases, a reference to $\mu$ eiv expressed or implied. A first implies a second, and a second a first. Of $\mu$ év implied in $8 \dot{\prime}$, see some instances in Herm., note on Soph. Phil. 86, and the reverse case, dé in $\mu \dot{i v}$, Don. New Crat. § 154, where the origin and derivation of the two particles is made out. The dé here may

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be readily explained as in correlation to a suppressed mév after raüta, 'these first, and secondly the proverb'; or 'these on the one hand, on the other the proverb'. It may be rendered 'too', 'also', or from the emphasis that it conveys, 'in fact', or any thing similar. This special usage, like the other senses of $8 \epsilon^{\prime}$, is derived from the primary meaning of $\mu i \nu$ and $\delta \varepsilon$, 'one' and 'two'; and so, as conjunctions, in the sense of 'firstly' and 'secondly'. See Jelf, Gr. Gr. § 769, 2 , where a few examples are cited. Others are given in Paley's note on Prom. Vinct. 994 (from Aeschylus) : in Arnold's note on Thucyd. II 36, 6 (from Thucydides, Herodotus, and Xenophon) : Plat. Rep. IX 573 B (ed. Tur.), kal mavias 8 é. It is found in all Greek writers, but is more common in Aristotle than
 Eth. N. V 5, 1130 621, кaì tò 8íkatov dé: Polit. vi (iv), 13, 1297 b 10, kaì

 8é, et passim. ['Maxime in Ethicorum libro quarto octavo nono decimo.' Eucken, de Arist. dicendi ratione I p. 32. S.] The same meaning is much more frequently expressed by these particles in the inverted order, 8 kai.
 at the door', after you have carried it home from the distant well with much toil and trouble, expresses the general conception of 'lost labour', 'labour thrown away'. Erasmus, Adagia, p. 350, in foribus urceum, misinterprets the proverb as expressing something vile and contemptible, not worth the trouble of taking up.

Another more common corresponding proverb is.$\pi \lambda \dot{v} v e \iota v \pi \lambda i v \theta o v$, latercm lavare (Terent. Phorm. 1 4, 9)' 'to try to make a red brick white
${ }^{1}$ In the endeavour to represent these English words by precisely corresponding Greek terms, no difficulty is found in the case of break: if karayvival $\lambda$ vípap $^{(P 1}$ (Pl. Phaed. 85 A ) is to break a lyre, it is equally applicable to a pitcher. But when we try to render 'to drop' by a word exactly corresponding (deriorpopos in its primary sense), the language seems to fail us. I examined all the analogous :'Greek words
 and a dozen others, with their compounds, and found them all infected with the same vice, in respect of the representation of the word 'to drop', viz. that they all express a voluntary and conscious action, wherens drop is applied to an accidental and unintentional relaxation of the muscles, which cannot properly be called an action at all. The notion may no doubt be expressed by a circumlocution, of
 subject), counp. Lat. fuscre, is a frequent example. We might also say (of the
 these are not single words. And I am brought to the conclusion that the Greek language has no single word to express the notion exactly; which is the less surprising, inasmuch as the French language labours under the same deficiency; the periphrasis laisser tomber being made to supply the place of 'to drop'. exxeiv, Soph. Phil. 13, might seem to come nearest to the literal representation of it, were it not for Arist. Ran. 855, where the word undoubtedly expresses a con-





 and answering to our 'washing a blackamoor white'. Compare also Eur.


 фaive $\sigma \theta a, ~ i n ~ t h i s ~ s e n s e, ~ c o m p . ~ I I ~ 2, ~ 1, ~ b i s) ~ a n ~ o b j e c t ~ o f ~ c o n t e n t i o n ' . ~ . ~$
roûr' ázäòv $\left.\eta_{\nu \nu}\right]$ 'this is, as was said', i.e. in § 2. This use of the imperfect, referring to a past transaction or statement referred to in present time, is so common both in Plato and Aristotle as to require no illustration.
oi $\partial \dot{\pi} \pi 0 \lambda \lambda o l . . . \phi a i v o y r a t]$ The acts and opinions of the great body of people, the most of those that you know or have heard of, are as convincing to the popular audience to which Rhetoric is addressed, as those of all mankind if they could be ascertained. The fact therefore that the possession of anything is much contested and coveted, implying that a great many people seek after it and care for it, is as sufficient a proof to them that it is a good, as if it could be shewn, as it ought by the rules, § 2 , that it is the universal object of human aims: the sanction of 'the many' is as good as an universal admission.
§ 24. тò ímaıvecóv] The proper object of ë $\pi$ anvos is virtue, any kind
 Rhet. I 9, 33. On énatvos as the test of virtue and the distinction of this
 p. 212 seq. It is there said that $\begin{gathered}\text { inauvos and } \psi \text { ivos are the equivalents }\end{gathered}$ of Butler's 'moral approbation and disapprobation'. This requires some qualification. When the 'intellectual' virtues are included as the objects of ënaumos, as they certainly are in the Eth. Eud. II I. 18, the approbation loses its exclusively moral character. In Eth. Nic. I 12, Aristotle together with the moral virtues, justice, courage, 'goodness' in general, includes also as objects of praise all kinds of ápetí or excellence, such as strength and swiftness, which are manifested in action.
 former of these two topics, quotes Virg. Aen. XI 282, Stetimus tcla aspera contra, Contulimusque manus; experto credite quantus In clypeum assurgat, quo turbine torqueat hastam. The prowess of Aeneas could not be more highly extolled than by the praises extorted from his enemy Diomede.

кal ol фaî入ot] is rejected as a subsequent insertion by Muretus, F. A. Wolf, Bekker, Brandis, and Spengel, because it is passed over unnoticed in the explanatory commentary that follows, ẅन
${ }^{1} \theta_{0} \lambda \epsilon \rho \alpha^{2} \pi \lambda \nu \theta_{0} y$ is to be interpreted here not of the colour of the brick, but of an unbaked brick dried in the sun, which melts away and turns to mud when it is washed.

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Vater alone defends it. The explanation of it is easy, and it is perfectly consistent with the context and with good sense. If the vilest and meanest, the 'worthless and contemptible', фaviot, who are least likely to be sensible of merit in others, being almost devoid of right moral instinct, find themselves compelled to praise some signal act of valour, disinterestedness, or virtue-we are engaged here upon actions-a fortiori it must meet with the approbation of better judges, and be emphatically good. If with this reasonable explanation we take into account Aristotle's hasty and careless habit, twice already noticed, of interrupting an explanation or an argument by the insertion of something bearing indirectly on the subject, but not immediately appropriate, I think we may without scruple retain the words objected to.
 valent to, an universal admission'. fidy, 'by this time', now that we have got as far as this, have reached, that is, the level of enemies, the extreme case of those who are interested in denying the merit-if they approve, all others must necessarily do so.
oud yàp rò фavepòy...rò "incov] There is a difficulty here which has much occupied the commentators, arising from the want of connexion, as the present text stands, between the two rules laid down, あ̈orep kal... inauvovav, and the example (from Simonides) which is said, $80^{\circ}$, to follow from them: the example, according to the present reading, is not an inference from either of them. The best way of meeting the difficulty seems to be to adopt, with Spengel, the reading of the best ms $\mathrm{A}^{\text {: }}$. This omits the words ovis of фiגot $\downarrow$ írougr kal a'yaOoi, without which the sense is clear and consistent. 'For it must be owing to its being evident that they are inclined to (would) admit it, just as' (it is equally evident that, by the same rule, in the opposite case) 'those who are praised by their enemies must be worthless', (because if your enemy approves of your conduct towards him, which is assumed to be hostile, it shews that you can have done him no harm : and therefore that you have been wanting either in courage or patriotism or energy and skill). Of this the example of the Corinthians is now a real instance, and their suspicion of Simonides' intentions may be traced to the general rule. 'And this was why the Corinthians conceived the suspicion that they had been insulted by Simonides, when he wrote, 'Ilium has no fault to find with the Corinthians' (which it ought to have had if they had done their duty). The Corinthians misinterpreted Simonides' expressions; his intentions were innocent, but he failed to perceive the inference that might be derived from them. The line of Simonides is apparently misquoted by a lapse of memory. The Schol. Pind. Ol. xIII p. 78, who cites it, has maviec (i) for $\mu$ е́ $\boldsymbol{\text { фerar ; }}$; and this reading appears also in another reference to it in


 only says, Il. $\mathbf{Z} 152$ seq., that Glaucus himself attributed his origin to

 тои' $\sigma \alpha \nu \tau 0$ s

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Sisyphus of Ephyre or Corinth. If this be the true explanation of the reason why Ilium was 'not wroth', or 'found no fault', with the Corinthians, and Aristotle remembered it when he used the example, it seems that the instance is very ill chosen for the purpose of illustrating the rule. In this case nothing is imputed to the Corinthians except that the aid of Glaucus and his men of Corinthian race compensated the Trojans for their own hostility, and therefore that Troy had nothing to reproach them with, which could scarcely be construed by them as an insult: and the example only applies to the rule which it is supposed to exemplify in this sense ; that the Trojans ought by the rule to have been represented as having directly censured the Corinthians, if Simonides had intended to pay them a compliment; by the mere omission of this they thought that he had insulted them.
f 25. Compare the corresponding topic of II 23, 12. On this kind of 'authority' see I 15, where it is exemplified under the head of 'witnesses', §§ 13 and 15. The фpónuos, the man of practical wisdom, skill and judgment, the 'artist' or expert in each pursuit, is the proper standard or measure to be appealed to in every disputed question. The general judgment of such well-qualified persons is the dofos $\lambda$ óyos, which must be applied even to the determination of the due measure of virtue, which is a





spoírpuver] 'decided, distinguished by preference'.
'EXfonv Onovis] The preference of Theseus, a man of consummate authority, wavre入ij iो力 dperidy arnoipevoy, for Helen, is actually introduced by Isocrates as one of the topics of his encomium of that much calumniated lady, Helen. §§ 18-22.
§ 26. rè $\pi$, The spoaiperts seems here intended in the more general sense in which rpoacpeío $\theta a t$ and $\pi$ rooaipects are employed in the ordinary language, and even sometimes in the Ethical treatise itself, as 1 2, init. drecor̀ $\pi$ âaa rinious кal rpoaipeots dyatoû revols ópíyeral. wpoaipeots is defined in Eth.
 ing, not directly expressing the free will) capable of deliberation, directed


to things within our power'-no one deliberates about things beyond his power, oùdiv yàp $\pi \lambda$ íov. And again in precise conformity with this, de
 (is the ultimate mover, the origin of motion or action) rd dpenroy nal rò shavonrov, (it is the object of the two faculties, and not the faculties themselves, which is the real origin of motion, according to the Aristotelian doctrine that the primary moving agent must be itself unmoved,) av met.
 posed of two separate elements or faculties, intellectual and impulsive, of which the latter alone is the agent of motion, or stimulates to action : the intellectual part deliberates prior to action, and decides whether the proposed object of the action is good or bad, right or wrong ${ }^{1}$. Though the mpoaipects in its general and wider signification of 'deliberate, voluntary purpose' is capable of prompting to action of every kind, yet in its narrower and specially ethical usage it is moral action alone that it origi-


 the ethical point of view therefore the definition will be 'a deliberate and voluntary moral purpose'. The principal passages on the subject of mpnalpeots are Eth. Nic. III cc. 4, 5, 6, where it is analysed and distinguished from inutupia and $\theta u \mu$ ós, which are mere animal impulses, on the one hand, and from $\beta_{0} \lambda_{\lambda \eta \sigma s,}$, de Anima III 9, 10, where it is treated in reference to its action as a motive principle.
rd eipqueiva] all the objects of voluntary choice already mentioned which consist in, or are to be obtained by, action; such as health, pleasure, and especially the various moral virtues.
kaì rd roîs ${ }^{2}$ Xpois caxá] This was an article of the received code of popular morality amongst the Greeks and Romans : comp. § 29, where one class of good things are $\mathfrak{a}$ dre $\chi$ Өrijovras roîs i $\chi$ 日poîs. This is a duty, and a part of justice. In Rhet. 19, 24, it is said to combine two kinds of

 I (2), 13. Xen. Memor. IV 2, 15, 16. Eur. Ion 1046, órav dè soderious

 est ut ne cui quis noceat, nisi lacessitus iniuria.
 kinds of possibilities ; 'things which might' (ăv, under certain conditions, possibly difficult) 'be brought to pass, and those which are easily attained'.
${ }^{1}$ Accordingly, Metaph. $\Theta$ 5, 1048 a 11, 8 pefis and mpoalpeors are distinguished; bpakss is the general and spontaneous impulse to action, which when coatrolled and determined by the intellectual principle, bedroua, becomes the compound тpoulpeots, the deliberate moral purpose.


 mis $\beta$ oú入ovtal• ${ }^{\circ}$



The distinction is between ends or things hard and unlikely, and easy and likely, to be attained or obtained.

The same distinction of possibilities is found in Cic. de Inv. II 56, 169. (Victorius, who refers to it, quotes only the definition of facilis.) Atque in iis omnibus quae ante dicta sunt, quid fieri et quid facile fieri possit oportet considerare. Facile id dicimus, quod sine magno aut sine wllo labore, sumptu, molestia quam brevissimo tempore corfici potest; posse autem fieri quod quamquam laboris, sumptus, molestiae, longinquitatis indiget, atque aut omnes aut plurimas aut maximas causas habet difficultatis, tamen, his susceptis difficultatibus, compleri atque ad exitum perduci potest: an excellent commentary on Aristotle's topic.
 laborious effort, or by the shortness of the time occupied in doing anything or getting anything done, because difficulty is defined by the opposites.

 as it usually is in the sense of 'defining'. osifcodas however, as a passive, is found, though rarely, elsewhere, as Eth. Nic. III 10, 1115 b 23,


 It is not to be included in the class of irregular passives formed from neuter verbs, the act of op $\langle$ Scev being transitive.
 thing that turns out as they desire'; any result, etther or their own acts, or of the course of events, such as they like; [Gaisford says, ' nescio an in ds dy ${ }^{\circ}$ ortmera' (a various reading) 'lateant vestigia melioris scripturae, $\delta \sigma^{\circ}$ dy Bovidentac.' This is not so suitable to what follows.] 'but what they do like is either no evil at all, or less than the good (ensuing) : and this (the latter of the two preceding) will be the case, when (for instance) the penalty (which is attached to some illicit gain or advantage) is either unfelt ( $\lambda a v$ Oávy, escapes your notice, not the notice of others,) or trifling'. In both of these cases the profit, or good, is greater than the loss, or evil.
§ 28. cal rà toca] Things or qualities, special and peculiar not shared by the-rest of the world in general, such as personal gifts, graces, or accomplishments : anything that distinguishes a man from the mass. Of the three kinds of tova distinguished in Top. A 5, 102 a 18-30 (ticoy
 are not absolutely and at all times idca, but only at particular times, under particular circumstances of time, nori; the third class, to which those
 i. e., in this case, to a few men as compared with the rest.
 in that the advantage is shared by few, in this the possessor stands alone. Anything excessively rare or unique, as a coin, a tulip, a piece of china, a book, may acquire a special value from this circumstance. Comp. Magn. Mor. B 7, 12056 29, rò ydap iv râбur elvan кal rẫt кouvò oik diya-




тepırтá] 'things that are singular, preeminent, specially distinguished' amongst their fellows or congeners, or among things of the same sort, 'for by this they obtain greater credit'. reperrós is 'odd', singular, striking, remarkable'. From $\pi$ rei, 'over and above', 'exceeding', (Homer, repl
 into the metaphorical sense of surpassing, preeminent, standing out from the rest, out of the common way, extraordinary. This signification of the word will be found illustrated in the Lexicons. Add to these, as marked examples of some of its various significations, Eur. Hippol 437, 445, 948. Ar. Pol. II 6, 1265 a 10, in the well-known passage on Plato's style, Ib. viII (v) 10, 1312 a 27, mpdjecos meptrijs (extraordinary, signal)
 damus of Miletus, that he became перıזтóтероs 'rather odd, eccentric, extravagant'; in his dress and habits. Top. 24,141613 , dxppifs kal териттì Bdávoia. Metaph. 1 2, 1053 b 3, of Protagoras' dictum, (xd́vrous
 Probl. XXX I init. пrepertoi ('distinguished' in any art or science) фaiyourak me入ayxodicol öyres. (Waitz, on Top. r 2, in a 6, illustrates other senses of the word in Aristotle.) Of excellence of style, Dion. de Comp. Verb. c. 3, bis, sub init. et sub fin. From repi again, in the sense of 'over and above, exceeding', comes repırtós as applied to an 'odd' number; the supposition on which the name is based being, that the afrios dpt $\theta \mu$ ós, or even number, was the primary number- 2 was in fact considered as the first arithmetical number, 1 being the principle of unity-the odd number is an addition to or excess over the other, the next step in advance.

The three kinds of good just enumerated are all repeated in c. 9. 25, 26, under the head of кa入óv. As 'goods' they are in fact all of them of the specially 'questionable' sort', d $\mu \phi \iota \sigma$ пrin $\sigma \mu a$; supr. § 17.
rà dopótrovta] 'suitable, appropriate', specially applicable or belonging to them.
rà «pooriкovra kard yívos kal dóvapıv] 'things that naturally belong to them, or are due to them in respect of birth and power'.

2 'Odd' in early English is sometimes employed by a similar metaphorical application to denote superiority to others, striking excellence. 'For our tyme the odde man to performe all three perfitlie, ...is in my poor opinion Joannes Sturmius'. Ascham, Scholemaster, p. i13 (Mayor's ed.). Richardson has omitted to notice this use of 'odd' in his Dictionary.






 deficient in'. 'And anything men think wanting to them, as appropriate, or suitable to their condition' (a second case of rd áppórrovra), 'however trifling', (they regard as a good, and eagerly pursue it): 'for none the less for that (ord rd mupà elvar) do they choose (deliberately purpose) to do it'; i. e. to do things, to act, so as to attain their end. So Victorius, who illustrates the topic by Hor. Sat. II 6, 8, $O$ si angulus ille proximus accedat qui nunc denormat agellum. If this is right, as I suppose it is,
 iфievra, or some verb that would imply the object of action, and not the mere action itself.
\& 29. The things mentioned in this and the following section all of them designate what is considered good because men like to do it.
rà suxaríppaora] 'things easily effected, or easy achievements', are considered as grod, because they are possible, by the rule $\$ 26,27$; they belong to the second class of things 'possible', such as are 'easy'.

кarip ${ }^{2}$ woav] aor. 'cver succeeded in'; or indicating the notion of 'habit' which the verb opoov̀y and its acompounds acquire. The secondary and metaphorical signification of safety and success, from the notion of going through a career, as a race, erect and in an upright position, without stumble or fall, is well illustrated by the following passages of Sophocles,

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\& xaploîtras rois $\phi$ inoss] 'anything by which one will oblige one's friends'. â cognate accus. for às xáporas. In obliging a friend you may be said to oblige yourself, a true friend being ïrepos aưrós: Eth. N. IX 9,




 'to quarrel with', or 'to disoblige, offend, annoy'. Compare dıaßalueo日as rpós, in Plato, Thucydides, Demosthenes, Aristotle, to have a hostile feeling towards one, to be set against him, to quarrel with him (from dcaßà $\lambda$ $\lambda_{c c t}$, to set two people at variance, to engender animosity and ill feeling between them, and hence to give one an ill opinion of the other, and so, finally, to calumniate). Both of these, men think good and right, and proper objects of pursuit.

Oavá̧ect, 'to look up to, respect, reverence, admire'. Valck. ad





 єi $\chi \rho \eta \eta^{\mu} \alpha \tau \alpha$, каi oi ä̀ $\lambda \lambda o \iota ~ \omega \dot{\sigma} \alpha u ́ \tau \omega s$.


 тицồ кal $\theta_{\text {avjáłov. Ran. 1008, alibi. Isocr. Areop. ter \&c. }}$
củфuís] 'clever', § 15, note on p. 105. Comp. c. II 28, Probl. xvill 6, there quoted.
\$ $\quad$ reccol] those who have acquired skill by practice and experience, distinguished from the naturally clever and dexterous. Success, the attainment of one's object, in any practice or occupation for which any one has either a natural talent or an acquired aptitude, is regarded as a good, because it is more casily attained, $\$ 27$; 'more easily', either than by others who are not so skilful, or than in other pursuits and practices.
 definite person, no man whatever) ; sub. пpafeiev à. 'Hinc ducto argumento, apud Euripidem quidam divitias non se movere dixit, quas etiam saepe improbissimi homines facillime consecuti sunt: Fragm. Aeol. 14
 derjofaro'. Victorius.
$d \lambda \lambda d \mathrm{kal} \beta \mathrm{A} \lambda_{r i o v}$ ] All objects of desire are supposed to be good, all alperd, and $\delta v$ iфievrau, § 2. The desire of a thing therefore implies not only that the satisfaction of it will give you pleasure, but also that you suppose it (фalveras) to be good.
 which they are so and so', disposed in such and such a way. In the parallel passages of the Ethics this is expressed by фidorocoiron. Eth. N. I 9,



入есоне́vov.

## CHAP. VII.

 expediency. Most of the special topics of this chapter are derived from, or at all events coincide with, those of the third book of the Dialectical Topics.', Brandis, über Ar. Rhet. ap. Sckneidewin's Philologus, IV 1. pp. 14, 15, infers from certain slight differences of the mode of treatment, in the case of two or three of these topics in the two works, the later composition of the





Rhetoric ; but in this latter work the references, tacit or acknowledged, to the Topics, are so numerous and so precise, that we do not need this indirect evidence to establish the point. The passages to be compared are, Top. Г 2, 117 a 11, with Rhet.16.3, and 7.5 ; Top. ${ }^{1} 3$ 3, 118 b 20, with Rhet. 17.36 ; Top. $\Gamma$ 1, 116 a 29, and 6.8 , with Rhet. 17 7.8. Cicero, Topic. XviII 68-70, in a passage too long to quote here, enumerates the topics of Comparatio, following Aristotle very closely : most of Aristotle's topics of this chapter are found in Cicero's list. The topics of comparison fall under four general heads. Comparantur igitur ea quale out maiora ant minor ant paria dicuntur: in quibus spectantur knee, numerous, species, vil, quadedam etiam ad res aliquas affectio; which are there severally illustrated at length. First, some general principles are laid down ; then we are referred back to c. 6. 2, for the various definitions of good; and then, (from § 3 to the end of the chapter), these general principles and definitions are applied to the determination of cases, special poirot or cion, of comprison of two good things, so as to shew which of them in each case is the greater.
§ I. $\left.a_{\mu} \phi_{\infty}\right]$ 'both '-of two things, left to be understood.
§ 2. Tore] See note on c. 5.3, 6.2, 10.3.
 lines parallelis, quarum una ultra alteram protenditur: item numeris, e.g. 6 et 9. Major anim sive line side humerus et aequat minorem et excurrit : minor vero incest in maiori.' Schrader. On the passive form virepéxectar, see Appendix (B) On the irregular passive (at the end of the notes to this Book).
roooûroy kail irc] 'so much and something over'.
rod drumdpxor] 'that which is contained or included in the other'.
sal $\mu \mathrm{i}$ inv $\mu \mathrm{iv}$ del к.r. $\mathrm{\lambda}$.] That all 'quantity', and all terms that express it, $\mu$ éya $\mu$ cxpóv, $\pi 0 \lambda \delta$ d $\lambda$ íyov, are relative, $\pi \rho_{o ́ s ~}^{\prime} \tau$, we learn from the Categores, c. 6, $5615-29$, of which this passage is a summary repetition. The same thing, as a mountain or a grain of millet, when compared with two different things, is called great or little, greater or less-and so of 'many' and 'few'. None of them is absolute aúro raf' auric': all of them are relative to something else, with which they are compared, $\pi \rho \rho^{\prime} \boldsymbol{\tau} \pi$, $\pi \rho \rho_{s}$ ${ }^{2}$ repay.
" And 'greater' and 'more' have always reference to a 'less', and
 the object to which the term is applied being thereby compared with

[^4]


 aipєтóv, каi oui $\pi a ́ v \tau^{\prime}$ éфíєтal, каi ò voùv ầ каi






its congeners, as a mountain or man with the average, coif rod $\begin{gathered}\text { is, of }\end{gathered}$ mountains and men, in order to estimate its size) : and that which is called 'great' exceeds (this average ordinary size), whilst that which falls short of it is called 'small', and 'much' and ' little' in like manner ${ }^{\text {1 }}$ '.
§ 3. The following definitions of good are repeated from c. 6. 2, with a few trifling alterations. This section is translated, and the illogical character of the construction explained, in Introd. pp. 177-8.
 notion of good in itself, kat' avid, here expressed by the dative airy ' to', or, 'for and by itself', with good as the universal rents, the object of all men's aims and aspirations. Schrader, Vater, Buhle, and Bonitz (Aristotelische Studier, I p. 89), are in favour of airt $\hat{\varphi}$ and auto orr, which would thus contrast 'good to the individual with good in general'. Eth. N. vil 13 ,
 rove tui alperdंтepoy. This use of the pronoun is quite in conformity with ordinary Aristotelian usage, as infra $\S 35$, ri $a \dot{\tau} \tau \bar{\varphi}$ kail $\dot{\alpha} \pi \lambda \omega \bar{s}$, and frequently elsewhere. Vater says that the Greek Scholiast gives auTo as well as aùró: and Bonitz adds that Muretus' rendering, cuique autem bonum id quod it est affectum ad ipsum, shews that he followed this reading. Nevertheless it appears that there is no manuscript authority for the change, and Beaker and Spengel have retained avi $\varphi$ and aúró.

 idárre iv rots $\pi \lambda$ eioctv. Two ivorágets ('reprehensions of the fallax' Bacon calls them, Colours of Good and Evil), objections, or instances opposed to the universal validity of this rule, are next given: ( 1 ) when one thing is done for the sake of another, to attain a certain end, as getting well, healthy practices for the sake of health ; in this case the two together are in no way preferable to health alone: (2) and things not good accom-
${ }^{1}$ Gaisford refers to Harris, Philosophical Arrangements ('arrangements' mean collections of notions under general heads; and the 'arrangements' that he treats of are Aristotle's summa genera, or Categories), ch. 9 p. 191. Harris merely repeats what Aristotle had already said in his Categories to which Gaisford does not refer.



 $\mu$ е́́




panied by a single good (so Waitz), may be preferable to several good things, as happiness, in conjunction with something not good, to justice


 topics of this chapter, comp. c. 9, 25, 39, Eth. N. IV 8 init. there quoted. The opposition of the active and passive, superiority and inferiority, occurs












ivá入oyov 'XovaLu] 'are proportional to one another'.
In Bacon's Colours of Good and Evil', ('a table of colours or appearandes of good and evil and their degrees, as places of persuasion and dissuasion, and their several fallaxes, and the elenches of them',) this topic is given in the form, cuius excellentia vel exuperantia melior id toto genere melius. 'This appearance, though it seem of strength, and rather logical than rhetorical, yet is very oft a fallax'; and he proceeds accordingly to 'reprehend' it. Bacon's works, ed. Ellis and Spedding, vol. viI. p. 78. He certainly proves the non-universality of the rule; but by the theory of Rhetoric all these positions are alike open to question, and can always be argued on either side.
${ }^{1}$ Some of the topics selected for 'reprehension 'are identical with those of Aristotle, and probably borrowed from him. The meaning of the word 'Colours' in this application is thus explained by Erasmus, Adagia, s.v. fucus, p. 1915, "Qua ad exornationes atque figuras se conferunt apud Gallos proverbio dicuntur 'rhetoricis coloribus' uti: hoc est, fucatis pigmentis, quibus nihil ineptius si bones sententious non fuerint conjuncta". And by Bacon himself in his preface.







 'follows' (i.e. attends upon, always accompanies it, in one of its five senses) 'another, but not reciprocally (or conversely, the other does not always follow it)'. Any good A, which is necessarily accompanied by another good B , where the converse does not hold, must be the greater of the two; because the one (A) always implies the presence of $B$, and includes the use of it, whereas this is not always true of the converse; and when there is no such reciprocal consequence $A$ must be superior to B. Let A and B be health and life ; life invariably accompanies health, but health by no means invariably accompanies life: and therefore from this point of view health may be regarded as superior to life.
 גovecir see note on c. 6, 3.

Buvápec' ¿̀voápxet yáp к.т.入.] 'Potential concomitance or accompaniment', is explained as 'the inherence, (i.e. the virtual existence, which may be developed into actual, active, existence, or realized, ívepyeiq,) of the use or practice of the consequent or concomitant in the other', that namely which it accompanies. The higher crime of sacrilege or temple robbing, for instance, necessarily implies, virtually contains, the lower crime of simple theft or fraud (cheating ${ }^{1}$ ), the lower habit always accompanies, but not necessarily in a state of activity, the higher, and is included in it: omne maius continet in se minus. Or thus, the use of cheating, fraud, resides, is included in, sacrilege, not actually, in a fully developed realized state, ivepyeia, but in a dormant state, latent; it is a faculty or capacity, always ready and liable to be developed into actual sacrilege.

The use of the general topic of 'consequence' is explained, Top $\Gamma$ 2,




 к.r.д. See note, c. 6, 3.
${ }^{1}$ dтoorepeîy is properly 'to defraud or cheat', and especially applied to


 on Thuc. I 69, I. s.]




 plural) exceeds the same thing by a greater amount (than a third thing) is the greater (of the two); because it must exceed the greater also (i.e. as well as the less)'. This with the mere substitution of $\mu$ eílov for aiperáre-

 136 , and C 3. A (9) exceeds C (3) by a greater amount than that by which B (6) exceeds it, A therefore must be greater than B-must be (av aron), because, by the hypothesis, it is greater than the greater of the other two. This is certainly not a good argument, though the fact is true, and the application easy: and yet I think it is what Aristotle must have meant. There is no various reading, and no suspicion of corrupton. The interpretation is that of Schrader, the most logical of the Commentators on the Rhetoric. And it seems, as the text stands, the only possible explanation. The fact at all events is true; and the only objection to the explanation is that the rap, which professes to give the reason, does in fact merely repeat in other words the substance of the preceding proposition. I believe that Aristotle, in framing his topic, meant by the first clause to state the fact, and by the second to give, as he thought, the reason: and that the expression actually adopted is one of the very numerous evidences of haste and carelessness in his writings. On the application of the topic, see Introd. p. 180.









roîro yap in] 'this is what was meant by', this is what was (said to be) good; viz. in § 3 .
 stract conception of a thing by the mind, as opposed to its actual existence as an object of sense, see Trended. de Anima, p. 47 I seq. and on I 1, 2; II 1, 8, also in Rheinisches Museum 1828, Vol. II 457 seq., Kategorienlehre, p. 35 with reff. in note, and Waitz, Organ. Vol. II p. 386. The distinction, which is nowhere expressly stated, is, as may be gathered from numerous passages, the following: ri $\mu$ ci eat eivat universam esse notionem, qua res constituitur, a materia avocatam, universal cogitatione conceptam
 quale sub sensus cadent. Metaph. 2 15, 1039 ठ 25, ova yàp yiyveras to






 Why and when Aristotle employs it, and whether the distinction is always necessary and appropriate, are questions that 1 will not undertake to answer. [Index A ristotelicus, p. 221 a 34-40; p. 764 a 50-p. 765 a 6. s.]

The Syntax of the phrase, which only Trendelenburg, as far as I know, has attempted to explain ${ }^{1}$, seems to be this:-The dative is in apposition with a supposed rıvi, ró rum civat $\mu$ eyi $\theta$ ct, and the construction
 similar use of the dative, which lead up to the explanation of this, are
 be found in Matth. GF. Gr. § 388.
 agent or producing cause is of a higher order, (superior), follows the same rule', viz. that the product or result of the superior cause or agent is superior in a comparison between two. If wholesome food and exercise which produce health are more desirable and therefore superior to things which are merely plcasant, then the result of the former, health, is superior to the result of the latter, pleasure.




 though differing in expression seem to be reducible to the same head, and, from the examples given, applicable to the same cases: for the absolute good is that which is in itself desirable, and conversely; and rímer-
${ }^{1}$ Trendel. in Rhein. Mus. 1828, Vol. II p. 48i-3. The author, who has discussed with great learning and ingenuity the meaning of this Aristotelian techni-
 grammatical explanation. I think that from the analogy of similar constructions of this dative in the ordinary language, the use of it here must needs be a case of attraction, as I have explained it in the note. Trendelenburg, who takes nothing into account but the possible meanings of the dative (or, as he rightly prefers to call it, the 'acceptive') case, locative, instrumental, acceptive, selects the last of the three as that which belongs to the dative in this phrase. rò $\mu$ ert $\theta$ ct elval express, according to him, 'the abstract conception ( $\tau \delta$ eLval) belonging to (given to and received by) magnitucle': making this dative depend solely upon eivac, and leaving out the attraction to a word in the dative, actually or hypothetically preceding, as in any way concerned in the 'government' of it. This is all that I have to olject to in Trendelenburg's paper: in the rest he has shewn the same ability and intimate knowledge of his author which characterizes all his other writings upon Aristotle.







 obad the example in the second case of particular good, is only good as the means to an end, $8 i^{i}$ Trepov.
loxùs viycevoī] strength is more desirable in itself; the 'wholesome' only as the means to an end, health. Strength is considered by Aristotle not as absolutely desirable alperò $\nu$ ka* aúró, but only relatively to other things' more desirable in itself than many others.' Brandis, Philologus, IV, i, p. 44


 end, the ultimate object of your aims, must always be more desirable than the means which are only serviceable for the attainment of that end, as health and exercise.
 need of any subsidiary aid' (to make it a good), 'either of the other' (when two things are brought into comparison, as wealth and health,) 'or of other things (in general)'. A topic, which may be brought under this of the Rhetoric, but is not identical with it, occurs in Top. ${ }^{2} 2,117$ a 37, where justice is preferred to courage on the ground of its comparative aúrápkela, though this word is not there employed. Victorius quotes in illustration Virgil's comparison of the 'olive' and 'vine'. George. II 421, 2 and 428. (Victorius has here quoted from memory, and forgotten the original. It is not the 'vine' but 'pome', of which is said, vi propria nituntur opisque hand indigo nostrae; and the example is hardly in point. The note is cited by Gaisford without remark).
avitapkéorepoy] 'it makes a nearer approach to independence, selfsufficiency': appealing to the definitions of good in c. 6, 2, of which rod aürapkes is one. On aưrápkeca, note on c. 5, 3, if $\delta^{8}$ aủrápkeca rios cal

 ท кrijoartau.
§ 11. sal of ray к...र.] ' and any case in which one thing cannot exist or be obtained (by acquisition or production) without some other, but the other can without it'. As agriculture, compared with the other arts, Yen. Econ. v. 17 (Victorius). Corn. Dep. Thrasyb. I 3, Peloponnesio belle multan Thrasybulus sine Alcibiade gessit, ille nullam rem sine hoc. Schrader. He also quotes from Plutarch, Apothegm. Reg. § 84, a saying of Agesilaus about the superiority of justice to virtue; it is the same example as occurs in the Topics (quoted on § 10) r 2, 117 a 39.


 On the omission, see Matth. Gr. Gr. § 288, Obs. 4
d $\left.\rho \times{ }^{\eta}{ }^{\prime}\right]$ in this topic, is used in its most general and popular sense, an 'origin', or 'beginning', or 'source'. In this sense it may be regarded as



 one of the ipésecs or impulsive faculties, the origin of motion in the
 importance of this, as the origin of human action and the ground of moral responsibility, in moral philosophy and practical life, may be estimated by the perusal of the first seven chapters of the third book of the Nicom. Ethics. It is more comprehensive than airioy; dpxai are not all causes, (see in the following note), and therefore the two may be distinguished, as they are in these two topics. An origin or beginning necessarily implies that something follows, a consequence ; it leads to solmething: in this respect it is 'greater', more important, superior to, anything that is not a beginning or origin, which leads to nothing. Plat.

 same applies to aitrov in the following topic. These two topics are well illustrated in Rhet. ad Alex. c. 3(4), 10, II.

The importance of an $\dot{d} \rho x \dot{\prime}$ for good or for evil is recognized by several






 done'. Dimidium facti qui coepit habet, Hor. Ep. 1 2, 40. The first step: Ce n'est que le premier pas qui coute, see Rhet. II 19, 5 , and note. On the other side, the importance of the d $\rho \times{ }^{\prime \prime}$ in respect of the tendency to evil, we have Ovid's well-known line, become proverbial, Rem. Am. 91, Principiis obsta, sero medicina paratur. Fast. 1 178, Omina principiis, inquit (Phoebus), inesse solent. (This is indifferent as to the issue.) Herodotus, after mention of the twenty ships which the Athenians on the solicitation of Aristagoras sent in aid of the Ionians, concludes the chap-
 "End $\eta \sigma i$ re kai $\beta$ apßápoton This phrase became proverbial, see Rhet. III 1I, 7 bis, and Isocr. Paneg. \& 119 , there quoted.

On the different senses of $\dot{d} \rho x \dot{\prime}$ in the Aristotelian philosophy consult Melaph $\Delta 1$, where they are enumerated and distinguished; and Bonitr's


 invápxovat eiซv al ठè íkrós, 1013 a 17. 'Apxai are 'origins', heads or starting-points, of a series, of three kinds; ( 1 ) of being, ovaia ${ }^{1}$, ( 2 ) of generation or growth, yévects, and (3) of knowledge, ywôनts. ävev yàp airiou kal
 may be employed are all reducible to these three. Of these some are inherent (as the orocxciov, the mathematical point, the origin of the line, or the starting-point of anything, that out of which it grows and is developed ${ }^{2}$; the keel of a vessel, the foundation of a house; in animals the heart or the brain, or any other part which has been assumed to be the original seat of life); some external, the origin of motion or change, (as father and mother, of child ; abusive language ${ }^{2}$, of a fight; or again the human will or deliberate purpose, and intellect, rpoaipects and סcávoia ${ }^{4}$, in the case of 'governments' [ $\left.\dot{a}_{\rho} \chi^{a i}\right]$ and arts, all of which set things in motion and produce change). The origin or starting-point of knowledge is illustrated by the virooícets, the assumed first principles of a demonstration, as the major premiss of a syllogism. Another 'external origin' is the ov ivera,




${ }^{d} \rho \times{ }^{\prime}{ }^{\prime}$ is not identical with aitroy, though, as all aitra (all the four causes) are $\dot{\alpha} \rho \chi^{a i}$, the two terms are frequently identified (Bonitz, Comm. p. 219; Waitz, Org. p. 458) : but the converse is not true; as is shewn by some of the examples given above: the assertion therefore that loax $\hat{\omega}_{s}$ (rais dexais) кal rd̀ aitra $\lambda$ éyeral návra yàp rà altra ápxal (a 16) must be limited to what is directly stated, the converse is not included. On the point of difference between the two, and also the identification with oror$\chi^{\text {eíon, see Waitz, Organ. p. } 458 . ~}$

Another definition of dexí occurs in de Gen. Anim. v 7, 23, 788 a $\mathbf{1 4 ,}^{\text {, }}$



On scientific and logical àpxal or first principles, ultimate axioms, rouval and idiat, see note in Introd. p. 73. In the Eudemian Ethics, II 6, three kinds of $\dot{a} \rho \chi^{a l}$, general, moral, and mathematical, are distinguished, and some account given of them. [See also Index Aristotelicus, s.v. s.]


 ixit roû ivartiou (roū кaкoū) к.г.入.
rò 8 oủk altwoy On ouk after ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{y}$, understood from the preceding clause, see Appendix (C) on el ov, c. 15, 23.
${ }^{1}$ The dipxt as essence, origin of being, ovita, is the primal cause, id $\boldsymbol{\text { Il }} \boldsymbol{\eta}$ eivan Bonitz.
${ }^{2}$ oraxciov "hoc loco eam (Aristotelem) non tam elementi naturam cogitasse, quam principem illam rei alicuius partem, in qua primum continetur et destinata est ipsa rei natura, ex exemplis allatis facile cognoscas." Bon. Comm. p. 218.
${ }^{2}$ This is an dopx кax ${ }^{2}$.
 433 a 19.





kal duoiv dexaì к.r. $\lambda$.] and again, of two origins or causes, the consequence and effect of the superior is greater. The following passage of the Topics will illustrate the preceding as well as the present topic. $\mathrm{F}_{3} 3,118$ a 29 , ${ }^{\text {ITt }}$





kal àaimal cu] 'and conversely, of two origins; the origin of the greater consequence is greater... .
§ 13. dfinovoiv к.т. $\mathrm{\lambda}_{\text {.] ' }}$ It is plain therefore from what has been said
 said to be greater: for whether it be an origin (or beginning), and the other not a beginning, it may be shewn to be made to appear greater; or if it be not itself a beginning, but the other be a beginning (it may be equally shewn to be so), because the 'end' is greater (superior), and yet no beginning'. 'The end is greater', because rinos doriv ov iveke rd al $\lambda \lambda a$ : and if 'everything else' is but a mean to an end, the beginning must be included with the rest, and is therefore subordinate and inferior. $\mu$ citov is here 'greater', 'more important', superior in respect of influence or effective power; not necessarily 'better'. In the examples, first, the ' adviser' is the d $\rho \times{ }^{\circ}$, the origin or originator of the plot ; so in Metaph. A 2, 1013 a 31, $\delta$ ßovievoras is an aircov, namely the efficient cause, or origin of motion and change, dexi $\mu$ eraßo $\lambda \bar{j} s$. The adviser of a scheme is therefore according to this view the 'cause' of all that resulted from his advice, which is made to appear (סoкei) by the argument more important than the result or actual crime (which is not 'the beginning'); and, secondly, the converse (aváraגıs) is proved, that the crime, the 'end' of the advice or deliberation, is the more important thing of the two, because it was for that, as a mean to attain that, that the whole scheme was undertaken. It appears from the expressions of this text that Callistratus devised the scheme and Chabrias carried it into execution.

Lendamas of Acharnae was a famous orator, an earlier contemporary of Demosthenes and Aeschines. The latter mentions htm, c. Ctesiph. $f 138$, as having been sent as ambassador to Thebes, and as a speaker the rival of Demosthenes; indeed in his opinion even pleasanter to listen to. He is mentioned again in II 23, 25 (comp. the note there); in Dem. adv. Lept. 501 and 502, who also speaks of him as a distinguished orator, where allusion is made to a certain proposition of his to cancel the 'grant', especially the dreicia, made to Chabrias for his public services - ofiros dypáyaro rìv Xaßpiov dopeáyl, a proposition which he failed to
${ }^{2}$ This cannot be the same accusation as that which Aristotle here refers to;






carry ; and in other places of Aeschines. See Sauppe, Fragm. Or. Att. II 216; Fr. XVI, and p. 244 ; Fr. Xxvi; Clinton, F. H. Vol. il p. III, sub an. 372, 3 .

Callistratus, son of Callicrates, of Aphidìa, a distinguished Athenian orator and politician, of the earlier half of the 4 th cent. B.C. His name first appears in history in the year 379 B.c. Aristotle refers to two speeches of his, Rher. 114. 1, and III 17. 14. Leodamas' accusation of him, here mentioned, seems to have been directed against his conduct in the affairs of Oropus, in 366, Grote, Hist. Gr. x p. 392 ; Smith's Dict. Biogr. Art. Callistratus; Clinton, Fast. Hell. II 396, note w. He was associated with Chabrias, the celebrated Athenian general, in the transactions with respect to Oropus, and with him was brought to trial ; and it is most probable that both of the speeches referred to in the text were made by Leodamas on this occasion.

On Callistratus and Chabrias Mr Elder's articles in Smith's Biogr. Dict. may be consulted. Callistratus' name occurs very frequently in the Attic orators. See Baiter and Sauppe, Orat. Att. Vol. III ; Ind. Nom. p. 73.
 to the same transaction, viz. Callistratus' 'advice' or 'device'. They express precisely the same thing, each from a somewhat different point of view. Bou入eíeuv rıvi $\tau \iota$, is to give advice, to advise. Bou入eviecoas to give oneself advice, to deliberate; or secondly, of a number of people deliberating together, and giving one another advice, 'consulting in com-

dypdyaro $8 \omega p e d y$ and rov $\pi \rho d \xi a y r a$, 'the man that carried into execution a nefarious scheme', are quite inapplicable to the same offence. Again Demosthenes, c. Mid. 535, tells us that Philustratus was the accuser of Chabrias, $8 r^{\prime}$ Ixplbero thy
 trial? Or two separate trials? (this seems improbable): or has Aristotle made a slip of memory in assigning the accusation of Chabrias to Leodamas? None of these suppositions is necessary to reconcile the, at first sight, conflicting statements. The accusation of Leodamas is directed against both parties; he takes the case of Callistratus first, and then secondly ( $\pi d \lambda \nu \delta 8)^{8}$ ) applies the converse of the argument which he had issued against the other to the offence of Chabrias. Philostratus, who took part in the same proceedings, was another and independent accuser. Mr Grote, p. 393, note 3, who does not refer to the passage of Aristotle, assigns the trial or trials of Callistratus and Chabrias to this period, $366 \mathrm{~B} . \mathrm{C}$., and the alleged misconduct about Oropus. The other speech of Leodamas against Chabrias, referred to by Dem. adv. Lept. 1.c. was earlier, and had nothing to do with the affair of Oropus. [Amold Schaefer, Demosthenes und seine Zeit I p. 96. s.]






preparatory to 'suggesting' or 'advising' it. imußou入ev́ety retains its proper sense of a hostile design (inri' 'against') ; the advice, or scheme which resulted from it, and the deliberation which suggested it, are now represented as 'a plot', a hostile, aggressive, design. It appears therefore that there is no occasion to have recourse to the explanation of Victorius and Buhle, that érißovicúcuy is (or can be) put for $\beta$ oudevecty or $\beta$ or-入evereat. Gaisford prints these two notes of V. and B. without comment.
ci $\left.\mu \boldsymbol{j} \eta^{\prime \prime} \nu \dot{\delta} \pi \rho \dot{\alpha} \xi \omega \nu\right]$ On this use of the definite article, indicating a mem-
ber of a class or yévos, which we express by our indefinite article, see Buttmann, Gr. Gre 124, Obs. 2. Encl. Tr. p. 319. The two senses of the Greek definite article are, according to Schneider, on PL. Rep. viII 564 A, that it marks quod praesens et in conspectu positum cogitatur, and (2) the genus. 'Articulus definit indefinita, idque duobus modis: aut designando certo de multics, tut quai multa sunt cunctis in unum colligendis' (the second describes the generic use). Herm. Praef. ad Iph. Aul. p. xv. Several examples of this usage of the def. art. are collected from the N. T. by Dean Alford, in a pamphlet in reply to Bishop Ellicott, p. 45 seq. I will only quote Math. xiii. 3, $\dot{\delta} \sigma \pi i \rho \omega \nu$ : xxv. 32, $\delta \pi o \mu \mu \eta v$. In a subsequent passage of this work, II 4, 31, Aristotle has quite unconsciously and unintentionally stated this grammatical distinction, rò de $\mu$ ios sal $\pi$ poss ra


We render $\delta$ $\pi \rho a ́ \xi \omega \nu$ ' anyone to do it', carry it out, put it in execution.
 valuable or important, than the abundant'. This, as is implied in dxpyorórepose ${ }^{\mathscr{} \nu}$ in the example, is only true in a sense; it is in fact a paradox, which may however be asserted in argument, since there is something to be said for it, and examples may be found in which it is true; as in the case of gold and iron. In the true and proper sense, in utility and real value, iron is greater and better than gold. Isocrates, devi. §80, 81, on
 repose, thinks that, in his time at least, great orators and politicians 'who can speak worthily on behalf of their country's interests' are more valueable and to be more highly prized than legislators. A similar topic



 value of a thing is in proportion to its usefulness. Estimated by this standard, 'water', as Pindar says, at the opening of his first Olympian ode, 'is the best of all things:' Böckh, who cites this passage of Aristotle







in his note, evidently agrees with him in interpreting Pindar's áptorov as 'best' because most useful, or necessary to the support of human life'. Dissent thinks that Pindar had in his mind the great 'wholesomeness' of water, ăpıotov dicitur tò vi dup quid saluberrimum est. A dry and hot climate and a parched soil would also readily suggest the notion that water is the best of all things. But I agree nevertheless with Böckh in his interpretation of Pindar's thought.

These two opposite topics represent two prevailing modes of estimating 'value', by use and price: Political Economy teaches us that the former is the true, the latter the false standard. In the one view air and water are the most valuable, in the other the least valuable, of all things. Plato, Euthjd. 304, 3, gives both sides: rò yàp onávtov, \& EviGüðךpe,

 § 14. Anything harder to do or to attain may be said to have a higher value, when the value is estimated by the price. On the other hand measure by the standard of our own nature, of our own love of ease and comfort, and also of the extent of usefulness, that which is easier to do or to make or to obtain is more valuable.
§ 16. $\$$ to ivaurioy $\mu$ cî̧ov] 'And one thing is greater than another when the opposite of the former is greater than that of the latter'. 'Exemplum accommodatum rit valetudo ac divitiae; quad ambo sunt bona: contraria forum morbus et paupertas: mains autem malum corporis morbus quam paupertas ; praestat igitur valetudo divitiis.' Victorius. On this, and the next topic, orép $\eta \sigma t s$, comp. supp. c. 6, 4, and § 18; and the passages of the Topics ( $\Gamma 2,11762$ ) and the Categories there referred to.
oi $\dot{\eta}$ orippots $\mu \mathrm{i}$ iऽ山v] On the various applications of $\sigma$ rip stotle's philosophy, see Met. $\Delta$ c. 22, and Bonitz's Commentary: Categ. c. 10, p. 12 a 26, and Waitz, ad loc. Trendel. Kategorienlehre, p. 103 seq.

The following illustration of the topic is given by Schrader. 'Peius est caecum esse quam surdum : ergo visus auditu praestantior est.
${ }^{1}$ Pindar's own view of the meaning may be readily seen by comparing the first three lines of the roth Olympian Ode: note the word $\chi$ pints. In a speech, quoted by Spedding (Letters and life of Fr. Bacon, Vol. III. p. 18), Bacon says: I liken this bill to that sentence of the poet (Pindar), who sets this as a paradox in the fore-front of his book, first water, then gold, preferring necessity before pleasure ; and I am of opinion, that things necessary in use are better than those things that are glorious in estimation.



Gravius malum est fama quam pecunia privari; ergo bona existimatio praestat divitiis.' 'Things of which the privation is greater' or more deeply felt, are those which are most mecessary, essential to our existence or comfort; as air and water again, in this point of view.
 vice to non-vice ; because the one is an end, and the other not'. The application of this seems to be to things compared as positize and negative: positive virtue and positive vice, which can be ends or objects to aim at, are in so far superior to mere negatives which can not ${ }^{1}$. Moral considerations are altogether laid aside, and Rhetoric is here permitted (not recommended) to take the immoral side of the question : vice may be regarded as an 'end' of human desire and exertion.

Bonitz, Arist. Stud. I. p. 87, proposes an ingenious alteration, which no one who is satisfied with the preceding explanation will consider necessary. It is to substitute for the existing text, кai doetì $\mu \dot{\eta}$ кaкias кal
 worse) than mere absence of vice, and downright vice than mere absence of virtue': which he neither translates nor explains; but, it is to be presumed, it means that the superiority of the one to the other still rests upon its positive character. The morality remains constant; for vice is still represented as the object of men's aims: it is therefore no improvement in that respect. His reason for the change is, 'that it never could occur to any one to institute a comparison in respect of magnitude (Grösse)
 ऽov implied nothing but mere magnitude or quantity; but when it is extended to the general notion of superiority the comparison may very well be made between them. And besides, Bonitz's altered comparison appears to rest upon the very same distinction of the positive and negative; for in what other sense can vice be regarded as superior to nonvirtue?
§17. The two topics of this section are founded upon the relation of the dper' of anything to its proper "pyov or function, the work that it has to do, described by Plato, Rep. I 352 E and foll., and taken up by Aristotle as the foundation of his theory of virtue, Eth. Nic. II 5, init. The virtue or excellence of everything, horse, dog, knife, axe, the eye, the ear, the mind, is shewn in and depends upon the due performance of its proper function (supra 2.12;5.4;6.11). sà *pya therefore, though they extend beyond the moral virtues from which Victorius draws his illustrationthe comparison of didpeia and $\sigma \omega \phi p o \sigma \dot{v} \eta$ and their opposites in respect of their results good or bad, the kinds of actions that they give rise to-and include the functions of all things that can be applied to any purpose, and everything which has a rinos, to which the ifpor must be subservient, and in the approach to which the deeri is shewn; yet the epithets

[^5]








кa入入io and airxio shew that Aristotle had the moral virtues uppermost in his mind．

кai ©i al kaxiat к．r．入．］the converse of the preceding，the argument from the virtue or vice，excellence or defect，of aaything，back again to its function or proper mork．Virtues and vices，excellences and defects stand to＇works＇in the relation of cause and origin to consequence and effect or result．Now as of the greater cause and origin，the one pro－ duces a greater effect，the other leads to a greater end，（\＄12，）and the less to a less，so in the case of excellence and defect the greater produces a greater work，the less a less，both in human action or comparative virtues，and in instruments of all kinds；in men and things．
§ 18．This topic is analogous to，not identical with，that in $\$ 4$ When anything in excess is preferable to，or finer and nobler than，the excess of something else，then the former in its ordinary state is prefer－ able to the other．See the passage of Polit．IV（vii）i，quoted in $\$ 4$.

 тй̀ хрпиáтoи．Omne maius continet in se minus．
 Org． $1166_{24}$ ，understand $\mu \hat{a} \lambda \lambda o \nu ~ к a ́ \lambda \lambda c o \nu ~ a s ~ a ~ d o u b l e ~ c o m p a r a t i v e, ~ a ~ f o r m ~$ of expression not unfamiliar to Aristotle（see Vict．on this place，and Waitz， Org． 116624 ，II p．465），but certainly not employed by him here．The mädion denoting the＇excess＇of the two qualities，which is absolutely essential to the illustration of the topic，is added for that reason to $\phi$ idé－ rampor and фı $\lambda$ oxprimatov，the comparison being conveyed by кá入入ıov：and thus the topic is exemplified．＇Excess in love of friends being fairer，and nobler than that in love of money，friendship in its average degree is to be preferred to a similar average of love of money＇．See also note on 118,3 ．
 desires are themselves nobler and better ：because all＇impulses＇（opé $\xi e$ ers， which include íriAvpiach all natural desires and appetites，as well as dupós and Bovinots，Eth．Eud．II 7．2，de An．B 3， 41462 ；see note on Rhet． II 2．1），in proportion as they are higher or stronger，have for their objects







 things 'greater', i. e. either better and higher in themselves, or more important. The stronger impulse is always towards the greater object-in some sense. And the converse : 'the nobler and better the objects, the nobler and better the desires, for the same reason'.
 sciences or departments of knowledge, and their objects; rà $\pi \rho$ áy $\mu a r a$,

 nard $\boldsymbol{r j} \mathrm{y}$ olxeiav. The higher and nobler sciences deal with higher and nobler materials; and in proportion to the dignity and value of the objects that it treats, so is the dignity and value of the corresponding science : àvá入oyov, 'proportionally'; greater to greater, and less to less. 'For as is the science, so is the (particular kind of) truth at which it aims : and each of them is authoritative (lays down the law, prescribes what is to be done, dictates, kedevect in its own special province'. On the order in invention and dignity of arts and sciences, see the instructive chapter, Metaph. A I. iniorijuat includes here all arts as well as sciences, the two terms being constantly interchanged. The word $\dot{d} \lambda \eta \theta_{i} \dot{\prime}$, from its strict and proper sense (when the two provinces of philosophy are distinguished,
 to confine the application of the topic to science pure, or the 'theoretical' department of philosophy, but it is plainly here employed in a wider and more popular sense: truth, theoretical or practical, is the common object of every kind of scientific or artistic pursuit. And the word nedeverv, to prescribe or dictate, is alike applicable to the necessary principles and necessary conclusions of mathematical demonstration, and to a practical science like Politics, which not only like the other prescribes the method in which its investigations are to be carricd on and rules of action, but ' orders and arranges' ठcará $\sigma \sigma \iota^{2}$, determines, and limits at its pleasure the provinces and extent of the operations of the subordinate sciences and arts. Eth. Nic. I 1, 1094 a 26-b7. On кèevéfı, Victorius quotes Eth. Eud. II 3, тойто

§ 21. kai ô kpivecay àv к..r.ג.] 'the judgment or decision, upon any dis-
${ }^{1}$ The terms 'subject' and 'object' from different points of view may be applied to express the same thing. The object of sense or of thought, material or mental, quod sensibus vel menti objicitur, is when looked at from the logical side the swhject of all that is or can be predicaled of it.
${ }^{2}$ So printed in Rekker's texts.










 passage will serve as a commentary on the topic of the Rhetoric. It describes the authority of фpóvŋб!s (practical wisdom, the intellectual virtue which sclects the proper means and directs them to the end, Eth. N. vI), and the impersonation of it in the фpóveros. In the definition of deerí, Eth. N. II 6, init. the фpóveros is the measure or standard, which fixes the variable mean, in which virtue resides, for each individual character. In all arts and sciences it is the professional man, the expert, who has to decide, each in his own department. The dyaOós decides in moral questions, which is his special province. Comp. note on 6. 25.
 are competent to decide ; all, or most (the many, the great mass of them, oi $\pi \lambda$ eírot), or the (bare) majority, or the best and ablest amongst them (in point of judgment, and professional skill).
 and Buhle's Ed., which omit $\dot{\eta}$, as does Muretus in his Transl. The omission certainly improves the sense; but Vater with some reason objects to this order of the two words, which he says should have been inverted, $\mu$ eitov áyaOóv. dyaOóv, which Vater proposes to omit, is certainly wanted to explain $\kappa a \tau \grave{\alpha} \tau \omega \bar{\nu}{ }^{a} \lambda \lambda \omega \nu$ in the following clause.
 respect of their practical wisdom', specially and alone. кard trो» фрóvךби corresponds to $\dot{\eta}$ tocouroc in the passage of the Topics, 'in so far as they are such' (фро́vцоь), and in no other respect.

кaì кarà т $\omega \hat{\nu}$ ä $\lambda \lambda \omega \nu$ ] ' of everything else as well', as good. kará with the genit. is very common in Arist. in the sense of ' of', 'in the case of'; derived from its proper and primary sense 'down upon', and hence, ' applying to', 'of'. This use of it seems to come through the intermediate sense of 'predication', катпүopeiv, кarךүopeio日ai тwos, 'to predicate, be predicated, of something'.-ini, 'upon', 'applying to', 'in the case of', so and so, is similarly used ( $\dot{\epsilon} \pi^{\prime} \dot{a} y a \theta(\bar{\omega} \nu)$ in the same section.
 nature of a thing, (2) quantity and (3) quality. These, though properly falling under the domain of science or exact knowledge, may yet be dealt with by the 'practical judgment' which may convey a popular and practical acquaintance with them, sufficient for the purposes of the Rhetorician.






 nounced to be so by the man of practical sagacity, then that must be a greater good which is pronounced by the same authority to be more so, to be so in a higher degree.
 lent quia animus est corpore praestantior'. Schrader. Courage and strength is Aristotle's illustration; for the reason assigned by Schrader.
ì d $\pi \lambda \bar{\omega} \mathrm{s}$ ] 'ut viri' (man as the nobler animal) 'virtutes praestant mulicbribus simpliciter'. Schrader.
ì in $\beta$ entious] 'aut quatenus meliores sunt: viri effeminati actiones deteriores sunt actionibus virilis animi feminae'. Id. I prefer the other explanation, as more direct and natural, 'either generally, in respect of the entire character and qualities, or in respect of some special excellence'.
 in general, di $\pi$ ion by victue of his wollole character; or 'in so far as he is better, in respect of that particular kind of excellence, as some special virtue, in which his superiority is shewn, ij Bedrime iori. So Victorius; who procceds (after Alexander) to distinguish between this and the preceding topic, $\S 21$; in that the $\phi$ pónuot as a class choose between different kinds of good; here the comparison is between two different kinds of choosers, and the one who makes the better selection is the better in moral character.
 illustrated by the preference of being wronged to doing wrong. This, though cited here as a popular sentiment, was by no means the current and prevailing opinion at Athens. Plato, Rep. II 358 C , makes Glaucon say,
 again, at the commencement of Glaucon's exposition of the disadvantages of justice and the superiority of injustice successful and unpunished, he uses the word $\phi a \sigma i$, which seems to imply that this was the general opinion. In fact one of the main objects of the Republic is to prove that the reverse of this is true; and the long and laborious process which he is obliged to go through in the establishment of his position is quite sufficient to shew how strong must have been the prejudices in favour of the adverse doctrine which must be surmounted before he could hope to make his own views acceptable. The Gorgias also is occupied with the solution of this same question, in the comparison namely of doing and rcceiving injury and wrong, on which side the advantage, when rightly cstimated, really lies. The Sophists, as represented by Thrasymachus in the Republic, and Callias in the Gorgias, appear to have held the lower, and as we now hold it to be, immoral doctrine. Ast, in his Comm. on PL.











Rep．p．391，has collected a number of references to authors who sided on this point with Socrates，Plato，and Aristotle．
§ 23．©iplotal 86 in § 3 ．
 its enjoyment，which vary in different kinds of pleasure．Some pleasures are accompanied，preceded，or followed by pain（Plato held that this is the case with all bodily pleasures），and most of them are of a very transient character and very brief duration．This may in many cases afford a measure for the comparison of pleasure：those which are marked by the entire absence or lower degree of these qualifying circumstances are superior．
§24．rod $\boldsymbol{\gamma} \mathrm{d} \rho$ ка入ò к．r． $\mathrm{\lambda}$ ．］This distinction of the two different kinds of ra 入óv，arises from its twofold aspect，physical and moral：in the former of the two senses it is the beautiful，in the latter the morally right and noble．The beautiful，to the sight and sense，is the＇pleasant＇form or aspect of to ка入óv；the right is ка入òv ri cal aúvo alperóy，that which is desirable in and for itself and for no ulterior object，and therefore an end in itself．In this latter sense the to ka入óy may be regarded as the end of all moral action，Eth．N．III 7，II 13 b 8，c．10，III 5 b 24，IX 8，1168 a 34， 1169 a 6 ，seq． 21 to the end．In Rhet．I 9．3，two definitions of it are given and the distinction of its moral and physical aspects again aug－ gested：and again II 13.9 it is contrasted with the expedient or profit－ able，the one being a relative the other an absolute form of good．
§ 25．kail öf＠y к．т． ．］Things are shewn to be good by our desire of them，because all things universally desirable are good：and the more we desire anything for ourselves or our friend（the friend is the＇second self＇， the alter ego，and therefore his interest is our own，）and therefore to be the causes of it，to procure it for ourselves or our friends；the more we shew that we think it good ：and the things we desire least to bring upon ourselves or our friends are by the same rule the worst and most mischiev－ oust things．The topics of Top． $\mathrm{I}_{2}$ ，II 8 a I ，are akin to this，not aden－ tical with it．
 lasting and more secure，stable，safer＇．One measure of the use or value
of a thing is the length of time during which it remains in our possession; another, the security or stability of it, immunity from decay or corruption and the fear of losing it. The absence of these very much diminishes the value of any possession. The superiority in the value of a thing is shewn in, or measured by, either the duration or the amount of desire or wishing for it ( $\beta o v \lambda \dot{\eta} \sigma$ et $)$ because our wishing for it shews that we consider it a sccure possession, one of which we are little likely to be deprived, or which itself is not likely to be impaired, and so lose its value. A safe investment, which every one desires who has spare cash, is an example of this kind of security, and of the superiority in value that it carries with it.
 follow (if, whenever the topic were applied) in general, so here 'in all the rest', in the particular case of the rhetorical application of them, the same consequences do actually follow. Perhaps the general application of this topic, which seems to be understood in the protasis, may have a tacit reference to the more general treatment of the same in the dialectical Topics. I think that only one topic is here intended; so far as $\sigma \dot{0}-$ orotxa are distinguished from $\pi$ rojects, the former includes the latter as the gemus the species.

With this topic compare Rhet. II 23, 2, Top. $\Gamma$ 3, 118 a 34-39. The instances of $\pi \pi \bar{\omega} \sigma t s$ there given are the substantive and corresponding
 explained, distinguished, (quite unintelligibly, however, were our information derived solely from this place,) and the use of them illustrated, in Top. B 9, 114 a 26-b 5. oúgrotya are coordinate logical notions, as סixata and dixatos with ठıxatogüvn àdofeia and avopeios with àrdpeia; and again a 38, סıкatooúv סixatos סixauon סıкaims are coordinates. Also, a 29, rà roıvrıxá and rà фu入axrıká are coordinate with the things which they
 пrógets are these same coordinates in their grammatical aspects-lerms that can be similarly predicaled, and applicable to the same things-and they are thercfore sometimes identified with the others. The mriorets 'inflexions' of the same word are not confined to the mere 'declension' of nouns, substantive or adjective, (the nominative is the casus rectus, or $\pi r \omega \hat{\sigma} \iota s \dot{o}_{\rho} \theta \dot{\eta}$, improperly so called, the noun in its upright or normal state or position, the casus or nrérets are fallings away, declensions, from that standard typical form by a change of termination ${ }^{1}$,) bưt include adverbs,

[^6]
 ai pєтஸ́tєроу той $\sigma \omega ф \rho o ́ v \omega s$, каi $\alpha \nu \delta \rho i \alpha ~ \sigma \omega ф \rho о \sigma u ́ v \eta s ~$



the generic and numerical terminations, masc. and femin., singular, dual, and plural, and the inflexions of verbs; in fact, as it appears, any change of termination which a root undergoes in passing into different parts of speech, and the inflexions of these : in Aristotle $\begin{aligned} \\ \text { rots } \\ \text { is a 'declension' }\end{aligned}$ from a root. This logical signification of ovorotxos and ovoroxia is 'transferred' by metaphor, from the ranks of an army or of a chorus in the theatre (like divriotpoфos), to logic or grammar: but in either of the two senses, they always denote things on the same level, coordinates. Trendel. El. Log. Arist. 75, Bonitz ad Metaph. A 5, 986 a 23 . Xenophon, Cons. 2, 20, has àrtorocxeiv in the sense of 'to be one's opposite, or part-

 Met. L. c., and Eth. N. I 4, 108567 , it is applied to the ten parallel rows or columns of the opposite doxai of the Pythagoreans, the two opposite members of the ten being in each case a $\sigma$ orooxia, or pair of coordinate conceptions. Hence ov́grotxa are notions of the same order : as the four elements, which have the same rank, belong to the same row, i. e. order in nature, de Caelo 302 a 29; and hence, notions which fall under the same genus, as black and white, sweet and bitter; and even such as are under different genera, so long as they have something in common, de Sens. c. 7,447 b $30,448 a 14$ and 16.

In Aristotle therefore $\sigma \dot{\sigma} \sigma \pi o \neq a$ and $\pi \tau \omega \dot{\sigma} \epsilon s$, though occasionally adentified, are, when strictly and properly applied, distinguished thus: סvorocxa are logical notions or conceptions corresponding to things of the same rank or order in nature, having a wider and more comprehensive sphere of application than the nrojerts, which are grammatical like the 'declensons', from which the name is derived, and include the various deflexions or inflexions, expressed by changes of termination, from a root.

Cicero's coniugata, which are defined Top. III 12, correspond to Mristole's птஸ்бets. Coniugata dicuntur quale sunt ex verbis generic eiusdem. Eiusdem autem generis verbal shunt, quad aorta ab no varie commutantur, ut sapiens sapienter sapientia. Haec verborum coniugatio ou乡via dicitur, ex qua huiusmodi est argumentum: si compascuus ger est, ius est compascere.

Besides the authorities already referred to, see on this subject Waitz on refl épر. c. 2, 16 b 1 ; Anal. Post. II 15, 7966 ; Trendel. Kategorienlchre, p. 27 seq. ; Donaldson, New Crat. § 227.
§ 28. тоv̂ $\mu \dot{\eta}$ (ট̈vtos) $\hat{o}$ тávres (alpoûvrat)] The negative of the preceding: 'than that which is not what all prefer'.
 30, $153^{6} 25-34$, where several examples are given.

140 PHTOPIKHE A 7§§29-3r.












Hot ix $x$ poi] c. 6. 24 This applies especially to contested superiority in personal excellences or accomplishments. If rivals and enemies, ( $r \dot{\delta} \mu \mathrm{\mu} \nu)$ who are most interested in disparaging their adversary, and most inclined to do so, if even these admit his superiority, we may take it for granted that every one else will do so, and therefore this is equivalent to the uni-
 the right to decide by reason of special qualification, the artist or professor, the expert or adept in any pursuit or study, or those whom they select as qualified to pronounce a decision, if such as these decide in a man's favour, then it is the decision ( $\mathbf{r o} \quad \delta i$ ) of 'authorities') as it were, men empowered and entitled, or who have the right (rijpot) to judge and decide, and (or rather, 'because of') the special knowledge which the occasion requires (oi eilóres); and this decision is final. Compare notes on 6.25, 7.21.

Victorious and Schrader appear to confine kpivav to its judicial sense of deciding a legal cause, outs oivtor kpivouar being those who are selected or deputed to try a particular case when the ordinary judges are prevented from being present themselves. If there were any doubt between the two interpretations, the question would be decided by the following
 Eth. N. I $1,1094627$.
wis àv i] Note on кüv ci, 1 1.5, p. 9.
§ 29. This topic also is best exemplified in personal advantages, accomplishments, or possession. It can be applied either way. Sometimes
 of this kind is in proportion to its universality, because the greater the number of those who have the advantage, the greater the disgrace of being without it (a case of ore $\rho$ pots, $\S$ 16): in other cases the reverse may be maintained on the principle that the scarcity of a thing lends it a suppriot value, $\$ 14$.
§ 30. ка入入io yáp] § 24. Virtue is the only true object of 'praise', zravor. Introd. Appendix Bk. I, c. 9, p. 212 seq.
$\dot{\Sigma}_{\nu}$ ai rıuai к.r....] 'and things (especially actions) may be regarded as

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'greater', or superior in respect of their power or effect, of which the honours or rewards are greater; because honours and rewards are as it were (may be considered) a kind of valuation, estimate of the value, of a thing, $\dot{d}$ §ia, which will afford a comparison, or measure of the comparative value of two things: and the opposite acts which involve a higher penalty, are superior in a sense, more important and effective. $\zeta \eta \mu i a$, not 'losses', àmoßu入ai, as it has been understood, but 'penalties', directly opposed to rımai 'rewards'. So Victorius.
§ 31. Things which are, at first sight, or can be shewn to be, greater than others which are universally acknowledged to be great or are manifestly so, are seen to be so at once and without reflexion, present themselves at once as such, фavióreva. A conspicuous instance of this common sense of фаuо'رеvos, apparent, manifest to the eye, occurs Rhet. II 2, I (see note) in the definition of ojpyn. Comp. I 9.32, 8.6; III 2.9.
sal dıatpoúpeva к.r.ג.] This and the following are purely rhetorical topics, and belong rather to the third book, On style. One mode of exaggerating the importance of anything, of making it assume a magnitude which it does not really possess, is in the way of description, to break up into parts or describe in detail what might be stated summarily as a whole. 'The same facts or events', when thus individually represented, will 'seem greater' than if they were all summed up together in one statement ; because in the former case the excess or superiority, in point of importance and interest, of the facts exhibited in detail over the summary statement, will seem to be shewn 'in more points', which are all
 number of points', whether we understand the genitive as one of quantity ' in more things', which is probably right, or as the comparative genitive after insepixetv, 'to surpass more things', by which the meaning is not so distinctly expressed : in either case it is the number of things detailed that makes the superior impression. The use of this topic is well illustrated by Quintilian, Inst. Or. VIII 3.6I sq., who however refers the strong impression produced by this detail to the ivépyeia or vividness of the picture. $\$ 67$, sic urbium captarum crescit miseratio. Sive dubio enim qui dicit expugnatam esse civitatem complectitur omnia quaecunque talis fortuna recipit; sed in affectus minus penetrat brevis hic velut nuncius. At si aperias haec, et cet. [then follows the description]. Majoragius refers to Cicero's description of Pompey's military experience in the speech pro lege Manilia, and Gaisford to Harris, Philol. Inquiries, p. 58 [on p. 62, this passage of the Rhet. is quoted]. He assigns this to 'accumulation' and 'concatenation'. Shakespeare, in the Tempest, will supply us with a brilliant example: The cloud-capp'd towers, the gorgeous palaces, the solemn temples, \&c. [Iv. i. 152] Comp. Acts of the Apostles, ii. 9 seq., where the wonder of the gift of tongues is heightened by the enumeration in detail of all the different nations whose language was spoken; 'Parthians, and Medes, and Elamites.' Bacon's Colowrs of Good and Evil (Vol. vil p. 81, Ellis and Sped. ed.), No. 5, is a good commentary on this topic in its most general application.







$\lambda^{\prime}$ रovoav] is omitted in ms $A^{\circ}$., and consequently put in brackets by Buhle and Spengel. The latter adds, Praef. ad Rhet. Gr. p. vi, ' aliud
 Spengel, ed. 1867. s.] 'Deest $\lambda$ érováa in Cod. antiquissimo Victorii, et videtur sane illud interpolatum esse. Uncinos applicavi'. Buhle.

 the rest as quoted by Ar. This example is the same as that given by Quintilian. Victorius thinks that he borrowed it from Aristotle. Spalding, ad Quint. vili 3. 67, quotes the following Schol. on Il. xv 496,


 'detail' as closely akin to it. That the first at all events is so, may be inferred from the identification of 'detail' with 'accumulation' by Harris, p. 58, above quoted. The two figures are 'accumulation' and 'climax'.
 above another step by step, like the rounds of 'a ladder' ( $\boldsymbol{\lambda} \lambda_{i} \mu \mathrm{a} \xi$ ), or the stages of a building. Rhet. ad Alex. 3 (4). 9, і̇лоикоঠонойита тò érepoy as











 yàp ínavaßaivovtı (mounting a staircase or a hill, from higher to higher) í $\lambda$ óyos Ëousev ini $\mu$ eitova. This figure by the Latin Rhetoricians is called pradatio, Cic. de Or. III 54. 207, Quint. IX 3.54-7, where it is explained and illustrated by the same passage of Demosth. and from Latin authors. In Auct ad Heren. IV 25, it is thus defined: Gradatio est, in qua non ante ad consequens verbum descenditur quam ad superius conscensum est, and then illustrated. See Aquila Romanus, cited by Ernesti, Lex. Teck. Gr. et Lat. sub vv. к $\lambda i \mu a \xi$, et gradatio, and at length by Schäfer, App. Crit. ad Demosth. p. 288, 8, Vol. II p. 250. Aquila calls it ascensus.




シ̈бтер＇Eлixapmos］Besides the illustration of the figure climax from Epicharmus quoted above from the de Gen．Anim．，there is another and a more complete one in Athen．II 36 C．D，indicated by Schrader，ík $\mu i v$

 каì бфáke入os каі $\zeta \eta \mu i a!$ ．
 pression that these two figures make upon the hearer：the first，the same as that which accounts for it in the case of daipeots；the accumulation of particulars，and the rising by steps to a climax，have the same effect as the division or detail，in increasing the number of effective strokes，and

 magnify appear to be the cause and origin of a number of important effects， which you seem to multiply by detailing them．The following passage of the Rhet．ad Alex．c． 3 （4），§ $\$ 10$ ，11，will serve as a commentary on this







 exemplification of this topic is found in Eth．Nic．vili 15，1163a 12，of $\mu$ iv


 ditional value or importance for good or for evil that things，especially actions，acquire at particular ages or times of life（illustrated in the Topics）， in particular places，at particular times，at particular critical seasons and occasions（xatpoi），or from the special nature of the powers or faculties that are called into exercise（8vyápets），is derived from the scarcity of such things and actions，and the difficulty of obtaining or performing them．The kaupós in two aspects is exemplified in the Topics， $\mathrm{\Gamma} 2,117$
${ }^{1}$ Müllach，Fragm．Philos．Gr．p．143，gives these lines as corrected by Meineke， Dindorf，and Bochart．

## A．Ix miv 日volas $\theta$ olva，





The other passage，in the de Gen．An．，Müllach attempts to correct himself， and produces this melodious verse，p．144，





 є̇vavтíw
a 26-b 21. Add Prov. xv. 23, at word spoken in due season, how good is it. xpóyos is illustrated by the case, already quoted, of Sir Phil. Sidney, and the cup of cold water at the battle of Zutphen [p. 84]: סvvápets, as Aristotle himself tells us, applies to cases in which any one does something 'beyond his powers', above his ordinary level, and more than you would expect from him ; and napà roùs ópoiovs is exemplified by the epigram and the saying of Iphicrates.
kal al oüros $\kappa_{.}$r. $\lambda$.] 'and if such things be done (ovirms), at particular places or times, they will acquire a magnitude and importance in things (i. e. actions) right, and good, and just, and their opposites'. oütos may however mean under particular circumstances.
 as the verb from which it is derived is illustrated in the dative by Matthiae, Gr. Gr. $\delta 390$. Stallbaum on Phaedo 88 C. Soph. 252 D. and Euthyphr. 13 D, 15 A. Add, Aesch. Agam. 415, nтepois ínaঠoís vimyou ke入eíOots.
 668, 'Hparגeí doppŋна́тшy. Aj. 696, Wunder ad loc. Eur. Ion, 508, rd̀ OcóOen
 Plat. Parmen. 128 C, Theaet. 177 A, Gorg. 522 D, Symp. 182 D, Rep. vi 493 D, 498 B. Ar. Pol. VII (vi) 5, 1320 a 32, Borícela rois àmóposs. Some examples of an analogous construction, in which a substantive follows the ordinary construction of 2 verb, with prepos. and subst., are given by Stallbaum on Phaedo 99 B. Add to these. Plat. Protag. 354 A, Gorg. 472 E,




This epigram is expressly attributed to Simonides by Eustath. ad Hom. p. 1701,24 (Buhle). It is found in the Anthol. I 80 (ed. Jacobs), No. 107 of the Epigrams attributed to Simonides. Bergk, Fragm. Lyr. p. 793 [p. 92 I, 2nd ed ], Simonidis Fragm. 166.
 Hemsterhuis ad Hesychium s.v. ärvionft, as a zug yoke, which was carried over the two shoulders to supporthe Eish-6askets.
${ }^{1}$ raupbs 'due season', 'the right time', 'occasion', 'opportunity', the time suitable, appropriate, to the performance of anything, is that form of good which comes under the Category of time, xpobos; Eth. Nic. I 4, 1096 a 36 . On this the Paraphrast (Andronicus Rhodius) notes, lott ydp $\delta$ кauds $\delta$ datrfdecos dxdore xpávos. Pind. Pyth. Ix 82, d кaupds тavrds (Xec корифdy. Ib. IV 286 (508). Soph.





 aüтоסidaктоs $\delta$ є єiцí.

 dvelópevon cal rads ikarípmolev owvpidas 1 Eapríбavres (quoted in Anthol.). Otherwise called rung. Arist. Acth. 860, 954 Dig. Laert. IX 53, of Pro-

 'Erucovpós so' $\phi \eta \sigma$. So that Protagoras may be added to the examples


The exclamation of Iphicrates 'from what I rose to this' (from what an origin this my fortune was made) is repeated in a more correct form (Buhle) in c. 9. 3r, if ion els ola, as is also part of the Epigram. Plustarch, Apophth. Reg. et Imp., under the head of Iphicrates, Nos. I and 5, has these notices of him. 'Iфıкрárys doкîy vide elva oxurorópou кareфpo-

 'Appódrov ròy rout ma 入acoí 'Apuodiov droóyonoy els duayivecay avị̣̂ $\lambda$ oudopov́-

§33. To aurodvis roil dnustirov] 'native superior to acquired talents and advantages (of person, mind or character), because they are harder to come by'; nature being rather chary of such gifts, and the acquisition of

 has a wider scope than the rhetorical, and again, c. 4, 119 a 7-10.


 Tact $\downarrow$ ефquòs àníp. Specie autem comparantur ut anteponantur quale propter se expetenda suit ios quale propter alive: wt innata atque insita assumptis et adventitious et seq. Sic. Topic. xviIi 69.
of रounrifs] Homer. Odis. $x^{\prime}$ (xXII) 347.
 not occur, as is well known, in the funeral oration put into Pericles' mouth by Thucydides in his second book. Thucydides, who merely gives the general meaning of his speakers and never their actual words, may have omitted it intentionally, if Pericles really made use of it. But as Herodotus, vil 162, attributes nearly the same identical words to Geld, it seems more probable that it was erroneously ascribed to the other: at all events it is quite clear that it could not have been original in his mouth. It appears, likewise, in a somewhat altered form, in Euripides (Suppl. 447,






 from Pericles；and it is ascribed to Demades by Athenaeus，III 99 D．It is repeated in Rhet．III 10.7.
 friend indeed．＇Auget manifesto vim beneficiorum tempus，angustiaeque eorum qui beneficium accipiunt，quod etiam Demosthenes in Leptinem

 Victorius．Comp．Eth．N．vili 15， 1163 a 16 ，in estimating the value of ser－ vices to a friend，when you wish to make the most of them you say that



סvoì rò éryúrepov roû rè̉ous］This topic is distinguishable from those in $\$ \S 9$ and 16．There the comparison is between end and not－end ：here it is between different degrees or orders of means to an end．Top．$\Gamma$ 1， 1166 22，quoted on § 9 ．Alexander，in his Comm．on that passage， illustrates this by the comparison of shaving and exercise as means to the end，health；the active exercise of deetí（this is the definition of eidaunovia in the Eth．Nic．）to the mere $\bar{\epsilon} \xi ⿺ 𠃊 ⺊ 口 \begin{gathered}\text { of } i t \text { ，as nearer to the end，happiness ；}\end{gathered}$ in practical arts，the higher and more comprehensive are superior to the narrower and subordinate in each department，the latter being mere means to some higher end ；so horsemanship is superior to the saddler＇s art，both being subordinate，but the former nearer，to the end，the mili－ tary art ；the woodman＇s and carpenter＇s arts as means to shipbuilding； medicine and gymnastics as both tending to a healthy habit of body．
rò aúrథ̣ кal à áncôs］The comparison in the expression of this topic is left to be understood，and the two terms are merely placed in juxta－ position by kai，one and the other are laid before us，in order that we may choose between them．The topic is a comparison of absolute good， or good in general，and relative good．That which is absolutely good， or good in itself，kaf aútó，or good in general，need not be the best for us（＇to a man＇s own self＇），any particular individual，autчิ，though theo－ retically，from the higher point of view，it is superior to the other．Top．
 Comm．on Top．p． 125 （Top． 116 b 26，тò ठuvarò̀ kal à̉ívaroy），illustrates this by the contrast of immortality and long life，which will apply as
${ }^{2}$ The comparison of these two topics well illustrates the difference of treatment in dialectical and rhetorical reasoning．In the former that which is generally and theoretically true is put forward：in the latter，looking at this same question from the practical side，we see that there are many exceptiens， and that this other side is equally capable of heing maintained．



well to the $\dot{\alpha} \pi \lambda \hat{\omega} s$ and $a \dot{u} \dot{\tilde{q}}$ as to that for which it is immediately intended: immortality may perhaps be absolutely the best, most desirable in itself, but it is out of our reach; for us therefore a long life, which may possibly be attained, is better: it is of no use to choose or prefer immortality. Another example is supplied by Heraclitus' dictum, quoted in Eth. Nice. $\mathrm{X}_{5}$, 1176 a 7 , that an ass would prefer any rubbish or refuse ( $\sigma$ vip $\mu$ ara) to gold ; because it is pleasanter to kim. Comp. 115.12, ri

$a \dot{u} r \dot{\varphi}$ (al. $a v \tau \bar{\psi})$ [on p. 146] is the reading of Vict., Buhle, Gaisf., Becker, Spengel, and Bonita, Arist. Stud. I p. 88. It is the equivalent of rıvi in the familiar antithesis of general and particular good, as in the passage of the

 the antithesis, I 15. 12, it assumes the form of aúq¢, 'good to a man's own self', i.e. each particular individual, it is quite plain that the one form can in many cases be substituted for the other. On au่roî for au̇roû and
 ض̀rrâбOau. Also, Buttm. Excurs. x ad Dem. c. Mid. p. 140, de formis aviróv et aúróv. ŋ̈ for kail, which is adopted by Vict. and Gaisf., and suggested by Bonitz, l. c., is, as I have above endeavoured to shew, unnecessary.
tò duvaròv rove àòvyárov] Top. $\Gamma$ 1, 116 b 26 . See Alexander's example in the last note but one. Another occurs in II 2. 2, on anger, $\eta \dot{d} \delta \dot{v} \mu \mathrm{i} v \gamma \mathrm{a} \rho$

 and that which is to be preferred of two courses of action, only about

 Nice. III 5, 1112625.

This topic is stated as a consequence from the preceding ; the possible is to be preferred to the impossible, because the attainable good is the

rad $\dot{d v}$ rivet nov $\beta i o v$ ] The end in question is not the temporal end, but the final cause. The reגos is in itself good, 7.8,9;6.2; the higher or nearer to the end ( $\boldsymbol{\tau} \dot{\alpha} \pi \rho o{ }_{\rho} \tau \underline{\varphi} \tau_{r} \lambda_{c t}$ ) are any of the means employed for the attainment of it, the more they approximate in their character to the end itself; hence rà év ref ci roup Biov, the means included in, or those which subserve, the end of life-happiness, or whatever else the end of life may be-are in so far superior, being nearer to that great and final end, than other means to other and lower ends. Top. $\Gamma$ 1, $116 b 23$, fro


 sham ; rò elva and тò סoкeîv, rò ot and rò фatvó $\mu$ vol ; the solid, genuine, substantial reality contrasted with the mere outside show and 'appearance'; or truth as absolute certainty, and probable opinion. Top. $\mathrm{r}_{3}, 118 b 20$,








 Amphiaraus the just, où yàp dokeì díkatos à $\lambda \lambda^{\prime}$ eivat $\theta_{\text {a }} \lambda_{\text {el }}$. This topic is No. 3, in Bacon's Colours of Good aud Evil (Works, ed. Ellis and Spedding, vII 79). It is shewn to fail in the case of virtue; the virtuous man ' will be virtuous in solitudine, and not only in theatro'.

 characteristic of that which is directed to mere opinion (is found in) anything that a man would not choose if he were sure that it would not be known or recognised by others'. And the same thing is expressed in the Topics, 'anything which a man would not be anxious to possess if no one else was to be privy to it'. It is the credit of possessing the thing, in the eyes of others, and not the mere possession for its own sake, that gives it its value and superiority. Compare with this à $\mu \dot{\eta} \lambda a v \theta a ́ v e c ~ \kappa . r . \lambda . ~$ $\S 40$, which gives the other side of the question.

In the example, the superiority of receiving to conferring a benefit, the words 80 gecev dy suggest that we need not take this for granted ; it can be 'made to appear' that it is true, but the real truth lies on the other side of the question; from a higher point of view, to confer is better than to receive a benefit.
§37. ö $\sigma a$ civau $\mu a ̂ \lambda \lambda o \nu \kappa . т . \lambda$.$] The difference between this and the pre-$ ceding topic seems to lie in this. That lays down the general rule, and refers to 'every thing' that comes under it; and is therefore appealed to,
 second is a special variety of the first, ' what men wish to be'; the qualities, such as virtues, which they desire to possess, or seem to possess. Here again the reality is preferable to the mere credit and external appearance of the virtue. 'And, therefore, it is a vulgar and popular opinion (фari, Plat. Rep. 11358 A; and aot merely the doctrine of the vulgar, ol modnoi, but maintained also by would-be philosophers, as Thrasymachus and Callicles) that justice is a thing of small value (mean and contemptible), because the appearance of it is preferable to the reality, whereas in the case of health it is the reverse'. Victorius quotes, in exemplification of фa $i$, two iambic lines from Plutarch de Aud. Poet. p. 18 D,
 Eur. Ixion. Fr. I. Dind. Quoted also in Stobaeus p. 30, 8. Another fragment to the same effect is ascribed by Valckenaer (Diatr. in Fragm. Eur. p. 166) to Euripides' Ixion.










${ }^{1}+$ rò infra, cum Bekker'. 'sed melius abest alterum rd quod pr. A' om. et auciore Vahleno Bekker ${ }^{3}$ ' Spengel.



 value because they are serviceable in so many ways; for the support and preservation of mere life, and of a virtuous and happy life (for which they supply the means), also for pleasure and for good and noble actions.

 $\lambda$ unngs. The desirability of anything even which is desirable in itself or on other grounds, as things useful, is increased by the addition of any pleasure that accompanies such things; so the ivipyectar are completed and perfected by the accompanying $\dot{\eta} \delta o v v^{\prime}$ in each case, Eth. N. x $3,4,5$. And likewise the absence of pain, as compared with its presence, may be regarded as a positive good. The topic in the Rhetoric combines the two, positive pleasure and negative relief from pain; these together being 'more than one' are superior to either of the two separately. kai is
 supposed) we have (there are there, iudapxct) the positive pleasure and the absence of pain, which may both be regarded as a good'.
nal duoiv....d $\overline{\text { D }}$ ov mote $i] ~ A+B$ is greater than $A+C$, therefore B is


 the addition of a quantity to the less of two other quantities makes the sum total of the two greater than the sum total arising from the addition of another different quantity to the other, we may infer that the former of the two added quantities is greater than or preferable to the latter. 4 is less than 6: if the addition of 8 to 4 produces a total 12 , which is greater than the total resulting from the addition of an unknown quantity $x$, to 6 , and therefore less than 12, we may infer (by calculation) that $x$ is less than 8.
§ 40. ij $\lambda$ avoávet] $i$ has been omitted, either by the author or a tran-


scriber. A similar omission occurs in Plat. Phaedr. 275 A, rovivavtion ines if dúvarah. Similar examples quoted from Plato by Stallbaum (note ad los.) make it probable that the oversight is due to the author. 'Things that do shew themselves, and are conspicuous, have a greater air of reality about them than those that do not (that lurk out of sight), and may therefore lay claim to the preference'.
 reading, which Victorius found in all his mSS, is no inference or examplification of the preceding rule, though it is supported by Schrader, who however does not explain the connexion. If it be applied to the rule, the show or appearance, rod doneî, of wealth is said $\lambda$ avdávery, not to be seen ; which is absurd. It does follow from the topic in § 37 , and may possibly have been thence transferred to this place. Some MSS and the Greek Scholiast give $\pi$ doureî.... al dokeiv, but it seems unlikely that the two verbs, if the combination of the two was intended, should be so widely separated: also kali to doxein would be required. This was
 $\pi \lambda o u r e i v$, which seems rather too violent an alteration. Brandis would adopt the reading of his anonymous commentator, bod rd $\pi \lambda_{\text {oureiv al }}$
 IV i p. 42), also conjectured by Vater, and confirmed by the Greek
 sal $\mu>$ фaiveotau. Another mode of correction had occurred to me, the interchange, viz. of ró and rô̂, roî $\pi$ גourciv....ò dokeîv. The meaning of this would be, that the appearance or outward show of wealth, together with the wealth itself which it manifested, might upon this principle be made to appear superior to the wealth without the show, because the possessor would lose all the credit of it-but this involves perhaps rather a non-natural interpretation of $\pi$ poss $\dot{d} \boldsymbol{\eta} \hat{\theta}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{c}$ Mr Munro for a suggestion that deserves attention : the substitution of $r \hat{\varphi}$, for roup doxeiv: the alteration is very slight, and gives an excellent sense ; the value of wealth by this rule may be considered to be augmented by the addition of the prominent and conspicuous display of it. Bekker and Spengel retain the vulgate.
§41. to dyanๆтûv к.r...].] not here 'to be acquiesced in', 'that which one may be content with', (as in Eth. Nic. I, 10946 19) ; nor in the reputed Homeric sense of 'unique', 'only ${ }^{17}$, but 'highly valued',' dearly -prised'
${ }^{1}$ Of the four places in which dyanvrds occurs in Homer, and is interpreted movorents, wnicus, one, Od. $\boldsymbol{\beta}^{\prime} 365$, has the addition of $\mu 0 \hat{v} v o s$, which seems to shew that there, at any rate, dyanviós cannot mean $\mu$ oûvos or $\mu$ ovorevts; and in the others the translation 'dearly beloved' is just as suitable and probable. It is similarly explained (in the supposed Homeric sense) by many of the Interpp. of Math. iii. 17, Nark i. 11, Lac. iii. 22, and other places where Christ is called io dyanyrods viols Oeov̂. Dr Lightfoot, in Camb. mourn. of Classical and Sacred Philol. Vol. ul p. 92, No- 7, thinks that from the primary notion of ararat 'to welcome'-which is undoubtedly its. original and Homeric sense-it expresses rather the external act than the inward feeling, and should be translated

#   ритаı. 



('beloved', something which one is very fond of. Comp. unicus, as in Catullus, Carmen 64, 215 ). So it is used in Eth. Nic. IX 12 init. ※̈नाep rois
 doubtful, and the sense of ' unique' possible. Here it cannot have this meaning, because in some cases it is $\mu \in \tau^{\prime}{ }^{\prime} \lambda \lambda \omega \nu$, and it is only by the addition of $\mu$ 'rov that the 'great rarity' which gives it its high value becomes the 'solitary specimen'. Comp. Buttm. ad Mid. p. 567, note 398.
érepó $\phi \theta a \lambda \mu \mathrm{ov}]$ Gaisford refers to a very pertinent passage of Dem. c . Timocr. p. 744, in which the orator tells with admirable conciseness a story of a one-eyed man of Locri, who under a law framed on the retaliatory principle ('an eye for an eye and a tooth for a tooth') was threatened by an enemy with the loss of his solitary visual organ. 'Vexed at this, and thinking life intolerable at the price, he is said to have ventured to propose a law, that if any one deprived a one-eyed man of an eye, he should lose both his own in return, that the loss of each might be equalized '. This is a case of intcixcta, the spirit of the law rectifying the imperfection of the letter. Rhet. I 13. 13-19.

This concludes the treatment of the general principles and topics from which arguments may be derived by the political rhetorician in the deliberative kind of Rhetoric: there remains one special subject under this head, which is indispensable to the orator who takes part in public business, and is sketched very briefly in outline in the next chapter, with a reference to the Politics for complete details.

## CHAP. VIII.

§ 1. On the general connexion of this chapter with its context, on the two rhetorical uses of the study of Politics, and the various classifications of Constitutions by Aristotle in other works, by Plato and Polybius, see Introduction, p. 181-3, and Append. A, p. 208.
'The subject, which is most important and effectual (is of the highest
in Homer rather by 'fondled or caressed', than 'beloved'. Fritzsche, on Eth. Eud. III. 6, $1233^{6}$ 2, renders roû àjaxทroû, flizi unice dilecti. See the references in his note. Heinsius, Exercit. Sacr. in Marc. i. II (quoted by Gaisford), pronounces very decidedly in favour of this interp. unicus, unigenitus, praeter quem alius non datur : referring to this passage (which is decisive against him), to Homer, and to Hesychius aja $\pi \eta r \delta \nu$, $\mu 0 \nu 0 \gamma \in \nu \eta \hat{\eta}$. Victorius more in accordance with facts says, "carum valet, ut puto, idque significare voluit Catullus cum inquit 'si quid carius est oculis' quo uno se aliquis consolatur, in quo omnem spem suorum gaudiorum collocatam habet, quo impetrato ac retento contentus vivere potest:" which exactly defines it. The use of the Latin unicus is precisely similar.






authority, carries most weight, кupuéracoy) of all in conferring the power and cultivating the faculty of persuasion and good counsel, includes the exact (analytical dıedeiv) knowledge of all the existing varieties of constitutions, together with the habits (ie. the habits and manners which they severally engender in those who live under them), institutions, and interests (бupфépovra) which respectively belong to them'. Ad consiliusm autem de republica dandum caput est nosse rempublicam; ad dicendum very probabiliter nosse mores civitatis, gui quia orebro mutantur, genus quogue orationis est saepe mutandum. Cic. de Orat. 1182.337.
§ 2. Ifc di kopia kor. . $^{\text {.] Not only must the public speaker be ac- }}$ quainted with the manners and customs, institutions, and all that is expedent to or for the interest of these various forms of government, but also with the nature of the governing body (ri kúpoov) in each ; it is by the declarations or proclamations (droфáveres) of this supreme authority that the law is given to the citizens and their conduct prescribed to them, and as these are various under the several constitutions (rd di kípia beipprauaúplá '̇ढ tv), so he must be thoroughly acquainted with all the existing varieties.
dंтódacts] so the Vulg., retained by Beaker and Spengel : dmódparose is found in two MSS: deródayots also occurs, with a varia lection dibdarts in two MSS, in the sense of 'a declaration or utterance' (as here) in 1121.2 a dinópacts is no doubt used in the common language in two different
 and (2) 'a declaration, from anopaives', as in Demosthenes and Poly-
 most expressly distinguishes the two words again and again in the $\pi \in \rho i$
 live and affirmative) cai diróфavoss (an enunciation) cal $\lambda$ ójos. c. 5, 17 a 8,

 the author of this treatise could use the one word for the other? On the other side it may be said that Aristotle is extremely hasty and careless in writing, and that the inconsistency is in this case justified and explained by his having for the nonce conformed to the ordinary usage of the langage: and the evidence on either side seems so nicely balanced, manuscript authority included, that the question cannot be positively determined. Buhle is very emphatic on the point, 'equidem lure neo andfavors reposui.'

[^7]Sıńpŋтаı ката̀ та̀s то入ıтєías' öбаı $\gamma \dot{\alpha} \rho$ ai то入ıтєíal,




§ 3. On the classifications of forms of government, see Appendix A, Introd. p. 208. On this ordinary, popular, fourfold division, see Pol. vi (iv) 7 , init.
rò $\mu$ èv кúpoov кal rò крīov к.т.ג.] 'the sovereign power, the highest authority', ro кúprov; or the 'power' which 'decides', rd apivon, with which rests the ultimate decision, to which lies the ultimate appeal-this sovereign power ' is always either a part of one of these four or the whole of it'; the 'part' in the three latter cases of the forms named : the 'whole' in the democratical form alone.

54 The distinctions of the four forms of government are determined, like everything else, by the object or end proposed to itself by each of them; this is the epos, the characteristic mark, or determining prisciple, of each, that which severally 'characterizes' them; and this is in each case 2 special conception of political justice, rd dixanov. Pol. III 9, init.

Democracy is a form of government that is distinguished from the rest, (is characterised), by the distribution of offices amongst the people by themselves (dravinovrau, mid.) and by lot, each member of the entire body of citizens having an equal chance of obtaining them : this is equivalent to saying that the opos of a democracy, its determining principle, that which gives its special character is 'equality', loóros, which is the foundation of the idevecpia (usually assigned as its ${ }^{\text {d }}$ pos), and therefore its proper reגos. This is laid down in Pol. VI (Iv) 4, 1291630 seq. 'Liberty' and 'equality' are the catchwords of a democracy. dúo $\boldsymbol{\gamma}^{\prime} \rho$ dovuy ois if


 Liberty alone is not sufficient in the way of a distinction, (Ib. 129067 seq.), though it is commonly assigned as such, Ib. c. 8, 1294 a 10, dpcoro-
 other current opos of democracy is the will of the majority : where that is sovereign the state is democraticał. Ib. VII (vi) 3,13 r8 a 18, фaनi $\gamma$ dp ol
 the notion of equality, because it implies that as all the citizens are individually equal, and have equal rights, the greater number has the higher right, and therefore prevails over the minority. The theory of democracy is, that all citizens are equal; not that all men are born equal, because all barbarians are naturally inferior to Greeks. The use of the 'lot',

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which leaves the choice of the candidate to chance, is an exemplification of this, because it assumes the equality of the claims of all citizens to office. On the different kinds of democracy, see Pol. vi (IV) 4, 1291 614 seq.

The öpos of oligarchy is $\pi$ 入oûros: and thercfore property, a census, rim $\eta \mu a$ (estimated value or property), is necessacy as-a-qualifieation-for office, for that which confers authority or sovereignty, iv if ol a $\pi \boldsymbol{d} \boldsymbol{r} \mu \mu-$
 keep to themselves, all offices of state, all the powers of government). Pol VI (Iv) 4, 129061 : the different kinds of oligarchy, Ibid. c. 5, the first is

 8,1318 a 19 . A complete definition of ofprokpatia and di VI (iv) 4, 12906 17. In the popular Rhetoric ol à à $\tau \iota \mu \eta \mu a ́ r \infty y ~ i s ~ t h e ~ g e n e-~-~$ ral designation of the privileged class: but in theexacter Politics vI (Iv) 5, two kinds of tepinata are distinguished which characterise two difterent kinds of oligarchies; one in which the property qualification is only so high as to exclude the poor, and acqured property procures admission into the privieged class: the other in which the qualification is high, and the governing class, which is therefore smant, fil $u$, themselves the
 therefore not properly characteristic: it includes more than oligarchies,
 tov ívray, Pol. VI (Iv) 4,12916 39. Plato has the same phrase to describe



The opos of aristocracy is in the Politics ajeerín and not matoria. The two following observations are added in the way or nores to explain the apparent discrepancy. 'Aristocracy is a kind of polity in which education is the qualification for a share in the government. By education, I mean that which is established by the law of the land : for it is those who have lived in constant obedience to the state institutions that bear rule in the aristocracy'. The virtue of a citizen is not one and the same; it varies under different forms of government. The system of education must therefore be fixed and controlled by the government and conformed to its established institutions. This is the 'education established by the law' of the text. On the absolute necessity of this kind of training in virtue under state direction for grown men as well as children, see Eth. N. $\mathbf{x}$ 10, 1179632 seq., and the unfinished treatise on education in Bk. $v$ (viii) of the Politics. "Such men as these must necessarily appear 'best', and it is from them that this (form of constitution) has derived its name". Since masbia therefore is the necessary preparation for aperí, either of them may be represented as the object of the state. Definitions of d $\rho \mathrm{c}-$ urokparia are to be found, Pol. III 7, 1279 a 34, where two explanations of the $\dot{\text { aptoto }}$ in the name are given : either oia rò roùs áplorous afpxect








 $\dot{\alpha} \pi \alpha ́ \nu \tau \omega \nu$ кúpıós $\dot{\epsilon} \sigma \tau \iota \nu$ тоút $\omega \nu$ dè $\dot{\eta} \mu \dot{\mu} \nu \kappa \alpha \tau \dot{\alpha} \tau \alpha ́ \xi ı \nu$



movapxia] the sole government of one, includes Baodicia karà ráfū rune, a monarchy under certain fixed regulations or conditions, a limited,
 and the 'indefinite', unrestricted, unlimited tyranny. The distinction between the two here rests upon the limitation of the sovereign power or the absence of it. So in Pol. 111 14, 1285 a 27, of $\mu \mathrm{i} \nu$ yà (Bagideīs) kara
 tons of the voluntary and involuntary obedience is repeated 128562
及aciducal. 'Usurpation', as the distinctive difference of tyranny as opposed to monarchy (Eth. N. viii 12), is insufficient. The government of the hereditary monarchs of Persia is 'tyrannous' in respect of the nature and mode of exercise of their power, though these and other barbarian monarchies are nard vópov cal пaтpıкal, Pol. III 14, 1285 a 18 and 22, $\delta$ no$x^{\text {Appose }}$ Bacideis rípavvos yiverau, Eth. N. viIi 12. Lastly, the tyrant has a mercenary ' body-guard', фudaki' (this is distinctive of 'tyranny'; see Rhet. 1 2.19). The regular constitutional sovereign is protected, if at all, by a national guard of citizens, III I4, 1285 a 24 . But the true distinction between them is determined by the end of the government of each: with the one it is his own interest, rod aúrov $\sigma u \mu$ ípoy : with the other it is the



§ 5. The 'end' of each form of government may be identified with its pos, because 'everything being determined by its end', the end does determine (opiscrau) or characterise the special form which each kind of government assumes. These obit or ri $\lambda \eta$ have already been considered in the preceding note. All choice is directed to some end: the end of the state, or its governing and guiding principle, must control and give a direction to all the choice and the consequent action of its citizens; and hence the necessity that the statesman and public speaker should be acquainted with it. 'Plainly therefore it is with a view to the end of each form of government that our analysis of its habits, institutions, and interests should be conducted, because it is to this that the motives and actions of the body of men that we have to address are ultimately directed'.









тupavvidos dè $\phi \nu \lambda a \times \eta$ '] $\phi v \lambda a x \eta{ }^{\prime}$ is here 'precaution', 'self-defence'-a form of self-interest. tò toıov $\sigma u \mu \phi$ 'िov, characteristic of 'tyranny'-and hence, as a means to this end, the $\phi u \lambda a x \eta$ in its other sense, the mercenary body-guard, becomes a necessity, and distinctive of a tyranny. But as a $\phi u \lambda a k r$, in some sense, is equally required by any sole ruler or monarch, who is always in danger from the attempts of rivals, or rebels, or revolutionists,-the sole ruler has only one life to lose, and hence the personal danger; in governments of many, where the members are numerous, the attempt to get rid of them all would be difficult or impossible, and consequently it is not made-so here $\beta a \sigma$ acia or povapxia is included under the general head of rupavvis: so Schrader. Failing to see this, some transcriber, whose reading appears in the Greek Scholiast ${ }^{1}$, had
 in all the MSS, and not rendered by the Latin Translators, was deservedly rejected by Victorius. Vater, who does not agree with Victorius' and Schrader's view, thinks that some words descriptive of the renos of the Bacidela have dropt out ; and Spengel, by 'indicating a lacuna' (Rhet. Gr. Praef. vi), appears to be of the same opinion.

Upon the whole I think that Brandis' view of the question is to be preferred (Philologus iv i p. 43). It certainly is not likely, though possible, that Aristotle would have identified monarchy and tyranny, considering the treatment of them which he adopts in the Politics, and that he has already subdivided movapxia into Baбticia and ropavvis in §4. Consequently, it appears that this division was adhered to in $\S 5$, and something to represent the rìios of $\beta a \sigma$ ideia has been lost.
§6. On this kind of $\xi \theta \eta$, one of the three by which an ethical character is conveyed to the speech, and which is employed as an indirect argument or means of persuasion, see Introduction on this passage, p. 182, and on the $\bar{\eta} \theta \eta$ in general, $p .110$ seq.

The spirit and tone of the speech, and the expressions employed, must be in conformity with the national character of the audience, as determined by the end of their special form of government; a.democratical tone and language must not be adopted in addressing an oligarchical audience, and vice versa.

[^9]





 трòs тò $\tau$ é nos.





 $\pi \epsilon \rho i \quad \tau o u ́ \tau \omega \nu$.
 be found by the same means', by the same kind of observation and study, as the other $\eta \theta \eta$, the individual characters: 'in both, the characters are manifested in the choice or purpose ${ }^{1}$, which is always directed to the end (which we desire to attain)'. As the individual character is shewn by the purpose or intention of every act, so the national character of the people, as a body, is manifested in their choice and purpose, which is directed to the general end, aim, and object, or the general pervading principle, of the state and its institutions : it is this common view and purpose which gives them their national character; and to this the speech must conform in order to be acceptable.
§ 7 gives a summary of the contents of the first division of the analysis of the three kinds of Rhetoric, the deliberative. 'We have treated of the general objects of the public speaker's aims and efforts, viz. of what is good or expedient in itself, and in relation to something else; and the topics from which arguments may be drawn on these subjects (in cc. 4-7); and we have further pointed out the channels and modes (did rivouv cal $\pi$ wis) by which we may supply ourselves with materials for the treatment of the characters and institutions of the various forms of government; but only so far as was (commensurate with) suitable to the present occasion, because (yap) exact detail (is not required here, and) is to be found (if required) in the Politics'.












CHAP. IX.
The following passage of Cicero, de Or. II 84. 342, will serve as a commentary on the treatment of 'good' and 'virtue' in this chapter and c. 6 ; and also on the distinction of virtues in respect of their utility, § 6:

Perspicuum est igitur alia esse in homine optanda, alia laudanda. Genus, forma, vires, opes, divitiae, ceteraque quae fortuna dat aut extrinsecus aut corpori, non habent in se veram laudem, quae deberi virtuti uni putatur; sed tamen quod ipsa virtus in earum rerum usu ac moderatione maxime cernitur, tractanda in lawdationibus etiam haec sunt naturae et fortunae bona: [this is illustrated.] Virtus autem, quae per se ipsa laudabilis et sine qua nihil laudari potest, tamen habet plures partes, quarum alia est alia ad laudationem aptior. Sunt enim aliae virtutes quae videntur in moribus hominum et quadam comitate ac beneficentia positae; aliae quae in ingenii aliqua facultate aut animi magvitudine et robore. Nam clementia, iustitia, benignitas, fides, fortitudo in periculis communibus iucunda est auditu in laudationibus; omnes enim hae virtutes non tam ipsis qui eas habent quam generi hominum fructuosae putantur.
§ 1. The subject of this chapter is the analysis of virtue and vice, the noble and disgraceful, moral right and wrong, as the objects of praise and blame, and therefore furnishing materials for the epideictic or encomiastic branch of Rhetoric, of which praise and blame are the characteristic functions.

We may also derive from this analysis topics of the $\eta \theta \eta$, characters or dispositions which serve to give the speech an ethical colour. This is to be effected by producing by the speech (artistically, not by any evidence of character previously acquired, 'authority') the impression upon the audience of our truthfulness and probity ; of our practical wisdom which will enable us to give them useful advice, and finally of our goodwill towards themselves; this being 'the second mode of persuading' ( 70 ' was said', cf. c. 2 §§ 3, 4): because the same materials can be employed in representing ourselves as well as others as 'trustworthy in respect of virtue', as men of such a character as can be depended upon.
§ 2 marks a division of panegyrics, the ordinary subjects of the intocuktuxòv yévos of Rhetoric. A panegyric may be written and delivered 'with or without a serious purpose ( $\sigma$ movin')'; the latter are burlesques. On these, and the subjects of encomiastic speeches in general, see Introd. p. 121-123. In the burlesque kind, anything









however mean and trifling, 'inanimate things, or any insignificant animal', may be made the object of the panegyric. But as the materials, the topics which furnish the arguments, are the same in both, we may include the burlesque with the serious in our treatment of them in the way of examples or illustrations.
 wrote in praise of pots, and pebbles, and mice (see note on II 24. 2); and others on humblebees and salt ( 1 scr. Hel. § 12). As an extant specimen of these trifling productions we have the $\mu v i a s$ dy nco $\mu \mathrm{mov}$ of Lucian (cf. note on Isocr. Panes. § 189). S.]
§ 3. кalóry See note on c. 7, 24 Eth. Eudem. vil 15. 3, rap yap


 It has either a moral aspect (marked by the characteristic inauserob ; on praise and blame, approbation and disapprobation, as characteristic of virtue and vice, see Introd. on $\mathbf{7}^{\prime}$ autos, Append. B, p. 212, seq.), what is right and noble, an end in itself, $\delta_{i}$ avis; or is physical and sensual, what is beautiful, in which pleasure always accompanies that which is otherwise good. The ugly may be good in the sense of useful, but gives n 0 pleasure.

Virtue therefore must of necessity be ka入óv, because it comes under the first definition of it, it is good in itself, beneficial to the individual and to society, and also has the stamp and seal of general 'approbation'.

54 devi] The definition of virtue here given compared with the celebrated one of Eth. Nit. II 6, init., and the detailed treatment of the list of virtues and the meagre and incomplete account here given of them, contrasted with the elaborate and ingenious analysis of them in the third and fourth books of the same work, is a most striking illustration of the difference between the point of view and method of treatment in the popular Rhetoric and comparatively scientific Ethics. For example, the definition here given coincides in no single point with that of the Ethics. It regards virtue solely on the side of its usefulness, probably because this feature of it is likely to produce the greatest effect upon the popular mind. Instead of a $\bar{z}$ ts it is a mere diva pus, an undeveloped faculty or power-this is most expressly denied in Eth. N. II 4, 1106 a 50




 -the apoalpeos, the special moral element is omitted, as is also the doctrine of the mean in its application to virtue, and the standard by which this relative mean is to be determined.

Regarded as a dívaus, virtue is a practical faculty, employed in 'providing and securing or keeping good things'-for oneself, apparently, by the exercise of any dperi, excellence or accomplishment bodily or mental-and secondly, 'a power of conferring benefits, or doing services, many and great, in fact all in everything (on all occasions)'. тávrey mepl mavre is doubtless, as Victorius intimates, a proverbial expression, more especially as it is found in a letter of Cicero to Cassius (ad Div. XV 17. 1, sed expecta пávra $\pi$ epl mderwi²). This is the moral side of virtue so far as it appears in its usefulness to society.
65. mipy dperiss] Comp. 5 §9. The list of virtues here given differs from that in the Nic. Ethics II 7, and III 9-IV 15, in the following
 appear in the Ethics, ducacoovivy being treated separately in Bk. $\mathbf{v}$, and the two intellectual virtues of the speculative and practical parts of the intellect, $\phi$ pómots practical wisdom, and oopia speculative wisdom or philosophy, in Bk. VI. ropia is omitted in the detailed explanation of the virtues, most likely because it has very little in common with Rhetoric, and would be useless to the rhetorician. xpaórns, which in the Ethics is ranked, as well as here, amongst the virtues, which are there 8 fets, here dunduets, in the second book of the Khetoric becomes a nados, so that it belongs to all the three divisions of our moral nature distinguished in Eth. NIC. II4 The anonymous mean between $\phi$ iरortula and d $\phi$ inorupla is omitted in our list, as well as the three social virtues of an
 two virtues of the $\pi d^{d} \theta_{y}$, viz alote and neluerts. No notice is taken here of dyapdreca, the examination of which occupies the earlier part of Bk viI, but this perhaps may be considered as an additional argument in favour of ascribing that book to Eudemus, which on all grounds is most probable.

6 6. The most useful virtues are the highest and greatest, by the foregoing definition. Of these, justice and courage, the one most serviceable in peace, the other in war, are for this reason most held in honour amongst mankind: and in the next degree liberafity, because it is lavish, and does not enter into competition with others (dunawo(Scodau) for money, which everybody else covets more than anything besides.
${ }^{1}$ Cicero has altered the form and the application of the proverb. In the text it means 'all kinds on all occasions', in Cicero it is 'all the news abont everything'.









67. Justice is the virtue which assigns to every one his due, and in this shews obedience to the law. This virtue and the two following, with en are an specially characterised by 'obedience to the law', are thereby invested with a political and objective character, and distinguished from the remainder, which are rather subjective and individual. The end and object of the true statesman is to make the citizens good, and this must be effected by training them in obedience to the laws of that form of government under which they live; the type of the perfect citizen varying under various constitutions. סoxeit ot cal of kari'


 rights of the citizens of a state, the observance of which is justice. Injustice is the cause of unfair distribution, to injustice it is owing that men take what does not belong to them, red di $\lambda \lambda$ of rota, and thus it acts pr operates in disobedience to the law. Of the three kinds of justice distinguished in Eth. N. vi, this takes in only the first, dısatoaivn dcavempraní,
 which ratifies and corrects wrong, and restores plaintiff and defendant to an equality, c. 7; and (2) reciprocal justice, rod divtıremovós the lex talionis, the law of retaliation or reciprocity transferred to commercial justice, which regulates exchanges and contracts of all kinds, c. 8.
§ 8. dedpia] In the chapter on this virtue of 'gratitude' in the Nice. Ethics, III It, ávopeia (as it is there written) is first defined in general terms as a virtue residing in a mean state in things that inspire confidence, or encouragement, or boldness, rad aappaicia, on the one hand, and fear on the other : its sole object and aim in choosing a course of action and encountering danger being rod кa入óv, the right and noble as an ultimate end, because it is so, and for no other reason; which implies also the opposite, the spurning of what is base and disgraceful. This is the general notion of fortitude, the endurance of pain, labour, danger, in the pursuit of an unselfish, honourable, high and noble object, when the opposite course would be base, mean, disgraceful. From this are
${ }^{1}$ Acts of fortitude must likewise be deliberate and voluntary, lei 8 ' ai $8 i$


AR. I.





then distinguished five popular notions of 'courage', dvopaia in a narrower sense, none of which can be properly called 'fortitude'. The first of these is political courage, the courage of a citizen, as a member of a state, and living under and directed by its laws, described in $1116 a 17-62$. And this seems to be the view of courage which is taken here, the terms employed in each corresponding very closely, donoū̃t $\gamma \mathrm{d} \rho$ vimopévecy rove nowóvovs (this restricts the virtue to facing danger and gives it a


 a 28. Further, one of the characteristics of this form of didpoia reappears in Eth. Eudem. III 1. 13, as belonging to political courage, $\mu i a \operatorname{\mu iv}$ modi-
 aropeia. The prominence of the military character of this virtue is likewise marked in the description both of the Ethics and Rhetoric by
 modín甲 $\& 6$, in the other; so that it seems that there is sufficient warrant for the identification of the two ; the duty to the state and obedience to its laws being again made the ground of the obligation to practise this virtue.
§ 9. The third virtue, owdpooivn, temperantia, is likewise represented under a political aspect. It is a virtue by which men's bodily appetites are regulated according to the dictates of the laws of the state, 'are so disposed towards bodily pleasures as the law enjoins'. In Eth. Nic. III cc. 13, 14, there is no regular definition of it ; but we gather from the contents of the two chapters that it is a virtue of self-control, which consists in a mean state with regard to the indulgence in bodily pleasures, (pains having less to do with the virtue); and in a due measure or estimate of the value of them. It is thus a 'mean' between dxodaria, 'excessive indulgence in them', and dearoAnoia, total 'insensibility'. II 7, 1 1o广 84.

- §10. तौcu*coóns] The principal difference between the views taken of the virtues in the Ethics and Rhetoric respectively, is that in the latter they are regarded solely on the side of their utility to society-a political view-in the Ethics they are confirmed habits or states resulting from a due regulation of the elementary wín out of which they are formed and developed. They are 'relative means', месórpres spòs imas, mean states varying in individuals according to the special character of each, lying at a variable distance between two extremes of the saidy out of which they grow, the proper mean in any given case being determined by the фporyots or practical wisdom, the objective standard being the collective judgment of those who are specially endowed with this faculty, the фpomuon Consequently here 'liberality' in expense is represented as a dis-


 $\mu \alpha \sigma \iota ~ \mu \epsilon \gamma \epsilon ́ \theta o v s ~ т о \iota \eta \tau \iota к \eta ́, ~ \mu ı к \rho о \psi и \chi i \alpha ~ \delta \grave{є ~ к а i ~ \mu ı к \rho о-~}$

position or habit inclined to do good, to make oneself useful in dealing with money.
§ II. $\mu$ craג $\begin{aligned} & \text { quxia] 'high-mindedness' is represented in the same }\end{aligned}$ way as the preceding, as a virtue which is 'productive of benefits', shews its utility, 'on a large scale'; to which 'little-mindedness', meanness of spirit, is the opposite. This is a very different and much narrover view of the virtue than that which is conveyed by the description of it in Nic. Eth. IV 7-9, which is summed up in the brief phrase at the end of c. 9 ,

 \$uxos of the Ethics is a man of high aims and lofty spirit, full of scorn and contempt for all that is beneath him, men and things, and with a pride which is justified by his deserts: pride without merits to support it is no longer proper pride, a virtue; but degenerates into vanity xav- $^{a}$ yótrs, an undue sense of one's own merits.
mkpoquxia 88 roivaution] is put in brackets by the recent Edd. as a gloss. It certainly seems to be superfluous, as it is repeated in the
 are both contrasted as opposites with $\mu$ eyaloupéneca, which in the latter case is certainly incorrect. At the same time if the words are omitted the repetition of dipert is quite equally objectionable.
 from 'liberality' merely by this, that whereas the one is $\pi s \rho l$ adoce adc e in
 סarampds ${ }^{\prime}$ ovov, 'those alone in which a large cost is involved'. Eth. N. IV 4, sub init. It is only to men distinguished either by birth or reputation, or anything else that confers distinction, that this virtue is suitable -in others it is no virtue at all, 1122630 . Plato and his dramatis porsonae sometimes add $\mu$ eyàox ${ }^{2}$ ercaa to the four cardinal virtues, the classication which he usually adopts. Meno $74 \mathrm{~A}, 88 \mathrm{~A}$. Rep. 11402 C , vi 490 E, 494 B, VII 536 A, viII 560 E. It does not, however, exactly correspond with Aristotle's interpretation, but has a wider and more general signification. See Rep. vi 486 A, where it is applied to the dainoca.


§ 13. фpómgts] appears much in the same character here as in Eth Nic. vi 5 - 9 , where it is analysed at lengthr If is 'practical wisdom which shews itself in the discrimination between good and evil, and particularly moral good and evil, in general, dokcî ò̀ $\phi$ porifuou civau rè dúva-










 סogaotunovi (or roî $\lambda$ oynotuovi, i.e. the dadmon or reasoning faculty, the discursive reason, as opposed to the vois, the speculative, intuitive reason,


 C. 9, 1142 a 14.
§ 14. тòv iveotaía кaupòv] 'the present (instant) time'. iviorával, 'to
 placed, set in, stand in', a position. Hence (2) (I think) of things 'standing in the way', and so either (a) close by, 'present', 'instant', 'instans' (tempus, bellum, \&c.), 'impending', 'threatening' ; (for instans, 'present', Quint. $v$ 10.42, praeteritum, instans, futurum). In grammar, iveoteis xpóvos, 'the present tense', dve $\sigma \boldsymbol{\omega} \sigma a \operatorname{\mu erox\eta }$ ', ' the present participle ', instans tempus (Facc. Lex. s.v.); or ( $\beta$ ) 'to stand in the way' as an obstacle, impediment, or 'objection'; as the logical ivorivat and ivoraots, of an objection, or contrary instance, to a supposed conclusion ; and hence also 'instance', something which stands in your way and so possibly attracts your attention, or as a generalisation of the logical 'instance' or objection. See Introd. p. 269, and note.
 what follows, the causes namely and consequences of virtue-' anything that is productive of, because it tends to or promotes (rpós), virtue, or
 an object of praise (kadóv). Such things are (the first) the 'signs', (the second) the works of virtue (and therefore praiseworthy)'. The oqueioy (Introd. p. 161-163) is the probable-or, in the case of the rexpipion, certain-indication of the existence of the thing which it accompanies; from the 'signs' of virtue in a man we infer, with more or less probability, its actual existence. Schrader quotes the little tract repl diperôy kal nartion, printed as an appendix to the three Ethical treatises in Bekker's 4to ed. Vol. II p. 1249. It is an abridgment or epitome of Aristotle's account of the virtues in the third and fourth books of the Ethics, with a slight admixture of Platonism and other occasional alterations. inat-




 stitution of a preposition with its case for the direct government of the




verb, has been noticed by Heindorf in the case of elf, on Plat. Lys. \& 16 , and in that of $\pi \in \rho i$ and $\dot{d} \mu \phi i$, on Phaedo $\S 65, \mathrm{p} .250 \mathrm{C}$ (in which place repl
 Bremi on Dem. Olynth. I p. 14 , 18 (ap. Schäfer Appar. Crit. ad Demosth. I 208); and a similar use of the Latin, \&c. by Heusing, ad Cic. de Off. I 15. 3. Comp. Epist. ad Div. II 17.1 ; III 12.2 (Schäfer). But what has not been observed of this usage is, that it is almost exclusively characteristic of a middle or later period of the Greek language, viz. the fourth century b.c.

The earliest instances I have noted of it are Soph. Oed. Col. 422,
 roúrocou ed oxíoct. In Plato it is not uncommon, Phaedo 231 D , foiv-
 example), Ib. 436 B, кaf ikaorov avirâv $\pi \rho$ fírropev, Phaedo 249 C (this use of kaf ${ }^{\prime}$ ixaoroy for the simple accusative is found in various writers ; see
 Gorg. 487 A . But in Demosthenes and Aristotle it becomes quite a usual mode of expression. In the de Fals. Ieg. alone it occurs in $\$ \$ 6,7$, $64,167,239$, and probably elsewhere in the same speech.

From Aristote, with whom it is still more familiar, I will content


 Ib. 21, init., in both of which it stands for the nominative, as it does also in Pol. vi (iv) 2, i289 a II, and III 3, init. Pol. I I ult. I 9, 1257 a 5, II 1 init.,

 -rapariov eivan, where it stands for the accusative. de Insomniis c. 2,

f 15. incil di rà onpeia к.r.r..] An exemplification of the preceding rule, and application of it to the special virtues. 'Seeing that the signs of virtue, and all such things as are works (results, effects), or affections' (properties, qualities, attributes-on $\pi \dot{d} \theta_{\eta}$ and its various senses see Introd. pp. 113-118; on the special sense here, p. 114) 'of it are kaגa'', the same rule will apply to each special manifestation of it, as dedpia. The $\pi \dot{d} \theta_{\eta}$ of virtue are illustrated in the examples by dropelios, duacios, dibixas : these are $\pi a^{\prime} \theta_{\eta}$, 'affections', of courage, justice, and injustice, in the sense of 'what happens to them', some change they have undergone, consisting in a modification of them in form and signification ; as duxalus 'justly', denotes a certain mode of action, viz. just acting. An exception occurs to the general application of the rule to the special virtues in the case of dxacoovim : in this alone, though it is true of the Ipya, it is not true of the $\pi \dot{d} \theta_{\eta}$ : in other words, in the rest of the virtues the wrícuct are







ovorotxa, the changes of termination represent true co-ordinates, all being terms referable to the same notion or class, viz. that of virtue, as dedpia, dyöpeios, ávobeios: all are equally kalá and praiseworthy (see note on c. 7. 27) ; but in the single case of justice this does not universally apply,
 worthy with a just act, ז̇̀ dıxaious $\pi$ ра́rтetv, but the contrary ; since it is more disgraceful than an unjust punishment. (This seems to be a mere fallacy of oucovola, ambiguity, equivoque, duaios not standing in the same relation to $\ \eta \mu \omega 0 \hat{\sigma} \theta a$, and $\pi \rho$ ártecv: in the one case the 'justice' of the act lies in the intention of the actor; in the other it belongs not to the actor, but to the law and the judge who inflicts the punishment. A similar equivocal meaning lies in the word $\pi \dot{d} \theta_{0 s}$ : in the rule and the general application of it, it stands for properties or attributes : in the special exception it denotes an 'affection' in the sense of suffering or punishment.)
 independent of all ulterior considerations and aims : therefore any act of
 prize, is кa入óv : the prize aimed at, or the end of the exertions and efforts, determines the character of those efforts or actions, which are therefore fair and noble like the end at which they aim. $\tau \iota \mu \dot{\eta}$ is an end of this kind.





 rımos, the sphere in which these two virtues are exercised. c. 7,1123618 ,



кai ठ̈ $\sigma a \mu \grave{\eta}$ aúroû ivera к.r.ג.] The general characteristic of all the following topics (to § 19) is disinterestedness; unselfish acts, of which the object is the good of some one else, and not one's own. Any act of this kind, where there is no ulterior end of profit or advantage to oneself, which is done therefore for its own sake, and 'because it is in itself desirable', conforms to the definition, § 3, and is ka入óv. So the highest and purest form of friendship or love is distinguished from the two lower forms, those whose end is profit and pleasure. Both of these are selfish; true




friendship is disinterested，ol Bou入ópenoc rdyäà rois $\phi$ ìдors dxaiven I vera $\mu$ äлстra фi入ne，Eth．N．VIII 4 init．；and the true friend is ${ }^{2}$ repos aúrós，IX 9 init．and Ib． 1170 b 6，or adNos autros，c．4， 1165 a 31，＇a second self＇（not one＇s own self）alter ego．And on the other hand，dтurımíat


 7 ，the distinction of the two classes of government，normal and abnormal， jpoai and парєквáбets（deviations from the true standard），is determined
 public interest of others，or the private interest of the governors them－ selves，one or several ；in other words，it is determined by the selfishness or disinterestedness of the governing powers of the state．

 enim ut patriam iuvet commoda sua negligit，is bonum simpliciter prae－ fert illi quod kuic bonum foret＇：that is，he prefers general to special or particular good，（his own）．But this does not account for the re，which if the words are retained in the received order is as superfluous as it is inex－ plicable．The sense would be improved and the particle accounted for by transferring the clause so as to follow rd rouvira（§ 17 ad fin．）The passage will then run thus：＇and all absolute（or general，see note on dmiós，c． 2 § 4）goods ：and all natural goods（things which are naturally good，in themselves，and so good for all）and（therefore，or kah，＇that is＇） things which are not（specially and particularly）good to oneself（au＇rị）， appropriated to particular individuals，because such things（things that are thus special and particular，and not common to others）carry with them the notion of selfishness or self－interest＇．Here the clause comes in as the first example－＇anything，namely，which a man does either（re） for his country，to the neglect of his own interest，or（nai）anything that a dead man may have the benefit of，rather than one who is living（such as posthumous fame，funeral orations，monuments to his memory）；be－ cause such honours paid（or advantages accruing）to a man while he is alive，involve or imply more self－interest＇，and are therefore less kalá．
rd̀ drenôs dya日á］＇Talia sunt quae absolute，citra respectum ad hunc hominem，locum，tempusve bona sunt．Unde rq̣ driĉs，illi quod simpli－ citer tale dicitur，opponuntur rè aủrq̂ Rhet．17．35，et III 13．4，rd rovirocs




 tionibus minime incongruentes materiae，genus，parentes，patria，pul－








 єitóvtos той 'A入каíou
critudo, ingenii acumen, solertia, docilitas, tenax memoria, ingenita anime magnitude, et que a natura proveniunt bona alia.' Schrader.
aúrị dyafá] 'good for him', that is, for this or that individual. See note on c. 7. 35, rod aùrò kail air $\lambda_{\omega \hat{s}}$, and Schrader (quoted above on rd

§ 19. rd ̀ evepyectinara] 'any benefits conferred', because they are necessarily conferred on others, and therefore, so far, more praiseworthy than acquisitions. These are distinguished from civppayiaı $\pi \in \rho i \not{ }^{a} \lambda \lambda$ aus (ante), which are ' any good and noble deeds done in the service of others, and not for oneself', for the same reason as the preceding. Eth. Nice. IV 15,

§ 20. rad $\boldsymbol{\gamma} \dot{\text { id }}$ aloxpá к.т. .]. 'for shameful things we are all ashamed of, when we say, do, or are intending to do them'. Sappho's verses, for instance, in answer to Alcaeus,- -'something I would say, but shame prevents me'-she infers from this that it was something to be ashamed of, cioxpóv, and replies, 'Hadst thou yearned after things good or fair, and had not thy tongue stirred up mischief to utter it, shame had not possessed thine eyes, but thou wouldst have spoken of the thing that is right'. The third line in particular of this Alcaic stanza requires correction, and there is not much help to be derived from the Aristotelian mss. In the first, Blomfield, Mus. Crit. I p. 17, reads iké r' iv $\boldsymbol{j}_{\mathrm{aiv}}$ : and Hermann (much better), El. Meir. Gr. III 16, de stroph. min. ix' $\sigma^{\circ}$ (' reached thee', the Homeric ike), from the reading ines of one ms. Bergs, Fragm. Syr. Gr. p. 607, follows MS $A^{c}$ in reading $\dot{\eta} x$ e and the Aeolic $\boldsymbol{i} \sigma \lambda \omega \hat{y}$. The third line, which in the msS appears as aide's кév $\sigma \in$ oik eider ${ }^{\prime} \mu \mu a r$ ', without varia lection, is written by Blomfield, u. s., aldo's nev oi $\boldsymbol{1}^{i} \boldsymbol{r}^{\prime}$ öт Tar' eixev: by Hermann, aibós xe revs oik cixev öтrar' : and by Bergk, aids's ne $\sigma^{\prime}$
 almost immediate juxtaposition is indefensible) : none of these seems to be satisfactory, but I have nothing better to suggest. [In Bergk's and




The fact that the eye is the principal organ of the manifestation of
 aid $\omega^{\prime} s$ ，








 24 ii סıкаьобúvn ка入óv．каi ті̀ тоѝs é $\chi$ Өроѝs тı $\mu \omega-$
some of the feelings or emotions，as love，shame，fear，is here，as often elsewhere，expressed poetically by the phrase that＇shame has its seat in
 where see note．
 are excessively anxious or distress ourselves，without fear＇：the acquisition of which causes us a violent mental struggle（dy凶up），distress，or anxiety， ＇agony＇in our exertions to attain，or in the fear of losing，it．The addi－ ton of $\mu \boldsymbol{\gamma} \phi$ фовoverevos is made here，because fear is the usual concomitant of the emotion，and generally included in the notion．Probl．II 31， $\bar{\eta}$ att
 of verbs which imply a diseased state or condition of the mind or body； see note on आทevaruă，I 2．18．

The anxious feeling is usually excited about the kind of good things that＇tend to our reputation＇；and this is why they are praiseworthy．
§ 22．＇The virtues（excellences）and functions of men and things naturally worthier，are nobler and more praiseworthy，as in man than in woman＇．
§ 23．al dँo入avoruкai（àpera）］＇those which contribute to the gratify－ cation or enjoyment of others rather than of ourselves，of which justice is an instance＇．dimodavors is not here confined to sensual gratification，its proper meaning．In Eth．N．1．3，Sardanapalus，the type of sensuality，is taken as the representative of the Bios da àdavorukós：note on I5．7．Here again it is the unselfishness that is laudable．
 ance on，punishment of，one＇s enemies＇（ $\mu \hat{a} \lambda \lambda o{ }^{\prime}$ may be either to punish them in a higher degree，the more the better ；or as contrasted with kara－ $\lambda_{\text {áreectau，＇rather than the reverse＇），and＇refusing to be reconciled，come }}$ to terms，with them＇．The reason being，that＇retaliatory＇or＇reciprocal justice＇（note on $\$ 7$ ）requires this，and therefore it is right，and of course laudable ；and also because＇not to be beaten＇（an unyielding resolution）







is a sign of a＇manly character＇．Comp．I 6.26 （àyäà）rd rois ix $\chi$ lois kaxá，and § 29．This was a constant article of the popular morality，and is cited as such here ：see，for instance，Yen．Mem．IV 2， 14 seq．Rhet．ad Alex．I（2），13，14．Again in Aristotle＇s Rhet．II 5．5，Eur．Ion 1045－7， Med．808，Cis．de Off．I 7.2.
§ 25 ．＇Victory and honour are noble and praiseworthy things ；for they are desirable though unproductive（see c．5．7，note infra § 26），and manifest（are signs of）an excess，superiority，higher degree，of virtue＇， i．e．a higher degree than the virtues which they crown would attain with－ out them ：a man may be good without them；with them he must be

 ivrıuórepoy．Comp．infra § 39.
$\mu \nu \eta \mu o v e v t a ́]$＇things to be，capable of being，or that deserve to be， remembered＇；as ci $\mu \nu \eta \mu o ́ v e u t a(i n f r a)$ is＇easy to be remembered＇．$\mu \nu \eta \mu \circ-$ veínara，which Victorius adopts upon the superior authority of MSS，is mo－ numenta，memorials，elogia，et quale memoriam alicuius ornant．He does not seem to have observed，what Bekker，who prefers the former，doubt－ less did，though he does not say so，that $\mu \bar{a} \lambda \lambda \frac{0}{}$ can be construed with the adjective $\mu$ mpovevrá，but hardly，or not so well，with the substantive $\mu \nu \eta \mu о \nu \subset$ и́mata．
 the grave＇，as posthumous fame．
otis rum id áкo入ouもei］Honour itself，especially as contrasted with profit （supra § 16），imparts a praiseworthy character as the prize of action，and is itself кa入óv and a thing to be praised（ $(\mathbf{2 5}$, supra）．It must therefore convey this in some measure to everything，particularly actions，by which it is attended upon or accompanied．
rà repırrá］（see note on 6．28）are кa入á as well as d̀yäá．They are thus illustrated by Schrader．＇Que alias sui generis praestant．Gellius I xIII P．Crassus Mucianus traditur quinque habuisse rerum bonarum maxima et praecipua，quod asset ditissimus，quod nobilissimus，quod eloquentissimus，quod iuris consultissimus，quod Pontifex Maximus． Velleius（de Pompeio），II 53，Vir in id evectus super quod ascendi non potest．＇
 the two lies in this，that the topic of 6.28 denotes positive good，as excel－ lences，accomplishments，personal or intellectual advantages，which are peculiar to 2 man ，and shared by no one else；here they rather refer to



peculiar actions, or qualities that can be manifested in action, which are more easily remembered, and therefore more the objects of praise, and in

' In bibliotheca, quae prima in urbe ab Asinio Pollione publicata est, unius M. Varronis viventis posita imago est, Plin. vil 30 . L. Metello tribuit populus Romanus guod nunquam ulli alii ab condito aevo ut quoties in senatum iret curru veheretur ad curiam. Plin. VII 43.' Schrader. I have quoted these instances because from Schrader's point of view they very well illustrate the topic. But I believe they are not exactly what Aristotle had in his mind when he wrote the words. These are not exactly subjects of 'praise', which the topics of this chapter deal with, exclusively or more immediately. rà $\pi$ eperré and rd móng vimápxovra are to be taken together, the latter being a step higher in degree than the former. rd reperrá are distinguished and exceptional (as Schrader puts it) excellences, qualities, achievéments. rà $\mu$ ónq úmápxovra are a step beyond, 'unique'.
 garden on this principle is a finer thing and more deserving of approbation than a market-garden from which you make a profit. The reason here given for this preference is different to that assigned in Eth. N. IV 9 (quoted in the note referred to). There it is accounted for by the selfsufficiency or independence (airápseca) that it implies; here by its being more in accordance with the gentleman's character, in contrast with the vulgarity of trade and money-making.
rd̀ $\pi a{ }^{\prime}$ ixdoross toca] These are special pursuits, modes of action, manners, and customs cultivated in particular countries, 'national' and 'peculiar to them'. In England, for instance, special skill in cricket and other athletic exercises gains a man applause; in Greece, running, boxing, wrestling, chariot-racing, are the great games. In Europe a man is applauded for his skill in dancing, which the Chinese utterly contemn, and regard as a useless waste of labour. Quint. Inst. Or. III 7.24, Minus Lacedoemone stwdia literarum quam Athenis honoris merebuntur; plus poutientia, fortitmalo.
 marks, of habits (characters, actions), that are approved in particular countries, as the habit of wearing long hair in Lacedaemon. This is a 'sign' of a gentleman, a character very much approved in that country. It is a sign of this, because with long hair it is difficult to perform any menial taskd, and therefore the wearing it shews that menial occupations are alien from that character. Gaisford quotes, Xenoph. de Rep. Lac. XI 3,



 Pol. III 5, 1278 a 20.





Oqrakór] O.jres, Opreviely, denote hired service in agricullure, but not slaviry; the $\theta_{\eta}^{\prime \prime}$ is no douxas. In this sense both words are used by Homer. The $\theta$ Øires formed the fourth and lowest class under the Solonian
 stmraenotes the class of paid agricultural labourers, as an order of the state or population; and is expressly distinguished from the $\beta$ ávavgo or revirat, artisans and petty manufacturers, who are still hired tabourers, but work at mechanical employments, añ in towns, forming with the others the lowest order of the population of the state. In Pol. III 5, Bivavoos and $\theta \dot{\eta}$ s are several times thus distinguished. It is there said that in some constitutions (such as monarchies and aristocracies) neither of these classes is admitted into the governing body ; in oligarchies the $\boldsymbol{\theta}_{\text {gis }}$ cannot, the $\beta$ ávavgos can, be a citizen. In the account given, vi (iv) $4,1291614 \mathrm{seq}$., of the various kinds of population which form the bases of so many different varicties of democracy, we have in line 25 the term xepunruxiv, of precisely the same import, substituted for $\theta_{\eta}$ rioóv : the other had been already mentioned. In Pol. VII (VI) 4, 1319 a 27, three classes of these lower orders are distinguished, rò $\pi \lambda \bar{\eta} \theta$ os ró re rêv $\beta$ avaúvor (artisans) кai rò rà̀ àopaiov $\dot{\alpha} \nu \theta_{\rho \omega i ́ r \omega \nu}$ (small tradesmen or retailers,



 again Eth. Nic. IV 8, 11251.



 (add VI 5).

Bávavoov] Of the various kinds of population of a state, enumerated


 $\phi \dot{\eta} \nu \dot{\eta} \kappa a \lambda \omega \bar{s} \oint \bar{\eta} v, 1291 a \mathrm{I}$. So that here the fine arts, as well as the necessary, indispensable, or mechanical arts, are all included in the class $\beta$ ávavoo See on this subject Thirlwall, Hist. Gr. (Cab. Cycl. 2nd. ed.) c. 18, Vol. III p. 64, note. Pol.v (VIII) 2, 133768 seq., $\beta$ ávavgov $\delta^{\circ}$ ippoy civau סeî roùro
 ràs тîs àperîs äxp





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 cenary). The idpaias in this last passage explains the bodily degradation and injury of the preceding. Comp. Plato, Rep. vil 522 B, IX 590 B, Phileb. 55 C, Theaet. 176 (Heind. note § 85), (Legg. vill 4, 846 D No native must learn or practise any handicraft. One art is enough for any man; and the natives or citizens must occupy themselves exclusively in statecraft or public duties). Arts are inferior in dignity in proportion to their necessity or utility, Arist. Metaph. A I. Cic. de Off. I 42.5.
 upon, at the beck and call of, another'. Independence, aúrápreca, is a characteristic of the inei $\theta_{\text {epos, }}$ the 'free and independent' citizen. Aristotle is writing at Athens, and for Athenians. So it is said of the $\mu$ era-




 in illustration of $\pi \rho o ̀ s$ ä $\lambda \lambda$ ov $\varsigma \bar{\eta} \nu$, Dem. (pro Ctesiphonte, as he calls it) de
 The import of the phrase is, to look to another in all that you say and do, to direct your life and conduct by the will and pleasure of another; in the relation ( $\pi \rho^{\circ}{ }^{\prime}$ ) of servant or dependent to master.

It is to be observed that the reason here assigned for avoiding all mechanical occupations as disreputable, viz that it destroys a man's independence, so that he cannot subsist without looking to others, places the objection to it upon a different ground to that assigned in the Politics (quoted in the last note), where it is that they disqualify a man for doing his duty to the state.
§ 28. $\lambda_{\eta \pi r i ́ o \nu} 8 \dot{\varepsilon}$ к.r. $\lambda_{\text {] ' ' and we may assume (or represent, substitute one }}$ for the other, on occasion) things (qualities, and the terms expressing them) that are very nearly related to the identical, both in commendation and censure, as that the cautious is cold and designing, the simple (simpleton) worthy and amiable, and the insensible mild and calm'. This lays down the general rule, of which the next topic is a special variety, ímoropıo $\mu$ ós.

Quint. Inst. Orat. III 7. 2.5. Idem praecipit (Aristotle in this place) illud quoque, quia sit quaedam virtutious ac vitiis vicinitas, utendum proxima derivatione verborum ut pro temerario fortem, pro prodigo liberalem, pro avaro parcum vocemus: quae eadem etiam contra valent. Quod quidem orator, id est vir bonus, nunquam faciet, nisi forte communi utilitate ducatur. To the same effect, Cic. Orat. Part XXIII 8I (Schrader). [Liv. XXII 12, (Fabium) pro cunctatore segnem, pro cauto timidum, affingens vicina virtutibus vitia, compellabat. s.]
xp $\eta$ orós for $\mathfrak{\eta} \lambda i \theta_{1}$ os is one of those ironical euphemisms which Plato
 belonging also to the common language. y $\lambda u \kappa u{ }^{\prime}$, Hipp. Maj. 288 B ; yovis, in several places, Theaet. 209 E, Gorg. 491 8, Rep. 1337 D, VII 527 D, and elsewhere; Lat. suavis, lepidus. xpךбтós, Phaedr. 264 B, Theaet. 161 A,
 on Isocr. Paneg. § 169 , and Rep. 400 E, quoted infra, p. 175. S.]






§ 29. кal \%каनтоv к.r.ג.] " and in every case from the accompanying, attendant, qualities (the qualities that come next, but always on the higher and better side; on axodoveciv and its various senses, see note on c.6.3) derive ( $i k$ ) a term or expression always in the best direction (with the most favourable tendency, interpretatio in melius, putting the most favourable construction on the actual facts of the case) ; call, for instance, the irascible and insane, 'simple and straightforward', and self-will (headstrong, stubborn, obstinate temper; ajdádrs, one who pleases himself, aid-ádns, 'self-pleaser', and will have his own way), 'magnificence', or proper pride, and a due sense of dignity ( $\sigma \in \mu \nu \dot{\nu} \nu)^{n \prime 1}$.

On dopinos Victorius compares Hor. Sat. 1 3.51, at est truculentior atque plus aequo liber: simplex fortisque habeatur, with Cic. de Legg. 17 , solent enim, id quod virorum bonorum est, admodum irasci, and therefore an angry temper may be attributed to a virtuous disposition.

رavicós represents an excitable, violent, furious temper, which sometimes almost assumes the appearance of raving madness. In Plato it is applied to Chaerephon, Socrates' intimate (in the Charmides, init.), and to Apollodorus, Symp. 173 D, where it expresses a very impetuous, excitable temperament, inclined to extravagant and violent manifestations in feeling and utterance; which is illustrated by the conduct ascribed to him at Socrates' death, Phaedo 117 D.

On aंmגoûs, as expressive of character, see note I 2.4
àdádons. In Eth. Eud il 3, 1221 a 8, III 7, 1233 b 34 , oeunórns, proper pride, the due measure of personal dignity in one's bearing and behaviour to others, $\pi$ गòs irspov $\zeta \bar{\eta} v$, is a mean between the two extremes, ipeckeia the defect (over-complacency and obsequiousness), and aveaterat the excess (undue contemptuousness кaraфpóngos, and disregard of their teenings and wishes). In the Magn. Mor. I 29, it is likewise the excess of oreuórons, as apeckeia is the defect. It is exercised repì ràs ivrevigets, in the ordinary
${ }^{1}$ It seems to me nearly certain that mexa ${ }^{2}$ orpesinis a mictake, either of the author himself or one of his transcribers, for $\mu$ eyanó $\psi v x$ ow. The two have already been distinguished in this very chapter, $\$ 11$, 12, and $\mu$ erajorpfitrea, when it is distinguished from the other as by Aristotle, and not made to include it as by Plato (see the note on $\% \mathrm{yz}$ ), is altogether unsuitable to express the character of the aviodsins, being confined as it is to liberality in bestowing money on a large scale: whereas the virtue of meyanoluxila is precisely what ajed8eca might be represented to be by the figure üroxopur $\mu$ bs, by bestowing on it a 'flattering' designation. I refer for the proof of this to the Nic. Eth. IV 7.8 : it will be found that ceundros, another false interpretation which is here put upon aidisema, is also characteristic of the $\mu$ era入olyvoos. Plato points out the true imoxopur $\mu$ ds
入orp/тісау.



intercourse of society, and manifests itself in the character oios $\mu \eta \theta e n i$ ivruxciv $\mu \eta \delta i$ draderịva, in a wilful and stubborn reserve which repels all social converse. The character is represented in the name itself; which is aviro-aions, 'self-pleasing'. So that when we give the name of $\mu$ cya入ó $\psi \sim x{ }^{\prime}$ and $\sigma e \mu \nu{ }^{\circ}{ }^{\prime}$ s to one who is really audaions, we are substituting a virtue for 2 vice, a mean state for an excess. avaibeca is one of Theophrastus' 'Characters' defined by him as inпiveca oj $\mu \mathrm{\lambda}$ ias, 'social brutality'.

The special form of this misapplication of names in praise and censure is called $\dot{\text { u }}$ оoкopı $\sigma \mu$ ós, when it takes the favourable side, and interpretatur in metins. On this hgure, the name of which is derived from the endearing terms used by nurses to children ( $\pi$ pòs кópqy if кópoy $\lambda$ íyesy drooruкройvra, Tim. Lex., lisping in imitation of them), compare Aesch. c.
 repl dipdias: íтокорi̧cotat поптú̧ov (Ast ad loc.), or by lovers, Plat. Rep.
 virekopisero (whence it stands for a 'diminutive', Rhet. III 2.15); hence it is transferred to flattering or endearing expressions in general, and especially such as, in describing the moral character of anything, substitute some nearly associated virtue for a vice; to palliate, extenuate, gloss over. Examples occur in Plat. Rep. vill 560 e (already referred to), 111400 E,


 Am. II 657, nominibus mollire licet mala, followed by a long string of examples. Lucr. IV 1154 seq. Horat. Sat. I 3. 44-54. Thucydides, III 82, in a well-known passage, mentions this perversion of moral terms amongst the signs of demoralization prevalent in Greece at the period of the Corcyrean sedition, кal rì̀ cilotvîav ákıioncy rôy óvopárosy is rà Kpya
 Techn. Gr. s. v. ; Shilleto, ad Dem. de F. L.§ 293; Stallbaum, Plat. Rep. vi l. c.-Quintilian calls it derivatio verborum in the passage above quoted; and V 13.25, describes it, si acri et vehementi fuerit usus oratione, eandem rem nostris verbis mitioribus proferre; which he then illustrates from Cicero's speeches. The opposite practice is described 1112.4 , est praeterea quaedam virtutum vitiorumque vicinia, qua maledicus pro libero, temerarius pro forti, effusus pro copioso accipitur. [Farrar's Chapters on Language, p. 28I sqq. s.]
cal roùs iv rais virep乃oגais к.r.ג.] The only difference between this and the preceding form of $\dot{y} \pi{ }^{\prime}$ okopıonós is, that this is a special variety of the other, which substitutes the mean for the excess, but still according to the favourable interpretation of it. Opaovirns is the uirepßodin of andpein, Eth. N. $117,110763,8,1108 b 20$, $1109 \overline{a 3}$, and ácotia, prodigality, the spendthrift's habit, c. 7, 1107 b 10, c. 8, 1108 b 24

тapaloyıбтıкі̀ dк rif alrias] 'liable to lead to a false inference', Rhet. II 24 4, 'sulenitfattuciu manans ex causa', Portus. 'The mis-reasoning




（кара入оуот（кovy），or false reasoning，proceeding from the cause＇，is the iden－ tification of two different causes which must necessarily produce dissimilar effects or actions ；these latter are confounded by the fallacy，and ascribed to the same cause．The cause of an action is the $\pi \rho o a i p e \sigma c s$, the voluntary and deliberate purpost of it，ortierwise represented as the＇motive＇（the effictint earse）．Now this cause or motive is different in the case of an act of wanton rasbness，where there is no necessity（obligation）to incur the danger（os $\mu i$ d dud $\gamma \kappa \eta$ кıvervevruxós），and of an act of virtue，true courage， which has a noble end，rd кa入óy，in view ：they are prompted by different motives，one belonging to the class＇bad＇，the other that of the＇good＇． This identification of the causes of the two actions leads to the＇false infer－ ence＇，that as the same cause produces the same effect，and the cause of both actions is the same，the effects are likewise the same，and both of them are acts of virtue．And then the further inference is drawn，that whatever a man will do from a less powerful motive，he will do a fortioni from one which is higher and more prevailing ：the higher the motive or cause，the more powerful the impulse or effect．Similarly it is inferred that if a man is lavish to everybody，this must include his friends；by the rule，omne maius continet in se minus．
 Bodí and virepoxit are frequently employed to express an excess above a given standard，average，or mean；the general conception of＇excess＇， of mere＇superiority＇；without the additional notion of a＇vicious＇excess， a depravation or deviation from a true standard，which usually accom－ panies the word，and more especially in Aristotle＇s theory of virtue，where it stands for a class of moral vices．＇Non significat hic nimium sed prae－ stantia．＇Victorius．With the notion here expressed，comp．Eth．N．II 2，
 ydp rd e $\delta \beta$ entcov iv roúry．The average standard of excellence is surpassed， ＇good becomes better＇，in proportion to the degree of difficulty surmounted
 virepßonip，lines 8 and 14，kard rìv virepoxiv，c．4， 1326 a 21，Ib．b 12，ris
 mean）rì rovi $\pi \lambda \dot{\eta}$ Oous $\dot{v} \pi e \rho o x \dot{\eta} v$ ．This sense of the word is also common
 and the same phrase de F．L．p．447．25．c．Mid． 5 19．24，Iort di vixepßo入t
 ißpres，\＆c．，in all which virepßodí denotes not the vice，but merely the ＇measure＇of it．
 illustration of the topic，from Plato＇s Menexenus，is there repeated，with the addition of in $\boldsymbol{\tau} \varphi$ irtraфiq，＇in the funeral oration＇，meaning the Platonic dialogue．Socrates，Plato＇s principal character，or hero，or






spokesman, is here taken more Aristotelio as a substitute for Plato him. self, whose opinions and sentiments he is supposed exactly to represent ${ }^{1}$. The passage of the Menex. 235 D runs thus, el $\mu \mathrm{iv}$ yap déoc 'A ${ }^{2}$ pualovs iv




On this passage, Quintilian, Inst. Or. ul 7. 23, Interesse tames Ardstoteles putat ubi quidque laudetur cut vituperetur. Nam plurimum refer qui stint andientium .mores, quale publice recopta persuasio: ut ill maxime quale probant esse in en gui laudabitur credant, ant in co contra quem dicemus ea quale oderunt. It non dubium crit iudicium quod orationem praecesserit.
 prejudices and preferences. We should attribute to the object of our encomium the possession of any gift, quality, accomplishment which happens to be esteemed by the particular audience that we are address. ing; as in a company of Scythians it would be advisable to address ourselves to their national habits and modes of thinking, and to praise out hero for his skill in hunting or strength or bravery; at Sparta for patience and fortitude (Quint. u. s.); at Athens for literary accomplishments.
'And in a word, (or, as a general rule), to refer (in praising any one before an audience of this kind) what they highly value to the radon, since they appear to border closely upon one another'. 'To refer rimed to rid kadóv', is to invest them with a moral character, rd ka入óv being the moral end, the right, the end of action. This is as much as to say that these things, which are so precious in their eyes, are not only valuable, but right in themselves, and therefore they do well to hold them in high esteem.
 to a man in virtue of his birth or antecedents', qualities, actions, achievements; 'such things as were to be expected from him'.

[^10]



 тиорікои




 quas sibi quispiam labore suo comparaverit．＇Victorius．＇his own pre－ vious acquisitions or possessions＇；such as a stock of previous good，noble， great deeds，with which his new achievement，now the object of the encomium，is in accordance；as it ought to be．It is praiseworthy because it is the addition of a new honour，which，since honour itself is кa入óv，must also have a tendency to happiness（ridaunvicóv）and be right itself，and all that is right is praiseworthy．

But not only conformity with a man＇s antecedents may be adduced in praise of an action，but also the opposite，＇if he surpass them，namely， and improve upon＇his own early condition and actions，or those of his ancestors，not acting in accordance with the past and what he was born to，but contrary to it，i．e．beyond it．

кara入入axтuкórepos］This does not necessarily contradict the topic of § 24 ；the irreconcilable temper there is only to be fostered against enemies，here it probably refers exclusively to friends：or if not，in Rhetoric either side may be taken as a subject of commendation，each suitable to a different kind or disposition of audience．
 1 7．32，q．v．
rò roî Xymoviouv］The epigram is given at length by Thucydides VI 59． Bergk，Fragm．Lyr．Gr．Simon．Fr． 115, p．781［p．906，2nd èd．］＇Aupods dpuo－

 draotaliny．
 is only（moral）actions that can furnish topics of \％rauvos，in its proper application．Praise and blame，moral approbation and disapprobation （Butler），are the tests of virtue and vice．is $\mu \mathrm{iv}$ yàp isauvor rips dperijs， Eth．N． 1 12， 1101632.

See on this subject，and upon what follows，the distinction of \％rausos，
 p． 212 seq．



town rov̂ orovdaiou rd karà проaipecur] On жpoaipeous, see note, c. 6. 26. The пpoaipeots, the deliberate moral purpose, is the distinctive characteristic of moral action. 'Acting in accordance' with this is consequently said to be 'peculiar to', the proprium, characteristic of 'the man of worth', or good man. In 'praising' any one, therefore, praise being, strictly speaking, confined to moral action, 'we must endeavour to shew that his actions are directed by a deliberate moral purpose'.

фaiverAar] 'that he should be shewn to have'... 'that it should be made clear that he has'... Note on I 7.31, p. 141.
 object of your praise it is desirable to shew that his virtuous acts have been often repeated; and therefore, for the same purpose, to make an apparent addition to this number, we should assume as acts done with a moral purpose, wis dy moourérect, any 'accidental coincidences' and 'pieces of luck' (which may have happened to him); 'for if a number of them can be brought forward 'resembling' the virtue or excellence that you wish to praise in him, they will be taken for 'a sign' of it and of the moral purpose or intention' (which constitutes virtue). The mere repetition of the actions, rò жо入入ákes фaivertar жетрaxóra, is serviceable in producing this impression, because it seems to shew an inclination or fondness for them, and thence a certain direction of the apoaipects or choice, and a certain $\boldsymbol{f}$ cs or moral state, which are indications of a
 of one thing or act with another, between which there is no necessary connexion, and, like ot drò ríXpr, purely accidental. 'roímrrapa est, cum quopiam aliquid agente, et quod nihil ad rem quae intervenit faciat, extrinsecus quippiam excitatum contingit; e.g. deambulante illo solem deficere: drod rúxps vero, cum quopiam aliquid agente alicuius rei gratia, aliquid ex eo actu praeter propositum evenerit; ut scrobem facientem, ut arborem serat, thesaurum defossum invenire.' Victorius. On rixp as an agent or supposed cause, see Introd. p. 218-224, Append. C to Bk. I. Both of Victorius's instances came from Aristotle [de div. per somn. infra, and Met. $\Delta$ 30, 1025 a 16. s.]

On бứнлтшна (rare in ordinary Greek) Phrynichus, xpì oủy $\sigma v v r u x i a v$

 other example of it, referred to by Lobeck, note ad loc. p. 248, in any writer earlier than Aristotle, is Thuc. Iv 36, where it stands, like ou $\boldsymbol{\mu} \phi \mathrm{opa}$, for an 'unfortunate accident'. In Dem. it is equivalent to rd ovmßáv, which occurs in the same sentence. It occurs also in the Platonic Axiochus, 364 C , in the sense of 'a disease' (morbus, Ast), apparently as a special kind of 'calamity'. In Aristotle I have noted the following instances : Pol. vill (v) 4, 1304 a I (where it means 'an accident', as in Dem. and Phryn.) [ib. 6, 130666 ; 11 12, 1274 a 12]; Top. $\triangle$ 5, 126 36, 39,






 yiverau ovg cis dxi rò mólv (it is a mere occasional, unaccountable accident), de respir. 5, 472626 ; de Gen. Anim. Iv 4 § 10, 77066 [and 77768 ];
 626 a 29. Categ. 8 , 9 b 15 ; p. $199 a 1$; p. 1093 b 17. The medical sense of the word 'symptom' seems to be derived immediately from the Aristotelian 'accidental coincidence'. It is an attendant sign of the disease, though a mere external indication, and not of the essence of it; like a $\sigma u \mu \beta \subset \beta \eta \kappa o ́ s$ or 'accident '.






rd $8 \dot{\sin } \kappa \lambda \varphi$ eis $\pi$ ioru] 'The encomium or panegyric is directed to deeds
 Irausos being of the actions themselves)' and the surrounding circumstances (such as noble birth ${ }^{1}$ and cultivation) serve for confirmation'. These 'surrounding circumstances' are a sort of setting of the gem, a frame for the picture, of which the real subject is the 'deeds' of the hero of the panegyric; what he has done himself;-nam genus et proavos et quae non fecimus ipsi, vix ea nostra voco. The 'confirmation' consists in this,'for'it is natural and probable that the offspring of the good should be good, and that one reared in such and such a way should turn out of such and such a character (fortes creantur fortibus et bonis: is dipois in
 roû rarpos, Eur. Alcm. Fragm. VII Dind.). But still the real object of our praise is the $\boldsymbol{i} \xi s$, the confirmed habit of virtue, the character and not the mere act ; 'because we should praise a man even if he had not done the (praiseworthy) act, if we supposed that his character was such as to incline him to do it'.
rd Kúrie occurs in the same sense, of 'surrounding' (or accompanying)

 are ro $\lambda$ unypory cal wovon' the pains and dangers by witctr courage is sur-
${ }^{1}$ The topic of genealogy is put first of all and treated at length by the anthor of the Rhet. ad Alex., c. 35 (36). 4, seq. in his chapter on the encomiastic and vituperative kind of Rhetoric. This stands in marked contrast to the secondary and subordinate place here assigned to it by Aristotle, who seems rather to have agreed with Orid l.c. as to its comparative value.










rounded, while it looks through them to the pleasant end'; again, Rhet.

 the two terms are somethes identified, (as in Eth. N. I 12, i191 $b$ 24, rov's

 represent 'blessecuress, bliss', a higher degree of happiness than evidalpeoy and eudaunovia, which is the human form of happiness, while parapla is the divine. mákapes is specially applied to $\theta$ col by Homer and Hesiod; as
 death.-aúrois is for $d \lambda \lambda_{r} \lambda_{\text {doss }}$.
roúrots 8 ' ov ravirá] 'but not the same with the other two', viz. ©irauves and dyкeipcov: these are included in cidaunovionos as virtue is in happiness.
§ 35. "Xec 8 e коtyò e eidos к.т. $\lambda$.] 'There is a community of kind" (the two may be referred to one species, one of the three kinds (cion) of Rhetoric, c. 3. 1, either the $\sigma v \mu \beta$ ou入cutcióy or the drideckriкóy, as the occasion requires) 'between praise and counsel or advice; for anything that you would suggest in advising may, by a mere change in the language, be converted into panegyric'. Quintilian has borrowed this, Inst. Or. III 7.28, totum autem habet (laudativum genus) aliguid simile suasoriis; quia plerumque eadem illic suaderi hic lawdari solent.
§ 36. 'And so, when we know what we ought to do in any given case, or to be in respect of character, we myst then use the acquired knowledge (of the right course of action, and the right character) as suggestions, by changing and converting the language' (twisting so as to adapt it to our purpose ; lit. turning them by the language). The example, and probably the topic itself, is taken from Isocrates, who in Panath. § 32 employs it as a suggestion or piece of advice, and in Evag. § 45 converts it into a topic of laudation- Now when thus expressed, it amounts to (has the value of, may serve for,) a suggestion, but when thus, it becomes laudation, "Proud, not of the accidents of fortune, but of the distinctions due to himself alone"'.-The example in the laudatory form from the










 aítòv yoprouévocs. Aristotle was probably quoting from memory, as seems to have been his common practice.

With the passages of Isocrates comp. Ovid. Met. XIII 140, Nam gensus et proavos et quae non fecimus ipsi, vix ea nostra voco.
divaral Rhet. llan divactau is often used in the sense of 'having the Value of, amounting to, equivalent to', and is construed with the


 סúvarac Ovarois (where Elmsley and Pflugk understand кapóy as used adverbially); also of the power, force, import, 'meaning', of a word, Ar. Met. I


 Plat. s. vv. divapal, dívajes. The power or force which is contained in the primary sense of $\delta \dot{v} v a \sigma \theta a t$ is expressed in the secondary sense in which it appears in the above passages as a particular kind of force, the value of anything, and hence the amount, (of which equality or equivalence is a species), or the import, or meaning (which again is a kind of equivalence) of it. And the accusative is nothing but a cognate accusative. That power or force is the original notion from which the secondary meanings are derived, is proved, if proof were needed, by the parallel use of i $\sigma x{ }^{\text {viect }}$ to express precisely the same notion; Eth. Nic. II 3, 110562 , rò $\mu$ èv eldeivas
 dúvagtai rt for rud divapur, this construction is merely extended to the new kind of power which constitutes the secondary sense of the verb.
837. $\dot{\eta}$ dt $\lambda$ ésts к.r. $\lambda$.] 'The expression must be contradictory' (the opposition of duriфaбts, raráфaनts and ànóфaбts, positive and negative, Categ. c. 10, p. II $b$ 19, the fourth kind of 'opposites' rà deruceipera), i.e. it must be positive in one, and negative in the other, 'when the prohibitive and the non-prohibitive are interchanged'. This is the case in the two examples; the one forbids pride, the other recommends or praises it-in a sense, provided it be directed to proper objects: by 'not forbidding' it contradicts the other.
§ 38. rầ avifyruxiv] quae valent ad amplificandum. These are the





${ }^{1}+8$ infra, cum libris. 'Recte Wolfous apud Vaterum p. 2098 deld.' Spengel.
various modes of $\propto \tilde{\imath} \xi \eta \sigma t s$, which with the opposite, $\mu$ elwots, constitutes the fourth of the кotvol тómo.. See Introd. p. 129, and (on II 26) p. 276.

Some of the special topics which follow as instances of avi been already mentioned in § 25, and appear again as giving a special importance or prominence to crimes in c. 14.4, with the omission of the last. They, and others of the like kind, are included in the Rhet. ad Alex. 35 (36), 12, 13, under the general head of 'Comparison' with others for the purpose of laudation, to which they are all reducible. Comp. Cic.
 moipkev, el meroíncer must be supplied for the sense after kal.
 give a praiseworthy character to particular actions at special times and seasons. This topic, equally applicable to comparative goods, has already occurred, c.7. 32 : and with парd rd $\pi \rho \circ \sigma{ }^{\prime} \kappa \circ$, comp. c. 9. 31. If, for instance, a man performs an act of liberality, at a time of great pecuniary pressure, or in a case of emergency, or at a crisis of especial difficulty, he is then doing something rapin rò. spoofikov, beyond what could naturally be expected from him, or any one else, and is entitled to especial credit for it. Similarly Victorius.

кal el $\pi$ o $\lambda \lambda$ áxis rò aúrò carápowner] This topic is not to be confounded
 act', this denotes the 'repeated success' in any attempt, the constant success is an indication-not infallible, or certain as a proof-of special skill: as if a man were to throw sixes several times running, even if it were by mere accident, the inference would be that he had a special knack or skill in throwing dice. "The constancy of the success gives it importance, and it will seem not accidental but due to the agent himself.
kal cl rà тротрénovra к.т...] 'And any one' (on whose account, in consequence of his actions and distinctions) 'to commemorate whom incentives, stimulants, to virtue ('encouragements' to do the like), or marks of respect for it, have been invented or were ever 'instituted', must be a praiseworthy character'. This is the general case of the invention or establishment of any public mark of honour in commemoration of the great deeds or distinctions of any signal public benefactor, and as an incentive or encouragement to others to follow his example.

The next clause, els $\mathbf{\delta y} \boldsymbol{y} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\omega} \boldsymbol{r o v}$, is a particular example of the former of the two preceding cases, the 'invention', the first appropriation, of something in a person's honour. Victorius thinks that kareokeviod $\eta$ is especially applied to the permenent establishment of an enduring monument, as a temple.

This topic again is afterwards applied to crimes, in c. 144

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cippran...кareoneváodn] We may note here the juxtaposition of the perf. and aorn apparently with no distinction of time intended. I have elsewhere noticed (Pref. to Transl. of Gorgias, pp. xv, xvi.) the difference of idiom between the Greek and English languages which obliges us sometimes to translate the Greek aorist by the English perfect. Other examples of the same inadvertence, confusion of tenses, or whatever else it is to be called, occur, 13.8 , where $\pi \rho a x$ Өipan in the same sense and in the same opposition is repeated in the form $\pi$ rempax $\theta a u$, Top. IX sub fin.
 in Sophocles, which in a writer so subtle in the distinctions of language might lead one to think that he at any rate distinguishes them with a meaning. I leave the reader to judge. Philoct. 664, 666, (Herm. 676),





els $8 y$ трӥron...] The novelty of the distinction, invented expressly for the occasion, marks a still higher sense entertained of the value of the service or the virtue of the act which it is.intended to commemorate.
dyasimon drountyd moteiv is here loosely used, by the so-called figureseugma (on c. 4. 6, note I), in connexion with dyкd ${ }^{\text {reoy }}$ and the statue of Harmodius and Aristogeiton in two different senses-as to Hippolochus, until we know who he was, and in what way commemorated, the application must remain uncertain-of writing the panegyric, and 'setting up the statue in the market-place'.

Of Hippolochus nothing is known. It seems that Aristotle intended the dyкúpioy to refer to him. We should. therefore insert a semicolon, or at least a comma after 'Lrnódoxoy, in order to connect the panegyric and the statue with those that they severally concern: els is to be repeated after kal. 'And one (is especially praiseworthy) in whose honour a panegyric was first composed, as it was for Hippolochus; (and as the setting up of their statue in the market was 'done' first, drori$\theta_{\eta}$, i.e.), and as the privilege of having their statue erected in the market was granted for the first time to Harmodius and Aristogeiton'. Thucydides in his episodical account of the assassination and the circumstances that led to it, Vi 54-59, makes no mention of the statue ;, nor Aristotle Pol. vini (v) 10, where the attack on Hipparchus is spoken of. Pausanias, 18.5 , says,
 8i jirts dyivero к.т.入. He is describing the dyopa, though he does not expressly name it. (See Smith's.Dict. of Geogr. Art. Athena, p. 293 b.)
ini rầ ivavriov] 'in the opposite cases', of men to whom any reproach or stigma, mark of disapprobation (the test of vice) was first attached. 'cum nempe quempiam aut solum aut primum aut cum paucis flagitium admisisse ostendemus, turpitudinem ipsius valde augebimus.' Victorius. On the topics of vituperation, Quintilian, Inst. Or. III 7. 19-22.




 about your hero himself, and in his own person, then institute a comparison between him and others... only the comparison must be with men of distinction, (reputation); because the amplifying power of the comparison and the impression of nobility which it creates, arise from the superiority which is attributed to him over those who are themselves worthy and good'. The same topic is recommended in the Rhet. ad Alex. c. 3 (4). 6.
öтep 'Iroxpárys-8ıxoloyeiv] 'which was Isocrates' custom, owing to his want of practice in forensic pleading'. Read douvi $\theta_{c}$ cav [with A'] for two reasons. First, what is meant is that Isocrates cultivated the habit of comparing his hero with others in consequence of his want of actual practice in the law-courts. There the pleading is always direct, and the arguments pointed at an adversary; comparisons with others are altogether out of place, or only occasionally serviceable. If Isocrates had had this practice, he would not have fallen into the habit of comparing, into which he had been led by confining himself to the epideictic branch of Rhetoric where they tell and are in point. Secondly, this is what Isocrates himself tells us of his own habits and pursuits, Antid. §§ 2, 3,






 Ib. § 39 seq. ウुүoû




Here we find, first, that he failed in public life ; secondly, that he withdrew from the law-courts and their idia ovpßódaca, the cases arising out of the 'private dealings' of the citizens with one anothes in their ordinary business, in order to devote himself to philosophy and the study of public affairs; and thirdly, that his ordinary practice in his Panegyrics was, just as Aristotle describes it, to compare, mapıoráva, the object of his laudation with others, whether men or cities, as great and distinguished as themselves, $\pi$ pos ivógovs ouyxpivetv. The two first of these statements seem to put the reading áouvi$\theta e s a y$ beyond question, ouvijecay being contrary alike to the known facts and the probabilities of the case. It is nevertheless supported by Max Schmidt, in his tract on the date of the Phetoric, pp. 17, 18. With this reading, ouso ${ }^{1}$ oria must be confined to speech writing for the use of parties in a legal process.

This is one of the passages of the Rhetoric on which Victorius founds







his charge against Aristotle of jealousy and illwill towards Isocrates, whom he supposes the other to have lost no opportunity of assailing with open or covert censure and ridicule in his Rhetoric. See his commentary, pp. 154, 507, 586, 605 , and elsewhere. Here at least, (with the reading iouvifecau), there is neither one nor the other. I have already entered into this question in the Intros. p. $40-\mathrm{I}_{\mathbf{2}}$ where I have given the opinions of later writers on the subject.
$\sigma_{0}$ orxpiverv] Pol. vi (iv) If, sub init. 12, 12966 24, Metaph. A 4, 985 a


 beck's note ad loc. p. 278. In all the passages quoted, except the two of the Metaph., ovyepivecs and oivypoocs denote comparison: in the other two it is a term of the early Physical Philosophy, meaning a compositionof elements, opposed to dákpıots.

Victorius quotes in illustration of apòs ideógous coyrpiserv, Catullus, Carmen 64, 344, non ali quisquam bella se conferet heros, seq. Tic. de Or. II 85, 348, est etiam cum ceteris praestantibus viris comparatio in claude praeclara.
§ 39. The кoù̀s rónos of aivそnots or amplification naturally falls under the general head or class of laudatory speeches, is especially applicable to all forms of 'praise': because its object is to establish a certain 'superiority' of the person panegyrize over others, and this 'superiority' is an honourable end to aim at. And therefore if we do not compare our hero with the distinguished, it is at all events better to do it with the rest of the world (the average of mankind) because superiority in general, in itself, is thought to be an indication of 'virtue'. Eth. Nic. IV 8 , sub init.


§ 40 . It follows from this that of the three universal kinds of persiasion ave! $\eta \sigma c s$, or amplification, is most appropriate to the epideictic branch of Rhetoric (and the opposite $\mu$ eiwacs, vituperation, to the censorious critical extenuatory kind of it ${ }^{1}$ ): for in this the actions are taken for granted (as admitted), and therefore all that remains to be done is to invest them with magnitude (importance) and honour (dignity, glory). To the deliberative orator examples are most serviceable; because people

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 тò aं $\sigma \alpha \phi$ és.




 are apt to draw inferences, to form a judgment or decision upon the future from the past by a sort of presentiment or anticipation. The enthymeme, direct logical argument, is most to the purpose in judicial oratory: in that there is most room for the application of direct proof, the tracing of cause and effect, and demonstration by deductive process, in clearing up the obscurity of 'past facts', which are the objects of forensic oratory, c. 3.2. The substance of this is repeated in III 17.3-5.
rề रouvề clఠây] This seems to be a division, for the nonce, of rhetorical $\pi$ iorets as a yípos, into three cilo or species, each specially adapted to one of the three branches of Rhetoric. The division has no pretension to a regular scientific character: avjnots is not a logical kind of argument at all, and the three members of the division are not coordinate.
 unusual in Plato and Aristotle, are the usual terms by which this kind of "divination', the foreboding presentiment, dark undefined anticipation of the future is expressed. It occurs again (in the simple form) I 13. 2, III 17. 10, Eth. N. I 3, 10956 26, of a suspicion, or hypothesis, Ib. VI 13, 1144 6 25. Examples are to be found in Stallbaum's note on Rep. I 349 A, and many more in Ast's Lex. sub vv.-кarauayreviectau, besides this place [the only passage where it is used by Aristotle], is found in pseudo-Dem. dxırá申. p. 1400. 2, Polyb. II 22. 7, in Longinus and Athenaeus.

> CHAP. X.
W.e now pass on to the treatment of the dicastic or forensic branch of Rhetoric, which occupies the remainder of the book; the ärexvoc riorets,
 appendix in the fifteenth chapter. For the general connexion of the contents of these chapters, and the illustration of some special subjects which seemed to require a more detailed explanation, I refer to the ana-








lysis of the Introduction, Pp. 185-207, and the Appendixes to Bk. I, C. D. E.
§ 1 , The first subject of inquiry in this branch is the number and nature (quantity and quality) of the materials or propositions (the promisses) of which our 'syllogisms' are to be constructed, in accusation and defence, the two functions of the dicastic branch of Rhetoric.

Schrader draws attention to the term 'syllogisms' as marking the especially logical character of the arguments which are employed in this branch as compared with the other two. On syllogism for enthymeme, see note on 1 1. 11, p. 19.
§ 2. There are three subjects to be considered and analysed in order to furnish topics for the pleader's use; first, the number and nature of the motives and causes of injustice; secondly, the dispositions of the wrongdoers themselves; and thirdly, what characters and dispositions render men most liable to wrong and injustice.
§ 3. The first thing is to define justice, then to proceed with the rest in order.-Toros, of a popular or merely provisional definition; comp. 5.3;6.2;7.2.
'Wrong' or 'injustice' is defined 'a voluntary injury contrary to law'. The two leading characteristics of a crime or punishable offence which are here brought into view are, that it is an act in violation of the law of the land-this is the political view of injustice-and that to be a crime the act must be intentional, done with malice prepense, and with full knowledge of the circumstances of the case and the probable effect of the action. It is thus distinguished from a merely accidental injury or harm done, which can hardly be considered voluntary at all, and again from a mere mistake or error of judgment arising from ignorance, not of universals, or general moral principles, but of the particular circumstances of the case (as of the absence of the button of the foil) where there is no evil or malicious purpose, no bad mpoaipeots, which constitutes the immorality of the act. See Eth. N. III 2, V 10. Rhet. I 13. 16.
 p. 239, Append. E. to Bk. I.
$\lambda^{\text {éyow }}$ de loco к.r.ג.] 'by special ${ }^{1}$ law I mean the written law under

[^12]



which the government is conducted and the citizens live', the laws and institutions-which direct the policy of the government and the conduct of the citizens-the positive, written, law of the particular state : this is human, as opposed to divine and natural, law : 'by common (universal) law ( 1 mean) all the unwriten principles that are supposed to be universally admitted'. This is the usual distinetion taken between the two: these кowá, äypaфa, are described, Introd. p. 239 seq.; for the further subdivision adopted in c. 13. 2, see Ib. p. 242.
 knowledge, and the absence of all external force and compulsion'. Eth.



 eloóres.

Joa miv oủy dxסyтes к.r...].] 'now all voluntary actions are not done with (do not imply) deliberate moral purpose, but all acts done with such a purpose imply knowledge, because no one can be ignorant of what he


 кard spoaipeoty $8^{\prime}$ ovi. Actions, for example, done under the impulse of violent excitement or passion, $\delta$ id Aupob, or of appetite, $8 i^{\circ}$ druAupiay, are voluntary, but not kard тpoaipectv.
§4. di'à st проаupoûvras к.r.入.] 'The impelling motive, cause, of this purpose to do mischievous and vicious acts in violation of the law, is vice and want of self-control. This general vicious habit takes various forms in particular cases, and shews itself in different special vices according to the circumstances which call it forth at the time, and give it its special direction. Thus vice and wrong ( $\mu$ ox Anpia кal dibusia) may take the form of illiberality in money matters, licentiousness in pleasure, effeminacy in respect of ease and comfort (jqqupia), cowardice in danger (when, for instance, the coward leaves his comrades in the lurch, and runs away out of mere terror); similarly the vice of ambition is shewn in the undue pursuit of honour, the passionate irascible temper in the over indulgence of angry feeling; victory is the motive to wrong in one that is over eager for victory, revenge with the vindictive; folly (the want of $\phi$ pónots, practical wisdom, the special moral faculty) shews itself in the inability to distinguish (the liability to be deceived in distinctions of) right and wrong,
where it stands simply for ius privatum, relating to private (as opposed to public) affairs.

## PHTOPIKHE A 10 § 4











${ }^{1}$ pậ̀upa infra.
the vice of the shameless man appears in his reckless disregard of the opinion of others'.- j乡vi $\theta u \mu o s$ 'quick-tempered', ' hasty'.
 logus, IV i, p. 42, object to 8i, which is omitted by Brandis' 'anonymus'

rà $\mathfrak{p} \dot{q} \theta v \mu a]$ are things and circumstances which tend to promote and encourage an easy, careless state of mind, 'things comfortable', which incline us to self-indulgence and inactivity. So pagroivn in Plat. Gorg.
 45 C , rd̀ $\dot{\rho} q 甘 \nu \mu$ órara aipeív $\theta a u$, of 'careless, easy-going, indifference'.

 Fragm. VI (Meineke, Fragm. Comic. Gr. II 458), of Pericles' eloquence,
 sting behind in the wound', (iv rị inket). Plat. Phaedo, 91 C, ఱожrр

rıкрós] 'Translato a tristi sapore nomine, ruxpoùs Graeci appellant qui accepta iniuria non facile placantur sed diu simultatem gerunt, de quibus





 Victorius points out, is used in much the same sense. The distinguishing characteristic of the Aristotelian $\pi$ ккрór ${ }^{\prime}$ s, in which the particular 'bitterness' of this form of dpyí is shewn, is its lasting and enduring quality-the
 lignant, spiteful, $i m p l a c a b l e ~ c h a r a c t e r, ~ e x a c t l y ~ o p p o s i t e ~ t o ~ t h a t ~ o f ~ H o r a c e, ~$ the irascible temper, òpyinóms, irasci celerem, tamen ut placabilis essem.
$\dot{a} \pi a \tau a ̂ \sigma \theta a l]$ Ignorance of moral distinctions, and consequent wrong action, may be regarded as a kind of 'deception' or 'delusion'; when a man is too foolish (unwise) to be able to distinguish right from wrong,





 when re does not know and cannot perceive the difference between them

 a mere orípnots, the privation or absence of knowledge; which is shewn by our not applying the term 'ignorant' to inanimate objects and young children; it is something positive, and consists in a deception, mistaking one thing for another.
 materies; things that fall under the same head or general notion, and so are members or species of the same genus: Eth. N. II 2, 1105 a 1 , mẫt rois vimo rìv aipeovv,' 'all that fall under the choice', as its objects, or matter to operate upon. These are the six things previously mentioned, madón, oumф́pov, ${ }^{\prime \prime} 0 \dot{v}$, and their opposites.

And so for the rest, the same rule holds in the case of every vice, 'each in the things which are specially subjected to it', which come under that particular head, as money is the 'subject-matter' of illiberality, dangers of cowardice, anger of quick, irascible temper, and so on. Victorius understands it as the 'object' of the aim or desire of each.

 and dispositions or characters of wrong doers, and the dispositions and characters of their objects or victims'. In Polit. VI (IV) 11, 129569 , there is a division of crimes based upon their respective magnitude or degree, into great and little, crimes on a great scale, acts of oppression, outrage, insolence, and crimes on a small scale, mean and paltry, which appear in fraud, cheating, and any paltry knavery or trickery. yippouras


§6. First we have to distinguish or analyse the various motives and incentives, whether in the way of pursuit or avoidance which lead men to attempt (to undertake, take in hand, dyxespeis) wrong doing: for it is plainly the accuser's business to inquire (how many and which kinds,) the number and the kinds of these universal incentives to wrong doing to which the adversary, whom he charges with a crime, is liable: and of the defendant, how many and what sorts of them are not applicable to his case. 'Hunc locum copiose persecutus est Cicero pro Milone et in criminando Clodio et in Milone purgando: cuncta enim in Clodio fuisse ostendit quae persuadere ipsi potuerint ut insidias faceret Miloni; eademque a persona Milonis afuisse.' Victorius.













§7. This inquiry naturally leads to a classification of the sources or causes of human action, which are found to fall under seven heads; some of these have their origin in ourselves and are under our own control, others are external to us and independont of us, and exercise upon us and our actions the force of necessity and compulsion. To the causes whose origin is without us belong (1) chance or accident, (2) nature, and (3) external force or compulsion; over these we have no control: the causes which spring from within us, and are therefore more or less in our power to master and overrule, ase (4) habit, (5) reasoning or calculation, (6) passiou, ( 7 ) appetite or desire. These seven incentives to action have been carefully examined, and compared with other doctrines and opinions elsewhere expressed by Aristote on the same subjects, in Append. C to Bk. I, Introd. p. 218 seq., to which I refer for further illustration of them.

This same classification of the causes or sources of actions is indicated or alluded to elsewhere, but nowhere else so completely made out. See, for instance, Eth. Nic. III 5, 1112 a 32, aïrua yàp doкoṽà elval фúaus kal


 1099620 seq . the same division is hinted at.




 limited statement of the unscientific Rhetoric. 'In English, unfortunately, we have no term capable of adequately expressing what is common both to will and desire ; that is, the nisus or conatus-the tendency towards the realisation of their end. By will is meant a free and deliberate, by desire












 a blind and fatal, tendency to action'. Sir W. Hamilton, Lect. on Metaph. XI Vol. 1. p. 184-5. On this, the Editor refers in a note to this passage. But $\beta$ ovingts here means not 'will', but 'wish', as appears from the defination dyafoi $8 \rho e f$ - -the 'will' is not always directed to good-and from the analysis of it in Eth. N. III 4. The term by which Sir W. H. proposes to designate the common quality of this family of faculties, and so separate them from the rest, is Conative. Impulsive means much the same thing, and has the advantage of being an English word.
ovibels yap Bovieras kor. $\lambda_{\text {.] The st }}$ This question of the end and object of 'the wish' is discussed in Eth. Nic. III 6 (Beak.), and the conclusion, 1113 a 23, is as follows: el di $\delta \dot{\eta}$ raûra $\mu \dot{\jmath}$ d́pégxec (the two' opposite views that it



 you) here, is actually done in the six ethical chapters, 12-17, of Bk .11 , and this apparent contradiction has raised a sup picion that some error has crept into the text. There is however in reality no inconsistency between the theory here laid down and the actual practice in Book II. There the treatment of these $\bar{\eta} \theta_{y}$ is appropriate, as supplementary to that of the $\pi \dot{d} \theta_{\eta}$ : here it would be out of place, because the present subject of inquiry is about the causes of human action; and though these states and conditons, youth, age, wealth, poverty and the rest, are as a general rule attended and characterised by certain tendencies or $\pi \dot{d} \theta_{\eta}$, yet these latter can be by no means regarded as effects of causes, but are mere $\sigma \boldsymbol{\mu \beta e} \beta_{\eta \kappa o ́ r a, ~ s e p a-~}^{\text {- }}$ rable accidents, which do not invariably accompany the states that they characterise. Youth and age, wealth and poverty, are not the causes of any particular classes of actions; in so far as they do accompany them they are accidental, not essential.
avayraicev jंdovēv] These are thus defined by Plato, Rep. vil 12, 558D,
AR. I.











 sures that are forced upon us by nature, and therefore 'necessary' or 'indispensable' to us. Of these the 'bodily pleasures', the gratification of the appetites, are the most necessary, and sometimes the latter are confined to them; for in Eth. N. vir 14, $1154 a$ the pleasures which are first called $\sigma$ миarucal, in lines 7 and 9 , afterwards, in line 11, receive the name of dvayкaiau, which is repeated in line 17. The Scholiast and Paraphrast both explain áverкaiau by $\sigma \omega \mu$ arıкal. Plato more frequently speaks of the ávaryaian driduplat in the same sense.
§ 10. Not however that I mean to deny-it does happen, ourßaivethat there is a connexion of certain particular results or qualities with particular moral states (but these classes and conditions of life are not 'states' in this sense) : any virtue, I dare say, (lows), as self-control, does generate a particular kind of opinions and desires about things pleasant, good ones namely; and the opposite vice of licentiousness the contrary in the same sphere.

This is a parenthetical note to avoid misunderstanding.
 and close connexion (or consequence) between the $\sigma$ dípoov in virtue of his self-control, and certain good opinions and desires in respect of pleasure'. ciov's in the sense of 'at once', 'straight off', and corresponding sometimes to the Latin statim and ultro, passes into a variety of significations which take their colour from the context. Eth. N. V 14, 1137 b 19 , swapte
 1004 a 5, who cites Categ. 12, 14 a 32, Anal. Pr. 1 16, 36 a 6, Eth. N. VI 5, 11406 18, sǜ̀s ov่ фaiverau, omnino non apparet. Polit. III 4, 1277 a 15 ,

 ciations). Ib. vill (v) 10,131068 , civis ík dvarriov (at once, from direct
 won't be king at all, omnino). Eth. Eudem. II 5, 1222 a 37, dórt ì фúves













de Gen. et Corr. II 11. 2, de part. Anim. IV 5. 1. Like $\operatorname{\eta j}_{\mathrm{y}}^{\mathrm{y}}$ its connotation is transferred from time, its natural and proper signification, to place.
§ 11 . 'And therefore', (because they are inappropriate as not assigning causes of human action,) 'such distinctions as these may be dismissed for the present; but still we are bound to inquire into the connexion which subsists between particular qualities and particular persons or classes'; (the general subject deserves investigation ;) 'for though in respect of the qualities black and white or tall and short there is no fixed succession or accompaniment' (between them and any particular persons or classes), 'yet when we come to the connexion of young or old men with justice or injustice, then (by this time) there is a difference'. That is to say, that although in certain connexions of particular qualities with particular classes the establishment of such would be worthless or impossible, yet there are other cases, as in that of moral qualities, where it would be worth while to establish such a connexion, if it were possible. 'And in general, any accidental circumstance that makes a real difference in the characters of men; as the opinion a man has of his own wealth or poverty, or good or bad fortune, will make such a difference'. So after all it seems that it is possible to trace some such connexions between qualities and classes; but as this is not the proper place for such an inquiry-the reason being already given-'we will postpone it for the present', and wait till we come to the $\pi a^{\prime} \theta \eta$, where it will be in its proper place: 'And now let us proceed to what remains' of the subject on which we are at present engaged.
$\pi \lambda$ оureiv dosêy davtథิ is a reading of some mSs, followed by the old Latin Translation, and adopted by the recent Edd. The vulgate has $\pi \lambda o u r e i v y$ doкeí, which Buhle retains. סokei rq, a conjecture of Victorius, is also found in some mss.
§ 12. On rúx ${ }^{2}$ see Appendix C to Bk. I. Introd.; on airia dóptoros see ib. p. 221 seq. 'Illos eventus qui a causa quam nemo facile definiat oriuntur ad fortunam referimus. Arist. Phys. II 4, 19666 , eloì dé rives ols dokei
 vи'́тсроу:' Schrader. (Schrader quotes this as Aristotle's own definition.)
















 scribed order'.
 stantly, or as a general rule': the latter alternative allows for the possible objection of rà mapd $\phi \dot{v} \sigma \boldsymbol{y}$ to the perfect regularity of the operations of Nature.
kal $\eta$ rixp alila] The kai admits that chance as well as Nature may be the cause of these unaccountable monstra, these deviations from the ordinary laws of nature; but leaves the question unsettled.
§ 14 Biq ] Introd. p. 225, anything that is done by our own instrumentality, but in opposition to our desires and calculations, may be said to be done $\beta$ iq, by compulsion.
§ 15. TOct] Ib. p. 226-228.
§ 16. 入oyco ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{o}$ ] Ib. p. 229. Reasoning or calculation is a cause of action, when any of the goods already mentioned (c. 6) are presented to us as objects of our interest, as expedient and useful to us, (this is good under the aspect of wtility; the other two forms of good are ro kadoy the moral end, 'the right', and rò ydiv: see Eth. Nic. II 2, $1104{ }^{6} 30$,
 of an end, or of means to that end; when, that is, good is the object of the action, (I add this qualification) because even the licentious (those who have lost all self-control, and therefore cannot act with a deliberate purpose to an end) do things that are expedient or for their interest, only not for that reason, but for mere pleasure.





revenge, are prompted by passion and anger'. I have translated Aupór $^{\prime}$ 'passion' and 'ppri' 'anger' to express the distinction that the one is a more general, the other a more precise and definite, term. Besides this, Oupós being the older and Homeric term to represent anger might by that very fact have conveyed to the ears of the more modern Greek a difference of meaning which had no real existence. Jopyd, if Damm's Lexicon is to be trusted, never occurs in Homer; [the word is not to be found in Mr G. L. Prendergast's (unpublished) Concordance to the Iliad. s.] Both of the terms as applied to emotions are in fact modifications and limitations of more general notions-Gupós the life or soul (Hom.) is limited to the most prominent and impressive outward manifestation of it, the expression of passion : oprin 'anger' is one, the most striking, of a class of animal impulses, dpyai. In Aristote's psychology, the dupbr is one of the impulsive faculties (opifers), together with the appetites and the (deliberate) wish, de Anima B 3, 414 2 2, and in the Platonic scheme the Qupbr or Gupocio's represents a whole class of impulses of which no doubt jpy' is one-it is in fact the impulsive element of the human soul.

On the difference of rıpopla and коגacss, see Introd. p. 232. Compare 114.2. Of this theory of punishment as a preventive, a very good account is given by Protagoras, Plat. Protag. 324 B. Comp. also Eth. N. II 2,


§ 18. For further particulars about oppin we are referred to the treatment of the $\pi \dot{d} \theta_{\eta}$ in $B k$. II : the chapter on anger is the second.
initupla. The last of the seven causes or stimulants of action is desire ( Introd. p. 233), which excites all actions of which the object is pleasure. This pleasure may be either real or apparent, and therefore to include the latter we have óra фaiveral and not doriv.

In the next two sentences the four incentives to action which originate in ourselves are shewn to be all referable in some sense to pleasure, real or apparent good, real or apparent as a motive cause. Of dritupla it has been already stated that pleasure is the direct motive. Habit, again, is a kind of pleasure, for experience teaches that habituation and familiarity make actions not naturally agreeable pleasant to us-habit becomes a second nature. Of anger, revenge is the object, and revenge is proverbially sweet. And reasoning or calculation has always of course some good, real or supposed, for its object.

I have no doubt that Victorius is right in the distinction that he draws between ouvers and idurob. The former represents a natural familiarity derived from familiar associations, with which, as 1 have pointed out on I 1.2, the derivation, oiv foos, 'the haunting, herding together', the gregarious habit of some animals, is in exact accordance; so courìecs, of a man's 'familiar associates, habitual companions' I II. 16;







the other is an acquired habit, a practice to which you habituate yourself by study and attention; of which virtue the settled $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \xi$ cs formed by $\%$ os is the best example. ' In prior vera,' says Victorius, 'mulla industria aut cara, ed potius una cum acetate revise, oo verbs intelligitur; ut cum a puero quispiam in illis vixerit, indef factum sit ut ea ipsi iucunda videantur.'

 passivum.' Spengel.]




 imaginary ruvi, 'as for one summing up to say'. An analogous phrase is ais cuvèóntc circiv, Ken. Mem. III 8. 10, IV 3.7. See note on 17.7, ri

 the dative may almost be regarded as an absolute case.
ox dróyres] Victorius here draws attention to Aristotle's well-known distinction, Eth. N. III 2, init, between ou'X éxóy and äкcoy. Acts due to ignorance, acts which would not have been done, had the doer been aware of all the circumstances of the case, cannot be called dxovocon, involuntary or unintentional, unless they bring after them regret or repentance; neither are they strictly speaking ixovocua, intentional, because no harm was intended; they lie between the two and must take the name of oui ixovicua, 'not-intentional'; neither intentional nor 'uniontentional'. I doubt if this distinction is applicable here; the only cases that it can be applied to are chance or accident, nature, and external compulsion, under which all actions are said to be involuntary, ie. in which the will has no concern; and this is true. But in the Ethics, the actions there in question are not said to be involuntary-the doer meant to do what he did-but acting in ignorance, he acted unintentionally, in so far as he did not intend to do the mischief that followed. But this ignorance from which the unintentional character of the act is derived, essential in the Ethics, has no place here; ignorance is not included in an act done by chance, nature, or external compulsion.

Now as we act voluntarily in all these four cases in which the impulse is from within and action in our own power, it follows (from the preceding) that the object of all voluntary action is some form either of real or










 $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \boldsymbol{\kappa} \rho \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\beta} \boldsymbol{\epsilon}$ ї.
apparent good, or of real or apparent pleasure; including, in the good, real and apparent, the removal of evil and the substitution of a greater good for a less, because all these are alperá (desirable), objects of choice; and in the case of pleasure, the entire removal of pain and the substitution of a less for a greater; both of which are like the others (éraúros) desirable in the sense of pleasurable.
§19. It is therefore (from the preceding considerations) the rhetorician's business to discover the number and kinds (so Aristotle, but the number of kinds will be sufficient,) of good in the form of utility or expediency, and of pleasure. And as the first has been already examined and analysed under the head of deliberative Rhetoric (cc. 6, 7, good, absolute, and comparative), it remains for us to bestow a similar treatment on pleasure. Meanwhile we are not to forget that definitions for rhetorical purposes are sufficient, provided they are neither obscure nor over-exact: in the one case they are not understood, in the other they are also apt to be unintelligible by the popular apprehension, but besides this they trespass upon an alien province and method of reasoning, the scientific, namely, or philosophical, I 4-4-6, \&c. Accordingly,

CHAP. XI
gives the analysis of pleasure, so far as it is of service to the rhetorician.
The general plan of this chapter, and the connexion of its contents, are as follows. First we have a definition of pleasure and a general description of its nature in §§ 1,2 . From this we learn that all that is in accordance with our nature is pleasurable, all that runs counter to it painful, § 3,4 Consequently all natural desires and appetites produce pleasure by their gratification : and these fall into two classes, bodily appetites and mental desires, the former irrational and connected with the pleasures of sense, the latter rational, in so far as they are of an intellectual character, suggested and acquired by some kind of intellectual process of the nature of persuasion, § 5 , and conveyed by a faculty, фаvraoia, intermediate between sense and intellect. The analysis





 3 àvá of these intellectual pleasures (which include the pleasures of imagination, memory and anticipation, of love and friendship, and its counterfeit, flattery) occupies \$§ 6-20. In the remainder of the chapter other kinds of intellectual pleasures are distinguished, and referred to the principles implied in the definition.
§ I. The first word of the chapter is a commentary upon the concluding observations of the last : ímokeif $\theta_{\infty}$, 'let us assume', as a definition, 'take it for granted': there is no occasion to enter into details, or attempt to prove that it is what I am about to describe. Similarly fores, 5.3, 6.2, 7.2, 10.3.

On the terms of this definition, and the comparison of it with other doctrines held by Aristotle himself and other critics on the same subject, see Introduction, Appendix D to Bk. I, p. 234 seq.
 'the resettlement of the soul', i.e. the vital and sensitive system, 'into its normal state' after a disturbance of the balance or harmony, which is pain, reappears in one of the special forms of pleasure, § 21, dy $\tau \varphi$ Oívecv els rod karà фúguv katioraodau. So that learning, as a pleasure, like pleasure in general, is, according to this view, the filling up of a vacuum, the supply of a want, the satisfaction of a craving, the restoration of a balance of the system, the re-establishment of a broken harmony. This is the Platonic conception of pleasure; not, so far as I remember, of learning in particular. See Appendix, p. 234 Lucretius takes the same view of pleasure, de Rec. Nat. 11963 (there quoted).
 all is good that is conducive to good; if the end, then the means; so all is pleasant that is productive of, or conducive to, pleasure. Comp. Eth. N. I 4, 10966 10, quoted on the above passage.
 'a temporary and passing disposition', as opposed to the 'confirmed, complete, and permanent state' which constitutes the af ss. On the dis-




 к.r. .
§ 3. If pleasure is what it has been described to be, a return from a temporary disturbance or unnatural state into a state of nature ( $\phi \dot{v} \sigma$ ts






being here understood in one of the ordinary Aristotelian significations, the normal nature, nature in its best and completest condition), then all 'passing into a natural state' must be pleasant, 'and especially whenever what takes place in accordance with it has reached its own proper nature', i.e. its acme or maximum, the highest attainable point of its development, for instance, drinking, quenching the thirst is a pleasure, learning is a pleasure, but the acme or highest point they reach is still more pleasant in both. Schrader, who suggests these examples, expresses the later of the two stages in each, by sitim restinxisse, didicisse, which not only does not give Aristotle's meaning correctly, but also, as I think, is not true as a matter of fact.
 סóval, see note on I I.7. Gaisford cites in exemplification of this appli-



кal rà " $\mathrm{A}_{\eta}$ к.r...] 'and all habits, for in fact that which has become habitual now (by this time, now that it has reached this point) takes the form (yiyverat) of something just like what is natural : for habit is a thing ( $\boldsymbol{T i}$ ) closely resembling nature; because frequent repetition makes a near approach to the constant and uniform, and nature belongs to the constant and uniform, and habit is a case of frequent repetition'. With this statement about habit, comp. de Memoria 2. 16, p. 452 a 27,
 Gaisford refers to Plutarch, de tuenda sanit. 132 A, rò ¿Oos tpósoy rud фúбts roû mapd фíбty yérovev.

Consuetudo altera natura. Prov.ap. Erasm. (Adagia) p. 994 Eth. N.vil



 by the same rule; because all external force, compulsion or violence, is unnatural. 'And therefore all necessity (of every kind) is painful'. This marks the distinction of avaykaion and Bianov. Fate, for example, is d̀varkaiov, and Necessity ('Aváyкך herself).

There is a chapter on tò àvaykaiov which includes $\beta$ iauov as a species, in Metaph. $\Delta$ 5. There are four kinds of 'necessary' things'. The first is physical necessity, as breath and food are necessary to life: the second class consists of things necessary as means to an end, as taking medicine
 this head comes $\beta i a$ (and rò $\beta i c^{\prime} o y$ ), an external force that controls us,








something independent of ourselves and our own will, (here the external compulsion or violence is the necessary means to the attainment of its end,



 dvaykáઈet nowîy' (this is incorrectly quoted; memoriter, as Bonita thinks;

 fourth, which is somewhat unnecessarily distinguished from this, is the necessity of demonstration, dródectcss, of which the conclusion 'can only be in one way'-which shews that it ought to be included in the preceding. See also Waits, ad Organ. 836 38, Comm. II p. 358.
 Arist. in Met. IV 5, et in Ethic. ad End. II 7; necnon a Plutarcho in 1. quod non suaviter vivi possit secundum Epicurum, 1102 C. Tribuitur utrobique Eveno Pario, poetae Elegiaco, Philisti historici praeceptori. Legitur amen idem versus unica voce immutata ap. Theogn. 470 (472 Bergk,

'And all acts of attention or study, serious effort, vigorous exertion are painful' (supply àvíyкך civac $\lambda u \pi \eta \rho d s)$, 'for all these imply necessity and constraint, unless they become habitual; but then the habit makes them pleasant. The opposites are of course pleasant ; all states of ease and comfort, and idleness and inattention, carelessness and indifference, and sports, and recreations, and sleep, belong to the family (or class) of things pleasant; for none of these is related to (or has a tendency to, tr pos) necessity'.
 These are examples of a mode of expression, not unknown to earlier and contemporary writers, but more familiar to Aristotle. It is the substituton of a genitive case with $\boldsymbol{f l}$ omitted, for the direct predicate in appositon or agreement with the subject. In Aristotle $\tau i$ or $\mathrm{o}_{\mathrm{g}} \mathrm{rl}$ is sometimes expressed. I have not noted it in any writer earlier than Plato, but have no reason to suppose that he was the first to use it. Protag. 319 C , rev












 'Hpar入eoóápov, Ib. 7, 1306 b 28, IV (VII) 6, 1327 a 27, Ib. c. 9, 1329 a 9p,
 411 a 15 , тай паралоуштípoy (comparative, very unusual). de Caelo, I5. 1,


 36, Vol. II p. 473.
 is innate in us, 'the object of any of our natural desires or appetites', the definition of desire being 'an impulse towards pleasure'. de Anima B 3. 2,

 dorus; and compare the following sections on drudupia and its congeners.
 iv roviros in roû ydéos öpe§ıs. Similarly Plato speaks of desire as naturally


This leads to a distinction of desires into rational and irrational, corresponding severally to the two parts of our moral and intellectual
 Plato by the author of Magna Moralia, I 1. 7, 1182 a 23.

The irrational appetites, the Platonic $\dot{\AA} \pi u A v \mu \eta \tau \ll \dot{o} \nu($ Republic), are those which are not accompanied or guided by reason, which act naturally or
 driturian ; Rep. VIII $554 \mathrm{~A}, 558 \mathrm{D}, 559 \mathrm{~A}$, B, see the whole passage, IX
 mívas; and have corresponding ìooval, Rep. viII 558 D, Phileb. 72 E), and
 gestion of ulterior advantage of any kind thèreby accruing, but are forced upon us by the imperious demands of nature; such as bodily appetites (those which we have, which come to us, through the channel or medium of (ou') the body, sensual, al $\sigma \omega \mu a \tau ı a^{\prime}$, Eth. N. Vi 6, sub init. ávayкaia rà $\sigma$ wuaruć, compare the whole passage), for instance, that of food, thirst, and hunger, and the (special) desires of particular kinds of food (special tastes leading to particular kinds of pleasure); and those connected with taste in general, and with sex, and universally with touch (which includes taste, 'gustus','with feeling in general, rò 8 è yevoròv dartóy $\tau \iota$, de Anima B 10 init.), and with smell (of fragrance), and hearing and sight. The rational, those which are accompanied with reason, are such as owe their origin to











'persuasion' of some kind-these are artificial and acquired tastes, as opposed to the natural and inborn rà Irovra, фufuxá-because the hearing (things praised and admired by others) and persuasion in general (the influence of fashion and association and instruction as well as direct persuasion) suggest to us a taste for, or desire of, seeing and possessing things,

The division accordingly resolves itself into (1) natural and necessary, (2) artificial and acquired, desires and tastes.
 construed only with the genitive case and infinitive mood.
86. The received text followed by Bekker and Spengel puts a full stop at $\lambda \pi i(\bar{c} u[$ p. 206, line 3$]$. (The latter editor has also adopted the reading
 must be the apodosis, and the argument runs thus: 'If pleasure consists in sensation, and фauraola is a kind of sensation, then (assuming that there is pleasure in memory and anticipation) memory and anticipation must be always accompanied by a mental impression of what is remembered or anticipated'-pleasure being the middle term, without which the supposed apodosis will not follow from the premisses. But this is not what Aristote undertakes to shew; and also it assumes first what is proved in the next sentence, viz. that pleasure does accompany memory and anticipation. Surely Victorius and Vater are right in supposing the apodosis
 fact what Aristotie here wishes to establish. Substitute a colon for the full
 clauses drel- $\mathrm{A} \pi$ itsen, as three distinct and independent propositions, the basis of the conclusion which follows; el $8 \dot{2}$ routro is a repetition in sum of the foregoing, 'if all this, I say, be so', (de' is appropriate in a reswmption of what has been just said, note on I I. II); if pleasure is a mode of sensation, if фaurafla is a feeble kind of sensation, and if memory and hope are attended by a фarracia or mental impression of that which is remembered or hoped (some phenomenon past or future, the former a fact, the latter an imagination), it follows that pleasure, which is sensation, accompanies the memory of the past and the anticipation of the future because фavraota

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does, which is a form of sensation, dreinep kal allönous? . In this case ady is to be retained in preference to del dv. The latter necessarily makes the clause that it introduces, the apodosis; cal \&v merely couples this with the preceding premisses. The mood dxodou 0 oi $d v$, which might seem objectionable in the mere statement of a proposition, must be considered as a qualified statement of the fact, 'will be likely to attend'; only so much can be affirmed.

фауmacia] which is here called a 'sort of feeble sensation', is described otherwise in the psychology of the de Anima. It is defined $\mathrm{r} 3,429$ a $\mathrm{I}_{\text {, }}$
 Nupopeting, Trendelenburg and Torstrik), not, therefore, a mode of sensation as here, but a motion generated by sensation in active exercise:
 'the presentative faculty' (Sir W. Hamilton). It is a faculty intermediate between sensation and memory, and thus becomes connected with the intellect; the seat of memory is rò «pôrov alotyruxov, viz. the heart, where the results of sensation are all collected in a focus, and thence transmitted to the mind. The memory is defined, de memoria, c. 1 , ult. 451 a 15 , фавтdómaros, is elxóvos of фderaorac, i\&ts; which represents it as a state (in the heart, or the appropriate organ) of the impression фávraoma, transferred by the faculty of фavraoia from the sensation itself, which (the impression) is the representation (the elroiv) of the real object of sense, that of which it is the фávragma. The office of the фavracia is therefore to convey the impressions of the actual objects of sense delivered to it by sensation, and to impress or print them on the organ fitted for their reception; when thus impressed or 'represented' they become memory, and so are passed on to the intellect. To compare with what is said in the Rhetoric, of this фavraola being a sort of feeble sensation, we have in the de Anima, $\Gamma$ 3, 4286 11, what almost (not quite) justifies it, dreuth...




 dependent upon it, the фavrafla is not a faculty of mere sensation, but
 de Anima $\Gamma 10$ ult. 4336 29, (being apparently intermediate between them and partaking of the nature of both); of which (intellect), when we take the whole of it, the drávoua as well as the vous, into account, the фavracia

[^13]








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{ }^{1} \text { dialfee (see note on p. 204). }
$$
 סoкeí civau rò òe únó $\lambda \eta \psi \iota$. 'Imaginatio inter sensuum perceptiones et mentis cogitationes media intericitur, ut imaginatio sensibus, mens imaginatione egeat.' Trendelenburg ad de Anima III 3, 4, p. 453. On the various relations of the фavracia, see the notes of the same Comm. ad de Anima, pp. 166, 462, 538, also Bonitz on Metaph. A 1, 980 6 26, p. 39, Waitz ad Org. 1006 27, Vol. II, p. 440. [Ueber den Begriff des Wortes фarracia bei Aristoteles. F. Freudenthal (Göttingen) 1863, pp. 59. s.]
§7. Consequently all pleasures may be reduced to three classes, according as they are referred to things present, past, or future. The pleasures of the present are the immediate pleasures of direct sensation; those of the past are the 'pleasures of memory', the pleasures that accompany, or are revived by, association, in the way of recollection, of past facts; and those of the future are derived by a similar association from

 rìv ivépyecav [Eth. N. IX 7, 1168 a 13]. Of memory, Ov. Heroid. XVIII 55, (Hero to Leander) Nox erat incipiens; namque est meminisse voluptas; cum foribus patriis egrediebar amans.
§ 8. Therefore everything that can be remembered is capable of giving pleasure; not only things that were pleasant at the time they happened, but some that were not, provided the after consequence of them was something right or good (right, morally; good, as tending to profit or advantage)'; whence the saying, 'nay truly, pleasant it is to remember past troubles after deliverance (escape) from them'. Fragm. Eur. Andromed. xv (Dind. xxxvi), Wagner, Fragm. Poet. Trag. Gr. Vol. II p. 75,
${ }^{1}$ When there has been no compensation of this kind, the remembrance of past suffering is painful. Ovid, Metam. IX 290, quin nunc quoque frigidus artus, dum loquor, horror habet; pars est meminisse doloris. xiII 283, (Ulysses) me miserum, quanto cogor meminisse dolore temporis illius, quo Graium murus Achilles procubuit. Virg. Aen. II io, sed si tantus amor casus cognoscere nostros...quamquam animus meminisse horret luctuque refugit, incipiam. Dante, Inferno, c. V 121, Nessun maggior dolore, che ricordarsi del tempo felice mella miseria. Shaksp. Richard II. Act. I Sc. 3. 300, Oh no! the apprehension of the good gives but the greater fecling to the worse.



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cited by Plut. Symp. II 1, p. 630 E, and translated by Cicero, de Fin. II 32. 105, suavis laborum est praeteritorum memoria. Cic. Ep. ad Fam. v 12. 2 habet enim praeteriti doloris secura recordatio delectationem. Wagner adds, 'ex hoc loco et altero Archippi Comici apud Stobaeum Lix 7, profecisse Epictetum ap. Schweig. 'T. III, p. 104, scribentem, wis ìd̀ riेy
 nek. ad Menandrum p. 86.' Stobaeus quotes a second verse of Archippus,
 association from which the pleasure is derived. It is from a contrast of past trouble with present immunity, and the feeling of security which it engenders; and it has for its foundation the same feeling as is suggested by the celebrated lines of the opening of the second book of Lucretius' poem, the famous suave mari magno. The same association, the sense of comfort and security derived from an uncomfortable contrast, is the foundation of the pleasure expressed in the exquisite lines of Sophocles, Fragm. Tymp. 563 (Dind.) apud Stobaeum LIX 12, фeî фev̂, rí rovirov גáp $\mu$ a $\mu$ aí̧oy
 $\phi \rho \in \boldsymbol{v i}^{\prime}$;-to make the land, and then, the fatigues and perils past, to sit safe and snug under shelter, listening in dreamy and drowsy mood to the fastfalling drops of rain overhead-sign of the storm still raging, reminiscence of the past, and contrast with the comfort within. Comp. Cic. ad Atticum II 7, cupio istorum naufragia ex terra intueri; cupio, ut ait tuus amicus Sophocles, nầv vimò orívn et cet.

Another illustration of this source of pleasure is taken from Homer Odys. $\mathrm{o}^{\prime}$ (xv) 399, which Aristotle, as usual, has misquoted. With this compare Virg. Aen. 1 202, revocate animos maestumque timorem mittite. Forsan et heec alim meminisse invabit. Comp. again Cic. ad Fam. 1. c. Nihil est aptius ad delectationem lectoris quam temporum varietates fortunaeque vicissitudines: quae etsi nobis optabiles in experiendo non fuerunt, in legendo tamen erunt iucundae.
roúrov 8 ' alroo k.r. $\lambda$.] 'and the reason of this is that there is pleasure even in the absence of evil'; that is, in the way of contrast with our former condition, from which we are now relieved; all relief, the removal of oppression and constraint, is pleasurable.
 cipation which appears to confer great delight or profit when present; and to do this without any accompanying pain', 'and in general, all that








 delights when present, delights for the most part in anticipation and recollection. Therefore even anger is pleasant'-the prospect of vengeance lends a solace and a charm even to anger; comp. II $2.2, \pi \dot{d} \sigma_{\bar{n}} \dot{d} \rho \gamma \hat{1}$
 same line of Homer, Il. $\Sigma 100$, is quoted in illustration, 'for no one is angry with one who is plainly beyond the reach of his vengeance', (see the above passage of Book 11 ,) 'or with those who are far above him in power; either not at all, or less'. dòuxoúpinoi re, cis zourev, of ávopenmou

 $=$ фavipós, see note on II 2. I.
\& 10. Most appetites and desires are accompanied by a certain pleasure: which is felt either in the recollection of the past, or in the anticipation of the future, enjoyment ; for instance, those who are suffering under (lit. held, possessed by) fevers feel a pleasure in the thirst (that attends them), either from the remembrance of former draughts, or the expectation of future; and lovers in talking of their beloved (in his absence), or painting his portrait, or drawing his likeness, from memory, and composing verses in his honour' (so Victorius and Vater; else, ypáфoures 'writing of him', and wotoûrris rt det 'in anything that they ever do which has any connexion with him', repl rovi ipapivov 'so as to recall him to their recollection') ; for in all such cases the recollection appears to their fancy (olovras) to be like the (present) perception (by any of the senses) of the beloved.

All these last are pleasures of memory, agreeable reminiscences. The pleasures of memory are further exemplified in this, that when the love which has already arisen from the delight found in the actual presence of the beloved is retained by the memory in his absence, this is a sure sign of the commencement of a genuine and lasting passion. Bekker, ed. 3, followed by Spengel, has put deworv in brackets: F. A. Wolf had previously objected to it. It may be retained and explained as I have translated it, but the text and the general meaning would not suffer by its omission. ¿ $\rho \omega \sigma \sigma v$ if retained implies that the passion is already conceived. Gaisford, after Victorius, quotes Eth. Nic. IX 5, 1167 a 4, Iouke oin ( $\boldsymbol{\eta}^{\prime}$ evsoua)
















 каі тоӣт' єікóтшs єípŋтаı,



 or with rais difaus: the case is doubtful, either will do.
rais. divous] their thirst, that which naturally belongs to them: the possessive use of the definite article.
§ 12. 'And this again is the reason why, even when (the beloved) (becomes painful) causes pain (to his admirer) by his absence, there is still some pleasure that finds its way into (grows up, is engendered, in) his lamentations and wailings; for the pain that he feels is at the want of him, but with that, there is a pleasure in the recollection and, in a sense, sight of himself, and what he used to do, and haw to look and behave, (olos what sort of person he was, in external appearance, and character, i. e. conduct)'. The very absence, and the pain that it causes, and the expression of grief, have a charm in them which affords some.compensation by the recollection of all that he is and does. 'Hence the appropriateness of the saying',-meaning especially the use of the word iucpos, which implies eager desire, in relation to yoos- thus spake he, and in them all aroused longing desire for wailing'. This is a familiar phrase in Homer, and occurs several times both in the Iliad and Odyssey. See in Damm's Lexicon, s. v. imepos. Andromache looking back at Hector as she was taking leave of him, daxpubey yedioara, is a picture of the mixture of pleasure and pain (II. 2 484).
§ 13. 'And revenge is sweet', by the logical theory of convertible

> AR. I.





 opposites, 'for where failure is painful, success must be pleasant; and angry men, whilst they are vexed beyond all measure if they miss their revenge, are equally delighted in the anticipation of it'. dwwrepparjros, 'unsurpassably', a rare word, found as adj. in Isocr. Paneg. 8 71, Xen. Cyrop. vili 7. 15, Plat. Defin. 412 B, Dem. Olynth. II 23. 11, Epitaph. 1389. 7, Lycurg. c. Leocr. § roi, and more frequently in Polybius. Of the adverb I find only this one example. [Cf., however, Rhet. ad Alexandrum,

§ 14. And victory is a source of pleasure-not only to those who have a special and peculiar 'fondness' for it (rois фidovikous), but universally, to everybody; because it gives rise to (riyveral, there arises) an impression (fancy or notion) of superiority, of which all feel the desire either in a

 or end of action; and indicative of 'virtue'. This is one of the modes in which the 'love of power' manifests itself, to which, as a purely selfish instinct, Hobbes sought to trace all our feelings and springs of action. The Emotion of Power is, in Mr Bain's Classification of the Emotions as sources of action, one of the most important of a family of eleven which together compose our moral constitution. Bain, Emotions and Will, p. 59, and the admirable analysis, 145-162. See also Dugald Stewart on this subject, there quoted p. 145. 'The objects of the sense of power may be described as the effects or consequences of our own agency surveyed under such a comparison as to set forth some kind of superiority.' This is the $\dot{v} r$ epoxy in question.
§ 15. This love of victory, as an evidence of superiority, is the foundation of the amusement derived from all sports and games into which competition enters; all, namely, that involve a contest either of bodily strength and skill (as cricket, athletic exercises, and all encounters of a combative character, $\mu$ axךruxás, cock-fights, bear-baiting, pugilistic encounters, tournaments and sham-fights of all kinds), or 'wit-combats', intellectual and dialectical encounters ('piorixás); games of knucklebones, of ball, of dice, and draughts.
 rikds kai ipoorckás), to represent 'musical' contests, which spoils the antithesis, and introduces a vicious classification.

On the zeal and eagerness and love of victory manifested by children in their sports, comp. Cic. de Fin. v 22. 61. On raidial ipuorucai, Probl. XVIII 2 (referred to by Gaisford). $\Delta \dot{a}$.ri ol iptorıkol $\lambda$ óyot ruнvaorucol







ipeorury here in the Rhetoric means nothing more than the practice of dialectics, arguing against an opponent, and for victory. It has, however, afmost always in Plato, and not unfrequently in Aristotle, the additional connotation of captious reasoning, quibbling and sophistry. In Top. IV


 of an over-disputatious habit implied by the word, but by and by, in lines 30, 32, it is associated with sophistry and sophists; but with this distinction -they both argue unscrupulously, 'but the eristics do this to gain an apparent victory, the sophists to make a show of wisdom'; the definition
 oũनŋs $8^{\circ}$ ov̉. Again, c. 2, 16567 , they are distinguished from the genuine dialecticians, who deal with rà érooga real probabilities, by this sophistical


 ка入єítau iрı rà ipıotuká stands for the sophistical practice of unfair reasoning, yíyweras фauरónevos $\sigma u \lambda \lambda$ oyı $\sigma \mu$ ós 'lead to an apparent, or fallacious, conclusion'.
 dice with only four flat sides (zatis), and so distinguished from the aúßor (tesserae), which (as the name imports) had all six sides flat, is described in Rich, Dict. of Gk. and Rom. Antig. p. 64, Smith, Dict. Antiq. s. v. talus, p. 1095 (ed. 2), Becker, Gallus, Exc. II, p. 499 (Engl. Tr.), Charicles, Exc. III, p. 354. And for an account of the other games mentioned see the same authorities (reff. in Index); [also K. F. Hermann's Lehrbuck der Griechischen Privatalterthümer, ed. 2, § 55. S.]
oфaupifets] Theaet. 146 A, Athen. A 25, 26, p. 14 D-15 C, rodì dè ro

kußeias nal лerteias] often go together, Plat. Phaedr. 274 D, Rep. II 374 C, (on the difficulty of these two games); Soph. Naupl. Fragm. 4, жeбrov̀s kißous te. Fragm. 380, 381 (Dindorf). Plut. (Cap. Descr.) Qu.

 favourite game, which appears from the constant allusions to it in Greek literature. The earliest mention of it occurs in Homer, Od. a' 107. The corresponding Latin game, latrunculi, is described by Ovid, Ars Am. II 208, III 357.

The same is the case with 'serious' games (games that require study and attention, such as chess, and rerreia and kußeia, according to Plato, 1. c.)-the only difference between serious games and games of mere amusement, in respect of the pleasures they afford, is that the pleasure in





 the one case must be acquired, and arise from habit and cultivation, whereas others are naturally agreeable, lit at once (eidi's, from the very first) ; to this latter class belong hunting with dogs, and every kind of chace.

Various 'kinds of chace' are enumerated in the Politics, 18 , in the description of the 'hunting stage', the second, according to Aristotle, in the development of human civilization. He takes occasion from this

 кal morauovis $\hat{i}$ Oanarray rouvirpy (ie. of the same kind as the lakes, marshes
 dyplav, piracy, man-hunting, fishing, fowling, and hunting wild animals, hunting proper.

Wherever there is rivalry or competition, there is also victory, the opportunity of shewing one's superiority. And this is what makes practice at the bar and in the law courts (where there is a perpetual struggle and cantest for the victory going on between the two rival pleaders), and that of dialectics (what is avowedly and technically a contest between two opposites), pleasant occupations.
§ 16. This quasi-sensation, the фauruoia, is again employed to explain the pleasure we derive from hozour and fair fame, the favourable opinion of others. These are pleasant because every one who possesses them almays acquires an impression or fancy that he must be such an one as is the good (such as $\delta$ oxoudaios, to whom alone such things are really $d u c$ ), and a ф oavarta, being a form of sensation, always carries pleasure with it, \$6; and this pleasure is still greater (the pavraola becomes still more vivid, and its effect greater) when he believes that those who say so (ört rouvitos dotus olos $\dot{\delta}$ oroudaios) are llkely to be right in what they say. Such (ol dooovivres dindevicu) are near neighbours who know a man better, and are therefore better judges, than those (friends) that live at a distance ; intimates (familiar, habitual associaten, ouriocts, note on I 1.2,10.18), and fellow-citizens rather than strangers afar off, (who only know him by report); contemporaries rather than posterity (to whom the same reason applies); wise men rather than fools; many rather than few. This is because (yáp; i.e. the preference, expressed by the $\mu$ àג or in each case, is due to the fact that) those (first) mentioned are more likely to arrive at the truth than the opposite; for when a man has a great contempt for any one, as children and beasts, he cares not at all for their respect and good opinion, at least on account of the opinion itself, but, if at all, for something else.






[^14]











ró тe yàp фı入eiv $\left.\mathfrak{\eta} \delta \dot{v} . . .0 \imath_{v \varphi}\right]$ Friendship or a friend belongs to the class of pleasant things-the term $\phi$ ilios or $\phi$ ineî, 'to be fond of' anything, implies pleasure; no one is said for instance to be fond of wine who does not take pleasure in it; and the converse, 'to be liked' is also pleasantfor here again comes in the 'impression' or fancy that the thing liked or loved ( $\phi$ ideiv has just the same double sense as the French aimer, the stronger 'love', and the feebler 'liking') must have some good in (belonging to) it, good in some form or other being the universal object of desire of all sentient beings ; i.e. of all creatures that are capable of appetites and affections, which capacity depends on sensation, the power of feeling pleasure and pain, de Anima B 3, 4146 1-5, line 4, \$ $8^{\circ}$ aíonjots vinápxec, roúrq


 always has the impression that the object of his liking has something good about it, which is the reason for his liking it, since good is the universal desire. 'And being liked or loved is to be valued, esteemed, for one's own sake and for nothing else'. This is what may be called the 'passive' liking, said of the recipient of the action or liking; and is opposed to the active form of liking or love in this respect; that it is an end or ultimate object in itself, whereas the other looks to some further end beyond itself, namely, some good which it seems to see in the object of its affection. It is probable that little or no distinction is here intended to be made between фi入eir and dyaṇ̂y, since it is the end and not the process that is here in question, and they seem to be used pretty nearly as synonyms. They represent two different aspects of love, as a natural affection or emotion, and as an acquired value, which we express by 'esteem'. See further, in Appendix A at the end of this Book.
§ 18. kal tò $\theta a v \mu a ́\} e \sigma \theta a c]$ 'And admiration is a source of pleasure, due to the very honour or respect (that it carries with it or implies)'. auto the honour itself, alone, and nothing else : notwithstanding that there is no more substantial benefit derived from it (Victorius). rumi is pleasant, § 16.





Flattery is pleasant, because it is accompanied by the фavraбia (which is always capable of conveying pleasure, §6) the pleasant impression (not reality) of admiration and friendship in the flatterer.
§ 19. The frequent repetition of the same acts is pleasant, because they become habitual and familiar; as we were told ( $\left.\boldsymbol{\eta}_{\nu}\right)$ in c .10 .18.

§ 20. And change is pleasant; by the definition, because change is a relapse into the normal condition of our nature: 'the constant repetition of the same thing causing a (vicious) excess of the settled state'. It is this vicious excess which is represented in the proverbial $\mu \eta \delta \dot{\text { è }} \boldsymbol{y}$ ä $\gamma \mathbf{a v}$, ne quid nimis, 'toujours perdrix.' When we have reached a 'settled state', as a state of health finally established by a gradual course of medical treatment, the medical applications which were repeatedly employed during the cure should be at once discontinued or the state of body will be vitiated: and so in all cases when a-state has reached its acme or normal condition anything that causes it to exceed this is injurious. Eating and drinking too much are other cases in point; when the system is settled or satisfied, the repetition of the acts of eating and drinking disturbs the harmonious balance and produces discomfort or disease. The same expression occurs in Eth. N. VII 13, 1153 a 4, àvan $\lambda \eta \rho o u \mu e ́ v \eta s ~ t e ~ T \eta ̂ s ~ \phi u ́-~$ oecos kal кaӨeбт $\quad$ кvias, where from the contrast of the two participles the first plainly signifies the state of progress towards satisfaction, and the second the complete or satisfied state; and so the Paraphrast explains it,
 36 , means, a confirmed and settled, mature and vigorous time of life, when the age of growing is over.

And in general, all excess is vicious; as the Pythagoreans and Plato (Philebus) held, and Aristotle himself proves by induction in the establishment of the doctrine of the mean, in the Nicom. Ethics, II. The concluding words of the seventh book of the Nic. Eth. may serve as a commentary
 rıvá• (i. e. imperfection: we are always wanting a change, because we never

 ferred to here and in the Rhetoric, is Euripides, Orest. 234, If кải yaias
 ableness' of the bad man in the illustration, is deduced, I presume, from
 $\pi a v \tau o \delta a \pi \omega \hat{s}$ дè кaкoi: see the whole passage from which this apothegm is
 каторӨоїv $\mu$ оуахшิs к.т.д.

It is this pleasure which is felt in change that makes men and things pleasant that present themselves to us or happen 'after an interval';



 каі тра́ямата• $\mu \in \tau \alpha \beta о \lambda \eta ̀ ~ \gamma a ̀ \rho ~ e ́ к ~ т о и ̆ ~ \pi а \rho o ́ v т о s ~ є ́ \sigma \tau i ́ v, ~$


'because they bring a change from our present condition or circumstances, (this is a di-version or a-musement,) and at the same time that which can be used (or enjoyed) only at intervals is rare': but rarity makes things 'better', c. $7,14,29,32$, or gives them a preference over others in value and importance-not necessarily however in the amount of pleasure which may be derived from them; though in many cases, such as the possession of any rare object, print, coin, gem, in a collection, it certainly does.
§ 21. And learning and wondering are pleasant for the most part; wonder, because in it is contained, manifested, the desire of learning; and therefore the wonderful is an object of desire (every desire is directed to some pleasure, § 5) and consequently pleasant; and learning includes, implies, a settlement into our normal condition'. ф'viss here stands for the true and highest nature, the normail perfect state, of anything, see Grant, on Eth. N. II 1. 3, Polit. 1 2, 1252 b 32, oloy ydp Iractóy ívit tís yevíceas
 highest condition of our nature is $\theta$ coopia, philosophy, the contemplation of truth, which is also the highest form or ideal of happiness, Eth. Nic. $\mathbf{x}$ 8 and 9. A state of knowledge, to which leavning leads, may therefore be regarded as a settled or complete state, and to be the 'normal condition of the intellect', the noblest part of the entire quxpr. A settlement into this condition must therefore by the definition, § 1 , be a form' of pleasure.

On wonder, or curiosity, as the origin of learning, of all speculative inquiry or philosophy, compare Plato, Theaet. 155 D , to whom the





 Coleridge again, Aids to Refection, on spiritual religion, Aph. Ix., has thus improved upon Plato and Aristotle, 'In wonder all philosophy began : in wonder it ends : and admiration fills up the interspace.' See also Sir W. Hamilton's Lect. on Metaph. Lect. Iv. Vol. I. p. 77 seq. Ar.
 Met.) as elsewhere, the pleasure of learning or knowledge is assumed. The reverse of this is the cynical Horatian Nil admirari, \&c., followed by Pope, "' Not to admire is all the art I know, To make men happy and to










keep them so.' Plain truth, dear Murray, needs no flowers of speech, So take it in the very words of Creech." [Epist. I, 6. I.]
§ 22. The pleasure of conferring and receiving benefits and favours is made to arise, in the case of the reception of good, or good treatment, from the gratification of our desires which this implies, any gratification of a desire being pleasant, $\S 5$; and the other, the pleasure of conferring favours, is due to the gratification of our love of power (Hobbes again, cf. p. 210); the power, namely, evinced in our having ( ${ }^{\prime}(\mathrm{c}(\nu)$ ) the means of bestowing them, and of shewing our superiority (ürepíxcuy) by doing so. Aristotle, neither here nor elsewhere, takes any account of the benevolent affections as elements of human nature.

Similarly rod äpxecv is said to be $\bar{\eta} \delta \mathbf{c} \sigma$ nov, § 27.
From the pleasure of doing service in general is derived the particular pleasure of 'setting our neighbours right' (rectifying, restoring their fallen fortunes or character to its normal or upright state) either in their property, when their affairs have gone wrong; or in their judgment, when they have made a mistake; or in their conduct, when they have deviated (raperfaivetv) from the right path: and also of supplying their deficiencies (as before, pecuniary, intellectual, and. moral) and bringing them up to a complete or satisfactory condition. driredeiv is 'to put the end upon',
 dтiriévac, et sim.), hence, to finish, complete, or 'fill up'.
§ 23. The pleasure derived from the 'imitative arts' is next traced to the same sources, the pleasures, namely, of learning and wonder. These being assumed, it follows that every work of imitation, as of painting, sculpture, poetry -especially dramatic poetry- (we must either read here with Vater $\boldsymbol{\gamma} \rho a \phi ı k \dot{j} \& c$. in the dative, as had occurred to myself, or suppose that the 'art' in the three cases is carelessly substituted for the 'product' or result of the art); and especially any exact imitation, even when the object imitated is not pleasant in itself; the pleasure lies in the mere imitation, and arises from exercise of the intellect in drawing an inference or 'conclusion ( $\sigma v \lambda \lambda{ }^{2}$ or $\sigma{ }^{\prime}{ }^{\prime}$ ) from this to that'; which is a reasoning process, and a kind of learning.

The inference is from the copy to the original, which must have been

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seen before, if any pleasure is to be derived from the imitation; and the learning arises from the observation of the two and the comparison of them whereby we acquire some knowledge of what the things really are. This explanation is found in Poet. c. 4. 5. I will quote the entire passage from the beginning of the chapter, as a complete commentary on the passage of the Rhetoric, which indeed seems to be directly taken from the other. In the Poetics, as here in the Rhetoric, the love of imitation is ultimately based upon the love of learning ; § 4, ailtov $\delta i$ kai roúrou к.т.入. infra. The faculty or power of imitation which attends us from our very birth, $\sigma \dot{\nu} \mu \phi$ vrov, and the love of imitation which accompanies it, both natural, are the two causes of poetry, §§ I 2, and also of the other mimetic arts. 'Eoikaбı dè yevîनas










 d $\pi$ epyariav (the execution, elaboration, finish, Plat. Rep. VI 504 D) $\boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{\eta}$ т $\boldsymbol{\eta}$
 treatise it is assumed that all the fine arts, painting, sculpture, music, and poetry in all its branches-architecture, except so far as the sculpture employed in decoration is concerned, does not appear in the list-are imitative, and derived from the love of imitation and the power of imitation characteristic of humanity; and it is upon the various modes of imitation that the division of the fine arts is founded.

In the same way the pleasure which we derive from metaphors consists in tracing the resemblance-a process of learning, má $\theta$ nois risbetween the word 'transferred' and the thing it, sometimes remotely, resembles; so that here again the natural pleasure which attends all
 assumed as the foundation of the love of imitation. Rhet. III 10.2.






Twining in his note on Poet. IV 4 (note 22, p. 186 seq.) in describing and illustrating this doctrine of Aristotle, remarks that 'he does not see how any information can be said to be acquired by the spectator' (or listener) from the mere identification of two objects, the inference that 'this is that'. And this remark is true if this were all that Aristotle means by his doctrine. The mere identification of an object compared with one already known conveys no now knowledge, which is essential to





the notion of learning. But what seems to be Aristotle's real meaning is (as I have expressed it above) that by the comparison of the representation with the original, whether it be a picture, or a trait of character in a tragedy, or a metaphor, you learn something new in this respect; that the representation, in proportion to its accuracy and finish (the number of details introduced), enables you to discover or observe by the comparison something new in the object which you had never observed before: and this is the 'inference' from the resemblance, which the oundoycomos, here and in the Poetics, is intended to express. On the love of imitation, and the pleasure derived from the imitation of objects in themselves disagreeable, Schrader quotes de Part. Anim. I 5, b45, a 5 .



 (Yien inionequv.]
§ 24. From the love of wonder arises the pleasure that we derive from (tragic) 'catastrophes' and 'narrow escapes from danger', which are

 term $\pi$ epinírela therefore expresses merely the 'sudden change or revolution of fortune' of the actors in the drama; the later appellation karaorpoф' (Polybius) conveys the same notion of 'revolution'. ( $\sigma \tau \rho \circ \phi \eta^{\prime}$ ), with the additional annotation of a 'downward' tendency (kará) or downfall, to degradation or ruin.
mapd $\mu$ ккро́v] The preposition, which in this and similar phrases, $\pi a p d$.
 in English by 'within', 'within a little of', ' within an ace or an inch of', in reality implies comparison; two things when set 'side by side' being

 17.3.) The comparison in these phrases is expressed in terms of quantity, 'about as much as, amounting to'; and so rapà $\mu$ uxpóy becomes 'nearly about, closely approaching to, or within a little of'. A few instances of a very common idiom are given in Jelf's Gr. Gr. § 637 on wapd, Vol. II, p. 30I, [Kuhner's Ausfïhrliche Grammatik, § 440, Vol. II, p. 445] and Matth. Gr. Gr. 588 a, who does not properly explain it. Victorius quotes from Phys. B 5, 8, 197 a 27, a sentence which con-









 belong to the same yivos or family，congeners of all kinds，＇all things akin to and resembling one another＇s the ouyveri，besides the examples given directly，man，horse，youth，are also indirectly illustrated by the things mentioned in the proverbs：they are＇class fellows＇，any thing of the same kind with another．All that is natural is pieasurable－by the defi－ nition－things belonging to the same class have a natural connexion， （＇rarà фúбuy inter se esse dicit quod eiusdem naturae participes sint，＇Vict．） －therefore all ourrevi are idia；but only＇for the most part＇，not always： for sometimes＇a man＇s greatest foes＇are those of his own household＇，and
 Hes．Cp．et D．25．The two sides are given，Eth．Nic．viII 2 init．
inct jilcxa rípret］Crabled age and youth cannot live together．


 yíporra．The proverb occurs again in Plato，Gorg． 510 B，Symp． 195 B，


 $\bar{\eta} \lambda$ ккa，kal of $\sigma$ vijoecs íraipos．Eth．Eudem．vil 2， 1238 a 34 ，where ano－ ther of these proverbs of association is quoted from Eur．Belleroph．Fr．
 and Stallbaum＇s notes，ad $\operatorname{ll}$ ．cc．
 viII 2，init．IX 3， 11656 17，Eth．Eud．vil i， 1235 a 7，Magn．Mor．II II，
 $\mu i a s, ~ r \grave{~ ̀ ̀ ~} \mu \mathrm{ô}$
 кo入oòs mapd colocón］Birds of a Jeather flock together．Eth．Eud．， u．s，kal yd̀p кo入ocoss mapd кo入ocóv．Magn．Mor．II II， 1208 b 9，кal yàp кo入ocòs «apà кo入ocòv ľávea（＇perch together＇），Eth．N．vill 2，u．s．Theocr．
 charmus，apud Diog．Laert．III 1． 16 （quoted by Gaisford），kal ydp d к讠ंep
 Gaisford ；Mullach，Fragm．Phil．Gr．p． 142 ；ìs dì Oìv ití，Cobet，Diog．L．）， is $\delta^{\prime} \dot{i} \dot{L}$ ．Three of these proverbs are illustrated by Erasmus，Adagia，pp． 1642－44．
§ 26．Next from the principle of the＇fondncss of like for like＇is

## 


 that are like and akin (closely related) are agreeable to one another, and a man stands in the highest degree in this relation to himself, (roûro $\pi$ \&́movery, 'suffers this', has this affection, i. e. relation to...) all men must be more or less fond of self (self-lovers); because all such relations (ípocór⿻) and ouryiveca) belong to him (i̇mápxas aùrqu), most of all to himself; i. e. he stands in these relations more nearly to himself than to any thing or any body else. In the discussion of rod $\phi$ inaurov, the subject of Eth. Nic. IX 8, two kinds of self-love are distinguished; the one low and vulgar, characteristic of the $\pi 0 \lambda \lambda 0$, which consists in rd davrois drovípen rd $\pi \lambda$ eion dy


 $\lambda_{0} \hat{u}$ фaù̉ov '̈rros, 1168 b 16, seq.; and it has therefore got a 'bad name': but rd $\phi \lambda_{\text {avrov }}$ in its true sense, when this desire of superiority over others, and consequent preference of self-this grasping spirit, .nतeove $\xi i i_{\text {, }}$ in a good sense-manifests itself in a desire to excel them in honour and virtue, then becomes praiseworthy and right. iv mioct $\delta \hat{\eta}$ rois dxacverois




 ney' or anything else, meaning 'over-fond' of it. The natural fondness is in all cases to be distinguished from the vicious over-fondness.

This love of self will naturally be extended to all that immediately belongs to, or is closely connected with, oneself, rd̀ aiviv, as our 'words' and 'works'. $\lambda$ óyot all that we 'say'-and, as we should now add in this our 'reading age', 'read and write'-all our talk, studies, habits of thought, theories, arguments and such like, everything in which intellect is expressed; and ipya, all that we do, or produce, all our actions and works; in which latter is included the propagation of children, avirìy ydp


 of adiou. This natural fondness for our own 'works' is assigned in Eth. Nic. IX 7 as the reason why benefactors usually feel more affection for those on whom they have conferred their favours than these are inclined to return. The compensation principle, the debtor and creditor account between the two parties, belongs to justice, and has nothing to do with this natural affection, фı入ia. dóscee $\delta^{\circ}$ av фuvukérepon elvan ro aircon, kal oix ${ }^{\circ} \mu$ ocov $\tau \hat{\varphi}$ mepl rovs daveifauras, 1167629 : and then follows the true





It is this love which men feel for what is specially their own in word









or work that is the foundation of their liking for flattery, for the love of others, and for honour, the external tokens of respect-all of which are recognitions of their merit in word or deed in some shape or other, and evidence of respect, admiration, and regard; from the flatterer a mere pretence, with the others a reality. It is also the explanation of the parental affection, children being in a special and peculiar sense a man's own work.

And this accounts also for the pleasure which we find in supplying a defect, or bringing anything to a state of perfection (see on \$22), 'because now (by this time, not before, $\bar{y} \delta \eta$ ) the work becomes our own': the perfection of it is due to ourselves, and we get the credit of the whole. Victorius remarks upon this, that the difference between this form of pleasure and that which is expressed in the same words in § 22, lies in the difference of the source of the pleasure and the motive of the action in either case. In the former the motive is benevolent, and the pleasure is that of doing good to others; here the motive is selfish, and the pleasure that of gratifying oneself.
 However, it may most readily be deduced from the innate love of power, already indicated in $\S \S 14,22, q . v$. To this natural impulse or emotion is traced the pleasure that is derived from 'wisdom', or the reputation of it-this is not the same as the pleasure of learning or acquiring knowledge, but that of possessing and exercising it, or the influence which the reputation of it carries with it-Now 'wisdom' may be understood in two
 possess and exercise because it implies power, in the shape of influence over the actions of others; and 'speculative wisdom', नopia, which gratifies our love of wonder, § 21, because it brings with it the knowledge of all sorts of things that are interesting and curious (and therefore objects of wonder). One would have supposed that the love of taxing, censuring, or finding fault with our neighbours and friends, intrruâv, is directly traceable to the pleasure of exercising power so frequently noticed before. Here however an intermediate step is introduced between the feeling and its real origin. This is the love of honour. Censuring and finding fault implies an advantageous contrast between ourselves and those whom we thus 'tax', a superiority in judgment or virtue, which gives us the right to








find fault; and the honour we all love is reflected upon ourselves by the contrast. But the pleasure lies ultimately not in the honour itself, but in the superiority that respect and the outward signs of it indicate.
ms A. here adds кai rò àpxciv after j̀ò̀ civat, adopted by Spengel. It would mean of course the general exercise of authority, an extension of the special èmiruầ, and analogous to it, as manifested in various modes of punishment or correction by word and deed. And herein would lie the distinction. The private citizen can only find fault (viz. with his tongue); the ruler can inflict actual penalties, personal or pecuniary.
§ 28. There is pleasure again in 'dwelling upon', lingering in (passing one's time in, $\delta(a r p i \beta a(\nu)$ any pursuit or occupation in which one is 'at one's very best'. daarpißcty is by a similar metaphor applied to dwelling on, brooding over, nursing, the prospect of vengeance, II 2.2. This same topic is also applied to 'good', 16.29 ; the difference being in the 'ends' or motives severally proposed, which stimulate the action in each; in the one it is success, a form of good; in the other, pleasure; the skill or degree of excellence shewn in the exercise of any faculty, bodily or mental, is the same in both. To dwell on that in which our superiority is shewn is of course pleasant, by the preceding rule. Problem xviil 6, quoted by Gaisford, raises the question suggested by this topic. The solution which corresponds to the explanation here given, is the second:
 routr ínci $\xi$ eral (here follows the quotation from Euripides; and it is added,)

 these cases choose a lower kind of pursuit instead of a higher, in consequence of $a^{\cdot}$ depravation of judgment arising from the familiarity created by constant exercise of those practices in which their special skill lies.
aùròs aitov $\beta$ हतrıoros] Matth. Gr. Gr. $\S 460$. The superlative in these phrases seems to be substituted for the comparative, and to belong to the rather large family of misuses of the former, which are found in our own language no less than in the Greek.

This fragment of Euripides' Antiope (Fr. xx Dind., xxvir Wagner) is quoted also in Plato's Gorgias 484 E, \& c ., with one or two trifing
 roùrب $\mu$ нípos; which, with aùr甲̂ instead of roúre, is also the reading of the Problem. The third line is quoted in Alcib. II 146 A, with крátıoros. In the Problem also, кpátiotos stands for $\beta$ हidioros. In the two following
 áve




pages of the Gorgias a good deal more of the same passage has been incorporated in Callicles' speech as prose. Of the attempted restorations of this I have given an account in Note A, Appendix to Translation of Gorgias, p. 134. [On p. 64 the lines here quoted are translated as follows: 'Each shines in that, to that end presses forward, Devotes to that the better part o' the day, Wherein he ckances to surpass himself.']
§ 29. rû̀ 18iay] Note on I 11.4-apeocs, 'relaxation', metaphor from unscrewing and thereby relaxing the strings of the lyre, and solowering the tone; and drifacts the opposite: dimereivety and aviovas are hence extended to denote 'intensification' and 'relaxation' in general. See note on I 4.12. The undue propensity of people in general to the enjoyment of 'the ridiculous' is noticed in Eth. Nic. IV 14, 1128 a 13 (on cirpaste入ia

 cussion of ro yodoioy here referred to as existing in the Poetics, and again in Rhet. III 18. 7, where we are told that the 'kinds' of it are enumerated, cannot possibly mean the passage which we actually find there in c. 5. 2, which is a mere definition. The subject was probably treated in the second book of the two of which the Poetics originally consisted'; and most likely formed part of the treatise on Comedy, which the author promises at the commencement of the sixth chapter of the extant work. Such are the opinions of Heitz, the latest writer on the question; Verlorene Schriften Arist. pp. 87-103.

On the 'ludicrous', see Cicero de Orat. II 58 seq. de ridiculo; Quint. Inst. Orat. V1 3. Demetr. repl ipapveias in the chapter-repl roiv do rois прdүнабт харícy, ap. Spengel, Rhet. Gr. III 298 seq. Bain, On the Emotions and Will, pp. 282-285; and Herbert Spencer, Essays \&c., 2nd Series, Essay III, The Physiology of Laughter.
elpiode] This is the first instance in the Rhetoric of the use of this most familiar Aristotelian form of expression (a verb in the third person of the imperative passive), which in some of his works occurs sometimes at the end of nearly every chapter. It expresses the completeness and sufficiency of any action or process, that a thing has been completely gone through and finished, and that that is sufficient, and no more need be said or done about it. Thus elprode, 'let so much have been said upon the subject', means, let it suffice to have said so much, let this be considered sufficient, and the subject closed; and let us now 'have done with it', and go on to something else. It is not peculiar to Aristotle, though very much more common in him than in other writers. It occurs
${ }^{1}$ The two lists of the Aristotelian writings differ. Diogenes v. 36 has Mowrund. $a^{\prime}$; the Anonymus, ap. Buhle, Vol. I p. 63, rtxuys тотgruरis, $\beta$.

 with my saying so much', let it suffice to have said so much : Plato, Phileb. 57 C , elpriode, 'let it be said once for all', and no more about it. Ib. 62 E , Mebioloov, and Stallbaum's note on Phaedr. 278 B, reralode, 'enough of this

 ciplodes, 'let this definition suffice'. Ar. Eth. Nic. 1 I ult. жeфpourudo $\boldsymbol{\theta}_{\infty}$, 'let so much suffice by way of preface'; Top. A 8, 103 b 1, and 13, 105 a 21, ocoplotas: et passim.

This notion of a completed, perfected, concluded, fixed and permanent, and sufficient action, belongs to the perfect tense in general, and appears, not only in the imperative of the passive, but also in the indicative, perfect and future (the paulo post futurum, on which see Matth. Gr. Gr. § 498). Of the indicative, instances are, Soph. Trach. 586, $\mu \not \mu \eta \chi$ व́mpau rovipyoy,
 of endurance are exhausted, the play is played out, all my endurance and sufferings are over, and this is the end : compare renordari yáp, Rhet. 118.2 ; Aesch. Eum. 680, and Aesch. S. c. T. 1050, duarerlugrau (Paley's notes on both passages). Fragm. Phryx (Fr. Aesch. 263), סıarreфpoíppral Bios. Eur. Orest. 1203, and Phoen. 1019, eilpyrau $\lambda$ ó ${ }^{\prime}$ os. Plat. Phileb. 62 D, mécivrau.
 much for', where the perf. ind. pass. in summing up at the end of the chapter, plainly differs only in form from the ordinary imperative. Troia fuit. Fwit Iliwm.

Of the pawlo post futurum a good instance occurs Theaet. 180 A , in the humorous description of the Heraclitean philosophers, 'and if you look for an explanation of the meaning of the meaning of this, dripy
 phraselet, $\left.\dot{\rho} \eta \mu a r l_{\varphi}\right)$ another brand new word coined for the occasion', i.e. you will have been shot already, as it were; almost before you know where you are.

The observation on this use of the tense in Jelf's Gr. Gr. § 399 , obs. 1, is quite inadequate, and not quite correct: Matthiae, Gr. Gr. $\S 500$, p. 84r, is somewhat more satisfactory.

## CHAP. XII.

\& 1 . Such are the motives and incentives that stimulate men to injustice and wrong, which have been found to be so many varieties of pleasure: we next proceed to examine and classify, for the use of the forensic practitioner, the dispositions and characters of wrong-doers and of their intended victims, those who are most likely to be exposed to wrong.

First of all, the 'possibility' of effecting it must always be taken into account by any one who contemplates the perpetration of a wrong: and not only the general possibility, as whether so and so is possible to a human being (physical or absolute possibility), but a special possibility to

> AR. I.










themselves, kal davrois dvvaróry; in other words, the moral possibility, when the act is done in such a way or under such circumstances as shall render it worth their while; such that the prejudice or injury sustained by the action or its consequences shall not outweigh the prospective benefit; an act done in spite of these considerations may be regarded as morally 'impossible'.
cire dy (otevrau) $\lambda a A$ aiv $\pi \rho d \xi a v r e s]$ ' whether, that is, the intended wrongdoers think the crime will never be detecred at all; or be detected, but remain unpunished; or if it be punished, that the loss or injury so sustained will be less than the gain resulting from it to themselves'.
§2. iv rois jorcoov] The subject of 'general probability and improbability' shall be considered hereafter, that is, in II 19 , where the dvearob and divvarov (one of the four кovol rónou) are analysed. This is expressed by the кoùd $y$ d̀p raîra néarov rồ $\lambda$ óyuy of the parenthesis : 'because they are common to all kinds of speeches', (viz the three kinds of Rhetoric, which is here taken as the basis of their kovorors, elsewhere it is their opposition to the cilon, see Introd. on rodrou, p. 128), 'therefore they shall be considered hereafter', viz, with the rest in II 19. We now proceed to the subject of the special or moral probability, which affects would-be wrongdoers themselves (airol 8 otovrau dovarol eive....), and under the circumstances of any particular case.

The first class of persons that rely on this kind of possibility, in the sense of a possible exemption from punishment if they do wrong, are able speakers and men of action-the one capable of defending themselves against attack with their tongues by plausible argument, the other of carrying through the business or transaction in the best and completest way, so as to secure all possible advantage; and men already practised in many forensic contests-and so with acquired experience of the resources available for delence against an accuser in a court of justice; and men with many friends, having an extensive or influential connexion, or well befriended,-these will be well helped; and the wealthy-who can buy off an accuser or antagonist, and corrupt the judges.
\&3. The possibility of doing wrong with impunity is greatest when the parties themselves answer to any of the foregoing descriptions; and






if not，（in the next degree），when they have friends，or servants and follow－ ers，or associates of these kinds；for these circumstances and capacities make it possible for them（oud，the cause，the power is due to these）to do the things（this applies specially to the $\pi \rho a k r$ coot，and to escape either detection or punishment．
§4 Again，the possibility is increased，the attempt becomes easier， if they are friends either of the objects of the wrong，those whom they propose to injure，or of the judges who would have to try the case if brought before them：for friends are off their guard（iit．unguarded），and thereby particularly exposed to injury and wrong，and moreover are in－ clined to come to terms or to be reconciled without＇prosecuting＇the case，or bringing it before a court of justice；and judges are ready to oblige their friends，and either let them off altogether，or inflict a very slight penalty（so fair and upright were the Athenian dicasts）．
 has a highly inmoral appearance on the face of it．But we are to recollect that the author told us in his apology for Rhetoric in the preface that such suggestions are to be regarded only as exemplifications of the theory of the art，which argues each side of every question indifferently without regard to moral considerations：but in practice，though the rhetorician as such can employ immoral arguments，no honest rhetorician would have recourse to them．Rhetoric does not profess to teach virtue； that must be learned aliunde．This is Aristotle＇s view of the matter：the Sophists，who，as we are expressly told，identified the study of Rhetoric with a general，political education，had no such excuse or justification for the immoralities of their Rhetoric，which they inculcated without alloy．
 кara入入árтovras＇．Gaisford．Bekker and Spengel retain the vulgate，to which there is no possible objection．кara入入árreofau alone，it is true， conveys all that is necessary to the sense，the reconciliation namely；but rpós is very often added to a verb，simple or compound，to express ＇direction＇to an object，as $\pi \rho o \sigma e v r c i v e l y ~ \pi \lambda \eta$ yás，Dem．c．Mid．528． 25 ； $\pi$ porevtivetv，Ar．Pol．vil（vi）8， 1322 6 9；and particularly with verbs that imply conciliation or reconciliation，as $\pi \rho \circ \sigma \chi$ opeir Thuc． 1 103，IV 71 ， ＇to come over to a side＇，$\pi \rho o \sigma d \gamma e \sigma \theta a c$ ，＇to bring over to one，to conciliate＇．

 （to be won over）．spooieotai et similia．So here the compound verb кara $\lambda$ árтeotal denotes the mutual settlement of the disputed points，and the additional $\pi$ tpós the conciliation，being won over，which attends it．






1 dinfre cum Libris. [i] Spengel.

§ 5. Persons likely to escape detection are those whose personal and moral or mental character is opposite (this is the 'oppositiont of 'contrariety', the extremes under the same genus, as black and white in colour, bitter and sweet in taste, hot and cold in touch or feeling, and such like) to that which the charge necessarily implies; as when a man of feeble bodily frame is charged with 'assault and battery', or a poor and ugly man with adultery.

The dodevig charged with alkia was a stock example of the rowos of ro cixos in the early rhetorical treatises. This romos was the staple of Corax's ríxuy, Rhet. 1124.11 ; and the case of the 'weak man' is quoted by Aristotle as one of the examples there used. The application of the argument of 'probability' to the treatment of it, shewing how Rhetoric rdnowria $\sigma v \lambda \lambda$ opiScra, is there illustrated. It appears again in Rhet. ad Alex. 36 (37). 6, and PL. Phaedrus 273 B, as an extract from Tisias' ríx where the rónos of rò cixós is represented as somewhat differently treated. Victorius cites Quint. V 10. 26, speaking of the same mode of inference; the probability namely of the conformity of a man's actions to his bodily condition and ordinary character. These are 'personal' topics of argument, argumenta a persona, \& 23, inferences from personal conditions, qualities, habits, employed to determine the probability of a certain action, as proceeding from him: one of these is, habitus corporis: ducitur enim frequenter in argumentum species libidinis, robur petulantiae; his contraria in diversum-the two cases given by Aristotie.
if rions kal $\dot{o}$ aloxpós, the definite article marking the genus, the mem-
 this and the next topic there is a change from persons to things, which are resumed as the objects of analysis in $\oint 32$.
kal rd $\lambda$ lav iv фavepî] 'And things, i. e. acts, that are excessively conspicuous, open to observation and under people's eyes'. rà \&v dфөa入нois, 'things in sight', qui sautent aux yeux. Polit. VII (vi) 4,13196 18, ódirov


 reodat, the direct passive; this is 'not guarded against', the passive of (the middle) фu入árreoӨai rt 'to guard oneself against anything', comp. \$8 6 and 21), no precautions are taken to prevent them, 'because no one would suppose that any one was likely to attempt them'. Supply to com-
 to the original topic of à dúvaurau $\pi \rho^{\prime}$ rirecy 'possible actions'. rd $\lambda$ iav dv фavep $\oint$ are therefore acts which are likely 'to be carried into effect'-not, 'to escape detection', $\lambda a \theta_{\eta}$ ruá from the preceding clause, which is in some sort parenthetical.



 $7 \pi \omega$ ทं $\rho \rho \omega \prime \sigma \tau \eta \kappa \epsilon \nu$, oú $\delta \epsilon i s$ єủ入aßєital. кai ois $\mu \eta \delta \epsilon i s$



 of such a kind as no one (else) would ever think of doing (supply $\pi$ oot बcce); for these too (like the preceding) are not guarded against,(viz. novel and audacious attempts and enterprises which people are unprepared for, and which therefore take them by surprise) : for it is only against customary offences, just like sicknesses, that people are on their guard; against diseases hitherto unknown, (which no one has ever yet had,) no one ever
 of strength', bodily weakness, and hence any infirmity, such as sickness. Hence Thucydides applies it, III 15, to want of strength of will, or of inclination, dépeoria rove $\sigma$ тpareverv; and vil 47, to weakness of mind; the mental prostration or despondency which prevailed amongst the Athenian troops before Syracuse: and again in vill 83, to Tissaphernes' weakness of will or inclination, as shewn in his 'remissness' or 'disinclination' to supply pay to the crews of the Peloponnesian vessels; which Arnold well expresses by 'he was sick of it'. In Plat. Rep. II 359 B it represents nothing more than the defect or weakness of a faculty. In Xenophon the three words usually denote some form of disease or sickness: Demosth.


 any disease or other imperfection and unsoundness of body, including fractures, sprains, \&c.

 $\sigma$ Gau dousiev. And also those (are disposed to do wrong, or think they can do it undetected or with impunity) who have no enemy at all or a great many: the former think they will escape undetected because there is no one (no enemy) to take precautions against them (and their attempts); the latter pass undiscovered, because they are not likely (av) to be suspected of assailing people when they are on their guard against
 thought (lit. seem) likely to assail', 'because no one would think them likely to assail'; and also, if they are suspected or detected (so Victorius), (and brought before a court of justice), they have a defence ready that they never would have made, were not at all likely to make, such an attempt; that is, that their guilt is highly improbable; Corax's topic of rò elkós again.






§ 8. And those again who have any means of concealment (either of themselves, or of the goods they have stolen,) or any 'mode' (of changing it, so that it shall not be recognised, Victorius, or more generally, 'any contrivance or device') or any place (of refuge for themselves, or for stowing away the stolen property) or are of an inventive disposition, or habit of mind', (suggestive of тоо́тов in the second sense, and $\mu \eta \chi a v a i)$.

Victorius confines the whole of this topic to the one crime of robbery, de furibus ac latronibus; and interprets kpúqıs qui possunt quae sustulerint nullo negotio occulere; тpónos quibus modus viaque facilis est illa immutandi. Quod aut figuram aut colorem variare possint; aut artificio denique suo aliquo modo facere ne ipsa agnoscantikr. I should prefer giving it the wider sense of contrivances, devices of all kinds, tricks, artifices, any 'ways' or 'modes' of getting out of a scrape, and escaping the consequences of a criminal act. In Plat. Phileb. 16A, it has a nearly similar
 subject, he translates it vendere, as we say to dispose of a thing; adding, duidertv enim hic alienationem valere arbitror, and quoting, in support of the interpretation, Plut. Solon, p. 91 E, rồy dè yevopívouv duá


 word in this sense implies 'distribution', and so, 'disposing or setting out
 in words'; and several of the best authors use it of 'disposing of a variety of different things, property, one's own person, a daughter, goods for sale).

It seems to me preferable to extend the meaning; as in the other cases, beyond the mere 'disposal' of stolen goods, to any disposition or habit of mind, which is at all events the usual meaning of $\delta i^{\prime} \theta \in \sigma t s$. And there is this further reason for rejecting Victorius' limitation of the topic, that if it is adopted no difference whatsoever is left between apúfus and tónos here and afterwards in $\S \$ 33,34$ -
 detection, have the means of getting rid of (lit. pushing off) the trial altogether, or postponing it, or of bribing the judges. And those who, if a penalty be actually imposed have the means of getting rid of the payment of it, or postponing it for a long time, or who from poverty have nothing to lose: (in the last clause the relative ois, which is convertible

\$9. Another class of cases in which men are disposed to do wrong,








and think wrong deeds possible, is where the profit likely to accrue is evident, or certain (patent to all, free from all doubt or obscurity), or great, or immediate; and the penalties to which they are liable small, or obscure and uncertain (not such as to attract attention, and so deter from the intended wrong; quale obscurac admodum et caecae sunt ut perspici nequeant: Victorius), or remote.

Or again, where no possible punishment is equal to the prospective benefit; as is supposed (dosei) to be the case with absolute sovereignty or tyranny. On rupavnis, and the distinction between it and movapxla, see note on I 8.4 and 5, p. 155.
§ 10. 'And cases in which the offence, and the profit or result of it, is a substantial, solid gain, and the penalty mere disgrace'.- $\lambda$ ri para refers perhaps to pecuniary gain (lucrum).
'And the reverse; where the (legal) crime tends to any kind of praise (is directed to, as its meed or reward; i.e. where what is a crime in one point of view, is likely to meet with praise in another), as, for instance, if the crime was accompanied by vengeance for father or mother, as it was in Zeno's case; whilst the penalties are all directed against a man's purse or person, as fine, imprisonment, banishment, or anything else of the same kind (not affecting his character or reputation): for both circumstances and both dispositions may be motives to wrong acts, only not in the same persons and the same characters'.

Men of different characters are influenced by different motives in the commission of crime. Some care more for honour and glory and reputation than for their money and personal ease and comfort, and these, like Zeno, will be ready to commit what may be construed as a crime and render them liable to punishment, provided it be attended with something which leads to praise: the others, who value their personal wellbeing more than their good name, will be induced rather to do wrong acts which lead to substantial gain, and affect only their reputation. The one are virtuous, though they err; the others, sordid, mean, and vicious.

Of Zeno's case, here referred to, nothing is known, and we are reduced to conjecture. Of the two best known of this name, Zeno of Citium, the founder of the Stoic sect, whose death is placed in B.C. 263 (Clint. Fast. Hell.), would, if alive, have been too young when Aristotle wrote the Rhetoric to have attracted public attention: it is just possible that the other, Zeno the logician, of Elea, Parmenides' follower, may be the person






here meant. Of this Zeno we learn from Plutarch, Diogenes Laertius, and Diodorus (see the reff. in Brandis' Art. in Smith's Dict. Biogr.) that he joined in an attempt to rid his native country of her tyrant: and if the attempt was successful (of which we are not informed) and the tyrant slain, Zeno may possibly have mixed personal considerations with his public and patriotic motives, just as Harmodius and Aristogeiton did, as Aristotle tells us in the Politics (viri (v) 10), in their attack upon the Athenian tyrant. Only it seems unlikely that if this were the true explanation of the allusion that Aristotle would have spoken of tyrannicide as an adion $\mu a, a$ ' $w r o n g$ ', either legal or moral : and besides this, the act itself, as well as the attendant circumstance, would have been regarded as praiseworthy.
$\left.\pi \lambda \lambda^{\prime} \nu\right]$ 'only', an exception or reservation; see note on 1 1.14, p. 26.
§ II. 'And those who have often in previous attempts escaped either detection or punishment. And, on the other hand, those who have often failed in their attempts' (the opposite to the last); 'because there is a class of people who in such matters as these, as well as in actual fighting, are inclined (have a disposition) to renew the fight'. otot for oioy is due to Victorius in addendis. Victorius quotes in illustration of this pugnacious character, Problem XVIIı 2, de Sophistis, кal yd̀ mкêyres dedे rd̀ xaipeıs

§ 12. kal ols] is no doubt masc., as it is through the whole series of these topics, and in accordance with of $\gamma \mathrm{d} \rho$ dikpareís rocouros that follows. Otherwise it would be more naturally and conveniently translated in this and the following section as neuter, 'in all cases where'....
'And all those who have the pleasure (consequent on their action) immediately, and the pain comes afterwards; or the profit at once and the penalty later: because this suits the character of the dxpareis who are devoid of self-control, and this vice extends (beyond mere pleasure) to every object of man's aims and aspirations', to profit as well as pleasure. And therefore wherever there is immediate pleasure or profit, and only subsequent pain or loss, the dxpareis whose character is to be tempted by present pleasure and profit, though at the expense of future pain and loss, are naturally in all such cases prone to wrong-doing. What is here said of dxpary's and dxpafia is confirmed by Eth. Nic. vil 2, ult. ©írt áxpareís
 this is only a popular way of speaking (and therefore suited to Rhetoric): and in VII 6 , 11476 31, seq. we are told that these are not $\dot{d} \pi \lambda \omega$ es dxparcis,













§ 13. 'And also the opposite characters to these are equally prone to wrong-doing in cases where the pain or loss is for the moment ( ${ }^{\prime} \| \eta$ ), and the pleasure and profit later and more lasting : for this is the character of the i'ypareis, those that have acquired the habit of self-control, and of the wiser sort (men of more practical wisdom, $\phi$ póvŋots), who pursue them in this order'.
§ 14. 'And those whose actions may possibly be thought to be due to chance, or to necessity, or to nature, or to habit, and who in general may be thought to have been guilty of error rather than of crime'. There is a variation here in the classification of these impelling causes of action from that laid down in c. $10.7,8$, which is singular even in a rhetorical treatise, considering that they stand so near together. In the former there are three (of the seven) which are independent of ourselves and our own will, (1) ríXn, and dvd́ykn subdivided into (2) Bia and (3) $\phi \dot{v}$ vic. zoos in the other list is classed with the voluntary sources of action, where we are ourselves the causes of them. Here $\boldsymbol{z}$ os is referred to the other class, doubtless because habit when confirmed becomes a 'second nature', and action from habit is so far involuntary. Rhet. I 11.3, and de Memoria,

duapreiv and deceit] refers to the well-known threefold gradation of
 or error arising from ignorance of the circumstances of the case (Eth. N. III 2), and (3) douxia, in which the $\pi$ poaipecss, the deliberate purpose, enters and constitutes an intentional wrong or crime, malice prepense. In Eth. Nip. V 10, a fourth degree is added, dicky in this, that though the act is voluntary and intentional at the moment, the intention is not preconceived and deliberate, the malice is not prespence ; it is without apoaiperts, deliberate purpose ; as an injury or death inflicted in a sudden fit of passion.
815. 'And those that have the prospect of, anticipate, a merciful construction being put on their act by the judges'. On drteíicta, see I 13. 13, and Untrod. on that passage, pp. 190-193. It is thus defined in Eth. Nic.
 oxealov, a rectification, 'supply of the deficiencies, of the strict letter of the


 סógovtes, oì $\delta$ wis oừ̇̀v $\mu a ̂ \lambda \lambda o \nu ~ \delta o ́ \xi o v \tau \epsilon s . ~$







 gesinnung, humanität, gegenibber starrem recht, Schneidewin ad loc.


'Any deficiency which a man feels may incline him to commit wrong -for the purpose of supplying it. Such deficiency is of two kinds ; either deficiency in what is necessary, as poverty, or in some excess, as wealth'. Rich men often feel a craving for something over and above their wealth, something superfluous, as power, honour, license. Thuc. III 45.4 reads

 consequent license breed the grasping spirit (their natural progeny, rip) by insolence and pride'. Comp. also Pol. II 7, quoted in § 17.
\& 16 . 'And those in excessively high and in excessively low repute, the oue as altogether unlikely, the other as no more likely than before, to incur the imputation of crime'. The first rely upon their character, either for the success of their attempt, which will put their victims off their guard, or for impunity by escaping suspicion; the second, having no character to lose, are emboldened by this to make new attempts, by which they may gain and cannot lose, because they cannot be in a worse position in the eyes of the world than they are already.
§ 17. 'Such are the dispositions which lead.men to attempt wrong'. We now turn to the characters and dispositions, qualities and circumstances which most expose men to wrong ; these are as follows :
§ 18 . 'First, people that have what we want, either in respect of necessity or excess (superfluity), or of sensual enjoyment, whether remote or near; for the acquisition of the one is speedy, the vengeance of the other tardy: as when we Greeks spoil the Carthaginians'. 'We Greeks' are pirates. Comp. Pol. II 7, 1267 a 2, ò móvoy 8 ' ol av $\theta_{\text {pewroc }}$ did rdvar
 after superfluities out of mere wantonness of appetite)...ov roivvy did rairnv

 in this, that the one is the desire caused by the painful gap to supply the






deficiency ; the other is a desire of pleasures which have no such painful craving attendant upon them, such are the pleasures of taste, learning, knowledge, and, in general, intellectual pleasures. The cure recommended for this vicious desire is philosophy, which may be obtained from within and $\alpha^{\prime}$ ajrov, without any extraneous aid. It seems therefore that this division does not exactly coincide with that of the Rhetoric, though there is a strong resemblance between them.

5 19. 'And those who are not inclined to caution or precaution, but are of a confiding temper; for they are all easy to take by surprise' ( $\lambda a-$ oriv, lit. it is easy for the wrong-doer to escape their notice in attacking them).

And the careless (indolent, easy-tempered); because the prosecution of an offence belongs to (the opposite character) the careful, anxious attentive.

So Leech, in Punch, Aug. 2, 1862. Infuriate Captasn. 'You scoundrel, I'll have you up as sure as you are born'. Cabman. 'What, summons mel Oh no, you won't, my Lord. You'll never take the trouble'. (Exit Cabman with 3s. 6d. over his fare.)

And the sensitive, timid, retiring, shamefaced; because they are not 'combative', inclined to contest the point, to stand out, in the matter of gain. aloxverinós, II 6.27, 12. 10, it is characteristic of young men:




f 20. 'And those who have been wronged by many and yet never prosecuted, or taken vengeance on, the aggressors, these being what the proverb calls Mysians' spoil', that is, an easy prey. Mugûv Aeia dicitur de passessione quae defensore caret et obnoxia est direptori cuivis, Dissen ad Dem. de Corona, § 72 ; of anything that may be plundered with impunity, Liddell and Scott, Lex:; von allem durchaws preisgegebenen, Rost u. Palm, L. Harpocration and Suidas, s. vv., both explain the origin of the proverb to be the defenceless state of Mysia during the absence of their king Telephus, the famous beggar-hero of Euripides, and Horace's type of a pauper. See also Stallbaum's note on Gorgias 521 b, who quotes

 verb, it certainly was not derived from Euripides' play: for Harpocration expressly says that it is to be found in Strattis (the Comic poet) and Simonides dr lápßots. This last is probably Simonides of Amorgos, a
$21 \pi \alpha \rho o \iota \mu i \alpha \nu$ toútous Mvбஸ̄̀ $\lambda \epsilon i \alpha \nu$. каi oûs $\mu \eta \delta \epsilon \pi \omega^{\prime}-$


very early writer; but if it be the other Simonides, of Ceos, it is equally impossible that he could have derived it from Euripides, since he died when Euripides was a child.

The above explanations seem to be founded upon the helpless condition of the Mysian people under some special circumstances which deprived them of their ordinary means of self-defence. I should rather suppose that the proverb implies an imputation upon their national character, because another proverbial expression, at least as common as this, represents the Mysians, as sharing with the Carians, the reputation of being the vilest and most contemptible of mankind; the property of such mean and cowardly wretches would naturally be an easy prey to any one who chose to take it. This imputation of cowardice or weakness is directly conveyed by Aristotle in the passage before us. This brings the two proverbs together as the expression of the same features of national character. This will furnish a sufficient explanation of Gorg. 521 B, el oot Mugóv ye ifdov кa入eiv, and we need not have recourse with Stallbaum and Heindorf (ad loc. § 162) to the Mugwiv deiav to interpret it. This proverbial contempt for the Mysian character appears in Rhes. 251, Pl. Theaet. 209 (Schol. in Heindorf and Stallbaum), Magnes, (Com.) Fr. Poastriae (in Meineke's Fragm. Comic. Gr. II 11), Philemon, Sicel. fr. 3 (Meineke u. s. IV 25), Menand. Androg.vir (Schol. Gorg. u. s., and Mein. IV 86), and Menand. Fr. Inc. 48I (Mein. IV 327), all in the words Mvaîy ó ërxaros, 'the last and lowest-even of the Mysians', worthlessness can go no further. Cic. pro Flacco, 27.65, quid in Graeco sermone tam tritum et celebratum est, quam si quis despicatui ducitur, ut 'Mysorum ultimus' osse dicatur. Ib. 2. 3; 40. 100; Orat. VIII 27, quonam igitur modo audiretur Mysus aut Phryx Athenis, quum etiam Demosthenes, foc. ad Quint. Fratr. I 1. 6 hominis ne Graeci quidem, at Mysii aut Phrygii potius. (Erasm. Adag. Mysorum postremus, p. 354) The other form of the proverb occurs in Dem. de Cor. p. 248, § 72, rìv Mugôy $\lambda$ ciav кa入oupévy, in Strattis, Medea, (fr. Harpocr.) Mein. II 776. (Erasm. Adag. Mysorum praeda, p. 1774.)
 who have never yet been injured and those who have been often injured (by the proposed wrong-doer) are proper objects of wrong : both of them are likely to be unprepared or taken off their guard (see on áфviaxra, § 5 , supra), the one because they feel secure and are careless from ignorance of all injurious treatment, and the others because they have already had so much of it that they think they must now be exempt from it for the future ; that fortune or the Gods must be tired of persecuting them.


 «пviouev. (Hermann ad loc. 969.) Matth., Gr. Gr. $\S 599 \mathrm{c}$, quotes this passage as an illustration of à with a participle signifying 'mere possibility


or probability, a conjecture or a modest indefiniteness', distinguishing this from the general case which is exemplified in § 598 b . There is no ground for this distinction; the particle in both alike has its usual conditional signification; and the likelihood or probability and the rest is only one of the conditions under which the act is conceived. Here it expresses the opinion or expectation ( $\mathrm{m}_{\mathrm{s}}$ ) that they would be no longer likely to be exposed, or under such conditions or circumstances as wruld expose them, to wrong.
§ 22. And those that have already been the subjects of hostile charges, suspicion, calumny (all included in dcaßäג $\lambda \epsilon \omega$, 'to set one man at variance with, or against, another '), and such as are especially exposed or liable to it (easily calumniated, \&c.); for such as these have neither the will (to prosecute) from fear of the judges (who are prejudiced against them), nor are they able to persuade (the judges, for the same reason, if they brought this case before a court of law): and to this class belong all that are hated and envied.
$\phi \theta_{0}$ oúmevor] On the irregular passive, see Appendix B (at the end of this Book).
 are liable to injury against whom there is (lit. others have) any available pretext' (real or supposed for attacking, or doing them wrong) 'of injury received or threatened by their ancestors or themselves or their friends against themselves or their forefathers, or those whom they care for, (are interested in); because, as the proverb has it, villany only wants a pretext'.

For $\mu e \lambda \lambda \eta \sigma a ́ v r \omega y ~ B r a n d i s ' ~ A n o n y m u s ~(a p . ~ S c h n e i d e w i n ' s ~ P h i l o l o g w s, ~$

$\mu \lambda \lambda e c v$, to be about to do, hence of something impending or threatening. Plat. Theaet. 148 E , of the intention; see Stallbaum's note; of a threatening attitude or posture, $\mu$ è $\lambda \eta \eta \sigma t s$. Thuc. 169 , ov̉ rn̂ ठuvápes rıvà
 demonstrations of the barbarians before the battle), ovirot di गiेv $\mu \mathrm{\lambda} \lambda \lambda_{\eta \sigma \Delta \nu}$


The proverb 'any pretext will serve a knave' is thus expressed by
 $\pi \rho a \hat{\xi} a t$ какळิ今, ap. Stob. Flor. IV 40. To the same effect, Eurip. Iph. Aul.



Victorius refers to a story of Agathocles tyrant of Sicily, in Plutarch, as an illustration of this topic. It is told (in the de sera numinis vin-











 176 F.

824 'And friends as well as enemies; the former from the ease, the latter from the pleasure, of the undertaking and its success'. Theognis


 dừprau кakóv. Victorius.
'And the friendless. And those who have no skill and practice in speaking or action (business)'; (the opposite of them, ol eimeiv duvápevot cal of $\pi \rho a \kappa$ ruкoi, are opposite also in disposition; they are of those that are inclined to do wrong, §2); 'for these either make no. attempt at all to prosecute, or if they do make the attempt, soon come to an agreement, or if they do carry on the prosecution, produce no effect (bring it to no conclusion, make nothing of it)'. These are the impáypoves, the ordinary victims of the Cleons, and public informers, the cuкoфàral, and all other troublesome and mischievous people, who, like fever-fits or nightmares,





 life at Athens, see Criton's case in Xen. Mem. II 9. I, olda dé $\pi$ ore aủròy cal


 It ends by Criton's taking one of these 'sycophants' into his own service, like a dog, as he describes him, to keep off these wolves from his flocks.
§25. And those to whom it is unprofitable to waste their time in waiting for the trial or payment of the fine or penalty, such as strangers and farmers (who live in the country, and are so completely occupied in the cultivation of their land, that they cannot afford to waste time in attending the law-courts in the city); such as these are inclined to settle their differences on easy terms (dia ${ }^{\prime} \dot{e} \sigma \theta a u$, to dissolve, break off, put an end to, and so make up, a quarrel), and readily leave off (drop) the prose-






cution. 'Strangers', who are merely passing through Athens, and incessantly occupied either with business or sight-seeing, have of course no time to spare in dancing attendance at the law-courts; and 'farmers', 'cultivators of their own land', just as little, for the reason already mentioned. These aviroupyoi, 'independent cultivators', constitute the $\delta \bar{j} \mu \mathrm{~m}$ yecopyuós, and are the best sort of democratical population, Pol. VII (vi) 4,


 from waiting at the courts of law. This is confirmed by Eurip. Orest. 919,



 agriculture and agriculturists are sung by Xenophon, Oecon. vi $\$ \S 8,9,10$, xV 9, and elsewhere. In Rhet. II 49, the aíroupyol are distinguished from the yecopyusoi, the latter being confined to farmers and agricultural labourers, aúrovpyoi being extended to all that work with their own hands. See Thuc. 1141.3, and Arnold's note. Thucydides does not observe Aristotle's distinction, the aurovoyoi here are yeoppol in the next chapter.
§ 26. And those who have committed either many wrongs themselves, or wrongs of the same kind as they are now suffering: for it seems almost no injustice at all, when a man has the same wrong inflicted on him as he himself was in the habit of inflicting (upon others); an assault, for instance, committed on a man who is habitually guilty of wanton insolence or outrage.
aikia and ijpis are thus legally distinguished. aikia is personal
 (v) 10 , 1311624 , and is the subject of a $8 i k y$ or private action between
 (this is further defined $\mu \in \tau \dot{\alpha} \pi \rho o \pi \eta \lambda a \kappa \iota \sigma \mu o \hat{v}$, which distinguishes it from aikia), ded $\lambda_{o}{ }^{\prime}$ ouv ; that is, a violation of the feeling of personal dignity and sense of honour, humiliating, degrading, scornful, wanton, language or acts; the mental injury constituting a great part of the offence. This appears in Aristotle's definition of it, Rhet. II 2.5, тò $\beta \lambda$ а́лтect ral $\lambda$ vлеї̀ é $\phi$ ' oìs

 itself). So that íppis is a mixture of intentional insult and wantonness or 'wanton insult'. To the same effect is the observation in I 13. 10, that it $\pi \rho \circ \sigma \sigma \eta \mu a i v e \iota ~ т \grave{\nu} \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\pi \rho o a i p e \sigma c \nu , ~ ' i m p l i e s ~ d e l i b e r a t e ~ i n t e n t i o n ' . ~ T h i s ~ t h e n ~ i s ~ t h e ~}$

 28 á̇ıкєì фаiveтаı. каi oils xapıoùvтaı $\hat{\eta}$ фí入oıs $\hat{\eta}$


ground of the distinction between alkla and $i \beta \rho s$ s, and the reason for the latter being made the object of a ypaфí, or public prosecution, the honour of the state being considered as compromised in the insult to one of its members. See further on this subject, Meier und Schömann Dor Attische Process, p. 319 seq.

Hippodamus, the legislator of Miletus, who drew the plans and laid out the Piraeus, and was the architect of Thurii on its foundation, and of Rhodes, divided crimes into three kinds, as we lear from Pol. II 8, 12676
 Oberon, ie. (1) crimes by which the feelings are wounded and the sense of personal dignity wantonly outraged, (2) those which involve loss or damage to person or property, and (3) murder and homicide.
§27. And (in the way of retaliation) those who have either already done, or have intended, or are intending, or will certainly do, us mischief : because this retaliation or compensation carries with it ("Xci) not only pleasure (sensual or intellectual, chiefly the latter in this case) but also (a sense of) right (the moral object of conduct), and so it seems bordering upon almost no wrong at all. 'Retaliation' or 'compensation' is right upon principles of justice, rod dicauov; of which the 'reciprocal' or 'retaliatory' is one of the three kinds, Eth. Nip. V c. 5, arising from the sub-
 'corrective'; the latter having two divisions, ( 1 ) rectification of, or compensation for, frauds and crimes, дгop日wrurí proper, and (2) rò derurewowós (c. 8) the justice that regulates exchanges and commercial transactions.
 -xiforras is, according to Victorius, that the motive or occasion of the wrong in either case is not the same. In the one the wrong-doer seeks a pretence or pretext for injuring his neighbour, in the other the occasion comes unsought; the wrong would not have been done had it not been provoked by previous injury.
$\delta$ 28. cal offs xaptoûvrat] and those by whom, i.e. by whose injury, they will oblige either their friends, or those whom they admire and respect, or love, or their masters (any one who has power over them) or those by whose opinions or authority they direct their life and conduct.
$\pi$ mos outs $\zeta \hat{\omega} \sigma \omega]$ in reference to whom they live, who are their guides and authorities in life and action: or, on whom they depend, to whom they look for support or subsistence; as a 'dependant' does. To which
 aùrápкcıa, where you don't look to any one else but yourself. See the note there, p. 173.

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nal $\pi$ jpòs ovis] 'those, in reference to whom', that is in ourrelations (or dealings) with whom, it is possible (we may expect) to meet with indulgence or merciful consideration. On inceikeia, see Introd. p. 190-93.

Victorius, followed by Vater, would connect this clause immediately.
 avoid a supposed repetition of a former topic, § 14, nal ois ây roû drucuovis ruxeiv. Vater, who supplies this explanation, forgets that the two topics are differentiy applied ; in § 14 the expectation of indulgent consideration is assigned as a motive of action in the agent; in this section it is a disposition in the patient which subjects him to wrong: though it is true that the feeling or tendency itself resides in both cases in the same person. Besides this, the union of these two seems to be an improper conjunction of two heterogeneous dispositions, a sort of moral scîyua; taking a man for the guide of your life or depending upon him, and relying upon his merciful consideration, are not closely enough connected to warrant their being classed together. I have therefore retained Bekker's punctuation, which makes them separate topics.
§ 29. And if we have had cause of complaint against any one, or a previous difference with him, (we do to him) as Callippus did in the affair of Dion; for things of that kind (a wrong deed done under such circumstances) appear to us (personally and at that time, not always or in general,) to border upon, bear a close resemblance to, acts altogether innocent.
 to separate. In this sense it is almost a draf deyofewo. No authority fortirs use of the word is given by Stephens or any other Lexicon earlier than Arrian. It represents morally and metaphorically a 'split', or 'separation', 'parting asunder' of intercourse and interests between two friends.
droict] The imperfect here seems unmeaning, as the act is only one. Spengel, in his Edition, 1867, has adopted. without remark inoinoe from mss $\mathrm{Q}, \mathrm{Yb}, \mathrm{Z}^{\mathrm{b}}$.
 Vindicta c. 16. The story is thus told by Victorius. Callippus was an Athenian, friend and companion of Dion during tits stay at Athens, amd the partner of his expedtion to Sicily for the Iberation of his native country. By his conduct and services he had ingratiated himself with Dion's mercenaries, whom he incited to murder their general, and thereby made himself master of Syracuse. Before this, he had spread calumnious reports about Dion and excited the citizens against him. Dion being informed of this took no precautions for his own safety; partly in scorn of the attempt, and partly because he was unwilling to preserve his own power and life at the expense of the destruction of his friends: the scheme accordingly took effect, and Dion was shortly after put to death. Aristotle says upon this that Callippus justified the act by arguing that as Dion had now knowledge of his designs, and his own life


was in danger, this anticipation of the other, was a mere measure of precaution or retaliation, and no crime at all. This suspicion of Callippus is the ground of his complaint and the occasion of the previous differcuce, or sundering of their apparent friendship. [Arnold Schaefer, Domo sthenes und seine Zeit, III 2. p. 159, 160.]
 avirovis)] Another motive in the aggressor to commit a wrong, another circumstance which renders its intended object especially liable to it, arises, when the victim is in such a position that the wrong will be done by somebody else (in' ${ }^{\prime} \lambda \lambda \omega \nu$ ) if we don't do it ourselves, or take the initia-tive-this seems to us a justification of the act of aggression which in other circumstances would be a gross wrong-and the necessity of immediate action allows no time for deliberation. That this is a sort of justification of such an act appears in the conduct attributed to Enesidemus towards Gelo: the latter (tyrant of Syracuse) had anticipated him(the tyrant of Leontini) in reducing and enslaving some state that was neighbour of both : Aenesidemus sends a present to Gelo of eggs, cakes, and sweetmeats, the ordinary prize of the game of кórraßos, as a prize, in acknowledgunent of his superior foresight, quickness and dexterity, shewn in his 'anticipa-
 an eye to it himself. This shows that Aenesidemus thought it 'hardly a crime', dryùs rovi $\mu \boldsymbol{j}$ deuceiv, a justifiable act; and also illustrates the extreme liability to aggression and wrong involved in the position of this ' neighbouring state', which would have been wronged in any case by
 represents the aúrol, the man who takes the initiative) had not done it himself.

As Casaubon has observed, there is some object understood after doApanodraquive. The simple ranás or ravd nodus, will answer the purpose. Nothing more is known about the circumstances of the case.

The person here called Aineolinmos, in Herod. Almpidipuos, and in Pindar Aimpibapos, is mentioned twice in Herodotus, vil 154 as the son of one Patäicus, and a member of the body-guard of Hippocrates, tyrant of Gela, and in c. 165, as the father of Thero, sovereign (movivapxos) of Agrigentum, to whom Pindar's second Olympian Ode is dedicated. In Pindar his name occurs three times, but only as the father of Thero, OL II 46, III 9, and of him and Xenocrates, Isthm. II 4I. To reconcile Herodotus' statement about him with that of Aristotle here, we may perhaps suppose that Aenesidemus had made himself master of Agrigentum, on the throne of which he was succeeded by his son Thero, before the period to which this story belongs. Aristotle's narrative certainly represents him as a sovereign prince, and not as a mere mercenary in another's service. Victorius, followed by Schrader, calls him 'tyrant of Leontini', but gives no authority.







кorráßra] On the game of кórraßos, the modes of playing it, and its varieties, see Becker, Charicles, on the Greek Games, Excursus III to Sc. vI, p. 349. Our information upon the subject is principally derived from Athen. XI 58, p. 479 C-E, and XY I, 665 seq., and Pollux vi 109. We learn from Athenaeus, on the authority of Dicaearchus (479 D) that it was a Sicilian invention and most fashionable in that country, (cf. xV 666 B),
 Further we are told that the winner at the game received a prize, 667 D ,



 the form кorrdßeca occurs in at least three verses, in Ath. XV 666 e, 667 F, it seems that both this and kortáßıoy were in use. Gaisford unnecessarily infers from it that there was only one, and that кorfáßecov.
§ 31. And those to whom the wrong can be readily compensated, or more than compensated by just acts, because such wrongs admit of an easy cure;-an instance of this is the saying of Jason of Pherae, that we are bound to commit some wrongs in order that we may have the opportunity of doing justice on a larger scale. The saying itself is to be found in somewhat different words in Plutarch, $\pi 0 \lambda$. парауye $\lambda \mu \boldsymbol{8}_{17}$ F (Buhle),
 to his various acts of oppression and annoyance, ws dvaykaioy diduciv rà
 Hood's plea, that he robbed the rich to give to the poor. This topic may be further illustrated by Bassanio's appeal to the judge, Merchant of Venice, Act Iv. Sc. 1, line 209, And I beseech you, Wrest once the law to your authority: To do a great right do a little wrong, And curb this cruel devil of his will.
§ 32. Victorius observes that we here enter upon a new division of the chapter. The analysis has been hitherto confined to persons prone to wrong and liable to wrong: it is now applied to certain classes of things or circumstances which increase the liability to wrong. These are kinds of diduripara. It is in fact a transition to the subject of the next chapter. Such are offences of very common occurrence; men are tempted to commit such because they think they shall meet with indulgence: people have become so familiar with the offence by constant association (ournteiq) that it has lost its repulsive character; and also they may argue that if ' all or many' are guilty of it, it must be a human infirmity, and being a natural defect is hardly to be called a vice.








§ 33. Crimes and the products of them that are easy to conceal, especially in the case of stealing, which is here most prominent in the author's thoughts. Such are things that are soon consumed, as eatables, or things that can be easily changed (in their appearance, without losing their value; so that they shall not be recognized, and the theft escape detection), in respect of their shape (as plate and coin by melting), or colour (cloth or silk by dyeing), or mixture (as liquids of all kinds). Victorius refers to Cic. de Fin. v 25. 74, of the Stoics, Atque ut reliqui fures earum rerum quas cepervnt signa commutant, sic illi ut sententiis nostris (sc. Academicorum) pro suis uterentur nomina tanquam rerum notas mutaverunt. There is about the same amount of resemblance in this topic to that of $\$ 8$, as we found in $\$ 28(q . v$.$) to that of \$ 14$; the circumstance is nearly the same, the application different.
§ 34 Or things that are easy to make away with, put out of sight (effacer, cause to disappear) in many different ways; such are things portable, which can be hid away in holes and corners (iit. small places).
§ 35. And things (stolen goods), like others, of which the thief has already a good many in his possession, either exactly like (with no difference at all between them) or nearly like (bearing a general resemblance, and so not easy to distinguish). The first is the case of coins or medals, and in general, things that are made in sets, one exactly like another.
didídopos, which in the sense here assigned to it seems to be a dras $\lambda$ erópevov, is not to be confounded either with the logical signification of it-Anal. Post. II 13,97 b 31, iv roîs кäó入ov $\hat{y}$ ì roís decadóposs, Top.
 'an individual'-or with the meaning it bears in the Stoic philosophy, things 'indifferent', without any moral differences, neither good nor bad; from which our sense of the word is derived.
'And things which the injured party is ashamed to reveal: as any outrage committed upon the women of one's own family, or one's self or one's children'. Victorius quotes Lysias, c. Simon. § 3 , $\mu$ алıora $\delta$ '



 the local accus., 'the cases in which (as the seat of them) the litigious spirit is shewn', Appendix B, note I , at the end of this Book.
 каi er $\phi^{\prime}$ otis $\sigma u \gamma \gamma \nu \omega \dot{\mu} \mu$.
1






'And all cases in which prosecution would seem to indicate a litigious spirit in the prosecutor' : that is, where the offence is trifling, or, again, in the case of acts that deserve indulgence-some of which are mentioned in c. 13. 16, 17. Victorius refers to Lysias, karà Өeopviorou A.8 2, ' ind 8',




The chapter concludes with a summary enumeration of its contents. 'So now of the characters and dispositions that incline men to crime, the several kinds of those crimes, the characters that invite crime, and the motives that incite to crime, we have given a tolerably complete ( $\sigma x$ © or $_{y}$ ) account', or analysis.

CHAP. XIII.

A connected sketch of the contents of the following chapter, a partitular account of inveixcua or equity, and of the relations of the different kinds of 'law', will be found in the Introduction, p. 887-193, and on p. 239 (Appendix E to chap. XIII).

It analyses and classifies actions right and wrong, first from the strictly legal, and secondly from the equitable or moral point of view. Equity is the principle of merciful consideration, that indulgent view of men's actions which makes allowance for human infirmities, looks rather to the intention than the act, and thus mitigates or corrects (ímavopooi) the strict rigour of the ' written law'.
§ 1. 'In distinguishing or analysing wrong and right acts, let us commence with the following consideration' (or, let us take the following
 didixqua, and its various senses, see note on.1 3. 9, p. 56. 'Accordingly the definition of justice and injustice has reference to two kinds of "law" ( $\$ 2$ ), and two kinds of persons ( $\$ 3$ )'. The divisions of just and unjust depend upon their relation to two kinds of law, and two kinds of persons:

§ 2. 'I distinguish therefore two kinds of law, the special and the universal; and by special, I mean that which is determined in each people or nation (separately or individually) by themselves, (lit. that which has for each class of people or nation its definition directed or referred to themselves,) by their own peculiar habits, customs, feelings, opinions, form of government, and this either unwritten or written' (see










in explanation of this, Introd. Appendix E p. 242-244); 'and by universal law, the " law of Nature"! For there is, as all are instinctively convinced, a natural and universal notion of right and wrong, quite independent of any mutual communication (association, intercourse), or compact, such as Sophocles' Antigone evidently alludes to, when she says that it is just, (right), though forbidden, (by the positive law of Creon's enactment) to bury Polynices, implying (es, on the supposition that) that this is naturally right.

> Not of today nor yet of yesterday Is this, Gut cvorlasting is its life, And none doth know what time it came to light.

And, as Empedocles says about killing living animals; for this is not right for some and not right for others, 'but this same law for all (this
 tinuously') 'over the wide ruling sky and again over the boundless earth'.

Law universal of no human birth
Pervades the sovereign sky and boundless earth.
 Eth. N. V 10 (Eth. Fud. IV 10) 1134618 seq. quoted in Introduction, p. 241. The same distinction is found supra 1 10. 3. On 'natural law' see Whewell, Elements of Morality, § 380 seq. Duke of Argyll, Reign of Law, Definitions of Law, c. 2.
mavrevovral] of a presentiment or foreboding, or as here an instinctive conviction, a sort of divination; see note on I 9.40, кarapavriver $\theta$ an.
'Aytcyórŋ... $\lambda$ éroura] Soph. Antig. 456.
'E $\mu \pi$ rodon入īs $\lambda^{\prime}$ 'jct] Empedocles, Fragm. lines 404-5. Karsten ad loco. p. 281 says, 'Scaliger ad vocabulum avin̄s in margine annotavit lect. as $\boldsymbol{\gamma} \boldsymbol{y}$
 ram recepit Bekkerus, quem plures sunt secuti, qui loci sensum parum habuerunt perspectum.' Spengel follows Becker in reading avi $\gamma^{\boldsymbol{j}} \mathrm{s}$. In illustration of the doctrine alluded to in the lines quoted, Karsten cites Diogenes Laertius, de Pythag. viIi 13, gui dict, cum vetare ämreodas
 adv. Math. IX 127, who says that the entire school of Pythagoras and
 Síxatov,




${ }^{1}+$ tousicrara infra.
Empedocles, and all the Italians, assert that we have intercourse not only with the Gods and one another, but that this extends also to irra-


 commune illud ius pertinet dué r' al日épos i. e. per aerem (cf. annot. ad v. 105) quo omnes animantes vescuntur, ठá $\mathrm{r}^{\prime}$ aùjท̂s per lucidum caelum (ut vs. 127) in quo Dii degunt'. The verse cited by Karsten in support of his interpretation of avyyis seems insufficient for its purpose; the word there seems to have no other meaning than its ordinary one, 'sunbeam or sunlight'; I doubt if aviv' could stand for 'heaven'; and perhaps it may be better to accept Bekker's reading.

On Alcidamas, see the article on the Sophistical Rhetoric, in the Cambridge Fournal of Classical and Sacred Philology, Vol. III. No. 9, p. 263 seq. and on the Meoonvcakòs $\lambda$ óyos, ib. p. 257. It is quoted again, il 23 . I. Vater, and Spengel (Artium Scriptores p. 175), cite the anonymous Scholiast, who supplies the missing quotation thus; त्रevoípous àфịne жárras ó Ocós, ovidiva doû̀oy if фívis reтoíquev. It seems to be totally inapplicable to the topic which it professes to illustrate, and if it comes from the speech at all is at all events quite out of place here. Spengel (Praef. ad Rhet. Gr. I vi) says of it, foctum non verum: but being as it is so utterly inappropriate, it can hardly have been 'manufactured' for an occasion to which it is not suitable.

Of the 'Messeniac declamation' the Schol. says that it was a $\mu$ e $\lambda_{\text {erd }}$
 Conf. Sauppe, ad Alcid. Fragm. 1, Oratores Attici ill 154. [Vahlen, der Rhetor Alkidamas, (Sitzungsberichte der Kaiserlichen Academie der Wissenschaften, Vienna, 1863, pp. 491-528, esp. p. 505). S.]
 adopted by Bekker and Spengel [ed. 1867], omitting the first dıcópootau: in
 with § I. (I do not myself see why the first deciploras need be omitted without manuscript authority.) 'In respect of the persons to whom it is referred, this division of law is twofold, for the right and wrong, justice and injustice, in acts, are referred to (severally determined by,divided in relation to) either the public, society in general, the whole community (against whom the offence is supposed to be directed), or an individual member of it. And therefore just and unjust acts are divided into two classes, according as they are directed against a single and definite individual, or the community at large. Adultery and assault are injuries or wrongs to the indi-




 кowóv.



viduals, refusal to serve, or desertion, is a wrong to the entire community or nation'. This is the basis of the distinction in Attic jurisprudence between the $\partial k x \eta$, the private civil action or suit of man against man, and the $\boldsymbol{\gamma} \rho a \phi \eta^{\prime}$, or public, criminal prosecution ; since the latter is a state offence, common to the whole community, a public prosecution may be conducted by \& Bounóperos, 'any' one that pleases', provided, that is, he be a qualified Athenian citizen. See further on this subject, in Introd. 1 13, p. 187, and Meier u. Schömann, Der Attische Process. Bk..III. § 2 Buttmann ad Dem. Med. § 9.
 that either declines to serve altogether, and so fails in his duty to society and his country, or a deserter, to a ypaprl ajrparcias or $\lambda$ ecmorafiove monxeia is here inciuded with alkta in the chass of wrongs that are the subject of a diky or $8 \times \pi /$ ldia; under the ordinary classification it exposed the offender to a ppaфf, a criminal prosecution, which, as it could be carried on by the husband or one of the near relations, might also properly be called tola. Meier u. Schömann, u. s., p. 163-4, 327 seq. In this case the state, as well as the husband, considered itself aggrieved as the guardian of public morals. In illustration of this twofold aspect of a crime, Victorius quotes Cic. in Verrem, v (III) 69, 161, quibus in rebus. hon solum filio, Verres, sed etiam reipublicae fecisti iniuriam: susceperas enim liberas non solum tibi sed etiam patriae.
§4. 'After this division, or classification, of wrong acts, some of which are directed against the entire community, and the others against one or more individuals, let us first repeat our definition of rod dzueíalat, that we may know what being treated unjustly, or suffering wrong, is; and then proceed to the rest'.

The introduction of ${ }^{2} \lambda \lambda$ ous here leads to a new distinction: a civil action between parties in their private capacity may be brought either against one or several, as when an action is brought against a club or commercial company or the partners in a firm: in either case the offence which is the subject of it is private and particular, and directed against individuals, and both of them are distinguished from state offences.
dva入aßóvres] to repeat or resume (take up again) seems to be a refer-









and the latter can readily be inferred from the former. This may be called a resumption, or, in a sense, a repetition of the preceding definition, or at all events of the same subject ; and this seems to be confirmed by the reference, in the next sentence, to this very definition. On the entire question of the voluntary character of didivqua and didula see Eth. Nice. v II (Beak.): and that of vice in general is discussed in the same work, III 7 (Beck.). The conclusion in the two chapters of the Ethics is that which is here assumed to be the fact.
§ 5. 'To be wronged then is to be unjustly treated by a voluntary agent, for to do wrong has been previously defined to be voluntary', 110. 3. And since 'doing' and 'suffering', action and passion, are aposites, and opposites fall under the same y'vos, we may infer at once that if doing wrong is voluntary, suffering wrong is voluntary too-not in the patient of course, but in the agent. Comp. Eth. Nic. V 10; 1135 a 15 ,



 $\pi \rho \sigma \sigma$ p.
86. 'Now injury, and injury against one's will, being both'of them necessary to the notion of injustice or wrong, it will be clear from what has preceded, what the injuries are (al $\beta \lambda$ áßat the injuries of different kinds which are contained in the notion); for things good and bad in themselves (as opposed to the comparative goods of $c .7$ ) have been previously analysed (in c. 6), and of things voluntary it has been stated (c. 10 § 3) that they are things done with the full knowledge' (of the special circumstances of the case. Eth. Nic. III 2).. Spengel has adopted eipyrat from MS A', for $\delta$ typ ${ }^{\prime}$ rat the Vulg., which Beaker retains.
§7. 'So that all charges (accusations, complaints of wrong) of every kind must be referred to two different distinctions, the first that of the persons offended, whether individuals and private persons, or the community at large; and the second ( 7 kail, 'or again'), in the nature of the act, whether it was done in ignorance or unintentionally (ie. under compulsion, by a superior external force), or intentionally and with full knowledge; and of these last (ikóvros cal eldóros) either with deliberate purpose, malice prepense, or under the influence of passion or excited feeling'. Biker and Stengel have omitted cai with mss $\mathbf{Q}, \mathbf{Y}^{\mathbf{P}}, \mathbf{Z}$, before

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dyvonûrros, or rather changed the order of $\eta$ kal into $\mathrm{kal}{ }^{\eta} \eta$, and substituted cal for " after dypooivros. This is certainly unnecessary, though perhaps preferable. The sense is perfectly good as I have translated, following ms A', which appears to give the vulg. reading. The first kal is 'again', the second distinction: $\bar{\eta}$ dywoourros of course corresponds to ij ixouros: dyvooûvros ทे áxoytos is quite defensible, the two don't always go together; ro dxoícon includes other things besides ignorance, 8 uros roû dxouriov roî Bif sai $8 c^{3}$ dypouay, Eth. N. III 3 init., the involuntary is due to external force or compulsion as well as to ignorance. This does not apply to dnóvror kal elbóros, because knowledge and voluntary action always do go together; voluntary action implies full knowledge of the circumstances

 on ignorance as the justification of an act. Of the two last classes of
 acts done with mpoaipegts, the deliberate purpose or enlightened and deliberate intention which alone gives them their virtuous or vicious character, and stamps them as morally good or bad ; the latter are acts due to the two impulses, here called rádos, appetite and desire (írctupia), and 'passion', any sudden and violent, especially angry, excitement ( $\theta u \mu{ }^{\prime}$ s). Acts of this latter kind cannot properly be said to be involun-
 3, IIII a 24, because though they are done in ignorance (dंyouiv прdrret), or in the temporary blindness of a fit of passion, they are not dwe to ignorance, $8 i^{\prime}{ }^{\prime} y^{\prime} y^{2} o c a y$, ignorance is in no sense the cause of them, and therefore no justification, Ib. III 2. These are in fact the four degrees of criminality of Eth. Nic. $V$ so, on which, and on this subject in general, see Introd. p. 181-9. They are afterwards reduced to the ordinary three in § 16 , infra.
§ 8. Of Aupos we shall have to speak when we come to treat of the mády or emotions in II 2-11, where the second chapter gives the analysis of opyon, as it is there called. The motives and incentives to crimes and the intentions and dispositions of the criminals have been already dealt with (in cc. 10 and 12).
8. 9. On this and the two following sections, which refer to what were subsequently called orá⿱ets, status, the legal issues of cases, and by

' But whereas it frequently happens that men when called to account for an imputed criminal act, admit the fact, but refuse to admit either the title, or name that has been applied to it' (by the prosecutor namely, who

## PHTOPIKHE A 13 § 9.





has had it registered under a certain name or title whereby it is referred to a certain class of crimes, and some particular tribunal, and has a special penalty attached to it : this is the qiáousiouri, status finitivuss nomen, or finitio, of the subsequent classifications), 'or that which is contained under the title' (that is, the description of the act which is supposed to correspond to the title, but may not actually do so): 'a man may say, for instance, that he 'took' the thing but did not 'steal' it, or that he struck the first blow but was not guilty of wanton outrage, or that there was intercourse but no adultery, or that he was guilty of theft but not of sacrilege (because the thing stolen belonged to no god), or that he had committed a trespass but not on public lands, the state domains, or had conversed (held communication) with the enemy but was guilty of no treachery-from the frequent occurrence of these and similar distinctions it becomes necessary that it should be determined what theft $i s$, and what sBpas, and what adultery, and so on; in order that if we want to prove that the fact is so, or the reverse, we may be able to set in a clear light the real merits or rights (rò dicanov) of the case'.

The distinction of the driypappa and жeph o rò driypappa I have already indicated. The one is the ordous opuxi, the name or title by which the act should be desisnated, which determines the court that it shait be tried in, and is represented in all the examples given except the case- 0 trespass: the other is the descriptron given of the act, as may be seen in the instance that illustrates it, the trespass (the name) is acknowledged, but thedtuitedecema-deecribed it as a trespass upon the public land, which is denied. This, if it corresponds to any of the $\sigma$ dioces when they were regulanty classified (on which see Introd. p. 397 seq. in Appendix E to Book III), must be the oráots of quality, mucórys, quale: but it seems certain that in Aristotle's time they had not yet been systematised and arranged under constant technical names. At all events, in this passage in the two last cases it seems that no very clear distinction is made out; or apparently intended, as appears from the mixing up together of the examples of both. Quint. III 6.49 , where Aristotle's division of orérecs is noticed, must be referred, not to this passage, but to Rhet. ill 16.6, and 17. 1.
wardfac $\pi \rho o ́ r e \rho o y]$ to be the aggressor in an affray. It is otherwise

imepyórarөau] Donaldson, New Cratylus § 174, has introduced this passage amongst his examples of a large family of verbs compounded with $d \pi h$, in which the preposition corresponds to the Latin (and English), inter (in composition), implying reciprocity, or mutual right or association, as incoowoula, inter-communion, incyapia, the right of inter-marriage, Rhet. 114.5 . It is quite true that drepyaria and inepyálcooal (see the examples in Donaldson, p. 296, and the Lexicons) are both used in this sense







$1+\pi \in \rho l$ ois libri dederiores．

for the right of inter－cultivation of land，just like drasopia the right of mutual pasturage，as on a border territory．But here drepyíacodas must mean to encroach or trespass，otherwise it is no offence ：and so the word is used by Aeschines，Ctesiph． $\mathrm{\delta}_{113}$ ，of the Locrians of Amphissa who ＇encroached upon＇the sacred soil of Crissa，by cultivating，Thucyd．I 139 ， and elsewhere；as well as incwopla and incwipery，for a similar trespass on the pasturage of some one else．The primary sense must be no doubt that of reciprocal right or occupation，the interchange of cultivation． Perhaps the notion of going backwards and forwards over a border to cultivate land may have suggested the notion of trespassing，by extending the original signification to cases where there was no such right existing， or only in the trespasser＇s imagination．

I will add some instances of similar formations which are not given in the New Cratylus．
 interlaced＇：common in Aristotle，Pol． 16 （quoted by Donaldson），c．9，
 dúvapuy itrad入árrecy meos aưrồ，Ib．VII（vi）i， 1317 a 1 ，тocei rds mo入ırelas íma入入árrect．Parva Naturalia，de longitate et brevitate vitae，c．1， 464


 Hist．Pl．I 3． 2.
 168，inurkín；Thuc．v 78，Xen．Cyr．vir 4．5，Ar．Pol．Iv（vii）6， 1327 a 39 ： inípxeroau，Thucyd．IV 120，ìmípxovro，＇were going backwards and for－ wards paying one another visits＇：＇imuouvaveiv，imuoumpia，Plat．Gorg．



§ Io．＇In all such cases the issue（the dispute，question in dispute， disputed point）turns upon this，whether namely（the accused party）is criminal and vicious or not ；for the vice and injustice（of the act）lies in the deliberate purpose or intention，and names of this kind，such as wan－ ton outrage and theft，connote（signify in addition to their direct and literal meaning）the deliberate intention or purpose；for the act of strik－ ing is not in every case（co－extensive with）wanton outrage，but only if it was done with a particular object or purpose，of insulting the other for instance，or for his own gratification（the wanton pleasure in the insult itself and in the humiliation it inflicts，ömes $\dot{\eta} \sigma \theta_{\hat{j}}$ ，Rhet．II 2．5）．Nor is





surreptitious appropriation in every case theft, but only if the theft was for the injury of the other and for the thief's own private inse and advantage. And so the same rule that applies to these cases holds in like manner of all the rest'.
$\pi e \rho l$ ov. These words, suspected from Victorius downwards, omitted by $A^{\circ}$ and three other MSS, and finally rejected by Bekker and Spengel, were probably inserted by some transcriber or commentator who was doubtful about the construction. If they are omitted, the accusative, mdera rd rouuira, will be, as Victorius says, equivalent to кard wdera, ' $i$ m all such cases'; which is thus grammatically to be explained. The accusative here follows the analogy of that class of accusatives which indicate the local seat of any 'affection' in its widest sense, and follow passive and neuter verbs and adjectives, (repфणeis roûro, Eur. Ion 541, dira кareayöres,

 themselves probably nothing but extensions of the ordinary cognate accusative; which passes first from the direct expression of the same notion as that in the verb, maivec⿴au maviay, riprectau ripqu, to the indirect and general and indefinite neuter, maivectas róbe, répreodas roûro or raita (see Wunder on Oed. R. 259), and secondly into the expression of any equivalent notion almost without limit, of which the seat of the affection is one form. This is the explanation of Kühner [ $\$ 410$ ammerk. 5 of 2nd ed.], Jelf, Gr. Gr. $\$ 545,6$, and I think probably the true one. Here therefore rávra rà rocaûra 'all such instances' are represented locally as
 turns, or legal issues: in them the points in dispute or issue are said to reside.
 there cited. One of them is Top. Z 12, 149629 , ov ydp ó $\lambda_{0} \theta_{\rho a} \lambda a \mu \beta$ á-




 $\beta \lambda a ́ \psi \eta$ àducê. Rhet. 1141,5 (implied).

тробопиа

 dem. II 3, $1221 \dot{b} 18$ seq. (where much the same thing is said as in this passage of the Rhetoric in many more words).
ispıs] See note on 1 12. 26.







oфorepoço's is 'the making a thing one's own', appropriating it to one's self, and one's own use. Plato has oberep $\{\epsilon \sigma \theta a u$, and Arist Pol viII (v) II sub fin. 1315 $\boldsymbol{b} 2$, operepporips. The meaning of the genitive davrô, which looks as if it meant 'appropriation of oneself, must be interpreted by the opposite $\beta \lambda \alpha \beta \beta \eta \not \approx \lambda \lambda o v$, with which it is contrasted. As ${ }^{0} \lambda \lambda$ ov after $\beta \lambda \alpha^{\beta} \beta_{\eta}$ is the objective genitive, injury to another, so davrou after opercofouos is the appropriation to yourself and your own benefit, appropriation for your own use and advantage.
§ in. 们 'there are, as we said', viz. in § 2. This however was not 'said' precisely as it is here; there, laws were divided into universal and special, and then the special subdivided into written (or positive law) and unwritten: and we now learn that the universal law is also unwritten, and that the special branch of the unwritten law, which must now be distinguished from the other, is to be found in that spirit of fairness and mercy and consideration, which consists in an inclination to relax the unnecessary rigour of the written code arising from its own imperfections, and at the same time to make due allowance for human errors and infrmities: all which is contained in the principles of equity, the unwritten law which prescribes such a course of conduct in matters of doubt. I have observed in the Introduction p. 244 that we are probably to extend this subordinate kind of afyoapot vópot so as to include all the prevailing feelings and opinions as to propriety and right and wrong in general which prevail in each special state (and are therefore a kind of Zsoos vómos, distinguished from the universal): of which indeed the views and feelings represented by equity form a very considerable part.
§ 12. The two kinds of unwritten law are, first the universal law, the precepts of which suggest higher considerations and higher duties than mere legal obligations to pursue virtue and avoid vice, (this is what is meant by the 'excess, or higher degree, of virtue and vice' above the legal
 tutem aut vitium inde continet, Victorius), obedience to which law is rewarded by praise and honour and gifts (the two kinds of rewards; the 'gifts' in this case being conferred of course not for their value as a pecuniary compensation, but in so far as they are signs of moral approbation) and the breach or violation of it punished by (not fine or imprisonment or any personal penalty, as the violation of a legal enactment, but by) censure, reproach, dishonour (not deprivation of civil rights, which is a legal penalty): of such precepts examples are, gratitude to benefactors, the return or repayment of obligations (differing from the feeling of gratitude),






the inclination and readiness to aid and defend one's friends, and such like. It is remarkable that amongst the precepts of the universal law which we are all bound to obey Aristotle should have here omitted the duty of interring and paying honour to the dead, so strikingly exemplified by the appeal of Antigone against Creon's tyrannous proclamation in the play to which he himself had just called our attention (comp. Eur. Suppl. 16-19, 526, 538), and still more so perhaps in the trial of the eight generals after Arginusae.

The second kind of unwritten law is that which belongs to law special, and is what is omitted by (i.e. intended to supply the deficiencies of) the written law.

Some of these universal principles of the popular morality are occasionally mentioned by the poets and other non-scientific writers: they are the most general rules of conduct which every one everywhere is supposed to recognise and obey. A short list of the most fundamental of them is given in the Rhet. ad Alex. c. I (2). 6,7 , which almost coincides with Ari-





 re фúбavras yoveís, yópovs re kowoùs 'Eג入ádos. Comp. Xen. Memor. IV 4 19-24, where the same are mentioned with one or two additions. On the unwritten law in general, see Plato, Legg. vir 793 A, B, C; he says



 фévras vópovs, and be finally classes with the unwritten law the to $\theta_{\eta}$ кal írt-
 p. 243 of the Introduction.
§ 13. On what follows, see Introd. pp. 191-2, on equity ; and the 14th chapter of the Nic. Eth. Book v. 'For equity appears to be just (or a kind of justice), and it is the supplement to the written law that is equity (equitable)'. Comp. Eth. Nic. v 14, 1137 68, ró re yàp ènceckès duxalov rudods













' This is done sometimes unintentionally, sometimes intentionally, on the part of the legislators, unintentionally when the omission escapes their notice, intentionally when they find it impossible to define or determine every thing (to provide by their definitions or determinations for all possible cases in detail), and are therefore obliged to lay down the rule as absolute (to pronounce universally), though it is not so in fact, but only true and fair for the most part'; and so fail to provide for excep-




 government, and in enforcing obedience to the laws of the state, the sovereign power assumes the office of equity in the administration of


 Magna Moralia, II I, the author, in treating of drueixeca, says, a rap o



 á í romotíns dEaduvarion dंлe入ırev. On the defects of the written law, see also Rhet. 1 1. 7.

And not only is the legislator unable to provide for all exceptional cases to general rules, but also the infinity of particular circumstances which distinguish human actions and crimes precludes the possibility of his enumerating in detail all those varieties which in justice should have different degrees of punishment apportioned to them ; as for instance, in enacting the prohibition of 'wounding with an iron instrument', to define the size and the kind of instrument in every case; for life is too short, and would fail a man in the attempt to reckon them all up in detail (on this case, which is given also by Quintilian, viI 6.8, see Introd. p. 191).
§ 14. If then it be thus impossible to determine all these particular and exceptional cases, and yet there is a necessity for legislation, the law must be expressed in general terms; so that if a man wearing an iron








ring lift his hand (to threaten) or strike another, by the written law (the letter of the law) he is liable (to the penalty), and has committed a crime, but in truth and in fact he is not guilty of a crime, and herein (roivo, in this fair interpretation of the act) lies equity'.
§ 15. 'If then equity be such as we have described it, it is plain what sort of things (i.e. charges, imputed crimes) are equitable (i.e. suitable for equitable treatment), and the reverse, and what sort of men are not equitable'. And hence to the end of the chapter we have an analysis of the popular objects of equitable treatment, and the characteristics of it, or of the absence of it , the negative which may be inferred from the positive, in these subjects.
§ 16. '(The first of these), the kinds of actions which are suitable objects of equity are such as these. Cases which ought to be treated with indulgence, and maistakes or arrors (implying ignorance in particulars, Eth. Nic III 2, on inveluntary ignorance) and mere misfortunes, accidental, which should be carefully distinguished from actual crimes, and not visited with equal penalties: the latter of the two, accidental misfortunes, are such aets as are sudden and unexpected, or beyond calculation, and do not spring from a vicious habit or evil intention; errors are such as are not accidental, in the sense of unexpected and beyond calculation, and yot do not procoed from wice (in the same sense as before); but crimes are acts that are not without calculation (i.e. deliberate), and are prompted by a vicious habit or inclination, because all wrong acts that are due to desire, proceed from this depraved will and moral judgment'. This is the usual classification of the degrees of criminality in actions; for acts, of which the mischievous consequences are purely accidental, and therefore altogether beyond our own control, and for mischievous acts committed under some mistake as to the particular circumstances of the case (not of general moral principles, for which we are responsible), as when a man is killed with a gun that was not known to be loaded, we are not responsible: what makes us responsible for an act is not only the harm or injury that is its consequence, but the deliberate intention or purpose with which it was done (and in all cases where the wrong was prompted by desire, this is sure to be an
 the circumstances of the case. In the treatment of this subject in Eth. Nic. $v$ 10, a fourth degree is introduced between the error and the crime.

> AR. I.











This is the case of a wrong act, as a homicide, done in a fit of passion 6 Ourề wound, © dopiocas: this being done by a spontaneous impulse, and not after deliberation with malice prepense (over ix apowoias), is only an dotionuc, a wrong no doubt, and a thing which ought not to have been done, but not punishable like the deliberate act; a homicide not a murder. Compare the treatment of this topic in Rhet. ad Alex. 4 (5). 9-11. It seems to have been one of the stock topics of the rhetorical books. The degrees of criminality are there, as here, only three.
§17. Rel rd rois ivopeonivous ouryumokecv] 'the indulgent considerasion of human accidents and infirmities', especially errors, in mitigation of the application of the strict letter of the law. On rad ivopeimusa, see note on 12.7, p. 34 These human errors and infirmities in the culprit should be met by a corresponding humanity on the part of the judge, the opponent, and indeed men in general. Victorius quotes 'Ter. Adelph. III 4 24, persuasit nos amor vinum adolescentia: himmanum est? ri \& ia-


$\$ 17-18$. 'And to look (in interpreting the offence and the amount of the penalty), not to the law, but to the legislator, and not to the mere words (the letter) of the law, but to the mind (the intention) of the legislator';


 \$oct dropotíngery an. Eth. Nice. v 14, 1137620 ); 'and (to look) not to the act (of the accused) but to the deliberate purpose or intention, and not to the part but to the whole' (i. e. not to take a narrow view of the criminality of the act by confining yourself to the consideration of the bare naked fact, or of some particular part or circumstance of it, which gives it a specially vicious appearance; but tc look at it as a whole, to take into account the general character of the doer and all the attendant or surrounding circumstances which will throw light upon the intention of it, the purpose with which it was done), 'and not merely to the present character of the offender but to the constant or usual character that he bore (to what sort of man he was, always or usually)'.





 є́тteıкès í $\boldsymbol{\chi}$ úy．

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§ 18．＂And to remember rather the good than the ill treatment you may have received，and the benefits that you have received rather than those that you have conferred＇．
 letter of the law，requires an even balance of benefits on both sides，on the reciprocal（retaliatory，tit for tat，par pari）principle，rd dertrerovoós， Eth．N．V8．－inteixeca，merciful indulgent consideration，remembers only the benefits and forgets the injuries；remembers kindnesses received， forgets those that it has bestowed．did vopiloo ròv pìv ei ma0ivra deiv


 Dem．de Cor．p．316．Victorius．

кal rod déxco日as dèmov́pevov к．r．入．］＇and to put up with injury or in－ justice＇，to endure it without retaliation，＇and，the disposition or inclina－ tion，to have a matter decided rather by word than deed＇．

入óre крivec⿴at］to decide a dispute by an amicable settlement，by talk－ ing the matter over with the opposite party，or reasoning with him，rather than proceed $\boldsymbol{i}^{\rho} y \varphi$ ，appeal，that is，to the ultima ratio，the voie $d x$ fait， and actually fight out the quarrel：or（in the case to which Victorius would confine it，that of a quarrel between two neighbouring states）an appeal to arms．＇Omnia prius consilio experivi quam armis sapientem decet．Ter．Eun．Iv 7．19．Apoll．Rhod．III 185．＇Victorius．
§ 19．＇Or again＇－a particular case of the same kind of general dispo－ sition－＇to be more inclined to refer a matter to arbitration than to a court of law：for the arbitrator always takes the equitable view of the case，whereas the judge looks to the law＇（the letter，or literal interpreta－ tion of the law，which he is bound by oath strictly to carry out and inter－ pret to the best of his judgment）．＇In fact the very motive or intention of the invention of arbitration（the introduction of it into jurisprudence and social relations in general）was that equity should prevail＇．
suopiotee］note on eip
＇And so let this manner＇（this rough，hasty，popular sketch or outline） ＇of describing（marking out the boundartes in detail，determining the boundaries of the whole and the several parts，defining，analysing，



describing, dropi(fectas) equity suffice' for the occasion; for the use, that is, of the rhetorician, who requires no scientific treatment of the subject.

CHAP. XIV.
This chapter, a continuation of the preceding, contains the application of the 'common topic' of degree, 'greater and less', to the offences or crimes which formed the subject of the other.
§ I. 'The magnitude of a wrong varies with the degree of the injustice that prompts it'. There is here the same distinction taken between difin $\mu a$, a wrong done-an abstract wrong, regarded independently of the motive or intention-and the confirmed habit (the bad $E(5)$ ), depraved will and disposition implied in douxia. The deliberate purpose, mpoaiperus, is the measure of moral worth, and distinguishes virtue from





'And therefore (sometimes) the smallest things are greatest', acts apparently most trifing are sometimes indicative of the worst intentions and dispositions, 'as is exemplified in Callistratus' charge against Melanopus, that he cheated the temple-builders of three consecrated half-obols'. Such a charge subjected the offender to a ypaфो̀ lepây xpŋuáruy, Dem. de Fals. Leg. § 335 [ $=$ p. 435 § 293]. The exact nature of the offence imputed to Melanopus cannot be ascertained : it was probably some fraud (possibly an error construed as a crime,) in the settlement of accounts between himself and the persons charged with the building or restoration of a temple, the naoronoi.

The word noomocol appears to be an $\AA \pi a \xi$ 入eyoneyoy. Stephens, Thesanrus s. v., gives no other example. On the same analogy are formed recxo-



 in line 24, is referred by Stahr (erroneously however) to this office of curator of sacred buildings, where he translates it 'tempel-baumeister'.

The magnitude of the vice is argued in this case from the trifling amount of the profit; if a man would commit so great a sin as sacrilege for three halfpence, how great must be the depravity of his character and intentions. Melanopus and Callistratus, as Victorius notes, are mentioned together as ambassadors to Thebes by Xenoph., Hellen. vi 2 and 3; and by Plutarch, Vit. Demosth. (p. 851 F), represented as political rivals and opponents. On Callistratus, see note on I 7.13.
rape入oyloaro] This verb has two different applications in conformity
 closely connected and often identified, are at all events distinguishable;




(1) 'reasoning' and (2) 'calculation'; the sapá, which conveys the imputation of fraud (napá, amiss, awry, wrong), being common to both. Here (as in Dem. c. Aphob. $a$ ', p. 822. 25, where it stands for simple 'misreckoning', and Isocr. Panath. § 243, for 'cheating', 'fraudulent miscalculation' in accounts) it has the latter sense. Elsewhere, and usually, (at all events in Aristotle, as Rhet. I 9. 29, II 23. 3; 25. 10 bis, III 12. 4, et passim,) it denotes 'wrong, fallacious, false, rensoning' a 'fallacy' in argument. Eastly (cpa means consecrated to sacred uses; devoted to the service of the gods or religion'.
' In the case of justice, the opposite is true'. That is, the magnitude or strength of the just and virtuous disposition, inclination, resolution, is shewn, not now in the trifing character of the temptation or motive by which it is led astray, but in the greatness of the temptation which it withstands. 'Ut qui ingentem vim auri, apad se nullo teste depositam, cum infitiari impune possit, reddidit, iustior sit necesse est quam si idem in exigua pecunia fecit.' Victorius. Injustice varies inversely with the magnitude of the profit or advantage to be derived from it, the less the temptation the greater the $\sin$; justice directly, the greater the profit and the consequent temptation to do wrong, the higher the virtue in foregoing it : as, the greater the deposit, the greater the justice in restoring it.
'The reason of this' (raûra is rò rd ènéxcora $\mu$ '́yıora elvas) 'is, that (the greater crime) is virtually latent (in the less); for one who could steal (lit. stole) three half-obols consecrated to religious uses would be capable of any other iniquity whatsoever'. The divapus, the indefinite latent capacity of vice, is tacitly opposed to the dvipyeca, any possible enormity, to which it may, or may not, be developed. If a man will commit a crime which may be interpreted as sacrilege for such a trifie as three half-obols, he is plainly 'capable' of sacrilege in any degree of atrocity, where the profit and temptation are greater.

On the subject of divapus and ivíycia, physical, moral, and metaphysical, the fundamental and all-pervading antithesis of the Aristotelian Philosophy, a commentary on Rhetoric is not the place to enter. It is explained by Trendelenburg, Comm. on de Anima, II 1, Elem. Log. Arist. § 6, p. 6r. Divapus is treated in Metaph. © 1-5, and dvípyeca, ib. 6-9, on which consult Bonitr's Commentary. Grant, Essays on Ethics, Essay Iv, pp. 181-201, 1st [or 2nd] ed., gives a full and clear account of the relation between them, and the doctrine in general, especially in its application to Moral Philosophy. Aristotle himself nowhere gives a complete and intelligible description of this antithesis and its bearings, but assumes the knowledge of it in all his writings.
' Now sometimes the degree of crime, the comparative criminality, may be determined in this way; in other cases it is decided, or estimated, by the (actual amount of the) harm or injury done'. is 'from', means







${ }^{2}$ Coniecit F. Portus. xalerdv rdip nal doivarov infra cum libris.
that the decision or estimate of the amount of criminality proceeds or is derived from the comparison of the injury or consequences resulting from the two acts.
§ 2. 'And when there is no punishment (in use) equal or adequate (to the offence), but any one (that exists or can be devised) is too slight for

'And where the mischief done is incurable : for it is hard (or grievous), or indeed impossible'. To fill up the sense either repeat iáotau, 'to find any adequate remedy or compensation'; or, from ovi $\mu \boldsymbol{\eta} \boldsymbol{i \sigma \eta}$ remepla, 'to devise any adequate punishment'. Otherwise it may be supposed (though it is unnecessary) that Aristotle wrote doúvaroy, having dujxavov or some similar adjective in his mind, meaning 'a helpless, hopeless, irremediable' case.
'And again crimes for which no legal redress is to be obtained by the injured party : for such a wrong is incurable : because 'justice' (trial and sentence) and punishment are so many remedies'. On this doctrine of
 1 10. 17, and Introd. p. 232. Cf. Ar. Eth. Nic. II 2, 11046 16, $\mu \eta$ viours


'And if (in consequence of the wrong done) the sufferer and the victim of the wrong inflicted some heavy punishment on himself; for the perpetrator of the act deserves a still severer punishment (than that which he thus unintentionally brought upon his victim): as Sophocles, in pleading the cause of Euctemon-after he had killed himself in consequence of the outrage he had sustained-said that he would not lay the penalty at a less amount than the sufferer had estimated it at for himself;, i. e. Euctemon by his suicide had virtually fixed the penalty of the offence at death.
§3. diкacos ко入aofival] On this idiomatic usage of diкacos, and similar constructions-in which the adjective, instead of being expressed impersonally in the neuter, as dixatóv lort, is attracted as it were to the subject of the sentence-especially with $\delta \bar{\eta} \lambda o s$ and its compounds, фavepós, redoios, and such like, see Matth. Gr. Gr. § 297, comp. 549. 5. It is to be observed that the case of dixatos is peculiar; this takes the infinitive, whereas all the rest are construed with the participle. To Matthiae's
 vopí̧oper elval roís reias 廿óyov dreveykeiv; some Platonic examples in

Stallbaum's note on Gorg. 448 D ; Soph. Aj. 634, крeírowy ydp "Acoq

 1241, Zev̀s yèioios j̀ $\mu v v^{\prime} \mu e v o s:$ Ar. Eth. Nic. IV 7, 1123 b34, ye入oíos фai-


 at the close of the Peloponnesian war. He was one of the ten mpóßoviot, Rhet. III 18.6, appointed by the Athenians, after the Sicilian disaster in 413 B.C., to devise measures for the public safety, Thuc. vili 1, Grote's Hist. Gr. Pt. II, ch. 61, Vol. viI, p. 499, and note : and afterwards one of the thirty tyrants, Xen. Hellen. II 3. 2. This Sophocles is doubtless the same who is again mentioned, Rhet. III 15.3. He is there described as an old man, which agrees with the statement of Thucydides, u. s., that the
 against him (Rhet. 1. c.) was probably connected with his conduct as a member of ' the thirty'.
 be brought before an Athenian law-court, one point to be considered in the judgment was the $\boldsymbol{r i \mu \eta \mu a}$ or estimate, assessment, either of the kind or amount of the penalty in criminal prosecutions, or of the damages in civil actions. This gives rise to the division of all legal processes into divenes driunroc and rimprol. In the former of these the penalty and damages are already fixed by law or by previous private arrangement (C. R. Kennedy), and are therefore 'unassessable' by the judges; in the rıu $\quad$ rol dywives of all kinds, the amount of the damages or penalty to be awarded is at the discretion of the judges, who $\tau \uparrow \mu \omega ิ \sigma \nu$, , estimate, assess, or fix the amount. This is the explanation of Harpocration, and Ulpian, followed by Meier \& Schömann, Attischer Process, p. 171 note, Böckh Publ. Econ. Bk. III, c. 11 (p. 371 Engl. Transl.), and Hermann Pol. Antiq. § 143.7-12. Suidas, and other ancient writers, invert this distinction, and make ramprot àweves the cases in which the penalty is already fixed, and dंтín \& Schömann, u. s., p. 171 note.

On the whole subject see Meier \& Schömann u.s. et seq. and MrC. R. Kennedy's article in Smith's Dict. Antiq. p. 970 (ist ed.) [p. 1131, 2nd ed. and cf. note on Dem. Select Private Orations, Part II, Or. 55 § 18. s.]

The accuser in a criminal process, where the penalty was not already fixed by law, himself in the first instance assessed its amount, which the judges confirmed or not as they thought proper. The first was called т $\mu \tilde{\pi} \sigma \theta a t$, the second $\tau<\mu \hat{a} \nu$, in accordance with the usual distinction of the active and middle voice, as marking by their contrasted significations the functions of the judge and the parties in the case, dmaj̧eck and dıcásecoar, крivetv and крive $\begin{aligned} & \text { act, } \& c \text {. ; the one administering justice and deciding the }\end{aligned}$ question, whilst the others 'get this done for them' by the intervention of another. Aristotle has here neglected this ordinary distinction, for



is concerned, the reason might be, that the accuser is supposed to represent the estimate by the deceased of his own wrongs as of equal authority with a judicial decision : but this will not apply to rumjoetv, Sophocies' own estimate. At the same time as rмáy and rimpma may denote an 'estimate' in general, the use of the verb here must be regarded rather as a departure from ordinary usage, than as a solecism, or violation of the laws of the language.

On the ountropor, see Schneider's note on Pol. vi 5. 10, vol. 11, p. 391, and addenda, pp. 502-4. ouvrropêy here is not technical: there is no reason to suppose that it denotes one of the public ounfropor, appointed by the state.

Lastly, the entire topic, cal el $\dot{\delta}$ mabiy_driunger, is thus illustrated by Schrader: 'Sexti Tarquinii flagitium ideo maius est, quod illius foeditate inducta Lucretia sibi ipsi vim intulitu. (This is suggested by Victorius.) Et Appii Claudii decemviri sceleratum de L. Virginii filia iudicium eo sceleratius est, quoniam pater illo commotus filiam interfecit (Liv. III 48).'
§ 4 'And any crime that is unique, or the first of its class (that has been committed), or has been seldom paralleled'. These three cases of especial prominence have been already applied to acts as topics of praise, E9.38. See in illustration the referenees there given.
'And the frequent commission of the same offence magnifies it': because this shews the depraved habit, or confirmed state, the $\boldsymbol{e} \xi \mathrm{cs}$ which constitutes vice. 'Nec enim is casu aut affectu, sed habitu et pravitate animi, delinquit.' Schrader.
'And any crime for which any checks and preventives or penalties have been sought and found (invented or discovered), as, for instance, at Argos a penalty is incurred by any one on whose account a law has been enacted (i.e. one of the colurumol, or (if I may coin a word for the
 supply d' $\eta \mu \mu \omega_{n} \theta_{\eta}$ av. This same topic has been alroady employed in the opposite sense, to heighten the praise due to an action, c.9838. Schra-



 a special board of officers for the control of the corn-market signalizes the special rascality of the dealers.
§ 5. 'And the more brutal the crime is, the worse'; that is, the nearer approach it makes to the conduct and instincts of a mere animal or brute, who is incapable of virtue and self-control ; and the more cruel, savage, 'inhuman' it is, more degraded below the level of humanity.

There are three degrees in the scale of natures, moral and intellectual, (1) the beast, (2) the man, and (3) the god. Thus, Pol. 1 2, 1253 a 27, it is

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said of a man that is incapable of society, or is in want of nothing, being all-sufficient to himself, that he is it Anpiov if $\theta$ eós: in respect of this complete independence he is either below or above all the various wants, instincts, affections, desires, aims, and espirations that characterize humanity. Precisely the same view appears in the little disquisition on Onpoórys at the opening of Book vil of the Nicom. Ethics, except that here the distinction between the three natures is made to rest solely upon intellectual and moral virtue: this is human, whereas the beast and the god are alike incapable of it, the beast, from the defects already stated, being below the human standard, the gods above it.

On this superiority of the gods to the practice of moral or human virtue and their entire independence of it, see Eth. Nic. x 8. A fine fragment of Cicero's lost dialogue de Philosophia sive Hortensixs, quoted by Augustine, de Trinitate XIV c. $n$, is manifestly borrowed, not translated, from this passage of Aristotle. It is printed in Nobbe's edition of Cicero, p. 1171 fragm. 35.

Here therefore 'brutality' consists in the absence of all capacity for virtue, moral and intellectual, and is consequently opposed to riv vixip
 extremely rate amongst mankind. (This statement is qualified in Pol. III

 'barbarians'. 'Barbarous' and 'barbarity' in fact express pretty nearly the same notion of character.) Again, the absence of all moderation in the indulgence of our desires and emotions and general want of selfcontrol is characteristic of the 'brutal' nature; Ib. c. 6, 1148 b 34, rò $\mu \mathrm{iv}$

 кai xa入erórys al miv Onpuibecs al di nooquaréders clocv. And these are then


 general; that which distinguishes animals from plants. de Anima.) Brutal 'tastes' or instincts are illustrated a little earlier in the same chapter, 1048620 seq . Brotal (or animal) pleasures are those which we have in common with the lower animals, the pleasures of feeling and taste ; in the over-indulgence of which, this form of bestiality lies, III 13, 1118 a 23-b4. Gaisford refers to Magna Moralia II 5 init., Zort $8 i$ j


 ofoy ijpouki ris kal Oila : expressions directly taken from the passages of Eth. N. vil just quoted. Finally, the instinctive opégres (Oumós and druvuia) belong to this animal part of our nature, and are therefore not always under our control ; Pol. III 16, 1267 a 28 ; where the divine part of our nature, the controlling, regulating, intelligent vous, is contrasted with the lower instincts of the brute elements of our nature, the emotional and appetitive.




'And when it arises from or is due to malice aforethought'. $\pi \rho o{ }^{2}{ }^{\prime}$ is the 'forethought', the deliberate vicious purpose which constitutes 'malice prepense', aggravates a wrong act in proportion to its intensity and the length of time during which the evil intent has been nursed; and converts an act otherwise innocent into a crime. The $\pi p o v o i a$ is that which distinguishes murder from homicide. It is in fact the moral apoaiperts, distinctive of vice and virtue, of which an account has been already given in the first note on this chapter. See the passage of Eth. Nic. v ro, there quoted. Comp. Rhet. I 13.1a There ik rpovoias is identified with the

 state of violent excitement, under the impulse of overpowering passion, are considered as involuntary, and exempted from the penalty of crimes) aúk in mpovoias xpivera. The case quoted by Schrader from Magna Moralia 1 17, of a woman who had caused the death of her lover by a love-potion which she had sent him only with the view of inflaming his passion, and was consequently acquitted by the court of Areopagus on the charge of murder, because the act was done without deliberate male-
 does not amount to a crime), in which the mischief is done without due knowledge of the circumstances of the case. In Demosth. c. Aristocr. p. 634, there is a similar distinction between two kinds of indpoфovia: in one sense the name is applied $i^{\prime} \pi^{\prime}$ áxovaiф фóvp, and to acts of this kind 'a wise and humane law', vó apply the name of murder; from this are immediately afterwards distinguished ol ék проwoias (фová̛oavres). Aeschines c. Ctesiph. § 212, einqфe
 ík $\pi$ povoias фóvovy. Compare Cic. de Off. 1 8, sub fin. Sed in omeri iniustitia permultum interest utrum perturbatione aliqua animi, quae plerumque brevis est et ad tempus, an consulto et cogitata fiat iniuria. Loviora enim sunt quae repentino aliguo motu accidunt quam ea quae meditata ac praeparata inferuntur.
'And any act, or wrong done, which inspires the hearers rather with terror than compassion'. An act which tends to consequences which inspire terror, the stronger emotion, in those who may be exposed to the like treatment, must plainly be more striking in its character and important in its social effects, more noxious and prejudicial, and worse in general, than one which excites mere pity or sympathy with the sufferer, without raising alarm on account of what may follow to oneself. That which excites terror must be terrible; formidable and dangerous to the individual or society. An atrocious crime makes men tremble, and fear expels pity; the stronger emotion overpowers the weaker. Comp. Rhet. II 8.5 and 12, 'Amasis shed no tears when he saw his son led away to


death，but wept when his friends asked an alms＇：тoûto $\mu i \boldsymbol{\gamma}$ yàp đौcetvóv，
 kal по入入ákıs $\tau \bar{\varphi}$ ivavriч $\chi$ р Constabat eos qui concidentem vulneribus Gn．Pompeium vidissent，quum in illo ipso acerbissimo miserrimoque spectaculo sibi timerent quod se classe hostium circumfusos viderent，nihil tum aliud egisse nisi ut remiges horlarentur，et ut salutem adipiscerentur fuga：postenquam Tyrum venissent tum affictari lamentarique coepisse．
＇And the rhetorical artifices or exaggerations＇（such as avifjorets， denobrets，rhetorical tricks for giving extra importance and interest to a subject；or for magnifying，exaggerating，intensifying the atrocity， enormity，of a crime），＇for instance，that the accused（whose crime you desire to magnify）has subverted many principles（or obligations）of justice at once，or transgressed them ；for instance，oaths，the right hand
 faith，all the laws of intermarriage，and the rest；for this is an excess of many crimes over the one which has really been committed＇；or＇a multiplication of one crime into many＇．

The exaggeration of this rhetorical fallacy lies in the enumeration，and apparent accumulation，of offences by division of the single offence into its parts，or the repetition－as in the instance－of the same offence under different names，which seems thus to swell its bulk and magnify its enor－ mity．This is the reverse application of the same rhetorical artifice of exaggeration as has been already referred to in 17.31 （see note），the me－ thods of onaipeots els rd mépy，ouvrt⿴ívat，and inouкодонкíy applied to the ＇amplification＇of good things；the object and use of them being stated

dvaupeiv，＇to take up，so as to remove，annul，or destroy＇；here tollcre， subverterc．The simple verb，as well as the phrase deapeiv ir mígov－ comp．Lat．de medio，e medio tollere（Cic．，Liv．）is common in Demosth．， Aesch．and the Orators，and occurs occasionally in other writers，as Plato



Gaisford illustrates the various forms of pledges or guarantees here mentioned by a corresponding passage in Arist．Acharn．306，$\pi \boldsymbol{\pi}^{\circ} 8^{\circ} \boldsymbol{\%}^{\circ}$


iтıуадia，ius connubii，the right of intermarriage between different states，together with the rules and obligations which it entails，which are here in question．On the＇reciprocal＇eint，＇inter＇，see note on inepyára－ $\sigma$ oai I 13．9，p． 251.
§ 6．nal rò doraî日a（dòsciv）of к．r．र．］＇and to commit a crime in the very place where offenders are punished＇is an aggravation of the crimi－ nality；＇which is the case with perjurers or false witnesses：for where would a man not commit a crime if he is ready to do it even in the very court of justice？＇This is the argumentum a fortiori；the rule，omre





maius continet in se minus. ' Hinc P. Clodii culpam amplificavit Cicero, cum insidiis Gn. Magnum per servum tollere eum voluisse pro Milone dicens criminatus est: Insidiator erat in foro collocatus, atque in vestibulo ipso senatus' [pro Milone \& 19], Victorius. (Victorius has forgotten the still more striking Etiam in senatum venit, \&c. of the first speech against Catiline, $\boldsymbol{\$} 2$.) The sanctity of the place converts theft into sacrilege. The atrocity of the murder of 'Zacharias the son of Barachias' was heightened by the circumstance of its occurrence 'between the temple and the altar' (Matth. xxiii. 35).
' Another aggravation of an offence is, where it is attended by disgrace (to the victim); and this in proportion to its amount ( $\mu$ àıora)'. This, together with the wantonness, the unprovoked character of the aggression, is what converts a mere assault, alkia, into an act of $\boldsymbol{i} \beta p t s$, a wanton outrage. See Rhet. II 2. 5, definition of ïpıs, and I 13.10; also note on I 12.26, p. 239. The wound inflicted on a man's pride and sense of dignity, the injury to his feelings and honour, constitute a great aggra-



 фpovtitic.
 has been his benefactor; for his offence is thereby multiplied; in that he not only does what is wrong (positive wrong, a sin of commission), but also fails, omits, to do what is right (negative wrong, a sin of omission). The last explanatory clause is thus illustrated by Victorius from Cicero's criticism of the third Stoic Paradox, § 25 ört b̈ra rà duaprifuara каi rà каторөо'мara. Illud tamen interest quod in servo necando, si adsit iniuria, semel peccatur; in patris vita violanda multa peccantur; violatur is qui procreavit; is qui aluit: is qui erudivit; is qui in sede ac domo atque in republica collocavit: multitudine peccatorum praestat (ілгер́́xet), eoque poena maiore dignus est.
§ 7. 'And an offence against the unwritten laws of right' (is worse than the violation of a written or positive law): 'because it is indicative of a better character and disposition, of a higher degree of virtue, to do right without compulsion'. (Any external force destroys the voluntary character of an act, and therefore its virtue. And if this voluntary obedience to the unwritten law implies a more virtuous disposition than that which is enforced by the positive enactments which have power to compel it, then the opposite is true, an act of disobedience to the unwritten law is a worse offence, and a sign of a more vicious disposition,
than the violation of the other.) 'Now the written laws are compulsory, the unwritten are not'.
' From another point of view', (in another way of arguing or looking at the case; Rhetoric oundop'Scras rdvavila, I \& 12) the crime is worse 'if it be a breach of the written law: for (it may be argued) if a man does wrong when it is dangerous (fearful) and liable to penalty, (a fortion) he would do it when it is not'. This again is by the rule omne maius continet in se meinus; the greater and more powerful inclination to wrong necessarily involves the less.

фoBepd] acts fearful, alarming, formidable, from the probable consequences. Supply the cogn. accus. domoinara.
inctijuca] Note on I 4.9 , inidogov, p. 66.
e'ipyral] 'so much for', 'enough of, 'no more of': note on elpfotew, 111.29.

## CHAP. XV.

The general sense and connexion of the contents of this chapter upon the ärexvor riorets of the practice of Rhetoric, those adjuncts of proof and external supports of the case, which consist in the various kinds of evidence which can be adduced by the pleader in confirmation of his statements and argumeats, have been already given in the Introduction to this Commentary, pp. 193-207, to which I now refer and which I need not here repeat. They are called 'unartistic' or 'inartificial' because they are not due to the artist's inventive skill, but are supplied to him from the outside, as it were, of his art; and all that he has to do is to use them to the best advantage. Rhet. 1 2.2. It is this distinction of two kinds of proof or modes of persuasion which explains the application of the term inventio by the Latin rhetoricians to that part of the art to which Aristotle first gave the name of Irrexvor $\pi$ locels, and the $t$ tle of one of Cicero's rhetorical treatises, the de Inventione. The author himself, l. c., applies the term eipein to the irrexvor wioress.

In commenting therefore upon this chapter we shall have to occupy ourselves principally with the details of language, argument, and allusion, and so fill up the outline which has been sketched out in the Introduction.
§ I. 'Next to the subjects already discussed' (the \%rexvor wlorens, the logical or dialectical proofs of Rhetoric and their topics in cc. 4-14), - we have to run over (give a hasty sketch, or summary Cf) what are called the unartistic proofs, or modes of persuasion, because' (ydip, this is the appropriate place for them, because we have just been engaged upon the



 тоита каі а̀тотре́тоута каі катทуоройүта каі аंто-


 forensic branch of Rhetoric, and 'these are peculiar to law proceedings (or forensic practice). On the treatment of these droxpoo slovens by other writers on the subject see Introd. 205-207.
sep die tồ drixuov...dridpaquiun] See note on I 9 14; on the redundant use of $\pi$ ep l, $\mathbf{~ i n i t i p , ~ \& c . ~}$
[xópevoì] with genit, partitive, 'holding, hanging, on by (lit. to a part of,)', 'clinging to', 'connected with', 'in succession to', 'following'. Very frequent in Herodotus.
drodpapeit] 'to run over', commonly in its literal signification takes the accusative, sometimes the dative. Here we may suppose that rept riv


 xv I are the only two instances that are given by the Lexicons of the metaphorical sense in which it occurs here. [Cf., however, Pol. III 15,
 totelicus. s.] Compare a similar use of dneedeie of 'pursuing an inquiry' or 'going over, reviewing, a subject'. Pol. I 13, 1260 b 12, dy roes weal rds
 $\phi$ opal к.r.र. et passim.
 sora. The verbal adjective can be resolved into di with an indefinite object, with which the participle is made to 'agree'. Demosth. Olynth.
 clopipouras ifidorras. Other examples in Match Gr. Gr. § 447.4

It appears from the addition of xporpitioura and droopitroura that the first of the äroxvor riorece, the laws, are not confined to forensic practice, but can also be used by the deliberative orator in addressing a public assembly: and this is true also of some kinds of witnesses, viz. the 'authorities' appealed to in support of a statement, which may be as serviceable in enforcing considerations of public policy, the oumpipon
 see § 16. The original statement therefore of § x , local ramp aiken rwy дuxavкciv, requires modification.
 view of the case'. Comp. infr. § 12.
§ 5. With ört here, and in the following topics, $\lambda_{\text {erríap or }}$ or something similar must be supplied from xpyoriov, §§3-4.


















 но́aare. adv. Lept. 493. I. Ar. Pol. III 16, 1287 a 25, àdè $\mu \dot{\eta} \nu$ ö́ra $\gamma \in \mu \dot{\eta}$

 kal drourcîy rovs dapoyras, which explains the meaning and object of the oath.

The form of the oath is found in Pollux vill $10\left[\begin{array}{c}\circ \\ \text { 8' öpros fiy rêt }\end{array}\right.$

 p. 128 ; comp. p. 135.
 'that the judges are not to employ, i. e. to enforce, to its full extent, in its strict and literal interpretation, the rigour of the written statute'.
§6. 'And that equity and the universal law are constant and unchangeable, like the laws of nature whose operation is uniform; to which the appeal is made in Sophocles' Antigone (line 450 seq.) ; for her defence is, that the burial (of her brother) was indeed against Creon's law, but not against that which is unwritten'. ovid o кousos ( $\mu$ eraßáa $\lambda$ et).
 something real, genuine, and salutary, but this sham, apparent justice (the rigorous interpretation) is not. And therefore the written law, the letter of the statute, is not ; because it sometimes-and this is one of the cases-does not do the proper work of the law', which is to do substantial, not merely apparent and fallacious justice, that which seems to be,







but is not justice. On the superiority of natural justice to positive enactments, see Cicero, de Legg. 1 15, referred to in Introd. p. 194
'And we may further argue that the judge is like an assayer of coin and appointed for the purpose of distinguishing base justice from gекжіме'.
 ruผఱ今 ко $\lambda \lambda \nu \beta$ wral (money-changers, who change large coin for small,
 Pierson's note, who refers to the pseudo-Platonic dialogue repl dperijs

 Elolv. Thas oivy тevirove kadeís; 'Appupopoíponas. Pollux, viI \& 170 . To the same family of words belong проßатори́ㅆㅇ Agam. 768 (see Blomfield's Glossary) a 'discerner of theftock, one that can distinguish the several sheep of a flock; hence 'a judge of character'; gowoyospav in the same metaphorical sense, Aesch. Fragm. Tox. 224 Dind. Ci. фvotopmojus, Ar. de Gen. Anim. IV 3. 32, and on фvocopmonovii, as an art (the study of character from the indications of the features and other external peculiarities), see Anal. Pr. II 27, 70 б 7-38; and the treatise фuбcopmponxá, printed with Aristotle's works, Bekk. Vol. II. p. 805. Compare Cic. de Fato, 5. 10 (quoted in Blomfield's note, as 'De Nat. Deor. I 8', Quids Socratem nonne legimus, quemadmodum notarit Zopyrus, physiognomon, qui se profitebatur hominum mores naturasque ex corpore ocwlis vultw fronte pernoscere? Compare, lastly, the simple yrímov, Xen. Memor. 14.5 (ap. Blomfield), of the tongue as distinguishing between sweet and bitter, and Agam. IOg9, Ocoфároy ymojpeov äxpos.

8 8. See Introd. p. 194 Correct there the second line of the quotation, Hor. I Ep. 16, 52, which should be, tw nihil admittes in to formidive poemae: ' $t w$ ' is addressed to men in general, and therefore the second line speaks as generally as the first. Schrader appears to refer

 ridos, is equally applicable.
§ 9 . Or if the (written) law (which is against us) chance (nou) to be contradictory, either to any other law of repute, or to itself; as, for example, in some cases one law enacts the validity of all contracts whatsoever, whilst the other (of the two opposite laws) forbids the contracting of any engagement contrary to the law (except those that the law allows)'. On this Victorius, 'Exemplum hoc est legis legi repugnantis; avruopia






autem id vocatur. Alterius vero exemplum, cum lex aliqua secum ipsa discordat, omisit, ut rei sua vi satis notae'.
§ 10. This very elliptical sentence must apparently be thus filled up.
 to, in such a way as to...) orpéфetv (aướv) кai ópầ к.r.ג. ' and if the law (which we have to interpret) be ambiguous, (we must deal with it, treat it, or interpret it) in such a way as to wrest (twist) it (in either direction according as it suits our purpose) and to see to which of the two constructions either strict justice (the letter of the law) or expediency, i. e. equity, (whichever of the two we are arguing for) will adapt itself, and then employ that'. rò $\sigma v \mu \phi$ ipoy here stands for 'equity', because by accommodating itself to the varying circumstances of particular cases it is more 'generally serviceable' than the stiff unbending letter of the law. dyoyf (roû עó $\mu \mathbf{0}$ ) 'leading', 'guiding' of the law. This 'leading of the law' represents the law itself as leading those who have to use it by the 'interpretation' or 'construction' that may be put upon it in one or another direction, and corresponds exactly to ductus in the phrase ductus litterarum. The following passage of the Politics, vi (IV) 5, 12926 12, throws light upon this use of dyorin, and as they mutually illustrate one another




 given to, or interpretation put upon the law in the actual practice of the society. The difference which sometimes arises between the theory of the constitution as laid down in the laws, and the actual administration and conduct of the government, is accounted for, first, by the character and habits of the people, either natural to them or as cultivated and formed by education; and secondly, by the 'direction' they give to, or the 'interpretation' they put upon, the actually existing laws, in accordance with the character which they wish to give to the practical administration of the government. Compare кaf avirov̀s äyougt rìv molıreiay, c. II, 1296 a 26, and Thuc. II 65, of Pericles' direction of the state policy, kal ouk


 22, 29. Comp. note on III 5.4
§ 12. The highly condensed contents of this section, which gives the other side of the foregoing arguments for the treatment of laws, shewing




 öтı Є้̇ таîs ál $\lambda \lambda$ gıs $\tau \in ́ \chi \nu a ı s ~ o v ̉ ~ \lambda v \sigma ı \tau \epsilon \lambda \epsilon i ̂ ~ \pi \alpha \rho a \sigma o \phi i ́-~$



 $\mu \alpha \rho \tau u ́ \rho \omega \nu, \mu a ́ \rho \tau \nu \rho \epsilon ́ s ~ \epsilon i \sigma \iota ~ \delta \iota \tau \tau o i ́, ~ o i ̀ ~ \mu \epsilon ̀ \nu ~ \pi a \lambda \alpha \iota o i ̀ ~ o i ̀ ~ \delta \grave{~}$ тоо́бфато，каi тои́т $\omega \nu$ oì $\mu \grave{\epsilon} \nu \mu \epsilon \tau \epsilon ́ \chi o \nu \tau \epsilon \varsigma ~ т о и ̆ ~ к ı \nu-~$

how to argue when the written law is in our favour，have been developed in extenso in the Introd．p．195－6，and we may now proceed to the details．


тaparoфi乡ecधat］＇to attempt to outdo（to go beyond，mapá）the physi－ cian（note the genceric róy；one of the two uses of the definite article，to mark the member of a class）in skill and subtlety，ingenuity and clever－ ness＇．The proverb，＇to be wiser than your physician＇，is applied to locôrat who pretend to rival the professors，rexvitac or coфoi，men of spe－ cial knowledge，skill，and experience in any art or science．In Athen． p． 137 F，quoted by Victorius，the verb stands for＇over refining＇in the







 Aphor． 58 （Vol．I．p．816，ed．Ellis and Spedding），quotes this maxim as proverbial，＇licet enim non male dictum sit，neminem oportere legibus esse sapientiorem；＇on which Ellis has this note，＇Bacon refers perhaps to D＇Argentre＇s maxim，Stulta videtur sapientia quae lege vult sapien－ tior videri．In the passage from which these words are taken he is condemning the presumption of judges who depart from the text on the pretence of equity－which is precisely what the advocate is supposed to be doing here．＇
§ 13．ס九copiб⿴囗］See on I II．29，p． 224




apiows фаvepai] 'decisions, judgments, published, or notorious'. Quint. v ir. 36, Adhibetur extrinsecus in causam et auctoritas. Haec secuti Graecos, a quibus кpiocts dicuntur, iudicia aut iudicationes vocant ...si quid ita visum gentibus, populis, sapientibus viris, claris civibus, illustribus poetis (all yuipuou) referri potest.
 § 40 (as an instance of the appeals to 'authorities' mentioned in § 36 ), Neque est ignobile exemplum, Megareos ab Atheniensibus, quum de Salamine contenderent victos Homeri versu, qui tamen ipse non in omni editione reperitur, significaus Aiacem naves suas Atheniensibus iunxisse. The 'versus' or rather two verses here in question are, Il. B 557-8,
 фádaryes] which were quoted by Solon (and said to have been interpolated by him in the text of Homer for that purpose, Diogenes Laertius, Vit. Sol. §48) as an 'authority' in favour of the Athenian claim to the possession of Salamis. See Heyne, Paley, and Trollope's notes on the passage of Homer, Plut. Vit. Sol. c. Io, Strabo, Attica, Ix I. Plutarch says that the current opinion in his time attributed the interpolation of the line (th : second of the two) to Solon, though the Athenians denied it: in Strabo's time it was condemned by the critics: he enters at length into the question, and gives the reasons for rejecting the verse. Another well-known instance of the authority of a própouos, or distinguished man, is the proverbial aùròs ¿̀ $\phi$, ipse dixit, of the disciples of Pythagoras.
nal Teveideot 'vayरos k.r.ג.] Of this event, 'recent' at the time of Aristotle's writing, nothing more is known than we learn from this passage. 'Ex verbis his colligo', says Victorius, 'Tenedi insulae incolas cum Sigeensibus disceptantes usos et ipsos prisco teste Periandro: qui, quamvis multis antea saeculis mortuus esset, poema reliquerat quo praecepta quaedam ad beate vivendum, vinofīkas vocatae a Graecis, continebantur. Laertius qui vitam ipsius scripsit hoc narrat: in eo autem, ut suspicari licet, aliquid fuit quod causam Tenediorum adiuvaret.'

K入coфөิy] a mischievous profligate demagogue, who took a leading part in public affairs at Athens during the latter years of the Peloponnesian War. He was tried and condemned by the Council during the siege of Athens in 405 B.C. One of the results of the political rivalry between him and Critias, one of the leaders of the opposite party, was this charge which he brought against him, at some time not ascertained. The various references to him in Aristophanes, Xenophon, and the Orators, will be found in the article on him in Smith's Dict. of Biography, and other particulars respecting his habits and character in Meineke, Fragm. Com. Graec. I p. 171 seq, in the account of the play bearing his name, which Plato the Comic poet wrote to assail him.

Kpiriou] The person accused by Cleuphon was the well-known oli-

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garchical leader, one of the thirty tyrants, maternal uncle of Plato the philosopher, and great-grand-nephew of Solon, Plat. Charm. 155 A. He was son of Callaeschrus, ibid. 153 C , who was the son of another Critias, Son of Dropides, brother of Solon. Comp. Tim. 20 E.

Cleophon, in his accusation, took occasion to quote 'as from an authority' some elegiac verses of Solon from whose family he was descended, to shew that reckless licentiousness was hereditary in the race.


 'unbroken' horses and dogs, Xenophon, from äyetv, 'to train or educate').
 yoús yevopívo (Eupolis, Fr. Inc. Xxv. Meineke, Vol. II. p. 558). oiw aúrínroyos (or rò rriyos) ais dंबedyis (Pherecr. Fragm. Inc. xxix. Meineke, 1I 348). ívedyis $\sigma \times \omega \hat{\omega} \mu \mu a$, Eupolis, bis. Hence it appears that the primaxy seace-of the word is 'untamed or untameable', from a and $\theta a \lambda$ yew (on the analogy of ${ }^{\prime} \mu y^{\prime}{ }^{\prime}{ }^{\prime}$ unmixed', one who cannot be soothed, charmed, tamed; hence violent_ extravagant, excessive-Arist. Plut. 559, mapd $\tau \bar{\varphi}$
 core $\boldsymbol{y}^{\mathbf{c o s}}$, 'extravagantly fat'-and specially in the indulgence of the appetites and passions, reckless in character and conduct ; licentious, profi-


 less extravagance'. Plat. Rep. IV 424 E (the word is rare in Plato). Demosth. Olynth. II 23. 19, Phil. IV. 13I. II, c. Mid. 521.2 u. s., ap. eundem

elreiv $\mu 01$ ] This, and the following line of Solon's elegy, is quoted, with two variations from Aristotle's version, by Proclus ad Tim. 20 E,


the father of Critias being Solon's brother, Dropides. These verses, which were probally intended by the author as a compliment to the father, are misconstrued by the malicious Cleophon into a reflection on the son, whose recklessness and licentiousness had brought upon him his father's displeasure: the authority of Solon is appealed to to shew that the grandson inherited his grandfather's vices. Whether nupóórpuxt is another malicious perversion of Cleophon, on the hypothesis that red hair implies a licentious disposition, or depravity in general-as seems to have been the opinion of the Normans, who had the proverb, entre poil roux et felonie sentreportent grant compagnie, (Wace, Roman de Row, quoted by Sir F. Palgrave, Hist. of Norm. II 721)-or Aristotle, quoting from memory, has misquoted, more suo, cannot now be ascertained. At all events it is unlikely that Solon intended any such imputation on Critias' character, whatever may have been the case with Cleophon; for





Critias is evidently considered as a boy or very young man from the tone of the address or message, and Victorius shews from Theocr. Id. VIII. 3,
 of the Greeks was a beauty and not a deformity. It seems to me that Solon wrote saveórpext, as Proclus gives it, and that the other reading is due either to Cleophon's malice if we interpret it in deterius, or to Arr-
 The evidence of Critias' dor $\lambda$ yeti derived from the verses is plainly a false inference of Cleophon and not really contained in the original: the statement in Plat. Charm. 157 E , that Solon wrote Elegies in praise of 'the house of Critias', and spoke of its members as 'distinguished by personal beauty and virtue and all other so-called happiness', is altogether against any such supposition. Victorius, who regards the inference drawn by Cleophon as justified by the language of the verses, endeavours to reconcile this with the eulogistic character of the elegy, by the remark that Critias may have been an exception to the general good character of his family. Bergk, Poet. Lyr. Gr. p. 331, follows Proclus' version. The other variation, cireív mot, and einíevea, may be either another slip of Aristotle's memory, or cineiv mot a mere false reading of elripevat, the one being very easily mistaken for the other.

Lastly, $\mu$ oi, if it were retained, would be a good example of the datius ethicus corresponding in Greek to the familiar use of 'me' in the earlier English writers : as Shakespeare, Rob me the treasury; He smiled me in the face (Dame Quickly of Falstaff); See how this river comes me cranking in (Hotspur). [Abbott's Shaksp. Gr. § 220. s.]
§ 14. xp $\quad$ न $\mu 0 \lambda \dot{\prime}$ grot amongst whom Themistocles is included as the
 here denotes not merely professional soothsayers, but amateurs also who followed the diviner's craft. Herod., VII 14I, gives the oracle here quoted: the verses run thus, reixos Tparoyeví छúdevoy didoî cujpúosa Zè̀s $\mu$ oûvov
 pretation. The professional interpreters of the oracles are called $\chi$ р $\eta \sigma \mu-$入óyor by Herodotus.
al пароцiac, £̈नाер eipqrat] These words will not bear the ordinary
 not true. Therefore Victorius and Vater propose to render $\dot{\boldsymbol{E} \sigma \pi e \rho}$ as if it were oianep, huiuscemodi, 'proverbs are also used as evidence, such as has been mentioned', viz evidence of the future: and Muretus proposed rail rò ※̈rrep eipprac, "and the 'as has been said'", any general remark that has been habitually made, whether proverbial or not. We may follow Victorius in his explanation, without however supposing that sones is used in any but its literal and proper meaning 'proverbs are evidence, in the way that has been stated', evidence (that is) of the future.
 quotes the proverb at length, in two different forms, both of them cor-
 ford from the materials supplied by Suidas has put together the following


víтtos is патípa кreivas taîdas кara入einet] The verse is taken from Stasinus' Cypria: quoted by Clemens, Strom. vi 747. Düntzer, Fragm. Epic. Gr. p. 16. It is repeated II 21.11. Herod. I 155, Cyrus to Croesus, on hearing of the revolt of the Lydians, ómoios yáp $\mu \mathrm{ot}$ viv ye фaivo-
 xl 3, of Philip king of Macedon, father of Perseus, Postremo negare propalqm coepit satis tutum sibi quicquam esse nisi liberos corum, quos interfecisset, comprehensos in custodia haberet, et tempore alium alio tolleret

 II 185 (G.). Comp. Heracl. 1005, where it is put in the mouth of Eurystheus ; and Herc. Fur. 168, in that of Lycus. Plutarch has the proverb, vexpòs oủ dákvec.
 demagogue (so Harpocration and the Schol.), orator and political opponent of Demosthenes, who mentions him very frequently in de Cor., de F. Leg., and elsewhere. This Eubulus is omitted in Smith's Dict. of Biogr.; but Baiter and Sauppe, in their excellent Index Nominum (Orat. Att. III. Ind. Nom. pp. 48, 9), have furnished a complete list of all the references to him from the Greek Orators, Scholiasts, and Lexicographers, which in some degree supplies the place of a biography. See also Ruhnken, Hist. Crit. Or. Gr. p. 146 [and especially Arnold Schaefer, Demosthenes und seine Zeit, 1 173-191. s.]. He is attacked ahd apostrophized by Demosthenes, de F. Leg. §§ 290-293, and a passage of one of his speeches is referred to in §292. 'Eubulus in the law-court (at the trial) employed against Chares the saying of Plato (the Comic poet) against Archibius, that "the avowal of knavery (rascativy has-frowon in_the city": Meineke, in his Pratr. Comm. Gr. (Plat. Fragm. Inc. xli.) Vol. II 692, merely quotes this passage without attempting to restore the verse or explain the allusion. In his Hist. Crit. (Fr. Com. Gr. 1 161, note) he had proposed to substitute 'Ayíp pion for 'ApXißion in the text of












Aristotle, an opinion which is afterwards retracted in the other place referred to.
§ 16. nal ol $\mu$ erixovres... $\psi \in v i d e \sigma \theta a t]$ 'Those who share the danger' (with the person for whom they give evidence, i. e. are liable to the penal-

 reckoned amongst 'recent' or contemporary witnesses. That they are so is shewn by their actual presence in court, and the risk they consequently run. See Introd. p. 196, for the explanation of the remainder of the section. $\delta$ ó $\omega \sigma t v$. 'quia si credantur etiam mendaces falsique, non tantum si fuerint, plectuntur.' Victorius.
 ITeXvos niotss as available also in deliberative speaking, comp. § 3 , and the note.
§ 17. ol $\left.{ }^{1} \pi \sim 0 \in v\right]$ i.e., according to the Greek usage, those who give their evidence, not at a distance (as we say) but from a distance, measuring the distance from the object to the subject. See note on 1 i1. 16, p. 213.
mucrótaroc ol madacoi] Living witnesses may be corrupted, bribed to give false evidence: the ancient witnesses or authorities, appealed to in confirmation of statements or opinions, are inaccessible to corruption, and therefore most to be relied on.
 тьбто́рата, abstr. pro concr., for $\pi$ torol yépovres, and Choeph. 977, Eumen. 214, in the sense of 'pledge, guarantee, assurance') and in Empedocles and Clearchus and one or two late authors, is here no doubt connected with the rhetorical $\pi$ iorets, and means the assurances that are produced in the minds of the audience by the rhetorical proofs alleged. It can hardly be identifiable with the $\pi$ iorets themselves, though 'proofs' of some kind is the meaning required.














 (quoted by Victorius), Equidem vos abdxcam a testibus: neque huiws tudicii veritatem, quize mutari nullo modo potest, in voluntate kestium collocari sinam; quae facillime effingi, nullo negotio flecti ac detorqueri potest. Argumentis agemus; sigwis omni luce clarioribus crimina refellemus; res cum re, causa cum causa, ratio cum ratione puguabit. 'Probabilities can't be bribed to cheat (the judges), as witnesses can'.
oix ữod̀xa rd eikorra] 'probabilities are not responsible (liable to trial and penalty) like witnesses, and iherefore less to be trusted'. inódxor,


 or exposed to so and so) ; from uno' swb, 'under', 'subject to', either literally as indockios, or metaphorically as inevifuros, imoducos. It occurs in the Orators, frequently in Plat. Leges, Aesch. Eumen. 250 , vinodichos $\theta \lambda$ iec yoí$\sigma$ oat X
 be brought) either for ourselves or against the opposite party'; the indeterminate $\pi$ ref, 'about', 'concerning', takes its specific meaning from the words with which it is immediately joined; like the chameleon its
 j $\theta$ ovs, ' either to facts or character'; to support our own, and to invalidate and depreciate those of the opposite party.
 roupivns is supposed to agree). di入入̀́ (at any rate, at least) subaudi eumopeì $\gamma_{\text {e... ' 'For if }}$ we have no evidence as to the fact, either in agreement with our own side of the case, or opposed to that of the adverse party, at all events (we shall be sure to find plenty) as to character, (els, tending to, bearing on,) to establish, that is, either our own respectability or the opponent's worthlessness'. i $\mu$ o ${ }^{\prime}$ orey $\mu$ iv $\eta \varepsilon$ ' in agreement with', comp. II
 chapter, the sense is different, 'admitted', as in Plato and Arist. Rhet. 113.9 bis.











§ 19. iк rû̀ aìừ róruv.... íyopevy ' (the arguments on these subjects) $^{2}$ must be drawn from the same topics (i.e. the $i(t)$ ) as those from which we derive our enthymemes also'. See Introd. p. 198.
 $\lambda_{\text {áry }}$ ara. They are contracts, bonds, engagements, agreements of any kind between two or more parties. They are probably intended to include documentary evidence of all kinds, which is expressed by the Latin tabulae of Cicero and Quintilian. See on this head Quint. v 5.
$a \dot{\top} \dot{\varphi}$ ] 'for oneself'. Add this to the instances of av่roù, \&cc. for aviou and the rest, in notes on 11.12;17.35; and see the references there given.
' On the subject of contracts, arguments may be so far employed as to magnify or reduce (pull down, met. extenuate, depreciate, disparage (their value and importance), or (in other words) confirm or destroy their credit (or trustworthiness); if we have them (to produce) (xpifis iort sociuv) we must argue for their credit and validity (nuplas, their authoritative character); in the case of (if they apply to, are on the side of) the opposite party, the reverse'.
§ 21. кaraokevá§ew] is a technical term of dialectics, denoting the constructive process and object of argumentation or syllogism, viz. to establish some positive conclusion, to maintain or confirm a thesis; and opposed to dvafreváferv, which represents the 'subversive', 'destructive' (dvagrevá̧civ 'to undo', comp. $\lambda$ vécu 'to break up, or dissolve a thing into its elements'), 'refutative' syllogism or reasoning which proves a negative. On these terms see further in Introd. p. 268, and note (on p. 267) on the same page.
' Now in regard of establishing their credit or discrediting them, the treatment of this in no respect differs from that of the witnesses; for according to the character of those whose names are attached to, subscribed to, (inscribed upon, as iniypanца, the title of a crime or a legal prosecution, 1 13.9,) the document, or contract, or who have it in their keeping, the measure (degree) of credit or trustworthiness of the contract is determined (lit. by them are the contracts made trustworthy)'.





 $22 \rho \epsilon i ̂ ~ \sigma v \nu \theta_{\eta} \kappa \eta \nu$ ，$\tau 0 u ̀ s$

rovirots $\pi$ rorai］is a somewhat irregular expression，meaning roroúrب


The degree of integrity of those who have the document in their custody is a measure of the probability of its having been tampered with or not．
＇The existence of the contract being admitted，if the document be our own（§ 26），we must magnify it（cry it up ；increase，exaggerate，its value and importance）；for the contract（we may say）is a law，special and partial ；and it is not the contracts that give authority，or validity，to the law，but the laws to the contracts which are made in conformity with them（legally）＇．Either of these arguments may be urged to shew that a covenant has the sanction of law，and shares its authority．＇And， speaking generally，the law itself is a kind of contract，and therefore any one who violates（disobeys）the provisions（understand $\sigma v \theta^{\prime} \hat{j}_{j n g}$ after $\dot{\alpha} \pi \cdot \sigma r e i)$ of a contract or makes away with it，is in fact subverting，doing away with，the laws＇．This doctrine has already been stated in other
 is therefore the positive，written，local or national law，varying in differ－ ent societies，and enacted by each of them severally for mutual conve－ nience，under an implied contract to observe and maintain them．

Analogous to this view of law as a contract is the theory，in Politics， of．the Social Contract，which has been maintained by Locke，Rousseau， and many others．This view of the origin of the social organization and of government，is founded upon the natural freedom and equality of men； and assumes a common agrecment amongst the members of a state to live and act together for purposes of self－defence and mutual advantage in obedience to laws and an executive authority which the theory sup－ poses to have emanated originally from themselves，and to be invalid without their consent．Similar to this are the＇laws of war＇，which give． the conqueror certain rights over the conquered，amongst them that of enslaving，and result from＇a sort of international compact，or universal



 жo入itas．
 ＇are transacted＇．On бuva入入áy ${ }^{\prime}$ ara，＇the ordinary dealings＇of men with



one another，especially in trade and exchange of commodities，see note on 11.9.

кal rà dкoúбıa］＇all voluntary transactions＇，in general，is added because $\sigma v y a \lambda \lambda a ́ \gamma \mu a r a ~ m a y ~ i n c ' u d e ~ n \grave{~ d x o v i \sigma i a, ~ f r a u d s, ~ c r i m e s, ~ o f f e n c e s, ~}$ which may arise in men＇s dealings with one another：Eth．Nic．v 5






xpeia］＇usus＇as xpī夭日at＇uti＇，＇intercourse＇，the use that men make of one another．

 leciv．In Rhet．II 23．30，rò ìnırodīs elvas expresses＇superficiality＇．It seems to be said of things that＇lie on the surface，things prominent and conspicuous，so as to be seen by every one＇，ぁ̈ore ruve or adivas 88 riv aùra．This explanation is confirmed by the substitution of eveecip ${ }^{\text {a }}$ ．a，to express the same notion，in § 25 infra（so Victorius）．If this be so，the verb should be written＇ंबrıv，and not đ̈rtv（for＂§єorıv）as in Bekker＇s text．
 by later and non－Attic writers；＇veteribus illis．．．innmo入īs adverbii vicem fuit，Herod． 1 187，Arist．Plut．1207，Eccles．1108，Thucyd．vi 96，et com－ pluries Xenophon．Neque eius substantivi alius tum casus in usu fuit＇． Lobeck ad Phryn．p．126－7．It is an adverb of place or position，after the analogy of＇A $\theta_{\eta v i n y ~ ' a t ~ A t h e n s ', ~ r a t a s ~ X e t p o s ~(A e s c h . ~ P . V .720) ' ~ o n ~ t h e ~}^{\text {a }}$ left hand＇，\＆cc．；see Matth．Gr．Gr．§ 377 ：（this seems to be omitted in Jelf＇s Grammar，though there are articles on the＇genitive of position＇； § 524 － 528 ，which however is illustrated only by the genitive of relative position，not that which expresses place itself．The genitive，it is to be presumed，is in both cases partitive，denoting a polit in space ；）it is also

 ＇surface，superficies＇is formed by the addition of the definite article，as

 mo入aios and intro入ácety（to be on the surface），have three different senses all arising from the properties attributable to things on the surface；either （i）＇popular＇，＇prevalent＇，＇fashionable＇，＇current＇，like things that come to the top，come uppermost，and so＇prevail＇over the rest，as $\delta$＇ $\mathfrak{\xi}$ at má $\lambda_{\iota} \sigma \tau a$











 and the preceding) 'conspicuous', 'prominent', compared with such as are deep down, or buried, out of sight; Rhet. bis, Hist. Anim. quoted above




 crac is doubtful; for an enthymeme may be too easy to follow and therefore unacceptable, either because it is intellectually 'superficial' (this I think is the more probable meaning, because more applicable to an intellectual process) or because it is 'prominent and conspicuous', saute

 obvious and apparent, the clearest and plainest) irepl rò róxov kal roùs
 dos; (evident on the surface). In these two last instances the literal sense of the word is uppermost.
§ 23. 'But if the contract or document be opposed to us, and (on the side) of the adverse party, first of all, the same arguments are suitable as may be used in contending against an adverse law'. ärep is a cognate
 xívalto, for which the neuter plural, expressing the details of the contention, or the arguments employed in it, is substituted. ' For it is absurd to suppose that we are not bound to obey the laws, if their constitution is defective and the framers of them have been led into error, and yet that (in like cases) contracts are necessarily binding (that it is necessary to obey or observe them)'. [For кeipevol...titipevoc compare note on I 1.7, p. io. S.]
§ 24. elf ött] The gist of the topic is to be found in Introd. p. 200.
Bpaßevrisl the umpire in the games, who awards the prise to the successful candidate, i. e. to the most deserving, is here used as an image of the judge who dispenses justice to the competitors in a court of law. It is he that is to be appealed to, not a mere contract, which has no regard for the general principles of justice. Justice (ws ouxacórepoy) must prevail over contracts when they are in conflict. Dem., C. 111 36. 7, hasthe
 prose form ; Apaßcis belongs to the Poets.
roviro] is 'what we are talking about', 'that which is before us', det. ктuкळs; the contract, namely, and its contents.

















§ 25. 'And again, justice cannot be perverted (have its nature altered) by fraud or compulsion like a contract, because it is natural (constancy and uniformity are characteristic of nature); whereas contracts are undertaken, entered into, under the influence of deceit (under false pretences) and compulsion.' The two genitives in construction follow owvejkat, 'contracts of men deceived are made'.
olveious $\bar{\dagger}$ d ${ }^{2} \lambda$ dorpiots] 'domestic or foreign'.
 take into account the consequences of carrying its provisions into effect, so far as they affect the judges, whose 'interest' or 'advantage' (or the reverse) may be involved in them: when these results happen to be adverse to the judges' interest, arguments from this source may be employed to invalidate the contract; 'and all other topics of the same kind, (may be used) (which need not be enumerated) because they are equally easy to observe (with the preceding)', too clear to need enumeration.
§ 26. oikciac] 'of one's own', 'on our side', supr. § 21.

ràj $\theta \hat{\eta} \lambda_{\text {éroop] }}$ These words have been variously interpreted. Muretus omitted rà $\lambda \eta \theta \hat{\eta}$, as contrary to Aristotle's opinion on the subject of torture-which however must be gathered from the words of the text, and not assumed a priori, and the text altered in conformity with the hypo-thesis-evidently supposing that if retained it must be construed with dea $\lambda_{\text {úo }}$ and not with $\lambda$ érovy. There can be no doubt that the latter is right, and that the words do express Aristotle's opinion upon the use of






riotdy iv pacdeos. Ac].
torture, by asserting the truth and right of the arguments directed against the use of it. [On 'torture' see C. R. Kennedy's Demosthenes, Vol. Iv., pp. 382-391, appendix. s.]
dtaxaprepoüvtes] (thoroughly, duá) obstinately, resolutely, persisting, (holding out).
 ' against others') in the expectation of a speedier release'.

On the passage which in ms $A^{\cdot}$ concludes this section, and is printed in the note of the Oxford reprint of Bekker's ist ed., see in Introd. p. 20r, and the note. It is omitted by Bekker. Spengel, On the Rhetoric, in Bav. Trans. 185 I , p. 5 I , thinks that it is an extract from some other treatise on Rhetoric, introduced by the transcribers. The last sentence at all events must be corrupt, being as it stands devoid of meaning and connexion with the preceding. Brandis in his tract in Schneidewin's Philologus, rv i. p. 43, informs us that his Anonymous Annotator found the passage in the MSS that he used, though he thinks that Victorius was right in rejecting it as an interpolation. Victorius, a man whose judgment is to be relied on, writes thus. 'Delevi autem quia adulterinos putavi; aut enim ex alio scriptore artis haec pars sumta est (so Spengel), aut Scholion olim fuit quod importune post in contextum verborum Aristotelis translatum sit ;...Qui accurate quae supra a philosopho iam tradita erant perpendit ipsius haec non esse manifesto intelligit; cuncta enim ille quae ad quaestiones pertinentia dicere voluerat iam explicaverat; sententia vero quae his viribus exponitur superioribus continetur; vox etiam iuncta illic est quae sermonem Aristotelis non redolet, viz.
 que haec locutio, e. c. rais $\psi v x a i s$ övres duvaroí, locutionis Aristotelicae dissimilis videtur'. .
 dant in the later Greek writers, see note on 19.14, 'oaths admit of a fourfold division'.

On oaths, see the corresponding chapter of Quintilian, v 6. Rhet. ad Alex. c. 17 (18). A full explanation of the connexion and general meaning of this and the following sections to the end of the Chapter will be found in the Introd. pp. 202-205, to which the reader is referred; so









that we may confine ourselves here as before to the details that require notice. One puzzling circumstance which pervades this Chapter, tending to confusion, and adding to the difficulties arising from the extreme brevity of the expression ('brevis esse laborat obscurus fit', is especially true of Aristotle here, as indeed in most of his writings,) it may be worth while to draw attention to; and that is, that throughout it both plaintiff and defendant are made to argue in the third person; to avoid this, you may may be substituted for Aristotle's he to designate the person who is in immediate possession of the argument, whichever side of the case he may be at the time maintaining.

On the technical expressions belonging to öpko, see note in Introd. p. 202, 8.8 óval öproy, in Aristotle and the Orators, is to offer or tender an oath, $\lambda a \mu \beta$ ávect (or $\delta$ é $\chi \in \sigma \theta a u$, in the Orators), to accept, or take it.
el j $\mu \dot{\prime} \mu о \sigma \mathrm{rac}$ oúros] 'when this (the oath above mentioned) has been
 represented by yeyevŋmévos in § 32.
 else which the opponent is unjustly withholding), which is added in three MSS, apparently from a marginal gloss.

The case is: you refuse to tender the oath to the adverse party because it is of no use; he is so little embarrassed by scruples of conscience that he will take the oath and keep the money, so that you gain nothing by your motion. rovis de 'but the judges, you think, if he do not swear, will decide against him'.

Another reason, or topic, for refusing to tender the oath is, that 'this form of risk', the risk that one runs by leaving the matter to, by throwing
 ferred (кpeitrov), viz. to the risk incurred of losing your suit by tendering oath to the adversary, who will probably perjure himself: you therefore refer your case to the decision of the judges, because you can trust them, but not the other.
 mating it against money, at so much money value), which is degrading to the dignity and sanctity of the oath, and therefore it is that you refuse to take it, and not from any baser motive.

катшبо́бато] катонvívаи (öpкоу) occurs in Arist. Ran. 305, 306, appa-


 ö $\iota \iota$ ov̉k $\imath \sigma \eta \pi \rho \dot{g}$

${ }^{1}$ ot infro. ${ }^{2} \mu \hbar$. infra.
rently as a mere synonym of the simple verb, $\Delta$. кaitcs кarínoбov. Y. af

 voice is found again in Herod. vi 65, but in a different sense 'to swear against', with a genitive following. Here, and in the two other cases quoted above, the kará seems to have an intensive force, expressing the 'binding force' of an oath. This sense of kard comes from the original, physical, notion of ' keeping down'.

For the interpretation of this obscure topic, see Introd. p. 203. The obscurity is a little heightened by Bekker's punctuation, and may be very slightly cleared up by reading $\mu \boldsymbol{j} \dot{j}^{\prime} \mu{ }^{\prime} \sigma u s \delta^{\prime}$ ovi. (with colon instead of full stop) and at the end of the next clause rò $\mu \boldsymbol{j}$. (with full stop instead of colon). There is a considerably closer connexion between the two clauses which he separates by a full stop, than there is between the two which are divided only by a colon.

The intention of the topic is to shew the purity and disinterestedness of the speaker's motives in refusing to take the oath.
sail rò roù Zevopávous] Xenophanes of Colophon, the founder of the

 was the most distinguished representative, who converted the theological conception of universal being, represented by Xenophanes as God, into the metaphysical conception of the Universe as One, iv rò drappears to have conveyed his philosophical doctrines in hexameter verse, an example subsequently followed by Parmenides and Empedocles. He also wrote elegies and iambics, the latter directed against Homer and Hesiod, whose manner of speaking about the Gods he disapproved. Diog. Laert. IX 2. 18. The verse quoted here is a trochaic tetrameter; on which Mullach remarks, Fragm. Phil. Gr. Xenoph. Fr. 25, p. 106, note, 'cuius versiculi hiatus in voce aviry caesurae excusationem habet, prima autem syllaba in derßeí producitur ad aliorum nominum velut déávaros similitudinem'. So Karsten, Xenophanes, p. 79. The work which contained this verse is unknown. Mullach and Karsten agree in the opinion that this verse is all that belongs to Xenophanes in Aristotle's reference; the succeeding illustration is his own. All that is repeated in the converse of Xenophanes' maxim, $\S 30$, is what is contained in the verse itself. I have no doubt they are right. On Xenophanes and his philosophy, besides the two works already referred to, which contain collections of the surviving fragments, see the histories of Greek Philosophy, by Brandis, Zeller, Ritter, Butler, with Dr Thompson's notes and the rest ; also Grote's Plato, Vol. I. pp. 16-19.








$d \lambda \lambda^{\prime}$ ómoia nal el] In this illustration of Xenophanes' dictum, the parallel case proposed by Aristotie, the strong man is the unscrupulous or godless man, who is ready to swear anything, true or false; he has the same advantage over the scrupulous, godfearing man, in a challenge to swear, as the strong man would have over the weak in a challenge to fight.
 the aorist active and passive of rúmra. Eth. N. V 5.4, p. 1132 28, ci



 ruwrov followed by day rardfy. For further illustrations see Dem. Select Private Orations, II. pp. 207-211, Excursus on the defective verb riশTल. S.]
 to swear to what he knows to be false), but not the other'. (In this case, if you accept the oath, or consent to swear) 'Xenophanes' dictum may be inverted (turned round to the other side), and you may say, that this is the fair way of proceeding, for the godless man to tender the oath, and the godfearing to take it'; (because the latter won't perjure himself, the other will). meraorpíqaus, in § 25 , was used in a somewhat different sense 'to pervert' justice ; 'and (you may add) it is monstrous for you to refuse to take it yourself, in a matter in which ( $\dot{v} \pi i \rho \dot{\omega} \boldsymbol{\nu}$ ) you ${ }^{1}$ require those gentlemen (the judges, namely,) to take an oath before they decide'. The judges were sworn upon entering the court to decide 'according to the best of their judgment', \& 5 , supra.
§ 31. 'If you tender the oath, (you argue) that to entrust the case to the decision of heaven is an act of piety; and that (your opponent) ought to require no other judges than himself; and therefore (lit. you say this because, yáp) you offer him the decision of the matter'. Comp. Quint. v 6. 4, At is qui defert alioqui agere modeste videtur quum litis adversarium iudicem faciat, et ewm cuius cognitio est onere liberat, qui profecto alieno iurciurando stari quam suo mavult. Victorius thinks that this is borrowed from Aristotle.

1 I have translated this 'the adversary' in the Introd. p. 203, but I now think that it should rather be referred to the same person as avirov.

AR. I.












§ 32. ข่ ${ }^{\prime}$ ' aủrov̂] 'by yourself', supra, § 20, note on I 1. 12, 17.35.
ixoviotoy yàp rò döxeiv] On the 'voluntary' and 'involuntary' as affecting the character of actions, see Eth. Nic. III cc. 1, 2, 3, where the subject is thoroughly discussed; and on the degrees of criminality, and the distinction of wrong actions done with malice prepense, éx $\pi$ povoias, or with deliberate purpose, $\pi$ нooupívet, and those which are due to accident, mistake, $\mathbf{d} \pi a r \dot{\eta}$, or the momentary blindness of passion, see Eth. N. V 10, both of which passages have already been more than once referred to. On Bia as a supposed source of action, 1 10. 14, and the Appendix ' On the seven sources of action', Introd. p. 225.

The term 'injustice' or 'criminality' can only be applied to actions voluntary in the proper sense of the word : the pleader who has executed two contracts, one conflicting with the other, and thus violated his engagements, argues that this was done in one or the other instance, either by force or fraud, compulsion or mistake, and that this exempts him from responsibility.
 ouvopầ, ouviōeiv, ouviévat, \&c., and similarly comprehendere, colligere, all convey the notion of 'gathering' facts together, for the purpose of comparison, and so drawing a conclusion of some kind. $\sigma u v a ́ y e c t ~ a n d ~ \sigma u \lambda \lambda o-~$ rifeotau are to 'draw logical inferences', from facts or premisses which you put together, and so by comparison are led to infer some general conclusion respecting them.

 the vulgar misapprehension arising chiefly therefrom, have brought on Euripides a most baseless charge of immorality, so far at least as it is grounded upon this line. Cicero, de Off. III 29, has seen and exposed the fallacy. All the moralists without exception admit that the essence of a lie resides not in the words, but in the intention and moral purpose; and the verse when properly interpreted asserts no more than this.



 єौлєєєу.
 тобаüта.]

See Paley's note. It seems to me that the Hippolytus in its second and altered form, as we now have it, is, with the exception of the one fatal blot of Phaedra's false charge which brings about the death of the hero, one of the most moral and high-toned, as it certainly is one of the very best, of the extant tragedies of Euripides.

seal roîs nepos xpêtrac duóoustes] 'the laws also (as well as other things) are not enforced till an oath has been taken', 'the laws in marticular are only enforced after an oath has been taken'.



elpriode] See on I 11.29.

## APPENDIX (A)

ON

## A11§17.

$\sigma \tau o \rho \gamma \eta{ }^{\prime}, \stackrel{\varphi}{\epsilon} \rho \omega s, \phi \iota \lambda \epsilon i ̂ v, \dot{\alpha} \gamma \alpha \pi a ̂ \nu$.
[The following Appendix has already appeared as an article in the Journal of Philology, Vol. i No. I (1868), pp. 88-93. s.]

There are four terms in Greek which represent different states or degrees of affection, fondness, liking, love, in its most general acceptation. Of these $\sigma$ ropprín and $\quad$ ews are co-ordinate terms, in this respect, that they both designate what Aristotle calls $\pi \dot{a} \theta \eta$, instinctive affections, implanted in sentient beings by nature.
oropy is the natural and instinctive affection that subsists between parent and child; irrational, but moral ; an äloyov wáOos,
 Meineke, Fr. Comm. Gr. iv 63. Fr. Inc. 108. orépyev, Oed. R. 1023, coreptev of parental affection, Oed. Col. 1529. Plat. Legg. vi 754 B,

 !̣yov, тоиิто $\delta \underset{\text { è }}{\text { фuбuкón, which describes an instinctive feeling, though }}$ not here the specially parental; comp. viII 14, 1161618 , oi. yoveis $\mu$ ìv

 twice substituted, lines 27, 28. But the verb is by no means confined to this special sense, and passes readily into the more general signification of 'liking' in the modified form of 'acquiescence' and 'toleration' (to acquiesce in, put up with, as aiveiv and ajamêv); and is even applied to the sexual affection, as Xen. Symp. viII 14 and 21 ; and in Ar. Eth. N. viII 5, 1157 a 29, it is used to express the instinctive liking or love which children feel for one another, $\delta i^{i} \eta \delta o v i \eta v a \lambda \lambda j \lambda^{\prime} \lambda_{0}$
 or animal affection, is sometimes substituted for $\sigma$ rop $\eta^{\eta}$, as Eur. Fragm. Erecth. 19 (Dind.), ap. Stob. 77, p. 454, ¿pâte $\mu \eta$ ppòs тaî̃es' wis oủk

"pus differs from the preceding only in respect of its special direction and the absence of moral character: otherwise it is an äloyos ö $\rho \in \xi \iota s$, a natural, animal impulse ; the sexual form of inutupia,

 بота, Tim. 4 A ; and though it is doubtless applied metaphorically, in the sense of a 'passionate desire' similar to the animal appetite, to represent intellectual and moral desires, as when Plato says doây
 literally applied to its object, it seldom or never means anything else.

 kind of $\phi$ lia : the individual passion opposed to 'affection' or 'love' in general. The reverse of this-the ordinary distinction of the two
 $\boldsymbol{\alpha} \nu \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{d} \omega \bar{\omega} \boldsymbol{\sigma}$, that is, they feel the highest (moral) affections for those who have inspired them with the sensual passion. Comp. 255 E , калeî 88





 appears very clearly in Eth. Nic. ix 1, sub init., 1164 a 3 seq., id $\delta d$
 love, in such passages as Eur. Fragm. Dict. vili (Dind., Wagner), $\dot{d} \lambda \lambda^{\prime}$




 animal impulse which is represented as sublimed and purified, and transformed (by a metaphor) into a moral appetite, just as the "pus in Plato's Phaedrus and Symposium is converted by the same process into a passion of philosophical enthusiasm.
$\phi \lambda \epsilon \hat{v}$ and $\phi \lambda^{\prime} \dot{a}$ are designations of 'love' in its widest and most comprehensive sense. The verb may even stand as a synonym of


 includes the whole family of likings and fondnesses, natural and acquired, which are attached to special and particular classes of objects, expressed by compound adjectives; as фथ入otoov̂ros, 'one
 фidetrapos, фìavros, \&c. In the eighth and ninth books of the Nic. Eth. ф ilia embraces every kind of moral and intellectual affection, instinctive or acquired, and is identified both with orépyev (virr 14, 1161 a 27, 28) and dyanq̣u-see for example viII 3 , where all three are employed as equivalent terms (in56a14,16), daq̂y, the sensual appetite being expressly distinguished from them by its own name, b 2, 4 In Plato, Phaedrus 24 I c, D, it comprehends even \$pos, Tiv
 the same verse dyazâv is used in the same sense (ws $\lambda_{\text {úrou a ápv' }}$
 expresses every shade and variety and gradation of the feeling of love in its moral and intellectual aspects from the instinctive affection of the parent, to the highest and ideal form of love; which according to the Greek notion was not that which subsists between the two opposite sexes, but that between two members of the superior sex; and again within that the friendship of two good men. The definition of \$uía in the Rhetoric, II 4.2 , is 'the wishing any one what you think good, for his sake and not for your own' (this is repeated from the Ethics), 'and the inclination or tendency to do such things to the best of your power'. This is disinterested affection, love in its moral aspect, and also in some degree intellectual, in so far as it implies choice : and in this respect corresponds with the Latin diligere, or deligere, to choose the object of your affection, which implies a judgment of his value. The analysis as well as the definition of the $\pi \dot{d} \theta_{0}$ in the Rhetoric excludes all consideration of ${ }^{p}$ ous, and in fact it is treated rather as friendship than as love.

We next come to the distinction between фideir and ajpaq̣̂v. Döderlein, Lat. Syn. p. 103, and Rost and Palm in their Lexicon,
 make the distinctive character of áyaṇ̃̂v an intellectual form of love derived from 'admiration' or a high estimate of the merits of the person loved. Whether this be the true derivation of the word or not, this notion of selection or affection, conceived, on the ground of admiration, respect, and esteem, certainly enters into its meaning. Xen. Mem. in 7.9 is decisive on this point. Speaking of the relations of a master to his female servants, Socrates says, dà de mpoora-

 same conception of value (estimation) and hence esterm, as the foundation of love-complete $\phi \lambda_{i} a_{\text {-appears in a }}$ a passage of Plato's

 is the ground of the esteem and affection）； $\boldsymbol{\delta} \delta \lambda \mu \eta$ tov $\delta=0$＇$\mu$ coos ou＇$\delta \dot{e}$


I have looked over，with the help of an index，the instances of the word which occur in the Nicomachean Ethics，and find that in every case it may，and in many must，have this sense of an acquired affection，founded upon the judgment or intellectual faculty，which is indicated by the term＇esteem＇，and thereby distinguished from the irrational appetite poos，and the purely emotional，and usually moral affection，фi八ia．In I 3，init． 1095 b17，the esteem which the vulgar have for a life of sensual enjoyment is represented as the result of a judgment about pleasure：and the same is the case with $\delta i^{\circ}$ avid deanâral at the end of the Chapter，＇they are valued，prized， esteemed，in and for themselves＇．In III 13， $1118 b 4$ ，it is distin－ guished from xaiperv，the instinctive affection，in the sense of to ＇estimate or prize＇；and at the end of c． 14 there is a very marked and decisive exemplification of this sense of the word，$\dot{\delta} \gamma \dot{\mathrm{a}}$ р oviros
 ＇their value＇，shews clearly what determines the particular character of the affection．In further illustration of this I will merely refer to other places of the Ethics．In ix 7，from 1167632 onwards，four examples of the word in this signification occur nearly together：in one of them it is actually contrasted with pheir ：and $\times 7,1177 \quad 62$ ， and 9 ， 1179 a 28 ，where it is placed in juxtaposition with $\tau \mu \omega \hat{v} \boldsymbol{r a s}$ ， another word which conveys the notion of＇value＇，are two clear instances．divanầ therefore as contrasted with tpầ and фedcîv repre－ sents the Latin diligere as opposed to amare ${ }^{1}$ ．

It may be questioned whether this is the primary and original sense of aya⿱亠乂⿰丿⺄⿱㇒日勺十，since the meaning that appears most prominently and conspicuously in the Homeric use of it and ayamáacur is that of the external manifestations and signs of affection shewn in＇wel－ coming＇a friend or stranger，or in fondling and caressing as a father his child，Odys．$\pi^{\prime} 17$ ：and the word is the precise counter－ part of aioná̧co日ac See the examples in Damm＇s Lexicon，which all have this character ；except Odys．$\phi^{\prime}$ 289，where it bears the sense， common in the later language，and shared with aivair and orepperv， of acquiescing in，putting up with，contentment．But as it seems easier and simpler to derive the notion of the external indications of

[^15]welcome from an internal sense or judgment, previously acquired, of the worth or value of one whom you receive so kindly, than the reverse process, the derivation of the feeling, whether it be esteem or affection, from the external manifestations of it, I prefer regarding the intellectual judgment as the basis of the distinction between it and the other forms of affection, and 'esteem' as its primary and original signification. If Döderlein's derivation from äyapau, and words of that family, could be depended upon, no doubt would be left upon this question.

In common usage, however, it is, like $\phi$ deitr, by no means confined to a single sense. In Plato's Sympos. 180 B , it takes the place of $\ell \rho \hat{q} \nu$ in the representation of the lowest and most sensual form of the passion or appetite of love, örav ó ipúpuvos tòv dpaotìv à yađă



We therefore arrive at the conclusion in respect of these terms, expressive of different kinds of love or affection, that, although they are all of them more or less interchangeable in the ordinary language, yet in the strict and proper application of them they may be thus distinguished :-
oropry and ipws are alike in that they are natural, spontaneous, and instinctive; but "pos is properly a sensual appetite, and oropry' a moral affection.
$\phi \quad \lambda_{i}$, the most comprehensive (in its ordinary use) of the four, belongs to the emotional part of our nature, includes all grades of the natural instinctive affection from a liking for wine to the perfect friendship (the highest form of love) between good man and good man; and in this its highest and normal sense acquires a moral aspect.
dyauăy (dyánך does not appear in any writers earlier than those of [the Septuagint and] N. T.) gives the intellectual aspect of love, in the shape of esteem; no longer a mere emotion; but an affection acquired and conceived after an exercise of judgment, consisting in a valuation or estimate formed of the worth of the object of preference.

## APPENDIX (B)

ON

## A 12 § 22.

## On an irregular formation of the Greek passive verb.

[The following Appendix has, like the last, already been allowed to appear in the Journal of Philology, Vol. I No. I (1868), pp. 93-97. The additions in square brackets are taken from the margin of Mr Cope's own copy of the Journal, now in Mr Sandys' possession. s.]
$\phi \theta$ ovioiotar, $\phi \theta$ ovớ $\mu$ crous, is an example of the irregular formation of the passive, which is not seldom found in other Greek authors, but is so much more frequent in Aristotle's writings that it may perhaps be regarded as one of the characteristics of his style. In the Greek Grammars that I have consulted, with the exception of that of Dr. Donaldson, who only bestows on it a passing observation ${ }^{2}$, it is left unnoticed, and I will therefore illustrate it by some examples that I have collected.

The best account of it that I have found is given in Madvig's Latin Grammar, Ch. III. on the dative case, § 244 b , and Obs. 3, 4, Engl. Transl. ; his explanation of the Latin usage will apply equally well to the Greek.

The transitive verb, which expresses a direct action of subject on object-the relation of the two being inverted in the passive, in which agent becomes patient and patient agent, I strike A, A is struck by me-is the only kind that according to strict grammatical rule admits of the passive formation: verbs neuter, in which the action ends in itself, to walk, to run, and verbs which transmit the action, but indirectly-these are verbs which in Greek and Latin 'govern' other cases than the accusative (the case which expresses the direct action)-cannot, properly speaking, be converted into passives.

Speaking of the dative case, 'the object of reference', in Latin, Madvig says, § 244 b , "this cannot, like the proper object, become the subject with the passive, and such verbs (like those that are intransitive) can only be used impersonally in the passive, invidetur, nemini noctur." (I am not sure that there is any exact analogy to this in Greek, ámapráveral is a doubtful case.) Obs. 4 gives a few exceptions. "To make such a dative the subject, and to use the verb of it personally in the passive, is a rare irregularity; invideor, Horace, A. P. 56, credor, Ov. Trist iII 10. 25, medendis corporibus, Liv. vili 36," add regnari, Tac. Hist. 1 16, virginibus bacchata Lacaenis Taygeta, Virg. Georg. II 487, regnata, Hor. Od. II 6. II, iII 29. 27, Ovid. Heroid. x 69. 2, imperor, Hor. Ep. 15. 21. Heusinger ad Cic. de Off. in 4 gives a list of neuter verbs which become passives, but does not make the necessary distinctions : most of those which he quotes are used as impersonals. [On Latin participles of this formation, see Munro, on Lucr. II 156, 363.]

Obs. 2, "Some few verbs are used both with the accusative and the dative (in applying this to the Greek, for dative, must be substituted, 'some other case with or without a preposition',) without any perceptible difference in their signification, adulor, aemulor, despero, praestolor." In Greek $\theta$ opvßeĩoau ( $\dot{\mu}$ às $\theta$ opußdíre, Plat. Phaedr. 245 в), à

In English a similar license is admitted, particularly in verbs which are constructed with prepositions, 'do as you would be done by', or 'done unto', Locke; Essay, Bk. I ch. 3, $\$ 4$ and 7 , 'to be sent for', 'gone for', 'looked for', 'to be relied upon' (hence the vulgar reliable, unaccountable, and similar irregularities). See an observation on this subject in Marsh's Lect. on the Engl. Langwage, Lect. xviir § 14. "The rejection of inflexions, and especially the want of a passive voice, have compelled the use of some very complex and awkward expressions...such a thing has been gone through with, to be taken notice of, to be lost sight.of, are really compound, or rather agglutinate, passives, \&c." [See Thring, Exercises in Grammar, p. 3, 'I am told'.]

I subjoin some instances of this irregular passive from various Greek authors. Euripides, Ion 87, Пapryoدádas $\delta$ 'aßarot корифаì


 genitive of the person, which had formed the object of the active verb, may become the subject of the passive. Thuc. i 126. Xen.


[^16]On an irregular formation of the Greek passive verb． 299
The deponents aipeiofas and iveiotac are converted into passives in Xen．Memor．III 2．3，Ar．Pol．vi（iv）45， 1299 a 19，aipô̂vrac $\delta \mathrm{E}$ кai mpeoßcural（this may possibly be justified by the transitive use of alpeiv，but in a different sense，the middle being necessary to the notion of＇choosing＇，or＇taking for oneself＇）．Plat．Phaedr． 69 B（in Ast＇s note several other examples of iveíotar pass．from Xenoph．and Plat．） sim．aंтapveíotar passive，Ar．Anal．Pr．I 32， 47 b 2，3， 4 avaßa－ Ocis，Xen．de re equestr．III 4，of a horse that is mounted（the regular constr．is ivaßaívelv＇\＆$\phi$＇isxov，or＇$\phi^{\prime}$＇ixrov）．ivaßaivetv in Hom．with the accus．has a diff．sense，＇to go up to＇．）drealeiotan Conv．Iv 3r．$X^{\text {aderaivecooan，to be regarded，or treated，with angry }}$ feeling，Plat．Rep． 1337 A．$\sigma$ woudáteroan to be eagerly pursued， （several other examples in Ast＇s Lexicon 8．v．dorovoarpheyous，Isocr．

入cíotar，Phaedr． 275 E，Dem．de Cor．§ 155，（in a law）．owoubá̧cootah， катафроvкíण $\theta$ ar，Ar．Rhet．II［2．16］3．7，ขंтeptxeodar，Rhet． 1 7．2，3，and Eth．N．IV 8， 11246 10，（vireptxav rt or rwá do occur， but rarely）．Oopußeír日at，I 2．10， 11 23．30，Topic．A 12， 105 a 16，


 ib．10， 13106 16．Xen．Symp．IV 29，Isocr．c．Demon． 8 30，$\pi 6$
 ＇to be participated in＇，Arist．Metaph．A 9， 9906 30，Top．$\Delta$ 19r

 a 18．ivvrápxco日ar（an unusually strange form），Anal．Post．I 4， 73 6 18．（Waitz ad loc．）кary＞opcíolab passim ap．Arist．（Waitz ad
 N．X 4， 1175 a 10 ；Plato，Crat． 404 ；dvretum $\eta \mu$ ivos（Heindorf）Phae－ drus， 246 c （with Thompson＇s note）；avdoretau，Soph．Phil．140； Homer，Od．IV 177 ；жара入oyíferau，de Soph．Elench． 165 a．169． кexapiotow in Plato，Phaedrus， 250 C ，rò aiodavó $\mu \mathrm{cvov}$ ，Rep．II． 375 A．］

[^17]duapráveotai certainly occurs as a pass., frequently in Sophocles and Plato, Eurip. Troad. 1028, Ar. Eth. Nic. Iv 9, 1125 a 19, in the form $\dot{\eta} \mu a p r \eta \mu t r o s ;$ and in some other forms which are undoubt-
 Hil 3, IIII a 35, á aprøөévra, (also a дартávera, as il 5, 1106 b 26, and elsewhere, which in this place from the opposition to кaтop日oirac, line 30 , seems more likely to be passive than middle) : but in those cases where the choice between passive and middle is open, and the
 difficult to decide between the two. Homer certainly employs the middle, Od. IX ${ }^{12}$ 12, $\dot{\mu} \mu a \rho \tau \dot{\eta} \sigma e \sigma \theta a u$; and there seems no positive objection to the interpretation of some of the forms employed by Plato and Aristote as middle. (Ast in his Lexicon ranks all of them in Plato amongst the passives.) If the forms in question, ${ }^{\mu} \mu a p r a v e c t a c ~$ \&c., are regarded as passive, the accusative, which in this case becomes the nomin. to the passive verb, is the cognate, and not the direct, accusative. The object of the erroneous proceeding is the
 ject to the passive.

## APPENDIX (C)

ON
A 15 § 23.
On ei ov.
Hermann on Viger, p. 833, n. 309, followed by Matthiae on Eur. Med. 87, defends this combination of al with the direct negative instead of $\mu \eta^{\prime}$ against Elmsley, who holds it to be inadmissible, on the ground that, when it occurs, the negative does not belong to the hypothetical conjunction, but is attached closely to the word which it negatives, so as to combine with it one negative notion; as in
 is equivalent to кcolvects: in which cases the direct and not the hypothetical form of the negative is properly used to express an abstract negation.

But this explanation, though it is well adapted to the passage of the Ajax ${ }^{1}$ quoted in support of it, is not universally applicable, and requires therefore to be supplemented by another and a different solution. For example, in Plat. Phaedo 62 A , we have in two consecutive sentences, first al ovió́rote, and secondly al $\mu \eta{ }^{\prime}$ ö $\sigma$ óv ioth, and both after the same word $\theta$ aupaotov. Now according to
 tive here is just as much an abstract negation of óvov as oùx dầv is of dâv in the Ajax, the one 'unhallowed' as the other 'to forbid': the same rule ought to be equally applicable to both; but it is not, and therefore this explanation of the distinction in this case breaks down.

The explanation, that I would add, as more generally applicable, is this. It is universally acknowledged that si does not always pre-

[^18]serve its hypothetical force, but may be put in the place of ört or ©is to express a simple fact; or of inec, 'since', as a hypothetical consequence, where however no doubt is implied; or of mórepov 'whether', as an alternative, after ' $\rho \omega \pi \underline{q} \nu$ and similar verbs of questioning. See Matth. Gr. Gr. §6i7. 2 ; Viger, p. 504, c. vili § 6. 3, and the passages quoted by Hoogeveen and Zeune in the note; Jelf (Kühner), Gr. Gr. § 804 9; Buttm. Ind. to Mid. el pro öt post cioívah aioxúveotal (Buttm. does not mean that the usage is confined to these two verbs, but merely that these happened to be the only two instances of it in this speech of Dem.); Id. in Ind. ad Plat. dial. iv 'dl in re certa, et citra hypothesin, valet siquidem (da) Men. c. 3. d (p. 72 A ) ci avcouppra.' Now it seems to me that whenever al is used in this non-hypothetical sense, it naturally and properly is construed with the direct negative, just as ört and wis, or dred or mórepor, would be, and in the same sense. And I appeal again to the passage of the Phaedo, where, as I think, in default of this explanation, there is no reasonable way of accounting for the variation of ov and $\mu \dot{\eta}$ in the two cases after the same word, $\theta a v \mu a \sigma t o r v . ~$ In the first sentence the hypothesis is altogether discarded, and the translation is, 'perhaps it will be surprising to you that this alone...and that it never happens, \&c.': in the second, the hypothetical form is retained, though the sense is lost, and al is still 'if'; 'it seems perhaps surprising if (as is the fact nevertheless, of which however there is no doubt) it is not allowed to these same men to do themselves a service'. Now there is a special class of words, like aioxpóv, Selvór, ätorov, Oavuaoróv, $\theta$ auráscur, which are habitually followed (especially in the Orators) by ci in the sense of örb and are sometimes accompanied by its attendant $\boldsymbol{v}^{\circ}$ : still, although exact accuracy seems to require the direct negative in these cases, the ordinary fondness for indefinite and hypothetical expressions, which has been noticed as characteristic of Greek habits of thought and speech (the use of the indefinite
 Dem. c. Lept. 464, et sim.), prevails so far that in the great majority of cases the $\mu \eta$ is retained. In Medea 87 (one of the lines on which Herm. writes his note) al toúaסe $\gamma^{\prime}$ ávīs oiveč oú orépyec тaryip; ai is certainly equivalent to $\mathbf{i n e} \boldsymbol{e}^{\prime}$ and ov technically correct (though Hermann's rule might also apply; as is cince in the verse quoted Rhet. IL 23. 1, citicp yà oúbé к.т.入. This is so clear, that Elmsley, who condemns ei oi altogether, proposes to read here drai for sïre. (Note ad Med. 87.) Hermann's example from Thucyd. 1 121, $\delta$ ecwov av ai $\eta$;
 ing to him, are equivalent to кapreprioovouv and фewóceta, is much more reasonably and naturally explained on the other principle; of the two verbs, the first being in fact no part of the hypothesis at all, and with the second oi being justified by the meaning of ch which is
equivalent to ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{T}$ ь. Herm. adds, however (note on Elms. Med. 87), "Obiter adicimus, etiam ubi al an significat ('whether or no', a common signification of the particle; where again no hypothesis is implied, not merely an alternative) recte sequi ov, ut apud Plat. Protag. 341 B, si nulla est negationis ad affirmationem oppositio." ci oíc aioxúvopal. On Elms. Med. 348, he quotes, as exemplifying
 This seems to me no instance of it at all; and as it is equally unexplained on my principle, it must be regarded as an exceptional case, and remain without explanation. All the rest of the examples quoted by Herm. l. c. from Herodotus and the Orators, in illustration of his theory, (with one exception) are instances of al 'that' after $\delta$ atvo'v.

 am quite at a loss to perceive; but on the other principle the explanation is most clear and satisfactory. Andocides is defending

 member of the alternative the speaker means to represent this as no admissible hypothesis-in fact he says so himself, каì то̂̀то î $\mu \hat{\imath} \boldsymbol{\jmath}$ ámo$\delta e i \kappa v \nu \mu c \quad \sigma a \phi \hat{\omega} \varsigma-a n d$ therefore no hypothesis at all? It is therefore to be rendered, 'but the fact being that I have committed no offence', and is a signal example of the inapplicability of Hermann's rule.

 position, but is stated as a fact of past time, and contrasted with what he may possibly do at present. The same applies to Aesch. c. Ctesiph.




I will conclude this note with two examples of a parallel case in which äv with the optative is found following ei, contrary to the ordinary rule of Greek grammar. One occurs in Dem. c. Lept. p. 475,
 $\dot{i} \pi i \tau \tau \hat{\varphi} \delta^{\prime} \dot{a} \phi e \lambda e ́ \sigma \theta a r ~ к . \tau . \lambda .$, where the contrasted $\mu \hat{v} v$ and $\delta \dot{e ́}$ (on which Buttm. Gr. Gr. and Index to Mid.) shew that the first of the two members is independent of the supposition: the other in Aesch. c.


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[^0]:     yivos, species or genus, whichever you please. In any classification the same member may be either genus or species, according as it is regarded from above or below : Physics and Mathematics, for example, are either species in relation to the genus Philosophy, or again genera in relation to the subordinate species, Psychology (so all the ancient philosophers) and Natural History of the one, and Geometry and Arithmetic of the other. Only the summum genus and the infima species are not thus interchangeable.
     any the wiser, will convey no intelligence or instruction to any one, about any class of things'. This is the dodagxalia or genuine instruction that
    
    
    
     drepydiSourah- - $\mu \phi$ poov belongs to the class of adjectives compounded with iv, in which the preposition expresses the indwelling or inherence of something in something else, ${ }^{*} \mu \psi v \times o s$ (with soul in it, containing life, animated),
    
     ${ }^{7}$ 'хочта к.т. $\lambda$.
     as in sense, naturally, like Írepos, dráфopos, дıaф̣́́pon, et sim., takes the same construction, with the genitive. On the comparative form of ${ }^{2} \lambda \lambda_{0}$ see Donaldson, New Crat. $\$ 8$ 165, 166.
    

[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ Of this so-called 'figure', yeoyma, the illicit conjunction of the two heterogeneous notions or expressions under one vinculum, there are in fact two varieties, explained and abundantly illustrated from the works of Tacitus by Bötticher in his Lex. Tacit., Proleg. de Stili Taciti brevitate, p. Ixxvinl sq., oúd入ŋұıs and sev̂jua proper. The figure in general is thus described, 'qua aut genere aut personis aut alio quo modo diversa uno eodemque constructionis genere comprahenduntur'; but as I have failed to enter into the distinction which Bötticher makes between the two varieties I will substitute my own explanation of the difference. In oindn $\boldsymbol{v}_{\mathrm{c}}$ s the two terms are united in one construction with a third, to which one is referred literally, the other metaphorically, or at all events in different senses. This appears in the instances given, as dissimulationem nax at lascivia exemerat: nocte ac lactitia incaluisse: praeda famaque onnsti: mixti

[^2]:    resemblance is sometimes so close-see, for example, Aristotle's account of the origin and use of money in 19 above referred to, and of the three earliest stages of civilisation indicated in c. 8, the hunting, the pastoral or nomad, and the agricultural stage (though it is true that Smith, and with him Mill, Pol. Econ. u. s., inverts the order of the two first and adds a fourth, the commercial stage), that it seems almost impossible that the notions at least should not have been suggested by Aristotle, though as far as I am aware Smith never mentions his name.

[^3]:    ${ }^{1}$ Schrader quotes ${ }^{\text {CCic. de Fin. } 111 \text {, non ast igitur voluplas bonum. Hoc ne }}$ statuam quidem dicturam pater aichat, si loqui posset. V. 14, curum ctiam rerwm quas terra gignit educatio quaedam et perfectio est -ut ipsac vites, si loqui passent, ila se tractandas tuendasque esse faterentur. Add Aesch. Agam. 37, ulxos $\delta^{\prime}$ aúròs el
    

[^4]:    ${ }^{1}$ If rods cal d $\boldsymbol{\lambda}$ fou are here intended to include 'many' and 'few', mo dol sal idioms as they most probably are, since they occur in the Categories and are wanted to complete the list, we must extend the riv rojlâv $\mu \hat{\delta} \gamma \in \theta 0 s$ to number,
    

[^5]:    ${ }^{1}$ Victorius, perhaps rightly, explains $\mu \eta$ dperij and $\mu \dot{\eta}$ saxla as states of growth and development, which have not yet reached their 'end', the formed sks, but are mere dea0l $\sigma \in t s$, transient dispositions, and so far iuferior.

[^6]:    
    
    
    
     indicative and imperative. $\pi$ rígets are referred to the general head of rapoivura.

[^7]:    ${ }^{1}$ As $\phi$ dots is derived from фaivar, so of course may aixbфaots be formedfrom droфalvelv.

[^8]:    1 This however is common to all threc, democracy, oligarchy, aristocracy;
    
    

[^9]:    ' It is Brandis' 'Anonymus.' See his paper in Schneidewin's Philologus, ivip. 43.

[^10]:    ${ }^{1}$ Bp. Fitzgerald (ap. Grant, ad Eth. N. VI 13. 3) remarks, on Eth. N. III 8. 6 , that Aristotle in referring to Socrates prefixes the article when he speaks of him as Plato's interlocutor and representative, and omits it when he has the real historical Socrates in his mind. This is no doubt the general (Grant says, invariable) rale; but I have noted one exception in Pol. V (viIi) 7, 1342 b 23 , where we find Ecoxpdret without the article in a reference to Plato's Republic, 111398 e. The rule is extended to other Platonic characters borrowed from history, as rdy'A proroqdryv (the Aristophanes of the Symposium), Pol. II 4, 12626 it, and \& Tlpacor (Plato's Timseus, not the real personage), de Anima A 3, 406626.

[^11]:    ${ }^{1}$ dxoulyun $\mathrm{rd} \rho \mathrm{foúcuy}$ (when these are held fast by us, when we have mastered
    

[^12]:    ${ }^{1}$ This application of the term torsos to ${ }^{2} \mu$ os is to be distinguished from the ordinary meaning of it in this combination, as, for instance, Dem. de Cor. 8211 ,

[^13]:    ${ }^{1}$ That pleasure is attendant upon every act of sensation is stated in Eth. Nic.
    
     statement of the Rhetoric which identifies the two, just as Eudemus in the 7th book of the Nic. Eth. identifies pleasure with the infereca, of which in Aristotle's soth book it is only the concomitant. And there is a precisely similar overstatement here of the nature of the фartaola, as compared with the description of it in the de Anima, where it is said to be a kind of sensation, instead of closely connected with it. See the following note, on partaola.

[^14]:    râv äँcoorv] The fact that words (substantives, adjectives, adverbs, and
    
     often substituted for the primitive forms, particularly with the definite article as ol aúródey (see many instances of this idiom in. Index to Arnold's
     phrases where the termination seems to have entirely lost its force, has been long known and noticed: see examples in Wunder's note, Antig. 519, and Lobeck, Phrys. p. 128: but the explanation of this usage, so far as I know, is still wanting. It is to be found in an observation of
    
     non a vidente et audiente ad id quod ille videt et audit, sed ab isto ad hunc metiri': they reverse our order of proceeding; we measure from ourselves to the object, the Greeks from the nbject to themselves. The application of this simple fact to all the cases resembling those above given solves the whole mystery of the idiom, which, as Lobeck says, olime vel barbatos magistros obstupefecit. (Lobeck is speaking merely of the knowledge of the fact; he himself assigns no reason.) Rhet. I 15. 16, of 8 girmeav, II 6. 23, roùs armoav. In Eurip. Ion 585-6 (Dind.) both points
    
     tion of éryíer opopéven be, 'seen' nat 'from a near point' where we are, but 'seen', the sight of them proceeding, from a near point, where they are. Arist. Pol. VII (V.I) 41 13L9 a 8, gives an excellent illustration of this difference between the Greek and our point of view : Aristotle is speaking of some restrictions on the occupation of land: \% rò odeos $\mu \eta$ \&feivan ke-
     róduv-or, as we say, 'within a certain distance from the city'. Plat.
     tance, but from a distance, as seex from a distance), Rep. VII 523 B, rd wóp-
    
     Soph. Oed. Col. 505, roinciove äloovs, Philoct. 27, doкळ yap oiov itras
    
     8.38, 9.12 (Bergk, Fr. Lyr. Gr.), dryúdev íráuevo. Examples might be multiplied indefinitely.
     on a false analogy from an imaginary $d \pi \infty$ by Göttling on Ar. Pol. II in, p. 311. -See Lobeck on Phryn. p. 8-10, who shews that both forms are good. The mSS vary in the prose form, but äreocy is found in verse (Eurip. and Aristoph.), which guarantees its existence.

[^15]:    ${ }^{1}$ Ernesti，Clav．Cic．s．v．diligere magis ad iudicium，amare vero ad intimum animi sensum pertinet．See Döderlein，Lat．Syn．p． 97 seq，，and Trench，New Test．Syy．p． 43 seq．
    ${ }^{2}$ Dr Lightfoot in Cambridge Fournal of Classical and Sacred Philology，No．7， Vol．jiII（1857）p．92，regards this usage of Homer as determining the primary and original sense of the word．

[^16]:    ${ }^{1}$ I rather think that this is not the right explanation of the construction in these two cases; at all events it may be otherwise explained. The verbs dratpot

[^17]:    reve and dreod $\mu$ vocs are both transitive，and therefore the passive form is regular． The accusative is the local accusative，which expresses the seat of any affection or quality，and follows adjectives and verbs neuter and passive；Jelf（Kuhner），Gr． Gr．$\delta 545.6$ ，supposes with great probability that this is a mere extension of the ordinary cognate accusative and its varieties，dyaOds riby $\psi u x \not t p$ ，rd moderuxd，
    
    
     the seat of，the place as it were in which it is deposited or lodged ；the trust（viz． the watch）committed to them．［Similarly rrorevecoal $\tau$ ，to be entrusted with something，the thing being the local seat of the trust，that in which the trust resides．］

[^18]:    1 Eur. Ion, 388,
    
    
    can doubtless be explained on this principle. And the same may be said of cl $8^{\circ}$ oúk $\boldsymbol{j}^{7}$, quoted by Herm. on Med. 348 (on Elms.) from Antiphan. ap. Athen. III 99 A.

